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Erasure and Resilience: The Experiences of LGBTQ Students of Color

Black LGBTQ Youth in U.S. Schools



A Report from GLSEN and
the National Black Justice Coalition

GLSEN®

Erasure and Resilience: The Experiences of LGBTQ Students of Color

Black LGBTQ Youth in U.S. Schools

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Preface

Twenty years ago, GLSEN began investing in applied research capacity to build the evidence base for action on LGBTQ issues in K-12 schools, and to track the impact of efforts to improve the lives and life prospects of LGBTQ students. Now conducted under the banner of the GLSEN Research Institute, each new report in this body of work seeks to provide clarity, urgency, and renewed inspiration for the education leaders, advocates, and organizational partners dedicated to the work.

Erasure and Resilience: The Experiences of LGBTQ Students of Color is a series of four reports, each publication focusing on a different group of LGBTQ students, their lives at school, and the factors that make the biggest difference for them. The reports in this series examine the school experiences of Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI), Black, Latinx, and Native and Indigenous LGBTQ youth. Each report was conducted and is released in partnership with organizations specifically dedicated to work with the student population in question. We are so grateful for the partnership of the National Queer Asian Pacific Islander Alliance, the National Black Justice Coalition, UnidosUS and the Hispanic Federation, and the Center for Native American Youth.

These reports arrive as the United States wrestles with two fundamental challenges to our commitment to provide a K-12 education to every child – the depth of the systemic racism undermining true educational equity in our K-12 school systems; and the rising tide of racist, anti-LGBTQ, anti-immigrant, and White Christian nationalist sentiment being expressed in the mainstream of U.S. society. The students whose lives are illuminated in these reports bear the brunt of both of these challenges. Their resilience calls on each of us to join the fight.



Eliza Byard, Ph.D.
Executive Director
GLSEN

Educators do God's work and parents, caregivers and family members are a child's first and most important educator.

Educators, parents, caregivers and other concerned adults must pay particular attention to the needs of students who live at intersections — students who are uniquely impacted by racism and homophobia because they are both Black and LGBTQ+ or same gender loving (SGL). As the only national civil rights organization working at the intersections of racial justice and LGBTQ/SGL equality, finding ways to ensure that all members of our community are safe and supported in fully participating in democracy is a central focus of our work. Since 2003 The National Black Justice Coalition (NBJC) has sought to empower Black Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, and Same Gender Loving people. Acknowledging the intersections that have always existed within our beautifully diverse community is critically important to addressing the pernicious attacks that too many Black people still endure. Ensuring that our babies — as I affectionately refer to Black children, youth, and young adults — are supported as they learn and grow is the most important way we ensure our legacy of Black excellence endures; however, too many of our babies experience challenges, at the schools we force them to attend, which prevent them from being safe, happy, healthy or whole. This is a national crisis that concerns us all.

Schools and families have a responsibility to promote positive learning environments for all students, which includes Black students who may not identify as LGBTQ/SGL but may express or experience non-heterosexual feelings or relationships. My hope is that this report provides fuel to support this important work. *Erasure and Resilience: The Experiences of LGBTQ Students of Color, Black LGBTQ Youth in U.S. Schools* provides data that vividly colors the picture that too many Black people can paint well — pictures of public schools, throughout the country, that are hostile and unsafe environments for students who are Black and are (or are perceived to be) queer. Consistent with similar trends of reported hate crimes based on race/ethnicity and sexual identity, orientation or expression, outside of schools, Black LGBTQ/SGL students are disproportionately impacted by school-based victimization from peers and are least likely to feel supported by school staff or have access to support programs and resources. One point the report makes alarmingly clear: more than their peers, Black students experience multiple forms of discrimination and violence. We all know that students who do not feel safe or supported cannot be expected to meaningfully demonstrate what they know or have learned. If we expect Black LGBTQ/SGL students to achieve at high levels — in school and in life — we must ensure that the schools they attend are safe and supportive.

The results of the most recent research from GLSEN shows that Black LGBTQ/SGL students experience victimization that can lead to adverse effects, that have lasting impact. Educators, advocates, and those dedicated to supporting the learning and development of students should read this report and use it's findings to improve policies and practices. Better understanding how racism, homophobia, transphobia/transmisogynoir, and heterosexism impact Black students can assist us in developing meaningful responses to ensure that all students feel and are safe and supported as they learn and grow.

Three things that we can focus on to advance this work are: providing supports for students and schools to improve competence around issues impacting Black LGBTQ/SGL students; improving curricula to include the diverse contributions of Black LGBTQ/SGL people; and ensuring that school policies and practices are inclusive and supportive of all students, especially with regard to anti-racism and anti-discrimination inclusive of sexual identity, gender, orientation and expression.

The National Black Justice Coalition looks forward to working with GLSEN and to supporting schools, educators, and communities in ensuring that all schools are safe and supportive of all students, especially all Black students.

In love and continued struggle,



David J. Johns
Executive Director, National Black Justice Coalition

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Executive Summary

Introduction

Existing research has illustrated that both Black as well as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) youth often face unique challenges at school related to their marginalized identities. For example, previous studies indicate that Black youth experience harassment and discrimination at school related to their race, resulting in negative educational outcomes, such as more school discipline, lower academic achievement, lower graduation rates, and lower rates of admission into higher education. Similarly, LGBTQ youth often face unique challenges related to their sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression. LGBTQ youth often reported experiencing victimization and discrimination, resulting in poorer educational outcomes and decreased psychological well-being. Further, they have limited or no access to in-school resources that may improve school climate and students' experiences. Although there has a been a robust body of research on the experiences of Black youth and a burgeoning body of research on LGBTQ youth in schools, there has been little research examining the intersections of these identities – the experiences of Black LGBTQ students. Existing studies show that schools nationwide are hostile environments for LGBTQ youth of color, where they experience victimization and discrimination based on race, sexual orientation, gender identity, or all of these identities. This report is one of a series of reports that focus on LGBTQ students of different racial/ethnic identities, including Asian American and Pacific Islander, Latinx, and Native and Indigenous LGBTQ youth.

In this report, we examine the experiences of Black LGBTQ students with regard to indicators of negative school climate and their impact on academic achievement, educational aspirations, and psychological well-being:

- Feeling unsafe in school because of personal characteristics, such as sexual orientation, gender expression and race/ethnicity, and missing school because of safety reasons;
- Hearing biased remarks, including homophobic and racist remarks, in school;
- Experiencing victimization in school; and
- Experiencing school disciplinary practices.

In addition, we examine whether Black LGBTQ students report these experiences to school officials or their families, and how these adults address the problem.

We also examine the degree to which Black LGBTQ students have access to supportive resources in school, and explore the possible benefits of these resources:

- GSAs (Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances) or similar clubs;
- Ethnic/cultural clubs;
- Supportive school staff; and
- Curricular resources that are inclusive of LGBTQ-related topics.

Methods

Data for this report came from GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey* (*NSCS*). The full sample for the *2017 NSCS* was 23,001 LGBTQ middle and high school students between 13 and 21 years old. In the NSCS, when asked about their race and ethnicity, participants had the option to choose "African American or Black" among other racial/ethnic categories. The sample for this report consists of any LGBTQ student in the national sample who identified as African American or Black (henceforth referred to as Black),

including those who identified only as Black as well as those who identified as Black and one or more additional racial/ethnic identities (multiracial Black).

The final sample for this report was a total of 1,534 Black LGBTQ students. Students were from all states, except for Wyoming, as well as District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. Just over two-fifths (43.0%) identified as gay or lesbian, just over half (53.7%) were cisgender, and over half (55.9%) identified with one or more racial/ethnic identities in addition to Black. The majority of students attended high school and public schools.

Key Findings

Safety and Victimization at School

School Safety

- Over half of Black LGBTQ students (51.6%) felt unsafe at school because of their sexual orientation, 40.2% because of their gender expression, and 30.6% because of their race or ethnicity.
- Nearly a third of Black LGBTQ students (30.4%) reported missing at least one day of school in the last month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, and 10.3% missed four or more days in the past month.

Biased Remarks at School

- 97.9% of Black LGBTQ students heard "gay" used in a negative way; nearly three-fourths (71.5%) heard this type of language often or frequently.
- 94.7% of Black LGBTQ students heard other homophobic remarks; over half (58.7%) heard this type of language often or frequently.
- 90.3% of Black LGBTQ students heard negative gender expression remarks about not acting "masculine" enough; just over half (54.0%) heard these remarks often or frequently.
- 84.4% of Black LGBTQ students heard remarks about not acting "feminine" enough; two-fifths (39.3%) heard these remarks often or frequently.
- 89.0% of Black LGBTQ students heard racist remarks; just over half (55.1%) heard these remarks often or frequently.
- 84.3% of Black LGBTQ students heard negative remarks about transgender people; two-fifths (40.5%) heard these remarks often or frequently.

Harassment and Assault at School

- Many students experienced harassment or assault at school based on personal characteristics, including sexual orientation (65.1%), gender expression (57.2%), and race/ethnicity (51.9%).
- Black LGBTQ students who experienced higher levels of victimization based on sexual orientation at school:
  - were more than twice as likely to skip school because they felt unsafe (54.2% vs. 20.3%);
  - were somewhat less likely to plan to graduate high school (96.7% vs. 99.3%); and

- experienced lower levels of school belonging (30.5% vs. 61.3%) and greater levels of depression (69.8% vs. 43.1%).

- Black LGBTQ students who experienced higher levels of victimization based on race/ethnicity at school:
  - were more than twice as likely to skip school because they felt unsafe (42.2% vs. 17.8%); and
  - experienced lower levels of school belonging (41.8% vs. 62.7%) and greater levels of depression (64.7% vs. 36.5%).

- Transgender and gender nonconforming (trans/GNC) Black students experienced greater levels of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity than LGBQ cisgender Black students.

- Black LGBTQ students who identified with multiple racial/ethnic identities experienced greater levels of victimization based on race/ethnicity and sexual orientation than LGBTQ students who only identified as Black.

- Two-fifths of Black LGBTQ students (40.0%) experienced harassment or assault at school due to both their sexual orientation and their race/ethnicity. Compared to those who experienced one form of victimization or neither, Black LGBTQ students who experienced both forms of victimization:
  - experienced the lowest levels of school belonging;
  - had the greatest levels of depression; and
  - were the most likely to skip school because they felt unsafe.

Reporting School-based Harassment and Assault, and Intervention

- A majority of Black LGBTQ students (52.4%) who experienced harassment or assault in the past year never reported victimization to staff, most commonly because they did not think that staff would do anything about it (62.9%).

- Only a third (33.8%) reported that staff responded effectively when students reported victimization.

- Less than half (47.2%) of Black LGBTQ students had told a family member about the victimization they faced at school.

- Among Black LGBTQ students who reported victimization experiences to a family member, the majority (63.2%) indicated that a family member talked to their teacher, principal or other school staff.

School Practices

Experiences with School Discipline

- Nearly half of Black LGBTQ students (44.7%) experienced some form of school discipline, such as detention, out-of-school suspension, or expulsion.

- Multiracial Black LGBTQ students experienced greater levels discipline than those who identified only as Black.

- Negative school experiences were related to experiences of school discipline for Black LGBTQ students. Those who experienced school discipline:
  - experienced higher rates of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity;
  - were more likely to skip school because they felt unsafe; and
  - were more likely to experience anti-LGBTQ discriminatory school policies or practices.
- Experiences with school discipline may also negatively impact educational outcomes for Black LGBTQ students. Those who experienced school discipline:
  - were less likely to plan on pursuing post-secondary education; and
  - had lower grade point averages (GPAs).

School-Based Supports and Resources for Black LGBTQ Students

GSAs

Availability and Participation

- Over half of Black LGBTQ students (52.7%) reported having a GSA at their school.
- Black LGBTQ students who attended majority Black schools were less likely to have GSAs than those in majority White schools, majority other non-White race schools, and no majority race schools (41.9% vs. 53.8%, 57.5%, and 61.9% respectively).
- The majority of those with a GSA participated in the club (61.9%), and 19.9% participated as an officer or a leader.

Utility

- Compared to those without a GSA, Black LGBTQ students with a GSA:
  - were less likely to miss school due to safety concerns (34.3% vs. 27.0%);
  - were less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation (47.0% vs. 57.0%); and
  - felt greater belonging to their school community.
- Black LGBTQ students who participated in their GSA felt more comfortable bringing up LGBTQ issues in class and were more likely to participate in a GLSEN Day of Action or an event where people express their political views.

Ethnic/Cultural Clubs

Availability and Participation

- Three-quarters of Black LGBTQ students (74.6%) reported that their school had an ethnic or cultural club at their school.

- 16.7% of Black LGBTQ students with an ethnic/cultural club at school attended meetings, and 3.2% participated as an officer or leader.

- Black LGBTQ students with an ethnic/cultural club at school were more likely to participate if they attended a White-majority school.

Utility

- Black LGBTQ students who had an ethnic/cultural club at their school:

  - felt greater belonging to their school community; and

  - were less likely to feel unsafe due to their race/ethnicity.

- Among Black LGBTQ students with an ethnic/cultural club, those who participated felt a greater belonging to their school community than those who did not.

Supportive School Personnel

Availability

- The vast majority of Black LGBTQ students (96.1%) could identify at least one supportive staff member at school, but only 39.9% could identify many supportive staff (11 or more).

- Only two-fifths of Black LGBTQ students (40.5%) reported having somewhat or very supportive school administration.

Utility

- Black LGBTQ students who had more staff who were supportive of LGBTQ students:

  - were less likely to miss school due to safety concerns;

  - were less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity;

  - had higher levels of self-esteem and lower levels of depression;

  - had greater feelings of connectedness to their school community;

  - had higher GPAs (3.2 vs. 3.0); and

  - were more likely to plan to pursue post-secondary education (95.3% vs. 91.2%).

Inclusive Curriculum

We also examined the inclusion of LGBTQ topics in school curriculum. We found that less than a quarter of Black LGBTQ students (21.4%) were taught positive representations of LGBTQ people, history, or events. Further, we found that Black LGBTQ students who had some positive LGBTQ inclusion in the curriculum at school were:

- less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation (38.5% vs. 55.1%) and gender expression (38.6% vs. 62.7%); and

- felt more connected to their school community.

We were unable to examine other important forms of curricular inclusion, such as positive representations of people of color and their histories and communities. Nevertheless, we did find that Black LGBTQ students with an LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum were less likely to feel unsafe at school because of their race or ethnicity (26.0% vs. 32.0%).

Conclusions and Recommendations

It is clear that addressing the concerns of Black LGBTQ students requires an intersectional approach that takes into account all the aspects of their experiences of oppression to combat racism, homophobia, and transphobia. Results from this report show that Black LGBTQ students have unique school experiences, at the intersection of their various identities, including race, gender, and sexual orientation. The findings also demonstrate the ways that school supports and resources, such as GSAs, ethnic/cultural clubs, and supportive school personnel, can positively affect Black LGBTQ students' school experiences. Based on these findings, we recommend that school leaders, education policymakers, and other individuals who want to provide safe learning environments for Black LGBTQ students to:

- Support student clubs, such as GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs. Organizations that work with GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs should also come together to address Black LGBTQ students' needs related to their multiple marginalized identities, including sexual orientation, gender, and race/ethnicity.

- Provide professional development for school staff on Black LGBTQ student issues.

- Increase student access to curricular resources that include diverse and positive representations of both Black and LGBTQ people, history, and events.

- Establish school policies and guidelines for staff in responding to anti-LGBTQ and racist behavior, and develop clear and confidential pathways for students to report victimization that they experience. Local, state, and federal education agencies should also hold schools accountable establishing and implementing these practices and procedures.

- Work to address the inequities in funding at the local, state, and national level to increase access to institutional supports and education in general, and to provide more professional development for educators and school counselors.

Taken together, such measures can move us toward a future in which all Black LGBTQ youth have the opportunity to learn and succeed in supportive school environments that are free from bias, harassment, and discrimination.

Introduction

For Black youth in the U.S., experiences of racism and discrimination are both common and widespread.[1] Further, a large body of research has demonstrated that these experiences of racial bias are prevalent throughout the U.S. education system.[2] These biases have contributed to Black youth continuing to face disproportionate rates of school discipline, lower graduation rates, and lower academic achievement.[3] Further, under-resourced schools that fail to adequately serve Black youth and other youth of color, as well as enhanced police presence and surveillance in majority-Black schools, help to funnel Black youth out of public schools and into the juvenile and criminal justice systems, commonly known as the school-to-prison pipeline.[4]

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) youth often face unique challenges related to their sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression, challenges which most of their non-LGBTQ peers do not face. GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey* found that schools are often unsafe places for LGBTQ students.[5] LGBTQ youth often reported experiencing harassment, discrimination, and other troubling events in school, often specifically related to their sexual orientation, gender identity and/or how they express their gender,[6] including high levels of verbal and physical harassment and assault, sexual harassment, social exclusion and isolation, and other interpersonal problems with peers. In addition, many LGBTQ students did not have access to in-school resources that may improve school climate and students' experiences, such as Gender and Sexuality Alliances (GSAs), supportive educators, and supportive and inclusive school policies.

