Unheard Voices of Democracy:

Implications for Leaders Regarding High School Students' Perceptions

of School Safety Measures

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A Dissertation

presented to

the faculty of the Graduate School

at the University of Missouri – Columbia

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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by

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May 2013

The undersigned, appointed by the Dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled:

UNHEARD VOICES OF DEMOCRACY: IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERS

REGARDING HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS

OF SCHOOL SAFETY MEASURES

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A candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education,

And hereby certify that, in their opinion, it is worthy of acceptance.

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DEDICATION

As this part of my journey ends and new paths emerge, I would like to dedicate this work to family, friends, and all my students past and present, who have helped shaped me into the person I am today. I cannot thank them enough. Specifically, I would like to thank those individuals who picked me up, dusted me off, and told me to continue the journey.

Sharon Berry and Ron Berry
My mother who taught me to love and to value the written word. My mom made sure I was writing my dissertation, taking care of myself, and loved me despite my tantrums. Your support was needed and was greatly appreciated.
My step-father who taught me to devalue anxiety.

Jerrilynne Glavaris
My second mother who taught me to value my own uniqueness.

Karen Colton-Millsap
My third mother who taught me the love and value of spoken words.

Dale Horner and Leslie Horner
My dad who taught me the value of laughter and the art of storytelling.
Leslie Horner who taught me the art of patience.

Dorothy and Elmer Haley
My dear aunt and uncle who have loved me through it all.

Charlotte Arnold
My aunt who has always loved me and made me smile.

Rosalie and A.J. Cantrell
My aunt and uncle who taught me to live in the present, but to remember the past.

Tracey Lease and Beth McRoberts
My sisters who have taught me the value of family.

Todd Mincks
A friend who has seen me through the good, bad, and saved my sanity many times.

Stacy Payne
A friend who taught me to embrace the craziness of life and to enjoy the moment.

Scruffy
My dog. Who rescued who?

Bryan Landrum
Our journey is just beginning…

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend my thanks, appreciation, and acknowledgement to the members of my dissertation committee Dr. Robert Watson, Dr. Denise Baumann, and Dr. Cornelius-White. I would like to acknowledge and extend a special thank-you to Dr. Cynthia MacGregor, dissertation supervisor. Dr. MacGregor answered untold amounts of email and phone calls with patience and kindness. Her hard work, dedication, determination, and gentle guidance helped me to create this document and to survive the experience of writing a dissertation.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to research and to document secondary junior and senior's perceptions of their rights, surveillance cameras, and School Resource Officers within their secondary school environments. Three school districts were selected to meet state established criteria of an urban, a suburban, and a rural district. Students participating in the study were 109 seniors and 47 juniors from the three districts with no preferences being given to gender or grade level in the findings.

A mixed-methods design methodology was selected to triangulate data and to confirm consistency between quantitative items and qualitative survey items. The survey consisted of 15 Likert-scale, quantitative items and 15 open-ended response, qualitative items. Focus groups were conducted at each of the three sites, and consisted of students who had participated in the survey. The interview protocol was designed and modified to provide more descriptive data to survey items. Survey results and interview answers were analyzed and coded with an ethnomethodological approach.

The findings of the study revealed three main themes: Treated Unfairly, Marginalized, and Disenfranchised. These themes were consistent with students' perceptions of their rights while at school, and their schools' use of surveillance cameras. However, the data revealed students did feel safer because school districts used surveillance cameras and School Resource Officers. Inconsistencies existed between perceived safety while at school and perceived individual safety while at school. Due to the lack of previous studies, this study offers valuable insights for future research.

This study could be important to leaders of school districts and secondary schools when considering the culture the leaders want to create. Many students participating in

this study felt they were not involved in the processes or rules governing the school, leaders did not value their perceptions, and some of these leaders had treated students disrespectfully. School leaders also need to consider the impacts of students' rights, students' perceptions of surveillance cameras, and students' perceptions of School Resource Officers as affecting the culture of the school environment. School leaders should consider social justice theories to help deconstruct current realities of their schools.

Future studies should involve surveying more of the student body within a school. Only junior and senior students were surveyed to adequately manage and analyze the data. By allowing more participation, school leaders could develop a more comprehensive, detailed picture of their individual school. This study could also serve as an example to construct and refine future survey items concerning students' rights, students' perceptions of surveillance cameras, and students' perceptions of School Resource Officers. Students' voices need to be considered by school leaders when constructing and implementing safety procedures within a district.

Introduction to the Study

In the 1990s adolescent violence caused many educators and policy makers to demand official action against criminal offenses in schools (Maimon, Antonaccio, & French, 2012, p. 496). These random acts of violence acts of violence in some schools caused many parents to believe their children were not safe in most public schools. Many educational leaders and policy makers sought and quickly implemented safety measures to appease parents and the public. These safety measures encompassed zero-tolerance policies, the use of police officers, also known as school resource officers (SROs), and surveillance cameras. These safety measures have seemed transform from tools which were intended to provide safety into tools that have been used to monitor and to punish students. In the fanatic rush to make schools safer, one consideration seemed overlooked or unimportant to policy makers and school leaders: the consequences of safety measures on students' legal rights. Many school districts opted for, and the federal government funded, safety measures which helped solidify the constant surveillance of students in many schools. Students' liberties became inferior to districts' needs to appease parents, communities, and policy makers with the message that public schools were safe.

Philosophical Background

Thomas Jefferson (Ford, 1893) believed public education could help create and sustain a democratic society. Over 150 years later, George Counts (1932/1978), an American educator, gave several speeches reinforcing public education's place in democracy. Paulo Freire's (1970/2009) beliefs in democracy and public education helped

revolutionize Brazil's educational system. These philosophers and their beliefs contributed to the importance of public education's role democratic societies.

Before and after the American Revolution, many great thinkers proposed ideas to form the foundation of the new democracy. A cornerstone of the new democracy was Jefferson's (Ford, 1893) belief in public education. Jefferson staunchly believed that a free and educated public was "the means by which the people would safe guard their freedom and resist demagogues and tyrants.… [Citizens could and would] guard the sacred deposit of the rights and liberties of their fellow citizens" (Ford, 1893, p. 210). With a public education American's could make informed decisions about confronting and resolving problems within the democracy. Jefferson was so opposed to a singular ruler, who would have concentrated power, that he proposed Bill 79 which contained the phrase, "Those entrusted with power have, in time, and by slow operations, perverted it into tyranny" (Ford, 1893, p. 221). Jefferson warned that many leaders who had remained in power too long had eventually abused the power entrusted to them. Jefferson was not alone in his beliefs.

Benjamin Franklin stated in 1755, "They that can give up essential liberty to obtain a little temporary safety deserve neither liberty nor safety" (Bartlett, 2002, p. 320). Franklin's statement helped establish a hierarchy between liberty and safety with liberty being more valuable than safety. Neither Jefferson nor Franklin stipulated an age for which democratic liberties were to be granted to an individual. Even today, courts are still undecided as to when individuals in democratic society reach the age of maturation.

Counts (1932/1978) reinforced Jefferson's idea, "the [public] school possessed an ability to formulate an ideal of a democratic society, to communicate that ideal to

students, and to encourage students to use the ideal as a standard for judging their own society and other societies" (p. x). Counts (1932/1978) articulated his reasoning, "We are convinced that education is the one unfailing remedy for every ill to which man is subject, whether it be vice, crime, war, poverty, riches, injustice, racketeering, political corruption, race hatred, class conflict, or just plain original sin" (p. 1). If the majority of children in the United States are forced to attend school through compulsory laws, and if those students were subjected to constant safety measures, would students' democratic liberties be compromised? The foundational belief that an educated populace is good for democracy seemed to be compromised by the belief that constant safety measures such as surveillance cameras and SROs were needed in many public schools.

Freire (1970/2009) wrote *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* in which he discussed the importance of recognizing and combating oppression. Freire believed within a culture or society, if the oppressors can keep the currency or the knowledge from the oppressed, the oppressors have no reason to change the system. Those with power and authority want to retain power and authority. Freire's (1970/2009) logic also supposed that if the oppressed cannot recognize that they are victims of oppression, then the oppressors will continue the cycle of oppression. To stop the cycle, the oppressed must realize that they are victims, and they must be willing to confront the oppressors. Public school leaders, teachers, parents, and students should consider how school safety measures affect students' democratic rights, and if those safety measures are compromising Franklin's (Bartlett, 2002) and Jefferson's (Ford, 1893) ideas of liberty. Schlesinger (2009) summarized best, "It is through the exploration of democracy that we uncover its properties and understand our relation to it" (p. 88).

Would Jefferson and Franklin approve of the outwardly militaristic appearance of SROs or the constant gaze of surveillance cameras which many schools have implemented as safety measures? The literature available on the need to implement school safety measures was plentiful; however, academic literature could not be located documenting students' perceptions of school safety measures such as cameras and SROs. To help substantiate, Bracy (2010a) stated, "The way students' legal rights are negotiated on a daily basis in schools is largely unknown" (p. 296). This uncertainty about students' rights provided the catalyst for this study. The conceptual underpinnings will philosophically outline what constitutes oppression and an oppressive culture.

Conceptual Underpinnings for the Study

Creation of the conceptual underpinnings involved weaving critical theories together from Plato (Jowett, 2000), Morgan (2006), classical liberalism (Stanford, 2010), and Bolman and Deal (2008). Plato's cave (Jowett, 2000) described the concepts of a repressive culture. Morgan's (2006) psychic prison substantiated the conscious repression of individuals in an organization, and classical liberalism helped to further clarify a repressive culture (Stanford, 2010). Bolman and Deal's (2008) symbolic frame was the lens used to define symbolic meanings of surveillance cameras and SROs within a secondary school culture.

Plato's (Jowett, 2000) cave represented a single, controlling, and oppressive culture in which the occupants had only experienced the interior reality of the cave. "Here they have been from their childhood, and have their legs and necks chained so they cannot move, and can only see before them, being prevented by the chains from turning round their heads" (p. 177). Compulsory schooling laws have chained most children and

adolescents to the institutional machinery of the public school. Children chained are forced to perceive graduation as their only reality. Consider the implications of a public education in a democratic society where graduation was not the priority of the school system. Rather, the priority was to gather, to understand, and to disseminate knowledge. Plato (Jowett, 2000) alluded to a similar, ideal reality, "To them, I said, the truth would be literally nothing but shadows of the images…. My opinion is that in the world of knowledge the idea of good appears last of all, and is seen only with effort" (p. 178). Hutchinson and Pullman (2007) demonstrated how schools can be represented as oppressive prison-like cultures:

> School settings, especially ones that have adopted maximum security policies, closely resemble prisons in that students become captives subjected to a "regime of custodians" who impose a rigid system of social control. The system of social control allows administrators to exert total power over students through the use of activities that both physically and psychologically constrain students' behaviors. As with inmates, we believe that the achievement of total control over students has exceeded the physical and, under the guise of school safety, been extended to include psychological constraints similar to those experienced by prison inmates. (p. 173)

The comparison between Plato's cave (Jowett, 2000) and the modern description of some school settings as maximum security prisons were similar. Just as Plato's prisoners' realities were created within the cave, the realities of many secondary students subjected to school safety measures resembling maximum security policies (Hutchinson and Pullman, 2007) seemed to create equally oppressive environments.

Morgan (2006) adapted Plato's cave into his metaphor of the psychic prison. Morgan's metaphor explained within an organization as workers defer to authority, and prolonged dependency of the workers upon the supervisor institutionalizes dependency. Rather than envision solutions to problems, the worker will look to the supervisor to solve problematic issues. As Plato's (Jowett, 2000) and Morgan's (2006) metaphors were intertwined and applied to secondary schools, a different, unconventional view of the reality of school cultures began to emerge. In this new culture, students attending schools that mirror the cultures of prisons are constantly monitored by teachers (guards), administrators (wardens), surveillance cameras, and SROs (enforcers). To help facilitate social control, the administrators (wardens) and teachers (guards) carry out their duties swiftly, and students (prisoners) are limited in their movement within the schools (prisons). To help maintain safety, control, and ensure correct punitive action, the students (prisoners) are always under constant monitoring by surveillance cameras. These safety measures help students (prisoners) understand they should defer authority to the teachers (guards), administrators (wardens), or SROs (enforcers). In a culture conditions such as these help foster dependency upon the schools' (prisons) institutional structure. Morgan (2006) reinforced:

> Such is the nature of psychic prisons. Favored ways of thinking and acting become traps that confine individuals within socially constructed worlds and prevent the emergence of other worlds.… But, the hold of favored ways of thinking can be so strong that even the disruption is often transformed into a view consistent with the reality of the cave. (p. 211)

In the culture of schools, as safety measures become more important than students' legal rights, the culture of public education's democratic principles seemed to be placed in jeopardy.

As school leaders place more emphasis on cultures of safety, school leaders can be unaware of the prison-like culture that may be developing. Morgan (2006) suggested:

> There is great merit in recognizing the prisonlike qualities of a culture. Culture gives us our world. And it traps us in that world! The Psychic Prison metaphor alerts us to pathologies that may accompany our ways of thinking and encourages us to question the fundamental premises on which we enact everyday reality. (p. 211)

Educational leaders have seemed not to question safety measures in which a constant, fundamental culture is developing where the premises of authority are not questioned.

Plato (Jowett, 2000) explained how to best escape the repressive culture of the cave. "The instrument of knowledge can only by the movement of the whole soul be turned from the world of becoming into that of being, and learn by degrees to endure the sight of being, and of the brightest and best of being, or in other words, of the good" (p. 178). Modernizing Plato (Jowett, 2000), the leaders of an organization must seek knowledge to avoid the organization becoming static. Leaders should use knowledge to move the organization from a static state into a meaningful active state. In obtaining results the leaders of the organization must continually seek and evaluate knowledge about their organization and the culture that has been created within the organization. In evaluating the culture of an organization, the repetition of questioning, evaluating, and acting on knowledge helps organizational cultures adapt and change.

This study investigated secondary students' perceptions of safety measures within their school. Borum, Cornell, Modzeleski, and Jimerson (2010) explained why safety measures became a focus in public schools:

> Public fear generated by these emblematic events [school shootings during the 1990s] drove a dramatic shift in security related policies and procedures in our nation's schools. Many of those efforts proliferated in a desperate and well intentioned effort to make schools safer, but they were often predicated on unrealistic appraisals of risk and misunderstanding about the nature of the actual threat. (p. 27)

Blinded by the need to make school cultures safer, the public and school leaders seemed to misunderstand the greater societal influences which were contributing to the problem of juvenile violence. Morgan (2006) stated, "Powerful visions of the future can lead to blind spots. Ways of seeing become ways of not seeing" (p. 209). Politicians, parents, and school districts seemed not to see that cultures in which safety measures were valued over student liberties could compromise the principles of a democratic education.

"Common to all these different interpretations is the idea that humans live their lives as prisoners or products of their individual and collective psychic history" (Morgan, 2006, p. 212). Misinformation about school violence helped to create a collective psychic history in which parents and the public believed schools could potentially erupt in violence at any moment. This perceived psychic history of school violence allowed many school leaders to begin implementing safety measures without considering the impact on the cultures of schools or democratic education.

Classical liberalism assisted in limiting and applying the critical theories. Classical liberalism (Stanford, 2010) is an economic theory that was used to provide clarity to the social justice ideologies. Classical liberalism proposed a society benefits more if resources are allocated more fairly. Those in poverty (the oppressed) would receive more resources, while those with plenty (the oppressors) would not be harmed from losing some resources. To be applicable to secondary education, those with plenty, the oppressors, and those with little, the oppressed, needed to be identified. For this study within the public schools where data was gathered, those with plenty of resources, were identified as anyone or any agency with authority over secondary students. Secondary students were identified as those with little or no resources or the oppressed. Authority was conceptualized as currency, and economic systems need currency to function. In this scenario, currency was authority, and student liberties were investments. Without currency or authority, students cannot purchase investments or liberties. Not only are those with authority in secondary schools rich with authority, but also they are rich in knowledge. The monopoly on authority and knowledge leaves those without authority struggling to purchase even the most basic liberties.

Over two thousand years ago, Plato (Jowett, 2000) challenged those with authority to share their currency, knowledge, and rights with those not in authority to better the culture. Plato (Jowett, 2000) declared, "The business of us who are the founders of the state will be to compel the best minds to attain that knowledge which we have already shown to be the greatest of all – they must continue to ascend until they arrive at the good" (p. 181). Plato (Jowett, 2000) advised leaders within a culture, "You

must contrive for your future rulers another and a better life than that of the ruler, and then you may have a well-ordered state" (p. 183).

Symbolic Frame

A new culture for secondary students seemed to be evolving; cultures in which students are subjected to subtle, ever-growing oppression. Safety measures such as SROs and surveillance cameras seem benign and even helpful in creating safe learning environments; however, looking deeper into their symbolic meaning, SROs and surveillance cameras can be used to communicate and to enforce oppression. Even if a culture has not been created intentionally, Bolman and Deal (2008) stated, "An organization's culture is revealed and communicated through its symbols" (p. 254). This section defines symbolism, clarifies how SROs and surveillance cameras are symbolic objects, and utilizes Bolman and Deal's (2008) five criteria of the symbolic frame to create a new understanding of SROs and surveillance cameras as symbolic objects.

To give meaning beyond the obvious, tangible aspects of surveillance cameras and SROs, symbolism was used to create a deeper understanding. Symbol was defined as, "something used for or representing something else; a material object representing something, often something immaterial; emblem, token, or sign" (Webster's New Universal Unabridged Dictionary, 1996, p. 1926). Fuentes clarified that leaders both in the sphere of public education and in boarder society "say one of the three things to justify surveillance: terrorism, crime, or child safety" (Fuentes, 2011, p. 85). Fuentes was communicating that trigger words such as crime or child safety cause the public to believe that surveillance by those in authority equals safety. "The symbolic dimension thus refers to evoked meanings – people make inferences about objects on the basis of

shared interpretations. Actions as well as objects can display both intrinsic and symbolic dimensions" (Zott & Huy, 2007, p. 72). If the parents believe their children are safer at school under the constant gaze of surveillance cameras and SROs, then the surveillance cameras and SROs have a symbolic meaning of safety. If parents, students, and communities had been told that police officers would be present and those officers would be using surveillance cameras to catch and to punish students breaking the rules, would parents, students, and communities have so readily have accepted their presences? The available literature suggested that administrators, parents, and communities feared their schools were not safe. However, literature could not be located documenting the students' perceptions of safety within their school environments. This study strove to document and to give voice to students' perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROs.

What is most important. Bolman and Deal's (2008) symbolic lens was used to justify applying a different symbolic meaning besides safety to surveillance cameras and SROs in schools. Bolman and Deal (2008) stated, "What is most important is not what happens but what it means" (p. 253). A narrative of fear was created and then used to justify the installation of surveillance cameras and employ SROs on many secondary school campuses. Addington (2009) confirmed this narrative of fear, "Although the odds of a student's dying at school were one in two million, 71% of parents polled believed that a Columbine type event was likely to occur in their community" (p. 1438). It seemed not to be the actual statistics of school violence which prompted safety measures. Borum, Cornell, Modzeleski, and Jimerson (2010) stated:

Dividing the nation's approximately 125,000 elementary and secondary schools by 21 [average number of school homicides per year], any given school can

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expect to experience a student homicide about once every 6,000 years. And

although 21 homicides per year is a distressingly large number, it represents less

than 1% of the annual homicides youth ages 5 to 18 in the United States. (p. 27)

The response of school leaders to install safety measures seemed motivated by the shared

psychic history (Morgan, 2006) of juvenile violence. Although SROs and surveillance

cameras are not meaningful outside a context, within secondary schools their installation

seemed to create a symbolic meaning of safety.

Activity and meaning are loosely coupled. The violence at Columbine was quickly

assigned meaning without much analysis. It seemed as if facts about juvenile violence in

schools were no longer important to leaders, only actions to stop the perceived violence.

What school leaders and the public seemed not to consider is that extreme school

violence as an activity rarely happens, Fuentes (2011) explained:

A school shooting like that at Columbine was tragic but extremely rare, and

students were and remain safer at school than in their own homes and

communities. For example, accidental gun deaths in their homes and

neighborhoods claim between 100 and 200 young people 19 years and younger

every year.… The climate of fear has created ripe conditions for imposing

unprecedented restrictions on young people's rights, dignity, and educational

freedoms. (p. xi)

Bolman and Deal (2008) stated, "Activity and meaning are loosely coupled; events and

actions have multiple interpretations as people experience life differently" (p. 253). The

activity of juvenile violence no longer was an isolated problem experienced by some

schools, juvenile violence had now been assigned meaning. It seemed juvenile violence was an epidemic, and action was necessary in most schools.

People create symbols. Bolman and Deal (2008) stated, "Facing uncertainty and ambiguity, people create symbols to resolve confusion, find direction, and anchor hope and faith" (p. 253). To decrease the perceived fear from juvenile violence, surveillance cameras and SROs became symbols of safety. It was believed by many that surveillance cameras and SROs could provide concrete solutions in resolving the problem of juvenile violence. To find direction, faith, and hope, Lewis (2006) stated:

> Since Columbine, a predominantly White, middle-class populous has cried out for more stringent forms of surveillance, thus demonstrating the naturalization of ideological solutions networked through the matrix of disciplinary power. On the other hand, even if these new assemblages multiply, divide, and restructure themselves outside of the centralized control of the state, there has been an increasing call for reterritorialization of such systems of surveillance.… Surveillance assemblages are being reintegrated into an overall governmental apparatus of disciplinary control. In schools, the networking of surveillance equipment to police stations is an attempt to recentralize disciplinary tools under a single gaze. (p. 270)

Surveillance cameras and SROs seemed an acceptable and a rational solution. Police control violent behavior in society; police, with the help of surveillance cameras, could control juvenile violence in secondary schools. In this scenario society has shaped the school, not the school shaping society (Counts,1932/1978).

Events and processes. Those with authority seemed only concerned with implementation of solutions, not the solutions' consequences. Bolman and Deal stated, "Events and process are often more important for what is expressed than for what is produced" (p. 253). It seemed more important to have symbols which were perceived to reduce juvenile violence rather than actual proof. "Changes in security after Columbine – use of security guards and security cameras were among the most common increases reported and these measures are also ones that concentrate on monitoring students" (Addington, 2009, p. 1436). Surveillance cameras seemed to be another quick, efficient, and effective method to monitor students. "Security cameras are the most prevalent technology, used in 36% of all schools; nearly 64% of high, 42% of middle, and 29% of primary schools use surveillance cameras" (Fuentes, 2011, p. 89). For example in Raytown, Missouri, the district chose to upgrade its system from 56 cameras to over 500 cameras which use internet protocol (IP) network-based digital video management. The cost to the district was 1.3 million dollars (Raths, 2011, p. 33). Ironically, "Columbine High School has no metal detectors. Zero. There are a few more surveillance cameras, but there has been some in place before April 20, 1999. School resource officers? Still one SRO, same as before" (Fuentes, 2011, p. 46). Both a SRO and surveillance cameras were in use the day of the Columbine tragedy. Neither surveillance cameras nor SROs prevented the violence. This was reinforced by Altheide's (2009) study that no clear evidence existed which proved security measures such as cameras or SROs were more effective than traditional methods in violence prevention. More specifically, Altheide (2009) wrote that cameras and police officers fostered a negative learning environment where students were viewed as potential criminals or potential promoters of violence.

What did deter violence in schools? Lindle (2008) determined teacher presence and visibility was the largest deterrent to violence in schools, and increased security measures only promoted a culture of fear and oppression which victimized students.

Culture forms the superglue. Bolman and Deal stated, "Culture forms the superglue that bonds an organization, unites people, and helps an enterprise accomplish desired ends" (p. 253). The researcher does not propose school leaders, parents, or communities intentionally decided to create a culture in which students' rights seem oppressed. Rather the researcher contends the consequences of SROs and surveillance cameras need to be studied to determine their effects on students' democratic liberties in secondary educational environments. As a phenomenon, juvenile violence in schools seemed to create a panic with parents and school leaders. Rather than proactive approaches to violence in secondary schools, leaders seemed to embrace reactionary approaches. The issue was complicated because problems of school violence and academic proficiency seemed to coalesce at similar points in time. Federal and state mandates called for both improved academic performance and the reduction of violence. To appease federal and state mandates, many schools developed mission and vision statements which encompassed improving academic performance, creating safe learning environments, and preparing students for society. Lugg and Shoho (2006) suggested that schools should shift focus:

> Concurrently, there has been a chorus of rhetoric involving federal policies and legal mandates, which appear to contradict the role of schools in preparing children to better society. Inevitably, in any given school, there is a goal, mission or vision statement that states something like "Students will become productive

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and active citizens." Unfortunately, this goal is rarely assessed and arguably, many schools are failing in this mission. As a result, what are the implications if school leaders were to reframe their perspective to focus on social justice and social reconstructionism, instead of focusing on high stakes testing exculusively? (p. 198)

Bolman and Deal's (2008) symbolic lens help create a new reality in considering the use of surveillance cameras and SROs within public schools. This new reality could be encouraging the reduction of students' rights because fear has been assigned a more important meaning than liberty. Parents and communities seemed to have passively agreed safety measures are best achieved through the use of surveillance cameras and SROs.

<center>Statement of the Problem</center>

Media sensationalism fostered a narrative of fear that shaped perceptions about violence in schools (Altheide, 2009, p. 1354). Birkland and Lawrence (2009) wrote, "Framing is virtually inevitable in human cognition and communication because reality itself is too multifaceted to be comprehended as a whole" (p. 1406). "Columbine was the bloodiest school violence incident in the 1990s" (Birkland & Lawrence, 2009, p. 1406) "where millions of people experienced the fear vicariously through live news coverage" (Addington, 2009, p. 1427). Rather than frame the Columbine violence in the context of which it happened, politicians and school administrators used the media's discourse of fear to call for action to protect children and to increase security measures (Altheide, 2009). The nation's fear of juvenile violence grew from isolated events caused by

multiple influences into a panic that no child was safe in his or her school. Altheide (2009) wrote:

> The capacity to shape our view of the world and the words that we use to describe it are significant for future action…. The discourse of fear expanded social control and policies…. Officials at all levels of government opted for more surveillance, lockdown drills, and efforts to prevent more of the same (p. 1355).

The discourse of fear prompted many leaders to increase safety measures which would attempt to prevent future incidents of school violence.

Court Cases

Schools have successfully argued in courts that safety and the minimization of disruption forms the foundation of a quality educational environment. *New Jersey v. T.L.O.* was one of the first cases to demonstrate this concept. *T.L.O.* established the rights of students to be free from unreasonable search and seizure, their Fourth Amendment right. However, the *T.L.O.* generated two very important concepts:

1. School officials need have only "reasonable suspicion," a standard of proof less rigorous than the requirement of "probable cause," in order to conduct a legal search.… Suspicion itself implies a belief or opinion based upon facts or circumstances that do not amount to proof. (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 398)

2. A student's freedom from unreasonable search and seizure must be balanced against the school officials' need to maintain order and discipline and to protect the health and welfare of all the students. (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 398)

As the first point represents, school officials do not need to afford a student the same rights of search and seizure that the same student would be given outside the school culture. School officials need not have proof, only suspicion to accuse a student of misbehavior, which could result in search and seizure of property from the student. Within the second statement, safety through order and discipline takes precedence over student liberties. Alexander and Alexander (2005) demonstrated in their analysis of *Sweezy v. New Hampshire*, "Scholarship cannot flourish in an atmosphere of suspicion and distrust. Teachers and students must always remain free to inquire, to study and to evaluate…. [The state cannot] chill that free play of the spirit which all teachers ought to especially cultivate and practice" (p. 309). Current use of SROs and surveillance cameras potentially create an atmosphere of distrust and suspicion.

