

From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited

A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers



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A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers

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GLSEN is the leading national education organization focused on ensuring safe schools for all students. Established in 1990, GLSEN envisions a world in which every child learns to respect and accept all people, regardless of sexual orientation or gender identity/expression. GLSEN seeks to develop school climates where difference is valued for the positive contribution it makes to creating a more vibrant and diverse community. For more information on our educator resources, research, public policy agenda, student leadership programs, or development initiatives, visit www.glsen.org.

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Preface

In 2003, Pat Buchanan and I had a sharp exchange on *Buchanan & Press* about bullying as an urgent education issue. I decried the long-term consequences of bullying for victims and perpetrators, and the particular damage it caused to LGBTQ students. He insisted that bullying was a rite of passage for students, necessary to toughen them up for life after graduation.

Buchanan's attitude was typical for the time. Bullying was widely seen as inevitable. Some called it good preparation for the immutable injustices and persistent combat of the "real world." Clearly, GLSEN and our allies in seeking a more just world—both in schools and beyond—had our work cut out for us.

How far we have come. After years of debate and public discussion of bullying's consequences, the consensus of the education world is now clear: the daily indignities of bullying and its long-term costs to the health, educational attainment, and well-being of our students are unacceptable. Thanks to more than a decade of high-level attention and significant investment, we also have strong indications of what works to address the problem.

From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited documents the progress we have made in improving the daily experience of students across the United States over the past ten years, and illuminates the challenges ahead as reported by students and teachers nationally. We can celebrate significant increases in school safety and in the availability of in-school supports that improve school climate. GLSEN and our closest partners can be particularly proud of reductions in bias, including significant decreases in homophobic incidents.

However, we must now confront the next wave of this battle. Overall, bullying still persists at unacceptable levels, and the gains of the past ten years throw the more intractable aspects of the problem into higher relief. LGBTQ students still face rates of violence much higher relative to their peers. Teachers report that they are less comfortable and less prepared to address the harsh conditions faced by transgender and gender nonconforming students. And amidst progress in reducing the use of most types of biased language in schools, racist language remains as prevalent as it was a decade ago.

Our collective experience makes the path forward clear. In order to sustain momentum in reducing rates of bullying nationally and move the needle on all forms of bias-based bullying we must:

- Increase investment in improving the conditions for learning in our schools to enable educators to do their best work and give *all* students the best chance for success;
- Continue our drive to increase the presence of critical LGBTQ-affirming supports in *all* schools across the United States, in order to reduce the experience gap that continues to separate them from their peers; and
- Overcome adult discomfort and bias to increase support and affirmation of *all* of our schools' most disadvantaged and at-risk students, including transgender students and students of color.

Above all, we must forcefully reject any efforts to turn back the clock in this urgent battle. Bullying must never again become societally acceptable. We must sustain our national commitment to ending discrimination in education, including having effective ways to require schools to address the bias that can poison students' daily lives.

These solutions will require continued investment in advocacy, school-based interventions, and our education systems themselves. This report, *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited*, provides the evidence to strengthen our commitment and the recommended strategies to guide us forward. While the path ahead will not be easy, GLSEN and our allies in seeking a more just world for *all* of our students—both in schools and beyond—are committed to the work.



Eliza Byard, PhD
Executive Director
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Executive Summary

Introduction

For over 25 years, GLSEN has worked to promote safe and affirming schools for all students, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression. A significant part of this work has been to document the experiences of students, as well as to examine teacher beliefs and practices that can influence school climate. In 2005, GLSEN released *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate in America, A Survey of Students and Teachers*. Findings from *From Teasing to Torment* reinforced our awareness that bullying and harassment, especially those incidents which are based on bias and personal characteristics, are major challenges confronting all schools. Yet 10 years later, we believe bias-based bullying and harassment remain a significant concern of students, families, and schools all across the country. Furthermore, despite legal and cultural changes, we see that LGBTQ students continue to face hostile school climates, although there have been small, gradual improvements.¹

However, there has been limited research that assesses how the school climate may have changed over the past decade for the general population of students in regards to bias, bullying,² and LGBTQ issues. Furthermore, there is little information about the general population of teachers' beliefs and practices as related to bias, bullying, or LGBTQ issues, and no information about how these beliefs and practices may have shifted over time. For these reasons, we felt it was important to reexamine the issues we explored in the 2005 *From Teasing to Torment* report by conducting a similar survey in 2015, exactly a decade after the initial report.