Although a growing body of research has focused on examining Black youth's school experiences and LGBTQ youth's school experiences separately or uniquely, much less research has examined the school experiences of LGBTQ youth of color. Research on LGBTQ youth of color in general has shown that schools nationwide are hostile environments for LGBTQ youth of color, where they experience victimization and discrimination based on race, sexual orientation, or gender identity, or all of the above simultaneously.[7] Because LGBTQ youth of color are not a monolithic population, some research has also examined the school experiences of Black LGBTQ youth specifically, showing prevalent rates of both anti-LGBTQ and racist harassment, and their associations to poor psychological well-being.[8] This report builds on these findings and explores more deeply the school experiences of Black LGBTQ students, specifically.

Given that the majority of research on this population has examined Black youth and LGBTQ youth separately, we approach this report with an intersectional framework.[9] Where possible, we examine the school experiences of Black LGBTQ youth's multiple intersecting marginalized identities (e.g., race, gender, sexual orientation) in relation to multiple interlocking systems of oppression (e.g., racism, transphobia, homophobia). For instance, the homophobic bias that a Black LGBTQ individual may experience is tied to their experiences of racism as a Black individual. Our focal point is the school experiences of Black LGBTQ youth as a whole, with attention to also examining differences in identities within Black LGBTQ youth. In this report, we do not compare Black LGBTQ youth to other racial/ethnic LGBTQ groups.

This report is one of a series of reports on LGBTQ students of color, including Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI), Latinx, and Native and Indigenous LGBTQ youth. In this report, we examine the experiences of Black LGBTQ students with regard to indicators of negative school climate, as well as supports and resources. In *Part One: Safety and Victimization at School*, we begin with examining Black LGBTQ students' feelings of safety at school due to their personal characteristics (race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and gender identity/expression), experiences of racist and anti-LGBTQ victimization from peers, as well as reporting racist and anti-LGBTQ victimization to school staff, staff responses to these reports, and family reporting and intervention as an additional form that impacts their school experiences. In *Part Two: School Practices*, we shift to Black LGBTQ students' experiences with school staff and practices, including experiences of school disciplinary action and its relation to anti-LGBTQ discriminatory school policies and practices, as well as school resources and supports for Black LGBTQ students, and club participation and leadership.

Methods and Sample Description

Methods

Data for this report came from GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey (NSCS),* a biennial survey of U.S. secondary school students who identify as LGBTQ. Participants completed an online survey about their experiences in school during the 2016–2017 school year, including hearing biased remarks, feelings of safety, experiencing harassment and assault, feeling comfortable at school, and experiencing anti-LGBTQ discriminatory school policies and practices. They were also asked about their academic achievement, attitudes about school, school involvement, and availability and impact of supportive school resources. Eligibility for participation in the survey included being at least 13 years of age, attending a K–12 school in the United States during the 2016–2017 school year, and identifying as lesbian, gay, bisexual, queer, or a sexual orientation other than heterosexual (e.g., pansexual, questioning) or being transgender or as having a gender identity that is not cisgender (e.g., genderqueer, nonbinary). For a full discussion of methods, refer to GLSEN's *2017 NSCS* report.[10]

The full sample for the *2017 NSCS* was 23,001 LGBTQ middle and high school students between 13 and 21 years old. In the survey, participants were asked how they identified their race/ethnicity, and were given several options, including "Black/African American." Participants could check all that apply. The sample for this report consisted of any LGBTQ student in the national sample who identified as Black/African American, including those who only identified as Black/African American, and those who identified as Black/African American and one or more additional race/ethnic identities (multiracial Black). The final sample for this report was a total of 1,534 Black LGBTQ students.

Sample Description

As seen in Table S.1, just over two-fifths of Black LGBTQ students in the sample (43.0%) identified as gay or lesbian, with just over a quarter (28.5%) identifying as bisexual and nearly one-fifth (18.3%) identifying as pansexual. About half (53.7%) identified as cisgender, a quarter (25.2%) identified as transgender, and the remainder identified with another gender identity or were unsure of their gender identity. Just over half of the Black LGBTQ students in this report (55.9%) identified with one or more racial/ethnic identities in addition to Black, as described in Table S.1. For example, over a third of respondents (38.3%) also identified as White. Nearly all respondents were born in the U.S. (97.1%) and nearly all learned English as their first language, or as one of their first languages (97.5%). Additionally, nearly a third of respondents (32.0%) identified as Christian (non-denominational), whereas just under half (48.2%) identified with no religion. Students attended schools in all states, except for Wyoming, as well as schools in the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. As seen in Table S.2, the majority of students attended high school (71.1%), the vast majority attended public school (88.9%), and nearly half attended majority-White schools (45.6%).

Table S.1. Demographic Characteristics of Survey Participants

Sexual Orientation[11] (n = 1521)	
Gay or Lesbian	43.0%
Bisexual	28.5%
Pansexual[12]	18.3%
Queer	3.7%
Asexual[13]	2.0%
Another Sexual Orientation (e.g., fluid, heterosexual)	1.8%
Questioning or Unsure	2.7%
Race and Ethnicity[14] (n = 1534)	
Black or African American Only	44.1%
Multiple Racial/Ethnic Identities	55.9%
White	*38.3%*
Native American, American Indian, or Alaska Native	*17.5%*
Hispanic or Latinx[15]	*17.1%*
Asian, South Asian, or Pacific Islander	*8.1%*
Middle Eastern or Arab American	*2.7%*
Immigration Status (n = 1534)	
U.S. Citizen	98.7%
Born in the U.S. or a U.S. territory	*97.1%*
Born in another country[16]	*1.6%*
U.S. Non-citizen	1.3%
Documented	*0.8%*
Undocumented	*0.5%*
English Learned as First Language (n = 1520)	97.5%
Grade in School (n = 1506)	
6th	0.9%
7th	5.9%
8th	12.9%
9th	19.7%
10th	23.6%
11th	22.3%
12th	14.6%
Gender[17] (n = 1441)	
Cisgender	53.7%
Female	*36.4%*
Male	*19.2%*
Unspecified	*2.7%*
Transgender	25.2%
Female	*1.9%*
Male	*13.8%*
Nonbinary (i.e., not identifying as male or female, or identifying as both male and female)	*4.9%*
Unspecified	*1.0%*
Genderqueer	11.2%
Another Nonbinary Identity (e.g., agender, genderfluid)	2.8%
Questioning or Unsure	1.3%
Average Age (n = 1534) = 15.7 years	
Religious Affiliation (n = 1475)	
Christian (non-denominational)	32.0%
Catholic	4.1%
Protestant	1.6%
Jewish	1.2%
Buddhist	1.7%
Muslim	1.2%
Another Religion (e.g., Unitarian Universalist, Wiccan)	10.0%
No Religion, Atheist, or Agnostic (and not affiliated with a religion listed above)	48.2%
Receive Educational Accommodations[18] (n = 1525)	25.9%

Table S.2. Characteristics of Survey Participants' Schools

Grade Level (n = 1532)	
K through 12 School	6.0%
Lower School (elementary and middle grades)	1.0%
Middle School	12.9%
Upper School (middle and high grades)	8.9%
High School	71.1%
Region[19] (n = 1532)	
Northeast	20.6%
South	43.9%
Midwest	21.0%
West	14.1%
U.S. Territories	0.5%
School Racial Composition (n = 1367)	
Majority Black	26.6%
Majority White	45.6%
Majority Other Race	15.5%
No Majority Race	12.3%
School Type (n = 1490)	
Public School	88.9%
Charter	*4.2%*
Magnet	*12.1%*
Religious-Affiliated School	3.2%
Other Independent or Private School	7.9%
Single-Sex School (n = 1530)	1.2%
School Locale (n = 1513)	
Urban	36.7%
Suburban	41.2%
Rural or Small Town	22.1%

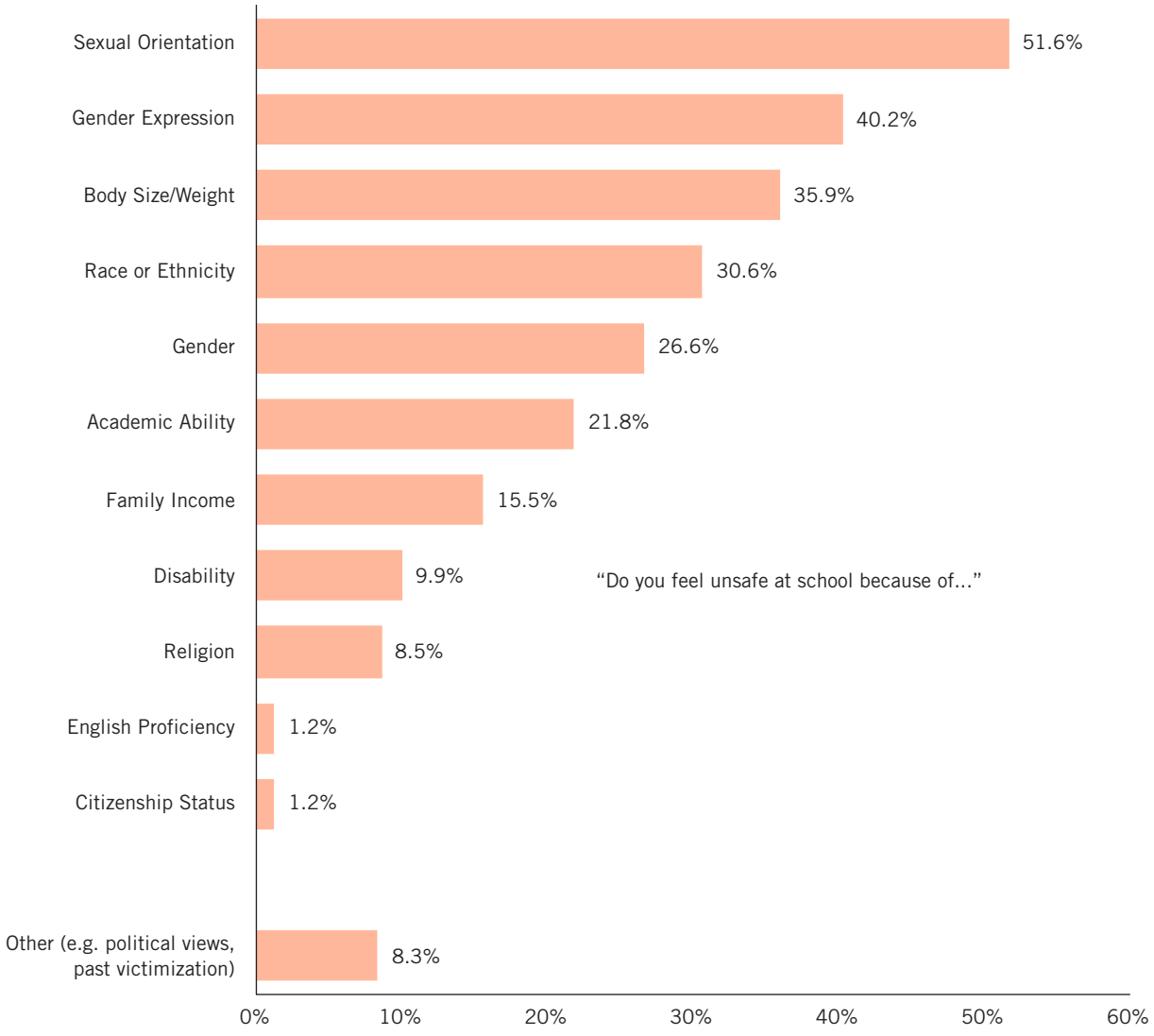
Part One: Safety and Experiences with Harassment and Assault at School

For Black LGBTQ youth, school can be an unsafe place. Our previous research indicates that the majority of LGBTQ students regularly hear biased language at school, and most experience some form of identity-based harassment or assault. These experiences may negatively impact students' academic outcomes, as well as their psychological well-being. Thus, we explored the reasons Black LGBTQ students feel unsafe at school, the types of biased language they hear, and both the extent and effects of in-school harassment and assault. Because school staff have a responsibility to intervene on such incidents of bias, we also examined Black LGBTQ students' rates of reporting their victimization to staff, and how school staff responded.

Safety

We asked students if they ever felt unsafe at school due to a personal characteristic. As shown in Figure 1.1, the most common reason for Black LGBTQ students to feel unsafe was due to their actual or perceived sexual orientation (51.6%), followed by the way they express their gender, or how traditionally "masculine" or "feminine" they were in appearance or behavior (40.2%).[20] Additionally, nearly a third of students (30.6%) felt unsafe due to their race or ethnicity. For some, feeling unsafe at school may even result in avoiding school altogether. When asked about absenteeism, nearly a third of Black LGBTQ students (30.4%) reported missing at least one day of school

Figure 1.1 Black LGBTQ Students Who Felt Unsafe at School Because of Actual or Perceived Personal Characteristics



in the last month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, and over one-tenth (10.3%) missed four or more days in the last month.

Biased Remarks

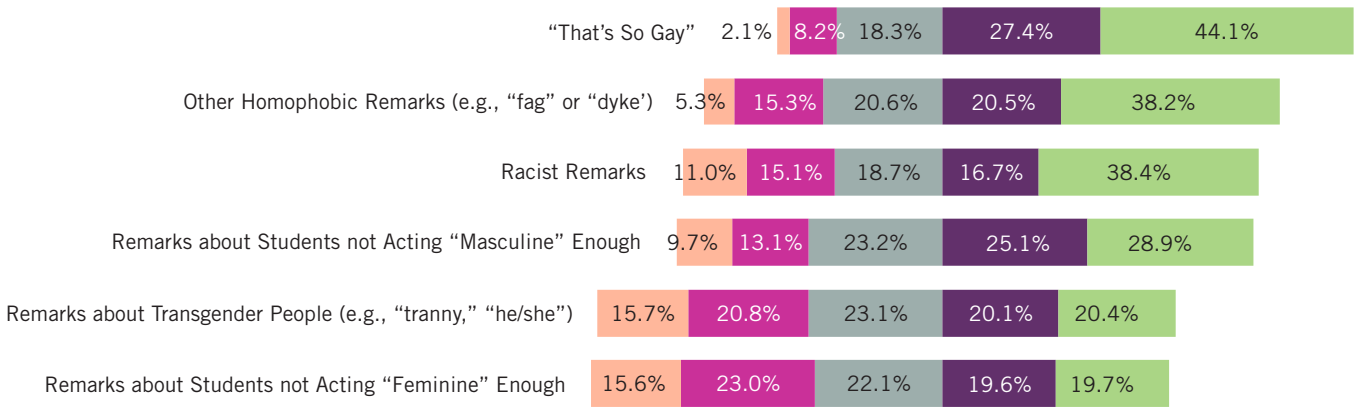
Black LGBTQ students may feel unsafe at school, in part, because of homophobic, racist, or other types of biased language that they may hear from their peers in classrooms or hallways. We asked students how often they heard anti-LGBTQ language from other students, including: the word "gay" being used in a negative way (such as "that's so gay" being used to call something "stupid" or "worthless"), other homophobic remarks (such as "faggot" and "dyke"), comments about students not acting "masculine" enough, comments about students not acting "feminine" enough, and negative remarks about transgender people (such as "tranny" or "he/she"). We also asked students how often they heard racist language from other students at school. As shown in Figure 1.2, the most common form of biased language was "gay" used in a negative way, followed by other homophobic remarks. Over two-thirds of Black LGBTQ students heard "gay" used in a negative way often or frequently (71.5%), and over half heard other homophobic remarks often or frequently (58.7%). The next most common forms of biased remarks heard by Black LGBTQ students were racist remarks and comments about not acting "masculine" enough (see also Figure 1.2).[21]

Harassment and Assault

In addition to hearing biased language in hallways or classrooms, many students experience victimization at school, including verbal harassment (e.g., being called names or threatened), physical harassment (e.g., being shoved or pushed), and physical assault (e.g., being punched, kicked, or injured with a weapon). LGBTQ students who experience harassment or assault may feel excluded and disconnected from their school community, and may respond by avoiding school. This victimization may also have a negative impact on students' psychological well-being and academic success.[22] Therefore, we examined how often Black LGBTQ students experienced victimization in the past year based on their actual or perceived sexual orientation, the way they express their gender, and their actual or perceived race/ethnicity. We also examined whether victimization based on sexual orientation or based on race/ethnicity was associated with academic outcomes as well as key indicators of student well-being, including: educational aspirations, school belonging, depression, and skipping school due to feeling unsafe.

