

The School to Prison Pipeline: National and Local

TABLE 1
School-to-Prison Definitions Drawn from the Literature

| | |
|---|---|
| The school to prison pipeline refers to this growing pattern of tracking students out of educational institutions, primarily via “zero tolerance” policies, and, directly and/or indirectly, into the juvenile and adult criminal justice systems. | Heitzeg, 2009, p. 1 |
| “School-to-Prison Pipeline”—the use of educational policies and practices that have the effect of pushing students, especially students of color and students with disabilities, out of schools and toward the juvenile and criminal justice systems. | Advancement Project et al., 2011, p. 2 |
| The School to Prison Pipeline proposes that exclusionary discipline techniques (e.g., detention, out of school suspension, disciplinary alternative education placements) experienced by African American males alienate them from the learning process by steering them from the classroom and academic attainment and toward the criminal justice system. | Darensbourg, Perez, & Blake, 2010, p. 197 |
| The “school-to-prison pipeline” refers to the policies and practices that push our nation’s schoolchildren, especially our most at-risk children, out of classrooms and into the juvenile and criminal justice systems. | ACLU, 2008 |
| The “school-to-prison pipeline” refers to policies and practices that systemically push at-risk youth out of mainstream public schools and into the juvenile or criminal justice systems. | Kim, 2003, p. 956 |
| These phrases refer to a journey through school that is increasingly punitive and isolating for its travelers—many of whom will be placed in restrictive special education programs, repeatedly suspended, held back in grade, and banished to alternative, “outplacements” before finally dropping or getting “pushed out” of school altogether. | Wald & Losen, 2003, p. 3 |
| The “School-to-Prison Pipeline” (STPP) refers to the framework of the United States school system that, by design, pushes students out of public schools through suspension or expulsion and into a juvenile detention facility or prison. | Burris, 2012, p. 2 |

(Skiba et al., 2014)

I. Origins: zero-tolerance and exclusionary disciplinary policies

A. National

- i. “The history and etymology of the term ‘zero tolerance’ can be traced back to the 1980s during State and Federal efforts to combat drugs, or what became known during the 1980s as the ‘war on drugs’” (Teske, 2011, p. 88).
- ii. “By the early 1990s, school systems began to adopt [the] ‘Broken Windows’ approach, or zero tolerance, for minor school infractions by suspending students for up to 10 days” (Teske, 2011, p. 89).
- iii. The number of students suspended annually nearly doubled from 1.7 million in 1974 to 3.1 million in 2001 (Poe-Yamagata & Jones, 2000).

- iv. The Center for Civil Rights Remedies estimates that “U.S. public school children lost nearly 18 million days of instruction in just one school year because of exclusionary discipline” (Losen et al., 2015, p. 4).
- v. “For out-of-school suspension, the use of the procedure is not restricted to serious or dangerous behavior, but rather appears to be most commonly used for more interactive day-to-day disruptions, especially defiance and non-compliance” (Skiba et al., 2014, p. 557).
- vi. “Loss of classroom instruction time damages student performance. For example, one recent study (Attendance Works, 2014) found that missing three days of school in the month before taking the National Assessment of Educational Progress translated into fourth graders scoring a full grade level lower in reading on this test” (Losen et al., 2015, p. 4).
- vii. “suspension and expulsion are in and of themselves a developmental risk factor [for further negative outcomes e.g., juvenile justice involvement], above and beyond any behavioral or demographic risks students bring with them” (Skiba et al., 2014, p. 557).
- viii. “The single largest predictor of later arrest among adolescent females is having been suspended, expelled, or held back during the middle school years” (American Bar Association & National Bar Association, 2002; as cited in Wald et al., 2003).

B. Local

- i. During the 2012-2013 school year in RI:
 - 1. “The overuse of suspensions continued in the lowest grades. Nearly 1,400 elementary school students were suspended in the last school year; 147 of them were in the first grade.”
 - 2. “More than 60 percent of suspensions were served for low-risk behavioral infractions, with black and Hispanic students serving a majority of these suspensions.”
 - 3. “‘Disorderly Conduct’ and ‘Insubordination/Disrespect’ alone accounted for one-third of all suspensions, and almost 60 percent of all suspensions at the high school level. At the elementary school level, Black and Hispanic students were suspended for these two offenses nearly three and a half times what is expected given their representation in the population.”
 - 4. “Black students were suspended from school with record high disparity, while white students were suspended at a record low disparity.”
 - 5. “A new law prohibiting suspensions for attendance issues resulted in a tremendous drop in the number of suspensions

issued, but the number of suspensions for low-risk behavioral infractions increased by more than four hundred.