From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited, A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers affords us the opportunity to document the current state of safety, bias, and bullying in schools and assess potential disparities based not only on LGBTQ status, but also on race/ethnicity, sex, gender expression, and socioeconomic status. As school climate is determined not only by the existence or absence of victimization, we also explore students' experiences with school disciplinary actions and extracurricular activities, seeking to develop a more complete picture of the student experience. In addition, we again document students' access to resources that may improve school climate, such as student clubs that address LGBTQ student issues, inclusive curriculum, and anti-bullying/harassment policies. Moreover, in this report, secondary school teachers offer their perceptions on bias, bullying, and LGBTQ students' safety, and provide valuable information about the preparation they may have received to address these issues. We also document teachers' practices in regards to combating bias and supporting LGBTQ students specifically, including the potential barriers to doing so. Lastly, we offer recommendations for both further research and specific programmatic and policy strategies that may help schools reduce the risk of peer victimization, counter the damaging effects of bias, and provide safe and supportive learning environments for all LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students alike.

Methods

Findings in this study came from online surveys conducted by Harris Poll, on behalf of GLSEN, among 1,367 U.S. secondary school (middle or high school grades) students age 13-18, and 1,015 U.S. secondary school teachers. The national sample was drawn primarily from the Harris Poll Online (HPOL) opt-in panel and supplemented with a sample from trusted partner panels. For both the student and the teacher surveys, data was weighted to reflect the corresponding U.S. national population (i.e., middle/high school grade students, full-time teachers of middle/high school grade students). GLSEN is responsible for all data analyses, interpretations, and conclusions.

Summary of Findings

SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Biased Language

Overall, students reported high levels of biased language in their schools from students and a sizeable number heard them often from teachers and other school staff. Furthermore, many students reported low levels of intervention by teachers and other school staff.

Biased Remarks from Students

- The most common types of biased remarks heard were: expressions using “gay” in a negative way, e.g. “that’s so gay” (55.0% heard often or very often), sexist remarks (56.0% heard often or very often), and racist remarks (55.4% heard often or very often).
- 42.9% of students heard other homophobic remarks (e.g., “faggot,” “dyke,” “queer”) often or very often.
- About a third of students (32.9%) reported hearing negative remarks about ability often or very often.
- Less than a quarter (22.0%) of students heard negative remarks about gender expression from other students often or very often.
- The least commonly heard remarks were negative remarks about transgender people (14.2% of students heard often or very often) and negative religious remarks (9.5% heard often or very often).
- Students in 2015 reported lower incidence of all types of biased remarks, except racist remarks, than students in 2005.

Biased Remarks from Teachers and School Staff

- One quarter (25.5%) of students reported hearing school staff make negative remarks related to students’ gender expression.
- Approximately one-fifth of students reported hearing school staff make negative remarks about students’ academic ability (22.5%) and sexist remarks (20.6%).
- Students also reported hearing school staff make homophobic remarks (15.3%), racist remarks (14.4%), negative remarks about religion (14.1%), and negative remarks about transgender people (12.6%).

Teacher and School Staff Intervention

- Over a third of students reported teachers and other school staff intervened often or very often when they heard racist remarks (35.8%) or sexist remarks (33.9%).
- Over a quarter of students reported that school staff often or very often intervened when hearing “that’s so gay” (27.6%), or other homophobic remarks (28.3%).
- Students were least likely to report that staff intervened in hearing negative remarks about gender expression - 18.5% reported that they did so often or very often.
- In 2015, students were less likely to report that school staff intervened in homophobic remarks and sexist remarks than in 2005.

School Safety, Bullying, and Harassment

The majority of students felt safe at school, however a sizeable percentage of students had reported feeling unsafe, often based on personal characteristics. Many students also experienced incidents of in-school victimization, such as bullying and harassment, based on personal characteristics. Lack of safety resulted in many students missing school.

School Safety

- 9 out of 10 students felt safe at school with half of students (49.6%) reporting that they felt “very safe.”
- The most common reason students reported feeling unsafe at school was related to their appearance/body size (33.3%), followed by sexual orientation (9.8%), and race/ethnicity (9.4%).
- 17.7% of students reported missing one or more days of school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable.
- Students reported feeling somewhat more safe in school in 2015 than in 2005; however, they were more likely to miss school because of feeling unsafe in 2015 than those in 2005.