Extent and effects of harassment and assault based on personal characteristics. As shown in Figure 1.3, the majority of Black LGBTQ students experienced harassment or assault based on their race/ethnicity, sexual orientation or gender expression. Victimization based on

Figure 1.2 Frequency of Hearing Anti-LGBTQ and Racist Remarks in School



sexual orientation was most common, followed by victimization based on gender expression (see also Figure 1.3).[23]

We examined whether victimization at school based on sexual orientation and victimization based on race or ethnicity were associated with Black LGBTQ students' psychological well-being and educational outcomes. We found that experiencing victimization based on sexual orientation was related to skipping school due to feeling unsafe, lower levels of school belonging, lower educational aspirations, and greater levels of depression.[24] For example, as seen in Figure 1.4, students were more than twice as likely to skip school because they felt unsafe if they experienced higher than average levels of victimization due to sexual orientation (54.2% vs. 20.3%). Similarly, we found that victimization based on race/ethnicity was related to skipping school due to feeling unsafe, lower levels of school belonging, and greater levels of depression (see Figure 1.5).[25] We did not, however, observe a relationship between victimization based on race/ethnicity and educational aspirations.

Differences in victimization by transgender status. Previous research, from GLSEN, as well as other scholars, has demonstrated that transgender and other gender nonconforming (trans/GNC) students experience greater levels of anti-LGBTQ victimization and harassment than cisgender LGBQ students.[26] We found that this was similarly true for Black LGBTQ students. Specifically, we found that trans/GNC Black students experienced greater levels of victimization based on sexual orientation and gender expression than their cisgender LGBQ Black peers (see Figure 1.6). Further, we also found that trans/GNC Black students experienced slightly greater levels of victimization based on race/ethnicity (see also Figure 1.6).[27] Given that the general population tends to hold less favorable views of transgender people than of gay and lesbian people,[28] trans/GNC Black students may be greater targets for victimization in general, including victimization based on their race or ethnicity.

Differences in victimization by multiple racial/ethnic identities. For multiracial students, their own racial identification or how they are identified by their peers in terms of their race/ethnicity may vary based on context.[29] Because they do not belong to any single racial/ethnic group,

Figure 1.3 Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Who Experienced Victimization Based on Personal Characteristics

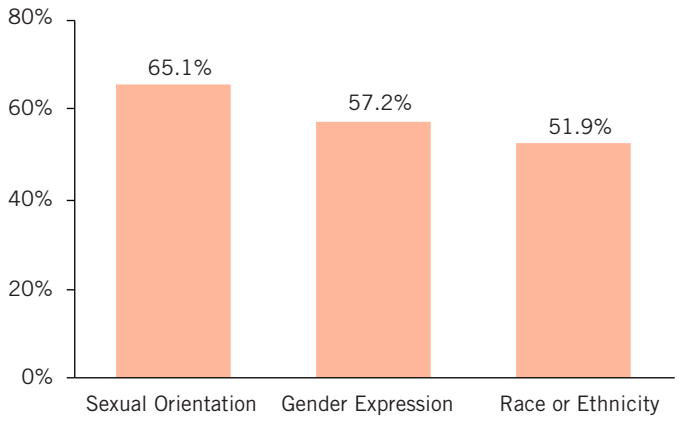
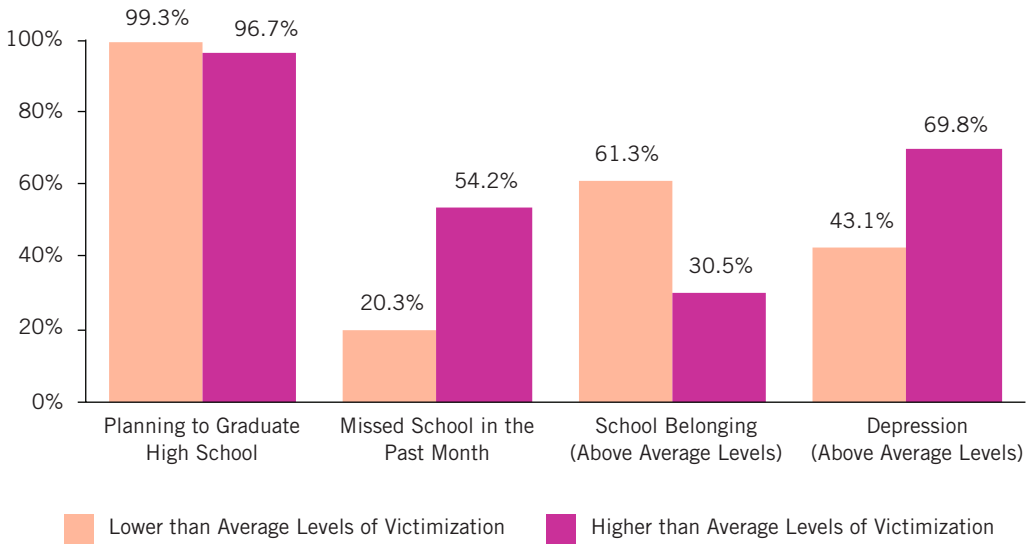


Figure 1.4 Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation and Black LGBTQ Student Well-Being and Academic Outcomes



these students may face greater levels of social exclusion that may result in increased risks for peer victimization.[30] Thus, we examined whether Black LGBTQ students who endorsed multiple racial/ethnic identities differed from those who identified only as Black with regard to their experiences of victimization. We found that multiracial Black LGBTQ students experienced greater levels of victimization based on sexual orientation, based on gender expression, and based on race/ethnicity than Black LGBTQ students who identified only as Black (see Figure 1.7).[31] Further research is warranted to explore the possible connections between multiracial/multiethnic identity and different forms of victimization among students of color.

Experiencing multiple forms of victimization. Thus far in this section, we have discussed Black LGBTQ students' in-school experiences of victimization based on sexual orientation, on gender expression, and on race/ethnicity independently. However, many Black LGBTQ students experience victimization that targets both their LGBTQ and racial/ethnic identities. In fact, approximately two-fifths of Black LGBTQ students in our study (40.0%) experienced harassment or assault at school based on both their sexual orientation and their race/ethnicity.[32]

Previously in this report, we reported that both types of victimization were related to skipping school due to feeling unsafe, lower school

Figure 1.5 Victimization Based on Race/Ethnicity and Black LGBTQ Student Well-Being and Academic Outcomes

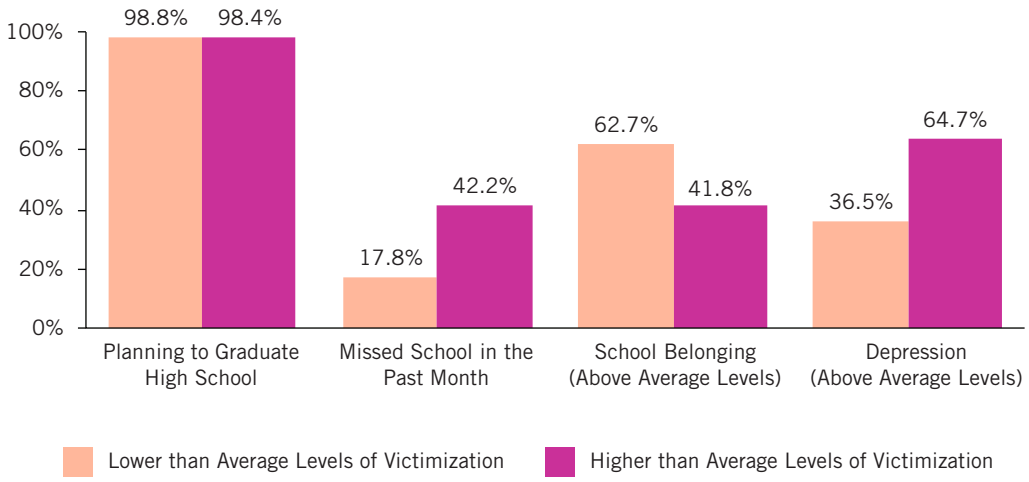
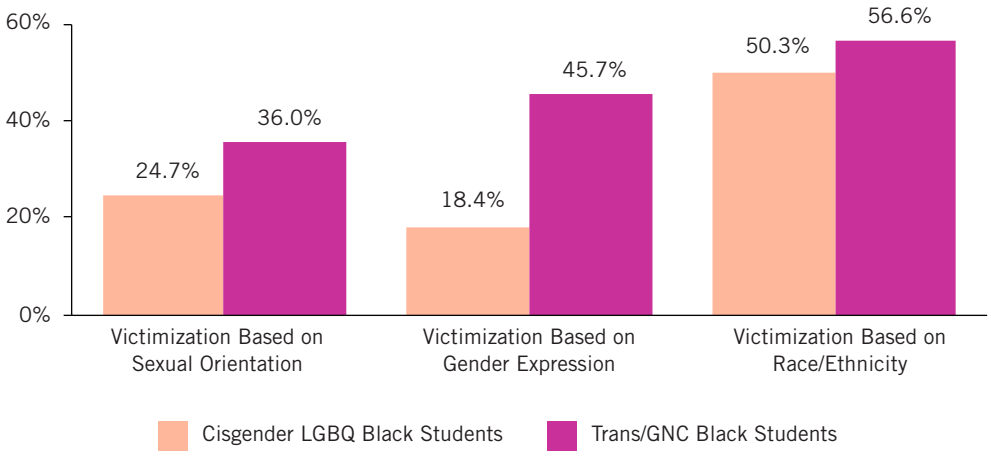


Figure 1.6 Differences in Level of Victimization by Trans/GNC Status
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Experiencing Higher than Average Levels of Victimization)



belonging, and greater levels of depression. However, it is important to understand how these outcomes are associated with experiencing multiple forms of harassment. Therefore, we examined the combined effects of race-based and homophobic victimization on skipping school, school belonging, and depression. We found that students who experienced both homophobic and racist victimization were the most likely to skip school due to feeling unsafe,[33] experienced the lowest levels of school belonging,[34] and experienced the highest levels of depression,[35] as compared to those who experienced only one form of victimization or neither (see Figure 1.8).

Figure 1.7 Differences in Level of Victimization by Multiple Racial/Ethnic Identities
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Experiencing Higher than Average Levels of Victimization)

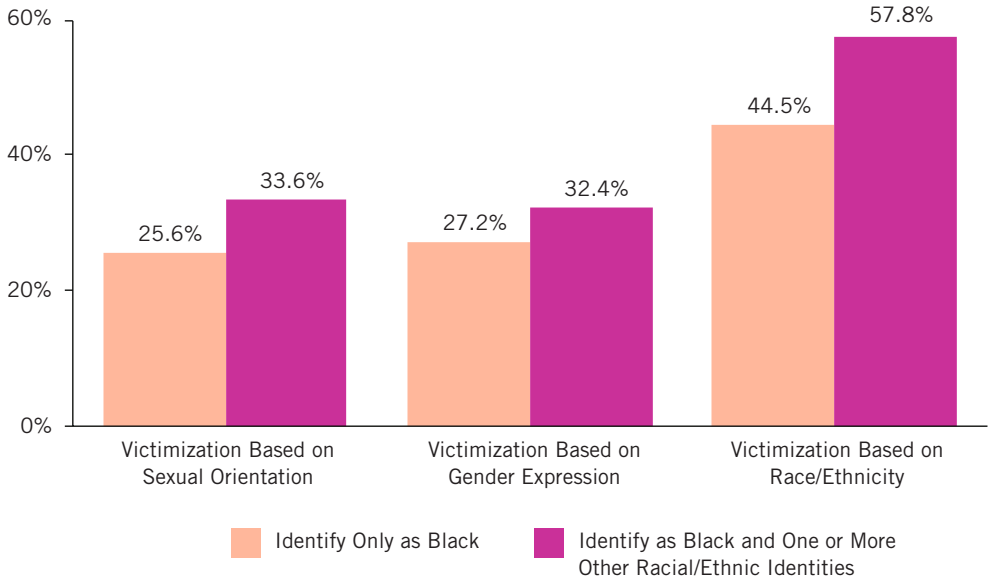
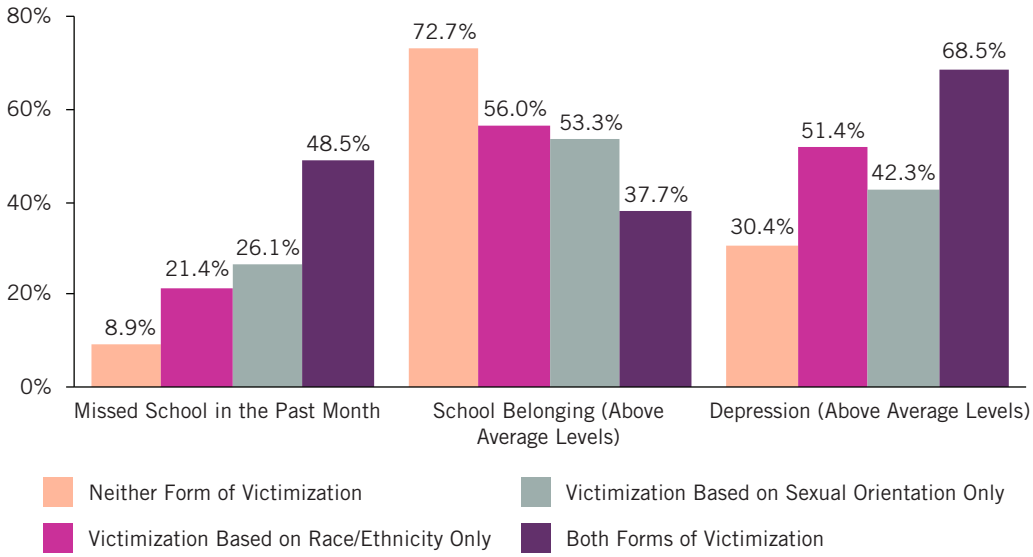


Figure 1.8 Black LGBTQ Student Well-Being and Multiple Forms of Victimization, Based on Sexual Orientation and Race/Ethnicity



In that Black LGBTQ students likely have a longer history with experiencing victimization based on their race/ethnicity than on their LGBTQ status, it is possible that Black LGBTQ students who experience higher levels of victimization based on race/ethnicity are better at navigating other types of victimization, such as anti-LGBTQ victimization.[36] It may be that students who experience racist victimization at school develop coping skills that may provide a buffer against the psychological harms of additional forms of victimization. Thus, we also examined how the experience of racist victimization might alter the effect of homophobic victimization on school outcomes and well-being. We found that the effects of victimization on school belonging and depression were more pronounced if students only experienced one form of victimization.[37] For example, the negative effect of homophobic victimization on depression was strongest among Black LGBTQ students who experienced higher levels of homophobic victimization and lower levels of racist victimization. Thus, the findings suggest that a Black LGBTQ student who has early and possibly ongoing experiences of racist victimization may be better equipped to respond to subsequent victimization, including harassment based on their sexual orientation.[38] We did not find this same effect with regard to missing school, however. More investigation is warranted to further understand the impact of multiple forms of victimization, although it remains clear that experiencing additional forms of victimization means experiencing additional harm, and Black LGBTQ students who experienced victimization targeting both their race/ethnicity and sexual orientation experienced the poorest outcomes.

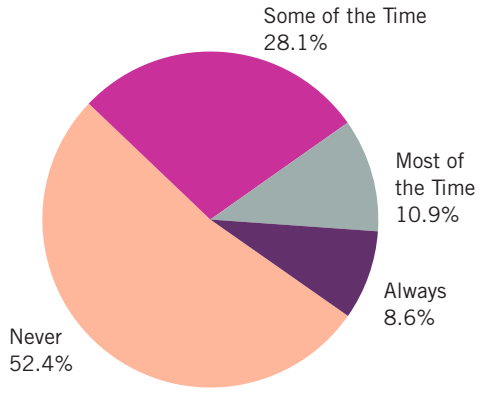
Reporting School-Based Harassment and Assault

GLSEN advocates for clear guidelines for school staff on anti-bullying and harassment incidents, and for staff to be trained in effectively responding to victimization incidents. We asked Black LGBTQ students who had experienced harassment or assault in the past school year how often they had reported the incidents to school staff, and found that the majority of students (52.4%) never reported victimization to staff (see Figure 1.9). Only 1 in 5 students reported victimization to staff "most of time" or "always" (19.5%).