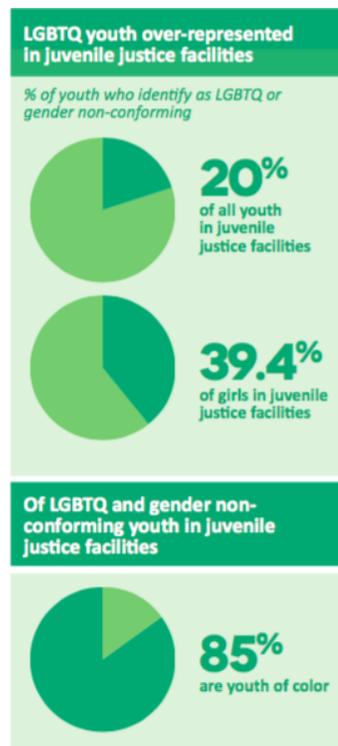
6. The vast majority of Rhode Island's school districts and charter schools continued to disproportionately suspend black and Hispanic students at rates disproportionate to their representation on the student body. These disparities existed regardless of the demographic characteristics of the school district.
- ii. "Students who are suspended or expelled are more likely than their peers to drop out of school altogether. In Rhode Island:
 1. For every 100 White students enrolled in the public schools, there were 6.7 suspensions.
 2. For every 100 Asian/Pacific Islander students enrolled in the public schools, there were 7.2 suspensions.
 3. For every 100 American Indian/Alaska Native students enrolled in the public schools, there were 11.8 suspensions.
 4. For every 100 Latino students enrolled in the public schools, there were 12.6 suspensions.
 5. For every 100 Black students enrolled in the public schools, there were 14.6 suspensions" (Children's Defense Fund, 2009).

II. Disparate effects on marginalized groups

A. National

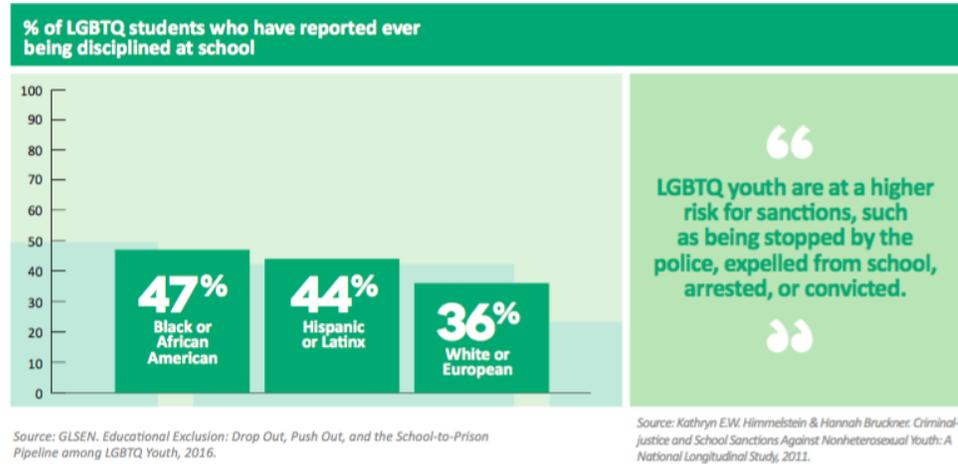
- i. "Throughout the United States, schools most frequently punish the students who have the greatest academic, social, economic, and emotional needs (Johnson, Boyden, & Pittz, 2001; as cited in Noguera, 2003).
- ii. Students who are mostly likely to receive severe punishments and be pushed out of school are "minorities (especially Blacks and Latinos), males, low achievers generally, [...] students with learning disabilities, students in foster care or under some form of protective custody, and students who are homeless or on free or reduced-price lunch" (Skiba, 2000; as cited in Noguera, 2003).
- iii. "Black K-12 students are 3.8 times as likely to receive one or more out-of-school suspensions as white students" (CRDC, 2016).
- iv. "In 1998, black youths with no prior criminal records were six times, and Latino youths three times, more likely to be incarcerated than whites for the same offenses" (Poe-Yamagata & Jones, 2000; as cited in Wald et al., 2003).
- v. "An estimated 70 percent of the juvenile justice population suffer from learning disabilities, and 33 percent read below the fourth-grade level" (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2001; as cited in Wald et al., 2001).

