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Law Enforcement Arrests in Florida's Public Schools

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Walden University
2021

Abstract

Law Enforcement Arrests in Florida's Public Schools

by

Patricia A. Henry

MA, Heidelberg College, 2002

BS, University of Toledo, 1996

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2021

Abstract

Unarmed, nonviolent public school students and sworn law enforcement officers carrying firearms and nightsticks making school-based arrests in a southeastern school district may contribute to the United States maintaining its distinction as the world leader in its use of incarceration. On any given day, nearly 60,000 youth under age 18 are incarcerated in juvenile jails and prisons in the United States. Arrest records for students are barriers to their college, employment, housing, military and immigration status. School Resource Officers are the entry point to the criminal justice system and the direct targeting of vulnerable groups by way of arrests. There is limited scholarly research that specifically states the required cultural competency training for SROs in the United States. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to explore whether there was a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the percentage of school-based arrests of marginalized students in a southeastern school district. Cultural competence theory served as the framework for this research. Data collected were based on government archival records retrieved from the public domain for school years (2016-2019) that resulted in the identification of 10,058 school-based arrests by SROs in one southeastern public K to 12 school district. Descriptive statistics and linear regression were used to answer the research question. While statistically significant relationships were not supported by current data, the results of this study highlighted positive social change through the need for additional research on the cultural competency training of SROs in public schools with large populations of marginalized students.

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Dedication

I am dedicating my most prized article to my Heavenly Father, who guided me through this process, helped me to overcome the barriers and obligations, and provided me with patience in this maddening dissertation journey.

To my dad Rev. Leonard Mosley Sr., who expired before I could complete this milestone in my life but still talk to daily, I did it Dad, I went back and finished my last remaining chapters! And to my daughter Akilah, I love you with all my heart. May our relationship grow stronger daily.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The United States' school districts and juvenile courts were never intended to

operate in a collaborative paradigm. However, schools have outsourced discipline to

juvenile courts and officers in schools (Nelson & Lind, 2015). The relationship between

law enforcement and schools in the United States has evolved significantly over the last

60 years (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017). A partnership among schools and courts has

developed through a punitive and harmful framework, to the detriment of many

vulnerable children and adolescents (Mallett, 2015). Under the auspices of protecting

children, the United States has accepted the infringement of law enforcement into one of

the most important civic institutions: schools (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). Over the past

few decades, armed police officers, commonly referred to as school resource officers

(SRO), have become a ubiquitous presence in elementary, middle, and high schools

(Merkwae, 2015), and school-based arrests fall more harshly on students of color

(Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017).

The origins of SRO programs in the United States can be traced back to

community policing strategies implemented in Flint, Michigan, during the 1950s and as

the National Association of School Resource Officers noted, "school-based policing is

the fastest growing area of law enforcement" (as cited in Merkwae, 2015, p. 158). There

are currently an estimated 20,000 to 30,000 officers patrolling elementary, middle, and

high schools in the United States (Javdani, 2019), and federal, state, and local support

have all fueled the growth of school policing (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). For the first

time ever, there are more police officers working in Florida schools -- 3,650 -- than there

are school nurses, who number 2,286 (American Civil Liberties Union [ACLU], 2020). Student arrests are rising (American Civil Liberties Union [ACLU], 2020). SROs are in schools in growing numbers, and they are mostly untrained to work with youth, do not understand how to adjust to educational environments, receive almost no meaningful oversight, and lack even rudimentary policies to guide their decision-making (Thurau & Wald, 2019). For example, a 15-year-old who was being trafficked for sex was arrested for violating a court order to attend school (Morris, 2016). Statewide, school system police departments employ officers who have been terminated or have resigned under the cloud of an investigation at twice the rate of local police departments, according to an investigation by The Atlanta Journal-Constitution (as cited in Ernsthausen, 2017).

Public schools in the United States have been increasingly transformed into high security environments, complete with surveillance technologies, security forces, and harsh punishments (Bracy, 2010) however, some researchers have asserted that in school settings, security measures may act as capable guardians because they impart a sense of surveillance and implicitly or explicitly communicate to students that their behaviors are monitored (Bracy, 2010; Fisher et al., 2018). SROs may have a positive impact on some students, but that is not the reality for many others (Whitefoot, 2020).

Many inner city, urban schools are viewed as synonymous with correctional facilities, and the path to prison often begins in childhood and in schools segregated by race and class (Dohy, 2016; Dolan et al., 2018). SROs in schools are first and foremost there to enforce criminal laws, and virtually every violation of a school rule can be considered a criminal act if viewed through a police-first lens and by officers with

troubled histories (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017; Schrade, 2017). For example, one 13-year-old unarmed underaged (Males, 2021) middle school student was arrested and charged with interfering with the educational process for generating fake burps that made the other students laugh (Bugden, 2017).

Background

Facing arrest and automatic removal from school sets youth on a trajectory of school disconnection and justice system involvement (Goldstein et al., 2019). Schools continue to privilege and prioritize rules and enforcement in urban schools (Basile, 2019). During the 2018-19 school year, the number of youth arrests at school increased 8% in Florida's school districts (ACLU, 2020). Arrests can have negative consequences on students, including restriction of employment opportunities, denial of college admission, ineligibility to serve in the military, and loss of public housing assistance (ACLU, 2020; McTier et al., 2020; Goldstein et al., 2019). SROs arrested elementary-aged kids 345 times, including an arrest of a 5-year-old and five arrests of 6-year-olds, during the 2018-2019 school year (ACLU, 2020). More than 9,000 youths arrested, or 1 in 5, have not been found guilty according to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (as cited in Sawyer, 2019).

Police enforcement and presence are concentrated in school-based arrests (Magnani & Wray, 2006; McNeal, 2016). Incidents of armed, uniformed police in schools affecting physical arrests in American classrooms seem to be ever more frequent in news cycles, likely due to the ease of capturing these events on video via cell phones of bystanders (Pigott et al., 2018). One example is Sylvester Robinson, who had nearly 30 years of law enforcement experience when he joined Clayton School District in

February 2015, but records showed he also brought with him a history of complaints regarding his use of force (Ernsthausen, 2017) which could lead to more forceful arrests in Clayton School District. Schools with police had almost twice as many arrests as schools without police, particularly for disorderly conduct – an offense where authorities have a high degree of discretion – suggesting that police presence might lead to arrests for offenses that would not have resulted in arrest otherwise (Homer & Fisher, 2020). Police have a high degree of discretion prior to making arrests which is why Minneapolis Public Schools cut ties with law enforcement and SROs shortly after the arrest of a black Minneapolis male, George Floyd, by a white Minneapolis police officer who knelt on his neck for nearly nine minutes (Whitefoot, 2020) and died.

The association between school-based police and arrest rates may differ by student gender. For example, when examining gender differences in punishment, boys are generally disciplined more harshly than girls, and Black boys are policed like no other race (Davis, 2017, p. 58; Homer & Fisher, 2020). Urban schools may purposefully serve as spaces where boys of color can be hyper-monitored, overpoliced, and subjected to constant control (Basile, 2020). Drawn from outside of the school's geographic and cultural communities, policing in schools reflects policing outside schools (Basile et al., 2019; Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). This is particularly problematic when these schools exist in urban communities of color (Basile, 2020). On average boys tend to exhibit behaviors that are traditionally inappropriate in school contexts even though they may be developmentally normative, thus the trend of criminalizing school behaviors (Coble, 2018; Homer & Fisher, 2020). Researchers have shown that the mere presence of SROs

in school increases the likelihood that a student will be referred to law enforcement for adolescent behavior (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017).

There have been an increasing number of incidents in which SROs have been used to manage student disciplinary issues with disastrous results (Ryan et al., 2017). The use of pepper spray and other force to control suspects does not fit neatly into a school environment (Schrade, 2017). School settings have become a significant vehicle through which confrontations between armed SROs and students in schools are becoming more frequent and arrests are up (Basile et al., 2019; Keierleber, 2015). Despite growing awareness of these unjust practices police are the entry point to the criminal justice system, and if it is the child's first arrest, children are less likely to understand their legal rights and more likely to give incriminating statements (Basile, 2020; Cole & Smith, 2007; Stinson et al., 2016). A first arrest during high school almost doubles the odds of the youth dropping out of school (Coble, 2018).

The United States underinvests in its children and public schools, and all across the United States, law enforcement personnel is hired (Scully, 2015; Smeeding & Thevenot, 2016). When federal or state grants runs out, localities are expected to maintain the school police officer's position through local resources (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). The cost of maintaining a single SRO can be more than $100,000 per year, and actual spending totals $12,750 per pupil (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). For example, the Leesburg Police Department provides six SROs for Loudoun County Public Schools at a cost of more than $915,000 per year (Lynn, 2020) and ACLU of Washington found Spokane Public Schools paid over a million dollars in one year for school police officers'

salaries and benefits (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). Judges and youth advocates are seeing a "surge in criminal charges against children for misbehavior that many believe is better handled in the principal's office" in schools where police officers are assigned as SROs (May et al., 2018, p. 89).

Little is known about the responsibilities, roles, training, and influence of school police (Javdani, 2019). The responsibilities of SROs often differ from school to school, and numerous researchers have argued that the implementation of SROs into public schools is not beneficial but is in fact harmful to the students (Jackson, 2002; Mayer & Leone, 1999; Merkwae, 2015; Petteruti, 2011; Rimer, 2004). Growing numbers of districts employ SROs to patrol school hallways, often with little or no training in working with youth, and as a result, children are far more likely to be subjective to school-based arrests, the majority of which are for nonviolent offenses (Duhaime, 2018).

There is limited scholarly research that specifically states the required cultural competency training for SROs in the United States other than having a high school diploma, and police who neither trained nor certified in counseling or social work can carry on with traditional policing models (Henry, 2019; Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). Some officers are sent into schools without a policy manual and almost no training to deal with students (Schrade, 2017). Due to these imbalances in research, there is not, however, a preponderance of literature on cultural competency training in the administration of public services like law enforcement (Basile et al., 2019; Fletcher et al., 2019; Keierleber, 2015). SROs lack the proper training needed to interact effectively with children, especially when they are Black, Hispanic, or disabled (Keierleber, 2015). For example,

one 17-year-old high school athlete was fatally shot in the back by an off-duty Chicago police who was then subsequently stationed as a SRO at a predominately black high school (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017).

There is a dearth of empirical proof indicating the benefits of cultural competency training (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2016). It has been widely suggested that cultural competency training is an individual's core requirement for working effectively with culturally diverse people (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2016) and according to Teske (2017) some individuals lack cultural competency (not aware of their individual biases), not tested on training, and not required to renew training at any time during their career or required to have special training in child development or adolescent behavioral management (Alabama Appleseed, 2019; Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). Understanding young people and the difference between discipline problems and criminal activity is required (Schrade, 2017). Lack of training has led to too many arrests and criminalizing students in matters that should be handled administratively (Schrade, 2017).

When the majority of police officers are White males present in inner cities and urban spaces with large minority populations of students a cultural mismatch between the police and the students could increase the likelihood that students will be detained for misunderstandings between parties and the longstanding perception of police as an oppressive force (Dohy, 2016). Police in schools can criminalize students for behavioral issues that police are ill equipped to address (Urban Institute, 2018).

SROs' varied training experiences, evolving relationships with school administrators, and different policing models can have severe consequences for students

already at a disproportionate risk of becoming involved with the justice system
(Merkwae, 2015). Finn et al. (2005) stated that SROs learn their responsibilities by trial
and error on the job because having gone from the patrol division directly to the juvenile
bureau, they had had no previous experience working with juveniles or working as SROs.
SROs' lack of cultural competency and implicit biases are often applied towards
minorities (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2016). These conditions did not occur by accident
(Basile, 2020).

SROs are part of the larger school-to-prison pipeline that pushes students out of
school and behind bars (Bell, 2018). SROs need to be trained in cultural competency
(Scully, 2015). There was a large body of research documenting how disproportionally
underserved students are arrested for nonviolent offenses (Christle et al., 2005; Giroux,
2003; Mukuria, 2002; Pigott et al., 2018). In this study, I explored the training of SROs
employed in public schools in the state of Florida with high populations of marginalized
students.

Problem Statement

A problem exists in some public school districts that employ SROs who may lack
cultural competency training when interacting with large populations of marginalized
students. These public school districts employ SROs who may not have had cultural
competency training.

SROs need to be trained in cultural competency in the consequences of an arrest
for a child (Scully, 2015) because school policing practices can result in the exclusion of
students through a high rate of court summonses, which affect minority students more

often than their White counterparts (Dohy, 2016). Little has been written about how SROs make their decisions as to whether a student should be arrested for alleged misbehavior (Wolf, 2014).

A comprehensive understanding how SROs wield their arrest powers is essential (Wolf, 2014). According to Bernstein (2014), the public schools have become a feeder system for juvenile lockups. It is low-income and poorly educated Black Americans SROs often arrest, a persistent climate of dehumanization (Bell, 2018; Bernstein, 2014; Ramprashad, 2019). The pathway that takes students from schools today and places them in jails tomorrow needs to be closed to enhance the understanding of SROs (Thompson, 2016; Wolf, 2014). Having SROs and other police in schools causes more harm than good and is a counterproductive public policy (Justice Policy Institute, 2011; Mendel, 2011). In a child's mind, early encounters with the police, both personal and vicariously, have an impact on the way young Black males respond to SROs and SROs' enforcement (Davis, 2017). Through this study, I hope to mitigate the population of marginalized students from incarceration and guide policymakers on decisions regarding SROs' curriculum on cultural competency. To date, few scholarly articles exist that directly investigated the SROs' cultural competency training when making school-based arrests of marginalized students. To understand what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in a public southeastern school district a quantitative study was conducted to determine the patterns and trends in school-based arrests by SROs of marginalized students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to explore whether there was a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the percentage of school-based arrests of marginalized students in a southeastern public K to 12 school district. Research supports public school children being arrested and sent to juvenile detention, but school children are being severely punished for relatively minor infractions (May et al., 2018; Mizel et al., 2016).

Significance of Study

In this section, I highlight the benefits of this research. I explored SROs in the state of Florida, specifically having cultural competency training, prior to being employed in public schools with high populations of marginalized students. This study was also conducted to explore how to mitigate school-based arrests of marginalized students who are disproportionally arrested in some public schools by SROs.

The results of this study provide empirical support on the impact of cultural competency training for SROs and the need for that training. This information provides insight into developing trainings, policies, and programs as well as potentially impacting school-based arrests of marginalized students in the future.

This study can benefit school administrators to understand behavioral issues in the classroom prior to having a student arrested and to include cultural competency training as professional development. This study can also benefit school administrators to amend their zero-tolerance policy on school discipline. In addition, this study can benefit police departments to adopt and implement cultural competency training into their curriculum

bi-monthly and to provide mandatory certification in cultural competency training for SROs employed in public schools on an annual basis. Moreover, this study can benefit other researchers engaged in studying SROs in public schools and cultural competency training.

Research Question and Hypotheses

Drawing from the cultural competence theory, I addressed the following research question using quantitative correlational research:

Research Question (RQ)1: What statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools.

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this research was based on cultural competency theory. Given historical racism and socioeconomic differences, a majority of educational leaders and public-school personnel share neither the culture nor the values of the population they service (Winters, 1993). The concept of cultural sensitivity gained momentum in the 1970s, but the term *cultural competence* as a skill entered the lexicon

in the 1980s and 1990s (Ashkinazy, 2017, p. 13). Cultural competency is most often defined as a "set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, organization, or among professionals that enables effective work in cross-cultural situations" (Ashkinazy, 2017, p. 13). According to Clay (2010), becoming culturally competent requires (a) learning about yourself, your historical roots, beliefs, and values (b) learning about different cultures; (c) interacting with diverse groups; and (d) attending diversity focus conferences. Cultural competency is being aware of your individual biases (Teske, 2017).

Cultural competency of service providers is an important asset for combating inequities and encouraging well-being (Garrido et al., 2019). Training should be offered throughout a professional's career and be able to improve and sustain the cultural competency of SROs assigned to schools with greater levels of social and educational disadvantage (Kaihlanen et al., 2019; Lynch et al., 2016).

Nature of the Study

I selected a quantitative correlational research design for this study to best reflect the trends and patterns that exist in disproportionate school-based arrests of marginalized students by SROs in public schools. Quantitative research methods are concerned with collecting and analyzing data that are structured and can be represented numerically (Goertzen, 2017). Qualitative research was not selected because qualitative research analyzes data from direct fieldwork observations, in-depth, open-ended interviews, and written documents (see Patton, 2003).

A correlational design was used that determined there is an existing relationship between cultural competency training of SROs and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students. A correlational design examines the extent to which two variables are associated, or correlated, with each other (Storage, 2019). A correlational design is also appropriate for exploring problems about the relationships between constructs, construct dimensions, and items on a scale. For example, the age of a child may be related to the height, and the adult occupation may be related to their income level (Cohen et al., 1999). The decision to not use quasi-experiments was because in quasi-experiments, the investigator does not employ experimental manipulation or random assignment of subjects to conditions because the events have already occurred or they are inherently not manipulable (see Rudestam & Newton, 2007).

Definitions

Criminalization: A conceptual framework to acknowledge the background of boys of color in elementary school (Basile et al., 2019).

Critical race: Critical race concentrates more explicitly on the role of law "in the construction and maintenance of social domination and subordination" of African Americans (Ramprashad, 2019, p. 8).

Cultural competency: Requires respect for, and understanding of, diverse ethnic and cultural groups, their histories, traditions, beliefs and value system (Riccucci, 2016).

Implicit biases: Attitudes or stereotypes that people tend to carry around with them unconsciously (Hossain, 2018).

Marginalized student: Black and brown students from underserved communities struggling economically. (Ratcliffe, 2015).

National Juvenile Defender Center: The National Juvenile Defender Center was created in late 1990 to improve access to counsel and quality of representation for children in the justice system (https://njdc.info/about-njdc/).

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention: Established to support local and state efforts to prevent delinquency and improve the juvenile justice system. (https://ojjdp.ojp.gov/mpg/literature- review/interactions-youth-law-enforcement.pdf).