Black LGBTQ students who indicated that they had not always told school personnel about their experiences with harassment or assault were asked why they did not always do so. The most common reason for not reporting victimization to staff was that they did not think that staff would do anything about it (62.9%). Furthermore, among those students who said that they reported incidents of harassment and assault to school staff, only a third of students (33.8%) reported that staff responded effectively to their reports of victimization.

We also asked LGBTQ students who had reported incidents to school staff about the actions that staff had taken in response to the reported incident. The most common staff response to students' reports of harassment and assault was telling the student to ignore it (43.6%), followed by talking to the perpetrator/telling the perpetrator to stop (41.5%), and doing nothing/taking no action (36.7%). We found that the only common response that could be considered appropriate or effective was talking to the perpetrator/telling the perpetrator to stop.[39]

Figure 1.9 Frequency of Black LGBTQ Students Reporting Incidents of Harassment and Assault to School Staff (n=981)



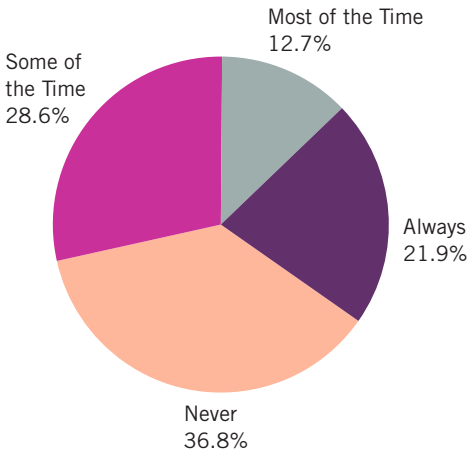
Insight on Family Reporting and Intervention

Family support has been shown to improve educational opportunities and academic success for marginalized groups, such as students with disabilities and students of color.[40] However, little is known about factors that contribute to family support, particularly for Black LGBTQ students. In this section, we examined family intervention in response to their child's victimization at school, and conditions that promote family intervention for Black LGBTQ students.

Reporting victimization to family. Given that family members may be able to intervene when incidents of victimization occur, we asked students in our survey if they reported harassment or assault to a family member. Less than half of Black LGBTQ students (47.2%) said that they had ever told a family member about the victimization they faced at school. When LGBTQ students experience victimization at school, they may be hesitant to tell family members if they are not out to them. We found that students who were out as LGBTQ to at least one family member were more likely to tell their families about the victimization they were experiencing at school, but it was only slightly more than half (54.0% of those out to family vs. 37.1% of those not out).[41]

Family intervention. Among Black LGBTQ students who reported victimization experiences to a family member, the majority (63.2%) reported that a family member talked to their teacher, principal or other school staff about the harassment or assault they experienced (see Figure).

Frequency of Intervention by Black LGBTQ Students' Family Members (n = 988)



Certain factors may increase the likelihood that family members intervene on behalf of the student with the school. Family members may be more likely to intervene when the student experiences a high severity of victimization. Further, family members of students with disabilities or educational accommodations may be more likely to be involved in the student's general school life and, thus, more likely to intervene when that student is victimized at school. In fact, we found that family members of Black LGBTQ students were more likely to talk to staff about victimization if the student experienced greater levels of sexual orientation-based victimization (71.6% vs. 57.0%) or greater levels of gender expression-based victimization (70.4% vs. 58.1%).[42] We also found that family members were more likely to talk to staff about victimization if the student had a disability (65.1% vs. 61.1% of those without a disability) or received educational accommodations (68.1% vs. 61.1% of those without educational accommodations).[43]

Conclusions. We found that many Black LGBTQ students who experienced victimization in school report victimization to their family members, and the majority of family members talked to staff about victimization experiences. Family members may be particularly compelled to intervene on behalf of students with disabilities, students who need educational accommodations, or in response to more severe levels of anti-LGBTQ victimization, though this does not appear to be the case for race-based victimization. However, we only know about how frequently family members intervened, and we do not know how effective their interventions are. Thus, it is critical for future research to assess the effectiveness of family intervention efforts in improving school climate.

Conclusions

The majority of Black LGBTQ students experienced anti-LGBTQ and racist victimization, and these forms of victimization may result in poorer academic outcomes and student well-being. In fact, those who experienced both of these forms of victimization experienced the worst educational outcomes and poorest psychological well-being. Thus, it is important that educators be particularly attentive to the needs of students who lie at the intersection of multiple forms of bias. Unfortunately, we also found that the majority of Black LGBTQ students who experienced victimization at school never reported these experiences to staff. Further, for those who did report their victimization to staff, the most common staff response was telling the student to ignore the incident. Thus, it is critical that schools implement clear and confidential pathways for students to report incidents of bias that they experience, and that educators and other school staff receive training to understand how to intervene effectively on both anti-LGBTQ and racist victimization.

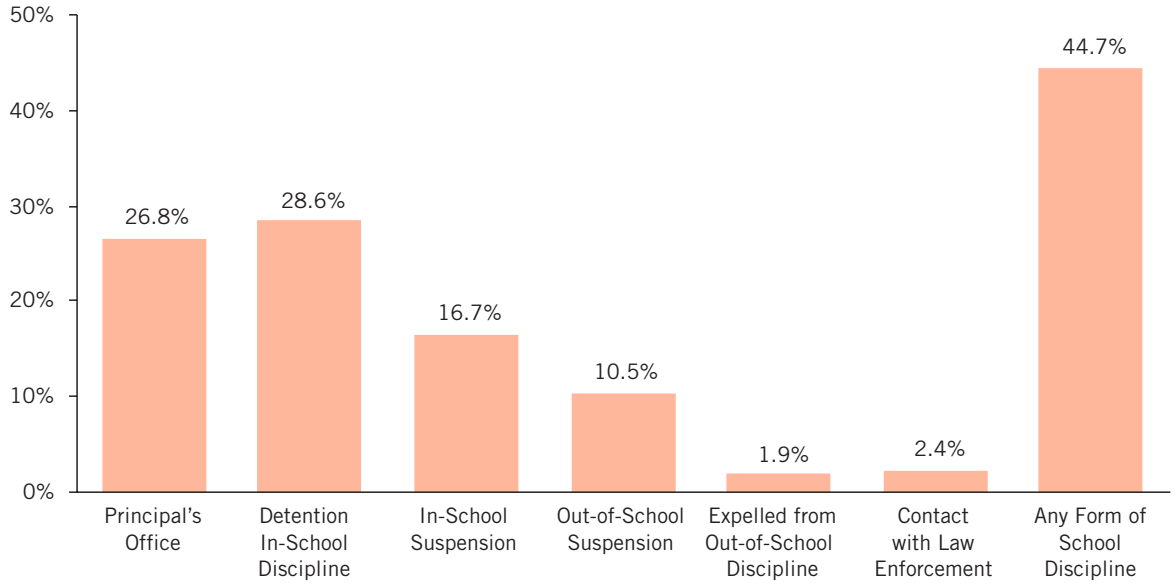
Part Two:
School Practices

Schools have a responsibility to promote positive learning for all students, including Black LGBTQ students. The availability of resources and supports in school for Black LGBTQ students is another important dimension of school climate. There are several key resources that may help to promote a safer climate and more positive school experiences for students, including student clubs that address issues for LGBTQ students and students of color, supportive school personnel, and inclusive curricular materials. However, our previous research has found that many LGBTQ students do not have such supports available in their schools. In addition, schools also often have disciplinary practices that contribute to a hostile school climate. This can be particularly challenging for Black students, who are regularly punished more harshly than their peers for similar infractions.[44] Thus, in this section, we examined school practices, and their impact on the educational outcomes and well-being of Black LGBTQ students. Specifically, we examined Black LGBTQ students' experiences of school disciplinary action, as well as the availability and utility of specific supports and resources that may uniquely impact Black LGBTQ students in ways that differ from the general LGBTQ student population, including student clubs that address LGBTQ and ethnic/cultural issues, school personnel, and LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum.

Experiences with School Discipline

The use of harsh and exclusionary discipline, such as zero tolerance policies, has contributed to higher dropout rates as well as reliance on alternative educational settings, where educational supports and opportunities may be less available.[45] There is a preponderance of research evidence that shows Black students in general are disproportionately targeted for disciplinary action in school.[46] Furthermore, prior findings indicate that LGBTQ students are disproportionately targeted for school disciplinary action.[47] Thus, Black LGBTQ students are at even greater risk of being disciplined inappropriately or disproportionately, which may have academic consequences. School discipline can also be directly connected to greater time out of school and even a greater likelihood in juvenile justice system involvement. We examined three categories of school disciplinary action: in-school discipline (including referral to the principal, detention, and in-school suspension), out-of-school discipline (including out-of-school suspension and expulsion), and having had contact with the criminal justice or juvenile justice system as a result of school discipline (including being arrested and serving time in a detention facility). As shown in Figure 2.1, nearly half of Black LGBTQ students (44.7%) reported having ever been disciplined at

Figure 2.1 Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Who Experienced School Discipline



school, most commonly in-school discipline. A small percentage of students had had contact with law enforcement as a result of school discipline (2.4%).

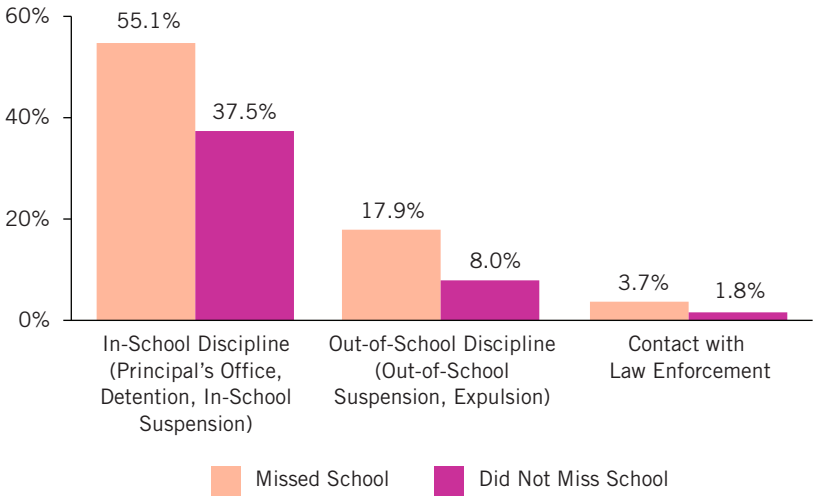
Differences in school discipline by transgender status. Previous research from GLSEN has demonstrated that, in general, transgender and other gender nonconforming (trans/GNC) students experience higher rates of in-school discipline and out-of-school discipline than cisgender LGBQ students.[48] However, we found that for Black LGBTQ students, trans/GNC students did not differ from cisgender LGBQ students on any category of school discipline that we examined (in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement).[49]

Differences in discipline by multiple racial/ethnic identities. Prior research has found that among secondary school students, students who identify as two or more racial/ethnic identities also experience disproportionate risks for school disciplinary action.[50] Thus, we examined whether Black LGBTQ students who endorsed multiple racial/ethnic identities differed from those who only identified as Black with regard to their experiences with school disciplinary action. We found that multiracial Black LGBTQ students were more likely to experience in-school discipline (46.9% vs. 37.8%) and contact with law enforcement (3.1% vs. 1.5%) than Black LGBTQ students who identified only as Black.[51] However, there were no differences between those who only identified as Black and multiracial Black LGBTQ students on experiences with out-of-school discipline. Further research is warranted to explore the possible connections between multiracial/multiethnic identity and school discipline among students of color.

Differences in school discipline by school racial composition. Some research indicates that compared to majority White schools, majority Black schools are more likely to have security personnel,[52] which may result in disproportionate levels of disciplinary action. Thus, we examined whether the disciplinary action that Black LGBTQ students experienced was related to the racial make-up of the schools they attended. We found that Black LGBTQ students who attended majority Black schools were more likely to experience out-of-school discipline (15.9%) than those in majority White schools (8.9%) or schools where the majority was another non-White race/ethnicity or had no majority race/ethnicity (8.7%). We did not, however, find any differences with regard to in-school discipline or contact with law enforcement.[53]

Impact of victimization and safety on school discipline. Several factors may be associated with LGBTQ students' school disciplinary experiences, including factors stemming from unsafe school environments. As we found in GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey*, LGBTQ students in general are often disciplined when they are, in fact, the victim of harassment or assault. Thus, we wanted to examine whether this held true specifically for Black LGBTQ students, and whether higher rates of victimization were related to higher rates of school discipline. For all three

Figure 2.2 Experiences of School Discipline by Missing School Because of Feeling Unsafe
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Who Experienced School Discipline)



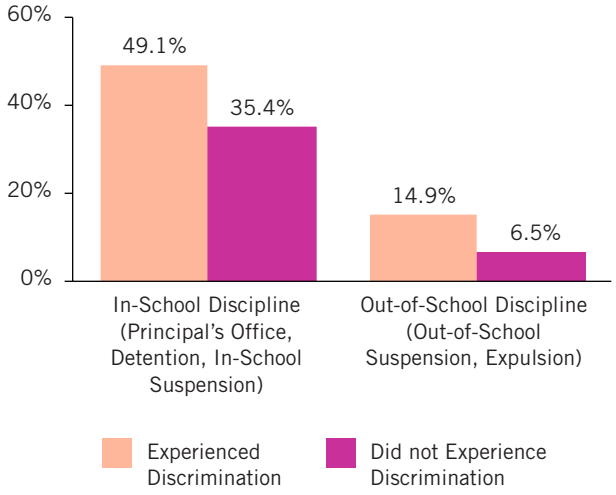
forms of school discipline (in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement) a higher severity of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, or race/ethnicity was related to increased reports of disciplinary experiences for Black LGBTQ students.[54]

LGBTQ students who are victimized at school may also miss school because they feel unsafe and thus face potential disciplinary consequences for truancy. We found that Black LGBTQ students who missed more days of school were more likely to experience all three forms of discipline (in-school, out-of-school, and contact with law enforcement).[55,56] For instance, as shown in Figure 2.2, over half of Black LGBTQ students who missed school in the past month because they felt unsafe (55.1%) experienced some form of in-school discipline, compared with just over a third of students who did not miss school (37.5%).

Impact of discriminatory school policies and practices on school discipline. Schools often employ discriminatory practices which may lead to more disciplinary action against students. In our survey, we asked LGBTQ students about a number of specific LGBTQ-related discriminatory school policies and practices at their school that they may have personally experienced, such as being disciplined for expressing public displays of affection, prevented from starting a GSA, and gender-related discrimination (e.g., prevented from using the bathroom that aligns with their gender, prevented from using the locker room that aligns with their gender, prevented from using their preferred name or pronouns). Over half of Black LGBTQ students (53.8%) experienced discriminatory school policies and practices, and these experiences were associated with school disciplinary action. As illustrated in Figure 2.3 we found that Black LGBTQ students who experienced discrimination in school were more likely to experience both in-school and out-of-school-discipline than Black LGBTQ students who did not experience discrimination in school.[57,58] Black LGBTQ students who experienced discrimination in school did not differ from those who did not experience discrimination on contact with law enforcement.

Impact of school discipline on educational outcomes. School disciplinary action may impinge on a student's educational success. Exclusionary school disciplinary practices, those that remove students from the classroom, may lead to poorer grades and a diminished desire to continue on with school. In fact, we found that Black LGBTQ students' experiences with all three forms of discipline (in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement) were related to a lower likelihood to plan on pursuing post-secondary education, and a lower grade point average (GPA) than those who did not experience disciplinary action.[59]

Figure 2.3 Experiences of School Discipline by Anti-LGBTQ Discrimination
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Who Experienced School Discipline)



School-Based Supports and Resources for Black LGBTQ Students

In our *2017 National School Climate Survey* report, we demonstrated the positive impact of LGBTQ-related school resources and supports on LGBTQ students' educational outcomes and well-being for LGBTQ secondary school students in general. Unfortunately, we also found that many LGBTQ students did not have access to these types of resources in school. Thus, in this section, we examined the availability and utility of school supports, including LGBTQ-related school supports as well as student-led ethnic/cultural clubs, for Black LGBTQ students. It is important to note that for institutional supports, including the presence of GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs, school characteristics may be related to their availability, such as region, locale, school racial composition, and school size. Other school supports, such as having educators and administrators who are supportive of LGBTQ students, may differ based on the identities of Black LGBTQ students. For example, a student's Black or LGBTQ identities may not be related to whether they have a GSA or an ethnic/cultural club, but it may be related to how supportive their teachers are of them. Yet one's racial composition may be related to the types of schools one attends or has access to (e.g., school racial composition, region, locale), and schools then vary in the availability of LGBTQ-related institutional supports. (See GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey* report for full discussion of school characteristics and the availability of supports.) Therefore, we also examined how the availability of these supports may be related to various demographic and school characteristics, such as school location and student body racial composition.