- vi. “African Americans, while representing 17% of the youth population, account for 45% of all juvenile arrests” (NAACP, 2005; as cited in Heitzeg, 2009).
- vii. “Black youth are 2 times more likely than white youth to be arrested, to be referred to juvenile court, to be formally processed and adjudicated as delinquent or referred to the adult criminal justice system, and they are 3 times more likely than white youth to be sentenced to out-of-home residential placement” (Panel on Justice 2001; Walker, Spohn and Delone 2007; as cited in Heitzeg, 2009).
- viii. Even when controlling for socioeconomic background, “race still makes a significant contribution to who gets suspended” (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2000; as cited in Skiba & Knesting, 2001).
- ix. “investigations of student behavior, race, and discipline have found no evidence that African Americans misbehave at a significantly higher rate” (Skiba & Knesting, 2001).
- x. “research suggests that black students tend to receive harsher punishments than white students and that those harsher consequences may be administered for less severe offenses [such as] loitering, disrespect, and excessive noise” (Skiba & Knesting, 2001).
- xi.



Source: Center for American Progress, Movement Advancement Project, Youth First. Unjust: LGBTQ youth incarcerated in the juvenile justice system, 2017.

xii.



xiii.

Graphics source: (CA LGBTQ Health & Human Service Network & NorCal Mental Health America, n.d.)

- xiv. “Students with disabilities served by IDEA (12%) are more than twice as likely to receive one or more out-of-school suspensions as students without disabilities (5%)” (CRDC, 2016).
- xv. “Black girls are 8% of enrolled students, but 13% of students receiving one or more out-of-school suspensions” (CRDC, 2016).
- xvi. “American Indian or Alaska Native, Latino, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and multiracial boys are also disproportionately suspended from school, representing 15% of K-12 students but 19% of K-12 students receiving one or more out-of-school suspensions” (CRDC, 2016).

B. Local

- i. “Rhode Island suspends Latino students at a higher rate than any other state, at 21% in secondary schools (Losen et al., 2015, p. 24).
- ii. “At the elementary school level, Black and Hispanic students were suspended for [“Disorderly Conduct” and “Insubordination/Disrespect”] nearly three and a half times what is expected given their representation in the population” (ACLU of RI | “Blacklisted: An Update,” 2014).
- iii. “The vast majority of Rhode Island’s school districts and charter schools continued to disproportionately suspend black and Hispanic students at rates disproportionate to their representation on the student body. These disparities existed regardless of the demographic characteristics of the school district (ACLU of RI | “Blacklisted: An Update,” 2014).
- iv. “As the chart on the following page indicates, racial disparities in school suspensions remain a statewide problem. The disparities appear in both urban and rural districts, and in homogenous and diverse communities” (ACLU of RI | “Blacklisted: An Update,” 2014).

- v. “Rhode Island’s juvenile justice system has some of the widest placement disparities between White and minority youth in the nation” (RI KIDS COUNT, as cited in “The School-To-Prison Pipeline: Juvenile Justice”).
- vi. “Youth of color are disproportionately more likely than White youth to be detained or sentenced to the Training School. During 2016, Black youth made up 28% of youth at the Training School, while making up 6% of the child population” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Youth at the Training School”).
- vii. “In Rhode Island, black males are 9.3 times as likely as white males to end up in juvenile detention” (ACLU of RI | “The School-To-Prison Pipeline: Juvenile Justice”).