Most secondary schools contain hierarchical structures: (a) student, (b) teacher, and (c) administration. This hierarchical structure was reinforced when administrators began using surveillance cameras and SROs to increase safety and punish unruly students. Under the guise of protection, surveillance cameras can be used to document and to punish student behaviors deemed undesirable by those with authority. These same behaviors might not be considered inappropriate outside the school, but *T.L.O.* legally established administrator discretion in determining inappropriateness. Mitchell (1998) confirmed this assertion by stating that students are not afforded the same rights as adults.

When the media sensationalizes a story of school violence, the public erroneously begins to frame all school environments as similar conduits of violence. To help combat the perceived violence in schools, zero-tolerance policies were developed. Lyons and Drew (2006) demonstrated that zero-tolerance policies targeted students who

demonstrated signs of individual identity; students who demonstrated characteristics and behaviors different than those of being white, heterosexual, and consumers of labeled products were informally punished more often (p. 173). Zero-tolerance policies helped to create a culture where the rhetoric of "prevention [safety] becomes an invitation to perpetual enforcement" (Lyons & Drew, 2006, p. 175). Referring back to *T.L.O.* which legalized this perpetual enforcement, Lyons and Drew (2006) summarized:

> Democratic deliberations and the civic culture require citizens who can live comfortably with conflict, who understand that conflict is normal and that leadership is about how we achieve agreements, construct shared values, and create communities in the ways we handle conflict…. This means leaders and citizens must learn these skills in their communities and schools. (p. 173)

Lewis (2006) commented, "Inner city schools servicing low-income, minority populations are increasingly becoming more camp like, where surveillance isn't so much to train or reform but to abandon educational life through zero-tolerance policies" (p. 272). As the number of schools using surveillance cameras and SROs has continued to rise since 2006, it seemed as if the primary solution to creating safe schools was the belief that SROs and surveillance cameras could stop violence and crime.

Within the accessed academic research, literature could not be located documenting students' perceptions of surveillance cameras or SROs within their schools. Although not quite adults and not quite children, the voices of secondary students and their perceptions of school safety need to be documented. It seems only rational that the main consumers of secondary, public education be allowed a seat at the planning table. The research reviewed did demonstrate broad, qualitative discussions of student rights

such as free speech, dress codes, and zero-tolerance policies, but the research seemed compartmentalized and failed to make connections between democratic rights, students' perceptions, and the use of surveillance cameras and SROs.

Purpose of the Study

This study begins to fill the current gap in academic literature by providing and documenting the perceptions of junior and senior secondary, public school students in regard to surveillance cameras and SROs. As the American educational system grows and changes to meet challenges, it seems a revolutionary idea to ask students what they think about their environment and educational experiences. The knowledge from this study will help to foster many different discussions about school safety, student perceptions, and student participation at the planning table. The purpose of this study was to document students' perceptions about surveillance cameras and SROs. Three research questions guided this study.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

1. What are students' perceptions of their individual rights within their secondary school?

2. What are students' perceptions of security cameras within their secondary school?

3. What are student perceptions of school resource officers (SROs) within their secondary school?

Although seemingly deceptive in their wording, the questions were quite complex. First, students' opinions were valued by considering their perceptions. This consideration attempted to avoid the oppressor/oppressed dynamic. Next, symbolism was chosen

because surveillance cameras and SROs meaning is created by the way these tools have been used by those in authority.

The means of gathering data for this study happened through the use of a Likert Scale, open-ended response spaces to the Likert statements, and focus groups. The survey included several statements that secondary junior and senior students were asked to rate concerning their perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROs used within their school. Each question was followed by an open space so students could elaborate on their perceptions about that particular statement. These spaces were intended to clarify and add meaning to the answers provided. The focus groups were held so students could express their thoughts to questions from the survey and open-ended response items. To create enough data, it was determined the study would take place in three schools across a Midwestern state.

The survey questions were constructed from available literature on school violence, oppression of a populace, and the uses of surveillance cameras and SROs within schools. The final revisions of the survey questions entailed folding in the concepts of symbolism. Students were given a sheet of definitions in case they needed help in interpreting and answering survey questions. Terms defined on the sheet were: oppression, symbolism, SROs, and surveillance cameras. The definition sheet helped the researcher to ensure students in each school were provided the same explanation of terms. The survey and open-ended questions were administered using computer labs.

The survey tool used was able to tally and produce immediate results on the Likert-scale portion of the survey. For the open-ended questions, students were asked to print their responses using a printer located within the computer lab. The comments were

then coded and used as supporting information. Careful attention was paid to make the survey and focus group prompts as nonbiased as possible. Consideration was also given to make the survey as concise as possible as to encourage student participation and completion of the survey.

The final step involved in gathering data was students' participation in focus groups. Participation in these groups was voluntary; groups were held once either in the morning or once after school to allow maximum participation. The questions which formed the discussions of the focus groups were taken from the survey's students statements on the open response section. The students' answers during the focus group helped the researcher frame students' answers to the survey and explore aspects not originally considered in the formation of the questions.

<center>Limitations and Assumptions</center>

Limitations

This study was limited by the available literature and lack of studies on the topic. Addington (2009) confirmed, "In particular, no baseline measures are available to determine fear, victimization, or school disorder before the security measures were implemented. It is possible that even higher reports of fear, victimization, and disorder may have been found if no security were present" (p. 1436). Mertens (2005) stated:

> A mixed-method design is one in which both quantitative data and qualitative
> methods are used to answer research questions in a single study. The intent may
> be to see a common understanding through triangulating data from multiple
> methods or to use multiple lenses simultaneously to achieve alternative
> perspectives that are not reduced to a single understanding. (p. 293)

To establish a baseline about fear and safety in schools, the researcher chose to use a Likert-scale survey to attempt to determine if commonalities in student perceptions existed. To help establish greater meaning and depth of Likert-scale items, the researcher used qualitative data collection methods of open-ended responses and focus group discussions to form the basis of the study.

The survey for this study would need to be given in a variety of schools which would meet various social and economic conditions, as well as diverse geographical locations to generalize results. The researcher could not locate any previous surveys addressing the concerns of this study. Another limitation was researcher bias. The researcher made efforts to remain objective; however, as an instructor in a secondary school, incidents which concerned surveillance cameras and interactions with SROs have helped frame the perceptions of the researcher. Also, the researcher found it difficult to use language that did not represent oppression, biasness, or place blame. Without the guidance of other published studies, the researcher attempted to present the study and investigate the research questions while continually evaluating statements that seemed oppressive or biased in nature.

Assumptions

This research was pursued in an attempt to document secondary students' perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROs within their school environment. Two fundamental assumptions formed the basis of this study. The first assumption was students' democratic rights could be slowly eroding through the use of surveillance cameras and SROs. The second assumption was students, parents, and community members perceived surveillance cameras and SROs were necessary to create a safe

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environment for students while at school. Since students are the main consumers of public education, this study strove to document the secondary students' perceptions of symbolic oppression as represented by surveillance cameras and SROs.

Definition of Key Terms

Key terms were defined to provide clarity. Since a definition of systematized oppression could not be located, the researcher developed a definition of systematized oppression for the purposes of this study. In addition the terms democratic rights and liberties, school safety, cameras and police presence/SROs were also defined to increase understanding of the study.

Systematized. Systematized was defined as "a group of interacting, interrelated, or independent elements forming a complex whole" (American Heritage College Dictionary, 2004, p. 1400). Next, oppression was defined as:

> the act or instance of unjustly exercising authority or power or an offense
>
> consisting in the abuse of discretionary authority or power or an offense
>
> consisting in the abuse of discretionary authority by a public officer who has an
>
> improper motive, as a result of which a person is injured. (Garner, 2004, p. 1127)

Injury was defined as a: violation of another's legal rights (Garner, 2004, p. 801). Drawing from the three definitions of systematized, oppression, and injury, an individual definition of systemized oppression was created.

Systematized oppression. The researcher's constructed definition of systematized oppression is interacting, interrelated, or interdependent elements used by public authority figures to cause injury. This definition allowed not only for SROs, but also

school administrators, teachers, and other employees or agencies to fall in the parameters of those entities with authority within secondary public school environments.

Democratic rights and liberties. Democratic rights and liberties were defined as a cohesive unit rather than individual concepts. For the purpose of this study, democratic rights and liberties were defined as a student's "freedom from arbitrary or undue restraint" granting the student "power, privilege, or immunity secured to a person by law" (Black's Law Dictionary, 1999, p. 937/1347). The researcher made a conscious choice not to engage in semantics between the terms rights and liberties.

School safety. A standard definition of what constitutes school safety was not agreed upon in the scholarly literature. "Thus far, the terms school violence prevention, school safety, and school security have been used without reference to the conceptual differences that underlie them. It became clear that there is little consistency in whether and how policymakers, scholars and the mass media distinguish among these constructs" (Brent, DeAngelis, & Ianni, 2011, p. 314).

Cameras and police presence. Cameras and police presence were best defined by Addington (2009): "'Visible security measures' include the presence of physical devices (such as metal detectors and security cameras) as well as trained personnel (such as law enforcement officers and private security guards) to prevent school violence" (p. 1426).

Significance of the Study

A democracy can only be as strong as its citizens' understanding of their and others' democratic rights. Citizens of democracy should understand and be willing to defend democratic principles. The perceived fear of juvenile violence seemed to move parents and those with authority in schools to implement extreme protocols to protect

students' safety, standardizing surveillance cameras and SROs as the norm on many school campuses (Bracy, 2010b).

This purpose of this study was to document secondary students' perceptions of safety within their school environments. Secondary senior and junior students were chosen because they are close to being granted many of the rights and privileges of adults in America. The United States seems to be caught in a paradox concerning these 'almost adults.' Adolescents are given the rights to drive, to work, and to be tried for adult crimes; however, the privileges of choosing behaviors, voicing opinions, and being proactive in their educational cultures seemed to be an almost incomprehensible idea to those with authority in school districts.

These young adults are the future leaders and the protectors of democracy. If they do not understand their democratic rights, how will they protect or defend those rights? This study was unique because it asked students to consider their perceptions concerning symbolic systematized oppression resulting from the use of surveillance cameras and SROs. This study contributes to the literature by providing students with a voice concerning their perceptions of school safety, and the impacts of SROs and surveillance cameras on their rights and liberties.

Summary

The researcher wanted to document secondary students' perceptions of how surveillance cameras and SROs affected their liberties within their secondary school cultures. The problem quickly emerged that students' voices were seldom considered in decisions concerning their democratic rights as individuals in public schools. The purpose of this study was to document and analyze responses given to a set of predetermined

questions concerning surveillance cameras and SROs in a secondary school. Much like democracy, conceptual underpinnings were based upon critical theory drawing parallels between Plato's cave (Jowett, 2000), the Psychic Prison (Morgan, 2006), and Classical Liberalism (Stanford, 2010). Key terms were defined to aid in understanding the researcher's point of view in constructing the study and analyzing the data. Finally, this study is important to the body of existing literature by providing insight and filling a gap in the current, academic research.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

Educational policy in the name of school safety has implemented reactive

measures which have moved schools "in the direction of total institutionalization to the

extent that public schools have begun to resemble prisons rather than educational

institutions" (Hutchinson & Pullman, 2007, p. 172). This chapter examined several

factors helping to substantiate Hutchinson's and Pullman's claim and the importance of

social justice leadership within secondary schools. This literature review was broken into

categories to facilitate understanding beginning with the Historical Foundations of

Democratic Education, Modern Interpretations of Democratic Education, Court Decisions

justifying safety policies and procedures used in many secondary schools, and The

Promotion of Fear section exposed the misconceptions of juvenile violence in American

schools. This chapter concluded with a potential Future Vision of Democratic Education.

Several of the sections were broken into subcategories to help clarify concepts presented.

Historical Foundations of Democratic Education

Since America's beginnings, many ideas have been postulated and some

implemented in attempts to improve the public school system. Many would contend that

surveillance cameras and SROs were an appropriate response to school violence.

Jefferson's (Ford, 1893) idea of a democratic education influencing and sustaining

democratic society was researched and presented. During the early 1930s, Counts

(1932/1978) reaffirmed Jefferson's ideals of democratic education; then, during the early

1970s, Freire (1970/2009) emerged as a Brazilian educational theorist striving to make

education available and accessible for all in his native country. This section included and explored Jefferson's (Ford, 1893), Counts's (1932/1978), and Freire's (1970/2009) perspectives on democratic education.

Jefferson spent much of his political career fighting to create, maintain, and support a free society through the promotion of public education:

> Jefferson hoped the establishment of a system of publicly supported schools would elevate the mass of people to the moral status necessary to insure good government and public safety and happiness. Jefferson believed the survival of all the freedoms being declared and fought for in the revolution depended on the enlightenment of citizens.… Jefferson never abandoned the idea that the people of the new nation would need necessary skills to perform their duties and to protect their rights as citizens. (Ford, 1893, p. 34)

Jefferson wanted to create a society in which citizens could progress to their fullest potential. Jefferson believed as the people had fought for and won their liberty, the people should be the protectors of their liberties (Ford, 1893, p. 43). This theme of social equality was mirrored again by Freire and Counts.

During the 1930s, Counts an American educator, who was also a social and political activist, gave a series of three speeches entitled "Dare the School Build a New Social Order" (Urban, 1932/1978). These speeches were a critical review of public education in America and seemed to contain prophetic warnings public education:

> If America should lose her honest devotion to democracy, or if she should lose her revolutionary temper, she will no longer be America. In that day, if it has not already arrived, her spirit will have fled and she will be known merely as the

richest and most powerful of the nations.… She [America] must do more than simply perpetuate the democratic ideal of human relationships; she must make an intelligent and determined effort to fulfill it [democracy]. The democracy of the future can only be the intended offspring of the union of human reason, purpose, and will. (Counts, 1932/1978, p. 37)

Counts was criticizing public education because he believed educators were more concerned about training students for the workforce rather than teaching students to learn, evaluate, and apply educational concepts. Like Jefferson, Counts believed public schools were the institutions where democratic principles must be taught and nourished. "If the schools are to be really effective, they must become centers for the building, and not merely for the contemplation, of our civilization" (Counts, 1932/1978, p. 37). However, the depressive economic conditions of the 1930s seemed to have brought the debate between teaching democratic principles and achieving economic prosperity to a halt.

As the Depression continued, Counts (1932/1978) held firmly to the value that public education must always place priority on democratic liberties. Counts stated, "Today we are witnessing the rise of a civilization quite without precedent in human history – a civilization founded on science, technology, and machinery, possessing the most extraordinary power, and rapidly making of the entire world a single great society" (Counts, 1932/1978, p. 28). Counts understood capitalism was fundamental to democracy, but he firmly believed that society must be diligent in maintaining democratic principles as well as economic prosperity.

According to Counts (1932/1978), a fundamental flaw existed in public education which was the slave mentality or teacher as expert. Counts believed that in many public

schools knowledge only flowed in one direction. This directional teaching portrayed the teacher as possessing all knowledge and authority. Students were to be the receivers of the teacher's knowledge which encouraged students to form the slave mentality. Rather than think independently, students are encouraged to think as the teacher thinks. This teacher/students dynamic encourages students to become mental slaves of the teacher. Counts suggested (1932/1978), "In order to be effective they [educators] must throw off completely the slave psychology that has dominated the mind of the pedagogue more or less since the days of ancient Greece" (p. 28). Counts believed the teachers' job was to teach students to engage in creative thinking and problem solving. This independent thinking would advance democratic principles and in turn increase economic prosperity. "We live in troublous times; we live in an age of profound change; we live in an age of revolution. Indeed it is highly doubtful whether man ever lived in a more eventful period than the present" (p. 28). In Counts's (1932/1978) perspective schools should be charged with teaching democratic principles, and those democratic principles should guide economic concerns not economic concerns guiding schools. "This clearly means that, if democracy is to survive in the United States, it must abandon its individualistic affiliations in the sphere of economics" (p. 42). Counts's idealism was best summarized, "There lies within our grasp the most humane, the most beautiful, the most majestic civilization ever fashioned by any people" (p. 32).

Almost 40 years later, Paulo Freire addressed Brazil's educational ills. Freire's (1970/2009) book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* humanized Brazil's unequal education system. Freire (1978/2009) termed the lower classes the oppressed. Freire claimed the oppressed were being conditioned by the upper classes, the oppressors. The oppression

was designed to keep the oppressed in a state of poverty while at the same time the oppressors benefited from the labors of the oppressed. Freire (1970/2009) believed:

> Oppression – overwhelming control – is necrophilic; it is nourished by a love of death, not life. The banking concept of education, which serves the interests of oppression, is also necrophilic. Based on a mechanistic, static, naturalistic, spatialized view of consciousness, it transforms students into receiving objects. It attempts to control thinking and action, leads women and men to adjust to the world, and inhibits their creative power. (p. 77)

Freire was criticizing educational systems in which teaching past events, student memorization, and regurgitation on exams was the norm. Freire believed it more important to understand past events and make those events applicable in resolving modern societal issues. Education systems that followed the memorization then regurgitation model only served to entrench and to protect those with the knowledge and authority.

Freire was describing a seemingly inescapable cycle. When those with knowledge (the oppressors) limit the education of those without knowledge (the oppressed), then the oppressors can remain in control. "If the humanization of the oppressed signifies subversion, so also does their freedom; hence the necessity for constant control. And the more the oppressors control the oppressed, the more they change them into an apparently inanimate 'thing'" (Freire, 1970/2009, p. 59). Freire offered a solution to escape the cycle, "To surmount the situation of oppression, people must first critically recognize its causes, so that through transforming action they can create a new situation, one which makes possible the pursuit of a fuller humanity" (p. 47). The struggle between the classes

could only be resolved "when the oppressed find the oppressor out and become involved in the organized struggle for their liberation that they begin to believe in themselves" (p. 65).

Counts (1932/1978) had offered a similar idea, "The [public] school possessed an ability to formulate an ideal of a democratic society, to communicate that ideal to students, and to encourage them to use the ideal as a standard for judging their own society and other societies" (p. x). One of the more revolutionary ideas Counts proposed was that the school should shape society, not society being allowed to shape the school. Counts (1932/1978) continued, "We are convinced that education is the one unfailing remedy for every ill to which man is subject, whether it be vice, crime, war, poverty, riches, injustice, racketeering, political corruption, race hatred, class conflict, or just plain original sin" (p. 1). Much like Jefferson and Franklin, Counts confirmed democratic principles must be the foundation of an educational system, and economic prosperity the result.

Jefferson, Counts, and Freire were concerned with how to best teach democratic principles, and, then, let democratically educated individuals improve their society. Jefferson (Ford, 1893) articulated what constitutes democratic principles in public education. Counts (1932/1978) warned what would happen if democratic principles were not upheld in a democratic society's educational system. While in Brazil, Freire (1970/2009) lived the nightmare of oppression referred to by Jefferson and Counts.

Modern Interpretations of Democratic Education

It seems as if the public school system is inundated with standardized testing created by the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) and state actions. In her book *The*

Death of Why, Schlesinger (2009) addressed the need for schools to teach students to ask the question, "Why?" "Democracy is a messy business. We tried one hypothesis and it did not work, so we tried another. It is through the exploration of democracy we can uncover democratic properties and understand our relationship to these democratic principles" (p. 88). Schlesinger's concept reinforced Jefferson's ideas of teaching democratic principles to public school students, so that they may maintain a free society. Schlesinger's statement also confirmed Count's (1932/1978) and Freire's (1970/2009) theoretical premises; if democracy is driven by economic considerations only, then the result would be the rich (oppressors) keeping the poor (oppressed) in poverty. If this same analogy were applied to educational institutions, the result would be that the oppressors, pedagogues rich in knowledge, would only teach past events. Students struggling to gain knowledge, the oppressed, would never learn to question or to assimilate ideas from nor form new knowledge. The students would learn to memorize and repeat, they would not question their place in society. Lewis (2006) summarized:

> For Freire, dialogic education resolves the student-teacher dialectic, allowing the object (student) to become the subject (teacher) and vice versa. Such a relation necessitates the exchange of glances between student and teacher. Rather than a gaze bent on cataloging students in terms of deficiencies and deficits, the exchange of glances opens up new space, a resisting visual field of pedagogical perception, that is experimental, challenging and revolutionary. These visual relations that underlie Freire's linguistic problem-posing pedagogy are antithetical to the total surveillance economy of contemporary American schools. (p. 278)

Lewis's (2006) last sentence contains the term "total surveillance economy" (p. 278). Lewis was referring to how students are taught, and how students, schools, and districts are rated on the results of standardized tests. The term could also be extended into state control of behavior by the use of surveillance cameras and SROs that result in punitive actions against students from those in authority.

Social Justice as Leadership Practice

Leaders within secondary schools should understand how social justice affects students within their schools. Dantley and Tillman (2005) stated, "Academic and intellectual work is located in a space that is affected by political, social, cultural, historical, and economic realities" (p. 22). Leaders not understanding social justice concepts tend not to acknowledge or address students who seem "underserved, underrepresented, and undereducated and that face various forms of oppression" on a daily basis in public schools (Dantley & Tillman, 2005, p. 23). "Social justice demands deconstructing those realities in order to disclose the multiple ways schools and their leadership reproduce marginalizing and inequitable treatment" of students (Dantley & Tillman, 2005, p. 22). Most leadership studies have failed to deconstruct the relationship between students and safety measures such as surveillance cameras and SROs. New knowledge could be created if school leaders were to consider social justice as a leadership practice within schools. Brown (2006) summarized:

> Social justice activists espouse a theory of social critique, embrace a greater sense of civic duty, and willingly become active agents for political and social change. They are committed to an agenda in which past practices anchored in open and residual racism, gender exclusivity, homophobia, class discrimination, and

religious intolerance are confronted and changed with time. They challenge

exclusion, isolation, and marginalization of the stranger; respond to oppression

with courage; empower the powerless; and transform existing social inequalities

and injustices. (p. 711)

Dantley and Tillman's (2005) explanation helped to apply social justice within the

context of secondary schools. "Schools can become the arenas of struggle among

multiple points of view, ideologies, and technology, and social justice leaders facilitate an

environment where these perspectives are welcomed and are given free course to be

voiced" (p. 22). Outside the discourse of safety, leaders in secondary schools seem not to

have considered alternate impacts of surveillance cameras and SROs. Safety measures

such as surveillance cameras and SROs and their uses seem capable of reinforcing an

oppressive power structure.

The hierarchical structure of public schools tends to reinforce ideas of the

oppressor and the oppressed. "Instead of liberty for students we encounter constant

surveillance.… Students cannot learn democracy in the school because the school is not a

democratic place" (Merelman, 1980, p. 320). "Critics of the school have rightly drawn

our attention to the primarily authoritarian context of education, but they have wrongly

assumed the impotence of democracy of democratic content in such a setting. Democratic

values become more, not less, important in an authoritarian context" (Merelman, 1980, p.

323). "In a democracy, individuals are citizens rather than subjects, and thus it is implicit

that individuals have the right to participate in their own governance" (Perry, 2007, p.

431). As surveillance cameras and SROs have become commonplace in many schools,

these safety measures seems to be increasing authoritarian control.

A quandary arose when attempting to determine the rights of secondary students. "In the not too distant past, the school's authority over its students was subject to few limitations. Courts commonly viewed the school as operating in the place of parents (in loco parentis), a doctrine that justified all manner of regulation, just as true parenthood confers broad powers" (Imber & Van Geel, 2000, p. 105). Justice Stevens commented in *New Jersey v. T.L.O.*:

> The schoolroom is the first opportunity most citizens have to experience the power of government. Through it passes every citizen and public official, from schoolteachers to policemen and prison guards. The values they learn there, they take with them in life. One of our most cherished ideals is the Fourth Amendment: that the government may not intrude on the personal privacy of its citizens without a warrant or compelling circumstances. (Mitchell, 1998, p. 1207)

The message conveyed by surveillance cameras and SROs seems to be one of authoritative oppression and domination by those in power. This marginalization of secondary students was confirmed by Mitchell's (1998) definition of in loco parentis:

> The doctrine in loco parentis encompasses the common law view of the legal status of minors in the public school setting. Under this doctrine, school officials stand in the place of parents during school hours, assuming both the authority and responsibility of the parents in disciplinary actions against the student. The doctrine's foundation rests on the premise that individual constitutional rights mature only when one reaches the state defined age of majority. (p. 1212)

Mitchell's definition failed to recognize secondary students as democratic citizens.

It could be argued that many schools still operate using Mitchell's definition. Imber and Van Geel (2000) stated:

Courts have recognized that, although children's legal status is not identical to adults', a child is nevertheless entitled to constitutional protection…. Second, the doctrine of in loco parentis has been largely abandoned. Courts have come to realize that for the most purposes, it is more appropriate to view the school as an arm of the state rather than as a substitute parent…. However, for its part, the school must be governed by the limitations that the law places on state regulation of its citizens. The school is expected to afford its pupils the full protection of their constitutional rights as defined by the courts. (p. 106)

In educational environments, leaders are charged with the safety and welfare of the child during the school day; however, this concept seemed not change as the child ages and advances through the public school system.

As Jefferson (Ford, 1893) and modern theorists maintained, an educated populace is necessary for the survival of democracy. Perry (2007) confirmed the contradictory nature of public school polices, "Schooling is the primary process by which social inequalities are reproduced and, at the same time, is the main vehicle for social mobility. Education is shaped by the principles of equality. At the same time, education contributes to both equality and inequality in the greater society" (p. 431). Public school leaders seemed to employ practices confirming that students are incapable of making informed democratic choices. "If the state can gain access to the individual's mind by controlling his education, it also can affect the democratic decisions that individuals make in the future" (Mollen, 2008, p. 1532). Those with authority seemed not to care

public schools were not places of social justice encouraging democracy. The hierarchal structure denying justice and confirming state control was reinforced by Mollen (2008): "Boards of education are arms of the state, and as such, they are subject to the will of the majority" (p. 1535). If the majority, those with authority, always value safety over liberty, then the public schools are free to reinforce oppressive power structures.

The court cases were reviewed using social justice leadership as a guiding principle. The guiding principle of social justice strove to recognize students as citizens of a democratic state. Although the courts have supported students' democratic rights, the language of a court's decision has been interpreted differently by those with authority. The courts affirmed the best approach for public education was the exposure and exchange of ideas which strives to discover truth "out of a multitude of tongues rather than teach through any kind of authoritative selection. No school can function as a marketplace of ideas unless both students and faculty enjoy an atmosphere conducive to debate and scholarly inquiry" (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 297). The language of the court articulated and reaffirmed theorists' views of the importance of social justice and democratic principles taught within the schools.

Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School District (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 398) was the court case in which students felt their freedom of speech had been violated by district officials. The students had worn black armbands to school protesting the Vietnam War. School officials felt the armbands were inappropriate and disruptive, and, school officials made the students remove the arm bands or face disciplinary actions. The court decided in favor of the students' right to wear the armbands as an expression of free speech. However, before *Tinker* reached the higher court, a lower district court ruled

and reaffirmed oppression of students' rights. "The action of the school authorities was reasonable because it was based upon their fear of a disturbance from the wearing of the armbands" (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 367). The higher court reversed the lower court's decision stating:

> In our system, state-operated schools may not be enclaves of totalitarianism. School officials do not possess absolute authority over their students. Students in school as well as out of school are "persons" under our Constitution. They are possessed of fundamental rights which the State must respect, just as they themselves must respect their obligations to the State. In our system, students may not be regarded as closed-circuit recipients of only that which the state chooses to communicate. They may not be confined to the expression of those sentiments that are officially approved. (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 368)

The *Tinker* decision stated that students are individuals with constitutional rights. The concept of students as individuals seemed to lack importance in many secondary schools because those with authority in schools interpreted safety differently. "The Tinker court established students' First Amendment rights as one safeguard to prevent benign state influence over students' minds from creeping into harmful state indoctrination" (Mollen, 2008, p. 1501). Mollen (2008) stated:

> The reason why the First Amendment cannot permit casual repression of student speech is bound up with the second theoretical premise of Tinker: school officials, as an arm of the state, cannot repress student speech merely because they disagree with its content or because it expresses feelings with which they do not wish to contend. If school officials could invoke the specter of harm as sufficient basis for

restricting student speech, this second theoretical premise would be effectively

nullified: supposed harm would be the open sesame that permits school officials

to regulate any and all speech with which they do not wish to contend. (p. 1525)

Schools have successfully argued in courts that safety and minimization of disruption

forms the foundation of a quality educational environment.