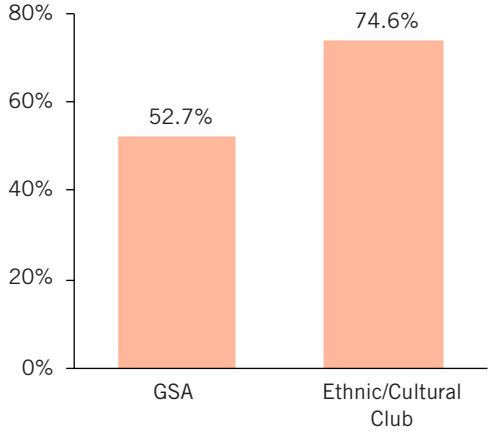
GSAs. GSAs, often known as Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances, are student-led clubs that address LGBTQ student issues and can be supportive spaces for LGBTQ students. The presence of GSAs, regardless of participation in them, can provide LGBTQ students with a safe and affirming space within a school environment that may be hostile. Similar to the national percentage of LGBTQ students from the *2017 National School Climate Survey*, over half of Black LGBTQ students (52.7%) reported having a GSA at their school (see Figure 2.4).

Some research suggests that LGBTQ youth who attend schools in non-White communities experience difficulty in accessing GSAs.[60] Therefore, we examined whether the availability of GSAs for Black LGBTQ youth was related to whether their school's student body was predominantly Black, White, another non-White race, or had no racial/ethnic majority. As shown in Figure 2.5, Black LGBTQ students who attended majority-Black schools were less likely to have GSAs than all others.[61] It may be that GSAs are seen as less of a priority in majority-Black communities. GSAs may be perceived in these communities as clubs for White students, which may impact student club formation.

We also examined whether other school characteristics, including locale (urban, suburban, rural), region (Northwest, South, Midwest, West), and size of school were related to the availability of GSAs. Black LGBTQ students in urban and suburban schools were more likely to have a GSA at their school than those in rural schools.[62] Regarding region, Black LGBTQ students who attended schools in the Northeast and West were the most likely to have a GSA, and students who attended school in the South were least likely to have a GSA. Finally, regarding size of the school population, Black LGBTQ students who attended larger schools were more likely to have a GSA.[63]

GSAs and other similar student clubs can provide a safe and inclusive school environment for LGBTQ students and their allies to meet, socialize, and

Figure 2.4 Availability of GSAs and Ethnic/Cultural Clubs
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Who Reported Having Club at Their School)



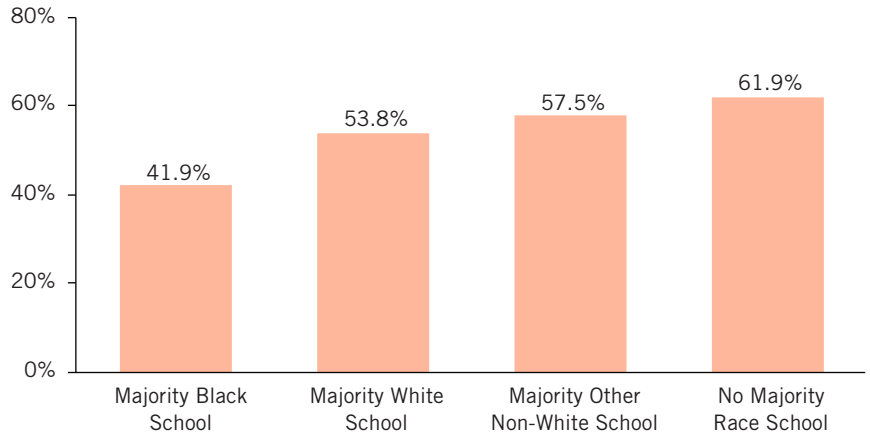
advocate for change in their school communities.[64] Thus, students who have a GSA may feel more connected to school and may be less likely to miss school because they have a safe and affirming space in a school environment that may otherwise by hostile. Also, in that GSAs can often effect change in the school for a safer environment for LGBTQ students, LGBTQ students with a GSA may be less likely to feel unsafe at school, and may feel a greater sense of belonging to the school community. In fact, we found that Black LGBTQ students with a GSA at their school were less likely to miss school due to safety concerns (27.0% vs. 34.3%), and felt more connected to their school community than those who did not have a GSA.[65] Black LGBTQ students who had a GSA at their school were also less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation (47.0% vs. 57.0%).[66] There was, however, no relationship regarding feeling unsafe because of gender expression.

We also examined whether GSA availability was related to feeling unsafe regarding race/ethnicity. However, we found that Black LGBTQ students who had a GSA at school were more likely to feel unsafe because of their race/ethnicity (33.0% vs. 28.1%).[67] This may, in part, be because GSAs were less commonly found in Black majority schools, which is also where Black students feel the least unsafe because of their race/ethnicity.[68] In fact, after accounting for racial composition of their school, Black LGBTQ students with a GSA at their school no longer differed from those without a GSA on feeling unsafe due to their race/ethnicity.[69]

Ethnic/cultural clubs. Ethnic/cultural clubs that bring together students of a particular racial, ethnic, and/or cultural background can offer a supportive space in school for those students. As such, the presence of these clubs, regardless of participation in them, may offer Black LGBTQ youth a network of peer support with other Black youth that may be more difficult to find in the general student population. We found that three-quarters of Black LGBTQ students (74.6%) reported that their school had an ethnic or cultural club at their school (see Figure 2.4). We also examined whether certain school characteristics were related to the availability of ethnic/cultural clubs, including racial composition, region, locale, and school size. The availability of ethnic/cultural clubs did not vary based on most of the school characteristics, except for locale and school size. Regarding locale, Black LGBTQ students who attended suburban schools were more likely to have an ethnic/cultural club than those who attended rural schools, but those who attended urban schools did not differ from those who attended suburban and rural schools.[70] Regarding size of the school population, Black LGBTQ students who attended larger schools were more likely to have an ethnic/cultural club.[71]

Schools with ethnic/cultural clubs may afford Black LGBTQ students the opportunity to network with other Black students. Further, similar to GSAs, regardless of participation, ethnic/cultural clubs may indicate to Black LGBTQ students that the school is a welcoming and supportive place for them. We, in fact, found that Black LGBTQ students who had an ethnic/cultural club at their school had greater feelings of school belonging, and felt safer due to their race/ethnicity.[72]

Figure 2.5 Presence of GSA and School Racial Composition
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Who Have a GSA)



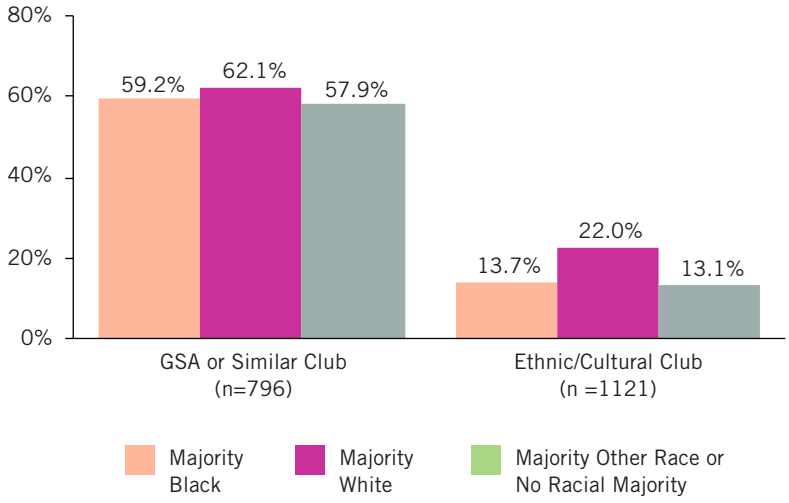
Insight on Club Participation and Leadership

As discussed previously, having a GSA or ethnic/cultural club at school is associated with several benefits for Black LGBTQ students, regardless of whether one participates in these clubs. However, it is also important to examine participation in these types of clubs and the possible benefits of participating for Black LGBTQ students. Prior research has demonstrated that participation in GSAs may mitigate some of the harmful effects of anti-LGBTQ victimization.[73] There is also evidence that ethnic/cultural clubs may provide a means of cultural validation for students of color.[74] However, there has been little research on the benefits of participation in these clubs for LGBTQ students of color. Thus, we examined the effects of participation on student well-being. Also, given that GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs may encourage students to work toward social and political change,[75] we examined the relationship between club participation and civic engagement.

GSA participation. As previously noted, only about half of Black LGBTQ students (52.7%) had a GSA at their school, though the majority of those with a GSA participated in the club (61.9%), and about one-fifth (19.9%) participated as an officer or a leader. We also examined whether rates of club participation were related to the racial composition of the student body, but did not observe a significant relationship (see Figure).[76]

Given that GSAs may offer Black LGBTQ youth a network of support at school, we examined whether GSA members felt an increased sense of school belonging. However, we did not observe a relationship between GSA participation and school belonging.[77]

Club Participation and Student Body Racial Majority
(Percentage of Black LGBTQ Students Participating in Club, Among Those with Club Available at School)



We did find that GSAs may offer students opportunities and instill skills to work towards more LGBTQ-inclusive schools and communities. For example, we found that Black LGBTQ students who led their GSAs felt more comfortable bringing up LGBTQ issues in class than those who were not part of their GSA, as well as those who attended meetings but were not GSA leaders.[78] We also found that GSA members were more likely than those who did not attend meetings to participate in a GLSEN Day of Action (such as Day of Silence)[79] or an event where people express their political views (such as a poetry slam or youth forum), with GSA leaders being the most likely to take part in either of these activities.[80]

GSA leaders were also more likely than those not involved in their GSA to engage in other forms of activism, specifically: volunteering to campaign for a political cause or candidate; participating in a boycott; expressing views about politics or social issues on social media; participating in a rally, protest, or demonstration for a cause; and contacting politicians, governments, or authorities about issues important to them.[81] However, we did not find that non-leader GSA members were more likely to participate in these activities than those not participating in their GSA. It may be that some GSAs function more as a source of social and emotional support than a means of civic engagement for students who choose not to take on a club leadership role.

Black LGBTQ students who participate in GSAs may also face challenges at school regarding their LGBTQ identity. We found that both GSA leaders and other GSA members experienced greater levels of victimization due to sexual orientation and due to gender expression than those who did not attend meetings.[82] It could be that greater levels of anti-LGBTQ harassment compel Black LGBTQ students to join their school's GSA, as a source of support or a means of taking action. It may also be that students who participate in their GSA are more visible as LGBTQ and, thus, more likely to be targeted for anti-LGBTQ

victimization than their peers. Further research is warranted regarding the reasons that compel LGBTQ students to participate in GSAs, and the impacts of GSA leadership.

Ethnic/cultural club participation. As previously noted, the majority of Black LGBTQ students (74.6%) had an ethnic/cultural club at their school; however, only 16.7% of those with such a club attended meetings, with 3.2% who participated as an officer or a leader. Although the percentage of those participating in these clubs may seem low, it is important to note that some may have an ethnic/cultural club at their school for an ethnic or cultural community with which they do not identify.

Ethnic/cultural clubs may create a space for students of a particular racial, ethnic, or cultural background to meet, offering a network of peer support with other Black youth at school. We found that students were more likely to participate in an ethnic/cultural club if they attended a White-majority school (see Figure).[83] Furthermore, Black LGBTQ youth who participated in an ethnic/cultural club, in fact, had a greater sense of school belonging than those who did not participate.[84]

We found that involvement in the school's ethnic/cultural club was also related to engagement in the various forms of activism discussed above with regard to GSA involvement, including participation in a GLSEN Day of Action.[85] However, in contrast to our findings regarding GSAs, we did not find that club leaders were generally more likely to participate in these activities than other club members. This suggests that ethnic/cultural club membership itself may be associated with greater civic engagement, regardless of the level of club participation.

It is possible that Black LGBTQ students are more likely to participate in an ethnic/cultural club when they experience more racial victimization at school and have a greater need for support. We found that Black LGBTQ students who attended an ethnic/cultural club experienced greater levels of victimization due to race/ethnicity than those who did not attend meetings.[86] We examined whether this relationship may be due to school racial composition, given that Black LGBTQ students are especially likely to participate in their ethnic/cultural club if they attend a White-majority school, where they are greater risk for race-based victimization.[87] However, after controlling for school racial composition, the relationship between club participation and victimization remained significant.[88]

Conclusions. GSA and ethnic/cultural club participation were both associated with positive outcomes for Black LGBTQ students, although these benefits differed by club type. Ethnic/cultural club participation, for example, was associated with greater levels of school belonging, perhaps because of the opportunity they can offer for students of similar backgrounds, experiences, and interests to meet and socialize. Having such a space may be especially important for Black youth who attend a White-majority school, given the higher rates of club participation at these schools among those in our sample.

Participation in GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs were both associated with greater levels of civic engagement. However, for GSAs, this relationship was generally only significant for Black LGBTQ students who participated as leaders. It may be that GSAs are more likely than ethnic/cultural clubs to function as sources of support for members who choose not to take on a leadership role. Regardless, each club is associated with some degree of civic engagement, and future research is warranted regarding GSA and ethnic/cultural club activities that may promote political action and advocacy efforts among club members.

Finally, we also found that Black LGBTQ students who participated in their GSA experienced greater levels of anti-LGBTQ victimization. It is unclear whether greater levels of victimization lead students to attend GSA meetings, or whether greater visibility among GSA members leads to greater levels of victimization. Further research is needed to examine the nature of this relationship. However, given that prior findings indicate that GSAs may mitigate some of the harmful impacts of victimization, more research is also warranted regarding the types of GSA activities that best support LGBTQ students, including Black LGBTQ students, who are experiencing harassment at school.

Supportive school personnel. Previous research has established that for LGBTQ students in general, having supportive teachers, principals, and other school staff and administration has benefits for education and psychological outcomes. For Black LGBTQ students, having such supports may be especially beneficial because they may experience victimization or discrimination that targets their multiple identities, and because they may receive less support in general because of both their race/ethnicity and LGBTQ identity. In our survey, we asked about how many school staff are supportive of LGBTQ students, and how supportive administrators are of LGBTQ students. Similar to our findings on LGBTQ students in general from the *2017 National School Climate Survey* report, the vast majority of Black LGBTQ students (96.1%) could identify at least one supportive staff member at school and only two-fifths (39.9%) reported having many supportive staff (11 or more) (see Figure 2.6). Also similar to the general LGBTQ student population, only two-fifths (40.5%) reported having somewhat or very supportive school administration (see Figure 2.7). It is possible that multiracial Black LGBTQ students may be treated differently by educators and administrators than those who only identify as Black; however, there were no differences between those who only identified as Black and multiracial Black LGBTQ students on availability of supportive educators and level of support from administrators.[89]

Given that Black LGBTQ students often feel unsafe and unwelcome in school, as discussed earlier in this report, having access to school personnel who provide support for LGBTQ students may be critical for creating better learning environments for Black LGBTQ students. Therefore, we examined the relationships between the presence of staff who are supportive of LGBTQ students and several indicators of school climate, including absenteeism, feelings of safety because of personal characteristics, psychological well-being, feelings of school belonging, achievement and aspirations.