| School District or Charter School | Black % of Student Body | Black % of Suspended Students | Ratio of Black Suspensions to Population | Hispanic % of Student Body | Hispanic % of Suspended Students | Ratio of Hispanic Suspensions to Population | White % of Student Body | White % of Suspended Students | Ratio of White Suspensions to Population |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|--|----------------------------|----------------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Barrington | 0.80% | 1.64% | 2.05 | 1.25% | 1.79% | 1.43 | 90.89% | 85.25% | 0.94 |
| Beacon Charter | 6.09% | 5.88% | 0.97 | 9.57% | 0.00% | 0.00 | 80.00% | 88.24% | 1.10 |
| Blackstone Academy | 21.21% | 13.33% | 0.63 | 56.97% | 50.00% | 0.88 | 14.55% | 13.33% | 0.92 |
| Bristol Warren | 2.30% | 3.83% | 1.67 | 4.19% | 5.63% | 1.34 | 88.89% | 62.02% | 0.70 |
| Burrillville | 1.37% | 3.11% | 2.27 | 2.70% | 5.69% | 2.11 | 93.69% | 47.56% | 0.51 |
| Central Falls | 13.14% | 5.13% | 0.39 | 73.90% | 84.44% | 1.14 | 10.47% | 12.82% | 1.22 |
| Chariho | 0.94% | 1.72% | 1.83 | 2.29% | 4.84% | 2.11 | 92.10% | 61.49% | 0.67 |
| Coventry | 1.39% | 3.17% | 2.28 | 2.78% | 3.93% | 1.41 | 93.96% | 72.85% | 0.78 |
| Cranston | 4.33% | 5.36% | 1.24 | 21.35% | 33.06% | 1.55 | 63.22% | 38.14% | 0.60 |
| Cumberland | 2.52% | 1.66% | 0.66 | 8.43% | 15.69% | 1.86 | 84.21% | 32.78% | 0.39 |
| East Greenwich | 0.88% | 3.85% | 4.38 | 4.48% | 13.64% | 3.05 | 86.99% | 65.38% | 0.75 |
| East Providence | 11.73% | 15.18% | 1.29 | 8.05% | 11.11% | 1.38 | 73.38% | 50.00% | 0.68 |
| Exeter-West Greenwich | 0.70% | 1.28% | 1.83 | 3.97% | 6.58% | 1.66 | 93.93% | 88.46% | 0.94 |
| Johnston | 4.26% | 2.55% | 0.60 | 12.58% | 15.97% | 1.27 | 79.73% | 47.96% | 0.60 |
| Lincoln | 2.32% | 6.59% | 2.84 | 5.06% | 8.95% | 1.77 | 90.15% | 96.41% | 1.07 |
| MET Career & Tech | 14.52% | 19.44% | 1.34 | 42.05% | 40.91% | 0.97 | 34.91% | 8.33% | 0.24 |
| Middletown | 5.37% | 15.46% | 2.88 | 9.82% | 10.59% | 1.08 | 74.99% | 53.61% | 0.71 |
| Narragansett | 1.38% | 3.39% | 2.46 | 2.69% | 4.62% | 1.72 | 90.50% | 93.22% | 1.03 |
| Newport | 19.93% | 27.51% | 1.38 | 20.60% | 22.87% | 1.11 | 47.38% | 23.14% | 0.49 |
| North Kingstown | 1.59% | 10.11% | 6.34 | 3.24% | 4.08% | 1.26 | 90.82% | 89.89% | 0.99 |
| North Providence | 8.58% | 10.54% | 1.23 | 16.26% | 17.00% | 1.05 | 69.51% | 48.80% | 0.70 |
| North Smithfield | 0.69% | 4.65% | 6.78 | 5.71% | 15.56% | 2.72 | 89.94% | 79.07% | 0.88 |
| Paul Cuffee Charter | 23.55% | 38.24% | 1.62 | 59.01% | 53.95% | 0.91 | 10.32% | 7.35% | 0.71 |
| Pawtucket | 25.76% | 28.84% | 1.12 | 31.74% | 35.16% | 1.11 | 34.15% | 21.81% | 0.64 |
| Portsmouth | 2.37% | 13.19% | 5.56 | 3.35% | 11.40% | 3.41 | 90.71% | 95.60% | 1.05 |
| Providence | 18.16% | 21.98% | 1.21 | 63.82% | 59.33% | 0.93 | 8.82% | 5.51% | 0.62 |
| Smithfield | 1.33% | 3.23% | 2.43 | 4.02% | 8.64% | 2.15 | 91.16% | 74.19% | 0.81 |
| South Kingstown | 1.88% | 5.38% | 2.87 | 3.63% | 9.09% | 2.50 | 86.99% | 74.19% | 0.85 |
| Tiverton | 0.95% | 2.56% | 2.70 | 0.47% | 0.93% | 1.95 | 97.47% | 87.18% | 0.89 |
| Urban Collaborative | 14.48% | 7.41% | 0.51 | 73.79% | 85.71% | 1.16 | 7.59% | 0.00% | 0.00 |
| Warwick | 2.37% | 2.75% | 1.16 | 6.05% | 7.04% | 1.16 | 86.35% | 72.17% | 0.84 |
| West Warwick | 4.27% | 1.61% | 0.38 | 10.84% | 12.29% | 1.13 | 80.21% | 58.87% | 0.73 |
| Westerly | 1.40% | 2.03% | 1.45 | 6.23% | 10.53% | 1.69 | 83.86% | 51.27% | 0.61 |
| Woonsocket | 10.21% | 10.77% | 1.06 | 29.32% | 36.51% | 1.25 | 49.34% | 28.78% | 0.58 |

Ratio of < 0.90 = *Undersuspension*
Ratio between .90 and 1.10 = Normal range
Ratio > 1.10 = *Oversuspension*

Table 6. School District and Charter School Suspension Rates 2012-2013

III. Children of incarcerated parents (CIP)

A. National

- i. “Black youth are increasingly likely to have a parent in prison -- among those born in 1990, one in four black children had a father in prison by age

14. Risk is concentrated among black children whose parents are high-school dropouts; 50% of those children had a father in prison” (Wildeman 2009, as cited in Heitzeg, 2009).