New Jersey vs. T.L.O. was the court case in which a student was found to have

been smoking in the school bathroom. The student was caught by a staff member and

taken to a vice principal. The student denied smoking, and to obtain proof, the vice

principal searched her purse. The purse contained cigarettes, rolling papers, a pipe,

marijuana, and an index card with names of other students owing the purse owner money

(Alexander & Alexander, 2005). Two important concepts emerged from the New Jersey

Supreme Court case:

1. School officials need have only "reasonable suspicion" a standard of proof
   less rigorous than the requirement of "probable cause," in order to conduct a
   legal search.… Suspicion itself implies a belief or opinion based upon facts or
   circumstances that do not amount to proof. (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p.
   398)

2. A student's freedom from unreasonable search and seizure must be balanced
   against the school officials' need to maintain order and discipline and to
   protect the health and welfare of all the students. (Alexander & Alexander,
   2005, p. 398)

However, for adult citizens in America the following constitutional standard is applied:

The right of privacy against unreasonable searches and seizures is ensured by the

Fourth Amendment of the Bill of Rights. The Fourth Amendment of the U.S.

Constitution provides: 'The right of people to be secure in their persons, houses,

papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures shall not be

violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause. (Alexander &

Alexander, 2005, p. 397)

The *T.L.O.* decision seemed to provide students protection from unreasonable searches

and seizures; however, *T.L.O.*'s language seemed to also allow school officials a broad,

almost limitless justification of what constituted safety and maintaining a well-ordered

environment. Those with authority can claim a disciplinary issue with one student is

compromising safety for all students in the building. Thus, an intrusive search of a

student and his or her possessions can be conducted as long as a reasonable suspicion

exists. Rather than the standard of probable cause practiced in broader society, this

reasonable suspicion standard allowed administrators and SROs to infringe upon

students' democratic rights by lessening the constitutional standard.

Cornfield v. Consolidated High School District No. 230 (Alexander & Alexander,

2005, p. 419) provided an example in which administrator suspicion created a violation

of a student's democratic rights. The student was reported to school administrators as

having an "unusually large bulge in his crotch area" (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p.

419). Based on previous disciplinary infractions with the student, administrators

determined a strip search was necessary. The administrators contacted the boy's mother

for permission. She denied their request. Administrators continued with the strip search

and found nothing. Alexander and Alexander (2005) stated the determination to search a student is left to school personnel:

> Of course, no school searches can be administered without reasonable suspicion; and clearly, a highly intrusive search necessarily requires more compelling evidence to reach the floor of reasonableness, as this case reflects. This determination is inevitably committed to the sound discretion of school personnel. (p. 419)

This case seemed to contradict the precedent set forth in *Tinker*; i.e., school officials do not possess absolute authority over their students (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 368). The determination of "reasonable suspicion" seemed to have given those in authority the power to create cultures of fear and domination by employing the broad definition of "sound discretion" (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 419). Leaders employing such tactics as those described below would not be focusing on creating a socially just environment; a militaristic, totalitarian environment seemed more appropriate:

> It is conceivable that a student, not suspected of any violations whatsoever, might be required to: have his/her locker, and possibly possessions inside, searched by canines; be scanned by a metal detector; and have urine analyzed for drug or alcohol use. And, if suspected of wrongdoing, the student might be subjected to a highly intrusive strip search. In addition, these searches could involve police officers who would not be required to provide students with the rights of ordinary citizens even when evidence is turned over for criminal proceedings. (Stefkovich & Torres, 2003, p. 260)

Although a lawsuit for the violation of a student's rights may happen, by the time the case reaches court, the student often has graduated – nullifying any substantial result for the student or any punishment for the rights violator. Since schools are not held to monetary damages, the judgment is largely symbolic (Alexander & Alexander, 2005). Mollen (2008) clarified:

Together *Hazelwood* (administrators' rights to edit school publications), *Fraser* (student speech using vulgar and inappropriate language to nominate a fellow student for a student office), and *Morse* (student holding sign promoting drug use at a school function) confirm that students in fact do leave some of their first amendment rights at the school house gate. (p. 1510)

Mollen (2008) elaborated:

First, Tinker recognizes that student speech, like all speech, creates risk. When that risk is only an "undifferentiated fear or apprehension of disturbance," however, "our Constitution says we must take [it]." Not only must we tolerate this risk, Tinker tells us, we must embrace it, as this "sort of hazardous freedom is the basis of our national strength and of the independence and vigor of Americans. (p. 1525)

The statistics also confirmed the futility of students or their families engaging in a lawsuit over rights violations. Stefkovich and Torres's (2003) study concluded:

Students lost in 79% of the cases litigated.… students from suburban schools always lost, and their chances were not much better if they lived in large or midsize cities.… More than one third of all cases relied on tips from informants as

the primary reason prompting or justifying the initial search.… there were slightly

more strip searches of females than males. (p. 267)

Based upon the numbers referenced, school officials seemed to be able to risk rights

violations with confidence because serious legal recourse seemed ineffective, or the

courts have ruled in favor of the school district. Stefkovich and Torres (2003) wrote,

"Students for the most part have been unable to gain money damages for violation of

their civil rights" (p. 272).

It is very difficult for those with authority in schools to determine what constitutes

students' rights and what must be done to create a safe and orderly environment. Many

states adopted the Safe School Act in which school districts were charged with creating

"disciplinary policy review committees" and "student codes of conduct." School

authorities were also required to report to local law enforcement certain criminal activity

occurring in their school (Imber & Van Geel, 2000). The quandaries and contradictions

ensue:

School officials thus must walk a narrow path. The law demands, communities

expect, and students deserve a vigorous effort to maintain a safe and orderly

school environment. Yet, in all functions relating to student discipline, the law

demands that the rights of students as persons under federal and state constitutions

be protected. At the same time, the law recognizes that the school's need for an

orderly environment and the special status of students as children justify more

control than the society at large exercises over adults. Many of the most difficult

questions in education law concern the conflict between the individual rights of

students and the corporate needs of the school. (Imber & Van Geel, 2000, p. 140)

Many leaders in public schools find themselves in this position almost continually. Students have rights, but students are considered children, children without rights. This legal quandary is confusing at best.

Lindle (2008) in her study stated the best deterrence in schools was teacher presence and visibility. Lindle helped substantiate that with more teachers, more teacher visibility, and more engagement with students these actions reduced inappropriate student behaviors. Instead of spending limited resources on the installation, maintenance, and expansion of safety measures such as surveillance cameras and SROs, if schools had redirected those limited resources into the hiring of more teachers, according to Lindle's study (2008) more teachers could more effectively reduce undesirable student behaviors.

<div align="center">Media's Promotion of Fear</div>

The media within America helped create and fuel the fear that public schools were vectors of violence. Muschert (2007) contended, "When it comes to understanding the mass media dynamic related to social problems, it is worth pointing out that the profit motive behind news production may obfuscate a deeper understanding of social problems and constructive generation of solutions" (p. 65). "Journalists, working with entertainment formats, tend to accept the rhetoric and definitions of news sources, regardless of how illogical, distorting, and deceptive" (Altheide, 2009, p. 1356). Columbine became synonymous for crises involving school shootings, gangs, bullying, and failure of schools to protect children (Altheide, 2009). Muschert (2007) continued:

> Most people experience school shootings as a mass-mediated phenomenon, rather
> than directly. While the problem of school-related shootings occurred across
> history, it was intense media coverage of the famous incidents Paducah,

Jonesboro, Littleton, that created the public perception of school shootings as an

emergent and increasing social problem. Thus, the school shooting problem as

broadly recognized had more to do with the media coverage of recent incidents

than actual changes in levels of violence in schools. (p. 65)

Rather than frame the incident in the context of which it happened, and then make

rationale choices, administrators, parents, and school boards seemed to readily accept that

their school could be the next incident of a school shooting. As Muschert claimed, many

people would rather choose to believe media reports than the actual statistics of violence

in schools.

Many parents were terrified that a Columbine-like shooting could take place in

their child's school. Before the fear of Columbine had receded, the nation suffered the

terrorist attacks of 9/11. Suddenly, the media began mixing the words school violence

and terrorism together. Addington (2009) drew the link between the two events,

"Columbine became entrenched within the discourse of fear, especially as it was linked to

terrorism and stepped-up efforts at social control of schools, including surveillance" (p.

1358). Altheide (2009) provided an alternative explanation that aligned Columbine with

the terrorist attacks of 9/11, "Terrorism was used as a symbolic wedge to gain more

support for policies and strategies to combat school violence…. Again the common

thread of fear" (p. 1360). Altheide (2009) clarified:

The use of cameras and surveillance in schools increased after Columbine and

was further reinforced following 9/11…. The concern with safety in a context of

fear orients school administrators and teachers to ascribe motives to all would-be

student shooters as terrorists, while guiding interaction and discourse that

constitutes the teaching environment as a place of discipline and surveillance to

prevent violent acts, including those that are "prankish" and harmless pseudo-

copycat ploys for attention. Such an environment and fear-prevention discourse

fundamentally changes the school environment and the relationship between

teachers and students. (Altheide, 2009, p. 1364)

Altheide drew several conclusions from her research. First, the use of surveillance

in schools increased because those with authority feared that a similar incident could

occur in their school. Next, many oppressors justified violating student liberties by using

the in loco parentis standard to keep students safe, even though no major incidents of

violence had occurred in their school. Also, those with authority used the specific

incident of Columbine as an example that any student was capable of any act of random

violence. Finally, this discourse of fear frightened many communities and parents into

trading student liberties for an illusion of safety. Altheide (2009) gave impact to the

discourse of fear:

> The capacity to shape our view of the world and the words that we use to describe
>
> it are significant for future actions.… School shootings are very rare, but fear is
>
> very common. Columbine came to be associated with virtually every act of gun
>
> violence that would occur on school grounds throughout the United States and, in
>
> many cases, throughout the world. (p. 1355)

Addington (2009) stated, "The main factors that initially motivated schools to increase

security were the media coverage of Columbine and the fear it generated among students

and parents" (p. 1427). Finally, "during the past 16 years since the Gun Free Schools Act

(GFSA) became a law, researchers have reported the act has not been effective for

reducing students' problem behaviors and that it has continuously produced negative outcomes" (Han & Akiba, 2011, p. 263).

Funding SROs and Surveillance Cameras

Annette Fuentes (2011) stated in her book *Lockdown High*: "Columbine, a rare act of violence at one school, became the excuse for implementing costly new security systems and disciplinary codes that curtailed students' rights to free speech, due process, and privacy.… There has never been a Columbine in a public city school." (p. 34). "Thus far, the scholarly literature is silent on the costs of school safety and the professional literature and mass media offer only anecdotal accounts of district level expenditures for metal detectors, security guards, or other means to safeguard students, staff, and property" (Brent, DeAngelis, & Ianni, 2011, p. 313). Brent, DeAngelis, and Ianni's (2011) study sought to document the actual security costs for secondary schools. What they discovered was that only a few states specify budget codes for security and safety; and most districts are only required to document the cost of security equipment (surveillance cameras) in the year it was purchased "obscuring the actual annualized cost of these resources over their useful life" (p. 313). "There are no centrally tabulated statistics on the total number and types of officers policing public schools" (Fuentes, 2011, p. 158).

Even without centrally tabulated numbers, the discourse of fear about juvenile violence motivated the Federal Government to distribute billions of dollars in attempts to bolster school security. One year after Columbine, the federal government provided 60 million dollars to enable schools to hire law enforcement officers (Juvonen, 2001). Annette Fuentes (2011) stated in *Lockdown High*, "Since its inaugural year [1999], COPS

(Community Oriented Policing Services) in schools has doled out about $800 million to 3000 school districts" (p. 158). Many believed it seemed logical to assume surveillance cameras and SROs were the solution schools needed to combat violence committed by students.

When numbers about school safety measure could be located, the costs of surveillance equipment and school resource officers seemed excessive. The Brent, DeAngelis, and Ianni (2011) study concluded that 792 Texas school districts spent an average of $312,030 on school security measures in 2008-09. Two thirds of the money was spent on personnel-related expenses. Addington (2009) reported, "The U.S. Department of Justice has awarded 747.5 million to fund and train SROs" (p.1434) and 13 million was award to local law enforcement agencies to help train the SROs. The Department of Education awarded 74 million dollars in grants to school districts to help prevent violence" (p. 1434). Smith (2011) asserted such expenditures were necessary:

> The first is to prevent things from happening because most people will not misbehave if they know they are on camera. The second thing is aimed at those individuals who do not care if cameras are present. For those people, cameras are to collect video to use as evidence. (p. 25)

Corporate America was not deaf to this discourse of fear. Companies saw the potential in security technologies for school districts. Fuentes (2011) stated:

> Newer, emerging approaches to security and access control - who gets into a school building - are bringing cutting edge technologies designed for military and corrections uses into our schoolhouses with little discussion of their need, effectiveness, or impact on students. One example is biometrics, which identifies

individuals through unique physical or behavioral characteristics.… Biometric

systems such as iris recognition and fingerprint scans, which have prison

applications, are now in schools.… And radio frequency identification (RFID)

developed for military applications and now commonly used by industry, is

promoted for tracking students. The mantra of school safety is being used to

justify technology for its own sake and for the profits of savvy entrepreneurs. (p.

84).

In the age of safety and surveillance in secondary schools, social justice as a leadership

concepts seemed not to even be considered. "After Columbine, people don't even

question it [security technology] in schools. They say one of three things to justify the

surveillance: terrorism, crime, or child safety." (Fuentes, 2011, p. 85).

Fuentes (2011) stated, "In some school districts, police have usurped authority

from school principals over dispensing discipline, a situation that fundamentally alters the

school climate" (p. 159). Peter Pochowski, the secretary of the National Association of

School Safety and Law Enforcement Officials, was interviewed by Smith (2011) for his

article "Budget and Needs Determine Schools' Video Surveillance." Smith (2011) quoted

Pochowski as saying, "While there are plenty of reasons to include law enforcement in

the crisis management team, when deciding on the type of surveillance system a school

should acquire, that system should be linked to the local law enforcement agency" (p.

25). This infringement of social justice is concerning. When surveillance equipment is

linked to local law enforcement agencies, it seems as if the teachers and administrators

have given most of their control to more formal state actors. It seems no longer about

educating students in democratic principles, but educating students in following rules deemed appropriate by the state and enforced by the state's police officers.

Discipline as Oppression

As the concept of school discipline demonstrated, "Unfortunately, most school disciplinary practices have been entrenched as a part of school life for centuries, and there is little discernible popular sentiment advocating for their reform" (Cameron, 2006, p. 224). To justify action, "They (school officials) only need reason to believe that the safety or the order of the school environment may be threatened by student behavior" (Yell & Rozalski, 2000, p. 193). To confirm students as a marginalized group, Cameron (2006) wrote, "Sadly, school disciplinary practices appear to be vehicles for the expression of racial and class based biases held by teachers and school administrators" (p. 223). When the actual statistics are examined outside the discourse of fear, Robers, Zhang, Truman, and Snyder (2010) reported:

> The percentage of youth homicides occurring at school remained at less than 2% of the total number of youth homicides with 24 homicides occurring between July 1, 2008 and June 30, 2009…. During the 2008-2009 school year, there were approximately one homicide or suicide of a school age youth at school per 2.5 million students enrolled. (p. 6)

In efforts to decrease disruptions, many schools have implemented zero-tolerance policies which seemed to have solidified cultures of fear in public schools. Zero-tolerance policies have given those with authority in schools invitations to perpetual enforcement (Lyons & Drew, 2006, p. 175). Bracy (2010b) reinforced Lyons and Drew's statements, "Excessive punitiveness and inconsistent rule enforcement, on the other hand, are

counterproductive to school safety" (p. 367). Lyons and Drew (2006) claimed zero-tolerance policies in schools have created passive students, increased demand for harsher punishments, and less accountability. Zero-tolerance policies "construct a coalition of the passive, encouraging the articulation of an electoral demand for more aggressive and less accountable forms of state agency in our schools, prisons, and shopping malls" (Lyons & Drew, 2006, p. 137).

Bracy (2010b) summarized, "The majority of public schools today are high security environments. These changes were made with students' best interests at heart, yet we know very little about how students, themselves, experience these high security schools" (p. 367). It has been documented, "Visible security measures alone do not resolve issues such as bullying, fighting, and cyber-related threats" (Addington, 2009, p. 1440). The research seems to demonstrate that instead of considering democratic solutions involving student perspectives, "Current policy decisions are framed as an 'either-or' situation of respecting rights or having security. Other options, such as the alternative programs, suggest that solutions can respect both security and student rights" (Addington, 209, p. 1441). Stefkovich and Torres's (2003) research supported that school officials are "deficient in their understanding of school law and students' Fourth Amendment rights have diminished in the years since *T.L.O.*" (p. 276).

"When it was determined, 'No clear evidence indicates that measures such as security cameras or guards are effective in preventing school violence'" (Addington, 2009, p. 1433). If Addington's statement proves true from the perspectives of students, then public education has wasted untold amounts of money. Not only has money been wasted, but "privacy concerns also arise when security measures are expanded and used

53

in ways not originally approved. For example, security cameras originally installed to prevent violence morph into ensuring that bathrooms are not vandalized" (Addington, 2009, p. 1437). The surface level of the problem was wasted resources, but wasted resources could have also been used to violate students' rights.

Bracy's (2010b) article provided clarity needed for this study. "Students' views of the ways their schools do discipline and safety are components of a school climate have been underexplored, particularly in contemporary high schools" (Bracy, 2010b, p. 368). Through investigation and drawing conclusions about school safety, the scholars may have overlooked one of the most important components, the students. Addington (2009) confirmed the researcher's suspicions, "Synthesizing the relevant literature highlights the lack of evaluative work regarding the effectiveness of school security and how little is known about the impact of security measures on students' civil liberty and privacy interests" (p. 1426). Addington (2009) again confirmed the study's revelance by encouraging "The exploration of new understandings, the synthesis of new information, and the integration of these insights throughout personal and professional spheres can lead future educational leaders to a broader, more inclusive approach in addressing issues of student learning and equity" (Brown, 2006, p. 703). After reviewing the available academic literature, investigating the court decisions, and examining actual violence statistics, the researcher was convinced this study could provide valuable insight into the phenomenon of school violence prevention from the perspective of junior and senior high school students.

This section was best summarized, "Parents and school administrators have not had to trade their own rights in exchange for security but rather those of the students. So

parents are the ones who receive the feeling of security for their children, but students

bear the cost of privacy invasions" (Addington, 2009, p. 1411). It seems a fair statement

that parents and administrators want the best and most safe environment for students;

however, in the rush to provide a solution, it is possible parents and administrators did

not consider the impact of their decisions in regard to students' rights.

<div align="center">Future Vision of Democratic Education</div>

Since Jefferson and his peers first began conceptualizing democratic education, it

seems education's fundamental concepts have grown, changed, and evolved. Lyons and

Drew (2006) confirmed:

> Democratic deliberations and the civic culture require citizens who can live
>
> comfortably with conflict, who understand that conflict is normal and that
>
> leadership is about how we achieve agreements, construct shared values, and
>
> create communities in the ways we handle conflict.… This means leaders and
>
> citizens must learn these skills in their communities and schools. (p. 173)

As students are monitored more, it seemed skills necessary to handle conflict were being

replaced by the state's interpretation of how conflict should be handled. This section

investigated the idealism and path that future education should pursue from philosophical

interpretation, modern educational practices, and the importance of student involvement

in the educational process.

In the researched consulted, it seemed as if students' opinions and voice have

been slowly and are continuing to be removed from the decision making processes in

public schools. Lewis (2006) summarized:

Since Columbine and 9/11, a predominantly White, middle-class populous has

cried out for more stringent forms of surveillance, thus demonstrating the

naturalization of ideological solutions networked through the matrix of

disciplinary power. On the other hand, even if these new assemblages multiply,

divide, and restructure themselves outside of the centralized control of the state,

since 9/11, there has been an increasing call for reterritorialization of such

systems of surveillance…. Surveillance assemblages are being reintegrated into

an overall governmental apparatus of disciplinary control. In schools, the

networking of surveillance equipment to police stations is an attempt to

recentralize disciplinary tools under a single gaze. (p. 264)

Rather than try to prevent problems of violence at their core, it seems easier for those

with authority in secondary schools to monitor and punish. So much so, that many

schools now have direct links to community police stations. Pittman (2010) documented

one Pennsylvania police department that can access the school districts' surveillance

cameras via a virtual private network connection. Rapp (2009) confirmed schools in

Michigan and New Jersey also used similar types of surveillance cameras that could be

accessed from police outside the building.

This type of state control and oppression is what Paulo Freire warned against. In

overcoming or stopping state oppression. Freire (2009) stated:

To surmount the situation of oppression, people must first critically recognize its

causes, so that through transforming action they can create a new situation, one

which makes possible the pursuit of a fuller humanity.… The oppressed who have

adapted to the structure of domination in which they are immersed, and have

become resigned to it, are inhibited from waging the struggle for freedom so long

as they feel incapable of running the risks it requires. (p. 47)

From a social justice leadership perspective, public education seems to be evolving into a

hierarchical structure where authority and control is valued over the practice of

democratic principles. Freire (1970/2009) stated:

The solution cannot be achieved in idealistic terms. In order for the oppressed to

be able to wage the struggle for their liberation, they must perceive the reality of

oppression not as a closed world from which there is no exit, but as a limiting

situation which they can transform. This perception is a necessary but not a

sufficient condition for liberation; it must become the motivating force for

liberating action. Nor does the discovery by the oppressed that they exist in

dialectical relationship to the oppressor, as his antithesis – that without them the

oppressor could not exist - in itself constitute liberation. The oppressed can

overcome the contradiction in which they are caught only when this perception

enlists them in the struggle to free themselves. (p. 48)

The literature suggested the reality of social justice ideology in public secondary

education can only be achieved once students begin to realize their rights have been

disregarded by those with power and authority within the school structure.

Leaders need to consider social justice in planning educational environments.

Cervero and Wilson (2006) wrote, "Those involved in planning educational programs

exercise their power in accordance with their own specific interests and the interests of

others they represent at the table" (p. 88). "Outcomes depend on which people are at the

planning table, which and whose interests they represent, and how they choose to

exercise power at the table" (p. 89). First, those with authority have to be able to allow students a seat at the planning table. However, "Having a seat at the table, of course, does not necessarily ensure substantive involvement, because power relationships operate to structure the decision making process" (p. 152). Next, those with authority have to value and act upon student perceptions and suggestions. "By illuminating the positionality of learners, instructional leaders, and other stakeholders in socially and organizationally structured power relations – including race, class, gender, and sexuality – democratic planning, though still precarious becomes more likely" (p. 182). The concept of involving students in helping to create, and plan courses of actions seems to be a revolutionary idea. Schlesinger (2009) proposed by including students in the process:

> Driven by questions rather than the need to have the right answer, and supported in environments that reward effort rather than status, these young people are better equipped to confront the unknown and the difficult. They are committed not just to the outcome but also to the process. (p. 24)

Daiute (2010) reinforced Schlesinger:

> Young people feel the need to express their knowledge about society and the need to be heard by those in power. Young people's interpretations of their environments can provide a foundation for education, community development, and international relations, because those views not only provide a way for educators and leaders to connect with young people but also contribute insights about orientation and goals that could influence public sentiment in the future. Other rationales include young people's desire to speak, their awareness of self-determination rights, and their capacity to understand the challenges and

opportunities in contemporary realities. Such youth perspectives are not

completely separate from those of their elders or the goals of the state but are

likely to be unique in how they link the past and the future from the perspective of

present experiences. (p. 8)

When students are given a voice at the planning table, Van Gorder (2007) called

this a dialogical interrelationship. This dialogue with and among students should include

critical thinking and discussion about contemporary issues which affect students.

"'Political engagement, democracy, and citizenship' are such terms for which each

generation needs to forge a definition that fits its history if these conceptual entities are to

be preserved" (Youniss & Levine, 2009, p. 25). Van Gorder (2007) claimed each

generation must strive to find ways in which engagement, democracy, and citizenship can

best be determined.

Summary

The researcher began to discover gaps in the literature which addressed school

safety, school violence, and the lack of quantifiable numbers in regard to cost of

surveillance equipment and personnel costs associated with SROs. To begin to build a

coherent context, the researcher first investigated and documented the historical

foundations of a democratic education. It soon became apparent that Jefferson, Counts,

and Freire were concerned about providing, maintaining, and improving the quality of

education in America by referencing social justice leadership concepts.

In determining the current state of safety in American public schools, the

researcher focused on surveillance cameras and SROs. Little literature has been compiled

or synthesized in regard to the actual monetary costs or the symbolic importance of

surveillance cameras and SROs to students. However, it has been documented that such measures as security cameras, SROs, and zero-tolerance policies seemed to categorize all students as potential perpetrators of violence. It did become clearer that secondary students as a group are marginalized by those state actors such as school boards, administrators, teachers and SROs.

Research Design and Methodology

Booren, Handy and Power (2010) articulated, "Clearly, it is important for schools to address issues of school safety, and one way of doing so is to understand whether constituents with the school have different perceptions.… Students make up a large portion of the school body, it is essential to further examine the students' perceptions of school safety, climate, and safety strategies" (p. 172). Those within schools seem to have forgotten, "Students clearly have rights to privacy and to dignity and school authorities have the obligation to both to act responsibly and also to teach students to assume responsibility" (Stefkovich, Torres, & O'Brien, 2004, p. 207). The researcher wanted this study to document students' perceptions of safety in their schools and if these students thought their individual liberties had been compromised by surveillance cameras and school resource officers (SROs).

<div align="center">Purpose and Overview of the Study</div>

The purpose of this study was to investigate and to document secondary students' perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROs in the school environments. Cervero and Wilson (2006) wrote about the needs of adult learners; however, their theory was applicable to secondary students and public school environments. Cervero and Wilson (2006) stated that education was a struggle for meaning and a struggle between power relations. Education becomes the place where power and politics operate in a culture where individuals and groups are situated in unequal social and political positions. The unequal dynamics of social and political positions in secondary schools were represented

by those with authority and those without authority. "Power always trumps rationality" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 249). Those with power in schools felt pressure to solve the crisis of school violence quickly and efficiently. Constituents seemed not to care if students' rights would be violated; constituents only seemed to demand safety at any price.

If more thoughtful analysis had been given to the problems causing school violence, perhaps more thoughtful and rational approaches could have been taken in solving those violence problems. Cervero and Wilson (2006) explained, "Outcomes depend on which people are at the planning table, which and whose interests they represent, and how they choose to exercise power at the table" (p. 88). As districts began the process and the implementation of safety measures, documentation could not be located involving students' perceptions of safety, or suggestions from students offering solutions or actions which could be taken to improve safety in their schools. Students and their experiences have been overlooked too long. This chapter addresses the study's research questions, design, identified methods of data collection, and data analysis. The chapter concludes with an examination of the study's trustworthiness and the researcher's role throughout the study.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

This study sought to begin the discussion and documentation of student perceptions of safety measures such as surveillance cameras and SROs within their public secondary school. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are students' perceptions of their individual rights within their secondary school?