Bullying and Harassment

- Students named the most common reasons other students are bullied, called names, or harassed as: their body size/appearance (36.2%), actual/perceived sexual orientation (19.2%), race/ethnicity (10.4%), academic ability (10.1%), and how masculine or feminine they are (9.2%).

- Almost three-quarters (73.9%) of students reported personally experiencing some type of peer victimization in the past school year.
- The majority of students experienced incidents of bias-based bullying, i.e., bullying based on personal characteristics:
 - Most commonly students experienced verbal harassment based on appearance or body size/type (50.9%) and actual/perceived race/ethnicity (30.3%).
 - About a fifth of students reported verbal harassment based on gender expression (21.9%) or actual or perceived sexual orientation (19.4%).
 - Fewer students reported verbal harassment based on gender (18.1%), actual or perceived religion (18.0%), and actual or perceived disability (12.7%).
 - In general, incidents of bias-based physical harassment and assault were less common than verbal harassment, but followed the same pattern of prevalence.
- Students reported experiencing other types of peer victimization, including: having mean rumors or lies told about them at school (54.8%), property damage (38.9%), cyberbullying (33.8%), and sexual harassment (28.8%).
- Higher levels of in-school victimization were related to lower educational aspirations, higher rates of school discipline, and greater likelihood of missing school.

From 2005 to 2015, we found no changes in students' reports of their own personal experiences of bias-based victimization. However, their reports of frequency of bias-based bullying experienced by other students did change:

- In 2015, students reported that other students were bullied less often than students in 2005 regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, and appearance.
- In 2015, students reported higher levels of bullying based on academic ability.

Student Attitudes and Familiarity with LGBT People

Overall, the general student body appears to be relatively accepting of LGBT people, and most have LGBT people in their lives, either as peers, friends, or family members.

- Most (88.0%) students indicated that they did not have a problem with people who are LGBT.
- The vast majority of students (82.1%) reported knowing someone who was LGBT. Students were more likely to report knowing someone who was lesbian, gay, or bisexual than they were to report knowing someone who was transgender.
 - Almost three-quarters (72.6%) of students reported knowing an LGBT classmate (71.5% knew an LGBT student, 15.9% knew a transgender student).
 - 22.5% of students reported having LGBT family members, including 2.2% with LGBT parents.
- Students who knew someone who was LGBT held less negative attitudes towards LGBT people than students who did not know any LGBT people.

LGBT-Related Resources

LGBT-related resources have been shown to improve school climate for LGBTQ students by raising awareness about LGBT people and the issues they face, as well as by providing safe spaces and protections for LGBT youth to feel welcome and protected during the school day. Although these resources are related to more positive school climate for students overall, they may even be more critical for LGBTQ students. Unfortunately, most students do not have access to these resources.

Supportive Student Clubs, i.e. Gay Straight Alliances (GSAs)

- Over a third (35.8%) of students said that their school had a GSA or similar student club.
- Students in schools with a GSA heard anti-LGBTQ remarks less often in school and had more positive attitudes towards LGBT people than students in schools without a GSA.

- Students in schools with a GSA experienced less victimization based on race/ethnicity and based on appearance than students without a GSA; LGBTQ students also experienced less victimization based on sexual orientation.
- The presence of a GSA was related to greater feelings of safety for the general student body, with an even greater improvement in safety for LGBTQ students specifically.
- There has been a significant increase in the percentage of students who reported having a GSA in their school—from 21.2% in 2005 to 35.8% in 2015.

LGBT-Inclusive Curriculum

- One-fifth (20.8%) of students said that they had been taught about LGBT people, history, or events in any of their classes.
- For LGBTQ students, being taught about LGBT topics in any of their classes was related to lower levels of LGBT-related victimization.

School Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policies

- The majority (87.4%) of students had a general anti-bullying policy. Among those who had a policy, 54.5% reported that their policy enumerated protections for sexual orientation and gender identity/expression.
- Students attending school with an enumerated policy:
 - Heard homophobic and racist remarks less often compared to students with no policy;
 - Were less likely to feel unsafe in school compared to students in schools with generic or no policies; and
 - Were less likely to perceive bullying, name-calling, or harassment as a problem at their school compared to students in schools with a generic policy or with no policy.
- More students in 2015 reported that their school had policy (either a generic policy or an LGBT-enumerated policy) than students in 2005.

Differences in School Experiences between LGBTQ and Non-LGBTQ Students

LGBTQ students face a more hostile environment than their peers. They experience higher rates of victimization and, as a result, they are at greater risk for lower educational outcomes.