- ii. “While young black children represent about 17 percent of the nation’s youth, they now account for more than 50% of the children in foster care [...] due to the incarceration of parents” (Roberts 2004; Brewer 2007; Bernstein 2005).
- iii. Research estimates that “three out of ten [children of incarcerated parents] may become justice-involved” (Conway & Jones, 2015).
- iv. “CIP are labeled, associated with negative attributes, and devalued;” qualitative studies have shown that CIP feel a stigma from their peers and that teachers rate CIP as less competent than other children (Conway & Jones, 2015).
- v. One study found that “children of incarcerated parents are significantly more likely to be suspended and expelled from school” (The Pew Charitable Trusts, 2010; as cited in Martin, 2017).
- vi. “Children whose parents are incarcerated are at higher risk for increased antisocial behaviors and psychological problems, such as depression” (Martin, 2017).

B. Local

- i. “10,000 Rhode Island children (5% of all children in the state)... have experienced the separation of a parent due to parental incarceration at some point during their childhood” (RI KIDS Count | “Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island,” 2017).
- ii. “From 2011 to 2016, the rate of Rhode Island children with incarcerated parents has increased from 10.9 per 1,000 children to 12.7 per 1,000 children” (RI KIDS Count | “Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island,” 2017).
- iii. “Of the 1,857 parents incarcerated in Rhode Island on September 30, 2016 (including those awaiting trial), 93% (1,730) were fathers and 7% (127) were mothers” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island,” 2017).
- iv. “In Rhode Island, Black children are more than eight times more likely to have an incarcerated parent than White children” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island,” 2017).
- v. Rates of children of incarcerated parents are highest in the four core cities of Central Falls, Pawtucket, Providence, and Woonsocket, as well as Newport and West Warwick, communities with high poverty rates, and

high percentages of children of color” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island,” 2017).

- vi. “In State Fiscal Year 2016, 5% (51) of children in Rhode Island entered the foster care system with parental incarceration as one of the reasons for entry” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island,” 2017).

IV. Increased surveillance and criminalization of youth

A. National

- i. “Since 1992, forty- five states have passed laws making it easier to try juveniles as adults, and thirty-one have stiffened sanctions against youths for a variety of offenses. Despite a precipitous drop in juvenile crime during the last half of the 1990s, the number of formally processed cases involving juveniles—most of them nonviolent cases—increased, along with the number of youths held in secure facilities for nonviolent offenses” (as cited in Wald et al 2003).
- ii. In addition to exclusionary disciplinary practices, other factors that contribute to the STPP include “an increase in the presence of police in schools, and the enactment of new laws mandating referral of children to law enforcement authorities for a variety of school code violations” (Wald et al., 2003).
- iii. “Growing numbers of districts employ school resource officers (SROs) to patrol school hallways, often with little or no training in working with youth. As a result, children are far more likely to be subject to school-based arrests—the majority of which are for nonviolent offenses, such as disruptive behavior—than they were a generation ago” (ACLU, 2008).
- iv. “24% of elementary schools (grades K-6, excluding justice facilities) have [sworn law enforcement officers (SLEOs), including school resource officers (SROs)]; 42% of high schools (grades 9-12, excluding justice facilities) have SLEOs” (CRDC, 2016).
- v. “51% of high schools with [more than 75%] black and Latino student enrollment have SLEOs” (CRDC, 2016).
- vi. “the presence of SROs on campus [...] increases the likelihood of arrest for crimes among children under the age of 15” (Owens, 2016, as cited in Cole, 2019).
- vii. “Schools with school resource officers (SROs) refer children to the juvenile legal system for “disorderly conduct” at a rate almost five times that of schools without SROs” (Theriot, 2009, as cited in Dolan et al., 2018).

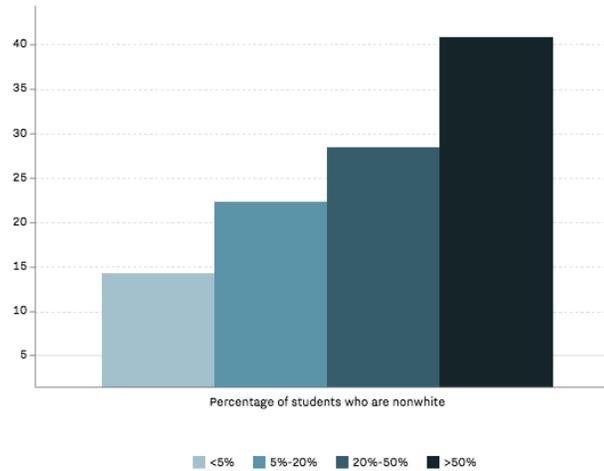
viii. In the 2013-2014 school year, “More than 100,000 students were placed in seclusion or involuntary confinement or were physically restrained at school to immobilize them or reduce their ability to move freely — including almost 69,000 students with disabilities served by IDEA” (CRDC, 2016).

ix.