Quasi: Not yet convicted (McDonald, 1992).

Assumptions

In this research, I assumed that there was a relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the disproportionate school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's K to 12 public schools. I also assumed that SROs in Florida's school districts would adopt and implement cultural competency training into their required curriculum. Another assumption was that SROs adopting cultural competency training would mitigate school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's K to 12 public school districts. Furthermore, I assumed that the SROs employed in Florida's K to 12 public school districts did not have cultural competency training.

In addition, I assumed that the archival data on law enforcement arrests in public schools were accurately collected and entered. I assumed that school-based arrests in Florida's K to 12 public school districts was performed through the lens of law enforcement first so that this information would be included in the archival data. I also

assumed schools with police in Florida's K to 12 public school districts did not exercise a high degree of discretion but acted objectively. Another assumption was that law enforcement in the state of Florida is not required to have annual specialized training in cultural competency although training efforts may have been partial or not even reported.

Scope and Delimitations

This research provided information regarding the statistical relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the percentage of school based arrests of marginalized students. I did not address marginalized students in private schools, Catholic schools, charter schools, or virtual schools. The study was limited to one public southeastern K to 12 school district between school years 2016 to 2019 and students 7 to 16 years old. I used archived secondary data by collecting and aggregating data from the fourth largest school district in the United States located in a southeastern school district. The objective of this study was to adopt policies that could mitigate the school-based arrests of marginalized students by SROs in public schools.

Limitations of the Study

A limitation for this study was that it only included data from one large public K to 12 southeastern school district. Therefore, results may not be generalizable to other states nor school districts of smaller populations.

Another limitation was not knowing the SROs' decision-making process or circumstances when arresting a student. Examples that provided additional insight included questions such as the following: Was the student involved in gang activity on school ground? Did the SRO implement the zero-tolerance policy toward the student?

Was the SRO's bias towards the marginalize student a factor in arresting the student?

Was the student being bullied by someone else to cause an arrest? Was the student

violent or nonviolent? Findings were only based on the data available in the publicly

available school records.

A final limitation was the accuracy or completeness of publicly available SROs

training records. All efforts were made to assure that the most recent and accurate

available data were collected and reviewed.

<div align="center">**Summary**</div>

In this study, I examined the statistically significant relationship between SROs'

cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized

students from one public K to 12 southeastern school district. Many inner-city schools

have become quasi-penal institutions, but police can use their discretion when arresting a

student, especially when those schools exist in communities of color (Carbado, 2015).

Arrests can have negative consequences on students, including restriction of employment

opportunities, denial of college admission, ineligibility to serve in the military, and loss

of public housing assistance (Barkow, 2019). Developmentally normative behavior for

school age children is inevitable when children are learning and SROs are mostly

untrained to work with youth and do not understand how to adjust to educational

environments (Keierleber, 2015).

In Chapter 1, I have provided an introduction of this study, which focused on

school arrests of marginalized students and the possible driver of those arrests pointing to

SROs. I also discussed the background, problem statement, purpose of the study, research

question and hypotheses, theoretical framework, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and summary. In this study, I used secondary data by collecting and aggregating data restricted to the fourth largest school district in the United States, a public southeastern school district for 2016 to 2019 school years on SROs' training and school arrests of marginalized students.

In Chapter 2, I review literature on five themes: (a) cultural competency theory, (b) SROs, (c) SROs' training, (d) criminalization of student behavior, and (e) racial disparities in school arrests that address the gap of additional research on investigating cultural competency theory and exploring the statistical relationship between SROs' training and school-based arrests of marginalized students.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In Chapter 1, I provided an overview of cultural competency theory, explaining the statistically significant relationship between SROs' training and school-based arrests of marginalized students in public schools. Cultural competencies are tied to practices of diversity and equity (Paxton & Strauss, 2018) and many SROs, SRO supervisors, and school administrators have reported that untrained SROs generally serve their schools poorly for several months and even years (Finn et al., 2005). However, adequate training may not be provided to SROs in public schools.

In Chapter 2, I synthesize the research that addresses the direct targeting of vulnerable groups by way of arrests in public schools and the responsibilities, roles, training, and influence of school police. School-related arrests are the most direct route into the school-to-prison pipeline (Aldridge, 2018). Policing in schools reflects policing outside schools (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). I reviewed scholarly literature on SROs in educational settings without formalized policies or guidelines when arresting marginalized students in public schools with minorities, economically disadvantaged, academically struggling, and at-risk of failure students. The review of this literature disclosed that there is a gap in addressing the cultural competency training of SROs placed in public schools prior to arresting marginalized students. Chapter 2 is organized around five themes: (a) cultural competency theory, (b) SROs, (c) SROs' training, (d) criminalization of student behavior, and (e) racial disparities in school arrests. These themes guided my research throughout the literature review.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature review consists of numerous scholarly articles from Walden University Library's databases, EBSCO, Eric, Sage, Proquest, Thoreau, Gale, Eastern Michigan library, Bowling Green State University library, Toledo Public library, Cincinnati Public library databases, and Google Scholar. Some of the following keywords used were *school based arrests*, *school discipline gap, racial disparities in discipline, mass criminalization, suspension rates for minorities, school suspensions, school resource officers, juvenile justice,* and *disproportionate impact.* I searched for articles between 2014 and 2020. One researcher was included from 1993, one researcher from 1997, one researcher from 2005, and one researcher from 2013 to establish a foundational concept that still exists today.

Using cultural competency theory and themes, this literature review revealed perspectives from different scholars who have used cultural competency theory to describe how cultural competency is not always practice in delivery of services to marginalized groups; this guided my research throughout the review. There was a limited amount of research that specifically did not mention that law enforcement officers need cultural competency training. I reviewed scholarly literature on the history and growth of SROs placed in public schools where the majority of students are minorities, economically disadvantaged, academically struggling, and at-risk of failure to the correlation of school-based arrests. I also reviewed scholarly literature on policing behaviors in public schools where statistics showed that school-based arrests contributed to the $182 billion profits from incarceration in the United States every year (Equal

Justice Initiative, 2017). Moreover, I reviewed the training requirements of SROs placed in public schools and how their behavior correlates with their unconscious bias of marginalized groups of students. School-based arrests fall more harshly on students of color (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017). Historical forms of racism still exist today, and disguised among professionals, cultural competency remains an attempt to respond to the problem of racism (Grenier, 2020).

Theoretical Foundation

Cultural competency requires respect for and understanding of diverse ethnic and cultural groups, their histories, traditions, beliefs, and value systems in the provision and delivery of services (Riccucci, 2017). Using cultural competency theory, this literature review provided information that explored the research question: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools?

Literature Review

Cultural Competence Theory

Cultural competence is not an easy topic of discussion, especially in policing. The pattern of wrongdoing by policing on marginalized groups is a part of the United States' DNA (Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics [IACHR], 2018). For example, Ashkinazy (2017) found that many professionals in positions of power displayed individual bias in their behavior towards disadvantage people and that the expansion of cultural competence should be required training for any public servants who interacts with socioeconomic disadvantage populations. Expanding on this research,

Mbekeani-Wiley (2017) contended that the benefit of cultural competency training for law enforcement can help mitigate racial and ethnic disparities when arresting marginalized students from public schools because school-based arrests fall harshly on students of color.

Otuyelu et al.'s (2016) asserted that some people in power look at color first and that overt and subtle forms of racism have progressed in the United States by seeping into many of the structural institutions, such as law enforcement and the justice system. Both Otuyelu et al. and Ashkinazy (2017) articulated the direct relationship with cultural competence and the criminal justice system.

Otuyelu et al. (2016) position on cultural competency took place when their coworkers viewed them as a threat because of their race. Otuyelu illustrated episodes of when he and his fellow researchers had been faced with a lack of cultural competence from their coworkers, specifically a magistrate, with whom Otuyelu had worked for years. The magistrate clutched her purse when they both boarded an elevator together because Otuyelu was dressed in casual clothes and not professional clothes inside a government building. He had been called-in to work on his day off for an emergency, not having time to change into professional clothing. Otuyelu et al. experience in the elevator and the magistrate clutching her purse in a government building highlighted the direct relationship with cultural competence, and the criminal justice system that was not found using an ethnographic study done by Ashkinazy (2017). While Ashkinazy's ethnographic study suggested more public servants lack cultural competence, and Otuyelu et al. showed a link with disadvantaged people and the legal system, both studies displayed

patterns of lacking cultural competence from those serving as public servants interacting with disadvantaged people.

Fletcher et al. (2019) disagreed with both Ashkinazy's (2017) and Otuyelu et al.'s (2016) studies. Fletcher et al. (2019) used assessments from three college campus police departments and found that law enforcement professionals who possess cultural awareness better understand the needs of citizens and do not need further training. Fletcher et al. (2019) took the position that law enforcement already exhibits actions that take into account the cultural context of their interactions with citizens, which plays a significant part in police serving all populations.

Supporting Fletcher et al. (2019) study, Buckley et al. (2013) conducted a national, comprehensive survey in police academies and suggested that properly trained SROs know how to adjust their behavior, their language, and their timing to account for a child's development stage. Buckley et al. (2013) also found that a police officer trained in youth developmental competence will give youth more time to respond to their commands because they understand that the way a youth's brain processes information takes them more time. Both studies, Buckley et al. (2013) and Fletcher et al. (2019) took the position that law enforcement understands cultural competency. However, these studies were not conducted in the field with marginalized populations, and both studies were from the police's perspective.

McNeal (2016) used several research studies to contradict Fletcher et al. (2019) study and suggested that untrained officers using adult policing practices will interpret a child's delayed response to a command as disrespectful and noncompliant, often resulting

in disciplinary actions. McNeal suggested that overly harsh school disciplinary practices and excessive use of force are imposed more frequently on African American students. Fletcher et al. (2019) did not clarify how often cultural competency training takes place for the SROs or how long each training session lasts for the SROs. Moreover, Buckley et al. (2013) explained that police officers trained in youth development competency will understand cultural competency. However, just because an officer is trained in youth competency does not mean this training will translate into a public-school setting. McNeal also suggested that an untrained officer's interactions with marginalized students can create issues that can lead to the arrest of students because of the lack of cultural competence. Some law enforcement do not think cultural competency training is important or essential in their line of work (Paxton & Strauss, 2018) and these studies revealed how cultural competency training is often not a part of police officer's curriculum.

It is important for schools and school districts in urban areas that employ SROs to clarify and provide explicit, competency-based training for the officers who interact with marginalized students (McCurdy et al., 2019). McCurdy et al. (2019) studied 23,000 national schools using evidence-based research and found that in specifically low-performing schools, if SROs are left to their own decision making with no explicit, competency-based training in how to support a culture of prevention, they likely respond to situations based on their law enforcement background. McCurdy et al. suggested that guidance on factors that explicitly connects to and influences the work of law enforcement officers in an educational environment appears limited. In agreement with

McCurdy et al., Counts et al. (2018) examined current state legislation and found that some SROs do not have formalized policies or guidelines to follow in public schools because there are no federal guidelines outlining the procedures for training SROs in cultural competency. Counts et al. also found that few states provide legislation or legal policy regarding certification or training requirements for SROs. Counts et al. suggested that there is a need for more specialized training for SROs who work specifically with youth in an educational setting. Both McCurdy et al. and Counts et al. emphasized how SROs either rely on adult policing in schools or have no guidelines to follow when policing schools. Both studies are significant because using history as a guide, they explain how lacking cultural competency training by law enforcement on marginalized students in public schools has resulted in disproportionated school-based arrests.

The lack of training for many SROs leaves them unclear about what their duties are and how they should interact with students in schools (Mills, 2016). Mills (2016) used a meta-analysis study on correctional education programs and suggested that it is possible to draw parallels between the effects of institutional racism and on populations most affected by incarceration as well as on the effects of institutional racism and on educational attainment of those same populations. Mills found that school policing is not driven by educational objectives nor do police contribute to positive, nurturing, learning environments for students. In agreement, Marcelin and Hinger's (2017) data from the ACLU revealed that students in low-income communities of color have long experienced school policing. There is an agreement among scholars (see McCurdy et al., 2019; McNeal, 2016; Otuyelu, 2016; Peake, 2015) showing that a lack of cultural competency

training impacts the populations entering into the prison system. Due to cultural

consensus and the lack of cultural training, Mills, Marcelin, and Hinger helped build on

the theory that cultural competency training is needed for SROs placed in public schools

with marginalized students.

In contrast to Mills' (2016) study and Marcelin and Hinger's (2017) study, Paxton

and Strauss' (2018) quantitative study noted that a training program of police officers in

Little Rock, Arkansas found that 6% of the in-service police officers did not find the

course on cultural competence applicable to law enforcement. Paxton and Strauss also

found that properly trained law enforcement, has no impact on cultural competency or

differences, it's just the societal norms of school policies that middle school students

abide by. Paxton and Strauss highlighted that police in Little Rock, Arkansas think it's a

seemingly impossible challenge for police officers to be both professional, with each

community member they encounter, and simultaneously to see every person as an

individual, with clear, current cultural expectations of law enforcement. However,

George's (2017) study disagreed with Paxton and Strauss's (2018) study. George used

peer-reviewed research and noted that more states and school districts continue to place

police in public schools with devastating consequences for children of color because of

cultural barriers. George also found that low-income children are disproportionately

targeted for referral and arrest by police in schools. George found police's presence in

public schools perpetuates racial profiling, discriminatory disciplining, and incarcerating

children of color which often mirrors the discriminatory racial profiling, and excessive

force, employed by police against people of color in major cities. Paxton and Strauss'

(2018) study up to a certain point uncovers the perceptions of some law enforcement in Little Rock, Arkansas's police department and how the police department really feels about using their time to learn about other cultures, however, the study did not include the demographics of this police department. This study demonstrated the mindset of some law enforcement about cultures. George's (2017) study is painting the true picture of what really happens in public schools with SROs. Both studies, Paxton and Strauss (2018) and George (2017), explained the lack of cultural competence in law enforcement.

Stereotypes have impacted how security officers, particularly in inner city schools, perceive minority students in urban school settings. Dohy (2016) used quantitative national data between 2010 and 2014 and studied observations of student behaviors in 148 public schools. Dohy used an individual change model (allowed for repeated observations) and found that a potentially adverse relationship exists between authority figures, such as SROs, and inner city, urban, minority students that criminalizes, rather than reduces, problematic student behaviors. Contradicting Dohy (2016), Stickle (2016) used national Law Enforcement Management and Administrative data (LEMAS) and found that the ability to identify, hire, and train, officers who are capable guardians of society, and use force appropriately, remains a difficult task. Both of these studies Dohy (2016) and Stickle (2016) explained that SROs stereotype marginalize students with the perception of criminalization and Stickle (2016) states that it's difficult to find law enforcement that understands how to appropriately use force. Currently, cultural competency training is not viewed as an asset for law enforcement curriculum.

Individual biases are aimed at disadvantage populations and Flannery (2015)

argued using quantitative research from The Kirwan Institute For The Study of Race And Ethnicity that cultural deficit thinking and racist perceptions create a stereotype that students of color, are disrespectful, and disruptive, which zero tolerance policies exploit. Flannery also discovered that an officer's split-second decision about a student's conduct, can determine whether a student receives a warning, a suspension, or even delinquency charges following an arrest. Flannery's research aligns with Ashkinazy's (2017) study and Otuyelu et al.'s (2016) study in that individual biases and cultural deficit thinking are aimed at disadvantage populations. Flannery's study is really useful because it explains the biases that exists in decision-making of disadvantage populations which may be influenced by conscious or unconscious racial biases and a lack of cultural competency.

The vast majority of SROs are white males and there are no standard or objective methods to measure their effectiveness, so Peake (2015) used research similar to Flannery's (2015) study. Peake studied the Ferguson Police Department's use of force, and how the police department used militarization by armed government agents to enforce laws in the city of Ferguson, Missouri. Peake discovered that the perception, of African Americans in the United States, in the context of school discipline, that perceptions and fears operate on a subconscious level and manifest themselves through increased punitive punishments against students of color. These authors (Ashkinazy, 2017; Flannery, 2015; Otuyelu et al., 2016; Peake, 2015; Stickle, 2016) have noted that a lack of cultural competency exists in decision-making against disadvantage populations. These authors studies help explain the statistical relationship between cultural competency training and disproportionate school-based arrests of marginalized students.

Ninety percent of academy learning, by law enforcement is based on outdated lectures and annual continued education curriculum of law enforcement (Sereni-Massinger & Wood, 2016). Sereni-Massinger and Wood studied community opinions and problem-based learning through Community Oriented Policing (COP) and argued that police academies educated police recruiters using a behaviorist style of learning, and law enforcement transfers that style of learning into the field. Sereni-Massinger and Wood (2016) also found that higher education is not a requirement for most law enforcement agents because less than 1% of police departments and sheriff's offices have a four-year degree. Endorsing Sereni-Massinger and Wood's (2016) study, Peake (2015) and Flannery (2015) agreed that law enforcement officers should specifically be educated, regarding understanding the various cultures within their community, so that officers are better prepared to engage with diverse members, and to respond to them in a manner that is situationally appropriate.

In educational settings, factors such as schoolwide positive behavior interventions (pbis), suggested that cultural deficit thinking is not the barrier for school-based arrests (May et al., 2018). Using three years of youth court data from a southeastern state May et al. (2018) studied the difference between referrals from SROs and law enforcement and noted that the primary reason for the continued maintenance of rule conformity, and social orders in schools has nothing to do with cultural competence. But (Merkwae, 2015) disagreed and argued by using a number of elementary school cases of Civil Right complaints drafted by Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC) and the Department of Justice that different policing models can have tremendous consequences for students

already at a disproportionate risk of becoming involved with the justice system. Merkwae also found that the responsibilities of SROs often differ from school to school because students surveyed in Chicago expressed an appreciation for police and security guards in schools, attributing feelings of a safer school environment to their presence. May et al.'s (2018) conclusion that social orders in schools has nothing to do with cultural competence can be debated. May et al. (2018) points out rule conformity and social orders in southeastern state schools do not contribute to school-based arrests, but it is not clear if these schools are public schools or private schools so cultural deficit thinking may or may not be a barrier to school-based arrests. Merkwae's (2015) study do explain that schools with SROs have different police models because some SROs do not have formalized policies, or guidelines, to follow in public schools. There are no federal guidelines outlining the procedures for training SROs, and few states provide legislation or legal policy regarding certification or training requirements for SRO.