- **Bias-based bullying.** LGBTQ students experienced higher levels of bias-based bullying and harassment. Specifically, compared to non-LGBTQ students, they were more likely to be bullied or harassed based on actual/perceived sexual orientation (67.0% vs. 13.5%), gender expression (59.7% vs. 17.6%), gender (39.9% vs. 17.0%), appearance/body size (68.4% vs. 50.3%), and ability (26.7% vs. 12.2%).
- **Other harassment and bullying.** LGBTQ students were also more likely to experience sexual harassment (43.6% vs. 26.4%), having rumors/lies spread about them (67.2% vs. 52.7%), property damage (44.1% vs. 38.1%) and cyberbullying (40.2% vs. 32.8%) than non-LGBTQ students.
- **Safety and missing school.** LGBTQ students reported feeling less safe at school, and were more than twice as likely to have missed school in past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (36.6% of LGBTQ students vs. 14.7% of non-LGBTQ students).
- **School discipline.** Almost two thirds (62.8%) of LGBTQ students experienced school discipline (e.g., detention, suspension) compared to less than half (45.8%) of non-LGBTQ students.
- **Educational aspirations.** LGBTQ students were more likely to report that they did not plan to complete high school (2.7% vs. 0.8% of non-LGBTQ students) or to continue their education past high school (9.6% vs. 5.7%).
- **Extracurricular activities.** LGBTQ students were half as likely as non-LGBTQ students to participate in both interscholastic (40.2% vs. 19.2%) and intramural sports (35.8% vs. 15.9%). However, LGBTQ students were more likely to participate in GSAs (37.8% vs. 12.3%), other types of social justice clubs (e.g., Amnesty International, diversity club) (13.5% vs. 6.2%), music activities (e.g., band, chorus) (49.1% vs. 39.0%), and theater activities (36.6% vs. 19.6%).

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Biased Remarks

Teachers report hearing many biased remarks from students; however, they do not always intervene, especially when hearing negative remarks about transgender people.

- The most commonly heard biased language by teachers was the expression “that’s so gay” or “you’re so gay” (40.4% heard often/very often), followed by sexist remarks (33.8%), and negative remarks about other student’s ability (22.8%).
- Although teachers generally intervened when hearing biased remarks, teachers intervened most often when hearing sexist remarks (57.2% often or very often) and least often when hearing negative remarks about transgender people (45.2% often or very often).
- Overall, teachers reported being comfortable intervening in all types of remarks—although they were most comfortable intervening in negative remarks about ability and least comfortable intervening in negative remarks about gender expression and transgender people (59.8%, 49.3%, and 50.0% were very comfortable, respectively).
- With the exception of racist remarks and negative remarks about religion, teachers in 2015 reported lower incidences of all other remarks than teachers in 2005.
- Teachers reported a lower comfort level intervening in biased remarks in 2015 than in 2005.

Bullying, Harassment, and Name-Calling

Most teachers believe that bullying, name-calling, or harassment is a serious problem at their school. However, teachers are reporting less bullying based on appearance, academic ability, gender expression, and sexual orientation than they did ten years ago.

- Half (51.2%) of teachers believed that bullying, name-calling, or harassment was a serious problem at their school.
- Teachers reported that bullying, name calling, and harassment occurred most often based on students’ appearance, followed by academic ability, gender expression, and sexual orientation.
- Teachers reported being most comfortable addressing bullying based on race/ethnicity or religion and least comfortable addressing bullying based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression (53.6%, 52.6% and 48.3%, 44.9% reported being very comfortable, respectively).
- Teachers in 2015 reported that other students were bullied less often regarding their appearance, academic ability, gender expression, and sexual orientation than teachers in 2005.

Beliefs about School Safety for LGBT Students

Most teachers believe they have an obligation to ensure safe and supportive learning environments for LGBT students. However, many teachers believe their schools are not entirely safe for LGBT and gender nonconforming students.

- 83.3% of teachers agreed that teachers and other school personnel have an obligation to ensure safe and supportive learning environments for LGBT students.
- Teachers believed that a variety of efforts would be helpful in creating safer schools for LGBTQ students: inclusive bullying/discrimination policies: 91.3%, administrator support: 89.2%, teacher training: 88.8%, GSA: 85.6%.
- Teachers in 2015 believed that having each the following supports would be more helpful than did teachers in 2005: teacher training on LGBT student issues, inclusive policies, GSA or similar student club, and a principal and/or superintendent who more openly addresses safety issues for LGBT students and supports educators.