2. What are students' perceptions of security cameras within their secondary school?

3. What are students' perceptions of school resource officers (SROs) within their secondary school?

Design for the Study

The mixed method approach seemed the most appropriate method in discerning the complex issues surrounding school safety and students' perceptions. Mertens (2005) stated, "Mixed methods designs incorporate techniques from both the quantitative and qualitative research traditions, they can be used to answer questions that could not be answered in any other way" (p. 293). Mertens (2005) continued:

If the research is designed with two relatively independent phases, one with qualitative questions and data collection and analysis techniques and the other with quantitative questions and data collection and analysis techniques, then it is called a parallel mixed model design. The inferences made on the basis of the results of each strand are pulled together to form meta inferences at the end of the study. (p. 296)

To quantify students' perceptions of safety, a Likert-scale survey was used to generalizing students' responses to surveillance cameras and SROs within their schools. To provide more depth, and possibly explanations to the generalizations, qualitative methods of open-ended response spaces and focus groups were also used.

The mixed method design was refined utilizing social constructionist theory with a postmodern perspective. Phenomenological research was first conducted in the form of a Likert Scale; then, open-ended response spaces immediately followed the Likert Scale

statement so that participants could comment on the item just answered. In investigating

perceptions, it was also important to consider ethnomethodological research practices

(Mertens, 2005). The participants' answers to the open-ended response space questions

and focus group prompts were coded consistent with Emerson, Fritz, and Shaw's 1995

text.

The focus groups were recorded and then transcribed after each site visit.

Emerson, Fritz, and Shaw (1995) referred to this type of transcription as fieldnotes, and

they stated, "Fieldnotes are accounts describing experiences and observations the

researcher has made while participating in an intense and involved manner" (p. 4).

Fieldnotes involve social life and social discourse. In writing the notes, the researcher

begins the process of documenting a single moment that can be reconsulted later. The

field notes help frame the discussion and create a transcript of the event (Emerson, Fritz,

Shaw, 1995, p. 8). During the first step:

> Translation entails reconfiguring one set of concepts and terms into another; that
>
> is the ethnographer searches for comparable concepts and analogous terms…．
>
> Second, narrating often aptly characterizes the process of writing a day's
>
> experience into a fieldnote entry. A narrative could push open-ended or disjointed
>
> interactions into a coherent, interconnected sequence… Finally, textualization
>
> clearly focuses on the broader transformation of experience into text, not only in
>
> final ethnographies, but especially in writing fieldnotes…. Writing ethnographic
>
> Fieldnotes is the primordial textualization that creates a world on the page"
>
> (Emerson, Fritz, Shaw, 1995, p. 16).

After the focus groups were conducted and fieldnotes collected, the process of coding the respondents answers began. "Codes, then take a specific event, incident or feature and relate it to other events, incidents, or features, implicitly distinguishing this from others. By comparing this event with 'like' others, one can begin to identify more general analytic dimensions or categories" (Emerson, Fritz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 149). In open-coding the researcher:

> Begins to shift through and categorize small segments of the fieldnote record by writing words and phrases that identify and name specific analytic dimensions and categories… In such line by line coding, the ethnographer entertains all analytic possibilities; he attempts to capture as many ideas and themes as time allows but always stays close to what has been written down in the fieldnote. (Emmerson, Fritz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 150)

As the researcher reads and begins developing codes, the researcher must remain open and realize the focus of the notes may change (Emmerson, Fritz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 152). The researcher identifies themes from the fieldnotes and categorizes responses into general themes (Emmerson, Fritz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 158). "Coding indeed is uncertain, since it is a matter not simply of 'discovering' what is in the data but more creatively linking up specific events and observations to more general analytic categories and issues" (Emmerson, Fritz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 154).

The Likert Scale items were constructed mirroring concepts and general themes presented in Chapter Two. Examples of Likert Scale items regarding safety, surveillance cameras, and SROs from secondary students' perspectives could not be located in accessed literature. For example, the belief was surveillance cameras increased safety and

decreased school violence. The corresponding Likert Scale item was constructed from this rationale, i.e., surveillance cameras increase safety in my school (see Appendix A).

The open-ended response items immediately following the Likert Scale item allowed participants to comment about the item answered. For example, the open-ended response space provided a prompt stating: How do surveillance cameras increase safety in your school? Constructing the Likert Scale items, open-ended response prompts, and focus group questions allowed for one form of data to clarify or explain the other types of data.

To aid in understanding, definitions were provided from Creswell's (2009) *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Study Design:*

Qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures; collecting data in the participants' setting; analyzing the data inductively, building from particulars to general themes; and making interpretations of the meaning of the data. (p. 232)

The researcher believed both quantitative data and qualitative data could be utilized in documenting and explaining students' perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROs. The researcher also made a conscious choice to involve individuals with the least amount of authority within the public schools, i.e., the students. The data was generated from a convenience sampling of various schools and students to provide as many different perspectives as possible. Mertens (2005) defined convenience sampling as, "The persons participating in the study were chosen because they were readily available" (p. 322).

Social constructionist theory helped to frame the mixed method design model. The researcher's objective was to begin the academic discussion of safety from students' perspectives and to discover how students perceived surveillance cameras and SROs.

> Social constructionists hold the assumption that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences, meanings directed toward certain objects or things (p. 234). The goal of the research, then, is to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation (Creswell, 2009, p. 20).

The theory was that students prescribed individualized meanings to the presence of surveillance cameras and SROs. By using data collected on the Likert Scale survey, open-response spaces, and focus groups, the researcher looked for general themes and consistency among the data. The researcher was open to various interpretations that could be concluded from the data.

The Postmodern Perspective was clarified, "The basic concept is that knowledge claims must be set within the conditions of the world today and in the multiple perspectives of class, race, gender, and other group affiliations.… The conditions include the importance of marginalized people and groups" (Creswell, 2009, p. 25). The researcher did not discriminate on the basis of class, race, gender, or group affiliations. To adequately control the amount of data generated and analyzed, the researcher purposefully selected junior and senior students because those students are nearing the age of 18, and those students will soon be able to practice most adult privileges.

"Phenomenological research is a qualitative strategy in which the researcher identifies the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon as described by

participants in a study" (Creswell, 2009, p. 230). With little scholarly research available on students' perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROs, phenomenological research provided a means to understand student perceptions. Booren, Handy, and Power (2010) confirmed, "The study of perceptions may improve the understanding of behaviors that are learned and reinforced in the social environment and can have implications for school environments" (p. 173). The generalizations made about themes discovered during the course of the study would begin to fill gaps in current academic literature.

<div align="center">Research Methodology</div>

Creswell (2009) defined research methodology as the process researchers propose for their study. The participants were identified because their perceptions had not adequately been documented in the accessed research. Next, the researcher determined where and how the data would be collected. Finally, data interpretation methods were used to draw conclusions from the collected data.

Participants

The participants were a convenience sample of secondary, junior and senior high school students attending three different public school districts in one Midwestern state. Each site was chosen to also meet the definitions of an urban, suburban, and rural school district. The participants were selected due to their grade level within the public secondary schools. The participants' grade level allowed for those students to have the most experiences with surveillance cameras and SROs in their schools. Their experiences would help inform answers on the Likert Scale items, open-ended responses, and focus group comments. The researcher attempted to secure at least sixty participants from each grade level at each site. The researcher identified a convenience sample and was able to

select participants who have had time to form opinions about surveillance cameras and SROs in their school.

Quantitative data for this study was collected through the use of a Likert Scale survey. Qualitative data was obtained through the use of open-response spaces and focus group answers. The mixed methods of data collection provided the most economical and efficient way to conduct the study.

Likert Scale

To facilitate understanding of this phenomenon a Likert Scale was one means of data collection (see Appendix A). Mertens (2005) stated Likert Scale items located on the survey are formed as statements:

> [Participants] would then indicate the strength of your [their] agreement or
>
> disagreement on a 4 or 5 point scale that might look like this: 1 (strongly agree), 2
>
> (moderately agree), 3 (neutral), 4 (moderately disagree), 5 (strongly disagree).
>
> The researchers wanted to have a comprehensive but brief questionnaire and self
>
> administering. (p. 378)

The researcher determined a seven-point Likert Scale would be used. This modified scale would provide participants with more choices, but still be efficient in data collection. The scale was arranged: 1 (Strongly Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Somewhat Disagree), 4 (Somewhat Agree), 5 (Agree), 6 (Strongly Disagree), 7 (I Do Not Know). The statements on the scale were carefully worded as trying to avoid bias or lead participants to a particular response. Great care was taken to avoid language which was leading or oppressive in nature.

A survey was chosen as one means of data collection because, "Surveys are information collection methods used to describe, compare, or explain individual and societal knowledge, feelings, values, preferences, and behavior. Surveys are best when you need information directly from people about what they believe, know, and think" (Fink, 2009, p. 11). The survey helped establish students' feelings and beliefs about safety and its relation to surveillance cameras and SROs within their schools. However, the survey lacks personal explanations and may not be entirely inclusive of the phenomenon being studied (Fink, 2009). Care was taken to construct the survey to provide the most meaningful responses.

Open-Response Spaces

The open-response spaces directly followed each Likert Scale item (see Appendix A). Creswell (2009) stated, "The idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites (or documents or visual material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question" (p. 178). In the construction of this study, the researcher purposefully selected a sample population that had some experience with surveillance cameras and SROs within their school.

Open-response spaces after each statement on the Likert Scale were available so participants could more fully express their thoughts and opinions about the statement. The researcher adapted Fink's open-ended questions into open spaces. Fink (2009) wrote, "Open-ended questions can offer insight into why people believe the things they do…" (p. 16). The researcher wanted to explore the perceptions of students in regard to SROs and surveillance cameras. The open-response spaces helped the researcher to establish

students' thoughts about surveillance cameras and SROs. The open spaces also allowed students to express opinions without participating in the focus groups.

Open-response spaces are not as efficient, nor provide as uniform data, as surveys. Open-response items are also difficult to code (Fink, 2009). The mixed method design allowed the researcher to developing a coding system for both the open-space responses and the focus group answers. These two types of qualitative data collection and analysis helped provide depth and greater understanding of the Likert Scale items.

Focus Groups

The researcher determined focus groups would provide even more insight into the open response spaces and Likert Scale responses (see Appendix B). Krueger and Casey (2009) explained:

> The purpose of conducting a focus group is to listen and gather information. It is a way to better understand how people feel or think about an issue, product, or service. Focus groups are used to gather opinions. Participants are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic of the focus group. (p. 2)

The researcher wanted to document students' perceptions about the use of surveillance cameras and SROs in their schools. The focus group provided the opportunity for students to volunteer and express their thoughts, feelings, and emotions. However, Krueger and Casey (2009) warned participants in a focus group do not know the appropriate answers; they can and will give an answer to avoid embarrassment in front of the group. Kueger and Casey (2009) also advised not to allow one individual to influence the dynamics or dominate the conversation of the focus group. The researcher wanted

three junior participants and three senior participants. A single focus group was facilitated at each site.

The Likert Scale provided a generalized way students perceived surveillance cameras and SROs in their schools. The open-response spaces provided the researcher with more clarity and focus to the Likert Scale answers. The focus groups allowed more extensive data to be collected about students' perceptions, feelings, and opinions on safety, SROs, and surveillance cameras.

Data Collection

First, IRB approval for the study was sought and gained from the University of Missouri - Columbia. The researcher then solicited schools which were willing to participate in the study. After gaining permission from districts and building administrators (see Appendix C), the researcher established contact either in person or through email with one core subject senior teacher and one core subject junior teacher in each school to receive permission to use a class period to conduct the study (see Appendix D). The researcher explained the purpose of the study, the protocol in conducting the study, and IRB requirements regarding the study.

Through correspondence, the researcher asked the cooperating teachers in each school to secure a computer lab during the class times in which the survey would be administered, and the researcher also asked permission to use his or her classroom space after school to administer the focus group. During the first day at a site, the researcher met with building administrators and SROs to determine the number of surveillance cameras used within the school, and who had access to surveillance camera recordings.

Also during the first day, the researcher met with the cooperating teacher to answer any questions or concerns regarding the study.

During the first visit, the researcher also met with the cooperating teachers to answer any questions and distribute permission forms to prospective participants. Students were carefully instructed that participation in the survey and focus groups relied exclusively on successfully giving their parent/guarding the study's cover letter (see Appendix E), returning a signed parental/guardian permission form (see Appendix F) and the form with the participants' signature (see Appendix G). The researcher also met with the administrator of the computer lab to secure a generic log-in name and password.

The day the survey was administered, the researcher met with cooperating teachers. The teachers were asked to check that each participant had the correct forms signed, and then the teacher was asked to send the participant to the computer lab with permission forms. The contact teacher was asked to monitor those students not returning permission forms or choosing not to participate in the study. Before entering the lab, each participant was asked for his or her permission form. Computers were already logged-in and the link to the survey on the screen. Participants needed only to click on the link to begin the survey. Forty-five minutes was allotted to complete the survey and to provide answers to open-response spaces. No identifying information such as participants' name was on the surveys, open-response space answers, or focus groups. Participants were only asked to identify his or her gender and grade level.

Google documents was used to create the Likert Scale survey items and open-response spaces. When participants clicked on the link, the survey and open-response items immediately appeared. Once completing the survey or when the submit link was

clicked, responses were automatically recorded in Google documents. Only the

researcher though a login in and password could access participants responses. Surveys

and sites were labeled 1, 2, and 3 to distinguish between the sites. Students participating

in the focus groups were labeled senior 1A, senior 1B, senior 1C, junior 1D, junior 1E,

junior 1F. This helped the researcher in maintaining the students' anonymity and allowed

the data to be organized by site.

<div align="center">Data Analysis</div>

The researcher used phenomenological research methods to analyze the collected

data. "The intent [of phenomenological research] is to understand and describe an event

from the point of view of the participant. It seeks the individual's perceptions and

meaning of a phenomenon or experience" (Mertens, 2005, p. 240). This study strove to

document student perceptions of surveillance cameras and SROS.

Creswell (2007) was consulted as to how to best proceed with coding the open

statements found on the Likert Scale and the answers provided during the focus groups.

Creswell (2007) stated:

> In the process of data analysis, I encourage qualitative researchers to look for
>
> code segments that can be used to describe information and develop themes.
>
> These codes can represent information that researchers expect to find before the
>
> study; represent surprising information that researchers did not expect to find; and
>
> represents information that is conceptually interesting or unusual to researchers
>
> (and potentially participants and audiences). (p. 153)

The researcher entered the study with preconceived notions of words representing

oppression such as: watch, unfair, and punishment. However, the researcher also coded

any student responses which did not represent oppression, words such as: safe, helpful, and comforting. The researcher also considered that a concept might emerge that was unexpected or surprising. Coding was kept simple. Creswell (2007) confirmed that coding not be elaborate or overly cumbersome. Beginning researchers need to limit and contain information to a relatively simple system.

Ethnomethodological analysis "Focuses on describing how individuals recognize, describe, explain, and account for their everyday lives.… Feminists have used ethnomethodological strategies to highlight the oppressing effect of language use in describing women's experiences" (Mertens, 2005, p. 240). Ethnomethodological analysis helped identify words which represented the concept of oppression or the concept of safety in the open-ended response space answers and the focus groups.

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

Credibility

Mertens (2005) defined credibility: "In qualitative research, the credibility asks if there is a correspondence between the way the respondents actually perceive social constructs and the way the researcher portrays their viewpoints." In quantitative research credibility is parallel to internal validity (Mertens, 2205, p. 254). The researcher confirmed credibility of participants' responses by using triangulation. "Triangulation involves checking information that has been collected from different sources or methods for consistency of evidence across sources of data" (Mertens, 2005, p. 255). The Likert Scale survey was used first to determine students' general perceptions about safety and the use of surveillance cameras and SROs. Next, the open-space answers were used to

confirm or to deny the responses given on the Likert Scale. The focus groups' answers were used to confirm both the Likert Scale and the open-space answers.

Dependability

Mertens (2005) cited that dependability is parallel to the quantitative concept of reliability. Mertens cautioned to expect changes in a qualitative study, and those changes must be documented and tracked as to be publicly inspectable. Before the study began, the researcher made a conscious effort to document every change as it occurred during the study and to provide thick, rich descriptions to ensure dependability in documenting the phenomenon.

Confirmability

Confirmability is parallel to the quantitative concept of objectivity (Mertens, 2005). The goal of the researcher was to minimize any personal influence on the study. The researcher demonstrated examples of oppression and safety from students' answers on the Likert scale and language used on open-space answers, and responses given during focus groups.

Transferability

The researcher developed careful strategies to meet Mertens' standard of transferability. "The researcher's responsibility is to provide sufficient detail to enable the reader to make such a judgment. Extensive and careful description of the time, place, context, and culture is known as 'thick description'" (Mertens, 2005, p. 256). In quantitative studies this concept is known as external validity. The study provided a comprehensive view of the secondary school environments chosen and included a description of the number of surveillance cameras, SROs, and equipment used to monitor

students within the secondary school sites. The researcher realized the generalization of this study must be approached with caution. Due to the unique characteristics of each secondary school environment, the study would need to be replicated in various geographical and socioeconomic conditions. However, once adapted and conducted in different geographical locations and socioeconomic environments, the results could then be analyzed and more general conclusions drawn.

Role of Researcher

The researcher's 17 years of secondary teaching experiences and various incidents including student complaints and stories of surveillance cameras and the SRO's presence biased the researcher. Creswell (2009) stated, "The researchers' interpretations cannot be separated from their own background, history, context, and prior understanding" (p. 39). Even though the researcher had a bias, the researcher's comprehensive knowledge of the secondary school environment and secondary students led to a more complete understanding of the research. The researcher has also been fortunate to have experienced secondary learning environments before the use of surveillance cameras and SROs.

Summary

This chapter addressed key points in methodology, design, participants, data collection and analysis, and research parameters of a qualitative study. Students need to be given a voice in their educational environment. This study sought to document students' perceptions concerning surveillance cameras and SROs.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

In the early 1970s, Congress commissioned a study to be done to assess the extent of violence and vandalism in American schools. Congress was looking for answers to resolve issues of violence and vandalism, but the study did not provide solid answers (Toby, 1994). Students, teachers, and principals were surveyed in an attempt to gather suggestions which would make schools safer. The two most popular suggestions were to increase security devices and to increase security personnel. The seventh and eighth most popular suggestions were to increase parental/community involvement and to improve the school climate (Toby, 1994). Many school districts have opted for the implementation of surveillance cameras and school resource officers (SROs); however, studies are rare that have investigated students' perceptions of these types of safety measures.

Many school leaders have seemed content to accept safety measures such as surveillance cameras and school resource officers (SROs) as effective means to control school violence (Lyons & Drew, 2006; Toby 1994). This phenomenological study documents junior and senior secondary students' perceptions of their individual rights, surveillance cameras, and SROs in an urban, a suburban, and a rural school district. Collection and analysis of data was guided by the following three research questions:

1. What are students' perceptions of their individual rights within their secondary school?

2. What are students' perceptions of surveillance cameras within their secondary school?

3. What are student perceptions of school resource officers (SROs) within their

secondary school?

This chapter begins with Data Collection which includes setting, participants, and data collection protocols. Data Analysis, the second section, will be broken into three sections documenting students' perceptions of their rights, students' perceptions of surveillance cameras, and students' perceptions of SROs. These three sections will be identified as Public Schools' Purpose in a Democracy, Perception of Safety and Surveillance Cameras, and Perception of Safety and SROs, respectfully.

Data Collection

Data collection for this project included University of Missouri-Columbia (MU) Internal Review Board's approval (IRB) and school districts' cooperation. IRB approval was difficult to gain because participants were minors. A conflict developed in obtaining IRB approval and individual districts' approval. The IRB wanted to know which secondary schools would participate in the survey, and the schools' gatekeepers wanted IRB approval before granting consent. Gatekeepers, superintendents or board appointed people to approve academic studies in their school district, within the selected public school districts either did not respond to requests to administer the survey or voiced concerns over students' participation.

The gatekeeper in potential districts was identified and sent an email asking if the district would grant permission allowing students to participate in this study. The email contained IRB approval, permission forms for parental consent, participant consent, the survey/open-ended response items, and the focus group interview protocol. One district's gatekeeper did explain a conflict had happened with the local police department, and the

gatekeeper was afraid of further damaging the relationship between the school and the police department. This district's gatekeeper shared that students developed negative perceptions of the SRO, and the gatekeeper voiced concern that student participation could further entrench students' negative perceptions. Three districts did grant permission meeting the researcher's goal of participation by students in urban, suburban, and rural settings.

To recruit participants, the researcher arrived the first day at the site and met with classroom teachers who agreed to let students participate. The researcher asked for approximately five minutes to present to students the rationale for the study in an attempt to provide information for their consent to participate. The researcher explained to potential participants their voices were important in constructing a narrative of students' perceptions of their rights, surveillance cameras, and SROs within their schools. Next, the permission forms were distributed to students while the researcher answered any questions concerning the study and participation. The researcher made the choice to gather data from an urban, a suburban, and a rural district. This choice was an intentional effort to include student voices from each classification of schools within the state.

Settings

Data collection for this study occurred within a Midwestern state involving three secondary schools. The urban school agreeing to participate has a student body of approximately 2100 students; the suburban school has approximately 1700 students; and the rural school has approximately 200 students. All data was collected in December of 2012, and January and February of 2013. Before data collection began, permission was

garnered from each district's superintendent or gatekeeper, principal, cooperating teachers, parents of participants, and participants.

Participants

A total of 213 students were given permission forms to participate in the study with 156 students returning the forms and agreeing to participate. Senior students comprised 70%, or 109 participants, and junior students comprised 30%, or 47 participants. There were 77 male and 79 female students who participated in the survey from both grade levels and the three sites. The rural site had 35 participants; the suburban site had 64 participants; the urban site had 57 participants. Only junior or senior students were eligible to participate; participation depended on both a signed consent form from the participants' parents and the participant. The classes from which the participants were chosen were arranged with the cooperation of building principals. The building principals identified and asked classroom teachers who, they believed, would be willing to allow students to participate during the teachers' class periods. The classes participating were a convenience sampling based upon the cooperating teachers' schedules. A total of 14 students from the three sites participated in focus groups.

To preserve participants' anonymity, participant responses to open-ended response items and focus group answers were coded as follows: Senior male urban (*SMU*), Senior female urban (*SFU*), Junior male urban (*JMU*), Junior Female Urban (*JFU*), Senior male suburban (*SMS*), Senior female suburban (*SFS*), Junior male suburban (*JMS*), Junior female suburban (*JFS*), Senior male rural (*SMR*), Senior female rural (*SFR*), Junior male rural (*JMR*), Junior female rural (*JFR*). Since all survey responses only indicated gender and grade level, the data could not be attributed to

individual participants. Even though participants' answers were coded with acronyms, the acronyms represent all answers from students matching that category. For example, SFU represents all senior females' answers at the urban site. Care was taken during focus groups to preserve participant anonymity as well. Participants' answers appear exactly as written in an attempt to preserve the students' voice. Participants' answers were not edited for spelling, grammar, or sentence structure.

Protocol

Contact was made with the districts' gatekeeper or superintendent. Once approval was gained, contact was established with building principals, and finally cooperating teachers were contacted. The survey consisted of 15 Likert scale items and 15 open response items (See Appendix A). The interview protocol consisted of ten questions designed to allow participants to express and to explain their opinions concerning safety within their schools (See Appendix B). Ethnomethodological analysis helped identify words which represented the concept of oppression or the concept of safety in the open-ended response space answers and the focus groups. All three focus groups were conducted in classrooms in which the participants had class. Selection of the classroom space was intentional so that participants could feel comfortable in an environment in which they were familiar.

<div align="center">Data Analysis</div>

This study used phenomenological research methods to understand and to document safety from participants' perspectives as related to the research questions (Mertens, 2005,). To determine thematic strands, the data was first processed from the open-ended response items. Each open-ended response item and the participants' answers

to that item were separated into columns on a spreadsheet. Each open-ended response item was placed at the top of a column, and all participant answers to that survey item were listed in that column. First, all responses for each item were read, and common thematic strands developed. Next, participant answers were highlighted which seemed to represent the thematic strands within each survey item. This process continued until all open-ended response items had been analyzed. Each highlighted (selected) open-ended response item was then transferred to a Word document. This allowed the researcher to again analyze data supporting or denying common thematic stands. This process began after all data had been gathered, and all fieldnotes had been transcribed.

Once thematic strands were established for the open-ended response items, review of transcriptions from focus groups' answers began. This process was guided by identifying words from open-ended response items and similar words or phrases in the fieldnotes (Emmerson, Fritz, & Shaw, 1995). The researcher intentionally waited to analyze the quantitative data generated from each site until after qualitative thematic strands had been determined.

Descriptive Data

The survey began with two descriptors: (a) students' grade level and (b) gender. These descriptors allowed the researcher to determine the number of seniors and the number of juniors who agreed to participate in the survey. This information could have been used to disaggregate the data by gender response; however, gender was not considered in the selection of any participants' responses. The researcher determined consideration of gender would fragment the voice of the participants. The purpose of this study was to document and give voice to students' perceptions of their individual rights

and their perceptions of safety as a group. To adequately manage the data, the researcher only presented thematic strands found in answers from the open-ended response items and focus groups.

Quantitative Likert scale survey items were numbered 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, and 29. Open-ended response survey items were numbered 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, and 30. This arrangement allowed for the participant to answer a seven-point Likert scale item and then provide more in-depth feedback to the open-ended response prompts. The seven-point Likert scale allowed participants to choose one answer from the following choices (a) strongly agree, (b) agree, (c) somewhat agree, (d) somewhat disagree, (e) disagree, (f) strongly disagree, and (g) I do not know. First, the data was analyzed by organizing open response items, themes were confirmed or denied by the fieldnotes, and finally, themes were confirmed or denied by the quantitative data.

For clarity, the data will be presented in numerical order: (a) survey item one, quantitative; (b) survey item two, qualitative; and (c) focus group answer if applicable to item. Selected answers from participants represented emergent thematic stands. Participants' answers appear exactly as written in an attempt to preserve the students' voice. Participants' answers were not edited for spelling, grammar, or sentence structure. Participants had approximately 45 minutes to complete the survey which could account for participant errors in spelling and punctuation. Answers were chosen because of insight and fluency; no preference was given to individual variables such as gender, grade level, or school the participant attended. The remainder of this chapter is divided into three main categories: (a) Students' Perceptions of Their Rights, (b) Students'

Perceptions of Surveillance Cameras, and (c) Students' Perceptions of SROs. To increase clarity, each of these major sections will be broken into subsections as related to survey items.

Students' Perceptions of Their Rights

This section will present participants' quantitative and qualitative responses to the first section of the survey which asked participants about their rights while at school. A summary table of participants' responses is presented first. Then, each quantitative item is presented followed by qualitative responses from the open-ended response items and focus groups. Thematic strands were developed from participants' responses to each survey item. To help clarify the Likert scale items from this section of the survey, Table 1 summarizes quantitative items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11. Each number represents the percentage of participants who selected that response.