For the purposes of this research there is a consensus among several studies that explained the gap that exists between cultural competency training and law enforcement in public schools. There is a need for further investigation. Sadly, there are some studies that do not feel cultural competency training is important enough for law enforcement. Perspectives vary on disproportionate school-based arrests of marginalized students and lack of cultural competency training of law enforcement officers. Cultural competency theory recognizes that cultural competency training in public schools should be a requirement or policy for law enforcement in today's climate because of the distrust of law enforcement by minority populations in the United States. Law enforcement officers

should be trained and educated beyond high school with mandatory certification in cultural competency annually or a 2-year college degree in Diversity and Inclusion or cultural competency training prior to being placed in public schools that has predominately marginalized students, economically disadvantaged students, academically struggling students and at-risk of failure students.

School Resource Officers

SROs are part of the larger school-to-prison pipeline (Bell, 2018) that pushes students out of school and behind bars. Given historical racism and socioeconomic differences Winters (1993) used qualitative and quantitative data for her historical research and found that a majority of educational leaders and public-school personnel share neither the culture nor the values of the population they service. Winters also found that it is not that schools with large minority populations be managed by minorities, but that minority representation is essential in the socialization process. Supporting Winters (1993), Nelson and Lind (2015) used a report from the Justice Policy Institute and found that when a school allows a SRO to arrest a student as a form of discipline, that student is turned over to the juvenile justice system. Nelson and Lind also found that low-performing schools with officers had five times as many arrests for disorderly conduct as schools without them. Both studies focus on minority cultures in education with SROs but Winters' study focus on the historical background of minorities and socialization in education whereas Nelson and Lind's study focus on minorities in low-performing schools arrested by SROs. Both studies Winters (1993) and Nelson and Lind (2015)

explained that there is a relationship between race, behavior, and arrests by SROs in public schools.

Many inner-city urban schools are viewed synonymously with correctional facilities Dohy (2016). Using national data between 2010 and 2014 to study observations of student behaviors in Ohio public schools, Dohy discovered that many students in inner city schools are harassed by school police who perceive them as hoodlums, delinquents, and troublemakers. Dohy also discovered that students in these schools are more likely to walk through a metal detector, be received by a security guard or police officer more than their counterparts. Dohy's study aligns with my empirical experience of walking into public schools with metal detectors. Dohy's study explains that some public schools with SROs are similar to a juvenile detention instead of a school, and that lack of cultural competence plays into SROs' perceptions of marginalized students.

There have been an increasing number of incidents in which SROs have been used to manage student disciplinary issues with disastrous results (Ryan et al., 2017) and quantitative data from the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), and The Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, indicated that tasking SROs to deal with student misbehavior had increasingly criminalized traditional school disciplinary issues, and exacerbated the school to prison pipeline. Ryan et al. (2017) also discovered that SROs are more likely to criminalize minor school infractions and push students unnecessarily into the school-to-prison pipeline. But May et al. (2018) rejected Ryan et al.'s (2017) study and argued that SROs were less likely than law enforcement officers outside of school to refer juveniles for minor offenses. May et al. (2018) discovered that

it is schools, not solely police in schools, that contributes to the number of juveniles referred to the juvenile justice system. Although May et al. (2018) provided evidence that SROs are unlikely to refer students to the justice system (Dohy, 2016; Lynch et al., 2016; McDonald, 2018; Pigott et al., 2017; Ryan et al., 2017) they provided studies that SROs contribute to exacerbated school-based arrests explaining that it is the SROs that do the majority of arresting students from schools. Both studies explain that division exists on whether SROs are good for schools or confused as to whether SROs criminalize minor school infractions. Both studies show the issues with SROs in schools.

Increased reliance on SROs and law enforcement practices have blurred the lines between school discipline and school safety (The Advancement Project, 2017). The Advancement Project (2017) used empirical research, education advocates, and Jeffersontown High School students, and discovered that school police are sworn law enforcement officers who are almost exclusively trained and tasked with enforcing the criminal code that pushes students into the juvenile justice system for routine discipline matters. Lynch et al. (2016) used evidence-based research to align their study with The Advancement Project (2017). Lynch et al. (2016) found that SROs assigned to schools with greater levels of social and educational disadvantage students perform more law enforcement-related functions (i.e. metal detectors, cameras, issue citations, make arrests). Lynch et al. (2016) also found that SROs had a learning curve when they transitioned from work at the police station to being placed in schools. The Advancement Project makes a good point that SROs are almost exclusively trained with enforcing the criminal code which underscores that some SROs do not understand that adult policing

should not be used with students in public schools. This type of discipline will push

students into the justice system and Lynch et al. (2016) stated that schools lacking social

and educational resources are affected more by school-based arrests from SROs. Both

studies used different research methods but concluded that SROs contributed to

incarceration of marginalize students based on harsh discipline. Both studies explained

that some SROs use adult policing when interacting with marginalized students.

The increased usage of zero tolerance policies, which levy harsh consequences for

marginalized student offenses, have made discipline a one-for-all program (McDonald,

2018). Using quantitative research from three large school districts in Southeastern

United States and fourteen years of suspension and expulsion data from 2004–2017

McDonald found that there is a large body of research (Gregory et al., 2010; Ladson-

Billings & Tate, 1995; Noguera, 2001; Rose, 2007) that documents that minorities are

negatively impacted by disciplinary practices in K-12 education due to race. Aligning

with McDonald (2018) Carter et al. (2017) found that racial and ethnic stereotypes are

deep rooted in our history, the Black male stereotype is especially relevant to issues of

differential school discipline today. Carter et al. (2017) used a brief from the Discipline

Disparities Series and discovered that the recent national tragedies, the deaths of Trayvon

Martin, Eric Garner, Michael Brown, Tamir Rice, Alton Sterling, and Philando Castile,

keep issues of race at the forefront of our national consciousness. Carter et al. (2017) also

highlighted that students of different races and ethnicities in the U.S. schools experience

fundamentally different school compositions, different education opportunities and

resources and different rates of referrals. When marginalized students witness unfair

treatment of other marginalized males by law enforcement, this has an impact on marginalized student's relationship with SROs in public schools (Henry, 2019). In McDonald's study, the point was made about how race and harsh discipline are still an issue in K-12 schools and Carter et al.'s (2017) study explained how historical deep-rooted stereotypes still exists between race and arrests in the United States.

Although misbehavior has different meanings depending on the school, school-based arrests of marginalized students are still alarmingly high, evidence still exists that schools across the country have adopted extremely harsh discipline policies to control student misbehavior (Merkwae 2015). Merkwae used quantitative data from The Department of Education and discovered that 77% of SROs indicated that they had arrested a student in the past to calm that student down, 68% of SROs indicated that they made arrests to show students that actions had consequences, and 55% indicated that they had arrested students for minor offenses because teachers wanted the arrests to occur.

Wruble (2015) agreed with Merkwae (2015) but in addition discovered that effective school discipline practices are essential to keeping schools safe and creating an optimal learning environment. Wruble (2015) examined several states using data from the National Juvenile Court Data Archives and descriptive statistics. Wruble discovered that students are being introduced to the juvenile justice system through the use of school-based juvenile court referrals. Both Merkwae (2015) and Wruble (2015) used governmental statistics to show the pattern of disproportionate arrests made in public schools.

Peake (2015) used the Ferguson Police Department's use of force and how the police department used militarization by armed government agents to enforce laws in the city of Ferguson, Missouri. Peake (2015) discovered that the vast majority of SROs are white males and there are no standard or objective methods to measure their effectiveness. Peake also discovered that in the United States, the perception of African Americans in the context of school discipline operates on a subconscious level and manifest themselves through increased punitive punishments against students of color. However, May et al. (2018) refuted Peake (2015). May et al. (2018) used 3 years of youth court data from a southeastern state that examined the difference in referrals from SROs and law enforcement. May et al. (2018) argued that SROs are the primary reason for the continued maintenance of rule conformity and social order in schools. But there was plenty of evidence that refuted May et al. (2018). The following authors (Cabrera, 2018; Flannery, 2017; George, 2017; Hinger, 2017; Nellis, 2016; Solorano, 1997) explained that SROs and disproportionate school-based arrests are connected. These studies highlighted SROs in public schools, but Perk used empirical research for his study and May et al. (2018) used quantitative data for their research. Both studies explained that there is still some disagreement on SROs' performance in public schools. Empirical research should overshadow data statistics in these studies about the lack of training of SROs in public schools.

SROs disproportionally arrested underserved students for nonviolent offenses (Christle et al., 2005; Giroux, 2003; Heitzeg, 2009; Pigott et al., 2017) and public school systems in America have come under scrutiny due to the harsh treatment of students by

SROs. In support of these authors, Marcelin and Hinger (2017) used data from The ACLU and The New York Civil Liberties Union (NYCLU) and discovered that schools offer an ideal entry point to the criminal justice system through SROs. Marcelin and Hinger also found that police in schools enforce criminal laws and every violation of a school rule can be considered a criminal act. Marcelin and Hinger highlighted that policing in schools enforced social control over Black and Latino youth. However, Nelson and Lind (2015) disagreed with Marcelin and Hinger (2017), citing policy briefs and factsheets from Justice Policy Institute that found the juvenile courts made an agreement with the police force and school districts, that restricted cases in which police were allowed to make school-based arrests or make referrals to court. Nelson and Lind also found that one of the largest school districts in the country decided in 2013 that schools, not police, would deal with students' nonviolent misdemeanors. Besides Nelson and Lind (2015), both studies explained that underserved marginalized students are arrested at disproportionate rates. There appears to be a never-ending pattern of arrested marginalized students. Several of these studies have addressed the point that SROs lack training when interacting with marginalized students in public schools.

SROs' Training

There is no scholarly research that specifically states that law enforcement needs cultural competency training, or cultural competency certification, prior to policing public schools, "we have accepted the infringement of law enforcement into one of the most important civic institutions: our schools" (Marcelin & Hinger 2017, p. 4).

School policing needs intensive training, Dohy (2016). National data between 2010 and 2014 used by Dohy studied insubordination of student behaviors in 148 public schools and found that SROs programs overall effectiveness was difficult to quantify. Dohy also discovered that the evaluation of the SRO program as being effective was often related to perceptions rather than objective criteria. In alignment with Dohy (2016) Marcelin and Hinger (2017) also found that little guidance is given to SROs on cultural competency training or any training that sufficiently prepares them to work in schools. Both studies Dohy (2016) and Marcelin and Hinger (2017) used government statistics to explain that law enforcement in public schools lack training and this will strengthen my research to explain that a lack of cultural competency training may exist within public schools employing SROs.

Linetsky (2018) used empirical analysis and demonstrated that the legal training received by police officers is inadequate and that approximately 12% of total academy hours are devoted to a state's statutory and traffic laws. Linetsky also reported that the average barber cutting hair receives 4,000 hours (23.81 weeks) of training while the average policeman (Henry, 2020) carrying a lethal weapon receives less than 200 hours (1.19 weeks) in training. In addition, Blumberg et al. (2019) agreed with Linetsky stating that it is not sufficient for training to focus solely on the law or on perishable skills such as arrest and control, defensive tactics, driving, or firearms. Both studies, Linetsky and Blumberg et al., did acknowledge that police officers had training, unfortunately it does not appear that cultural competency training was a part of police officers' curriculum.

SROs often feel ill equipped to work with students in crisis but are trained in other skills that may be useful within a multitiered system of supports, for example, Eklund et al.'s (2018) evidence-based guidance and resources found that SROs can provide guidance and supervision on the physical safety of a school and train students and staff on how to respond to emergency situations. Eklund et al. (2018) also found that there is limited research and a lack of agreement on how officers' function in school settings. Scully (2015) support Eklund et al.'s (2018) study. Scully (2015) found that SROs needed training in cultural competence and training on the consequences when they arrest a child. Eklund et al.'s (2018) claim about feeling ill equipped to work with students in crisis are mixed. The author does not give the definition of crisis. Crisis can mean two different things between an adult and a child. However, both studies were important because both studies determined that there is a lack of training for SROs prior to being placed in public schools.

The lack of training for many SROs leaves them unclear about what their duties are and how they should interact with students in schools (Mills, 2016) and wearing a badge to deal with civilians does not mean that law enforcement automatically knows how to deal with marginalized students. Linetsky's (2018) empirical analysis emphasized that there are no mandatory national standards of training for police officers and that each state sets its own minimum training requirements. Mills (2016) used field projects outlined in inmate education programs and found that there was uncertainty in what system of discipline should be used to regulate student behavior, for example, what should SROs use as school discipline, enforce or use the penal code? Shaver and Decker

(2017) had similarities like Mills' (2016) study and argued using recent cases, studies, and provisions of Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) that a third-grader and fourth-grader had been handcuffed and arrested by a SRO. In spite of many sources that identify the need for rigorous SRO training, it was difficult to obtain any hard information about the content of training courses or copies of any training materials. Both studies by Mills (2016) and Shaver and Decker (2017) framed their study around the lack of training that SROs do not have, specifically no cultural competency training. The studies are important to explain that cultural competency training is not a part of law enforcement's curriculum and that some SROs do not understand what strategy of discipline should be used in public schools. As noted by Shaver and Decker (2017) it is difficult to find SROs' training material other than their high school diploma, this information was important to my research to explain that there is no standard training for law enforcement.

Schools relied on the police and juvenile courts (Wruble, 2016) to address discipline problems. The National Juvenile Court Data Archives used by Wruble, 2016 found that there is a link between schools and prisons and no consistent training for SROs. McNeal (2016) agreed with Wruble's (2016) study, but also added, by using scholarly publications of legal periodicals from Sandra Day O'Connor College of Law at Arizona State University, that overly harsh school disciplinary practices and excessive use of force are imposed more frequently on African Americans and Latino students. McNeal also discovered that SROs lacked youth development competence. Although Wruble (2016) does not specify what type of training SROs are in need of, her findings

supports cultural competency theory that SROs should be trained before interacting with marginalize students. Wruble's (2016) and McNeal's (2016) studies are important to explain the pattern that some SROs lack specific training in schools with marginalized students.

Today's police training addresses the tactical side, of the use of force, and less than 1% of police officers and sheriff's officers have a four-year degree (Sereni-Massinger & Wood, 2016). Using community opinions and problem-based learning through Community Oriented Policing (COP) Sereni-Massinger and Wood (2016) argued the importance of bringing contemporary officer training, and education to today's police force in order to address the complexities of today's diverse society. Sereni-Massinger and Wood also discovered that advancing law enforcement officers' problem-solving skills and interpersonal skills could lend in solving cultural misunderstandings and misperceptions. Sereni-Massinger and Wood highlighted that de-escalation of events can be achieved if officers are educated, to effectively relate to the growth of multiculturalism. Stickle (2016) agrees with Sereni-Massinger and Wood (2016) on police training but goes on to add that pre-employment screening techniques should also be included. Stickle (2016) claimed after utilizing national Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) data with structural equation modeling that examined 21variables related to pre-employment screening techniques for law enforcement, that the ability to identify, hire, and train, officers to be capable guardians of society, and use force appropriately remains a difficult task. Stickle also discovered that there are no national databases, collecting use of force incidents, or even

agency agreements on what constitutes force, for law enforcement. Sereni-Massinger and Wood's (2016) study and Stickle's (2016) study focused on training of law enforcement and both studies contribute to the pattern that law enforcement do not have cultural competency training.

SROs have been placed in schools without formalized policies or guidelines to follow (Counts et al., 2018). Counts et al. (2018) used quantitative research from state legislation and Department of Education regarding the use and training of SROs in schools and discovered that SROs' programs are implemented because of available grant funding to create such a program. Counts et al. (2018) also discovered that the connection between improperly trained, and non-trained SROs placed in schools is fear of losing funding from the government. Supporting Counts et al. (2018) Buckley et al. (2013) conducted a national, comprehensive survey on the state of training available in police academies and found that the training gap for police officers had serious long and short-term consequences. Buckley et al. (2013) also discovered that the curriculum for juvenile justice in police academies are limited both in scope of subject matter and in the time spent reviewing it. Counts et al. (2018) makes a good argument that in many cases and depending on the industry, the government gives you a time frame to utilized financial resources and if the deadline is not met, funding is withdrawn. Buckley et al. (2013) study explained that curriculum for law enforcement is limited or almost non-existence. Training, specifically cultural competency training should have a yearly time frame and be a mandatory requirement for law enforcement.

A combination of undertrained SROs (Alabama Appleseed, 2019) an overcrowded classroom, under-resourced teachers, and a lack of clarity about when it is appropriated to involve SROs in student behavior can be dangerous and criminalize obnoxious but common behavior. Alabama Appleseed used data from the Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights, to explain the stories from families affected by SROs and 13 educators. The study discovered that ensnaring children in the justice system for minor offenses perpetuates the school-to-prison pipeline, with long-term consequences that are bad for children. In addition to Alabama Appleseed's study McCurdy et al. (2019) agreed with their study. McCurdy et al. (2019) found that the presence of SROs in schools may lead to more arrests for offenses regarded as typical student behavior, for example, McCurdy et al. (2019) used evidence-based data from 23,000 national schools and discovered that fighting or disorderly conduct can lead to student arrests. McCurdy et al. (2019) also found that guidance to date on the work of law enforcement officers in an educational environment, appears limited, and recommends competency-based training for SROs in schools. Alabama Appleseed's study has provided evidence about the long-term consequences children face after being arrested for minor offenses. This is precisely why it is urgent for law enforcement to have cultural competency training when interacting with marginalize students, its so that law enforcement can understand better the trauma they invoke when making school-based arrests. Law enforcement should have competency-based training for SROs in schools.