As illustrated in Figure 2.8, Black LGBTQ students who had more staff who were supportive of LGBTQ students:

- were less likely to miss school due to safety concerns; and
- were less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity. [90]

In addition, Black LGBTQ students who had more staff who were supportive of LGBTQ students:

- had higher levels of self-esteem (e.g., 54.8% with 11 or more supportive staff reporting higher self-esteem vs. 41.3% with no supportive staff)
- had lower levels of depression (e.g., 40.1% with 11 or more supportive staff reporting higher depression vs. 58.3% with no supportive staff);
- had increased feelings of connectedness to their school community (e.g., 72.8% with 11 or more supportive staff reporting higher feelings of connectedness to their school community vs. 37.8% with no supportive staff);

Figure 2.6 Black LGBTQ Students' Reports on the Number of Teachers and Other School Staff Who are Supportive of LGBTQ Students

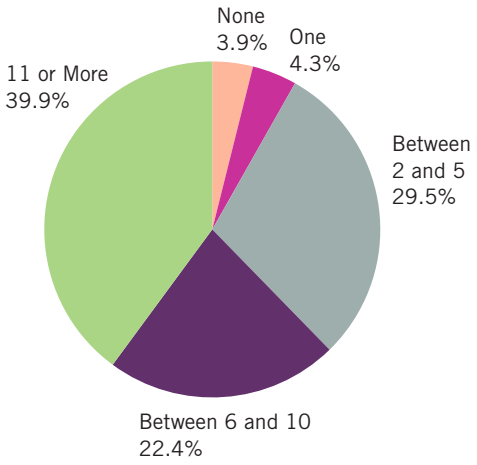
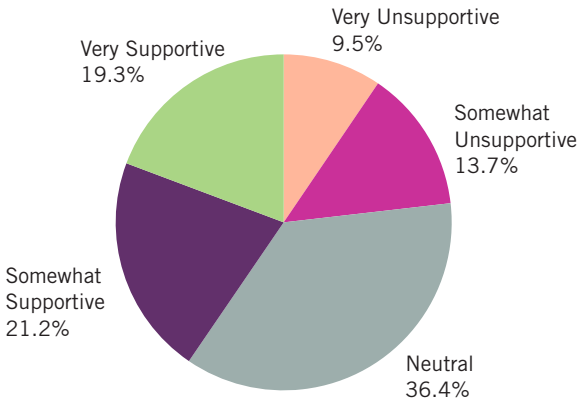
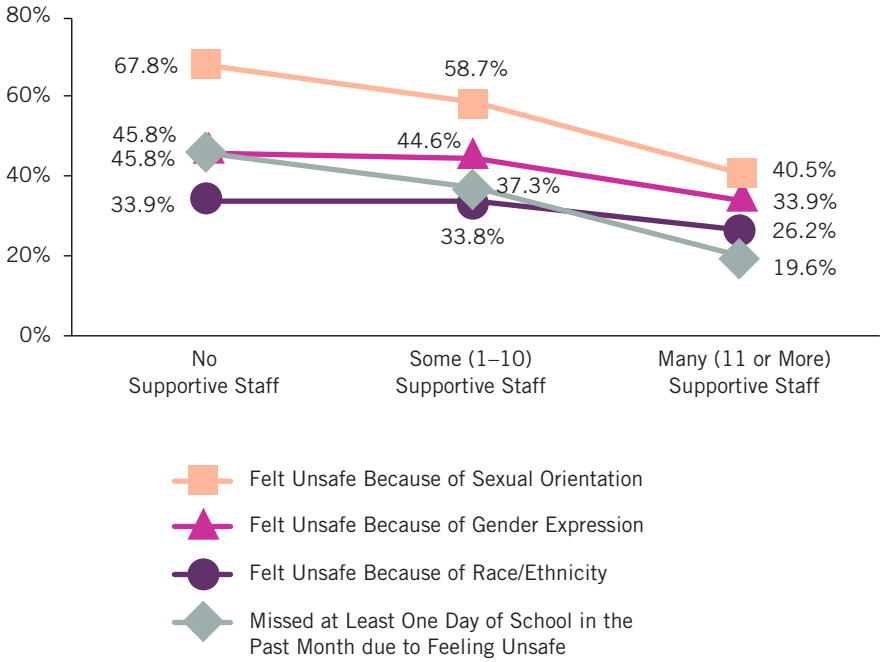


Figure 2.7 Black LGBTQ Students' Reports on How Supportive Their School Administration is of LGBTQ Students



- had higher GPAs (e.g., average GPA of 3.2 with 11 or more supportive staff vs. 3.0 with no supportive staff), and
- had greater educational aspirations (e.g., 95.7% with 11 or more supportive staff planning to pursue post-secondary education vs. 92.5% with no supportive staff).[91]

Figure 2.8 Supportive School Staff and Feelings of Safety and Missing School



Insight on Inclusive Curriculum

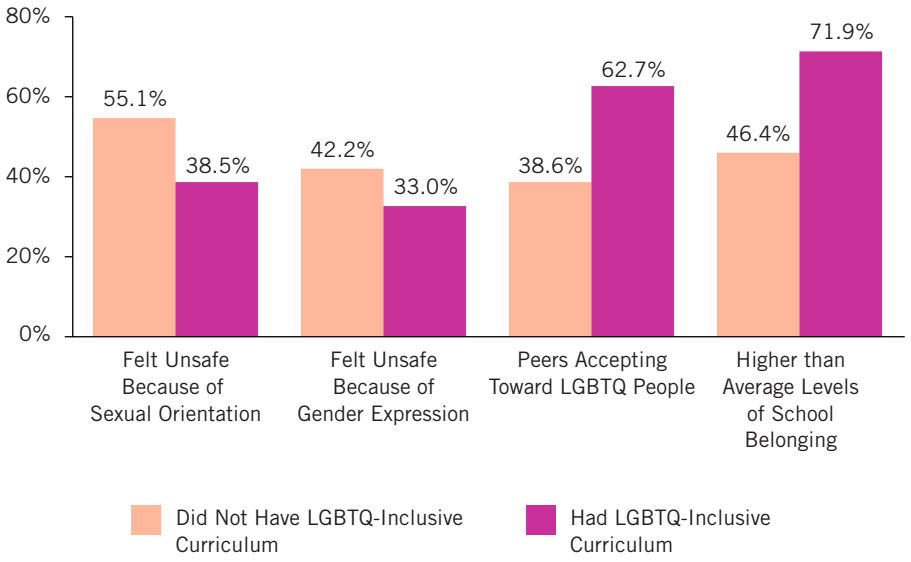
Findings from GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey* show that having an LGBTQ inclusive curriculum, such as learning about LGBTQ history and positive roles models, can positively shape the school experiences of LGBTQ students in general. With regard to LGBTQ curricular inclusion, we found that less than a quarter of Black LGBTQ students (21.4%) were taught positive representations of LGBTQ people, history, or events, which is similar to the percentage of the full sample of LGBTQ students.

Teaching students about LGBTQ history, people, and events in a positive manner may help Black LGBTQ students feel more valued at school, and it may also promote positive feelings toward LGBTQ students from peers. Thus, we examined the relationship between having an inclusive curriculum and feeling unsafe because of personal characteristics, peer acceptance of LGBTQ people, and school belonging. As shown in the figure, compared to Black LGBTQ students who did not have an inclusive curriculum at their school, those who had an inclusive curriculum:

- were less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation and gender expression;[92]
- were more likely to have peers be accepting of LGBTQ people at school;[93] and
- felt more connected to their school community.[94]

Interestingly, Black LGBTQ students who had an LGBTQ inclusive curriculum were also less likely to feel unsafe because of their race/ethnicity than those who did not have an LGBTQ inclusive curriculum (26% vs. 32%).[95] It may be that teaching students positive representations of LGBTQ history, people, and events not only makes peers more accepting of LGBTQ students, but perhaps also more accepting of diversity in general, including racial/ethnic diversity. It is also possible that schools or school districts that include positive representations of LGBTQ topics may also be likely to have positive inclusion about race/ethnicity in their curriculum, policies and practices.

Inclusive Curriculum and Feelings of Safety, Peer Acceptance, and School Belonging among Black LGBTQ Students



It is important to note that we did not ask questions about other types of curricular inclusion, such as content about Black people, history or events. Previous research has shown that for Black students in general, positive representations of Black people, history and events can help to dissolve stereotypical mainstream representations about this population.[96] This would also benefit the learning experience and well-being of Black LGBTQ youth, and could also work in concert with LGBTQ inclusion to greater benefit this population of students. Further research is needed to understand the benefits of combining Black and LGBTQ curricular inclusion for Black LGBTQ youth.

Conclusions. A school curriculum that is inclusive of diverse identities may help to instill beliefs in the intrinsic value of all individuals. We found that Black LGBTQ students who were taught positive representations about LGBTQ people, history, or events at school felt more connected to their school community, and felt safer at school not only with regard to their LGBTQ identity, but also with their racial/ethnic identity. Therefore, having an LGBTQ curriculum may mitigate anti-LGBTQ victimization, as well as racist victimization for Black LGBTQ students. However, such an inclusive curriculum was unavailable for the majority of Black LGBTQ youth. Thus, it is imperative that educators are provided with both training and resources to deliver school lessons and activities that reflect the diverse identities and communities present in their classrooms.

Conclusions

In this section, we examined Black LGBTQ students' experiences with school practices, particularly school disciplinary action and school resources and supports. Black LGBTQ students experienced high rates of school discipline. We also found that Black LGBTQ students who experienced institutional discrimination were more likely to experience both in-school and out-of-school discipline. Research and policy initiatives that attempt to address school disciplinary action and juvenile justice must be inclusive of, and respond to, the experiences of Black LGBTQ youth. In order to ensure that schools are welcoming and affirming of all its students, schools should eliminate policies and practices that discriminate against Black LGBTQ students. Moreover, administrators, policymakers, and teachers should advocate for disciplinary policies that are restorative instead of punitive.

Overall, having access to school supports and resources helps to improve the school safety and educational outcomes for Black LGBTQ students. We found that having more LGBTQ-supportive staff was associated with greater feelings of school belonging and school safety, greater educational outcomes, and improved psychological well-being. Similarly, having an LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum was related to greater feelings of school belonging and school safety. Further, not only are the availability of and participation in GSAs beneficial for Black LGBTQ students, but ethnic/cultural clubs are as well. However, as our findings indicate, many Black LGBTQ students do not have access to these supportive resources. It is important to note that we did not explore any other resources regarding race/ethnicity, and so we do not have information on racial/ethnic specific resources. For instance, we do not know whether Black LGBTQ students are exposed to positive representations of Black history, people, and events and how such representations may be beneficial for their educational experience. Further, we are able to know the benefits of having school personnel who are supportive of LGBTQ students, but are not able to know about school personnel who are supportive of Black students in general. Given that the experiences of Black LGBTQ students lie at the intersection of multiple forms of bias, future research should examine resources that support and affirm these students' multiple marginalized identities.

Discussion

Limitations

The findings presented in this report provide new information and valuable insight on the school experiences of Black LGBTQ students. However, there are some limitations to our study. The participants in this study were only representative of those who self-identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer, and have some connection to the LGBTQ community either through local organizations or online, and LGBTQ youth who were not comfortable identifying their sexual orientation in this manner may not have learned about the survey. Therefore, participants in this study did not include those who self-identified as LGBTQ but had no connection to the LGBTQ community. The participants in this study also did not include students who have a sexual attraction to the same gender or multiple genders, but do not identify themselves as LGBQ.

In the survey, there were several instances where we did not ask about race/ethnicity as it pertained to their unique school experiences of LGBTQ youth of color. For instance, we did not ask peer support related to race/ethnicity, which would have provided a more comprehensive understanding on peer support for Black LGBTQ students. We also did not ask in the survey about whether participants had racial/ethnic inclusive curriculum at their school. Having a curriculum that is inclusive of diverse LGBTQ and racial/ethnic identities could have added benefits for Black LGBTQ students than an LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum alone.

It is also important to note that our survey only reflects the experiences of LGBTQ students who were in school during the 2016-2017 school year. Thus, findings from this survey may not necessarily reflect the experiences of Black LGBTQ students who had already dropped out of school, whose experiences may be different from students who remained in school.

Conclusions

Findings presented in this report highlight the unique experiences of Black LGBTQ students at the intersections of their various identities, including race, gender, and sexual orientation. The majority of Black LGBTQ students experienced harassment in school in the past year because of their sexual orientation, gender expression, or race/ethnicity. This victimization was particularly severe for both trans/GNC Black students as well as multiracial Black LGBTQ students, which may be related to greater levels of social exclusion faced by these groups at school. Further, we also found that those who experienced both homophobic and racist victimization experienced the poorest academic outcomes and psychological well-being.

Although victimization experiences were common, the majority of Black LGBTQ students never reported the victimization that they experienced to school staff, most often because they did not think staff would do anything about it. This may be linked to a mistrust for educational institutions and authority figures that have historically disenfranchised both Black youth in general, as well as LGBTQ youth in general. In fact, Black LGBTQ youth who did report their victimization indicated that two of the most common responses from staff were doing nothing and telling the student to ignore it, which may exacerbate these feelings of mistrust. Further, we also found that Black LGBTQ youth who experienced victimization were also more likely to experience exclusionary school discipline, such as detention, suspension, or expulsion. Such disciplinary actions may leave Black LGBTQ students feeling targeted by both peers and staff, and may increase their likelihood of involvement with the criminal and juvenile justice system.

We did identify critical resources that were beneficial for Black LGBTQ youth. For example, having an LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum and having LGBTQ-supportive educators at school were both associated with Black LGBTQ students feeling more connected to their school community and feeling less unsafe regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, and even their race/ethnicity. Supportive student clubs such as GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs were also associated with greater feelings of safety and greater school belonging. Further, those who attended these clubs were more likely to engage in activism in their schools and communities. However, attending GSA meetings did not increase school belonging for Black LGBTQ students, which may indicate a greater need for GSAs to be inclusive and supportive of their Black LGBTQ members. We also found that many Black LGBTQ students did not have access to supportive school resources. For example, nearly half did not have a GSA at

their school, and Black LGBTQ students were even less likely to have access to GSAs when they attended majority Black schools. Prior research indicates that schools that primarily serve students of color have disproportionately low levels of funding.[97] More efforts need to be made to reduce inequities in funding to provide more professional development to school personnel, and more LGBTQ-inclusive curricular materials.

Recommendations

As educators, advocates, and others concerned with issues of educational equity and access continue to address the myriad forms of oppression found in and out of school, such as racism, heterosexism, homophobia and transphobia, they must also account for the intersections of these forms of oppression. Therefore, addressing the concerns of Black LGBTQ students requires a nuanced approach to combating racism, homophobia, and transphobia. Further, it is important to have a greater understanding of the experiences, needs and concerns of Black LGBTQ students through specific and focused efforts.

Educators, policymakers, safe school advocates, and others working to make schools a more inclusive space, must continue to seek to understand the multifaceted experiences of Black LGBTQ students, particularly with regard to how we can render accessible specific resources that support these students at school and in larger communities outside of school. This report demonstrates the ways in which the availability of supportive student clubs, supportive educators, and other school-based resources for Black LGBTQ students can positively affect their school experiences. We recommend school leaders, education policymakers, and other individuals who want to provide safe learning environments for Black LGBTQ students to:

- Support student clubs, such as GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs. Organizations that work with GSAs and ethnic/cultural clubs should also come together to address Black LGBTQ students' needs related to their multiple marginalized identities, including sexual orientation, gender, and race/ethnicity.

- Provide professional development for school staff on Black LGBTQ student issues.

- Increase student access to curricular resources that include diverse and positive representations of both Black and LGBTQ people, history, and events.

- Establish school policies and guidelines for staff in responding to anti-LGBTQ and racist behavior, and develop clear and confidential pathways for students to report victimization that they experience. Local, state, and federal education agencies should also hold schools accountable for establishing and implementing these practices and procedures.

- Work to address the inequities in funding at the local, state, and national level to increase access to institutional supports and education in general, and to provide more professional development for educators and school counselors.

Taken together, such measures can move us towards a future in which all students have the opportunity to learn and succeed in school, regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity, gender expression, race, or ethnicity.

Endnotes

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Crenshaw, K. (1990). Mapping, the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. *Stanford Law Review, 43*(6), 1241–1299.

10 For a full discussion of the Methods, refer to page 7 of GLSEN's *2017 National School Climate Survey* report.

11 Sexual orientation was assessed with a multi-check question item (i.e., gay, lesbian, straight/heterosexual, bisexual, pansexual, questioning, queer, and asexual) with an optional write-in item for sexual orientations not listed. Students in the categories Queer, Another Sexual Orientation, and Questioning/Unsure did not also indicate that they were gay/lesbian, bisexual, or pansexual.

12 Pansexual identity is commonly defined as experiencing attraction to some people, regardless of their gender identity. This identity may be distinct from a Bisexual identity, which is commonly described as either experiencing attraction to some male-identified people and some female-identified people or as experiencing attraction to some people of the same gender and some people of different genders.

13 Students who indicated that they were asexual and another sexual orientation were categorized as another sexual orientation. Additionally, students who indicated that their only sexual orientation was asexual and also indicated that they were cisgender were not included in the final study sample. Therefore, all students included in the Asexual category also are not cisgender (i.e., are transgender, genderqueer, another nonbinary identity, or questioning their gender). For further examination of school climate for asexual-identifying students in our sample, see the *School Climate and Sexual Orientation* section.

14 Race/ethnicity was assessed with a single multi-check question item (i.e., African American or Black; Asian or South Asian; Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander; Native American, American Indian, or Alaska Native; White or Caucasian; Hispanic or Latino/a; and Middle Eastern or Arab American) with an optional write-in item for race/ethnicities not listed. All participants included in this report identified as African American or Black. Percentages are listed for students who selected other racial/ethnic identities in addition to African American or Black.

15 Latinx is a variant of the masculine "Latino" and feminine "Latina" that leaves gender unspecified and, therefore, aims to be more inclusive of diverse gender identities, including nonbinary individuals. To learn more: https://www.meriam-webster.com/words-at-play/word-history-latinx.