Schools with more nonwhite students have more school police



Percentage of public schools with at least one full-time School Resource Officer (SRO)



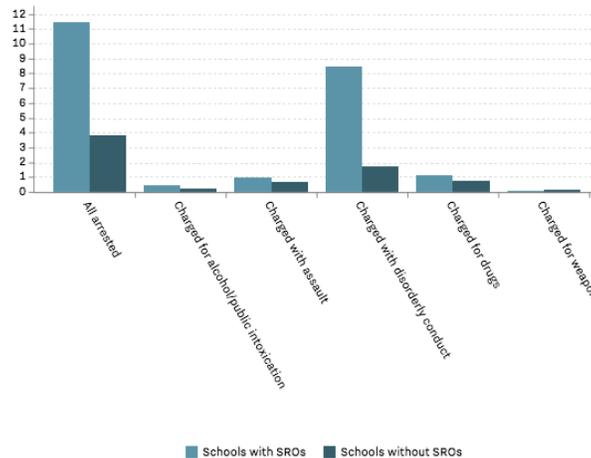
Source: National Center for Education Statistics, School Crime and Safety survey, (average of 2005-6, 2007-8, and 2009-10 data)



The biggest impact of police in schools? More "disorderly conduct" charges



Rates of arrests and charges for surveyed schools with School Resource Officers (SROs) and schools without them, controlling for socioeconomic status.



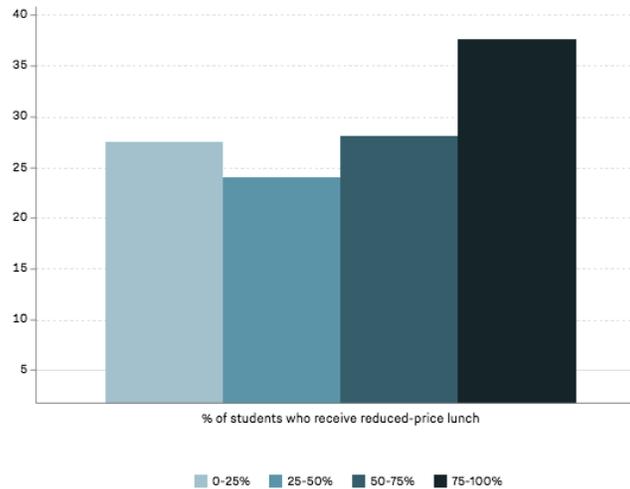
Source: Theriot, "School Resource Officers and the Criminalization of Student Behavior," Journal of Criminal Justice, 2009.



Only the poorest students have more police in schools



Percentage of public schools with at least one full-time School Resource Officer (SRO)



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Indicators of School Crime and Safety survey (average of 2005-6, 2007-8, and 2009-10 data) **Vox**

X.

Graphics source: (Lind, 2015).

B. Local

- i. According to Tim Ryan, executive director of the Rhode Island Association of School Superintendents, “We already have school resource officers in every high school and almost every middle school [in RI]” (as cited in Borg, 2017).

V. Drop-out and criminal justice involvement

A. National

- i. “An average of over 150,000 truancy (sometimes defined as just more than three days of unexcused absences from school) cases annually regularly result in fines, loss of custody, placement in foster care, even incarceration and probation for both juveniles and parents” (Goldstein, 2015; as cited in Dolan, et al., 2018)
- ii. “dropouts [compose] 82% of the adult prison population and 85% of juvenile justice cases” (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2001).
- iii. “Youth who drop out of school are three and a half times more likely than high school graduates to be arrested” (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2001).
- iv. “In the adult criminal system, 82 percent of prison inmates have dropped out of high school” (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2001).

- v. “Seventy-five percent of youths under age eighteen who have been sentenced to adult prisons have not passed tenth grade” (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2001; as cited in Wald et al., 2001).
- vi. “Youth tried and punished in the adult court system are more likely to re-offend and to commit future violent crimes than youth who commit similar crimes but who are in juvenile systems. Adolescents in the adult criminal justice system are at risk for sexual and physical victimization and disruptions in their development, including identity formation and relationship skills” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
- vii.