The Advancement Project's (2017) empirical study emphasized that education advocates and Jeffersontown High School students have argued that structural racism still

exists and needs to be dismantle. Multi-racial Civil Rights organizations and Veteran Civil Rights lawyers in Louisville Kentucky claimed that police officers often escalated violence with the students and that police misconduct in schools is a national epidemic. This study is important for my research to build on my statement that SROs should have cultural competency training when interacting with marginalized populations. Some law enforcement in public schools have no training or knowledge on how to de-escalate a situation prior to making school-based arrests. SROs should be specifically trained annually in cultural competency or become certified annually in cultural competency when working in public schools with large populations of marginalized students.

Criminalization of Student Behavior

Boys exhibit more behaviors that are traditionally inappropriate in school contexts even though they may be developmentally normative thus the trend of criminalizing school behaviors (Coble, 2018; Homer & Fisher, 2020). SROs play multiple roles and has the potential to cause confusion as SROs are expected to both serve as trusted mentors and also as police officers who make arrests (Petteruti, 2011). Villalobos and Bohannah (2017) used quantitative research from the history of zero-tolerance policies in the U.S. Education System and argued that the prioritization over education are the reflections of schools that simultaneously push students out of schools and into the juvenile and criminal justice system, or incarceration over education. Villalobos and Bohannah also discovered that harsh consequences have been placed on a student for bringing a nail clipper or prescription medication to school which causes severe consequences with law enforcement. McCurdy et al. (2019) also reported consistencies with Villalobos and

Bohannan's (2017) study. McCurdy et al. (2019) used peer-reviewed articles from the

federal government about SROs and discovered that the presence of SROs leads to more

arrests of students for offenses regarded as typical student behavior (fighting and

disorderly conduct). McCurdy et al. (2019) also found that police in schools creates an

increased opportunity to apply the law directly to students for incidents that, historically,

were not considered criminal. I agreed with Villalobos and Bohannan (2017) up to a

certain point, because this study did not point out if the harsh discipline imposed on the

student with medication, had access to a nurse on staff that would have granted

permission to the student to receive the medication. Many times, public schools do not

have a budget or resources to employ a nurse or a counselor, and an SRO at the same

time. Both studies, Villalobos and Bohannan (2017) and McCurdy et al. (2019) have

explained how easily student behavior can be criminalized. "Criminalization

encompasses the manner in which policy makers and school actors think and

communicate about the problem of student rule-violation" (Hirschfield, 2008, p. 80).

Criminalization of student behavior is most likely found in schools with SROs

(Wruble, 2016) for example, Wruble studied several states using data from the National

Juvenile Court Data Archives and descriptive statistics and discovered that schools with

SROs are directly linked to students who were involved in school disciplinary systems

and those with current or future involvement in the juvenile justice system. Wruble also

discovered that some school policies punish students for behaviors that are age

appropriate such as throwing a piece of food or cursing, common behaviors of youth.

Wruble highlighted that students living in rural communities had more leniency in

punishment when guns were found in their cars during hunting season. Wruble's (2016) study falls into alignment with Villalobos and Bohannan's (2017) study and McCurdy et al.'s (2019) study. Wruble's study explained that students living in rural communities get leniency in their punishment if they are found with a weapon in their car, but marginalized students get their life turned upside down by a school-based arrest for behaviors that are conducive to being a child or teenager. This highlights the distinction in the thought process of criminalization of student behavior. In public schools, students throwing a piece of food are punished but students living in rural areas with a gun in their car gets leniency (Henry, 2019).

Armed police officers, commonly referred to as SROs have adopted extremely harsh discipline policies to control student behavior (Merkwae 2015). For example, Merkwae used a number of elementary school cases of Civil Rights complaints drafted by Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC) and the Department of Justice and discovered that the practice of stationing sworn police officers with full arrest power in elementary, middle, and high schools were used to exert social control. Mills' (2016) study is similar to Merkwae's (2015) study. Mills used field projects to outline inmate education program reports and found that black students receive a disproportionate share of the nation's school discipline. Mills also discovered that students with SROs are more likely to be arrested or referred to law enforcement for disorderly conduct and other minor offenses than students in schools without SROs. Both studies were important for my research because the studies are showing that in order to control marginalized behavior some type of extreme punishment must be exerted to criminalize that student's behavior.

The increased criminalization of youth of color has endured overly harsh school disciplinary practices (McNeal, 2016). Using scholarly publications of legal periodicals from Sandra Day O'Connor College of Law at Arizona State University, McNeal discovered that some students have been tased or pepper sprayed and mistaken for an aggressor when they were in fact attempting to break up a fight. McNeal's study have similarities to Merkwae's (2015) study. Both studies identified defining moments of students' behavior being criminalized by overly harsh punishment in schools.

The presence of law enforcement in schools are the first juvenile justice decision-makers to encounter youth, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP, 2018). The OJJDP used a literature review document by Development Services Group, Inc. and discovered that an officer's authority and discretion play a part in determining which youths become part of the juvenile justice system. Nance (2016) supports OJJDP's (2018) study. Nance used empirical evidence-based research and found that schools should dramatically scale back the number of students that are referred to law enforcement. Nance also discovered that current school policies refer students to law enforcement for offenses that are not considered dangerous, for example, a five-year-old was arrested for having a temper tantrum because her teacher ended a math exercise counting jelly-beans. Another example, a six-year old arrested, fingerprinted, photographed, and charged with a felony and two misdemeanors. Nance highlighted that schools increasingly have relied on extreme forms of punishment such as referrals to law enforcement, and school-based arrest to discipline students for violations of school rules. Both studies revealed how student behavior is criminalized at the discretion of law

enforcement. OJJDP's (2018) study explained how SROs can use their discretion and Nance's (2016) study explained that discretion was not use by law enforcement on a five-year old and a six-year old because of temper tantrums, a behavior that is common in kids while away at school. OJJDP's study was critical because it legitimizes that SROs can limit the arrests and criminalization of student behavior at their discretion.

A majority of students in the United States' primary and secondary schools are affected by the criminalization of education by SROs that is more commonly found in urban, multicultural, inner-city environments (Mallet, 2016). Using empirical research to address criminalization of student behavior Mallet discovered that school discipline is not evenly distributed among students in poverty or students of color but more likely to be punished in schools with harsher discipline than middle-class students. Rocque & Snellings' (2018) study agrees with Mallet's (2016) study. Rocque and Snellings used peer-reviewed literature on School-To-Prison Pipeline (SPP) and discovered that the use of exclusionary discipline in school is correlated with increased involvement in the criminal justice system and disparities in punishment for racial minorities. Rocque and Snellings also discovered that low-income youth are likely to be punished more harshly at school and become involved with the criminal justice system than their wealthier peers. Rocque and Snellings discovered that African Americans are disproportionately affected and expelled more frequently than their white peers. Both studies identified a pattern that harsh discipline in schools is geared toward low income youth in schools and deflected away from their middle-class or wealthier peers. Both studies explain that inconsistent criminalization of student behavior falls on marginalized students. Prior research has

explained numerous studies on school-based arrests to which nonviolent students have been arrested and introduced to the juvenile justice system (Barnes & Motz, 2018; Davis, 2017; Duhaime, 2018; Hirschfield, 2018; Mowen & Brent, 2016; Munson, 2019).

In schools all over the nation, school police carry and use tasers and pepper spray on students in situations that do not call for this type of weaponry (McNeal, 2016). Using scholarly publications of legal periodicals from Sandra Day O'Connor College of Law at Arizona State University McNeal discovered school-based arrests were once reserved for serious offenses including fighting that resulted in bodily harm, citing that an African American eighth-grader was arrested and spent six days in a juvenile detention for throwing Skittles candy at another student. Hirchfield (2008) used a multilevel structural model of school criminalization that is similar to McNeal's (2016) study and discovered that American schools are run like a prison and nothing illegal has to occur for a student to get arrested. Hirchfield also discovered that criminalization is more prevalent and intense in schools that are heavily populated by disadvantage urban minorities. Hirchfield highlighted that expanded school exclusion is a symbolic form of criminalization irrespective of whether it follows strict penal guidelines. Although both studies used two different methods of research, both studies revealed great examples of criminalization of school-based arrests. Marginalized children are still entering the criminal justice system who are not a threat to society based on systematic racism and a lack of understanding from law enforcement. Examples of these arrests could have been avoided if law enforcement understood the importance of cultural competence. Both studies are important for my research to explain the pattern of criminalization of student behavior.

Young people's encounters with the criminal justice system generally begin with the police (Brunson & Pegram, 2018). For example, Brunson and Pegram used surveyed participants from a high school on the South Side of Chicago, Puerto Ricans, and Dominican Republic youth who had experiences with NYPD officers. Brunson and Pegram found that officer's interactions with young people is render through the officer's judgment and limited information that often falls back on racial and ethnic stereotypes. Martin and Beese (2017) had similarities to Brunson and Pegram's (2018) study. Martin and Beese used students that attended an alternative school rather than a traditional school and discovered that there is a disturbing trend involving the police when students break the rules of the school. Martin and Beese also discovered that in many cases, schools have exposed students to the judicial system at an early age and have created a footpath toward failure. Martin and Beese highlighted that the phenomenon of the school-to-prison pipeline leads to more students being introduced to the criminal justice system, and ultimately, more juveniles being incarcerated. All four of the authors Beese (2017), Brunson (2018), Martin (2017) and Pegram (2018) are making the argument that law enforcement are still criminalizing nonviolent students with limited knowledge or lack of cultural competence as the reason for the arrest other than their race. Martin and Beese made an excellent point in their study about how youths are being exposed to the criminal justice system from school at an early age.

The rise in school-based arrests, the quickest route from the classroom to the jailhouse, most directly exemplifies the criminalization of school children (Marcelin & Hinger, 2017). Marcelin and Hinger used facts and data from ACLU and the NYCLU and

discovered that when adolescent behaviors are criminalized, students in policed schools may find themselves at greater risk of entanglement with the criminal justice system merely by virtue of attending school. Marcelin and Hinger also discovered that politicians, law enforcement and the media created a false panic about youth crime epidemics that justified the targeted and punitive policing of low-income Black and Latino youth. Banks (2018) aligns with Marcelin and Hinger's (2017) study but also discovered by using an exploratory qualitative approach delivered through a multi-case study design, that the space between when teachers submit office discipline referrals and when students are subsequently excluded from the learning environment lacks exploration. Banks also discovered that Black students are disproportionately suspended, expelled, or placed in alternative school settings during their preschool through 12th grade years. Both studies explain a systemic problem of a racial discipline gap or the criminalization of student behavior that exists in schools with marginalized students and SROs. Both studies are important for my research to build on criminalization of student behavior.

Ryan et al. (2018) used quantitative research from the NCES and the Department of Education Office for Civil Rights and discovered that an unfortunate consequence of tasking SROs to deal with student misbehavior has increasingly criminalized traditional school disciplinary issues and exacerbated the school-to-prison pipeline. Ryan et al. (2018) also discovered that over the course of a recent academic school year, more than 260,000 students were referred to law enforcement and 92,000 students were arrested. Ryan et al. (2018) highlighted that students most commonly criminalized by these harsh

punishments were disproportionally minorities from low socioeconomic status and that

schools with SROs had five times as many arrests as schools without SROs. These

studies have explained a pattern of student behavior being criminalized. Historically,

racism is found to be systemic and marginalized students can do as little as nothing, but

through the lens of some law enforcement, that is still enough to be arrested. All of the

studies are important for my research to help answer the research question: if there is a

statistical relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and school-based

arrests of marginalized students.

Racial Disparities in School Arrests

The previous president (President Trump) recently referred to both African

Americans and Hispanic American people as "stuck" in inner cities and "living in hell"

(Scott et al., 2017, p. 6). As far back as the 1990s, Solorzano (1997) noted that there were

reminders of the lingering significance of racism and our inability to eliminate it from

United States' society. Racial profiling has always been an ongoing issue and can be

dated back to the biblical era (Genesis 4:15, The New King James Bible). Solorzano

discovered that there are structural and cultural aspects of society that maintain the

subordination, and marginalization, of people of color. Solorzano also discovered that

historically the U.S. reveals that the color-line or race is a socially constructed category,

created to differentiate racial groups, and to show the superiority or dominance of one

race over another. Reaffirming Solorzano (1997) Scott et al. (2017) used briefs and

studied the relationship between schools and society with regard to racial

disproportionality in school discipline policies and discovered that the U.S. public

education system was established and developed within a sociopolitical context shaped by colonization and slavery or race-based oppression. Scott et al. (2017) also found that policing in the educational system implements its own form of policy through policies and practices that targets marginalized students. Solorzano's (1997) study and Scott et al.'s (2017) study included trends of marginalizing people based on color, and the U.S. education system shaped by race-based oppression, trends that still exist today.

Racism is difficult to address or cure because it is not acknowledged. For example, Delgado and Stefanic (2017) used numerous examples and excerpts from leading court opinions and discovered that racism is part of the structure of the legal system. While Delgado and Stefanic noted the history of racism, Ledesma and Calderon's (2015) qualitative inquiry into the study of K-12 also discovered that race and racism continues to impact education. After 20 years proven its staying power and resonance, the majority of white teachers in K-12 minimized the impact of racism. I agreed with Delgado and Stefanic (2017) that racism is a difficult topic to discuss, a point that needs to be emphasized because all lives are not valued equally. It has been determined that racism is a part of the legal system and not only do law enforcement have a different mindset about diversity according to Paxton and Strauss (2018), but it can also be determined that some white teachers in K-12 align their thinking with some law enforcement because of their efforts to minimize the impact of racism.

Racism is an endemic to society while giving credence to multiple forms of social oppression operating concurrently and a theorizing counterspace for scholars of color, to challenge and transform racial oppression (Cabrera, 2018). Using peer-review

education journals (Cabrera, 2018) discovered similarities with Ledesma and Calderon's

2015 study, Cabrera noted there have been several critiques to race that did not offer

testable hypotheses, or measurable outcomes, which only served to marginalize people of

color. Both authors analyzed race by explaining timelines. Ledesma and Calderon's

(2015) study found that race and racism continues to impact education and Cabrera's

(2018) study found that racism is an endemic to society.

Race correlates with the severity of the punishment imposed with students of

color receiving harsher punishments for less severe behavior in school as noted by The

Advancement Project (2005). For example, The Advancement Project conducted studies

on three school districts in Denver, Chicago, and Palm Beach County that used zero-

tolerance policy and discovered that the school districts had teamed up with law

enforcement to create a schoolhouse to jailhouse track by imposing a double dose of

punishment and a trip to the juvenile court for one act of childish misconduct. The

Advancement Project also discovered that across the board, the data shows that Black and

Latino students are more likely than their White peers to be arrested in school, regardless

of the demographics of the school's enrollment. Supporting The Advancement Project's

study, Thompson (2016) used the Miami-Dade County Public School District policies

and argued that school discipline is a popular feature of the United States Criminal

Justice System. Thompson found that minority students are disproportionately impacted

by policies in schools, and racial minorities represent a disproportionately high rate of the

United States prison population despite the fact that they represent only a small fraction

of the United States. Thompson noted that school-level bias in discipline and the criminal

justice system are interrelate. For example, Thompson conducted a Missouri study on school discipline and juvenile justice for African-American and White students aged 10-17 and reported racial biases in school suspensions to be a strong indicator of similar levels of racial disparity in juvenile court referrals. Both authors demonstrated that school discipline of marginalized students are connected merely because of the race of the students.

Bias, either conscious (explicit) or unconscious (implicit) can be problematic in modern day law enforcement, Hossain (2018) noted by using 48 police recruits, 25 to 29 years old from the Justice Institute of British Columbia Police Academy that biases and preconceptions may occupy a police officer's mind by associating Blacks with crimes more than Whites due to the situational adaptation of Blacks being the majority population in the prison system in the United States. Hossain is surly right about his findings that perceptions of Blacks are the majority population in U.S. prisons and Hossain made another valuable point that bias can be problematic in modern day law enforcement, we all have hidden biases, but in the profession of law enforcement, those biases should not become barriers to the mindset of police. Race is what police officers see first, followed with criminalization.

Bias starts early, Black children represent 18 % of pre-school students, but account for 48 % of pre-school suspensions and arrests. For example, Flannery's (2017) quantitative study pulled statistics from the Prison Policy Institute and discovered that approximately 34,000 American youths are behind bars, two thirds for non-violent offenses and approximately 20,000 youth confined to residential facilities. Flannery also

discovered that SROs are more than likely to have made school-based arrests of marginalized students. Nellis (2016) aligns with Flannery (2017) but Nellis also discovered using quantitative rates of incarceration for Whites, African Americans, and Hispanics in each state that incarceration creates a host of collateral consequences that includes restricted employment prospects, housing instability, family disruption, stigma, and disenfranchisement for marginalized people. Nellis also discovered that rates of racial and ethnic disparity show the overrepresentation of people of color in the prison system. While Nellis (2016) does not give the demographics of the 34,000 American youth behind bars, research has shown (Cabrera, 2018; Dohy, 2016; McNeal, 2016; Mills, 2016; OJJDP, 2018) that marginalized populations are the majority of imprisonment. Both studies used quantitative research to confirm how race and incarceration by law enforcement are intertwined among marginalized groups but Nellis further explains the life-long consequences of being arrested.

Schools across the country have adopted extremely harsh discipline policies to control student misbehavior (Merkwae, 2015) and 55% of SROs indicated that they had arrested students for minor offenses because teachers wanted the arrests to occur. Quantitative data from the Department of Education used by Merkwae (2105) found that 77% of SROs indicated that they had arrested a student in the past to calm that student down, and 68% of SROs made arrests to show students that actions had consequences. McNeal (2016) refuted Merkwae's (2015) claim that SROs make arrests based on a teacher's request or to calm a student down. McNeal (2016) insisted through her quantitative study of The Juvenile Justice Training in America's Police Academies that

the disparity in marginalized students being arrested from schools was because of the failure of schools to address the influence of explicit, and implicit biases. SROs and teachers can unknowingly give African American students harsher sanctions than their White peers due to unconscious bias. There is a strong correlation between implicit bias and racial disparities in school disciplinary sanctions. Merkwae's (2015) study up to her conclusion is debatable because of the percentage breakdown of school-based arrest on marginalized students. McNeal's (2016) study is extremely useful research, because the research explains how implicit and explicit bias against minorities in K-12 are negatively impacted by disciplinary practices because of their race.