Table 1

Students' Perceptions of Rights

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	I Do Not Know
Item 1	4.5	0.6	4.5	14.7	30.8	32.7	12.2
Item 3	1.9	3.2	1.3	22.4	37.9	31.4	1.9
Item 5	1.9	2.6	1.3	11.5	35.9	46.8	0.0
Item 7	10.3	19.8	5.1	29.5	16.7	15.4	3.2
Item 9	26.9	25.7	8.3	23.1	6.4	5.1	4.5
Item 11	7.7	10.3	18.6	30.1	24.4	8.3	0.6

Note. All responses are percentages.

This part of the chapter is divided into the following five sections with some sections containing subsections (a) Role of Public Schools in a Democracy; (b) Students' Perceptions of Their Rights at School which contains subsections of Fairness, Limited Free Speech, and Treated Unfairly; (c) Students Rights Inside and Outside of School which contains subsections of Limitation of Rights and Rights Equal Knowledge; (d) Student Engagement Concerning Rights which contains subsections No Need to Discuss Rights and Disenfranchisement; (e) Student Engagement in Rule Making and Respecting Students' Rights. Respecting Students' Rights contains two subsections of Belief of Rights Valued and Descriptive Incidents; and a Summary section.

Role of Public Schools in a Democracy

The first item on the Likert scale asked participants if they felt schools served an important function in a democratic society. Participants' responses were 78.2% strongly agree, agree or somewhat agree that schools do serve an important function in a democracy. The percentage of participants who somewhat disagreed, disagreed, or strongly disagreed with the statement was 9.6%. Participants who did not know if schools served a purpose in a democracy were 12.2%.

Question two on the survey instrument asked why schools should teach students about their constitutional rights. This item was designed to provide descriptive data to item one and prompt participants to articulate their thoughts about their individual rights within a secondary school. *JFS* stated:

Our nation's main principles [sic] are in one single document, and so few people know what is actually in that document. When in reality, it is of massive importance. It is important to know one's constitutional rights so they can know if they are being treated fairly under the law and by the government. Without the knowlage [sic] of constitutional rights, the government has too much power. People must be informed so that the U.S. can have an informed population that will continue the future of the nation in the proper ways.

SFR answered:

Because they are our rights and we have to know them so that presidents and other government leaders cannot just blindly take those away from us just because they are eloquent speachers and are charasmatic. If we don't know we can have

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guns then when people take them away we don't care because we never knew we

were entitled to them in the first place.

Ninety five other subjects (62%) provided written responses indicating they believed

students should know their rights. Seventeen participants (11%) used words or phrases

indicating they were "kids," or "when they became adults," their rights would become

important.

Students' Perceptions of Their Rights at School

Extending questions one and two, the third item on the survey was intended to

document participants' thoughts about their rights as students. Strongly disagree,

disagree, or somewhat disagree was selected by 6.4% of students. Strongly agree, agree,

or somewhat agree was selected by 91.6% of the participants. I do not know was selected

by 1.9% of participants. These answers seemed to confirm participants had given thought

to their rights as students.

Question four on the survey instrument asked participants to provide insights and

explanations to which rights were important to them while at school. The thematic

strands of Fairness, Limited Free Speech, and Treated Unfairly emerged. These strands

begin weaving a far different tapestry of the rights of students from the students'

perspectives.

Fairness. Many respondents (84%) expressed desires to be treated fairly while at

school. *SMS* stated:

The right to freely express my opinions and to a basic modicum of privacy. While

school puts us in situations where we need to be mindful of others, it is still

necessary to allow differences and disagreements with each other and with the

administration to be expressed, and it is necessary for students to feel that they are respected and trusted to some degree to create an environment conducive to learning.

Limited free speech. The right to free speech appeared in half of the subjects' written answers. These answers repeatedly articulated participants' feelings of not being able to express themselves. During focus groups, participants discussed they felt their right to freedom of speech was limited while students were attending their schools. *SMU* expressed, "[we] have more freedom of speech outside of school."

Treated unfairly. When determining the frequency of participants' responses concerning freedom of speech, the thematic strand emerged of being treated unfairly. These responses reflected subjects' concerns of being treated fairly by those in authority within schools. Almost a third of participants provided written answers indicating they did not feel as if they were treated fairly by those with authority in their schools.

The thematic strand of being Treated Unfairly developed when a subjects' written response included the phrase "being less than a citizen or person." The Treated Unfairly strand was confirmed by other subjects' responses. *SFS* wrote, "Most of all, I expect to not be treated as sub-ordinate [sic]. I want to be treated like a person and a citizen--not as another meaningless student." *JMU* expressed a similar, more specific opinion, "Public schools often utlize a 'guilty until proven innocent' approach, instead treating students like law and rule abiding people." *JMR* confirmed, "at school my rights don't rely affect me its whatever the teacher or principal says goes your rights are whatever they say your aloud to do." During a focus group, one participant stated, "We can't really stand up for ourselves the teachers [or] principal is always right" (*SFR*). *JFU* stated, "i have thought

about my rights as a student and i do all the time. i also think about how much i feel my rights get taken away from me at school."

Students' Rights Inside and Outside of School

The fifth item explored if participants had thought about their rights as a citizen outside of school and tried to prompt participants to discuss how they are treated differently in society than they are within their school. Strongly disagree or disagree was chosen by 4.5% of participants. Somewhat disagree was selected by 1.3% of participants; somewhat agree was chosen by 11.5% of participants. Agree, or strongly agree was selected by 82.7% of participants. No participants chose I don't know on this item. These results seem to support the previous items; most participants had thought of their rights inside and outside of the school environment.

Survey item six asked if students' rights should be the same inside of school as outside of school. Two clear thematic strands emerged from this prompt: Limitation of Rights and Rights Equal Knowledge. These two thematic strands document students' perceptions of their rights inside and outside of school. These strands also add to the overall tapestry of being marginalized by those with authority in secondary schools.

Limitation of rights. The first strand supported the limitation of students' rights; 24% of respondents explaining, if students were given the same rights inside of school as outside of school, disorder would be the result. *SFS* wrote, "No. They're are certain rights that need to be more limited inside of school so that the school can obtain order and limit distractions around the students to create a better learning environment." *JMR* reiterated this position, "school is different than life out of school their needs to b [sic] order in school and if we had our normal rights we would not have order."

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Rights equal knowledge. The second theme of Rights Equal Knowledge also developed. Participants' answers seemed to demonstrate that students understand schools cannot be a chaotic environment, but the ability to practice their rights would be beneficial. *JMS* stated, "Yes, we deserve to be able to do what we do outside of school as long as it doesn't disrupt class or hurt other students or teachers in any way." *SFS* confirmed:

> I think that rights inside of school should be the same as rights outside of school. The school and teachers say they are getting us ready for the outside world, but if they take away our rights while we are in school, is that them showing us our rights will be taken away outside of school?

Subjects who provided written comments indicating students should have the same rights in school as outside school was 43% of participants. *SFU* summarized:

> Yes. I feel that school is like a mini-society for younger people. If we do not have the same rights in both places, how will we be able to know the difference when we graduate and continue after school? I also feel that these rights were written for a reason and should apply everywhere in the United States, not only to adults.

The Rights Equal Knowledge theme was also discussed during focus groups. *SMU* stated, "I can tell anyone outside of school that they don't have the right to search my stuff, inside of school I don't have that right because of safety. Too many incidents and they don't want to take chances anymore." This participant's response begins to separate the threads of authority and proposes rights have been abdicated by students in the name of safety.

Student engagement concerning rights

Survey items seven and eight gave participants the opportunities to document if they, as individuals, had engaged teacher or administrators in discussions about their rights. The thematic strands of students believing there was No Need to Discuss Their Rights and Disenfranchisement surfaced in participants' responses. Disenfranchisement was further categorized into a subsection of Continual Denial of Rights/Avoidance of Dialogue. The marginalization tapestry comprised mainly of fairness issues now began to develop issues of student marginalization by those in authority.

Survey item seven asked if participants participated in discussions while at school with a teacher or administrator about their rights as students. This item was designed to document if participants had, or had attempted, to discuss their rights with teachers or administrators. Somewhat disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree were selected by 35.3% of participants. Somewhat agree, agree, or strongly agree were selected by 61.6% of participants. I don't know was selected by 3.2% of participants.

No need to discuss rights. Survey item eight was a qualitative opportunity for participants to express if they believed students should discuss their rights with administrators or teachers. Forty one percent of participants indicated they did not need to discuss their rights. However, 59% of subjects did confirm students should be able to discuss their rights with administrators and teachers. *SFS* stated, "Yes, Having a free 'relationship' with a teacher helps the student feel more comfortable while in school. It helps show that the rules aren't made for a certain student, but for the students as a whole."

Disenfranchisement. The thematic strand of disenfranchisement appeared clearly in participants' responses to item eight; *SFR* stated, "It's [discussion of rights] not like it'll do anything." This response was also articulated by *SMU*, "No, a student's opinion about their rights within school are moot. It is an established system that has systematically become more stringent since the rise of lawsuits." *SFU* provided:

> This would be a good idea so that the administration would understand the student's point of view and the students will understand why the rights in school are in place. When both sides can come to an understanding, then compromises can be made to better the schooling system as a whole. This will also help with students not feeling as oppressed by their administration and they will feel that they have a voice.

> Forty one of participants' written responses (26%) mentioned or made reference to feeling as if discussing their rights with teachers or administrators did not matter.

Student engagement in rule making

These survey items (9, 10, 11, 12) investigated participants' engagement in helping to create rules and why participants' voices were important in this process. These four items comprised the final section of part one of the survey. This section is broken into the thematic strands of Valued Voices and Disrespecting Students' Rights. Disrespecting Students rights has two subsections of Belief of Rights Valued and Descriptive Incidents.

Valued voices. Item nine asked if students participated in creating rules governing behaviors at their school. Strongly disagree, disagree, or somewhat disagree was chosen by 60.9% of the participants. Strongly agree, agree, or somewhat agree was chosen by 34.6% of the participants. Almost five percent of participants did not know if they participated in creating rules for their school or not.

Item ten asked why student voices should be considered by administrators or teachers when creating school rules. The thematic strand of being Valued Voices seemed represented by an answer offered by *SMS*, "because if the students feel like they are being heard, then they are more likely to feel comfortable and happy to be at school, which will increase the will to learn and excel as a student." *SFR* elaborated:

> Students voices should be considered by administrators because rules created by just administrators may sound good on paper, but in practice, they could possibly hinder the learning environment. Knowledgeable students have an idea of certain rules that could actually help the learning environment while keeping both students and administrators content.

SFS provided more insight, "Students voices should be heard when creating school rules because administrators and teachers don't always see everything bad happening in a school." *SMU* confirmed the strand of Valued Voices and helped to reinforce the earlier thematic strand of Disenfranchisement:

> They need to consider our voices because we should have a right to help make the laws that govern us much like outside of school in our democratic processes. As of now administrators are whipping up rules while considering their own purposes and logistics rather then students' priorities and wants. When a system enforces rules not consented by the people being governed only problems arise.

Disrespecting students' rights. Survey item 11 asked participants if they believed administrators and teachers respected the rights of students. Strongly agree, or agree was chosen by 32.7% of participants. Somewhat agree was chosen by 30.1% of participants. Somewhat disagree was chosen by 18.6% of subjects. Strongly disagree or disagree was

chosen by 18% of participants. Only one student, or .6%, did not know if his/her rights were respected by teachers or administrators within his/her school.

Descriptive incidents. Question 12 on the survey instrument asked participants to describe an incident or provide an example of when students' rights were respected or not respected by a teacher or administrator. The thematic strand of Disrespecting Students' Rights became prevalent. Only nine respondents (6%) wrote statements expressing they believed their rights had always been respected by teachers and administrators. Participants who could not provide a specific example or left the space blank numbered 22 (14%). Participants who provided a written example of students' rights not being respected by teachers or administrators was 125 (80%) of respondents. However, a distinction was made between teachers and administrators. *JMS* stated:

> Teachers generally understand students. However, administrators feel an arbitrary sense of power. One example is the ID policy. While I agree it's important to have identification, there is no need to have it present around our necks at all times. It seems like they don't have any work to do, so they make some [work] by disciplining all of the good students who happen to forget their ID sometimes. There is a running joke that the only good thing IDs around our neck do is help identify our bodies in the case of a school shooting.

JMS's statement could be a bit confusing for those outside high school cultures. In many schools, students are required to wear identification badges which display their name, picture, and grade level so teachers and administrators can readily identify the student. Within the researchers' own experiences, a clear delineation can be made between those individuals with authority, teachers and administrators, and those individuals without

authority, students. In decoding JMS's statement, the statement can be interpreted that in JMS's experiences, teachers seemed more lenient about enforcing the rules associated with identification badges whereas administrators seemed much more likely to enforce punishments for not wearing identification badges.

JMR shared:

> Students' rights were not respected for example when a student gets their phone taken away the principal goes through their phone. That is the student's personal property and also is very much invading their privacy. I understand if a phone is in use and it gets taken away from the student and held until after school but going through phones is too far.

SMU wrote of an incident where he was suspected of violating the rules. He stated, "The little interaction I've had with a school administrator, I was searched for drugs and when nothing was found, I got a detention for wasting time." The strand of students wanting their voices to be valued was represented by 25 participants' answers. These 25 (16%) participants documented they felt teachers or administrators would not listen to them, respect their viewpoints, or accuse the respondent of being disrespectful if they initiated conversations about students' rights.

During focus groups participants discussed the lack of respect for their rights; several respondents provided examples of school rules stated in their student handbooks. Participants provided several examples of rules that were either arbitrarily enforced, or rules that were ignored or not enforced by teachers or administrators. A senior male from the urban school elaborated:

Certain rights that are told to be upheld by the student handbook such as "a

student shall not be descriminated [sic] or bullied for sexual orientation and or

perceived sexual orientation" are not upheld. I have encountered numerous

situations where derogatory/descriminatory [sic] words have been used against a

student when a teacher or administrator was present and no action was taken.

SMU's statement seemed to add confirmation to the thematic strands of

Disenfranchisement, Valued Voices, Respecting Students' Rights, and feelings of being

marginalized by teachers and administrators.

Summary for Students' Perceptions of Their Rights

The questions comprising the first part of the survey were designed to have

participants provide insight into how they viewed their rights within a secondary school.

The troubling statistic from item one was 12% of students did not know the purpose of

public schools in a democracy. Item two indicated many students had a basic

understanding of democratic rights and understood the importance of learning democratic

rights. The thematic strand of Fairness began to emerge in items three and four.

Over 90% of students agreed with item three that they have thought of their rights

while in school. Students wrote and discussed the right to freedom of speech in item four.

During the analysis of this item, students' perceptions of being treated fairly began to

emerge. Almost a third of students commented they perceived not being treated fairly by

those with authority in schools. Item five extended item four which asked participants to

discuss their rights outside of school. Again, over 90% of students selected responses

agreeing that they had indeed thought about their rights within and outside of schools.

Almost a fourth of the students believed if students were given the same rights as they

received outside of school, chaos would be the result. Many students gave responses indicating students should understand their rights and be allowed or instructed in practicing their democratic rights responsibly. An insightful student commented schools are a mini society, and rights were given to everyone not just adults.

Items seven, eight, nine, and ten began with the thematic strand of Fairness and evolved into the thematic strand of Disenfranchisement. Items seven and eight investigated if students had or had tried to engage teachers or administrators in discussions about students' rights. Sixty percent of students chose responses confirming they had tried to engage in discussions with teachers or administrators about their rights. Again, many students commented those with authority in schools did not care or did not want to consider students' rights. The thematic of strand of Disenfranchisement began to surface during students' responses to items nine and ten. Item nine asked if students had participated in the rule-making process, and item ten asked why students' voices should be considered by those with authority in schools. Sixty one percent of students chose answers confirming they did not participate in the rule-making processes of their schools. This disenfranchised attitude was reflected in items 11 and 12.

It was surprising to discover almost 40% of students perceived their rights were not respected by teachers or administrators in item 11; however, item 12 revealed that eighty percent of students' written responses provided examples of where students had not been respected by teachers for administrators. One student extended the theme of fairness and disenfranchisement by explaining the student handbook contained rules which were to be enforced. The student wrote witnessing other students being harassed in front of teachers and administrators, and no action was taken by the teachers or administrators to enforce

the written rules. As the first part of the survey concluded, thematic strands of fairness, being valued, and disenfranchisement were noted as the most important thematic strands.

Perception of Safety and Surveillance Cameras

This section presents participants' quantitative and qualitative responses to the second part of the survey, which asked participants about their perceptions of surveillance cameras while at school. This part of the survey investigated participants' perceptions of surveillance cameras. This section of the chapter is divided into thematic strands with each strand being further divided into subsections. The sections are as follows: (a) Cameras and Increased Safety comprised of the subsections Limited Monitoring, Punishment Not Protection, Blind Spots, Potential Criminals, and School as Prison; (b) Surveillance as Prevention containing subsections Blind Spots Too and No Prevention; (c) Surveillance Cameras Used for Punishment with subsection Punishment Not Protection Too; (d) Surveillance Cameras Create Perceptions of Safety containing subsections Personal Feelings of Safety and No Prevention; and (e) Surveillance Cameras Violate Privacy with subsections Violation, Increasing No Violation, Increasing Violence, and Desensitization; and a Summary section.

A summary table of participants' responses to questions 13, 15, 17, 19, and 21 is presented first. Then, each quantitative response item presented is followed by qualitative responses from open-ended response items and focus groups. Thematic strands were developed or reinforced from participants' responses to each survey item.

Table 2

Students' Perceptions of Surveillance Cameras

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	I do not Know
Item 13	8.4	12.8	9.6	33.3	19.9	11.5	4.5
Item 15	13.5	20.5	14.7	28.2	12.2	6.4	4.5
Item 17	5.7	16.7	7.7	25.7	17.3	12.2	14.7
Item 19	15.4	16.0	8.3	33.4	12.8	10.9	3.2
Item 21	19.2	25.0	15.4	20.5	7.1	9.0	3.8

Note. All responses are percentages.

To help frame safety as a concept during focus groups participants were asked to define safety. Participants responded with phrases such as "not having fear" (JMS), "General sense of not being at risk of harm" (SMS), "secure" (SFR) and "prevention of crimes" (SMU). This item was followed by a second item which asked participants to define safety in regard to their school. Participants' answers were represented by answers such as, "I would want to feel safe like I'm not going to be harmed" (SFS), "safety from threats from other students" (JMS), "safety from any outside sources" (SMS), and "a secure setting regulated but not dictated" (SMS). To extend understanding, the participants were asked what key words or phrases they heard during their academic careers that promoted safety. Responses were "Anti bullying" (JMR), "no tolerance" (JFS), "Safe Schools Act – Don't do drugs" (JFS), "cameras and locked

doors" (SMR), and "security officer" (JFR). These responses helped in determining participants' perceptions of safety.

Cameras and Increased Safety

Question 13 asked participants if surveillance cameras increased safety in their school. Strongly agree, agree, or somewhat agree were selected by 64.7% of the participants. Strongly disagree, disagree, or somewhat disagree were chosen by 30.8% of participants. Those participants who did not know if the cameras provided increased safety or not were 4.5%.

Question 14 asked participants to provide examples of surveillance cameras affecting safety in the participants' schools. This item was specifically designed to investigate if participants could articulate why surveillance cameras gave subjects the perception of safety. *SMS* stated during a focus group, "Cameras aren't monitored all the time – perception of safety – security cameras are reactive not preventative. If school officials wanted to do something to promote safety, they should use proactive means not reactive measures. Cameras allow for punishment after the violence has occurred."

The first thematic strand of this section, Limited Monitoring, represents the idea surveillance cameras are not monitored all the time. The second thematic strand, Punishment and Protection, confirmed the use of surveillance cameras being monitored to punish students not to protect students. The third strand, Blind Spots, states crime and misbehavior are not decreased just moved to blind spots in which the surveillance cameras cannot record. The fourth thematic strand, Potential Criminals, documented surveillance cameras are being used to identify students as potential criminals. The thematic strands of School as Prison, Surveillance Cameras as Prevention, Surveillance

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Cameras Used for Punishment, and Surveillance Cameras violating student privacy also emerged. Students were allowed to provide any answers or no answers to the open-ended responses items. A singular student response could represent multiple thematic strands. *SMR* stated:

> the surveillance cameras reduce the awareness of the individual teachers and the smart criminal avoids cameras so they don't help with that at all and are only used to catch PDA [Personal Displays of Affection] or anything else that depending on who is doing it that the teacher doesn't like determines if they should be punished.

The thematic strand of Blind Spots is counted and identified by SMR's response "…smart criminals avoid cameras…" The second thematic strand identified and counted Punishment and Protection is SMR's statement, "…who is doing it that the teacher doesn't like…" represents misbehavior or potential criminals. Students' responses to question 14 were analyzed four different times to determine if answers fit into multiple thematic strands.

Limited monitoring. The first thematic strand was surveillance cameras are not monitored all the time; 26% of students' responses indicated they did not believe the cameras were monitored during all times of the day or answers also indicated participants felt some surveillance cameras did not work. If a school has only one SRO and he/she is patrolling the building, no one is watching the cameras. If the SRO is watching the cameras, then no one is patrolling the building. *SFU* wrote, "While surveillance cameras can provide information about who is or isn't in the building, unless they are being constantly monitored they cannot be preventative." This insight led to the thematic strand of Punishment and Protection.

Punishment not protection. Fifty five percent of participants somewhat agreed, agreed, or strongly agreed surveillance camera recordings were used to punish students after an incident of misbehavior. The second thematic strand of cameras being used for punishment, which is reactive not proactive, was explained by *FJS*:

Surveillance cameras may help after something has happened to find out what events occurred, but I don't believe they significantly make our school safer. If someone is going to commit a crime, it is unlikely they will be caught in the act by someone viewing the security cameras.

Blind spots. The third thematic strand developed during this item was Blind Spots. Only a few responses were noted about blind spots during this survey item. The suggestion of surveillance blind spots alerted and focused the researcher's attention to this thematic strand in survey item 16. *SMS* stated:

Honestly, at school they don't entirely protect us, if kids want to fight they will fight, in the moment they will not think of the cameras. If schools want to stop the bad in the school happening, they need to do alot more research than cameras. Kids realize they are there so they do watch theirselves, though that trains the kids to watch theirselves around the cameras, and watch for prime spots where the cameras aren't.

Currently, none of the districts use cameras inside of bathrooms or locker rooms; however, all the schools had cameras viewing the entrances and exits to bathrooms and locker rooms. If crimes or undesirable behaviors move to the bathrooms or locker rooms, and if a time can be established of when the crime took place, then the SRO can identify students entering and exiting these places. A specific example was provided by *JFS*, "My

iPod got stolen from the library lobby. Due to a camera, we found out who stole it!!" At this site, a camera exists in the hallway outside the library not in the library lobby or in the library.

Potential criminals. The previous example demonstrated how SROs and administrators watched students entering and exiting the library lobby during a specific time, identified those students, and then questioned students seen on the footage attempting to determine who stole the iPod. This example also demonstrates thematic strand four of any student being a potential criminal because they entered or exited a room during a time frame when an undesirable behavior was believed to have occurred. Students perceived surveillance cameras can identify potential thieves in 56% of their responses.

When analyzing the frequency of subjects' written answers, only 19 (12%) subjects felt surveillance cameras increased their feelings of safety while at school. One participant, representing less than 1%, chose not to answer the open-ended response item. Participants who noted surveillance cameras were only effective after incidents of misbehavior, such as violence or theft, was 136 (87%) of participants.

School as prison. While looking for frequencies of answers, another thematic strand developed. Some participants' answers referred to their school as prison. Seven participants (4%) specifically used the term "prison" to refer to their schools. *JMR* articulated this metaphor:

> Surveillance affects my school by causing the school to be rather prison-like. It
>
> seems like there is a camera around EVERY corner when one walks the halls. The

cameras don't do much for the overall protection of the school because they distort

the image so much, it is like watching a fray mass move across a distorted screen.

To reinforce the prison metaphor, *SMU* stated during a focus group, "I don't think they

[cameras] all work. I feel some do work in the main areas to catch fights but I think some

of them are there to scare you into doing right."

Surveillance Cameras as Prevention

Survey item 15 asked participants to select a response indicating their perception

that surveillance cameras prevented bad behaviors or criminal activities from happening

in their school. Participants choosing the response strongly disagree, or disagree, were

34% of subjects. Participants choosing somewhat disagree represented 14.7% of subjects.

Participants choosing the response somewhat agree were 28.2%. Participants selecting

agree or strongly agree were 18.6%. I do not know answers were 4.5% of subjects.

Somewhat agree and somewhat disagree responses were selected to help demonstrate that

participants seemed unconvinced surveillance cameras prevented undesirable behaviors.

Blind spots. Question 16 extended question 14 asking for specific incidents of how

surveillance cameras prevented bad behaviors or criminal activity from happening in the

participants' schools. The thematic strand of Blind Spots moving behaviors was reiterated

by participants' written answers. *SMS* stated, "Security cameras have simply moved

undesirable behavior to bathrooms and blind spots, as opposed to reducing it." *SFR*

confirmed, "I suppose the fact that it's [surveillance camera] there deters some of the

worst behavior, but I still know of drug deals and the vodka was still slipped in, camera

or not." *SFR* wrote, "Well, if the cameras were really all that good at controlling [sic]

violence there wouldn't have been two people arrested at our school last week. one for

threatening to kill two guys and the other for dumping hot coffee on the guy that told on

the guy that was going to kill the guys." *SFU* summarized, "… at the same time they just

make people more aware that they have to be more sneaky."

No prevention. Fifty eight (38%) participants documented with their written

responses that they perceived no preventative effect from surveillance cameras. During

focus groups, participants reaffirmed these responses. *JFS* stated, "If someone is going to

do something, they are just going to go into the bathrooms." *SFR* elaborated, "some of

them [cameras] don't work… certain places you just know aren't watched." Seven

students (4%) were able to provide examples of surveillance cameras had actually

dissuaded students from engaging in undesirable behaviors.

Surveillance Cameras Used for Punishment

Survey item 17 asked participants if surveillance camera recordings were used to

punish students in their school. This item was designed to confirm or deny if surveillance

cameras were perceived as being used for safety purposes or if surveillance cameras were

used to enforce discipline. Strongly disagree or disagree were chosen by 22.4% of

subjects. Somewhat disagree was chosen by 7.7% of subjects. Somewhat agree was

selected by 25.7% of participants, while 29.5% selected agree or strongly agree with the

statement. Participants who selected I do not know was 14.7%.

Punishment not protection too. Question 18 asked participants to describe an

incident of how surveillance camera recordings were used to punish students in their

schools. The thematic strand Punishment Not Protection seemed confirmed as different

examples of punishment were enforced on students for non-violent offenses documented

by surveillance camera recordings. *SFS* provided, "The administrators used it [camera] to

see who left their trash on the table at lunch." Another example was provided by *JFR*, "my friend was late to class and the administration showed him a video of him being late and gave him an ASD (After School Detention). *JFU* stated, "When someone got caught stealing out of the concession stand, the camera recording showed proof of who it was and when they did it. They were then punished."

The thematic strand of Punishment Not Protection Too was repeated during focus groups. *SMS* wrote:

Cameras assume the misdeed is going to happen and then deal with it after the fact not preventing it. The only issue of deterrence familiar to me, you know, like some things, drug deals you hear about, move to more concealed locations like blind spots or bathrooms. It doesn't stop the event from happening.

Participants wrote in over 55% of responses, they believed surveillance cameras were used to punish students. Three participants (2%) believed surveillance cameras were not used to punish students.

Surveillance Cameras Create a Perception of Safety

Question 19 asked participants if they felt safer knowing surveillance cameras were used in their school. Participants who strongly disagreed, disagreed, or somewhat disagreed represented 31.4% of the sample, indicating they did not feel safer. Participants choosing somewhat disagree was 8.3%. Participants who somewhat agreed that they felt safer knowing surveillance cameras were in use in their school were 33.3%. Participants who strongly agreed, or agreed, were 23.7%. Participants who did not know if they felt safer or not selected were 3.2% of subjects.