B. Local

- i. “Between 1995 and 2011, the juvenile arrest rate fell 56% in Rhode Island and 52% nationally” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
- ii. “Nationally and in Rhode Island, juvenile crime, including violent crimes, has fallen sharply since 1995” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
- iii. “In 2010, the rate at which states hold youth in secure confinement reached a 35-year low, with almost every state reducing the number and percentage of youth held in secure facilities” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
- iv. “During 2013 in Rhode Island, police detentions of youth occurred most frequently during school hours (9:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.) and after school and early evening (4:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m.)” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
- v. “In 2013, the Attorney General's Office filed 10 (four discretionary and six mandatory) motions to waive jurisdiction to try juveniles as adults” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
- vi. “The Rhode Island Department of Children, Youth and Families (DCYF) operates the Rhode Island Training School for Youth, the state’s secure facility for detained youth and adjudicated youth (those who have been sentenced by a judge)” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).
 - 1. “A total of 498 youth (85% male and 15% female) were in the care and custody of the Training School at some point during 2013.
 - 2. Fifty-six percent (281) of the 498 youth at the Training School during 2013 were from the four core cities (Central Falls,

Pawtucket, Providence, and Woonsocket), where two-thirds (64%) of Rhode Island's poor children live.

3. Twenty-nine (6%) of the 498 youth in the care or custody of the Training School during 2013 had at some point in their childhood been victims of documented child abuse or neglect” (RI KIDS COUNT | “Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island”).

References

- Advancement Project, Education Law Center, Fair Test, The Forum for Education and Democracy, Juvenile Law Center, & NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc. (2011). *Federal Policy, ESEA Reauthorization, and the School-to-Prison Pipeline*. Retrieved from https://www.fairtest.org/sites/default/files/Federal_Policy,_ESEA_Reauthorization,_and_the_School-to-Prison_Pipeline_-_03_09_11.pdf
- American Bar Association, & National Bar Association. (2002). Justice by Gender: The Lack of Appropriate Prevention, Diversion and Treatment Alternatives for Girls in the Justice System. *William & Mary Journal of Race, Gender, and Social Justice*, 9(1). Retrieved from <https://scholarship.law.wm.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.google.com/&httpsredir=1&article=1182&context=wmjowl>
- American Civil Liberties Union. (2008). Locating the School to Prison Pipeline. Retrieved March 27, 2019, from <https://www.aclu.org/node/29079%C2%A0>
- American Civil Liberties Union of Rhode Island. (2014). Blacklisted: An Update – Racial Bias in School Suspensions in Rhode Island in the 2012-2013 School Year. Retrieved from http://riaclu.org/images/uploads/Blacklisted_Report_2012_2013.pdf
- Borg, L. (2018, May 23). Putting more police in R.I. schools opposed at Senate hearing. Retrieved April 30, 2019, from providencejournal.com website: <https://www.providencejournal.com/news/20180523/putting-more-police-in-ri-schools-opposed-at-senate-hearing>

Burris, M. W. (2011). Mississippi and the School-to-Prison Pipeline. *Widener Journal of Law, Economics & Race*, 3. Retrieved from

http://blogs.law.widener.edu/wjler/files/2012/01/STPP_Burris.pdf

CA LGBTQ Health & Human Service Network, & NorCal Mental Health America. (n.d.).

LGBTQ Youth & the School-to-Prison Pipeline. Retrieved from

<https://www.sccgov.org/sites/bhd/info/Documents/LGBTQ%20Resources/O4MH/o4mh-schooltoprisonpipeline-factsheet-00-00-00.pdf>

Civil Rights Data Collection. (2016). *2013-2014 Civil Rights Data Collection: A First Look*.

U.S. Department of Education | Office of Civil Rights. Retrieved from

<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED577234.pdf>

Coalition for Juvenile Justice. (2001). *Abandoned in the Back Row: New Lessons in*

Education and Delinquency Prevention. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency

Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved from

https://www.juvjustice.org/sites/default/files/resource-files/resource_122_0.pdf

Cole, N. L. (2019, January 25). Understanding the School-to-Prison-Pipeline. Retrieved

March 29, 2019, from <https://www.thoughtco.com/school-to-prison-pipeline-4136170>

Conway, J. M., & Jones, E. T. (2015). *Seven Out of Ten? Not Even Close: A Review of*

Research on the Likelihood of Children with Incarcerated Parents Becoming

Justice-Involved. Central Connecticut State University: Institute for Municipal and

Regional Policy - The Children with Incarcerated Parents Initiative. Retrieved from

https://www.ccsu.edu/imrp/Publicatons/Files/CIP_Seven_Out_of_Ten_Not_Even_Close.pdf