16 It is important to note that we do not know the immigration status of the parents/guardians of students in our survey. Therefore, it is possible that students in the survey who were born outside the U.S. and its territories have U.S. citizenship because one of their parents/guardians does, and would not technically be immigrants to the U.S.. Therefore, U.S. citizens born outside the U.S. may include both immigrants and non-immigrants.

17 Gender was assessed via three items: an item assessing sex assigned at birth (i.e., male or female), an item assessing gender identity (i.e., male, female, nonbinary, and an additional write-in option), and a multiple response item assessing sex/gender status (i.e., cisgender, transgender, genderqueer, intersex, and an additional write-in option). Based on responses to these three items, students' gender was categorized as: Cisgender Male, Cisgender Female, Cisgender Unspecified (those who did not provide any sex at birth or gender identity information), Transgender Male, Transgender Female, Transgender Nonbinary, Transgender Unspecified (those who did not provide any gender identity information), Genderqueer, Another Nonbinary Identity (i.e., those who indicated a nonbinary identity but did not indicate that they were transgender or genderqueer, including those who wrote in identities such as "gender fluid" or "demi gender"), or Questioning/Unsure.

18 Receiving educational accommodations was assessed with a question that asked students if they received any educational support services at school, including special education classes, extra time on tests, resource classes, or other accommodations.

19 Students were placed into region based on the state they were from – Northeast: Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Washington, DC; South: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia; Midwest: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin; West: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, Wyoming; U.S. Territories: American Samoa, Guam, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands.

20 Mean differences in reasons for feeling unsafe were examined using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .60, $F(10, 1524) = 227.09$, $p<.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Significant differences were found between all reasons with the exception of: because of an actual/perceived disability and actual/perceived religion were not different from each other, and; because of citizenship status and how well the student speaks English were not different from each other. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

21 Mean differences in rates of hearing biased language were examined using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .39, $F(5, 1524) = 191.51$, $p<.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Significant differences were found between all forms of biased language with the exception of: racist

remarks and comments about not acting "masculine" enough were not different from each other, and; negative remarks about transgender people and comments about not acting "feminine" enough were not different from each other. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

22 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Zongrone, A. D., Clark, C. M., & Truong, N. L. (2018). *The 2017 National School Climate Survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth in our nation's schools*. New York: GLSEN.

23 Mean differences in rates of experiencing different forms of victimization were examined using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .10, $F(2, 1487) = 82.20$, $p<.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Significant differences were found between all forms of victimization. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

24 The relationships between missing school, school belonging, and depression and severity of victimization due to sexual orientation were examined through Pearson correlations. Missing school: $r(1515) = .42$, $p<.001$; school belonging: $r(1514) = -.36$, $p<.001$; depression: $r(1502) = .31$, $p<.001$.

The relationship between educational aspirations and victimization was examined using an analysis of variance (ANOVA), with victimization as the dependent variable and educational aspirations as the independent variable. The effect was significant: $F(5, 1498) = 14.48$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Those not planning to graduate high school or unsure of their high school graduation plans experienced greater levels of victimization than all others. There were no other observable differences. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

25 The relationship between missing school, school belonging, and depression and severity of victimization due to race/ethnicity was examined through Pearson correlations. Missing school: $r(1527) = .32$, $p<.001$; school belonging: $r(1526) = -.33$, $p<.001$; depression: $r(1514) = .35$, $p<.001$.

The relationship between educational aspirations and severity of victimization due to race/ethnicity was examined using an analysis of variance (ANOVA), but was not observed to be significant.

26 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Zongrone, A. D., Clark, C. M., & Truong, N. L. (2018). *The 2017 National School Climate Survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth in our nation's schools*. New York: GLSEN.

Reisner, S. L., Greytak, E. A., Parsons, J. T., et al. (2015). Gender minority social stress in adolescence: Disparities in adolescent bullying and substance use by gender identity. *Journal of Sex Research, 52*, 243–256.

27 To examine differences in severity of victimization, a multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with three dependent variables: severity of victimization due to sexual orientation, due to gender expression, and due to race/ethnicity. The independent variable was whether students identified as cisgender or as trans/GNC. The main effect was significant: $F(3, 1367) = 39.93$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$: trans/GNC students were more likely to experience all 3 forms of victimization, but the effect size was smallest for victimization due to race/ethnicity. Sexual orientation: $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; gender expression: $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$; race/ethnicity: $p<.05$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

28 Lewis, D. C., Flores, A. R., Haider-Markel, D. P., Miller, P. R., Tadlock, B. L., & Taylor, J. K. (2017). Degrees of acceptance: Variation in public attitudes toward segments of the LGBT community. *Political Research Quarterly, 70*(4), 861–875.

29 Herman, M. (2004). Forced to choose: Some determinants of racial identification in multiracial adolescents. *Society for Research in Child Development, 75*(3), 730–748.

30 Renn, K. A. (2000). Patterns of situational identity among biracial and multiracial college students. *The Review of Higher Education, 23*(4), 399–420.

31 To examine differences in severity of victimization, a multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with three dependent variables: severity of victimization due to sexual orientation, due to gender expression, and due to race/ethnicity. The independent variable was whether students identified only as Black or endorsed one or more racial/ethnic identities in addition to Black. The main effect was significant: $F(3, 1453) = 9.98$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$: students who endorsed multiple racial/ethnic identities were more likely to experience all 3 forms of victimization. Sexual orientation: $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; gender expression: $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; race/ethnicity: $p<.05$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

32 The full percentage breakdowns are as follows – did not experience victimization due to sexual orientation or race/ethnicity: 22.9%; experienced victimization due sexual orientation, but not race/ethnicity: 25.1%; experienced victimization due to race/ethnicity, but not sexual orientation: 12.0%; experienced victimization due to both sexual orientation and race/ethnicity: 40.0%.

33 To examine differences in number of school days missed, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with number of school days missed due to feeling unsafe as the dependent variable. The independent variable was whether students experienced victimization based on sexual orientation, based on race/ethnicity, or both. The main effect was significant: $F(3, 1517) = 60.48$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$: students who experienced both forms of victimization missed more days than all others; students who only experienced victimization based on sexual orientation were not significantly different from those who only experienced victimization based on race/ethnicity; students who experienced neither form of victimization missed fewer days than all others. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

34 To examine differences in levels of school belonging, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with school belonging as the dependent variable. The independent variable was whether students experienced victimization based on sexual orientation, based on race/ethnicity, or both. The main effect was significant: $F(3, 1516) = 66.50$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$: students who experienced both forms of victimization had lower levels of belonging than all others; students who only experienced victimization based on sexual orientation were not significantly different from those who only experienced victimization based on race/ethnicity; students who experienced neither form of victimization had the highest levels of belonging. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

35 To examine differences in levels of depression, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with depression as the dependent variable. The independent variable was whether students experienced victimization based on sexual orientation, based on race/ethnicity, or both. The main effect was significant: $F(3, 1504) = 65.08$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$: students who experienced both forms of victimization had higher levels of depression than all others; students who only experienced victimization based on sexual orientation were not significantly different from those who only experienced victimization based on race/ethnicity; students who experienced neither form of victimization had the lowest levels of depression. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

36 Bowleg, L., Huang, J., Brooks, K., Black, A., & Burkholder, G. (2008). Triple jeopardy and beyond: Multiple minority stress and resilience among Black lesbians. *Journal of Lesbian Studies, 7*(4), 87–108.

Kumpfer, K. L. (1999). Factors and processes contributing to resilience: The resilience framework. In M. D. Glantz & J. L. Johnson (Eds.), *Longitudinal research in the social and behavioral sciences. Resilience development: Positive life adaptations* (pp. 179–224). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

37 To examine the interaction between victimization based on sexual orientation and victimization based on race/ethnicity on level of school belonging, a two-step hierarchical regression model was conducted. In the first step, level of school belonging was regressed onto the independent variable, severity of victimization based on sexual orientation, and the moderator variable, severity of victimization based on race/ethnicity. The model accounted for a significant portion of the variance (17.0%) and the model was significant: $F(2, 1509) = 154.26$, Adj. $R^2 = .169$, $p<.001$. Victimization based on sexual orientation was a significant predictor: $\beta = -.04$, $p<.001$. Victimization based on race/ethnicity was a significant predictor: $\beta = -.12$, $p<.001$. For step two, the interaction term between the independent and moderator variables was introduced. The interaction term accounted for an

additional 0.9% above and beyond the variance accounted from the independent and moderator variables, and the model was significant: $F(1, 1508) = 109.07$, $p<.001$; $\Delta R^2 = .009$, $p<.001$. Both forms of victimization remained significant predictors. The interaction was also significant: $\beta = .01$, $p<.001$, indicating that the negative effect of homophobic victimization on school belonging was strongest among Black LGBTQ students who experienced higher levels of homophobic victimization and lower levels of racist victimization.

To examine the interaction between victimization based on sexual orientation and victimization based on race/ethnicity on level of depression, a two-step hierarchical regression model was conducted. In the first step, level of depression was regressed onto the independent variable, severity of victimization based on sexual orientation, and the moderator variable, severity of victimization based on race/ethnicity. The model accounted for a significant portion of the variance (15.1%) and the model was significant: $F(2, 1497) = 133.28$, Adj. $R^2 = .151$, $p<.001$. Victimization based on sexual orientation was a significant predictor: $\beta = .04$, $p<.001$. Victimization based on race/ethnicity was a significant predictor: $\beta = .17$, $p<.001$. For step two, the interaction term between the independent and moderator variables was introduced. The interaction term accounted for an additional 0.3% above and beyond the variance accounted from the independent and moderator variables, and the model was significant: $F(1, 1496) = 91.17$, $p<.001$; $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p<.001$. Both forms of victimization remained significant predictors. The interaction was also significant: $\beta = -.01$, $p<.05$, indicating that the negative effect of homophobic victimization on depression was strongest among Black LGBTQ students who experienced higher levels of homophobic victimization and lower levels of racist victimization.

A similar two-step hierarchical regression model was conducted to examine the interaction between victimization based on sexual orientation and victimization based on race/ethnicity on missing school due to safety concerns. In the first step, missing school was regressed onto the independent variable, severity of victimization based on sexual orientation, and the moderator variable, severity of victimization based on race/ethnicity. For step two, the interaction between the independent and moderator variables was introduced. The sexual orientation-based victimization X race-based victimization interaction was not related to missing school.

38 It is also relevant to consider the racial socialization that Black LGBTQ students may receive from parents, guardians, and other family members in the form of explicit and/or implicit messages about how to operate as a Black individual in the U.S.. These messages may prepare young people for experiences with racial injustice, and could also possibly be helpful in preparing youth for experiences with other forms of injustice, such as anti-LGBTQ victimization. Read more:

Boykin, A. W., & Toms, F. D. (1985). Black child socialization: A conceptual framework. In H. P. McAdoo, & J. L. McAdoo (Eds.), *Sage focus editions, Vol. 72. Black Children: Social, Educational, and Parental Environments* (pp. 33–51). Thousand Oaks, California, U.S.: Sage Publications, Inc.

Harris-Britt, A., Valrie, C. R., Kurtz-Costes, B., & Rowley, S. J. (2007). Perceived racial discrimination and self-esteem in African American youth: Racial socialization as a protective factor. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 17*(4), 669–682.

Neblett, E. W. J., White, R. L., Ford, K. R., Philip, C. L., Nguyên, H. X., & Sellers, R. M. (2008). Patterns of racial socialization and psychological adjustment: Can parental communications about race reduce the impact of racial discrimination? *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 18*(3), 477–515.

39 Chi-square tests were performed examining the common types of school staff response by whether it was perceived to be effective or ineffective (dichotomous variable was created for effectiveness: effective = "very effective" or "somewhat effective"; ineffective = "not at all effective" or "somewhat ineffective"). The only common response perceived to be effective was telling the perpetrator to stop: $\chi^2(1)=39.94$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.293$. The other two common responses were perceived to be ineffective: telling the student to ignore it: $\chi^2(1)=63.09$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.368$; did nothing/did not take action: $\chi^2(1)=100.49$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.465$.

40 Bacon, J. K., & Causton-Theoharis, J. (2012). 'It should be teamwork': A critical investigation of school practices and parent advocacy in special education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 17*(7), 682–699.

Behnke, A. O., & Kelly, C. (2011). Creating programs to help Latino youth thrive at school: The influence of Latino parent involvement programs. *Journal of Extension, 49*(1), 1–11.

Levine, E. B., & Trickett, E. J. (2000). Toward a model of Latino parent advocacy for educational change. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community, 20*(1–2), 121–137.

Jeynes, W. H. (2005). The effects of parental involvement on the academic achievement of African American youth. *The Journal of Negro Education, 74*(3), 260–274.

Nguyen, J. T., You, S., & Ho, H. Z. (2009). The process of Asian American parental involvement and its relationship to students' academic achievement. In C. C. Park, R. Endo, & X. L. Rong (Eds.), *New Perspectives on Asian American Parents, Students, and Teacher Recruitment* (pp. 25–49). Charlotte, North Carolina: Information Age Publishing.

41 To test differences in frequency of reporting victimization to family members by outness to family members while controlling for respondent's age and gender (cisgender vs. trans/GNC), we conducted an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), where reporting to family was the dependent variable, outness to family members was the independent variable, and age and gender were covariates. After controlling for age and gender, the main effect for outness to family was significant: $F(1, 906) = 28.66$, $p<.001$.

42 To examine the relationship between family intervention, and anti-LGBTQ victimization and race-based victimization, we conducted partial correlations, controlling for telling family members about their victimization, outness to parents or guardians, and age. Victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(417) = .11$, $p<.05$; Victimization based on gender expression: $r(417) = 11$, $p<.05$. Victimization based on race was not related to family members talking to school staff.

43 To examine the relationship between family intervention, and disability status and educational accommodation services, we conducted partial correlations, controlling for telling family members about their victimization, outness to parents or guardians, and age. Disability status: $r(417) = .11$, $p<.05$; Receiving educational accommodation services: $r(417) = .10$, $p<.05$.

44 Gomez, J. M., & Freyd, J. J. (2019). Betrayal trauma. In *Macmillan Encyclopedia of Families, Marriages, and Intimate Relationships*, Vol 1, 79–82.

45 Cholewa, B., Hull, M. F., Babcock, C. R., & Smith, A. D. (2018). Predictors and academic outcomes associated with in-school suspension. *School Psychology Quarterly, 33*(2), 191–199.

Johnson, M. & Naughton, J. (2019). Just another school?: The need to strengthen legal protections for students facing disciplinary transfers. *Notre Dame Journal of Law, Ethics and Public Policy, 33*(1), 1–40.

46 Heilbrun, A., Cornell, D., & Konold, T. (2018). Authoritative school climate and suspension rates in middle schools: Implications for reducing the racial disparity in school discipline. *Journal of School Violence, 17*(3), 324–338.

Kunesh, C. E. & Noltemeyer, A. (2019). Understanding disciplinary disproportionality: Stereotypes shape pre-service teachers' beliefs about Black boys' behavior. *Urban Education*, 54(4).

47 Greytak, E. A., Kosciw, J. G., Villenas, C., & Giga, N. M. (2016). *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited, A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers*. New York: GLSEN.

Poteat, V. P., Scheer, J. R., & Chong, E. S. K. (2015). Sexual orientation-based disparities in school and juvenile discipline: A multiple group comparison of contributing factors. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*(2).

Snapp, S., Hoenig, J., Fields, A., & Russell, S. T. (2015). Messy, butch, and queer: LGBTQ youth and the school-to-prison pipeline. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 30*, 57–82.

48 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Zongrone, A. D., Clark, C. M., & Truong, N. L. (2018). *The 2017 National School Climate Survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth in our nation's schools.* New York: GLSEN.

49 Chi-square tests were performed looking at experiences with school discipline (in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement) by gender (trans/GNC vs. cisgender LGBQ). There were no differences in school discipline between trans/GNC and cisgender LGBQ Black students.

50 Ksinan, A. J., Vazsonyi, A. T., Jiskrova, G. K., Peugh, J. L. (2019). National ethnic and racial disparities in disciplinary practices: A contextual analysis in American secondary schools. *Journal of School Psychology, 74,* 106–125.

Silverman, T. (2019). School discipline disparities: How we can do better. https://www.iyi.org/school-discipline-disparities-how-we-can-do-better/

51 Chi-square tests were performed looking at experiences with school discipline (in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement) by race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black). Multiracial Black LGBTQ students were more likely to experience in-school discipline and contact with law enforcement than LGBTQ students who only identified as Black. In-school discipline: $\chi^2(1) = 12.86$, $p<.001$, $\phi = .09$; Contact with law enforcement: $\chi^2(1) = 4.00$, $p<.05$, $\phi = .05$. There were no differences in out-of-school discipline between students who only identify as Black and multiracial Black students.