Personal feelings of safety. Question 20 asked participants to explain how surveillance cameras increased or decreased their personal feelings of safety while at school. This item was designed to determine if consistency existed between question 19 and question 20. The thematic strand of Limited Monitoring was reinforced as many participants perceived surveillance cameras do not increase feelings of safety. *SFS* stated, "They don't change my feelings of safety, I would feel the same with the cameras as I would without." *SFR* stated, "I don't remember there ever not being cameras so I don't know that they make the school any safer."

No prevention. Extending the strand of Limited Monitoring, subjects stated surveillance cameras cannot prevent violent crimes. *SMU* stated, "I do not feel that cameras keep me safe. It does not hinder a criminal from committing crimes." *SFR* stated:

> If there are cameras or not it will not stop a man with a gun coming into the school and harming me or any of my classmates. The cameras are merely a tool to help with the little things like stealing and PDA and destruction of the school property.
> Participants who provided written feedback indicated surveillance cameras did nothing to increase their feelings of safety were 43% of subjects.

Surveillance Cameras Violating Privacy

Question 21 asked participants if they felt the surveillance cameras used within the school violated students' privacy. This item was intended to provide confirmation to question 22. Participants who strongly disagreed, disagreed, or somewhat disagreed surveillance violated privacy were 59.6%. Participants who strongly agreed, agreed, or

somewhat agreed that surveillance cameras do violate student privacy were 36.6%.

Participants who selected I do not know were 3.8%.

Violation of privacy. Question 22 asked participants if they thought surveillance cameras were a violation of students' privacy. This question elicited two sub strands. The first sub strand, Violation of Privacy, indicated students felt the surveillance cameras were a violation of privacy. The second sub strand, No Violation of Privacy, was surveillance cameras were acceptable as long as they were not used in bathrooms or locker rooms.

 SMS stated, "Cameras make students feel as if they're in a security state, and because of the failure to prevent negative effects this is an undesirable effect on the student mindset." *SFS* wrote, "The cameras are watching every move we make. We have absolutely no privacy." *SFU* articulated the second strand, "No. They are part of our safety and only used in public parts of the school. It would be a violation if they were used in bathrooms or locker rooms." *SMS* brought attention to attention a seldom voiced concern, "Yes, because no one really knows what the administration uses the cameras for. It's creepy."

No violation. Participants who wrote responses confirming they did not believe cameras violated their privacy were 59% of participants. Many of these participants indicated they believed school was a public place and feigned indifference about the surveillance cameras. The second thematic strand of feeling as if surveillance cameras were a violation of privacy was 26% of participants. After analyzing frequencies of responses, a third thematic strand seemed to be suggested: many participants have been

exposed to surveillance cameras so much in their daily lives that they fail to assign any meaning to these devices.

Increasing violence. During the focus group at the urban school, two participants shared with the researcher that surveillance cameras can encourage violence. *SMU* explained, "Some of them do try to do it in front of the cameras because they want an audience. They want to get in trouble to increase their reputation." The first statement was confirmed by participant, "It gets their names out there for the wrong reasons. When something serious happens and it is caught on a school camera, it gets put on the news."

Summary for Perception of Safety and Surveillance Cameras

The responses generated from items comprising students' perceptions of surveillance cameras within their schools were revealing. Items 13 and 14 asked participants if they felt surveillance cameras increased their personal feelings of safety. Almost one fourth of students shared they believed cameras are not monitored at all the times. Students also knew and could describe spaces where the cameras could not see also known as blind spots. This sharing of secret knowledge by students seemed to help negate surveillance cameras as safety measures. Many students (56%) documented perceptions in which they believed surveillance camera recordings could identify other students as potential criminals. This constant monitoring of surveillance cameras by teachers and administrators led some students (4%) to describe their school as more of a prison-like environment than a place of learning.

Items15 and 16 asked if surveillance cameras increased participants' perceptions of safety, and could participants document incidents of how misbehavior is prevented. Sixty-five percent of participants agreed surveillance cameras increased their perceptions

of safety; however, only 4% of written responses could document how surveillance cameras deterred misbehavior or criminal activities. The next survey items, 17 and 18, asked participants if surveillance cameras and their recordings were used to punish students. Fifty-five percent of students perceived surveillance camera recordings were used to punish students. Many of these responses included punishments for fighting, alcohol/drug possession, and theft.

Participants were surveyed in items 19 and 20 if surveillance cameras increased their personal feelings of safety while in school. These responses mirrored previous responses that subjects' feelings of safety were increased, but surveillance cameras cannot prevent misbehavior or criminal activity. Surveillance camera recordings can only be used to identify students who committed the misbehavior. Forty-three percent of students believed surveillance cameras do not increase their feelings of personal safety.

Questions 21 and 22 asked if students perceived cameras as violating their personal privacy. Many students (60%) believed surveillance cameras did not violate their personal privacy. This conclusion was reached because students explained high schools are public places, and it is acceptable to monitor people while they are in public. The only exception to being monitored in public mentioned by subjects was if surveillance cameras were placed in bathrooms or locker rooms. The subjects seemed not to consider these locations were identified as blind spots where misbehaviors occurred the most. Only 4% of students could provide written responses describing how surveillance cameras or their recordings deterred or prevented misbehaviors.

Perception of Safety and SROs

This section presents participants' quantitative and qualitative responses to the third part of the survey, which asked participants about their perceptions of SROs while at school. This part of the chapter is broken into thematic strands with subsections. The thematic strands and subsections are as follows: (a) SROs Increase Perceptions of Safety which contains subsection A Gun Equals Safety and Dissatisfaction with the SRO; (b) Prevention of Misbehavior or Criminal Activities; (c) SROs as Punishment with subsections Punishes Students and Presence Equals Authority; (d) SROs are Safety containing subsections Increased Safety and Teachers are Just as Capable; (e) Participants Increase Safety; and (f) a Summary section.

Table 3 presents a summary of participants' responses to questions 23, 25, 27, and 29. Each quantitative response is first presented, and then is followed by qualitative open-ended response items and focus groups. Thematic strands were developed from participants' responses to each survey item.

Table 3

Students' Perceptions of SROs

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	I do not Know
Item 23	5.8	5.8	3.2	26.3	34.6	23.7	0.6
Item 25	9.0	8.3	14.7	29.5	25.6	9.1	3.8
Item 27	7.7	14.7	8.3	24.4	21.2	7.1	16.7
Item 29	3.2	5.8	6.4	29.5	26.3	27.6	1.3

Note. All responses are percentages

SRO's Increase Perceptions of Safety

Question 23 asked participants if they felt the school's resource officer increases safety within their school. This question was designed to confirm or to deny question 24. Participants who strongly disagreed or disagreed were 11.6% of subjects. Participants who choose somewhat disagree were 3.2%. Those participants who somewhat agreed the SRO increased safety were 26.3% of respondents. Those participants who agreed or strongly agreed represented 58.3% of respondents. One participant, representing .6% of the sample, selected I do not know.

A gun equals safety. Question 24 asked if participants felt the SRO increased safety in their school. Two thematic strands emerged. The first thematic strand, A Gun is Safe, was summarized by *SFR*, "It is nice to have someone at the school with a gun in case someone tries to get in and harm anyone." *JFR* stated, "There are a lot of guns in this area and a lot of crazy kids in this area and the resource officer having a gun and a taser makes

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me feel safer." Over 64% of participants provided written statements indicating they felt the SRO did increase their feelings of safety with responses indicating the SRO could react if something traumatic were to happen. Seven subjects provided statements in which they felt safer because the SRO had a gun.

Dissatisfaction with the SRO. The second thematic strand, Dissatisfaction with the SRO, documented 21(13%) participants' dissatisfaction with the SRO in their school. *SFU* stated, "The hall monitors do more than the officer. There are more hall monitors and the officer is usually never around. If something really bad were to happen one officer will not do anything to stop it." *SMU* wrote:

The officer may be able to help in a situation of a school shooting. But one officer cannot police the whole school. By the time something has happened within the school, a teacher or students themselves have solved the problem long before the officer gets there.

As for providing safety, *SFU* shared:

He doesn't. If anything were to happen, there is only one so chances are he won't be in the right place and the right time to stop it. Also, if there was any group problem, there is only one of him to stop it. I don't think he really helps my safety at all.

The focus group answers confirmed SROs seemed to be perceived as preventing misbehaviors and able to react to an incident were to occur; however, *SMS* explained, "I can't think of a single incident in which our resource officer has reacted to any sort of outside threat. Anytime I have heard of the resource getting involved it is from some internal incident not external." This line of reasoning was extended by another participant, "the final consequence is the same. No increased deterrent factor. Just need to

think of a way not to get caught" (*SMU*). These focus group answers aligned with survey item 24 in which 19 (12%) participants provided written comments that the SRO did not increase their feelings of personal safety. These subjects shared that random acts of violence cannot be prevented, and the SRO could only react once the violence had begun. These subjects also seemed to believe teachers or administrators could be as effective as the SRO in such situations.

Prevention of Misbehavior

Question 25 asked participants if the SRO helped to prevent misbehaviors or criminal activity from occurring within their school. This survey item was intended to provide further confirmation that SROs did increase safety by preventing bad behaviors. Participants choosing strongly disagree, disagree, or somewhat disagree were 32.1%. Participants who strongly agreed, agreed, or somewhat agreed were 64.1%. Participants who did not know were 3.8%. These responses seemed not to support question 26 which asked participants to describe incidents where bad behaviors were prevented.

Question 26 asked participants to describe an incident in which the school's SRO prevented misbehavior or criminal activity from occurring. The thematic strand Prevention of Misbehavior or Criminal Activity emerged. *SFR* stated, "The resource officer doesn't really prevent the misbehavior but he can control it once it happens." This strand provided another insight:

> They are all here to teach, help, and protect us. We are their first priorities in my
> eyes and I think that resource officer and the teachers both help to keep this school
> a safe and appropriate place to attend to every day. I have seen a fight myself where

our officer was the first person to be on the scene and break it up, but I have seen

other teachers do the same exact thing. (*SFU*)

About half of participants (48%) wrote that they felt the resource officer prevented

misbehaviors from occurring. Thirty five students (22%) left this prompt blank. Fourteen

(9%) students did not believe the SRO provided any deterrent effect.

SRO as Punishment

Question 27 asked participants if the school's SRO is used to punish students after

an incident of misbehavior or criminal activity has occurred. This survey item was

designed to determine if participants perceived the SRO as increasing safety or perceived

the SRO as a disciplinarian. Those participants who strongly disagreed or disagreed were

22.4% of subjects. Participants who somewhat disagreed were 8.3%. Participants who

somewhat agreed were 21.2% of respondents. Those participants who agreed or strongly

agreed were 23.8%. Those participants who selected I do not know were 16.7%.

SRO punishes students. Question 28 asked participants to document if their school's

SRO was used to punish students. Fifty eight (37%) of participants provided a written

response which confirmed the SRO was used within their schools to punish students. The

thematic strand emerging was the SRO is used to punish students. Two examples seemed

representative of participants' answers. "A kid had drugs and alcohol in his car. He gave

him a Minor In Posession. Administrators can't properly give those!" (*SFS*). *JFS* stated:

Anytime a fight occurs, it goes to the resource officer. Any time anyone tests

positive for drugs, to the resource officer. A principal could deal with these

incidents just as effectively. The resource officer is usually the one who makes the

decision on how to punish the student.

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SRO presence equals authority. The thematic strand of SRO as Punishment was reinforced by over a third of participants' answers documenting perceptions the SROs had more authority in enforcing laws from the greater society or culture. Participants (16.7%) who did not know if the SRO punished students or not, seemed to suggest many subjects had very little interaction with the SRO or interaction with other subjects who did have increased interaction with the SRO.

SROs are Safe

Question 29 asked participants if they felt safer knowing the school employed an SRO. Participants who strongly disagreed or disagreed were 9% of subjects. Participants who somewhat disagreed were 6.4%. Participants who somewhat agreed the SRO did increase their feeling of safety were 29.5% of respondents. Those participants who agreed or strongly agreed were 53.9%. Participants who selected I do not know were 1.3%.

Increased safety. Question 30 asked if the school's SRO elicited feelings of safety among participants. Two perceptions emerged about the SRO creating feelings of safety within their school. *SFS* stated, "I feel as if a resource officer is someone higher than a principal or assistant. He does carry weapons which makes me feel safer in case anything were to happen." This feeling was elaborated by *SFU*'s response:

> A resource officer is a part of law enforcement. He's trained to deal with dangerous situations, and I think he carries a gun. This makes me feel safer knowing that at least one person in this school has the ability to stop something bad from happening.

SMU stated, "He maintains and creates a mentality that helps to enforce good or acceptable behavior with students. He/she would be able to provide protection to all students humanly possible and within his constraints during an emergency."

Teachers are just as capable. Within this strand another theme emerged: the teachers create a feeling of safety as much as the SRO created a feeling of safety. *JMR* stated, "The officer is rarely seen in my school and often only when a kid has a bloody or a black eye. He is just as much a deterrence as any regular teacher monitoring the hallway." *JMS* confirmed, "really doesn't the teachers protect us more then the officer does."

SROs are Safe as a thematic strand was confirmed by answers provided during focus groups. Subjects who responded to this prompt articulating their feelings of safety increased because of the SRO's presence were 69%. Several of these responses indicated safety was increased because the SRO had a gun and could respond in the event of an emergency situation. Eighteen subjects (11.5%) believed the SRO did not help increase their feelings of safety. Twenty seven (17%) of subjects did not answer this open-ended response item.

Participants Increase Safety

During focus groups, participants were asked what they would do to increase safety within their school. A theme of mistrust between adults and participants surfaced as voiced by one student, "…an increase in safety [would be] to decrease cameras and resource officers...to get rid of cameras and the resource officer because I feel that they are directed toward me…the fact is that it creates a mistrust between the administration and the students" (SMS). JFS stated, "It assumes we are going to do something wrong – a

guilty until proven innocent." SMU offered, "Some degree of trust would foster a degree of trust in the administration we would be more likely to come forward if we heard rumors of criminal activity." A final response:

> The real solution I feel is to simply step back from students, I mean this is our experience in society it is advantageous to learn in a trusting environment, really teachers are going to care about us more than employers like that further on in life. So if we have an experience where we feel trusted by authority figures in our society and that we can trust them, in other parts of society we would be more likely to trust others like employers. (SMS)

Summary for Perception of Safety and SROs

This section of the survey was designed to document students' perceptions of SROs increasing feelings of safety within their schools. Participants clearly felt SROs did increase their personal feelings of safety by their responses to items 23 and 24. However, students did provide responses indicating the SRO could only respond to emergency situations not prevent these types of situations.

Items 25 and 26 extended participants' perceptions of safety because of the authority ascribed to police officers within greater society. A few answers documented the SRO could enforce punishments that administrators could not, for example, Minor in Possession. The perceptions of the students needs more study to determine how students' perceptions of safety in which they ascribed to the SRO were developed. Several answers referred to the SRO being specifically trained to handle emergency situations. Items 27 and 28 were answered by subjects providing consistent responses indicating the SRO could enforce all laws within the school and could use these laws to justify the

punishment of students. Items 29 and 30 were designed to investigate if participants' feelings of safety were increased because of the presence of a SRO. Again, subjects' answers did confirm their personal feelings of safety were increased due to the presence of a police officer within their school.

Summary

This chapter presented quantitative statistics, qualitative response items, and comments from focus groups to document participants' perceptions of their individual and collective rights, students' perceptions of safety through the use of surveillance cameras and SROs within their schools. This study only begins the discussion of students' perceptions within their learning environments. The data gathered does suggest students would like to be valued, respected, and have a voice in creating learning environments which would be beneficial to them. Chapter Five will offer interpretations of the data presented, how the data ties to accessible academic literature, and offer suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to investigate and to document junior and senior students' perceptions of their individual and collective rights in relation to surveillance cameras and school resource officers (SROs) as safety measures within their schools. In attempting to contribute to the academic literature, this study documented students' voices concerning their perceptions of their rights and how current safety measures in use within their public schools are perceived by these students. This research study begins to stimulate necessary and difficult dialogues between those with authority and those without authority within secondary schools.

Politicians, school leaders, and parents demanded safer school environments be created (Addington, 2009; Altheide, 2009). As leaders rushed to provide money for costly safety solutions and school districts began implementing these costly solutions, one variable seemed overlooked, undervalued, and non important to adults – the students (Addington, 2009; Altheide, 2009). Those touting surveillance cameras and SROs as the solutions to solve the problems of violence in American schools have seemingly ignored the perceptions of students (Fuentes, 2011). Many educational leaders seem not to recognize students' knowledge can be valuable for those adults trying to create safer schools. Academic literature has generally overlooked and failed to study school safety from the perspectives of students (Addington, 2009).

The survey was constructed to provide insight and to give voice to secondary students' perceptions about their rights, and the use of surveillance cameras and SROs

within their school cultures. The survey's first part investigated students' perceptions of public schools and students' perceptions of their rights within and outside of public schools in an attempt to answer research question one. The second part of the survey explored students' perceptions of surveillance cameras being used within their secondary school in an attempt to answer research question two. The third part of the survey was designed to document students' perceptions of their School Resource Officer (SRO) within their school in an attempt to answer research question three.

The researcher identified junior and senior participants because these were the students having the most experiences with surveillance cameras and SROs within their secondary schools. These students were also identified in an attempt to gather more mature, student perspectives. The students who participated in the study were junior and senior students from a rural, a suburban, and an urban school district in a Midwestern state. Seventy percent of the participants were seniors, and most were anticipating graduation within months. The researcher considered not only their experience within their secondary schools, but also their experiences within larger society.

This chapter is divided into five sections. Section one presents Summary of Findings organized by thematic strands. The Discussion section will draw connections between philosophical underpinnings, and academic literature as related to the thematic strands. The third section will discuss Limitations of the Study. The fourth section will present Implications for Leadership Practices. Finally, the fifth section will offer Suggestions for Future Studies.

Summary of Findings

Tapestries were first woven for nobility depicting the noble's achievements. During medieval times tapestries were preferred over paintings as they were easy to transport from one drafty castle to another, and tapestries also served to remind subjects of the greatness of their king or queen. As more types of weaving materials became available so did the desire to own tapestries; however, the scenes depicted in the tapestries moved from accomplishments to scenes depicting common everyday activities (Blake, 2010). Within public schools, it seems as if many district leaders, teachers, and parents have purchased a tapestry of safety which they believe to be intruder, bullet, and criminal proof – the Kevlar of tapestries. The nobility of public education seems to see a tapestry depicting them winning the battle against inappropriate, dangerous, and deadly behaviors. Students, the subjects of this vast kingdom, see a tapestry similar to the one presented below.

This section is divided into three main parts: (a) Students' Perceptions of Their Rights, (b) Students' Perceptions of Surveillance Cameras, and (c) Students' Perceptions of SROs. Under each part, survey items representing thematic strands of Treated Unfairly, Disenfranchisement, and Marginalization were developed from students' answers. These thematic strands were organized in reflection of the survey, open-ended response items, and focus group interviews. The following findings represent the dialogue about a priceless tapestry desperately in need of restoration; a restoration which can only be achieved through a community effort.

Students' Perceptions of Their Rights

Data collected from the survey instrument, open-ended response items, and focus groups were analyzed to identify thematic strands in survey items 1 and 2. This data documented junior and senior students' perceptions about the primary function of public schools in a democracy and students' perceptions of their rights within their secondary school. The first and second survey items were designed as a pair. This allowed quantitative and qualitative data to be collected about students' perceptions of the role of public schools in a democracy. One in five students either disagreed public schools are important to sustaining democracy or did not know the purpose of public schools. These responses could indicate students' disenfranchised attitudes, as demonstrated by responses during later survey items, or students truly do not understand the purpose of public education. Either line of reasoning would indicate a need for increased focus to educate students about the purpose of school in a democracy.

Figure one represents quantitative survey items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11 that are found within the circles. Qualitative student responses were items 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and are found within the thought bubbles. Major themes are represented by the words in the background: Treated Unfairly, Marginalized, and Disenfranchised.
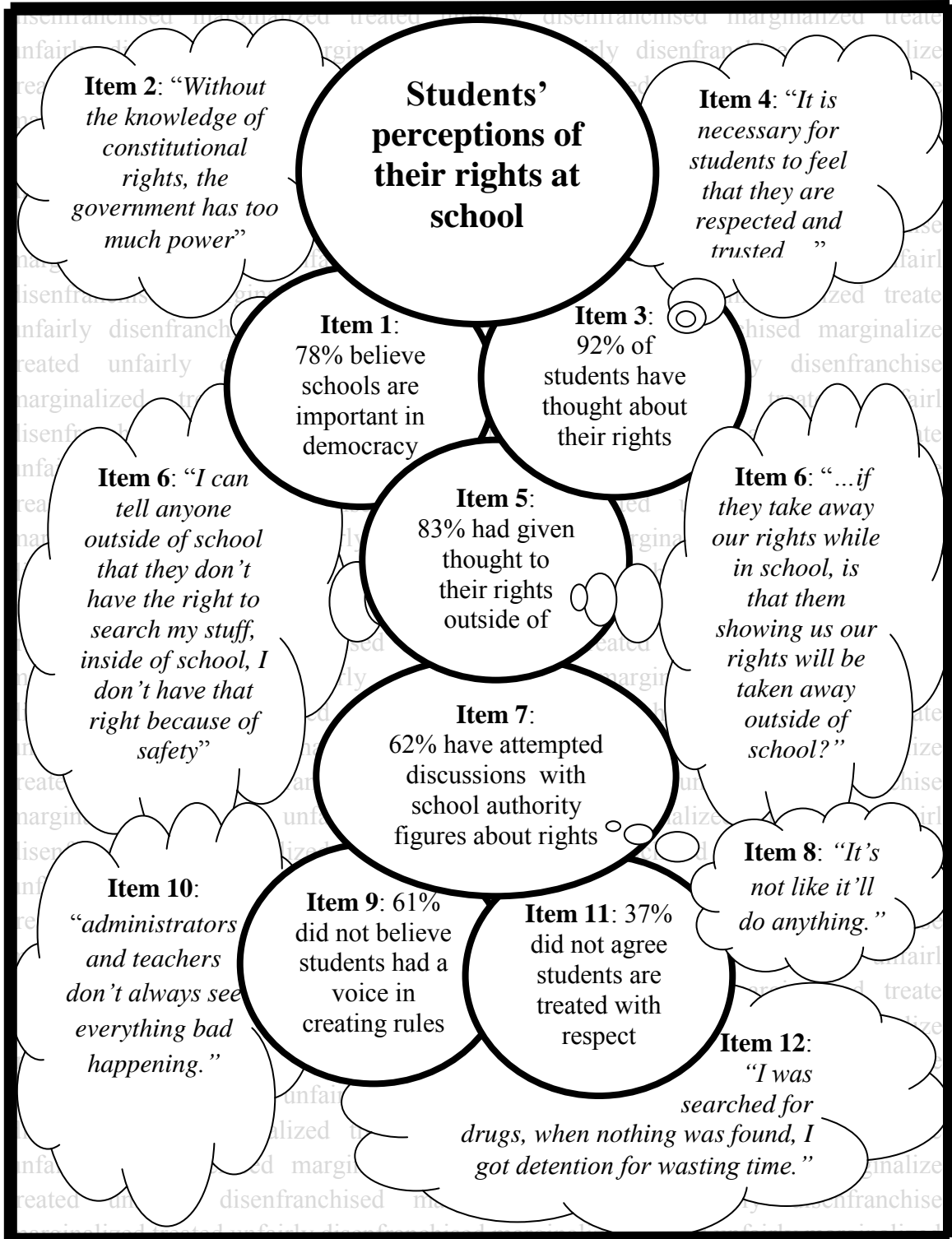
Students' perceptions of their rights at school

Item 2: "*Without the knowledge of constitutional rights, the government has too much power*"

Item 4: "*It is necessary for students to feel that they are respected and trusted*"

Item 1: 78% believe schools are important in democracy

Item 3: 92% of students have thought about their rights

Item 6: "*I can tell anyone outside of school that they don't have the right to search my stuff, inside of school, I don't have that right because of safety*"

Item 5: 83% had given thought to their rights outside of

Item 6: "*...if they take away our rights while in school, is that them showing us our rights will be taken away outside of school?*"

Item 7: 62% have attempted discussions with school authority figures about rights

Item 8: *"It's not like it'll do anything."*

Item 10: "*administrators and teachers don't always see everything bad happening.*"

Item 9: 61% did not believe students had a voice in creating rules

Item 11: 37% did not agree students are treated with respect

Item 12: *"I was searched for drugs, when nothing was found, I got detention for wasting time."*

Figure 1. Students' perceptions of their rights

Treated Unfairly

Three thematic strands developed in the remaining survey items (3-12) which sought to document students' perceptions of students' rights within their school. Students were able to select responses on Likert scale items, answer open-ended response items, and provide verbal reasoning to help clarify these items during focus groups. Two thirds of students returned their permission forms to participate in the study. Such a high rate of return could indicate students wanting their voices to be heard.

Throughout the open-ended response items and focus groups, students repeatedly wrote and voiced perceptions that administrators and teachers do not treat them fairly. Nearly a third of students' open-ended responses for items three and four indicated students perceived they had been treated unfairly at school. The thematic strand of Treated Unfairly was strengthened as many of the participants described specific incidents in which a teacher or administrator had dismissed their opinion, accused them of misbehavior, or enforced an arbitrary rule. Almost a third of written response included statements such as "I want to be treated like a person not another meaningless student."

Forty percent of students provided written responses to survey items 11 and 12 indicting teachers and administrators treat students unfairly. Eighty percent of students provided written examples of when they or another student had been treated unfairly by a teacher or administrator. This perception of this unfair treatment could indicate why some students felt disenfranchised from their school cultures.

Disenfranchisement

As students responded to survey items dealing with their rights inside and outside of school environments, the students' responses took divergent paths. A fourth of the

students provided answers stating if students were to have rights at school then disorder and chaos would be the result. Students wrote "schools must obtain order to learn" and if students were allowed "normal rights" schools would have "no order." However, over 40% of students stated they believed students could practice their rights responsibly within a secondary school.

A majority of students (61%) indicated they tried to discuss their rights with teachers and administrators. This statistic is encouraging if separated from students' responses to the open-ended response item which followed. Students explained discussing their rights was a "moot" point with teachers and administrators. Students' answers explained it was useless to engage in such discussions because teachers or administrators were "always right" or "the ones with authority." These types of responses indicate students were willing to engage in difficult dialogues with individuals with authority in their schools; however, answers indicated students perceived those with authority did not want to engage in a difficult dialogue about their power, what constituted that power, or relinquishing any power.

Disengagement as a thematic strand seemed to summarize students' responses. Becoming disengaged from school environments or cultures is typically not a choice most students make. The juniors and seniors who participated in this survey supplied consistent responses to Likert scale items, open-ended response items, and focus group answers. Junior and seniors were selected to participate in this study because they had the most experiences of secondary students. It could be argued these students also are suffering the most disengagement because they have seen or suffered the most incidents of victimization from those with authority in secondary schools.

Marginalization

The researcher's public school teaching experiences led him to expect some answers indicating unfair treatment or disenfranchised attitudes; however, the extent to which participants voiced concerns over being treated as subordinates, less than citizens, and being accused of crimes without any proof was unexpected. Forty percent of subjects felt they have been treated unfairly by administrators or teachers. Eighty percent of participants documented either being the victim of unfair treatment or witnessing incidents of unfair treatment. When these responses are considered in conjunction with teachers and administrators being perceived as not wanting to engage in difficult dialogues with students, the conclusion of students feeling disenfranchised can be reached.