The existence of systematic bias of African American youth in schools becomes even more obvious once one considers that the same patterns of vast racial disproportionality exist in punishment. For example, Simon (2014) used peer-reviewed articles and found that systematic bias also existed in the juvenile justice system and its adult counterpart the criminal justice system. But McNeal (2016) disagreed with Simon (2014) just like she did with Merkwae's (2015) study. McNeal (2016) implied that bias is unconscious, but Simson (2014) implied that bias is systematic. Both studies, Simon and McNeal are framed around biases but they disagree on the existence of bias in schools. According to both authors, regardless if bias is unconscious or systematic, some form of bias still plays a role in the disproportionate school discipline that SROs rely on when making school-based arrests of marginalized students.

There is a strong correlation between implicit bias and racial disparities but also that racial discipline disparities, and stereotypes, are a consequence of U.S. history

(Carter et al., 2017). Based on a legal brief from the Discipline Disparities Series, Carter et al. (2017) found that divisions and consequences of race, extend beyond the streets, and into most of our institutions including schools in the form of exacerbated inequality in discipline of marginalized students. Endorsing Carter et al. (2017), George (2017) noted that police presence in schools perpetuates the racial profiling, discriminatory disciplining, and incarcerating of children of color. George used peer-reviewed research and discovered that policymakers have largely ignored the collateral impact of police in schools, and on marginalized students, who are viewed as dispensable, and responsible for the negative outcomes that they experience due to police presence in schools. George also discovered that police presence in schools increases the likelihood of early involvement of youth of color, in the juvenile justice system. George highlights that policing of youth of color, in U.S. public schools often mirrors discriminatory racial profiling and excessive force. Both authors analyzed how race in schools and racial profiling are perpetuated by police presence in schools. Both studies explained that race is the deciding factor in how school discipline practices are issued by SROs in schools against marginalize students when making school-based arrests.

Policymakers are not paying attention to the overwhelming impact of law enforcement in schools and some of the horrendous consequences of arrestees (Alexander, 2020). Alexander's (2020) historical narrative of tracing the treatment and control of black people from Jim Crow, until mass incarceration discovered that America has recently birthed another caste system, and that mass incarceration has merely been redesign. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and other Civil Rights leaders protested to change

Jim Crow laws that legalized explicit racism (Thompson, 2016). Alexander also

discovered that if young white people were incarcerated at the same rates as young black

people, the issue would be a national emergency. According to Eddo-Lodge (2018) it's

not all white people, just the vast majority of white people who refuse to accept the

existence of structural racism and its symptoms. Corroborating Alexander's (2020) study,

Marcelin and Hinger (2017) relied on history and discovered that tensions between

African Americans and the police have deep historical roots. The case of George Floyd

and other recent cases reveal that we clearly have so much more work to do (Dreyer et

al., 2020). Marcelin and Hinger (2017) used data from the ACLU and the NYCLU and

contend that the use of extreme police tactics in schools has continued despite evidence

that demonstrates the significant, disparate, and sometimes lifelong consequences of

school policing on young people of color. Alexander's (2020) findings still exist today.

Policymakers are not paying attention to how law enforcement in schools' impact

marginalized students. Marcelin and Hinger's (2017) study also aligns with Alexander's

(2020) study that today America still witnesses extreme police tactics. Both studies relied

on history as a guide to explain that a relationship exists between policing in schools and

its effects on school arrests based on race.

Racial disparities are found in 43 of our 50 states and in the District of Columbia

(Hinger, 2017). Hinger (2017) also noted using Civil Rights data collected from the

2013-2014 school year on school arrests, a juvenile court judge recalled that after police

were place in local schools, misdemeanor referrals to court, increased by 1,248 %. In

addition, May et al. (2018) found that 68% of state prison inmates did not finish high

school by using three years of youth court data from a southeastern state, that examined the difference in referrals from SROs, and law enforcement. Both studies provided insight that explains the relationship between law enforcement, race, and racial disparities in schools.

Gap in Literature

This literature review looked at connections and relationships between studies to help explain the research question: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools?. There were several studies that focused on the theme of cultural competency and SROs: Ashkinazy (2017): Counts et al. (2018): George (2017): Marcelin and Hinger (2017): Mbekeani-Wiley (2017): McCurdy et al. (2019): McNeal (2016): Mills (2016): and Otuyelu et al. (2016). Although all of these studies used different research methods, all studies agreed that there is a lack of cultural competency training in law enforcement. This was not an exhaustive list of studies.

Conflicts among the theme that law enforcement do not need cultural competency training included the following authors: Buckley et al. (2013): Fletcher et al. (2019): May et al. (2018): McNeal (2016): Nelson and Lind (2015): and Paxton and Strauss (2018).

There were some studies that did not feel cultural competency training was important enough for law enforcement. Perspectives vary on disproportionate school-based arrests of marginalized students and lack of cultural competency training of law enforcement officers.

Little research has been done that looks directly at the SRO who has the authority and the discretion to arrest a student from school. A gap exists in the specific training that SROs receive when placed in public schools. Children act out away from home, how will cultural competency training mitigated the arrests of marginalized students?

Summary and Conclusions

Chapter 2 focused on five themes that guided my research. The first was cultural competency theory which serves as the theoretical framework. The second theme was SROs that explained how some SROs share neither the culture nor the values of the population they service. SRO training was the third theme that explored the guidance given to SROs on cultural competency training or any training that sufficiently prepares them to work in public schools. The fourth theme, criminalization of student behavior explored how a majority of students in the United States' primary and secondary schools were affected by criminalized offenses that were not considered dangerous. And the last theme, racial disparities in school arrests examined school arrests based on race of marginalized students in K-12 public schools and its correlation with punishment. SRO training in Florida was also examined. Finally, a gap in literature was discussed.

The literature review prepared the reader for chapter 3, Research Method. This included reviewing the research design and rationale that showed trends and patterns in the statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools.

Chapter 3:Research Method

Researchers have suggested that there is a need to further investigate if a statistically significant relationship exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in a southeastern K to 12 public school district. I provided the process for the data collection in this chapter, coded the data, and then analyzed the data. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to answer the research question: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools?

In this study, I aimed to determine if predatory policing or the direct targeting of vulnerable groups by way of arrests and the issuance of citations (see Carbado, 2017) could mitigate or eliminate arrests in K to 12 public schools. According to Education Week Research Center original analysis of Civil Rights Data Collection from 2017, the number of school-based arrests of children in 2017 was 9,501 in the state of California, and there were 4,847 school-based arrests in Georgia. In the state of Florida, 20% of students are Black, but they accounted for more than half of all arrests within the district and continued to be disproportionately disciplined in Florida's largest school district (ACLU, 2019). This theme remains constant (Jesus & Liguori, 2014). Some researchers have supported public school children being arrested and sent to juvenile detention (Mizel et al., 2016), but some schoolchildren are being severely punished for relatively minor infractions (May et al., 2018). The objectives of this chapter was to address the research question, including the (a) research design and rationale, (b) methodology, (c)

population and sample, (d) data collection, (e) reliability and validity, (f) data analysis

plan, (g) threats to validity, and (h) summary.

Research Design and Rationale

In this study, I used a nonexperimental quantitative correlational design to study

the relationship between two variables, training (independent variable) and arrests

(dependent variable). A nonexperimental quantitative correlational approach helped

explain the statistical relationship between the two variables and provided the numerical

answer for the research question. Quantitative research explains phenomena by collecting

numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically-based methods, in particular,

statistics (Muijs, 2011). Quantitative researchers view the world as reality that can be

objectively determined (Sukamolson, 2007). Statistical methods are especially useful for

looking at relationships and patterns and expressing these patterns with numbers

(Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Quantitative research is also well-suited for the testing of

theories and hypotheses (Sukamolson, 2007). I did not use qualitative research because I

would not have been able to employ experimental manipulation or random assignment of

subjects to conditions because events had already occurred or they were inherently not

manipulable (see Rudestam & Newton, 2007).

Methodology

Secondary data analysis was used for this study. Secondary data analysis can be

advantageous because technological advances have led to vast amounts of data that have

been collected, compiled, and archived and are now easily accessible (Johnston, 2017). In

addition, secondary data analysis can be used for either exploratory or confirmatory work

and can be either correlational or experimental (Weston et al., 2019). Archival records provided important opportunities for unobtrusive data collection because they reduced the possibility of any biases I may have held. Conversely, primary research is a costly undertaking. It is less expensive to use existing data than to collect new data. By comparing data collected by others to their own, a researcher avoids the need to replicate studies personally (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). This study employed secondary data analysis. Correlational data were collected from categorical variables between 2016 and 2019 from electronic archive data located in the public domain on one southeastern K to 12 public school district's website. Data on elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools were collected to explore the relationship between the variables, training and arrests. The collection of SROs' training between 2016 and 2019 came from the Florida Department of Law Enforcement (www.fdle.state.fl.us), and SROs' basic training curriculum came from Broward College (www.broward.edu/academics) and from Florida's Law Enforcement Academy (www.fdle.state.fl.us) to explore the relationship between the variables, training and arrests.

Population

The population used for this study consisted of students in Grades K to 12 from one southeastern K to 12 public school district. This southeastern K-12 public school district is the fourth largest school district in the United States and for school years between 2016 to 2019 comprised of 1,415 elementary, middle, and high schools, and 1,060,298 students total (Assessment, Research, and Data Analysis, 2018). The district is located at the southern end of the Florida peninsula that stretches over 2,000 square

miles, ranging from rural, suburban, to urban cities and municipalities. Ninety-nine percent of the K to 12 schools are rated A, B, or C, according to this one southeastern K to 12 public school district archival data. According to Florida Department of Education 2016-2017 school year, the population included 22.3% Blacks, 38.7% Whites, and 9.7% Hispanics. The population during the 2017-2018 school year included 22.1% Blacks, 38% Whites, and 33.1% Hispanics. And the population included 21.9% Blacks, 37.4% Whites, and 33.9% Hispanics during the 2018-2019 school year.

The population of SROs in Florida's school districts was also examined through 3 years of official archived data (2016-2019) and was restricted to Miami-Dade County's Police Department. Miami-Dade County's Police Department is the seventh largest law enforcement agency in Miami-Dade County, Florida according to their website. The state of Florida has approximately 1,863 SROs employed within the school districts (Florida Department of Law Enforcement, 2018).

There is no rule or statute requiring specific SRO training according to Florida Department of Law Enforcement, 2018. Miami-Dade County's total intake of youth arrests for the years 2016 to 2019 was 6,112 (Florida Department of Juvenile Justice Delinquency's Profile, 2020). As of 2018, law enforcement training in Florida is delivered through 40 criminal justice standards and training centers (Florida Department of Law Enforcement, 2018). Basic academy training for law enforcement in Florida is 770 hours (4.58 weeks), and police academies spend less than 1% of total training hours on juvenile justice issues (Counts et al., 2018).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Because the population of a southeastern K to 12 public school district was large

(1,415 public schools), G*Power analysis was used to determine the sample size, effect

size, and power size. The number of elementary schools required for the sample size was

29 to obtain significance using a large effect of .05. I had an 80% chance of getting

significance using a two-tail correlation bivariate normal model. The number of middle

schools required for the sample size was also 29 to obtain significance using a large

effect of .05. I had an 80% chance of getting significance using a two-tail correlation

bivariate normal model. Additionally, the number of high schools required for the sample

size was 29 to obtain significance using a large effect of .05. I also had an 80% chance of

getting significance using a two-tail correlation bivariate normal model. Cluster sampling

is best used when the population studied is large and when useful details can be gathered

from studying a group of related individuals (Stoica, 2019). Of the 1,415 elementary,

middle, and high schools in the target population, the sample was comprised from 467

elementary, middle, and high schools and 356,086 students from the 2016-2017 school

year; 472 elementary, middle, and high schools and 354,172 students from the 2017-2018

school year; and 476 elementary, middle, and high schools and 350,040 students from the

2018-2019 school year (Assessment, Research, and Data Analysis, 2018). The enrolled

student samples were diverse, with representation from Grades K to 12 and across

genders and ethnicities. Not included in this sampling were students from virtual schools,

charter schools, private schools, and Catholic schools. This 3-year period was selected

because it was the most recent information available, and 3 years were included to

eliminate a potential issue with one year having an outlier or otherwise unusual data.

SROs are part of the larger school-to-prison pipeline that pushes students out of school

and behind bars (Bell, 2018). Additionally, research was limited on cultural competency

training of SROs in public schools; however, statistics from the data permitted

comparison of patterns and trends to reach a conclusion by generating numerical data

through SPSS linear regression analysis and G*Power analysis that identified a

relationship between the two variables.

During the 2016-2017 timeframe, the number of intake arrests for a southeastern

K to 12 public school district was 3,773; for the 2017-2018 timeframe, there were 3,203

intake arrests; and for the 2018-2019 timeframe, there were 3,082 intake arrests (Florida

Department of Juvenile Justice, 2020). The sample of SROs were considered law

enforcement officers from one southeastern K to 12 public school district. According to

the Miami-Dade Police, as of 2019, Miami-Dade Public School District had 460 police

officers (Tester, 2019). Using archival data, the following SROs' training data were

collected from Florida's Department of Education, Florida's Officer Training

requirements, Florida's Police Academy, Florida's Department of Juvenile Justice, and

Delinquency in Florida's School's Dashboard. Other types of training came from the

active curriculum of Florida's Law Enforcement Academy.

Data Collection

Before applying statistical analysis to empirical data, a quantitative study must

define the variables it will quantify and measure (Stoica, 2019). Data sets collected by

university-based researchers are often archived by data archives; these are organizations

set up chiefly for the purpose of releasing and disseminating secondary data to the general research community (Hox & Boeije, 2005). Using secondary data can present researchers with a number of characteristic problems. First, researchers must locate data sources that may be useful given their own research problem. Second, they must be able to retrieve the relevant data, and third, it is important to evaluate how well the data met the quality requirements of the current research and methodological criteria of good scientific practice (Hox & Boeije, 2005). Archival design is appropriate when secondary data sources are available and resources are limited to answer the research question (Diaz-Kope et al., 2018). In this study, I used archival data and was not required to obtain informed consent forms.

Correlational data were collected from categorical variables between 2016 and 2019 from Miami-Dade Public School District's website on elementary schools. Correlational data were collected from categorical variables between 2016 and 2019 from Miami-Dade Public School District's website on middle schools, and correlational data were collected from categorical variables between 2016 and 2019 from Miami-Dade Public School District's website on high schools to explore a relationship between the variables of training and arrests. The collection of SROs' trainings for the timeframe of 2016 to 2019 came from Florida's Department of Education, Florida Department of Law Enforcement, basic recruit training, and Florida's Law Enforcement Academy.

Official archival data on juvenile intake arrests (2016-2019) that provided trends and patters was taken from intake arrest data provided to the Florida Department of Juvenile Justice (www.djj.state.fl.us). I collected official archival data on student

characteristics such as gender, race/ethnicity and the number of school arrests from

elementary, middle, and high schools in Miami-Dade Public School District for the

following school years 2016-2019.

Reliability

The objective of reliability for this research was to obtain consistent results. That

is, by using SPSS to test variables, the data set produced the desired outcomes explaining

a statistical relationship between the SROs' cultural competency training and school-

based arrests of marginalized students in the state of Florida existed. Reliability is the

extent to which a research instrument consistently has the same results if it is used in the

same situation on repeated occasions (Heale & Twycross, 2015). I proposed

maximization of this study when other researchers use the same method and consistently

reproduce the same outcomes for their individual data.

Validity

Construct validity was used for this research to generalize and measure the

statistical relationship accurately and fully between SROs' cultural competency training

and school-based arrests of marginalized students in the state of Florida. Construct

validity refers to the extent to which a research instrument (or tool) measures the intended

construct (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Cultural competency theory was proposed to

measure the behavior of SROs and produce valid results for future researchers to

replicate this study. If a study cannot be reproduced by others, or by the same researcher

at a later time, by definition it does not follow the constructs of the scientific method

(Stoica, 2019).

Data Analysis Plan

SPSS software (linear regression analysis) was utilized to explain the relationship between the dependent variable (arrests) and independent variable (training). After inputting all data, I double checked and proof-read all numerical values. The following research question was addressed: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools?

Variables and Measurement Level

The variables included training (independent variable) and arrests (dependent variable). Numbers were assigned to identify ethnicity/race, for example, 1 = Black, 2 = White, 3 = Hispanic. Numbers were assigned to identify gender; for example, 1 = female, 2 = male. Numbers were assigned to identify schools; for example, 4 = elementary, 5 = middle, 6 = high school. Numbers were assigned to identify law enforcement training; for example, juvenile justice training = 7, youth development training = 8, cultural competency training = 9, diversity training = 10, deployed to public school training =11.

The quantitative measurement was nominal. Numbers were assigned to identify ethnicity/race (black, white, Hispanic) and gender (male or female) students from Miami-Dade School District. Numerical measurement were assigned to identify the schools (elementary, middle, high school). And nominal measurement were assigned to the types of training for SROs from Miami-Dade School Police Department (juvenile justice training, youth development training, cultural competency training, diversity training, deployed to public schools training).

For hypothesis testing I used SPSS software (linear regression analysis) to explore the relationship between the dependent variable (arrests) and the independent variable (training). After collected official archival data was inputted in SPSS, data trends and patterns had been interpreted, the null hypothesis was evaluated. I was looking to determine that the data supported the hypothesis or did not support the hypothesis.