Engagement in LGBT Supportive Practices

Whether by providing direct support to individual students or taking proactive steps to create a positive environment, teachers can help to improve school climate. However, only about half of teachers reported engaging in LGBT-related practices.

- 50.3% of teachers reported engaging in at least one LGBT-related practice.
- Teachers were most likely to engage in practices involving direct individual interactions with students: 33.7% discussed LGBT issues with students, 28.1% provided one-on-one support to LGBT students.
- Fewer teachers engaged in more visible activities: 14.9% included LGBT topics in their curriculum, and 11.9% displayed LGBT supportive materials (e.g., Safe Space sticker).
- Teachers were least likely to work on more school-wide issues: 9.6% advocated for staff training, or educated staff on LGBT-related issues, 8.5% advocated for LGBT-inclusive policies, and 4.1% served as a GSA advisor.
- Most teachers felt comfortable (somewhat or very) addressing LGBT issues with individual students, such as supporting LGBT students (60.2%) and responding to students' questions about LGBT people (62.9%). Teachers were less comfortable with those activities that entailed more official or public roles: GSA (35.3%); incorporating LGBT topics into their teaching or curriculum (33.1%).

Teacher Professional Development

Teachers need to be adequately prepared to effectively address bias, bullying, and LGBTQ issues. Most teachers are receiving professional development on bullying and diversity issues. Teachers are less likely to have any training on LGBT student issues, though they indicate that they would find it helpful.

- The vast majority of teachers had received some type of professional development (either pre-service and/ or in-service) on topics of bullying and harassment (85.1%) and diversity/multicultural education (76.4%).
- Teachers were far less likely to have received professional development on LGBT issues, compared to bullying and harassment or diversity/multicultural education. Less than a third of teachers ever had any professional development on LGB student issues (32.9%); less than a quarter had any on transgender student issues (23.6%).
- Teachers were least likely to have received professional development during their pre-service education, as opposed to in their current or former position. Bullying/harassment: 14.3%, Diversity/multicultural education: 18.9%; LGB student issues: 9.2%; Transgender student issues: 6.1%.
- Professional development on diversity, LGB issues, and transgender issues were most closely related to greater involvement in LGBT-supportive practices.

Anti-Bullying Policies

Although most teachers reported that their school had an anti-bullying policy, considerably fewer noted that the policy was LGBT-enumerated. Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were more likely to report biased language and bias-based bullying. This might be the result of teachers in these schools being more aware of bias-based bullying behavior.

- Nine in ten (90.8%) teachers believed their school had an anti-bullying policy; over half of teachers (52.0%) reported that their school's policy was LGBT-enumerated for both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression.
- Teachers in schools with an anti-bullying policy (regardless of type) reported hearing sexist remarks and expressions using gay in a negative way (i.e., "that's so gay") more often than teachers in schools without a policy.
- Teachers from schools with an LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policy heard homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression negative religious remarks, and negative remarks about transgender people, more often than teachers in a school with a generic anti-bullying policy.
- Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policy reported higher prevalence of bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity, appearance, and academic ability than teachers in schools with no policies.
- Teachers in schools with anti-bullying policies (regardless of type) reported higher levels of comfort addressing bullying based on sexual orientation compared to teachers in schools with no policy.

School policies appear to facilitate professional development, perhaps by mandating training for school staff.

- Teachers in schools with an anti-bullying policy were more likely to have received professional development on bullying/harassment issues.
- Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were more likely than teachers in schools with generic policies and schools with no policies to have received LGBT-related professional development.

MORE FINDINGS IN THE FULL REPORT ON:

- **Demographic differences in student experiences**, including differences based on race/ethnicity, sex, gender nonconformity (based on gender expression), and socio-economic status.
- **Differences in teachers' practices and beliefs** based on years of experience, subject area, LGBT identity, and familiarity with LGBT people.
- **Differences in school climate** based on school level (middle vs. high school), school type (public, private, religious), school socio-economic status, and geographic area, including region and local (urban, suburban, small town/rural)
- Participation in **extracurricular activities**
- Students' experiences with **school discipline**
- Prevalence and usefulness on **sex education**
- **Gender expression** of students and prevalence of gender nonconformity
- **Barriers** to teachers' actions in support of LGBT students
- Teachers' **comfort level** addressing biased incidents and engaging in LGBT-supportive practices
...and more....