<div align="center">Students' Perceptions of Surveillance Cameras</div>

The second part of the study (items 13-22) documented students' perceptions of surveillance cameras and whether students perceived surveillance cameras as increasing their safety within their high school. The thematic strands of Treated Unfairly, Disenfranchisement, and Marginalization were again prevalent in the subjects' quantitative, qualitative, and focus groups answers for this part of the survey. These thematic strands will be utilized for the discussion concerning students' perceptions of surveillance cameras.

Figure two represents quantitative survey items 13, 15, 17, 19, and 21 that are found within the circles. Qualitative student responses were items 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 and are found within the thought bubbles. Major themes are represented by the words in the background: Treated Unfairly, Marginalized, and Disenfranchised.
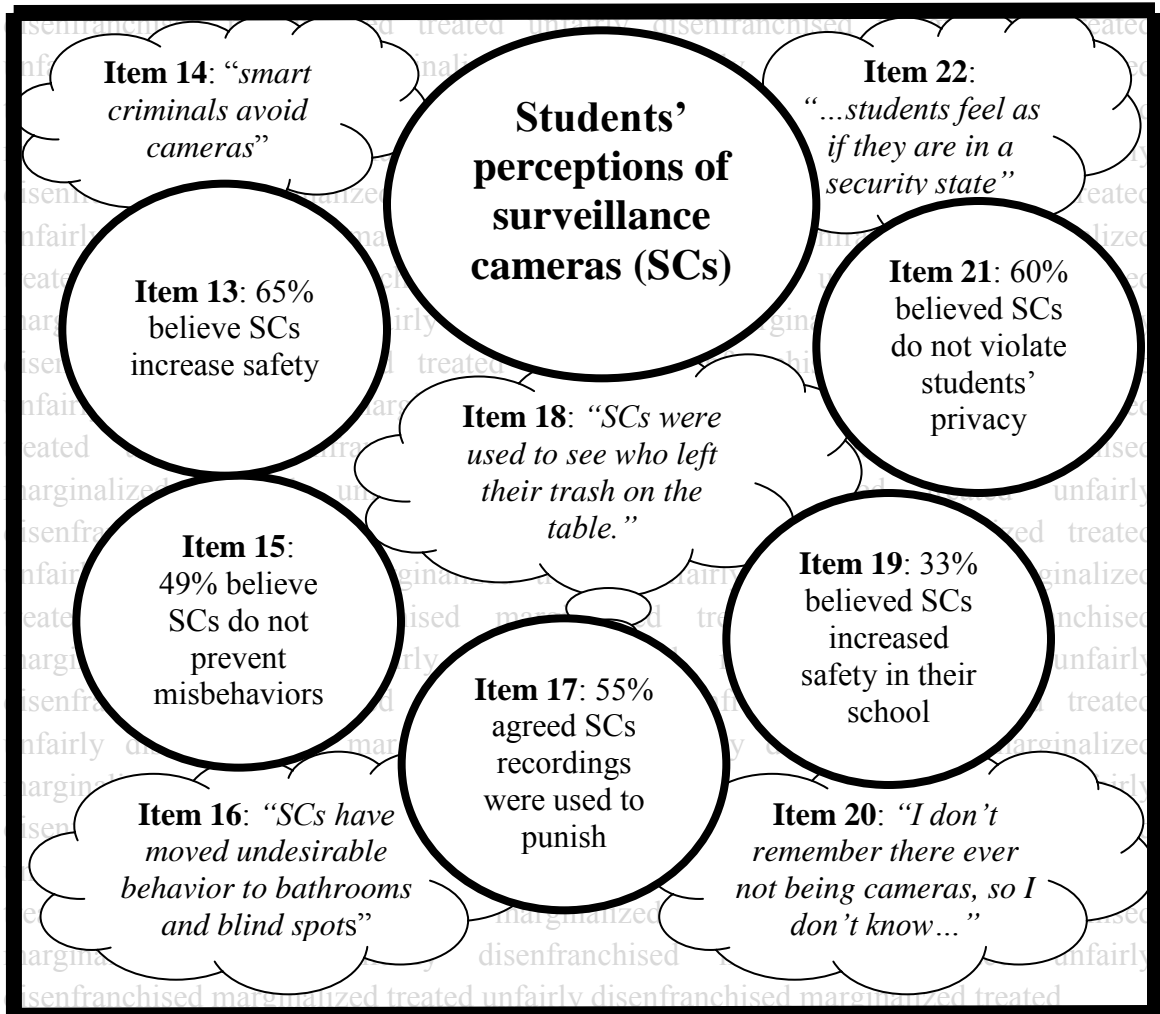
Figure 2. Students' perceptions of surveillance cameras

Treated Unfairly

Several participants shared perceptions that the purpose of surveillance cameras was not to provide safety, but the purpose of surveillance cameras was to document misbehaviors; then, the surveillance camera recordings were used to punish students committing the misbehaviors. Participants explained surveillance cameras promoted the "guilty until proven innocent" mentality of teachers and administrators. This ever-constant presence, of surveillance cameras and surveillance recordings being used to

punish students, communicated to participants they were neither trusted nor being treated fairly.

Students provided examples of when surveillance camera recordings were used to discipline students who were late to class, students who left their lunch trays on the cafeteria tables, and to identify students to interrogate who entered or exited the library lobby to determine who stole an iPod. When surveillance cameras are used by administrators or SROs to enforce discipline, the purpose of surveillance cameras evolved from a safety measure into population control. As the students' comments reflected, many students no longer valued the presence of the cameras as a safety measure.

Disenfranchisement

As participants' written and verbal comments demonstrated, many students gave answers stating surveillance cameras cannot be monitored at all times. Many participants seemed to know, and to be able to discuss where the surveillance cameras could see and could not see. Students freely explained that if someone wanted to engage in misbehavior or criminal activity, that person would go to blind spots where the surveillance cameras could not see, such as directly beneath the camera, bathrooms, or locker rooms. This knowledge negates surveillance cameras as safety measures. If students know where cameras are and what the cameras can see, and misbehaviors are moved to non monitored areas, then safety is not achieved. When interpreting subjects' written and interview answers, the subjects felt as if surveillance cameras were another means of those with authority exercising their power. Students seemed to enjoy possessing knowledge about cheating the surveillance system. This cheating of the system knowledge reveals

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participants seem to perceive an 'us versus them' culture. This 'us versus them' perception leads to the conclusion students are experiencing disenfranchisement from the culture. Many participants also shared their secret knowledge that surveillance cameras can only document behaviors; surveillance cameras cannot stop or prevent the behaviors.

Although the disenfranchised attitude existed among many participants, participants explained they did not perceive cameras as a violation of their privacy. Students rationalized schools are a public space, and citizens do not have a right to privacy while in public. These types of comments led to the supposition that many students have been exposed and monitored by surveillance cameras for a majority of their educational careers. During focus groups, students were asked if they remembered a time in their school careers when surveillance cameras were not present. Participants from all three sites provided a similar answer. Participants indicated remembering cameras being installed while they were in elementary school. Although not related to this study, students' constant exposure to surveillance cameras suggests further research is needed to determine if participants had become desensitized to the existence of surveillance cameras.

Marginalization

A few of the students' answers indicated they felt as if their school was more like a prison than an institution of learning. In reflection, the researcher began comparing the perceptions of students and prisoners. In the beginning of the researchers' teaching career, he volunteered to chaperone students visiting the county's jail.

Much like jail or prison, bells are utilized in opening/closing doors, signaling the beginning of the day, the end of the day, visitation, and the end-of-visitation periods. In

all three secondary schools, bells signaled the beginning of the day, end of the day, when classes were to begin and end. The tardy bell was used to indicate students had one minute to arrive in class or their passing/visitation period was nearing an end. Once arriving in class, the students needed a pass to leave the locked room.

Teachers were required to be present in the hallways between classes to discourage misbehavior. As students noted, surveillance cameras were utilized to determine who was late to class, which student had left a tray on the cafeteria table, which students had exited and entered rooms during a specific time frame. The researcher considered his high school experience to the students' experiences in which he was studying. This line of thought led the researcher to consider the differences if fences, razor wire, and bars were added to high school environments. At one site, the researcher entered the school by opening a door and entering into an all glass lobby area. The researcher was expected by the receptionist; however, the researcher was asked to provide his license and given a visitor's pass which he wore to identify him within the school. Before being allowed to enter the school, the receptionist pushed a button, a buzzer sounded, and a door opened. Although this seemed an effective and cost effective means of providing safety, the comparison to entering a jail was very similar.

As students navigate this environment on a daily basis, the researcher began to understand why students would view this culture as being prison-like. The students seemed to be able to exercise very little choice in their daily lives. When reviewing answers indicating teachers and administrators did not want to engage in difficult dialogues, examples of unfair treatment, and arbitrary rule enforcement, the conclusion was reached that these secondary students are marginalized.

Students' Perceptions of SROs

The third part of survey (items 22-30) asked participants about their perceptions of SROs within their schools. The thematic strands of Fairness, Disenfranchisement, and Marginalization from the first two parts of the survey were not present in subjects' answers to this part of the survey. The majority of participants did experience increased feelings of safety because of a SRO's presence within their schools.

Figure two represents quantitative survey items 23, 25, 27, 19, and 21 that are found within the circles. Qualitative student responses were items 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 and are found within the thought bubbles. Major themes are represented by the words in the background: Treated Unfairly, Marginalized, and Disenfranchised.

These survey items revealed participants believed the SRO cannot prevent misbehaviors or random acts of violence. Some responses indicated teachers or mall monitors could be as effective and had been as effective in preventing misbehaviors of the SRO. A selected response summarized the SRO would need to be in the right place at the right time to prevent any misbehavior. This response also concluded if the SRO was not in the right part of the building at the right time, the SRO could not immediately respond to an outside threat.
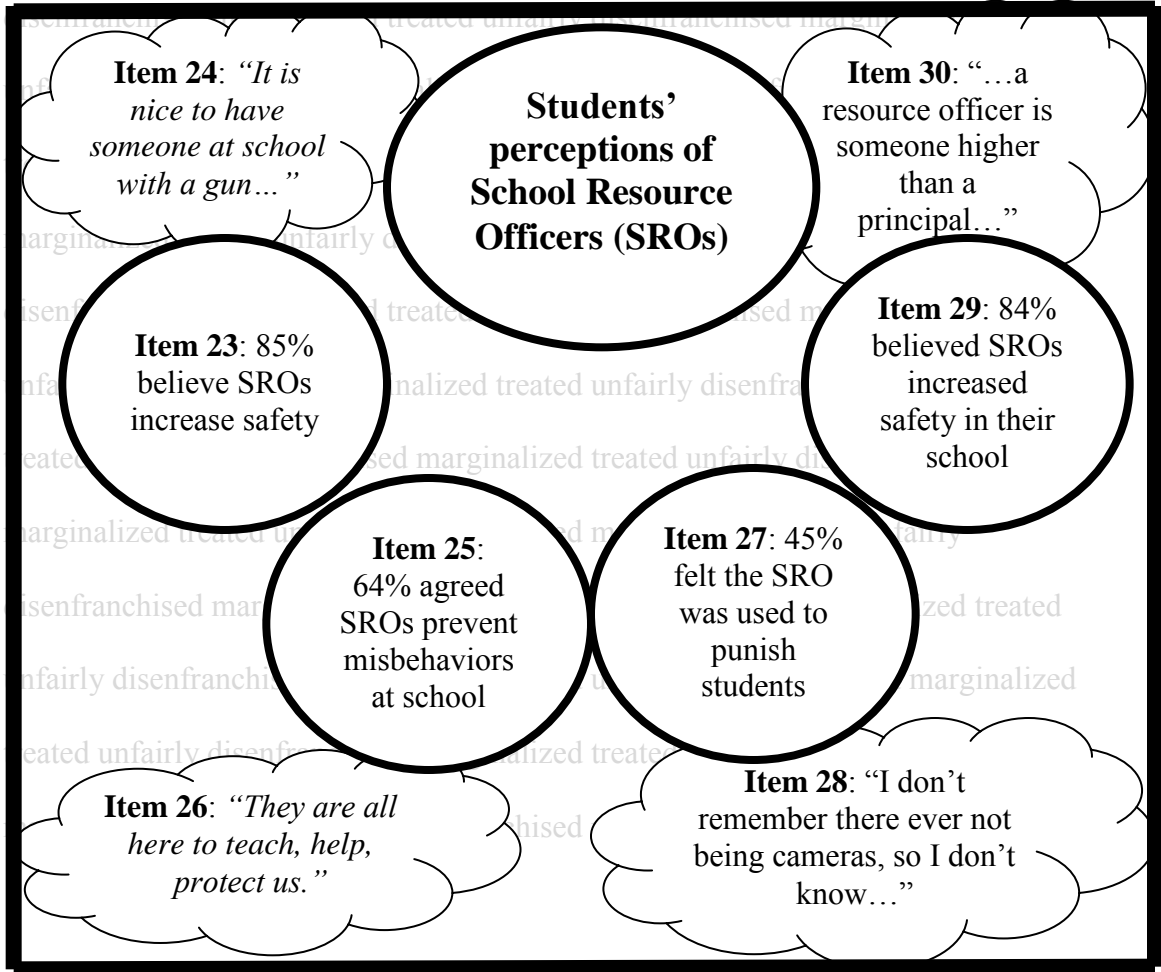
Figure 3. Students' perceptions of School Resource Officers

Again students' responses demonstrated a disenfranchised attitude by suggesting

students just needed to think of ways not to get caught misbehaving by the SRO. Over a

third of students' answers confirmed they did not believe the SRO helped to prevent

misbehaviors in their schools. The students' answers confirmed the belief the SRO's

main benefit was controlling a situation once it began.

Survey items also asked if the SRO was used to punish students who had

misbehaved. Nearly half of the responses indicated the SRO was used to punish students

who had committed criminal activities such as possessing alcohol, drugs, or assaulting

another student. Students agreed the SRO did increase their safety. However, the mistrust

between those with authority and those without authority was again demonstrated when students were asked during focus groups what they would do to increase safety.

The 'guilty until proven innocent' approach used by administrators, teachers, and SROs was articulated by students when discussing what students would do to increase safety. One student responded a degree of trust would help. Another student commented if schools mirrored society, and schools created a trusting environment and were focused on positive experiences, then students would be much more likely to trust those with authority.

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

This section presents thematic strands as related to the conceptual underpinnings and accessed academic literature. Participants' responses will be used to support previous conclusions. To maintain consistency, the thematic strands of Treated Unfairly, Disenfranchisement, and Marginalization will be used as subheadings. These three thematic strands were chosen because they seemed to comprehensively represent participants' responses.

Treated Unfairly

The conceptual underpinnings began with the Jeffersonian concept of public education. Jefferson envisioned public education to be the means by which all citizens would become educated; he believed citizens could and would make informed decisions maintaining the democracy (Ford, 1893). The conceptual underpinnings were extended forward to Counts's and Freire's beliefs about the power of education. Both Counts and Freire believed public education was the foundation of democratic societies (Counts, 1932/1978; Freire,1970/2009). Plato's cave (Jowett, 2000) and Morgan's Psychic Prison

<div align="center">135</div>

(2006) were then used to help identify the characteristics of oppressive environments and organizations. These philosophical and conceptual underpinnings were used to view current public secondary schools in an unconventional reality. This unconventional lens provides a view where many students perceive they have been marginalized.

The philosophical underpinnings and conceptual framework led to the development of survey items one and two which asked participants if secondary schools serve an important function in democratic society, and why students believed schools should teach students about their constitutional rights. Many students were able to agree that public schools served an important function in a democracy; however, the students who did not know or disagreed that public schools served an important function in a democracy would support Lugg's and Shoho's (2006) assertions that public schools are failing to produce a concerned and active citizenry.

Survey items three, four, five, and six asked students about their perceptions of their democratic rights while at school and outside school. Over 90% of students provided responses which documented students had given thought to their democratic rights or what they believed to be their democratic rights. This suggests students did seem to understand the concept of democratic rights. Schlesinger (2009) asserted democracy was a messy business, and for individuals to understand democracy as more than a theoretical concept, individuals had to have chances to practice democracy.

A disconnect began to emerge with survey item four which asked students to discuss which rights were important to them while at school. The right to free speech was the most popular response among participants; however, when JFS stated, "We have our rights taken away to promote safety for everyone," the thematic strands of Fairness,

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Disenfranchisement, and Marginalization begin to appear. Freire's (1970/20009) slave

mentality can be linked to this perception of losing rights to promote safety. Those with

authority within secondary schools justify decisions based on the premises of creating a

safer school. However, application of Freire's (1970/2009) theory would claim those with

authority are using the cloak of safety to create cultures of overwhelming control. This

culture of control "transforms students into receiving objects. It attempts to control

thinking and action, leads women and men to adjust to the world, and inhibits their

creative power" (Freire, 1970/2009, p. 77).

The theories Plato (Jowett, 2000) and Morgan (2006) helped establish the

characteristics of oppressive environments. Mollen (2008) stated, "If the state can gain

access to the individual's mind by controlling his education, it can also affect the

democratic decisions that individuals make in the future" (p. 1532). The frequency of

answers in items three and four confirmed students perceived they were being treated

unfairly. Phrases such as "less than a person," "guilty until proven innocent," and

"teachers/administrators are always right," were noted in several written responses.

Disenfranchisement

Survey items seven and eight asked if participants had engaged teachers or

administrators in discussions about their rights. Over 60% of students indicated they had

discussed their rights with administrators or teachers. Written comments such as "it's not

like it'll do anything," "a student's opinion about their rights within a school are moot,"

and "I want to be treated like a person and a citizen not another meaningless student,"

continued to support the thematic strands of disenfranchisement and marginalization of

students. Freire (1970/2009) stated, "If the humanization of the oppressed signifies

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subversion, so also does their freedom; hence the necessity for constant control. And the more the oppressors control the oppressed, the more they change them into an apparently inanimate 'thing'" (p. 59). Students' answers clearly documented feeling dehumanized.

The thematic strand of disenfranchisement also appeared in survey items nine and ten. These two survey items inquired if students had participated in creating rules that govern their school and the importance of student voices when creating or enforcing rules. Almost 61% of students selected the responses strongly disagree, disagree, or somewhat disagree for this item. Their written comments in the open-ended response items indicated students could give insight into how the rule affects or would affect them. Participants indicated they possessed knowledge that the teachers or administrators did not. *SFS* provided, "Students' voices should be heard when creating school rules because administrators and teachers don't always see everything bad happening in a school." *SMU* stated, "They need to consider our voices because we should have a right to help make the laws that govern us much like outside of school in our democratic processes." Freire provided a way to break the oppression cycle.

Freire (1970/2009) stated, "To surmount the situation of the oppression, people must first critically recognize its causes, so that through transforming action they can create a new situation, one which makes possible the pursuit of a fuller humanity" (p. 47). Students' responses suggested students do want to participate in the democratic process, students would be willing to share knowledge improving the cultures of their schools, and students are willing to create better cultures for both administrators and teachers. These responses also indicated subjects understood the power of a collective voice in a democratic society.

Participants were asked in survey items 11 and 12 if teachers and administrators respected the rights of students, and students were asked to provide examples of when students' rights were or were not respected by those with authority in their secondary school. Students' perceptions of being treated unfairly, being marginalized, and feelings of disenfranchisement seemed not to change based upon the size of the school. It seemed participants believed those with authority in secondary schools have abdicated students' rights in favor of safety measures such as surveillance cameras and SROs. The process of creating safe schools has also been perceived by students as the creation of prison-like cultures. Hutchinson and Pullman (2007) stated, "As with inmates, we believe that the achievement of total control over students has exceeded the physical and, under the guise of school safety, been extended to include psychological constraints similar to those experienced by prison inmates" (p. 173).

The first 12 survey items begin the discussion of students' views of secondary schools' place in democratic society and how students see themselves in this hierarchical culture. It became clear subjects felt disenfranchised and marginalized. Students repeatedly voiced they would just like to be treated fairly within their schools. Students wanted to participate in the democratic processes governing their school cultures but were denied participation opportunities by those with authority.

Students' responses fell into three categories: yes, we should be able to have all our rights; yes, we should have rights with limits; and no, we should not have any rights to maintain order. Through their responses, students indicated they understood school is an environment where some rights have to be limited to respect the rights of other students. One responder mentioned students needed to practice their rights before

entering greater society. This practicing of rights would seem to help students begin to understand their rights and responsibilities as citizens in a democracy.

Marginalization

Columbine was the catalyst for the media to sensationalize school violence and allow millions of people to experience the students' fear on live television (Addington, 2009; Birkland & Lawrence, 2009). Parents and politicians began the mantra that no school was safe, and security measures had to be implemented at any costs (Altheide, 2009). To reinforce this attitude, local, state, and federal courts have opted to reduce students' rights in favor of safety (Alexander & Alexander, 2005). "Parents and school administration have not had to trade their own rights in exchange for security, but rather those of the students" (Addington, 2009, p. 1411). If Columbine was the catalyst for many districts implementing surveillance cameras (Addington 2009; Lewis 2006), then many students would have been preparing for or in kindergarten when Columbine happened. Students from all three schools indicated remembering surveillance cameras being installed in their elementary schools.

Counts' (1932/1978) assertion that schools should shape society not society shaping the schools was denied by participants' response to survey items 13 through 22. After Columbine the fear developed in which many parents believed a similar incident could occur at their students' school (Addington, 2009). Altheide (2009) clarified:

> The concern with safety in the context of fear orients school administrators and teachers to ascribe motives to all would-be student shooters as terrorists, while guiding interaction and discourse that constitutes the teaching environment as a place of discipline and surveillance to prevent violent acts…" (p. 1364)

Altheide's statement helped confirm earlier conclusions of teachers and administrators as marginalizing students' involvement and voices within their school cultures. Altheide's statement is also confirmed by responses provided by subjects in this study.

Survey items 13 and 14 asked subjects if surveillance cameras increased feelings of safety while at school and asked participants to provide specific examples of how surveillance cameras increased these feelings of safety. Nearly 31% of subjects indicated they did not feel cameras increased safety within their schools, while almost 65% of students agreed surveillance cameras did increase feelings of safety; however, when the frequency of written responses was analyzed, only 12% of students could provide examples indicating increased feelings of personal safety. These results could support Altheide's (2009) argument of indoctrination. Altheide (2009) suggested students have been indoctrinated by teachers and administrators into believing surveillance cameras do increase safety.

Some written responses to survey item 14 were: (a) the cameras are not monitored at all times; (b) if the cameras are not monitored all the time, they cannot be preventative; and (c) surveillance camera footage is used to react after a situation has occurred. These responses led to survey item 15 which asked participants if surveillance cameras prevented bad behaviors or criminal activities from occurring in their schools. Almost half of quantitative responses indicated surveillance cameras do not prevent these behaviors from happening. These results seemed to discount the feelings of safety students had mentioned in earlier survey items.

The conclusion was reached that many subjects might have confused safety with identification/punishment of misbehavior within their schools. This could be attributed to

the wording of survey items. Survey item 16 asked subjects to describe incidents of surveillance cameras preventing bad behaviors or criminal activities from occurring. Participants who noted surveillance cameras were only effective after incidents of misbehavior, such as violence or theft, was 136, or 87% of participants. These responses suggest a more clearly defined concept of safety was needed.

While analyzing subjects' written responses, another thematic strand emerged representing students' thoughts of their environment in regard to surveillance cameras. These responses suggested their schools more clearly resembled prisons than learning environments. This prison perception was reinforced by statements such as "the cameras are used to catch people," "surveillance causes my school to be rather prison like," and "we wear IDs so the bodies can be identified after the shooting." The earlier thematic strands of disenfranchisement and marginalization are evident in these responses, and the thematic strand of punishment emerging from the use of surveillance cameras begins to form.

Students' answers seem to indicate they perceive a culture of control, repression of rights, and atmospheres of oppression within their secondary schools. Altheide's (2009) study determined no clear evidence existed proving safety measures such as surveillance cameras and SROs were any more effective in preventing violence than traditional methods. Altheide (2009) extended her analysis by offering surveillance cameras and SROs actually created negative learning environments by viewing students as potential criminals. Bolman and Deal (2008) stated culture is what holds an organization together and helps the organization to accomplished desired ends. This study adds to the academic literature confirming many public school leaders have abandoned

the original premises of education as a tool to improve society; rather, these leaders seem to want to assuage parents, community members, and politicians public schools are bastions of safety. This conclusion is supported by Lewis' (2006) statement:

> Since Columbine, a predominantly White, middle-class populous has cried out for more stringent forms of surveillance, thus demonstrating the naturalization of ideological solutions networked through the matrix of disciplinary power…Surveillance assemblages are being reintegrated into an overall governmental apparatus of disciplinary control. (p. 270)

Survey items 17 and 18 asked if surveillance cameras were used to punish students. The original concept of surveillance cameras was sold as increasing safety in schools; however, the reality became apparent to those in authority that surveillance cameras are an excellent means of identifying undesirable behaviors within the school not threats from outside the school. For example, "security cameras originally installed to prevent violence [have] morph[ed] into ensuring that bathrooms are not vandalized" (Addington, 2009, p. 1437). Written responses from subjects stated, "administrators used it [surveillance camera] footage to see who left their trash on the table at lunch," "my friend was late to class and administrators showed him a video of him being late and gave him ASD [After School Detention]," and, "someone got caught stealing out of the concession stand…they were then punished." These are minor offenses when compared to the thought of stopping a school shooter. Students' examples also helped to reinforce the prison culture strand mentioned earlier, and reinforce the authoritarian power of teachers and administrators.

Survey items 19 and 20 asked if subjects felt surveillance cameras increased their personal feelings of safety and how surveillance cameras did increase their personal feelings of safety. These survey items were different from survey items 13 and 14 because these items specifically asked if surveillance cameras increase personal safety. As opposed to item 13 (65% of participants agreed surveillance cameras increased school safety), the participants who disagreed surveillance cameras increased their personal safety was 40%. This change in answers between item 13 and items 19 and 20 could be attributed to written responses which indicated surveillance cameras are reactive not proactive. *SFR* summarized, "The cameras are merely a tool to help with the little things like stealing and PDA and destruction of the school property."

Items 20 and 21 asked if participants felt surveillance cameras violated their privacy. Two thematic strands emerged: yes, cameras violated students' privacy, and no, cameras did not violate students' privacy. Fifty nine percent of open-ended responses indicated students did not believe cameras violated their privacy. In trying to determine why subjects felt no violation of privacy, the thematic strand emerged which rationalized students have been exposed to surveillance cameras most of their academic careers.

Merelman (1980) wrote democratic values become less important in an authoritarian context. Mollen (2008) wrote if school leaders can control students' education, they can control students' minds. As the mantra for safety gained momentum, and safety measures became commonplace, it seems as if authoritarian control also has increased. Students' responses certainly indicated they felt as if they are being treated unfairly by teachers and administrators; almost 90% of students could provide specific examples of where students perceived teachers or administrators being disrespectful

toward students. The very structure of public school lends itself to an authoritarian

regime. Students are the base of the hierarchy, then parents, next teachers, administrators,

superintendents, and finally Boards of Education. Perry (2007) stated schools should be

the place where social inequalities are equalized not reinforced.

The selling of fear generates money. Many people do not stop to consider

Columbine had surveillance cameras and a SRO. Since the implementation of the Gun

Free Schools Act and Zero-tolerance policies (Han & Akiba, 2011, Lyons & Drew,

2006), academic research has documented neither policy was effective and both policies

actually increased problem behaviors.