The independent variable (training) was plotted on the x-axis and the dependent variable (arrests) was plotted on the y-axis for the school years 2016-2019. The categories for the x-axis included SROs' basic academy training for 2016-2019 and for the y-axis categories included arrests from elementary, middle, and high schools from 2016-2019. Using official archival secondary data, I collected and aggregated training and arrest data from Miami-Dade Public School District during the school years of 2016-2019 and conducted a bivariate linear regression. Bivariate linear regression computes an equation that relates predicted Y scores (Y) to X scores (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Analytic Methods

Descriptive statistics and linear regression analysis were proposed for this research using SPSS. Descriptive statistics are specific methods basically used to calculate, describe, and summarize collected research data in a logical, meaningful, and efficient way and reported numerically (Vetter, 2017) and regression analysis is a statistical technique for investigating and modeling the relationship between variables (Montgomery et al., 2012). For the hypothesis testing of the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis, regression analysis was performed to identify a relationship

between the independent variable (training) and the dependent variable (arrests). The data was displayed using bar charts.

Threats to Validity

Secondary studies are vulnerable threats to validity. Although, mitigating these threats is crucial for the credibility of the study (Ampatzoglou et al., 2019).

External Validity

External validity refers to the generalizability of the findings of the study (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Possible external threats for this study will be that this study can only be applied in Miami-Dade Public School District for the school years of 2016-2019. Alter behavior of SROs in public school settings if they knew they were being studied as part of a research on school-arrests of marginalized students.

Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the validity of a causal inference (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Under or nonreporting of school arrests. Some students may have dropped out of school with arrests still being reported. Some students may have moved to another district after official enrollment period ended during the school years of 2016-2019 and this study may not generalize to other public school districts or timeframe.

Construct Validity

Construct validity is similar to accuracy in that it indicates the strength of the relation between a study's findings and theoretical constructs or other studies' findings (Stoica, 2019). The scales for this study may not properly measure the variables.

Ethical Procedures

I used publicly available, secondary archival data from 2016-2019 school years and no agreements to gain access or human participants were used in this research. The proposed study procedures was reviewed and approved by Walden's IRB (04-28-21-0019097) prior to data collection.

Summary

Chapter 3 presented the steps for this correlational research design that addressed the research question and null hypothesis. Chapter 3 guided the reader to (a) research design and rationale (b) methodology (c) population and sample (d) data collection (e) reliability and validity (f) data analysis plan (g) threats to external and internal validity and (h) summary. This included reviewing the research design and rationale that displayed trends and patterns in the statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools. "School-based policing is the fastest growing area of law enforcement" (Merkwae, 2015, p. 158) and student arrests are rising (American Civil Liberties Union, 2020).

Chapter 4 included data collection results that found cultural competency theory explained the statistical relationship between SROs' training and school-based arrests of marginalized students.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to lessen the gap addressing SROs' cultural competency training and the percentage of school-based arrests of marginalized students in one state of Florida's K to 12 public school districts. Some researchers have supported public school children being arrested and sent to juvenile detention, but some schoolchildren are being severely punished for relatively minor infractions (May et al., 2018; Mizel et al., 2016). Facing arrests and automatic removal from school can set youth on a trajectory of school disconnection and justice system involvement (Goldstein et al., 2019).

Descriptive statistics and linear regression analysis were used to address the research question, what is the statistically significant relationship, if any, between SROs' cultural competency training and the percentage of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's K to 12 public school district. According to the ACLU (2019) 20% of one southeastern K to 12 public school district's students are Black, but they account for more than half of all arrests within the district, and students continue to be disproportionately disciplined in Florida's largest school district. Public schools have become a feeder system for juvenile lockups (Ramprashad, 2019).

Drawing from the cultural competence theory, the research question and hypotheses were as follows:

RQ1: What statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools.

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools. In Chapter 4, I briefly describe the research question and hypotheses, data collection, results, and summary

After approval was granted from Walden IRB (04-28-21-0019097), archival data were obtained from the public domain to electronically access one southeastern K to 12 public school district for the 2016-2019 school years to conduct this research. Archival data from the public domain were also electronically accessed to research SRO cultural competency training during the timeframe of 2016 to 2019 from the Miami-Dade County Police Department, Florida Police Academy, Florida Department of Law Enforcement, Florida Department of Education, Florida Department of Juvenile Justice, and Florida Department of Officer's Training. Archival data were also electronically accessed from the public domain of Florida's Department of Juvenile Justice, Dade County youth arrests during the 2016 to 2019 school years. No pilot study was needed to answer the research question. The terms *law enforcement* and *police* are used to refer to individuals who perform policing duties.

Data Sources

Data for this research were collected from public elementary schools, public middle schools, and public high schools in one state of Florida's K to 12 public school districts between 2016 to 2019 school years. The enrolled student samples were diverse, with respect to grade level, gender, race, and ethnicity. Not included in this sampling were students from virtual schools, charter schools, Catholic schools, and private schools. This 3-year period was selected because it was the most recent information available, and 3 years were included to eliminate a potential issue with one year having an outlier or otherwise unusual data.

Correlational data were collected from categorical variables between 2016 to 2019 school years from a southeastern K to 12 public school district's website on elementary schools. Correlational data were also collected from categorical variables between 2016 to 2019 school years from a southeastern K to 12 public school district's website on middle schools, and correlational data were collected from categorical variables between 2016 to 2019 school years from a southeastern K to 12 public school district's website on high schools, allowing me to explore a relationship between the variables of training and arrests. The collection of SROs' trainings for the timeframe of the 2016 to 2019 school years came from Florida's Police Academy, Florida's Department of Juvenile Justice, Florida's Department of Education, Florida's Officer Training Requirements, and Florida Department of Law Enforcement. The training was displayed as a course in a curriculum from each individual law enforcement agency along with the name of the training and the number of hours for each individual course.

Official electronic archival data on juvenile intake arrests (2016-2019) school years that provided trends and patterns came from intake arrest data provided by the Florida Department of Juvenile Justice. Intake is the entry point to the Department of Juvenile Justice for all juveniles arrested or charged with delinquent acts (Greenwald, 2018). Official electronic archival data were collected on student characteristics such as gender, race/ethnicity, and the number of school-based arrests from elementary, middle, and high schools from one K to 12 southeastern public school district between school years 2016 to 2019.

Cluster sampling was used because the population studied was large. Of the 1,415 elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools in the target population, G*Power analysis was used to determine the required sample size of the elementary, middle, and high schools as 29 and shown in Figure 1. As shown in Figure 1, the statistical test displaying the sample size was 29 public elementary schools, 29 public middle schools, and 29 public high schools from one K to 12 southeastern public school district between school years 2016 to 2019.

Figure 1

Sample Size

I needed to obtain 29 individual elementary, middle, and high schools to have a good chance for a correlation between the two variables. I used a two-tail correlation bivariate normal model to determine my correlation to the population (0.5), the alpha level (0.05), and the power level (.80) in order to obtain significance. I tested against a null hypothesis of 0 correlation. Based on Cohen's Effect Sizes for Pearson's *r*, small size = .10, medium size = .30, and large size = .50. I ran my analysis on a large effect size.

The numerical data for student enrollment was provided by one southeastern K – 12 public school district's website. The sample was comprised of 467 elementary, middle, and high schools and 356,086 students from the 2016-2017 school year; 472 elementary, middle, and high schools and 354,172 students from the 2017-2018 school year; and 476 elementary, middle, and high schools and 350,040 students from the 2018-2019 school year, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Total Student Enrollment for 2016-2019 School Years

Public schools	Students	Year
Elementary, middle, high schools	356,086	2016-2017
Elementary, middle, high schools	354,172	2017-2018
Elementary, middle, high schools	350,040	2018-2019

Note. This table represents the diversity of student enrollment at a southeastern public school district.

Assessment, Research, and Data Analysis. (2018). Adopted from

http://drs.dadeschools.net/StatisticalHighlights/M970%20-%20ATTACHMENT%20-
%20Statistical%20Highlights%2018-19.pdf

The enrolled student samples were diverse, with representations from Grades K to

12 and across genders and ethnicities. Not included in this sampling were students from

virtual schools, charter schools, Catholic schools, and private schools. This 3-year period

was selected because it was the most recent information available.

Using archival data from the public domain from a southeastern K to 12 public

school district Table 2 displays the 2016-2017 enrolled student diversity, with

representation from Grades K-12, and across genders. Table 2 also displays enrollment of

Hispanics students, Black students, White students, and other students. Other students

included American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Pacific Islander, and Multiracial

Cultures.

Table 2

MDCPS Student Diversity for School Years 2016-2017

Student membership by grade level, 2016-2017				
Grade	White Non-Hispanic	Black Non-Hispanic	Hispanic	Other*	Total
PK	432	2,655	5,166	125	8,378
Kdg	1,530	5,378	16,705	424	24,037
01	1,664	5,501	17,711	414	25,290
02	1,707	5,606	18,878	444	26,635
03	1,931	6,359	20,073	518	28,881
04	1,850	4,942	18,967	461	26,220
05	1,906	5,454	19,360	585	27,305
06	1,813	4,966	18,588	616	25,983
07	1,971	5,099	18,763	507	26,340
08	2,089	5,298	19,148	392	26,927
09	2,068	5,717	19,459	458	27,702
10	2,118	5,916	19,557	452	28,043
11	1,971	5,889	19,304	455	27,619
12	2,096	5,939	18,255	436	26,726
Total	25,146	74,719	249,934	6,287	356,086
Total male					182,415
Total female					173,671

Note. Other includes American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Pacific Islander, and Multiracial categories.

2017 FTE membership excludes PreK students enrolled as part of the Teenage Parent Program (TAP).

Adopted from Miami Dade County Statistical Highlights for 2016-2017.

http://drs.dadeschools.net/StatisticalHighlights/SH.asp

During the school year of 2016-2017, the electronic archival graph in Table 2 displays that Hispanic students were the largest student enrollment (249,934) at a southeastern K to 12 public school district followed by Black student enrollment at (74,719). The purpose of Table 2 was to display the ethnicities and race of marginalize students and their gender. During the 2016-2017 timeframe the number of intake arrests for a southeastern K to 12 public school district was 3,773 arrests. Youth of color are more likely to have contact with juvenile justice systems and are at greater risk of becoming involved in the criminal justice system (Oglesby-Neal & Peterson, 2020).

Using electronic archival data from the public domain for a southeastern K -12 public school district Table 3 shows 2017-2018 enrolled student diversity, with representation from grades K-12, and across genders. Table 3 displays enrollment of Hispanics students, Black students, White students, and Other students. Other students are American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Pacific Islander and Multiracial Cultures. The purpose of Table 3 is to display the ethnicities of marginalize students and their gender. The highest enrollment of marginalized students during the 2017-2018 school year in Table 3 were Hispanics students at 251,140 and Black student enrollment were at 72,468. During the 2017-2018 timeframe the number of intake arrests for a southeastern K to 12 public school district was 3,203 arrests. The path to prison often begins in childhood and in schools segregated by race and class (Dohy, 2016; Dolan et al., 2018).

Table 3

MDCPS Student Diversity for School Years 2017-2018

Student membership by grade level, 2017-2018				
Grade	White Non-Hispanic	Black Non-Hispanic	Hispanic	Other*	Total
PK**	481	2,938	5,513	180	9,112
Kdg	1,512	5,020	16,259	425	23,216
01	1,625	5,350	17,935	423	25,333
02	1,698	5,332	18,189	430	25,649
03	1,726	5,819	19,802	446	27,793
04	1,840	5,352	19,269	497	26,958
05	1,813	4,856	19,319	447	26,435
06	1,892	5,355	19,788	570	27,605
07	1,791	4,896	18,923	608	26,218
08	1,944	4,959	19,126	493	26,522
09	2,035	5,343	19,553	401	27,332
10	2,027	5,610	19,479	449	27,565
11	2,011	5,619	18,951	438	27,019
12	1,904	6,019	19,034	458	27,415
Total	24,299	72,468	251,140	6,265	354,172
Total male					181,089
Total female					173,082

Note. *Other includes American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Pacific Islander, and Multiracial

categories, 2018 FTE membership excludes PreK students enrolled as part of the Teenage Parent Program

(TAP). Adopted from Miami Dade County Statistical Highlights for 2017-2018.

http://drs.dadeschools.net/StatisticalHighlights/SH1718.pdf

Using electronic archival data from the public domain for a southeastern K to 12 public school district Table 4 shows 2018-2019 enrolled student diversity, with representation from grades K-12, and across genders. Table 4 displays enrollment of Hispanics students, Black students, White students and Other students. Other students are American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Pacific Islander and Multiracial Cultures. The purpose of Table 4 was to display the ethnicities of marginalize students and their gender. Hispanic enrollment were 250,179 followed by Black student enrollment at 70,329. During the 2018-2019 timeframe the number of intake arrests for a southeastern K to 12 public school district was 3,082 arrests. A 2018 Delinquency Intake Report by Florida Department of Juvenile Justice Profile of Youth stated that of the delinquency youth arrested, 72% were male and 69% were between the ages of 15 and 17 at the time of arrest. Youth arrests increased 8% during the 2018-2019 school year (ACLU, 2020).

Table 4

MDCPS Student Diversity for School Years 2018-2019

Student membership by grade level, 2018-2019				
Grade	White Non-Hispanic	Black Non-Hispanic	Hispanic	Other*	Total
PK**	425	2,917	5,932	195	9,469
Kdg	1,498	4,804	16,094	438	22,834
01	1,589	5,018	17,555	439	24,601
02	1,588	5,250	18,286	429	25,553
03	1,749	5,548	19,027	412	27,793
04	1,675	5,061	19,082	437	26,255
05	1,796	5,244	19,485	500	27,025
06	1,769	4,847	19,589	427	26,632
07	1,861	5,288	19,833	553	27,535
08	1,780	4,821	19,045	572	26,218
09	1,868	5,094	19,345	496	26,803
10	1,935	5,269	19,402	398	27,004
11	1,860	5,289	18,643	445	26,237
12	1,950	5,879	18,861	448	27,138
Total	23,343	70,329	250,179	6,189	350,040
Total male					179,171
Total female					170,869

Note. *Other includes American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Pacific Islander, and Multiracial

categories, 2019 FTE membership excludes PreK students enrolled as part of the Teenage Parent Program

(TAP). Adopted from Miami Dade County Statistical Highlights for 2018-2019.

http://drs.dadeschools.net/StatisticalHighlights/M970%20-%20ATTACHMENT%20-

%20Statistical%20Highlights%2018-19.pdf

Table 5 shows youth arrests during the 2016-2019 timeframe. The number of

intake arrests for a southeastern K to 12 public school district was 3,773 for 2016-2017.

For the 2017-2018 timeframe 3,203 intake arrests were made. And for the 2018-2019

timeframe 3,082 intake arrests were made according to Florida Department of Juvenile

Justice Dade County youth arrests. Intake arrests for delinquent offenses in a southeastern

K to 12 public school district were identified as occurring on school grounds, a school

bus or bus stop or at an official school event. Intake is the entry point to the Department

of Juvenile Justice (DJJ) for all juveniles arrested or charged with delinquent acts

(Greenwald, 2018).

Table 5

Arrests by Year

School year	School arrests
2016-2017	3773
2017-2018	3203
2018-2019	3082

Note. Adopted from Florida Department of Juvenile Justice, 2020.

http://www.djj.state.fl.us/research/reports/reports-and-data/interactive-data-reports/delinquency-profile/delinquency-profile-dashboard

The purpose of Table 5 was to reveal a glimpse of youth arrested in a southeastern

K-12 public school district during the school years of 2016-2019. Arrests can have

negative consequences on students including restriction of employment opportunities,

denial of college admission, ineligibility to serve in the military, and loss of public

housing assistance (ACLU, 2020; Coble, 2018; Goldstein et al., 2019).

Research was limited on cultural competency training of SROs during the

timeframe of 2016-2019 in public schools K-12 in a southeastern state, however,

statistics from the electronic archival data permitted comparison of patterns and trends to

reach a conclusion by generating numerical data through SPSS Statistics version 27

package using the linear regression analysis and G*Power analysis that identified a

relationship between the two variables.

Using electronic archival data from the public domain, the following SROs'

training curriculum was collected from The National Association of School Resource

Officers. The NASRO Basic School Resource Officer Course is a forty-hour (40) block

of instruction designed for law enforcement officers and school safety professionals

working in an educational environment and with school administrators. As shown in

Table 6 the course used a combination of classroom instruction, interactive learning,

PowerPoint presentations, videos, and practical scenarios limited to hours for each

section.

Table 6

NASRO Curriculum

NASRO basic school resource officer training agenda	HRS
Foundations of school-based law enforcement	3
Ethics and the SRO	2
The SRO as a teacher/guest speaker and effective presentations	2
Understanding special needs students	2
The SRO as an informal counselor/mentor	2
Social media and cyber safety	2
Understanding the teen Brain	3
Violence and victimization: Challenges to development	1
Sex trafficking of youth	2
School law	4
Developing and supporting successful relationships with diverse students	2
Effects of youth trends and drugs on the school culture and environment	4
Threat response: Preventing violence in school settings	2
School safety and emergency operations plans	2
Crime prevention through environmental design	2
The SRO as a teacher/guest speaker: Effect presentations	2
Violence and victimization: Challenges to development, continued	2
Program enhancements	1

Note. HRS means hours. Adopted from https://www.nasro.org/clientuploads/Course%20Agendas/NASRO_

Basic_Course_Description_and_Outline_UPDATED.pdf

The purpose of the National Association of School Resource Officer Training

curriculum was to display whether or not SROs had cultural competency training prior to

working in public schools with high populations of marginalized students in a

southeastern K to 12 public school district. As shown in Table 6, cultural competency

training was not a part of The National Association of School Resource Officer Training

curriculum in the state of Florida. The training does include Developing and Supporting

Successful Relationships with Diverse Students for 2 hours. Officers assigned to schools

are not required to complete any SRO training (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017). Miami-Dade

County's Police Department is the seventh largest law enforcement agency in Miami-

Dade County, Florida and has had its own police department since 1966 (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017).

Another agency offering law enforcement training collected from archival data in the public domain included Florida Law Enforcement Academy. Tables 7 displays the curriculum of basic recruit training of law enforcement and the hours spent on each subject.