Conclusions and Recommendations

Findings from *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited* demonstrate that although the overall landscape for secondary schools in the U.S. is gradually improving in regards to school safety and climate, the current educational environment for many students remains troublesome. Our results demonstrate that although most students feel relatively safe at school, secondary schools are still rife with bias—students and teachers alike report high levels of many types of biased language and many note that bullying and harassment are still significant concerns. This was particularly true for LGBTQ students who faced higher levels of victimization and poorer educational outcomes than their non-LGBTQ peers. However, findings comparing our 2005 surveys to the 2015 surveys illustrate some promising trends: students and teachers reported hearing fewer biased remarks, students felt safer in school, and students reported that their peers were more likely to speak out against homophobic remarks. Furthermore, students and teachers both reported less bullying based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and appearance. The availability of supports such as student clubs that address LGBT issues (e.g., Gay-Straight Alliances) and enumerated anti-bullying/harassment policies have increased in the past decade. Nevertheless, some of the findings on changes over time are concerning. Specifically, teachers were less likely to intervene in homophobic and sexist remarks in 2015 and they felt less comfortable intervening in all types of biased remarks than did teachers in 2005. In addition, the positive trends regarding decreases in student bias were not reflected in bias related to race/ethnicity. In most cases, there was either no change or an increase in these types of incidents.

This report also brought to light the critical need to support effective teacher practices and implement supportive school resources and policies. Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) were related to fewer anti-LGBTQ remarks in school and more positive attitudes towards LGBT students. They were also related to greater safety and less victimization for the general student body, with even greater benefits for LGBTQ students. LGBT-inclusive curriculum was related to less victimization for LGBTQ students, although was not related to general student attitudes about LGBT people. LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policies were linked to less homophobic and racist remarks and greater feelings of safety in school. However, despite their potential benefits, only a minority of students had access to these resources in their schools.

Despite the increase in LGBT school supports, teachers themselves appear to face challenges when dealing with LGBT issues in their schools. Although teachers overwhelmingly endorsed the idea that they have an obligation to ensure safe and supportive schools for LGBT students, when it came to taking action to do so, many seemed to struggle. Overall, teachers reported relatively high levels of comfort addressing bias and bullying, but they were least comfortable addressing incidents related to sexual orientation or gender identity/expression, in comparison to other types of bias, such as bias based on race, ability, or religion. Furthermore, only half of teachers reported engaging in specific efforts to support LGBTQ students, such as displaying visible symbols of support (e.g., Safe Space Sticker), incorporating LGBT topics into their teaching, or advocating for inclusive policies. Perhaps not surprisingly given their limited activities in support of LGBTQ students, most teachers had not received any professional development on LGBT student issues, neither in their pre-service education nor during their teaching career. Those teachers who had received LGBT-related training were more likely to intervene in biased remarks and more likely to engage in LGBT-supportive practices. In contrast, the vast majority of teachers had received professional development on bullying/harassment topics and on diversity/multicultural education. Yet, while diversity/multicultural education professional development was related to improved practices related to bias and LGBTQ student issues, professional development on bullying was not.

In order to improve school climate and provide all students with the access to education they deserve, educators, policymakers, and advocates must take action. Based on our findings, we recommend the following measures:

- Ensure adequate preparation for teachers through pre-service and in-service professional development that specifically addresses biased behaviors and LGBTQ student issues and provides opportunities for skill development.
- Incorporate meaningful content on bias-based bullying into bullying/harassment education and training programs for both educators and students. Specifically address the victimization of traditionally marginalized students, such as LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, students of color, and students with disabilities.
- Increase student access to curriculum that incorporates LGBTQ people, history, and topics. Provide resources for teachers of all subjects to integrate LGBT issues into their curriculum and effectively address bias in their classroom.
- Support the implementation of student clubs such as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) that provide support for LGBT students and address LGBT issues in education.
- Adopt and implement anti-bullying/harassment policies at the school and district level that explicitly enumerate sexual orientation and gender identity/expression as protected categories alongside others such as race/ethnicity, religion, and disability. Ensure fair and appropriate enforcement of these policies. Make certain that members of the school community are aware of the existence and content of such policies.
- Engage in research to identify factors related to more positive student attitudes and decreased biased behaviors among students and develop best practices for fostering respect among secondary students.
- Regularly assess school climate at the building or district level to identify potential areas of need and measure progress. Be sure to include ways to identify potential disparities among groups of students, such as LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, students of color, and students with disabilities.