- Darensbourg, A., Perez, E., & Blake, J. J. (2010). Overrepresentation of African American males in exclusionary discipline: The role of school-based mental health professionals in dismantling the school to prison pipeline. *Journal of African American Males in Education, 1*(3). Retrieved from <https://www.isbe.net/Documents/ovr-rep-afr-amer-males.pdf>
- Dolan, K., Slaughter-Johnson, E., & Sampson, M. (2018). *Students Under Siege: How the School-to-Prison Pipeline, Poverty, and Racism Endanger Our School Children*. Institute for Policy Studies. Retrieved from <https://ips-dc.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/KAREN-REPORT-2.pdf>
- Goldstein, D. (2015, March 6). Inexcusable Absences. *The New Republic*. Retrieved from <https://newrepublic.com/article/121186/truancy-laws-unfairly-attack-poor-children-and-parents>
- Heitzeg, N. A. (2009). Education or Incarceration: Zero Tolerance Policies and the School to Prison Pipeline. *Forum on Public Policy Online, 2009*(2). Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ870076>
- Kim, C. Y. (2010). Procedures for Public Law Remediation in School-to-Prison Pipeline Litigation: Lessons Learned from Antoine v. Winner School District. *New York Law School Law Review, 54*. Retrieved from https://scholarship.law.unc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.google.com/&httpsredir=1&article=1166&context=faculty_publications

Lind, D. (2015, October 28). Why having police in schools is a problem, in 3 charts.

Retrieved March 29, 2019, from

<https://www.vox.com/2015/10/28/9626820/police-school-resource-officers>

Losen, D., Hodson, C., Keith II, M. A., & Belway, S. (2015). *Are We Closing the School*

Discipline Gap? UCLA: The Center for Civil Rights Remedies. Retrieved from

https://civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/resources/projects/center-for-civil-rights-remedies/school-to-prison-folder/federal-reports/are-we-closing-the-school-discipline-gap/AreWeClosingTheSchoolDisciplineGap_FINAL221.pdf

Mallett, C. A. (2016). The School-to-Prison Pipeline: A Critical Review of the Punitive

Paradigm Shift. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal*, 33(1), 15–24.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-015-0397-1>

Martin, E. (2017). Hidden Consequences: The Impact of Incarceration on Dependent

Children. *National Institute of Justice Journal*, (278). Retrieved from

<https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/250349.pdf>

NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc. (2005). *Dismantling the*

School-to-Prison Pipeline. Retrieved from

https://www.naacpldf.org/wp-content/uploads/Dismantling_the_School_to_Prison_Pipeline_Criminal-Justice_.pdf

Owens, E. G. (2017). Testing the School-to-Prison Pipeline. *Journal of Policy Analysis and*

Management, 36(1), 11–37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.21954>

The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2010). *Collateral Costs: Incarceration's Effect on Economic*

Mobility. Washington, D.C.: The Pew Charitable Trusts. Retrieved from

https://www.pewtrusts.org/~media/legacy/uploadedfiles/pcs_assets/2010/collateralcosts1pdf.pdf

Poe-Yamagata, E., Jones, M. A., & Youth Law Center (U.S.). (2000). *And justice for some: Differential treatment of minority youth in the justice system*. Washington, D.C.: Youth Law Center. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com/books?id=Nj1IAAAAYAAJ>

Rhode Island KIDS COUNT. (2017). *Children of Incarcerated Parents in Rhode Island*.

Retrieved from

<http://www.rikidscount.org/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/Issue%20Briefs/5.17%20Children%20of%20incarcerated%20parents.pdf>

Rhode Island KIDS COUNT. (2014, June). *Juvenile Justice in Rhode Island*. Retrieved from

http://rikidscount.org/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/Juvenile%20Justice%20in%20Rhode%20Island_Final2.pdf

Rhode Island KIDS COUNT. (2017). *Youth at the Training School*. Retrieved from

<http://rikidscount.org/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/Factbook%202017/Safety%202017/Youth%20at%20the%20Training%20School%202017.pdf>

Skiba, R. J., & Knesting, K. (2000). *Zero Tolerance, Zero Evidence: An Analysis of School Disciplinary Practice*. Policy Research Report. Retrieved from

<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED469537>

Teske, S. C. (2011). *A Study of Zero Tolerance Policies in Schools: A Multi-Integrated Systems Approach to Improve Outcomes for Adolescents: A Study of Zero Tolerance Policies in Schools: A Multi-Integrated Systems Approach to Improve Outcomes for*

Adolescents. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Nursing*, 24(2), 88–97.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6171.2011.00273.x>

Theriot, M. T. (2009). School resource officers and the criminalization of student behavior.

Journal of Criminal Justice, (37), 280–287. Retrieved from

<http://youthjusticenc.org/download/education-justice/school-policing-security/School%20Resource%20Of%EF%AC%81cers%20and%20the%20Criminalization%20of%20Student%20Behavior.pdf>

Wald, J., & Losen, D. J. (2003). Defining and redirecting a school-to-prison pipeline. *New*

Directions for Youth Development, 2003(99), 9–15. <https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.51>