Table 7

Florida Basic Recruit Curriculum for Law Enforcement

Florida Law Enforcement Academy (Version 2020.07) #2000 Volume 1 – Florida Basic Recruit Training Program: Law Enforcement			
Chapter	Course title	Hours	Course number
Chapter 1	Introduction to law enforcement	10	CJK_0001
Chapter 2	Legal	62	CJK_0012
Chapter 3	Interaction in a diverse community	40	CJK_0013
Chapter 4	Interviewing and report writing	56	CJK_0014
Chapter 5	Fundamentals of patrol	35	CJK_0064
Chapter 6	Calls for service	36	CJK_0065
Chapter 7	Criminal investigations	50	CJK_0077
Chapter 8	Crime scene to courtroom	35	CJK_0078
Chapter 9	Critical incidents	44	CJK_0092
Chapter 10	Traffic stops	30	CJK_0087
Chapter 11	DUI traffic stops	24	CJK_0084
Chapter 12	Traffic crash investigations	32	CJK_0088
	Subtotal	454	
Volume 2 – Florida Basic Recruit Training Program: High Liability			
Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Law enforcement vehicle operations	48	CJK_0020
Chapter 2	First aid for criminal justice officers	40	CJK_0031
Chapter 3	Criminal justice firearms	80	CJK_0040
Chapter 4	Criminal justice defensive tactics	80	CJK_0051
Chapter 5	Conducted electrical weapon/dart-firing stun gun	8	CJK_0422
Chapter 6	Criminal justice officer physical fitness training	60	CJK_0096
	Subtotal	316	
	PROGRAM TOTAL	770	

Note. Adopted from Florida Department of Law Enforcement.

https://www.fdle.state.fl.us/CJSTC/Curriculum/Active-Courses.aspx

Table 7 displays the basic academy training and total training hours (770) for

Florida's law enforcement officers however the curriculum does not display specifically

cultural competency training for law enforcement officers in Miami-Dade County's

Police Department. The curriculum does display that in chapter 3, volume 1 of Table 7

law enforcement officers are required to take 40 hours in Interactions in a Diverse

Community. Little is known about the responsibilities, roles, training, and influence of

school police (Javdani, 2019).

In Table 8, archival data collected from the public domain displays how Florida

Department of Education created an auxiliary law enforcement officer program

(P430116) that was established for the purpose of providing job-related training to

students that require certification, in accordance with Chapter 943, Florida Statutes (F.S.)

and Chapter 11B-35, Florida Administrative Code (F.A.C.) as part-time Auxiliary law

enforcement officers (SOC 33-3051). The curriculum does not offer cultural competency

training in a southeastern K to 12 public school district. However, the curriculum does

offer 12 hours of education in Interactions in a Diverse Community. Table 8 displays the

career certificate curriculum for law enforcement in a southeastern state.

Table 8

FLDOE Law Enforcement Curriculum

Course number	Course title	Teacher certification	Length
CJK0023	Introduction to law enforcement		4 hours
CJK0024	Legal concepts		20 hours
CJK0025	Patrol and professional communication	LAW ENF@7 7G	12 hours
CJK0026	Interactions in a diverse community		12 hours
CJK0027	Calls for service and arrest procedures		24 hours
CJK0028	Traffic stops and crash investigations		28 hours
CJK0029	Crime scene and courtroom procedures		8 hours
CJK0422	Dart-firing stun gun	LAW ENF @7 7G	8 hours
		CORR OFF 7G	
CJK0031	CMS first aid for criminal justice officers		40 hours
CJK0040	CMS criminal justice firearms		80 hours
CJK0051	CMS criminal justice defensive tactics		80 hours
CJK0020	CMS criminal justice vehicle operations		48 hours

Note. Florida Department of Law Enforcement. Adopted from Auxiliary Law Enforcement Officer (P430116) (RTF)

Florida Police Academy in conjunction with Florida's Officer training requirements (https://www.fdle.state.fl.us/CJSTC/Curriculum/Active-Courses/2000.aspx) displays the minimum qualifications for certification as a sworn criminal justice officer in a southeastern state as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Florida Police Academy Curriculum

	Specified Training Requirement	Authority	Officer Training Requirements To be completed every 4-years	Law Enforcement Officer Firearms Qualification Standard Complete and report every 2 years starting July 1, 2006	Dart-Firing Stun Gun To be completed annually (Officer Compliance NOT reported to the CJSTC)
			Florida Officer Mandatory Retraining Requirements Florida Officers Must Complete 40 Hours Every 4 Years to Maintain Certification		
1	Human Diversity Interpersonal Skills (LE, CO, CPO)	s. 943.1716, F.S. 11B-27.00212(5)(b), F.A.C.	There is no specified curriculum or course hour requirement. LE officers, who complete the Discriminatory Profiling continuing training pursuant to s. 943.1758, F.S., may satisfy this requirement upon approval of the agency head. CJSTC Rules establish that certified officers who instruct human diversity training may substitute completion or instruction of this training to satisfy the officer's continuing training requirement.		
2	Officer Use-of-Force Training (LE, CO, CPO)	s. 943.125(4)(d), F.S. 11B-27.00212(13), F.A.C.	1) Scenario-based Firearms Training 2) Physiological Response Dynamics Training 3) Less-lethal force options available within the agency 4) Agency policies on Use-of Force training 5) Legal aspects regarding Use-of-Force training (LE & CO must comply with 1-5 above) (CPO must comply with 2-5 above)		
3	Dart-Firing Stun Gun (LE, CO, CPO)	s. 943.1717, F.S.			Any officer authorized by his/her employing agency to carry a dart-firing stun gun shall complete the CJSTC 8-hour training or equivalent AND 1-hour of training annually.
4	Firearms Qualification Standard (LE only)	s. 943.12(16), F.S. 11B-27.00212(14), F.A.C.		Demonstrate proficiency skills on the required firearms qualification standard form CJSTC-86A. Proficiency must be demonstrated before a CJSTC certified firearms instructor.	
5	Domestic Violence (LE only)	s. 943.1701, F.S. 11B-27.00212(5)(a), F.A.C.	Training shall meet the 14 points stated in Florida Statutes. There is no specified hour requirement. CJSTC Rules establish that certified law enforcement officers who instruct domestic violence training may substitute completion or instruction of this training to satisfy the officer's continuing training requirement.		
6	Juvenile Sexual Offender Investigation (LE only)	s. 943.17295, F.S. 11B-27.00212(5)(c), F.A.C.	There is no specified curriculum or course hour requirement. CJSTC Rules establish that certified law enforcement officers who instruct Juvenile Sexual Offender Investigation training may substitute completion or instruction of this training to satisfy the officer's continuing training requirement.		
7	Discriminatory Profiling and Professional Traffic Stops (LE only)	s. 943.1758, F.S. 11B-35.007(4)(h), F.A.C. 11B-27.00212(5)(d), F.A.C.	There is no specified curriculum or course hour requirement. An LE officer's continuing education in the area of Human Diversity shall include training on high-risk and critical tasks that include stops, use of force and domination, and other areas of interaction between officers and members of diverse populations. CJSTC Rules establish that certified law enforcement officers who instruct Discriminatory Profiling and Professional Traffic Stops training may substitute completion or instruction of this training to satisfy the officer's continuing training requirement.		

Note. Florida Police Academy requirements. Adopted from

https://www.fdle.state.fl.us/CJSTC/Documents/Officer-Requirements/Mandatory-Retraining-Matrix.aspx

The purpose of Figure 2 was to display that Florida Police Academy in conjunction with Florida's Officer training requires 40 hours of mandatory retraining every four years. However the training does not specifically include cultural competency training or diversity training in public schools with marginalized students in a southeastern K to 12 public school district.

Florida Department of Juvenile Justice requires training for their juvenile probation officers (JPO) who works with youth from the time they are arrested with an offense to the time they leave the juvenile justice system. JPOs work closely with law enforcement. To obtain certification candidates must complete two phases of training and successfully pass several certification exams. This five-week training program includes 32 hours of protective action response and nearly 200 hours of classroom training on such topics as indicated in Table 9.

Table 9

Juvenile Probation Officers' Certification

Job related training	Professional development	Professional development	Professional development
Professional ethics	Diversity	Gang awareness	Case-flow process
Suicide prevention	Adolescent development	Substance abuse	
Restorative justice	Mental health issues	Courtroom procedures and behaviors	Probation responsibilities

Note. Adopted from https://www.probationofficeredu.org/florida/florida-juvenile-probation-officer/

The purpose of Table 9 is to reveal the interactions JPOs have when students are arrested. All JPOs must complete at least 24 hours of job-related in-service training on an annual basis. However none of JPOs training specifically included cultural competency training in public schools with marginalized students in a southeastern K to 12 public school district. JPOs do offer a topic on Diversity training but did not include the number of hours law enforcement needed to complete the training.

This research electronically reviewed and read archival data in the public domain on five law enforcement agencies in the state of Florida that required training for law enforcement officers. Out of the five law enforcement agencies in the state of Florida, not one law enforcement agency specifically required cultural competency training of their law enforcement officers working in public schools with large populations of marginalized students. However, four of the law enforcement agencies in the state of Florida did require some sort of diversity training for their law enforcement officers with one law enforcement agency not listing their required diversity training hours as shown in Table 10. The total of diversity training from the three law enforcement agencies in the state of Florida equated to 54 hours.

Table 10

SRO training

SRO training	HRS
National Association of School Resource Officers	2
Florida Law Enforcement Academy	40
Florida Department of Education	12

Note. HRS means hours. Combined individual hours from tables 6, 7, 8, and figure 2 of three law enforcement agencies' diversity training.

The purpose of Table 10 was to display that cultural competency training is not a part of law enforcement's training curriculum in the state of Florida. SROs lack the proper training needed to interact effectively with children, especially when they are Black, Hispanic or disabled (Keierleber, 2015).

Basic Univariate Analyses

This research had two variables which precluded the testing of a basic univariate analyses. A frequency distribution of a single variable is known as a univariate distribution (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

Statistical Assumptions

One assumption reviewed was homoscedasticity to see if the scatterplots were cigar shapes or bird's nest. The next assumption reviewed was the linearity to see if a straight line was drawn through the scatterplots. "All models are limited by the validity of the assumptions on which they ride" (Freedman et al., p. xi). This research used SPSS Statistics version 27 package linear regression analysis for school years 2016-2019. Three years were included to eliminate a potential issue with one year having an outlier or otherwise unusual data. Outliers are data points that are very high or low or away from the main cluster of points. Outliers can effect data analysis.

Statistical Analysis

G*Power analysis was used to determine the sample size, effect size, and power size. The number of elementary schools during the 2016-2019 school years required for the sample size was 29 (n=29) in order to obtain significance using a large effect of .05. I had an 80% chance of getting significance using a two tail correlation bivariate normal

model. The number of middle schools during the 2016-2019 school years required for the

sample size was 29 in order to obtain significance using a large effect of .05. I had an

80% chance of getting significance using a two tail correlation bivariate normal model.

The number of high schools for the 2016-2019 school years required for the sample size

was 29 in order to obtain significance using a large effect of .05. I had an 80% chance of

getting significance using a two tail correlation bivariate normal model.

For the hypothesis testing of the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis,

SPSS linear regression analysis was performed to determine if enough evidence existed

to reject the null hypothesis or not reject the null hypothesis.

Post hoc Analyses

This research used archival data and did not require a post hoc analyses because

the p-values were unadjusted. This research did an exact test to test the significance of the

statistical comparisons.

<div align="center">Results</div>

Using SPSS Statistics version 27 package to test variables the objective or

reliability was met, thus there were not any discrepancies in data collection because a

relationship between training and arrest was displayed in the data sets. Data collected for

this research was based on government archival records published in the public domain

for school years 2016-2019 and for SROs training.

Descriptive statistics were used for this research and correlational data collected

from categorical variables from 2016-2019 from Miami-Dade Public School District's on

elementary, middle, and high schools. Descriptive statistics are specific methods

basically used to calculate, describe, and summarize collected research data in a logical, meaningful, and efficient way and reported numerically (Vetter, 2017). In data view I inputted the sample (n=29) along with a total of 54 training hours for SROs in the data view. I did this for all three school years as shown in Table 11.

Table 11

2016-2019 Descriptive Statistics

2016-2017 School year			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	*N*
2016-2017 Arrests	130.10	288.487	29
Training (hrs)	1.87	.824	29

2017-2018 School year			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	*N*
2017-2018 Arrests	110.45	184.534	29
Training (hrs)	1.87	.824	29

2018-2019 School year			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	*N*
2018-2019 Arrests	106.28	162.782	29
Training (hrs)	1.87	.824	29

For school year 2016-2017 in Table 11 descriptive statistics for all 29 elementary, middle, and high schools revealed an overall mean score of 130.10, SD = 288.487. This data displays that approximately 29 public elementary, middle, and high schools experienced arrests. The mean difference is significant.

For school year 2017-2018 in Table 11 descriptive statistics for all 29 elementary, middle, and high schools revealed an overall mean score of 110.45, SD = 184.534. This data displays that approximately 18 public elementary, middle, and high schools experienced arrests. The mean difference is significant.

For school year 2018-2019 in Table 11 descriptive statistics for all 29 elementary, middle, and high schools revealed an overall mean score of 106.28, SD = 162.782. This data displays that approximately 16 public elementary, middle, and high schools experienced arrests. The mean difference is significant.

For hypothesis testing I used SPSS Statistics version 27 package and the linear regression analysis to explain the research question: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools. To test the mean I ran an ANOVA (analysis of covariance) test. ANOVA is a statistical method used in the testing of hypothesis for comparison of means. A significant *P* value of the ANOVA test indicates for at least one pair, the mean difference was statistically significant. In ANOVA, when using one categorical independent variable, it is called one-way ANOVA (Mishra et al., 2019). After the data were inputted into SPSS and interpreted I was expecting the null hypothesis to be answered by determining if the data

supported or not supported the hypothesis. Based on Table 12 the data revealed that the significance (p-value) was greater than alpha (.05) in all three school years 2016-2019 so there was not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 12

Regression Analysis 2016-2019 School years

2016-2017

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Siq.
Regression	62509.209	1	62509.209	.744	.396[b]
Residual	2267779.480	27	83991.833		
Total	2330288.690	28			

a. Dependent Variable: 2016-2017 Elementary Arrests

b. Predictors: (Constant), SROs Training Hrs

2017-2018

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Siq.
Regression	19208.586	1	19208.586	.555	.463[b]
Residual	934274.587	27	34602.762		
Total	953483.172	28			

a. Dependent Variable: 2017-2018 Elementary Arrests

b. Predictors: (Constant), SROs Training Hrs

2018-2019

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Siq.
Regression	13211.665	1	13211.665	.490	.490[b]
Residual	728730.128	27	26990.005		
Total	741941.793	28			

As shown in Table 12 for school year 2016-2017 the significant value (p-value) .396 is greater than alpha (.05), $F(1, 27) = .744$, $p = .396$. The significance value .396[b] as a predictor was not significantly better than prediction without training in the summary. Therefore, there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 12 for school year 2017-2018 the significant value (p-value) .463 is greater than alpha (.05), $F(1, 27) = .555$, $p = .463$. The significance value .463[b] as a predictor was not significantly better than prediction without training in the summary. Therefore, there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Based on Table 12 for school year 2018-2019 the significant value (p-value) .490 is greater than alpha (.05), $F(1, 27) = .490$, $p = .490$. The significance value .490[b] as a predictor was not significantly better than prediction without training in the summary. There is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Summary

As shown in Figure 3, there are 29 states with no minimum age to legally arrest or prosecute youth as young as five-year old in juvenile court and several southeastern states are included in the map (NJDC, n.d.).

Figure 3

States Shaded In Gray Has No Legal Limit on Arresting A Child
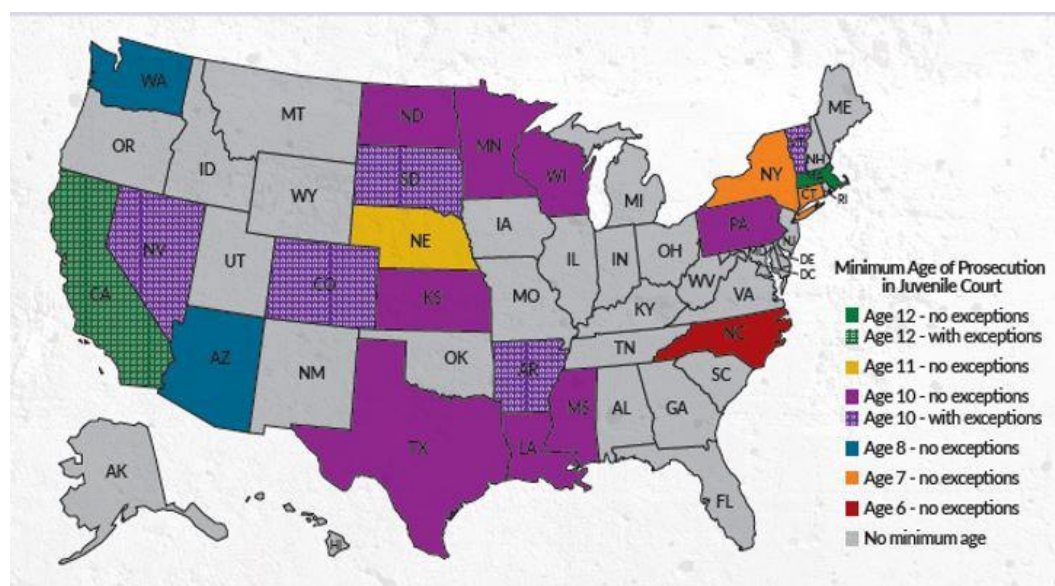
Note. Minimum age of prosecution in juvenile court. National Juvenile Defender Center. Adopted from https://njdc.info/wp-content/uploads/Criminalization-of-Childhood-WEB.pdf..

I searched for scholarly articles between 2014–2019 that specifically required law enforcement officers to have cultural competency training prior to working in public school settings. I printed and read 72 various scholarly articles on law enforcement training, SROs in educational settings, policing, school arrests, and youth incarceration searching for cultural competency training specifically taken by law enforcement officers, my search revealed nothing on cultural competency training of law enforcement

during the time of my research. I purchased 3 books; Burning Down The House, Closing
the School Discipline Gap, and Cops, Teachers, Counselors and still my search on
cultural competency training of law enforcement officers in public school settings
revealed nothing. I have saved on my laptop and USB drive 251 scholarly articles
alphabetically with references to kids getting arrested by law enforcement to police
training, and again those articles did not reveal specifically cultural competency training
in law enforcement officer's curriculum.