Fuentes confirmed in 2011 costly security measures do not work. In each one of

the three districts, the ratio of surveillance cameras to students did not have a discernible

pattern. The rural district with approximately 200 students has 40 cameras and will be

upgrading to 60 cameras once their new system is installed. The suburban district had 80

cameras with plans to install another five cameras to cover more exterior space. The

suburban district had 52 cameras, and the SRO did not disclose if there were future plans

for installing more.

The survey decidedly takes an opposite direction in questions 23 through 30.

Questions 23 and 24 asked subjects if their SRO increased safety within their schools.

Over 85% of participants provided responses of increased feelings of safety because of

the SRO's presence. Seven students (4%) wrote specifically that the presence of an

individual with a gun within the school made them feel safer.

Lewis (2006) stated, "In schools, the networking of surveillance equipment to

police stations is an attempt to recentralize disciplinary tools under a single gaze" (p.

270). Since 2006, this single gaze seems to be gaining momentum. Each school sampled employed a full-time SRO. This employment of full-time SROs seemed to advance Lewis's statement. Not only are surveillance cameras able to be networked to police stations (Smith, 2011), actual officers are now employed by school districts. Fuentes (2011) assertion also gains support, "…police have usurped authority from school principals over dispensing discipline, a situation that fundamentally alters the school climate" (p. 159).

Students' responses documented SROs cannot prevent misbehaviors, but SROs can only react. Students seemed to rationalize SROs were good, but in making this rationalization, students also indicated they had to trade liberties for safety (Ford, 1893). It does not seem a difficult decision to trade liberty for safety in a crisis situation. However, within a democratic society, it seems contradictory to trade liberties for safety on a daily basis in the anticipation of crisis event. Students' responses in this part of the survey seem to reinforce safety above other individual rights. This 'guilty until proven innocent' approach seemed acceptable if enforced by the SRO.

<div align="center">Limitations of Study</div>

The limitations to this study are numerous and quite varied. The first limitation was the lack of academic research available regarding students' perceptions of safety measures within their schools. The lack of pre-existing conceptual underpinnings and the lack of any pre-existing survey items concerning students' perceptions and safety measures hindered this study as well. This study should have been broken into three different studies. By breaking the study into the categories of students' perceptions of

their rights, students' perceptions of surveillance cameras, and students' perceptions of SROs, more descriptive and detailed data could have been gathered.

The next limitation is more specific questions addressing each section of the survey need to be developed and piloted. Students seemed overwhelmed and a bit disorientated by the three different directions of the survey. Although the researcher's intent of safety seemed to tie the parts of the survey together, better data could be garnered with more specific definitions and more precise wording of the survey items.

This study was also limited by the geographical location and composition of the participants. A revised version of the study would need to be developed, piloted, and administered in a variety of schools, grade levels, and compared with schools who do not use surveillance cameras or SROs as safety measures. The lack of consideration of gender also impeded the interpretation of the data.

Implications for Leadership

The implications for leadership are as varied as the school districts across America; however, generalizations can be made which could improve secondary school cultures. Administrators and teachers need to be more engaged in creating cultures of learning rather than cultures of authoritarian rule. Students' responses indicated if students were more happy and involved in the culture of their schools, they would be more engaged.

In considering Morgan's (2006) psychic prison, those with authority in secondary schools should acknowledge favored ways of thinking and acting that become traps confining individuals to socially constructed worlds. Counts (1932/1978) stated decades earlier schools should shape society, society should not shape schools. Those with

authority over and in public schools seem to have allowed society's fear of random acts of violence to construct school cultures. This in no means suggests those with authority in schools should abandon creating safe environments. It does suggest those with authority should involve everyone including students in creating these safe, learning cultures.

As school leaders move to placing more emphasis on creating safe cultures, these leaders need to avoid creating prison like cultures. Morgan (2006) suggested, "There is great merit in recognizing the prisonlike qualities of a culture…The Psychic Prison metaphor alerts us to pathologies that may accompany our ways of thinking and encourages us to question the fundamental premises on which we enact everyday reality" (p. 211). Educational leaders need to constantly question proposed safety measures. Proposed safety measures need to be evaluated and weighed against the democratic cultures of schools.

Plato (Jowett, 2000) wrote, "The instrument of knowledge can only by the movement of the whole soul be turned from the world of becoming into that of being, or in other words, of the good" (p. 178). Educational leaders should recognize authoritarian cultures which have resulted from society's obsession with safety, to cultures which seek, evaluate, and make decisions about safety based on meaningful research. Plato (Jowett, 2000) challenged those with authority to share their currency (knowledge) with those not having authority. This sharing of knowledge would serve to improve and strengthen the society for everyone.

As public education develops and changes to meet the needs of modern society, it is important educational leaders remember the ideology of social justice. Dantley and Tillman (2005) stated, "Social justice demands deconstructing those realities in order to

disclose the multiple ways schools and their leadership reproduce marginalizing and inequitable treatment" (p. 23). This study helps to confirm the need that educational leaders within secondary schools should consider how safety measures employed within their school affects their students. This understanding could help leaders implement safety measures benefitting all members of the secondary educational environment.

Future Studies

This study only opens the door for dialogues to begin developing between students, teachers, and administrators about the cultures that have, currently, and will exist in public secondary institutions. Academic literature needs to study past events to understand current events. Academic literature also must begin to offer more timely, unique, and innovative solutions to educational success and failures. For example, bullying has been studied extensively, and the studies have documented students' fear of victimization, marginalization, and such disenfranchisement from the culture that students such as Dylan Klebold and Eric Harris lashed out violently at their peers. Yet, fourteen years after Columbine, a student in this study wrote of witnessing another student being bullied about his/her sexual orientation as administrators and teachers watched. The student's response stated educational leaders took no action to stop the bullying. Another student wrote of being disciplined after falsely being accused of possessing drugs, interrogated, and searched for the illegal substance. Another student documented watching a teacher embarrass a classmate until the classmate shed tears.

Academic research has documented the phenomenon of bullying and the impacts of bullying. However, a future study could consider the rhetoric of authority within schools. This type of study could investigate what words represent authority within a

district, and how teachers/administrators use this rhetoric to intimidate or to control student behaviors. Another study could also be constructed documenting the rhetoric of authority between administrators and teachers. Both studies could offer valuable insights into how authority is constructed within schools through the use of language.

Another study could investigate how SROs are trained to interact with students. Many collegiate teacher preparation programs offer courses in classroom management and adolescent psychology. This study could be constructed to compare the experiences of individuals within a collegiate teacher preparation program and the preparation of individuals to be SROs. A similar study could be constructed for teachers and administrators to evaluate the effectiveness of the SRO within their schools. This study could also consider training programs the SRO offers to teachers and administrators in creating an environment of safety within the school.

This study needs to be analyzed, dissected, and recreated to generate items which are worded more precisely to generate more specific data. During this study, students' voices from a rural, suburban, and urban district all harmonized in creating a unified voice of being treated unfairly, marginalization, and disenfranchisement. The first part of this survey documented their feelings of being treated unfairly and being marginalized which seemed to help construct students' attitudes of disenfranchisement from the culture. More research is needed to determine what within secondary cultures is creating these perceptions and what can be done to combat these perceptions.

The second part of the survey investigated students' perceptions of surveillance cameras, and students' perceptions of surveillance cameras on their rights. Further studies need to be conducted to confirm or deny if this constant exposure to surveillance cameras

has led students to become desensitized to the presence and use of surveillance cameras by those with authority in secondary schools. The concept of safety needs to be more clearly defined as to incorporate safety threats from outside the building and safety threats from inside the building. The purpose of separating the concepts would yield data more specific to threats of personal safety not unattended items being stolen.

The third part of the survey could be extended into students' perceptions of the actual purpose of the SRO. Questions forming around the investigation of the SRO administering punishments for infractions of school rules, rather than criminal offenses, could be one direction for a future study. Another study could investigate the relationship between principals, teachers, and SROs within the building, and whether the SRO is seen as becoming the school's main disciplinarian. Another study could investigate if the SRO did become the school's main disciplinarian, would this shift in power move the school to a more democratic state mirroring larger society or a more totalitarian regime? A study could investigate the cost effectiveness of many schools employing a SRO.

Summary

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to investigate and to document junior and senior students' perceptions of their individual and collective rights in relation to surveillance cameras and school resource officers (SROs) as safety measures within their schools. Although this study has offered valuable insights into students' perceptions of their rights, students' perceptions of surveillance cameras, and students' perceptions of SROs, much more work needs to be done before this phenomenon can be understood fully. This chapter reviewed the study's findings, engaged an academic discussion, discussed limitations of the study, and offered suggestions for future studies. Although the tapestry of education has survived centuries of abuse, it still offers hope to those individuals that can see its beauty despite is raggedy edges.

Appendix A

Safety, Surveillance Cameras, and School Resource Officers

Please answer all the questions.

Gender:
[ ] Female
[ ] Male
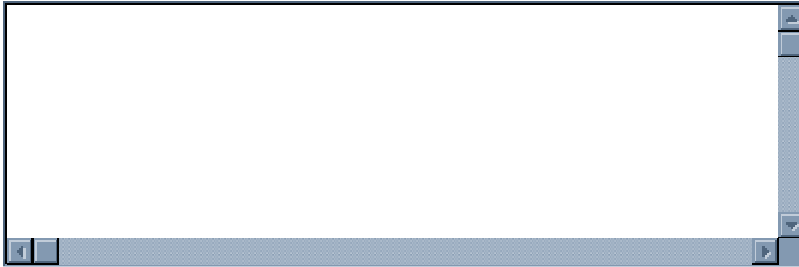
Grade level:
[ ] Senior (12th grade)
[ ] Junior (11th grade)

Public secondary schools serve an important function in democratic society.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Why should schools teach students about their constitutional rights?

I have thought about my rights as a student.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know
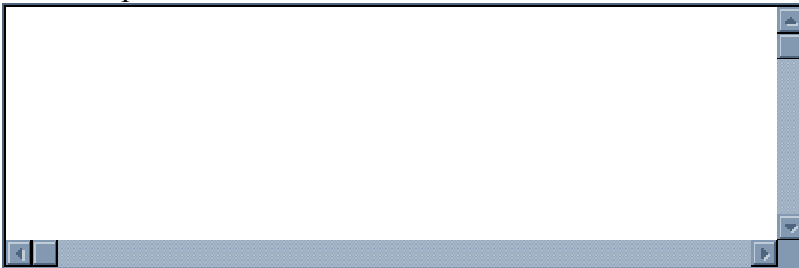
What rights are important to you while at school? Please explain.

[text input box]

I have thought about my rights as a citizen outside of school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Should students' rights inside of school be the same as students' rights outside of school? Please explain.

[text input box]

I have participated in discussions about students' rights with a teacher or an administrator while at school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Should students discuss their rights with administrators or teachers? Why or why not?

[text box]

Students participate in creating rules that govern behaviors at my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4. Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Why should student voices be considered by administrators or teachers when creating school rules?

[text box]

Administrators and teachers respect the rights of students.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please describe an example of when a students' rights were respected or were not respected by a teacher or administrator.

[ ]

Surveillance cameras increase safety in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
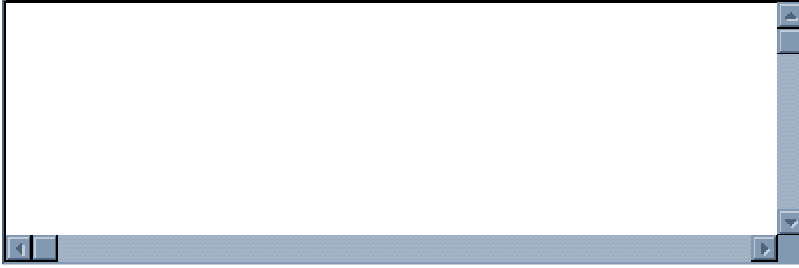( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please provide examples of how surveillance affect safety in your school.

[ ]

Surveillance cameras prevent bad behaviors or criminal activity from happening in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
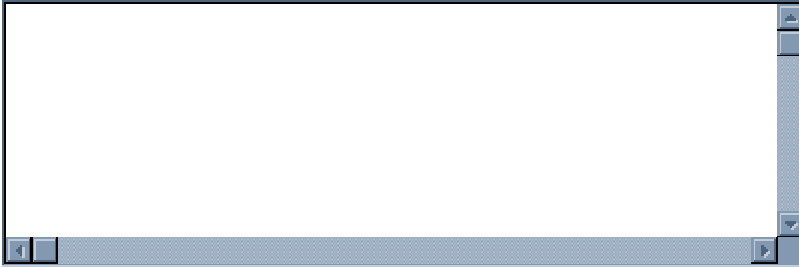( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please describe an incident of how surveillance cameras prevented bad behaviors or criminal activity from happening in your school.

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Surveillance camera recordings are used to punish students in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Agree
( ) 3 Somewhat Agree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
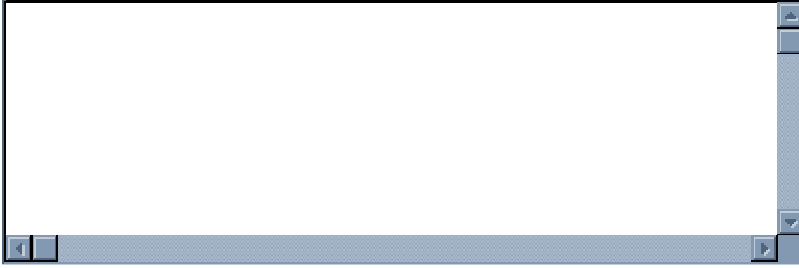( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please describe an incident of how a surveillance camera recording was used to punish a student in your school.

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I feel safer knowing surveillance cameras are used in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
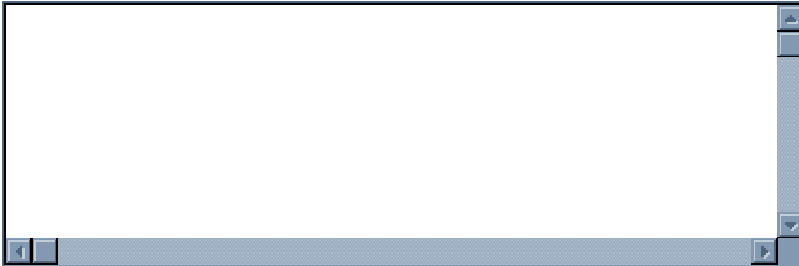( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please explain how surveillance cameras increase or decrease your personal feelings of safety while at school.

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```

Surveillance cameras violate student privacy in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
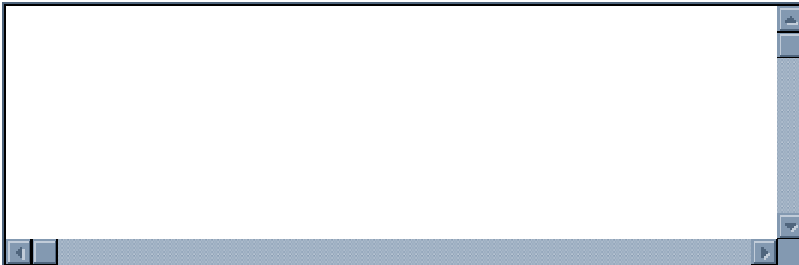( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Are surveillance cameras a violation of students' privacy? Please explain.

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The school's resource officer increases safety in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
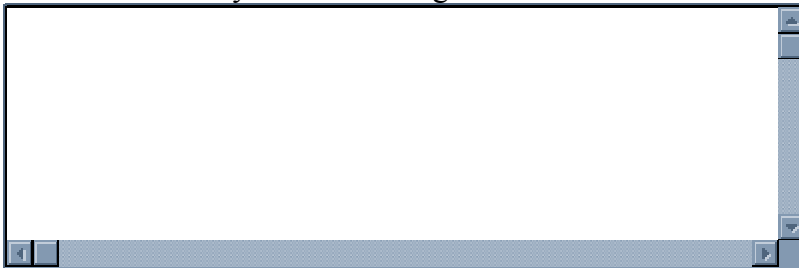( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please describe how the school's resource officer increases safety in your school.

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The school's resource officer prevents misbehavior or criminal activity from occurring in my school.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
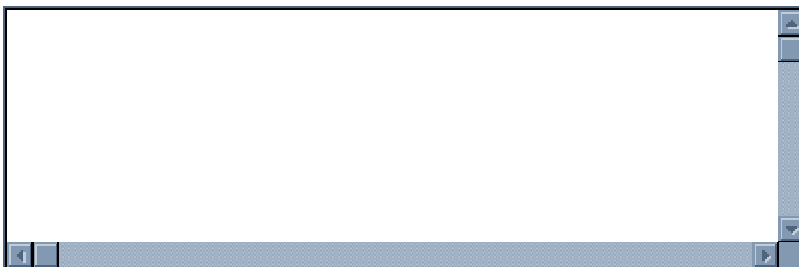( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

Please describe an incident in which the school's resource officer prevented misbehavior or criminal activity from occurring.

The school's resource officer is used to punish students after an incident of misbehavior or criminal activity has occurred.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know
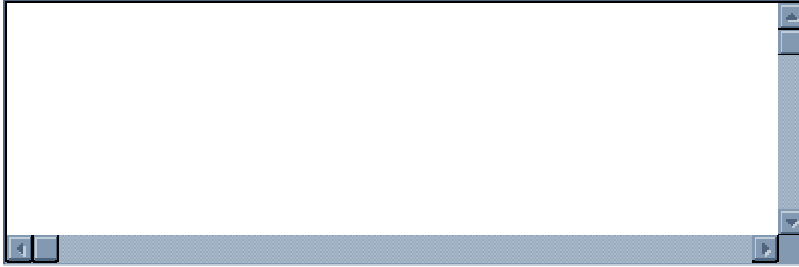
Please describe an incident in which the school's resource officer was used to punish a student.

I feel safer knowing my school has a resource officer.
( ) 1 Strongly Disagree
( ) 2 Disagree
( ) 3 Somewhat Disagree
( ) 4 Somewhat Agree
( ) 5 Agree
( ) 6 Strongly Agree
( ) 7 I Do Not Know

How does the school's employment of a resource officer make you feel safer?

[Submit]

https://docs.google.com/spreadsheet/viewform?fromEmail=true&formkey=dEkwekZYYj
BZeDlmSnVPd2xYN1FnNnc6MQ

Appendix B

Interview Protocol Project: Students' Perceptions of Safety, Surveillance Cameras, and

School Resource Officers within their school

Time of interview: <u>45 minutes</u>

Date: _____

Site Number:_____

Interviewer: <u>John Horner____</u>

Interviewees: A: _____ (gender/grade level)   E: _____(gender/grade level)
                          B:_____(gender/grade level)   F: _____(gender/grade level)
                          C:_____(gender/grade level)   G:_____(gender/grade level)

This project is to gather data on how students perceive safety in regard to surveillance cameras and school resource officers located within their school. The purpose is to add rich description to answers provided on the Likert-Scale items and open-response items.

Questions:
1. How do you define safety? Are there any key terms you use when defining safety? (What words convey the meaning of safety to you?)

            Key words used: _____
                                    _____
                                    _____

2. How would you define safety in regard to your school environment? What key terms define safety in your school? What phrases have you heard repeated in your academic careers about school safety?

            Key words used:_____
                                    _____
                                    _____

3. Do you feel you have rights outside of school that you do not have while at school? If so, what are they?

Transition: Let's move the conversation in the direction of surveillance cameras.

4. How do surveillance cameras increase safety in your school (reference notes from group members and definitions of safety earlier – key words)?

5. Please describe or provide an incident of misbehavior or criminal activity that was prevented because of the surveillance cameras.

6. If misbehavior or crimes happen, where do those incidents occur most often? Why?

Transition: Let's discuss your school resource officer(s)?

7. Why does your school have a resource officer (reference words of safety used earlier during focus group)?

       Key words used:_____

                    _____

                    _____

8. Please describe incidents of misbehavior or criminal activity in your high school experiences (theft, bullying, fighting, drugs).

9. (Use experiences from above to form question) Was the school resource officer able to prevent <u>fill in blank with term from above)</u>_____ from happening? Why or why not?

10. If you were allowed to make suggestions about improving safety in your school, what would those suggestions be? Please explain why those suggestions would be more or less effective than surveillance cameras or school resource officers.

Appendix C

December 11, 2012

To Whom It May Concern:

We have worked with Mr. Horner, understand, and approve of Mr. Horner's survey to be administered in our school.

Superintendent's Signature: _____ Date:_____

Principal's Signature: _____ Date:_____

Appendix D

December 11, 2012

To Whom It May Concern:

I have worked with Mr. Horner, understand, and approve of Mr. Horner's survey to be administered in my classroom during a typical school day.

Cooperating Teacher's Signature:_____Date:_____
                            (senior grade level instructor)

Cooperating Teacher's Signature:_____Date:_____
                            (junior grade level instructor)

Appendix E

December 11, 2012

Dear Parents, Guardians, and Students,

This is a unique opportunity for your student to participate in a research study. My study will document junior and senior students' perceptions of safety, school resource officers, and surveillance cameras within their schools.

Students' responses are totally confidential, and students ***will not*** provide any personal information such as name or school. For data analysis, students will be asked to identify gender and grade level. Students participating in the study will be asked to complete a survey and provide short answers to survey items. A focus group will also be conducted as part of the research. Again, students participating in focus group will not provide any personal information other than grade level and gender.

Participation in this study is voluntary; however, you and your student must sign the attached permission form to participate. The University of Missouri demands that if student data is to be collected, then parental or guardian permission must be obtained. The permission form is attached, and as you will notice, the permission form is full of jargon and cumbersome to read. A quick summary of the permission form: individual students participating in the study will not and cannot be identified from their answers.

I hope you will allow your student to participate in this study. The data generated will help to provide insight into how students view their schools in regard to safety. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at my home number: 417.234.6844 or through email jrhwb3@mail.missouri.edu.

Thank you for taking the time to allow your students to participate and assist me in completing my educational endeavors.

Sincerely,

John Horner
University of Missouri-Columbia

Appendix F

December 11, 2012

Dear Parent or Guardian,

Thank you for your consideration to allow your child to participate in this study. The purpose of this study is to document and describe students' perceptions of school resource officers and surveillance cameras in their secondary schools. The study is being conducted to fulfill requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Missouri-Columbia.

Before you make a final decision about participation, please read how your child's rights will be protected:

- Participation in the study is completely voluntary. Your student may stop participating at any moment without penalty.
- Students need not answer all the questions.
- Student answers are kept anonymous. Results of survey answers, open response answers, and focus groups will be documented in summary form only. No personal identifying information will be collected.
- Student participation will take approximately 45 minutes. During this time students will be asked to complete a Likert Scale survey and provide responses to the survey statements.
- The data collected will be held in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's office and disposed of at the end of the study.
- Answers provided on the survey and open response spaces cannot and will not be identified with a particular student.
- Students participating in the focus group will be asked to provide statements during the focus group that will be recorded. These answers will be coded, transcribed, and referenced for the study; student participants will not be identified during the recording. The focus group will take place immediately after school and will last one hour.

This study will help the researcher contribute to the body of academic literature concerning safety measures in public schools. Currently, relatively few studies exist where students have been able to provide their perceptions and opinions about surveillance cameras and school resources officers. As the researcher, I feel it is important to consider and to document the perceptions and opinions of students about the culture of their learning environment.

This study involves minimal risk to the student which means that the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.

You may contact the Campus Institutional Review Board if you have questions about participants' rights, concerns, complaints or comments as the parent or guardian of a research participant. You can contact the Campus Institutional Review Board directly by telephone or email to voice or solicit any concerns, questions, input or complaints about the research study; E-mail: umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu and Phone number: 573.882.9585. This project is being supervised by Dr. Cindy MacGregor, MU-MSU EdD Site Coordinator, 417.836.6046.

To allow your child to participate in this study, please fill out the consent form on the opposite side of this paper. Please feel free to contact me at 417.234.6844 or jrhwb3@mail.missouri.edu if you have questions or concerns about participating in this study.

Sincerely,

John Horner, ABD
University Missouri – Columbia

As the parent or legal guardian of _____, I give permission for him or her to participate in the study being conducted by John Horner.

I understand that:

My student's answers will only be used for educational research.

- Student participation is voluntary.
- Students may stop participating at any point without penalty.
- Students need not answer all the questions.
- Student answers will be kept anonymous.
- Students will not be asked to provide any personal identifying information except gender and secondary grade level.

I have read the information above and any questions have been resolved to my satisfaction. I agree to allow my child to participate in this study realizing that the student may withdraw without prejudice at any time.

Please initial:

_____ My student **is allowed** to participate in the focus group.

_____ My student **is not allowed** to participate in the focus group.

Parent/Guardian's Signature: _____Date:_____

Appendix G

December 11, 2012

Dear Research Participant,

Thank you for your consideration to participate in this study. The purpose of this study is to document and describe students' perceptions of school resource officers and surveillance cameras in their secondary schools. The study is being conducted to fulfill requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Missouri-Columbia.

Before you make a final decision about participation, please read how your rights as a student participant will be protected:

- Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may stop participating at any moment without penalty.
- You need not answer all the questions.
- Your answers are kept anonymous. Results of survey answers, open response answers, and focus groups will be documented in summary form only. No personal identifying information will be collected.
- Your participation will take approximately 45 minutes. During this time you will be asked to complete a Likert Scale survey and provide responses to the survey statements.
- The data collected will be held in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's office and disposed of at the end of the study.
- Answers provided on the survey and open response spaces cannot and will not be identified with a particular student.
- Students participating in the focus group will be asked to provide statements during the focus group that will be recorded. These answers will be coded, transcribed, and referenced for the study; student participants will not be identified during the recording. The focus group will take place immediately after school and will last one hour.

You may contact the Campus Institutional Review Board if you have questions about your rights, concerns, complaints or comments as a research participant. You can contact the Campus Institutional Review Board directly by telephone or email to voice or solicit any concerns, questions, input or complaints about the research study; E-mail: umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu and Phone number: 573.882.9585. This project is being supervised by Dr. Cindy MacGregor, MU-MSU EdD Site Coordinator, 417.836.6046.

To participate in this study, please fill out the consent form on the opposite side of this paper. Please feel free to contact me at 417.234.6844 or jrhwb3@mail.missouri.edu if you have questions or concerns about participating in this study.

Sincerely,

John Horner, ABD
University Missouri – Columbia
As a student participant, I understand that:

My answers will only be used for educational research.

- My participation is voluntary.
- I may stop participating at any point without penalty.
- I need not answer all the questions.
- My answers will be kept anonymous.
- I will not be asked to provide any personal identify information except gender and secondary grade level.

I have read the information above and any questions have been resolved to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this study realizing I may withdraw without prejudice at any time.

Student's Signature: _____Date:_____

Student's Grade level:_____

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VITA

John Horner graduated in 1993 from Missouri State University (MSU) where he majored in Organizational Communication and minored in English. After a brief stint in the business world, he returned to MSU to follow his original plan of being a secondary education speech/debate teacher. From 1995 – 2004, John served Reeds Spring as speech/debate director, theater director, and as an English teacher. During this time John's students qualified to state and national contests and earned a state title. John was recognized several times as Southwest Missouri Speech and Theater Association's Outstanding Member and Outstanding Teacher. In the fall of 2004, John became Nixa High School's speech and debate director. While at Nixa High School, John has qualified numerous students to state, national and internal competitions. During his tenure at Nixa, John's students have won five state championships, two national titles, and a third place international finish. John has been recognized for his accomplishments and years of service by the National Forensic League's Diamond Coaching Award. After finishing his doctorate, John plans to return to higher education to obtain his administrative certification, spend more time with his dog Scruffy, and anxiously awaits the birth of his niece Haley Dale.