52 Harper, K. & Temkin, D. (2018). Compared to majority White schools, majority Black schools are more likely to have security staff. https://www.childtrends.org/compared-to-majority-White-schools-majority-Black-schools-are-more-likely-to-have-security-staff

53 Chi-square tests were performed looking at school discipline (in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, contact with law enforcement) by school racial composition (majority same race vs. majority White vs. majority other non-White race or no majority race). Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who attended a majority same race school were more likely to get out-of-school suspension than students who attended majority White and majority other non-White race or no majority race: $\chi^2(2)= 15.84$, $p<.001$. In-school discipline and contact with law nforcement was not related to school racial composition.

54 The relationship between experiences with victimization (based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity) and school disciplinary action, while controlling for race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black) were examined through partial correlations. For in-school discipline, all correlations were significant: Sexual orientation based victimization: $r(1439) = .20$, $p<.001$; Gender expression based victimization: $r(1439) = .17$, $p<.001$; Race-based victimization: $r(1439) = .14$, $p<.001$. All correlations were also significant for out-of-school victimization: Sexual orientation based victimization: $r(1440) = .23$, $p<.001$; Gender expression based victimization: $r(1440) = .17$, $p<.001$; Race-based victimization: $r(1440) = .09$, $p<.001$. All correlations were also significant for contact with law enforcement: Sexual orientation based victimization: $r(1439) = .14$, $p<.001$; Gender expression based victimization: $r(1439) = .10$, $p<.001$; Race-based victimization: $r(1439) = .10$, $p<.001$.

55 The relationship between missing school, and in-school discipline and contact with law enforcement, while controlling for race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black) was examined through partial correlations – In-school discipline: $r(1510) = .16$, $p<.001$; contact with law enforcement: $r(1510) = .09$, $p<.01$.

56 The relationship between missing school and out-of-school discipline, while controlling for race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black), was examined through a partial correlation: $r(1510) = .18$, $p<.001$.

57 The relationship between experiencing any anti-LGBTQ discriminatory policies and practices, and in-school discipline and contact with law enforcement, while controlling for race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black), was examined through partial correlations – In-school discipline: $r(1498) = .13$, $p<.001$. Experiences with any anti-LGBTQ discrimination was not related to contact with law enforcement.

58 The relationship between experiences with any anti-LGBTQ discriminatory school policies and practices and out-of-school discipline, while controlling for race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black), was examined through a partial correlation: $r(1498) = .13$, $p<.001$.

59 The relationship between experiencing in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement, and GPA, while controlling for race/ethnicity (Black only vs. multiracial Black), was examined through partial correlations. Lower GPA was related to all three types of discipline: In-school discipline: $r(1514) = -.18$, $p<.001$; Out-of-school discipline: $r(1514) = -.16$, $p<.001$; contact with law enforcement: $r(1514) = -.12$, $p<.001$.

Chi-square tests were performed looking at educational aspirations and the three types of school discipline, in-school discipline, out-of-school discipline, and contact with law enforcement. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Less likelihood with planning to pursue post-secondary education was associated with all three types of discipline: In-school discipline: $\chi^2(5) = 16.89$, $p<.01$, Cramer's V = .11; Out-of-school discipline: $\chi^2(5) = 27.40$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .14; contact with law enforcement: $\chi^2(5) = 19.10$, $p<.01$, Cramer's V = .11.

60 McCready, L. T. (2004). Some challenges facing queer youth programs in urban high schools. *Journal of Gay and Lesbian Issues in Education, 1*(3), 37-51.

61 A chi-square test was performed looking at school racial composition and the availability of a GSA at school: $\chi^2(3) =24.90$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .14. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Black LGBTQ students who attended majority Black schools had less access to a GSA at their school than compared to those who attended majority White, majority other non-White race, and no majority race schools. No other differences were observed.

62 Chi-square tests were performed looking at region and locale on the availability of GSAs at school. Region: $\chi^2(3) = 75.64$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .223; Locale: $\chi^2(2) = 52.77$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .187. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. For region, Black LGBTQ students in the South were least likely to have access to GSAs, compared to students in the Northeast, West, and Midwest. Students in the Northeast and in the West were also more likely to have access to GSAs than students in the Midwest. For locale, students in rural schools were least likely to have access to GSAs, compared to students in suburban and urban schools. No other differences were observed.

63 The relationship between school size and the availability of a GSA was examined through a Pearson correlation: $r(1528) = .26$, $p<.001$.

64 Porta, C. M., Singer, E., Mehus, C. J., Gower, A. L., Saewyc, E., Fredkove, W., & Eisenberg, M. E. (2017). LGBTQ youth's views on gay-straight alliances: Building community, providing gateways, and representing safety and support. *Journal of School Health, 87*(7), 489–497.

Toomey, R. B. & Russell, S. T. (2013). Gay-straight alliances, social justice involvement, and school victimization of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and queer youth: Implications for school well-being and plans to vote. *Youth & Society, 45*(4), 500–522.

65 To test differences in missing school, and feelings of school belonging by the availability of a GSA at their school, independent t-tests were conducted, with GSAs as the independent variable, and missing school and feelings of school belonging as the dependent variables. Students who had a GSA at their school were less likely to miss school in the past month: $t(1525) = 2.77$, $p<.01$, and were more likely to feel connected to their school community: $t(1526) = -7.04$, $p<.001$.

66 Chi-square tests were performed looking at feelings of safety due to their sexual orientation and due to their gender expression and the availability of a GSA at their school. Students who had a GSA at their school were: less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation: $\chi^2(1) = 15.30$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.10$. Having a GSA at their school did not affect feelings of safety due to their gender expression.

67 A chi-square test was performed looking at feelings of safety due to race/ethnicity and the availability of a GSA at school. Students who had a GSA at their school were more likely to feel unsafe because of their race/ethnicity: $\chi^2(1) = 4.18$, $p<.05$, $\phi = .05$.

68 A chi-square test was performed looking at feeling unsafe due to race/ethnicity and school racial composition. The effect was significant: $\chi^2(3) = 97.52$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .27. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students were less likely to feel unsafe regarding race/ethnicity in majority-Black schools than in majority-White schools and schools with another non-White majority. Students were more likely to feel unsafe regarding race/ethnicity in majority-White schools than all others (majority-Black, majority other non-White race/ethnicity, no majority). No other significant differences were observed.

69 To compare feelings of safety due to race/ethnicity by the availability of GSAs at school while controlling for majority race at school (same race majority, White majority, and other non-White majority or no majority race), an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted, with feelings of safety due to race/ethnicity as

the dependent variable, GSAs as the independent variable, and majority race as a covariate. After controlling for majority race, feelings of safety due to race/ethnicity did not differ by the availability of GSAs.

70 A chi-square test was performed looking at locale and the availability of an ethnic/cultural club at school: $\chi^2(2) = 6.87$, $p<.05$, Cramer's V = .07. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who attended suburban schools were more likely to have an ethnic/cultural club at their school than students in rural schools. Students who attended urban schools did not differ from those who attended suburban and rural schools.

71 The relationship between school size and the availability of an ethnic/cultural club was examined through a Pearson correlation: $r(1506) = .21$, $p<.001$.

72 To test differences in missing school due to safety concerns and feelings of school belonging, and the availability of an ethnic/cultural club. Students with an ethnic/cultural club at their school felt safer due to their race/ethnicity than students who did not have an ethnic/cultural club. independent t-tests were conducted, with the availability of ethnic/cultural clubs as the independent variable, and missing school and school belonging as dependent variables. Students who had an ethnic/cultural club at their school: had greater feelings of school belonging $t(1502) = -2.01$, $p<.05$.

A chi-square test was performed looking at feeling unsafe due to their race/ethnicity and the availability of an ethnic/cultural club. $\chi^2(1) = 4.75$, $p<.05$, $\phi = -.06$.

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76 To examine differences in GSA participation by student racial majority, a chi-square test was conducted between whether or not students attended GSA meetings and the racial/ethnic majority of the school, only among students who indicated that there was a GSA or similar club at their school. No significant differences were observed.

77 To examine differences in school belonging by GSA participation, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with school belonging as the dependent variable, and level of GSA participation as the independent variable. The effect was not significant.

With the understanding that GSA participants experience greater levels of anti-LGBTQ victimization than their peers, which is associated with lower levels of school belonging, we repeated this analysis, while controlling for level of victimization due to sexual orientation and level of victimization due to gender expression. Even after controlling for these two factors, we observed similar results.

78 To examine differences in comfort level bringing up LGBTQ issues in class, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with comfort level as the dependent variable, and level of GSA participation as the independent variable. The effect was significant: $F(2, 804) = 5.16$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$: students attending as a leader/officer had a greater comfort level than all others; there was no difference between those not attending and those attending, but not as a leader/officer.

79 GLSEN Days of Action (including Ally Week, No Name-Calling Week, and Day of Silence) are national student-led events of school-based LGBTQ advocacy, coordinated by GLSEN. The Day of Silence occurs each year in the spring, and is designed to draw attention to anti-LGBTQ name-calling, bullying, and harassment in schools. Visit www.dayofsilence.org for more information.

80 To examine differences in rates of participation by level of GSA participation, two chi-square tests were conducted: one for participating in a GLSEN Day of Action, and one for participating in an event where people express their political views. The effects for both were significant. Day of Action: $\chi^2(2) = 104.62$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .36. Event for expressing views: $\chi^2(2) = 27.06$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .18 Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. For both activities, GSA members, both leaders and non-leaders, were more likely to participate than students who were not GSA members; and, GSA leaders were also more likely to participate than members who were not leaders.

81 To examine differences in rates of participation by level of GSA participation, a series of chi-square tests were conducted for each form of activism. The effect was significant for each form of activism. Volunteering: $\chi^2(2) = 17.63$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .15. Boycott: $\chi^2(2) = 24.28$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .17. Social media: $\chi^2(2) = 6.88$, $p<.05$, Cramer's V = .09. Rally: $\chi^2(2) = 22.51$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .17. Contacting politicians: $\chi^2(2) = 18.40$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .15. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. For all activities, GSA leaders were more likely to participate than students who did not attend GSA meetings. GSA leaders were also more likely than non-leader GSA participants to: volunteer for a campaign, participate in a boycott, contact politicians, and participate in a rally. No other significant differences were observed.

82 To examine differences in anti-LGBTQ victimization, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with level of GSA participation as the independent variable, and two dependent variables: severity of victimization due to sexual orientation, and severity of victimization due to gender expression. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .04, $F(4, 1544) = 7.87$, $p<.001$. The univariate effects for victimization due to sexual orientation and gender expression were both significant. Sexual orientation: $F(2, 772) = 13.16$, $p<.001$. Gender expression: $F(2, 772) = 12.66$, $p<.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Sexual orientation: GSA leaders experienced greater levels of victimization than all others; there was no difference between those not attending GSA meetings and those attending, but not as a leader/officer. Gender expression: students attending as a leader/officer experienced greater levels of victimization than all others; students attending, but not as a leader/officer, experienced greater levels of victimization than those who did not attend.

83 To examine differences in ethnic/cultural club participation by student racial majority, a chi-square test was conducted between whether or not students attended ethnic/cultural club meetings and the racial/ethnic majority of the school, only among students who indicated that there was an ethnic/cultural club at their school. The effect was significant: $\chi^2(2) = 14.48$, $p<.01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Black LGBTQ students attending schools with a majority-White student body were more likely to attend ethnic/cultural club meetings than all others. No other significant differences were observed. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

84 To examine differences in school belonging by ethnic/cultural club participation, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with level of club participation as the independent variable, and belonging as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $F(2, 1118) = 7.25$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who participated, but not as a leader, had greater levels of belonging than those who did not participate. There were no other observable differences.

85 We examined differences in rates of participation in the following activities: participating in an event where people express their political views (such as a poetry slam or youth forum), volunteering to campaign for a political cause or candidate, participating in a boycott against a company, expressing views about politics or social issues on social media, participating in a rally, protest, or demonstration for a cause, participating in a GLSEN Day of Action, and contacting politicians, governments, or authorities about issues that are important to the student.

To examine differences in rates of participation by level of ethnic/cultural club participation, a series of chi-square tests were conducted for each form of activism. The effect was significant

for each form of activism. Event to express political views: $\chi^2(2) = 45.62$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .20. Volunteering: $\chi^2(2) = 31.50$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .17. Boycott: $\chi^2(2) = 23.73$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .15. Social media: $\chi^2(2) = 21.80$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .14. Rally: $\chi^2(2) = 37.23$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .18. Day of Action: $\chi^2(2) = 13.74$, $p<.01$, Cramer's V = .11. Contacting politicians: $\chi^2(2) = 28.09$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .16. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. For all activities, non-leader club members were more likely to participate than students who did not attend club meetings. Club leaders were also more likely than those who did not attend meetings to: participate in an event to express political views, volunteer for a campaign, participate in a boycott, participate in a rally, and contact politicians. Club leaders were also more likely than non-leader club members to participate in an event to express political views. No other significant differences were observed.

86 To examine differences in racial harassment by ethnic/cultural club participation, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with club participation as the independent variable, and racial harassment as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $F(1, 1119) = 7.78$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who participated as a leader in ethnic/cultural clubs experienced greater levels of racist victimization than those who did not participate in ethnic/cultural clubs. No other differences were observed. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who participated as a leader in ethnic/cultural clubs experienced greater levels of racist victimization than those who did not participate in ethnic/cultural clubs. No other differences were observed.

87 To examine differences in racial harassment by school racial majority, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with school racial majority as the independent variable and racial harassment as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $F(2,1515) = 34.58$), $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who attended majority-White schools experienced greater levels of harassment than all others, and those attending majority-Black schools experienced lower levels of harassment than all others. No other differences were observed.

88 To examine differences in racial harassment by ethnic/cultural club participation, while controlling for school racial majority, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted, similar to the ANOVA described in Endnote 86, with student body racial majority included as a covariate. Results were similar to the ANOVA: $F(2, 1107) = 4.50$, $p<.05$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

89 To tests differences in the availability of supportive teachers and administration by race/ethnicity (monoracial vs. multiracial) Black LGBTQ students, independent t-tests were conducted, with race/ethnicity as the independent variable and the availability of supportive teachers and administration as the dependent variables. Race/ethnicity was not related to the availability of supportive teachers and administration.

90 The relationship between number of supportive educators and missing school, and feeling unsafe (due to sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity) were examined through Pearson correlations – Missing school: $r(1517) = -.24$, $p<.001$; feeling unsafe due to sexual orientation: $r(1521) = -.20$, $p<.001$; feeling unsafe due to gender expression: $r(1521) = -.11$, $p<.001$; feeling unsafe due to race/ethnicity: $r(1521) = -.09$, $p<01$.

91 The relationship between number of supportive educators and psychological well-being (self-esteem and depression), feelings of school belonging, and GPA were examined through Pearson correlations – Self-esteem: $r(1504) = .18$, $p<.001$; depression: $r(1506) = -.24$, $p<.001$; feelings of school belonging: $r(1518) = .46$, $p<.001$; GPA: $r(1520) = .12$, $p<.001$.

To examine differences in educational aspirations by number of supportive educators, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with educational aspirations as the independent variable, and number of supportive educators as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $F(5, 1501) = 4.27$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Students who have more supportive staff were more likely to plan to pursue post-secondary education.

92 Chi-square tests were performed looking at feelings of safety due to sexual orientation and gender expression and the availability of inclusive curriculum at their school. Students who had an inclusive curriculum at their school were less likely to feel unsafe due to their sexual orientation: $\chi^2(1) = 28.43$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.136$; less likely to feel unsafe because of their gender expression: $\chi^2(1) = 8.98$, $p<.01$, $\phi = -.077$.

93 To test differences in peer acceptance of LGBTQ people and having an inclusive curriculum at school, an independent t-test was conducted, with availability of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable, and peer acceptance as the dependent variable. Students who had an inclusive curriculum at their school had greater peer acceptance at their school of LGBTQ people: $t(1526) = -9.41$, $p<.001$.

94 To test differences in feelings of school belonging and having an inclusive curriculum at school, an independent t-test was conducted, with inclusive curriculum as the independent variable, and school belonging as the dependent variable. Students who had an inclusive curriculum at their school had greater feelings of school belonging: $t(1524) = -10.81$, $p<.001$.

95 A chi-square test was performed looking at feelings of safety due race/ethnicity and the availability of inclusive curriculum at their school. Students who had an inclusive curriculum at their school were less likely to feel unsafe due to their race/ethnicity: $\chi^2(1) = 4.21$, $p<.05$, $\phi = -.052$.

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