Descriptive statistics and linear regression analysis were used to address the
research question: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs'
cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized
students in Florida's public schools. SPSS Statistics version 27 testing package
consistently produced valid and reliable variables (arrests) dependent variable and
(training) independent variable for school years 2016-2019. The quantitative
measurement assigned to identify the public schools (elementary, middle and high
school), ethnicity and gender from a southeastern K to 12 public school district during
2016-2019 school years were displayed in Tables 2, 3, and 4. The nominal measurement
of SROs training were displayed in Tables 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and figure 2.

The research displayed in Table 12 revealed that the significance (p-value) was
greater than alpha (.05) in all three school years 2016-2019 so there was not enough
evidence to fail to reject the null hypothesis, there is not a statistically significant
relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based
arrests of marginalized students in Miami-Dade County School District.

Knowing and understanding the predictor variable that contributes (Henry, 2021) to the direct targeting of vulnerable groups by way of arrests could be mitigated or eliminated in public schools (Carbado, 2017). The social change this study was seeking includes mitigating the population of marginalized students from incarceration.

After gathering and preparing all of the data instruments Chapter 4 briefly described the proposed research question and hypothesis, data collection, results and the summary based on Walden's quantitative dissertation checklist. Chapter 4 displayed the quantitative results for school years 2016-2019. Chapter 5 included interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study and recommendations based on Walden's quantitative dissertation checklist.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The United States' school districts and juvenile courts were never intended to operate in a collaborative paradigm. However, schools have outsourced discipline to juvenile courts and officers in schools (Nelson & Lind, 2015). Over the past few decades, armed police officers, commonly referred to as SROs, have become a ubiquitous presence in elementary, middle, and high schools (Merkwae, 2015), and school-based arrests fall more harshly on students of color (Mbekeani-Wiley, 2017).

This purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to lessen the gap addressing the relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school based arrests of marginalized students in a southeastern school district. My analysis was built on the cultural competency theory that requires respect for and understanding of diverse traditions, beliefs, and values. Descriptive statistics and linear regression analysis were used to address this relationship. Based on 3 years of archival data, I collected school enrollment and school diversity information from K to 12 public school students located in a southeastern school district during the 2016-2019 school years and SROs' training from five southeastern law enforcement agencies. The research results failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in one southeastern K to 12 public school district.

The results of this study have been reported at a very opportune time based on the recent passing of bill H.R. 7120 The George Floyd Justice in Policing Act of 2020. Part of this bill mandates training and best practices for all law enforcement. The bill

establishes a framework to prevent and remedy racial profiling by law enforcement. The most significant finding of this study were how many law enforcement agencies in the United States still do not offer specifically cultural competency training for their officers who interact with marginalized populations. SROs need to be trained in cultural competency (Scully, 2015) because some school policies punish students for behaviors that are age appropriate, such as throwing a piece of food or cursing, common behaviors of youth (Wruble, 2016). Police in schools creates an increased opportunity to apply the law directly to students for incidents that historically were not considered criminal (McCurdy et al., 2019).

Cultural competence theory has been used over 3 million times (3,280,000) in published literature, according to Google Scholar, but limited scholarly research is available on the required cultural competency training for SROs in the United States. Some SROs share neither the culture nor the values of the populations they service (Winters, 2013). The use of rules to enforce normalized behavior based on dominant cultural norms and to isolate and demonize alternative cultural expressions (Pinderhughes, 2020) criminalizes these behaviors (Baumle, 2018). Girls of color are routed into the juvenile justice system because of the behaviors they exhibit as a direct result of their victimization (Baumle, 2018).

Having SROs and other police in schools causes more harm than good and is a counterproductive public policy (Justice Policy Institute, 2011; Mendel, 2011). Police training and retraining matters in interactions with marginalized populations' arrests (Henry, 2021). The United States has a history of policing and enforcing racism through

policing practices (Elow, 2019). On May 25, 2020, Minneapolis police officers arrested

and killed George Floyd, a Black man, who prompted a surge of protests and

demonstrations nationally and globally associated with the Black Lives Matter movement

(ACLED, n.d.) because of the pattern of wrongdoing by policing on marginalized people

(IACHR, 2018). Most high profile cases involve allegations of the legality of arrest

(Linetsky, 2018). This demonstration from this single arrest of a marginalized person

quickly spread from Minneapolis throughout the United States, resulting in

approximately 7,750 demonstrations in 2,440 locations in all 50 states and Washington,

D.C. in 2020 (ACLED, n.d.). Minneapolis school board members voted unanimously to

end the district's contract with the city police department (Washington Post, 2020) and

cut ties with law enforcement and SROs (Whitefoot, 2020). The superintendent in

Portland, Oregon followed suit as well as Denver School Board voting unanimously to

phase police out of its schools (Washington Post, 2020). Something notably different this

time was the composition of the people in the streets during the protests (Ladabaum,

2020).

There is a dearth of empirical proof indicating the benefits of cultural competency

training (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2016), and untrained officer's interactions with

marginalized students can create issues that can lead to the arrest of students because of

lack of cultural competence (McNeal, 2016). However, despite this growing awareness of

these unjust police practices (Basile, 2020), "we have accepted the infringement of law

enforcement into one of the most important civic institutions: our schools" (Marcelin &

Hinger 2017, p. 4). Poorly trained police officers (Linetsky, 2018) highlight that most

students commonly criminalized by harsh punishments are disproportionally minorities from low socioeconomic status (Ryan et al., 2018).

Public school students are mostly poor, uneducated, economically disadvantaged, academically struggling, and at-risk of failing. These characteristics should not equate to arresting students when its lack of cultural competency that could de-escalate arresting any marginalized student in public schools (Henry, 2021). Arrests can have negative consequences on students, including restriction of employment opportunities, denial of college admission, ineligibility to serve in the military, and loss of public housing assistance (ACLU, 2020; Coble, 2018; Goldstein et al., 2019). Conducting this study helped to expand the knowledge in the literature proposed by past researchers that there is a lack of cultural competency training in law enforcement.

Interpretation of the Findings

In this current research study, I sought to address the following research question: what statistically significant relationship, if any, exists between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school based arrests of marginalized students in Florida's public schools? The results failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a statistically significant relationship between SROs' cultural competency training and the number of school-based arrests of marginalized students in one southeastern K to 12 public school district.

SROs lack the proper training needed to interact effectively with children, especially when they are Black or Hispanic (Keierleber, 2015), resulting in over-policing (Baumle, 2018). Once involved in the justice system, children may be negatively psycho-

socially affected by the experience (Dennis, 2017). Children do not belong in the justice system for noncriminal acts (Jafarian & Ananthakrishnan, 2017).

This study did reveal that for school years 2016-2017, approximately 29 public elementary, middle, and high schools experienced 3,773 arrests in Grades K to 12 by SROs. For school years 2017-2018, approximately 18 public elementary, middle, and high schools experienced 3,203 arrests in Grades K to 12 by SROs. And for school years 2018-2019, approximately 16 public elementary, middle, and high schools experienced 3,082 arrests in Grades K to 12 by SROs. These findings are similar to prior researchers who reported that the path to prison often begins in childhood and in schools segregated by race and class (Dohy, 2016; Dolan et al., 2018) and coincided with the current relevant literature discussed in Chapter 2. Key findings are explained in Themes 1: cultural competency theory, Theme 2: SROs, Theme 3: SRO training, Theme 4: criminalization of student behavior, and Theme 5: racial disparities in school arrests.

Theme 1: Cultural competence theory asserted that this theory requires respect for and understanding of diverse ethnic and cultural groups, their histories, traditions, beliefs, and value systems in the provision and delivery of services (Riccucci, 2017). In this study, I sampled marginalized students in Grades K to 12 from a southeastern public school district whose 2016-2019 student enrollment of marginalized students totaled 968,769 out of 1,060,298 students, and according to the ACLU (2021), on any given day, nearly 60,000 youth under age 18 are incarcerated in juvenile jails and prisons in the United States. ACLU (2021) findings are also similar to the literature revealing that a lack of cultural competency training impacts the populations entering into the prison

system (McCurdy et al., 2019; McNeal, 2016; Otuyelu, 2016; Peake, 2015). ACLU (2021) findings also affirmed in peer-reviewed literature how 23,000 national schools used evidence-based research and found that in specifically low-performing public schools, SROs have no explicit competency-based training and respond to situations based on their law enforcement background (McCurdy et al., 2019).

Theme 2: SROs results reported that there is a relationship between race, behavior, and arrests by SROs in public schools (Nelson & Lind, 2015; Winters, 1993), which paralleled with the literature. Research has shown that SROs contributed to exacerbated school-based arrests and do the majority of arresting students from schools (May et al., 2018). Recent data have revealed the trends where students who attend certain public schools are funneled into the criminal justice system (ACLU, n.d.). There is also a large body of research documenting that minorities are negatively impacted by disciplinary practices in K-12 education due to race (Gregory et al., 2010; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Noguera, 2001; Rose, 2007). These results also support and extend the knowledge of the patterns and trends in arresting marginalized students in public schools.

Theme 3: SROs' training showed that cultural competency training is not a part of law enforcement's curriculum in the southeastern states. Empirical analysis has demonstrated that the legal training received by police officers is inadequate, and approximately 12% of total academy hours are devoted to a state's statutory and traffic laws (Linetsky, 2018). The average barber receives 900 hours (5.36 weeks) of training according to Department of Business & Professional Regulation while law enforcement

carrying a lethal weapon only receives 80 hours (2 weeks) of training, as shown in Table

7. SROs need training in cultural competency and training on the consequences when

they arrest a child (Scully, 2015). These findings support previous researchers that SROs

should have cultural competency training when interacting with marginalized

populations.

Theme 4: Criminalization of student behavior has indicated how harsh

consequences are place on students, for example bringing a nail clipper or prescription

medication to school resulting in consequences with law enforcement (Villalobos &

Bohannah, 2017). The presence of SROs leads to more arrests of students for offenses

regarded as typical student behavior such as fighting and disorderly conduct (McCurdy et

al., 2019), and students are punished for behaviors that are age appropriate, such as

throwing a piece of food or cursing, which are common behavior of youth (Wruble,

2016). Young people are still developing and should be given opportunities for treatment,

rehabilitation, and positive reinforcement (ACLU, n.d.) by eliminating system level

obstacles (OECD, 2012).

Theme 5: Racial disparities in school arrests' findings indicated that school

discipline is a popular feature of the United States Criminal Justice System (Thompson,

2016), and when they are warehoused in prisons and locked in cages, children will never

thrive in storage (Alexander, 2020). Race and racism continues to impact education K-12

(Ledesma & Calderon, 2015). This same finding also support peer-reviewed literature

that across the board, data showed that Black and Latino students are more likely than

their White peers to be arrested in school, regardless of the demographics of the school's

enrollment (The Advancement Project, 2005). Public schools place some young African-American boys on track to take their place in the jail cells of America (Pinderhughes, 2020) and schools with more black students are more likely to have school-based arrests (Flannery, 2017) while schools with fewer black students are more likely to respond with behavioral treatment and special education programs (Jararian & Ananthakrishan, 2017). Police presence in schools perpetuates racial profiling, discriminatory disciplining, and incarcerating of children of color (George, 2017).

The objective of this study was to add to research that explored SRO's cultural competency training and the number of school based arrests of marginalized students in public schools for school years 2016-2019. This study did not include virtual schools, charter schools, public schools, or Catholic schools but examined 29 (n = 29) public schools from a southeastern school district, intake of youth arrests from a southeastern department of juvenile justice delinquency's profile and SRO training from five southeastern law enforcement agencies.

The accumulated information from this research study can provide insight on disclosing misconduct records of SROs prior to getting hire in public schools with high populations of marginalized students. This would improve accountability, improve relationships with school SROs and as a result, promote positive social change by mitigating the disproportionate arrests of marginalize students from entering the juvenile justice system.

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations of this study worth noting. This study only included data from one large school district in a southeastern state, so results may not be generalizable to other states nor school districts of smaller populations.

Another limitation was not knowing the SRO's decision-making process or circumstances when arresting a student. Examples that might have provided additional insight would be: Was the student involved in gang activity on school ground? Did the SRO implement the zero-tolerance policy toward the student? Was the SRO's bias towards the marginalize student a factor in arresting the student? Was the student being bully by someone else to cause an arrest? Was the student violent or nonviolent? Findings were only based upon the data available in the archival school records for school years 2016-2019.

A final limitation was the accuracy or completeness of publicly available SROs' training records. All efforts were made to assure the most recent and accurate archival data available were collected and reviewed.

Recommendations

Most relevant research was archival in nature and there were limited scholarly research that specifically states that law enforcement needs cultural competency training, or cultural competency certification, prior to policing public schools. School policing needs intensive training (Dohy, 2016). This study presented several limitations and based on this study's finding it is recommended a quantitative study be conducted on other school districts with high populations of marginalized students with disproportionate

school arrests. Also, further research of a mixed method study can be conducted on SROs' employed in public schools with high populations of marginalized students to understand SROs' decision-making process prior to the arrest of a student. The overuse of exclusionary disciplinary practices have persisted for decades, along with concerns that practices disproportionately affect certain populations (Barrett et al., 2018). It is further recommended that a qualitative or empirical study be conducted that distinguishes the differences between marginalized students' behaviors and that of their peers in a public school setting resulting in an arrest. It is recommended also that an empirical study be conducted to investigate how public schools translate misbehavior of a student into a student getting handcuffed by an SRO.

Implications

The potential impact for positive social change has been addressed in this research at the policy level through the theorical framework and archival empirical data. The results of this study showed that there was not enough evidence to reject the null hypotheses that there is not a statistically significantly relationship between SROs cultural competency training and the number of school based arrests of marginalized students in a southeastern K to 12 public school district.

SROs and other police in schools causes more harm than good and is a counterproductive public policy (Justice Policy Institute, 2011; Mendel, 2011). And despite growing awareness of these unjust practices (Basile, 2020) the rise of social media and citizen activism, there are strong expectations that government as well as

public organizations when faced with imperfect, problematic and undesirable social conditions should take some sort of action (McConnell & Hart, 2019).

For this study, the archival data implications for social change includes informing local police departments about the importance of SROs' understanding how to adjust to educational environments when interacting with high populations of marginalized students. School administrators amending their zero-tolerance policy on school discipline that most often fall on students of color, who are then indirectly dumped into the criminal justice system. And police departments adopting and implementing cultural competency training with educational initiatives through lectures, interactive sessions, workshops, and elective courses into their curriculum bi-monthly and require mandatory certification in cultural competency training for SROs employed in public schools with marginalized students annually. Tables 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and Figure 2 in chapter 4 revealed that SROs' training does not specifically display cultural competency training of law enforcement in Miami Dade County law enforcement curriculum.

Conclusion

Cultural competency is not an easy topic of discussion, especially in policing. This study's most pertinent data was three years (2016-2019) of archival documents on school arrests and SROs' training. This study reviewed literature on five themes: Cultural Competence, School Resource Officers, SRO's Training, Criminalization of Student Behavior, and Race Disparities in School Arrests to examine the ways to mitigate the disproportionate arrests of marginalize students in public schools by SROs. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to lessen the gap that explores SRO's cultural

competency training and the number of school based arrests of marginalized students in public schools.

Data for this research were collected from public elementary schools, public middle schools and public high schools in a southeastern K to 12 public school district for the 2016-2019 school years. The enrolled student samples were diverse, with respect to grade level, gender, race and ethnicities. Not included in this sampling were students from virtual schools, charter schools, Catholic schools, and private schools. This three-year period was selected because it was the most recent information available, and three years were included to eliminate a potential issue with one year having an outlier or otherwise unusual data. Official electronic archival data was also collected on juvenile intake arrests (2016-2019) school years from intake arrest data provided by the Florida Department of Juvenile Justice that provided trends and patterns.

The pattern of wrongdoing by policing on marginalized groups is a part of America's DNA (Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics ([IACHR], 2018). So, how to stop it, when signaling the need for systemic change seemingly never leads to sustainable action? (Barbot, 2020). Bias, either conscious (explicit) or unconscious (implicit) can be problematic in modern day law enforcement (Hossain, 2018). SROs' lack of cultural competency and implicit biases are applied towards minorities (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2016) and these conditions did not occur by accident (Basile, 2020) which has exposed the structural biases and inequities that continue to plague the United States in 2020 (Ladabaum, 2020). This best reflects the trends and patterns that existed in disproportionate school-based arrests of marginalized

students by SROs in public schools. This study's results rejected the null hypotheses to reveal any patterns or trends in a southeastern K -12 public school district by SROs when making school-based arrests of marginalized students.

Treating public school students without biases is a critical component in mitigating the arrests and mass incarceration of marginalized citizens (Henry, 2021). Many professionals in positions of power, display individual bias in their behavior towards disadvantage people and that the expansion of cultural competence should be required training for any public servants who has to interact with socioeconomic disadvantage populations (Ashkinazy, 2017).

Little is known about the responsibilities, roles, training, and influence of school police (Javdani, 2019). The responsibilities of SROs often differ from school to school and numerous studies argue that the implementation of SROs into public schools is not beneficial, and is in fact harmful, to the students (Jackson, 2002; Mayer & Leone, 1999; Merkwae, 2015; Petteruti, 2011; Rimer, 2004).

It is extremely important for schools and school districts in urban areas that employ SROs to clarify, and provide explicit, competency-based training for the Officers who interact with marginalized students (McCurdy et al., 2019) because even with ease of capturing these school based arrests of marginalized students' events on video via cell phones (Pigott et al., 2018) it will be insufficient to overcome the long and enduring refusal to reckon with our nation's history of racial injustice (Barbot, 2020) and for students already at a disproportionate risk of becoming involved with the justice system (Merkwae, 2015).

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