Together, our recommendations offer strategies to reduce bullying and harassment based on personal characteristics and ensure all students; including LGBTQ students, are afforded an equal opportunity to an education. Furthermore, we call for further research to help us continue to develop our understanding of bullying and harassment, and the resources and practices schools can utilize to reduce both its occurrence and its negative impact on student outcomes. Schools and school districts must work to eliminate hostile environments, and teacher preparation programs must equip teachers to effectively and confidentially address issues of bias and support marginalized students, such as LGBTQ students. The recommendations set forth in this report will help to create more safe and affirming school schools for all students, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression.

Introduction

For over 25 years, GLSEN has worked to promote safe and affirming schools for all students, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression. A significant part of this work has been to document the experiences of students, as well as to examine teacher beliefs and practices that can influence school climate. In 2005, GLSEN released ***From Teasing to Torment: School Climate in America, A Survey of Students and Teachers.*** This report explored students' and teachers' experiences with biased language, bullying, and harassment, their attitudes concerning these problems, and what works to promote student safety. *From Teasing to Torment* strengthened the conversation on bullying and harassment by offering a more complete understanding of the extent and the various forms that bullying and harassment can take. In addition, it provided one of the first ever national assessments of peer victimization based on personal characteristics, such as race/ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, and gender expression, otherwise known as bias-based bullying. Whereas bullying and harassment in general can be quite harmful to students' physical health, mental well-being, and educational outcomes,³ bias-based bullying, given its attack on students' personal identities, can be particularly damaging.⁴ By drawing on data from the general population of students, *From Teasing to Torment* also expanded the body of research on lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) student issues by allowing us to compare experiences between LGBT students and non-LGBT students and examine the role of school resources in supporting LGBT students. Perspectives reported by teachers also conveyed the ways that school staff can be instrumental in curtailing bullying and harassment, as well as offered potential solutions to promote a more positive school climate.

Findings from *From Teasing to Torment* reinforced our awareness that bullying and harassment are major challenges confronting all schools. In 2005, students reported that harassment was an all-too-common occurrence. Two-thirds of the students surveyed reported that they were verbally or physically harassed or assaulted at school during the past year due to their appearance or their actual or

perceived race/ethnicity, disability, gender, sexual orientation, gender expression, or religion. Half of the teachers surveyed described bullying and harassment of all kinds as a serious problem in their schools. LGBT students were found to be particularly vulnerable as they were three times as likely to not feel safe at school and were more likely to have been harassed or assaulted in school, as compared to their non-LGBT peers.

Yet 10 years later, we believe bullying and harassment remain a significant concern of students, families, and schools all across the country. Our research on school principals⁵ and elementary students and teachers⁶ has demonstrated that these issues continue to undermine school climate. The results of the 2005 *From Teasing to Torment* study have been important to GLSEN's understanding of the ways in which LGBT issues manifest themselves in the school environment, thereby informing our continuing work to ensure schools are safe and welcoming environments for all. Although any student may be a target for bullying and harassment, lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) students remain particularly vulnerable. Current research from our own *National School Climate Survey*⁷ as well as other research⁸ has shown that LGBTQ students frequently experience in-school victimization. Such victimization often includes recurrent verbal and physical harassment and assault,⁹ sexual harassment,¹⁰ and social exclusion and isolation¹¹. These experiences of victimization can lead to poorer psychological well-being,¹² and can negatively impact access to education due to increased absenteeism resulting from feeling uncomfortable or unsafe in school, increased discipline problems, and lower levels of school engagement and academic achievement.¹³

In the last decade since the release of the initial *From Teasing to Torment* report, we have witnessed a series of social and political developments that may have implications for the school environment. We have seen the focus on bullying and harassment magnify, partially as a result of several high-profile incidences of school violence and youth suicides linked explicitly to bullying behavior. Meanwhile, researchers have begun to increase our understanding of these issues by studying the causes and repercussions

of school-based bullying behavior¹⁴ and bullying prevention programs have become more commonplace in schools. These developments have compelled government and school officials to better address bullying and harassment in schools.¹⁵ Since the initial report in 2005, 29 states and the District of Columbia have implemented anti-bullying laws, resulting in every U.S. state having such a law. However, a minority of these laws include enumeration of specific protected characteristics, such as race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and gender identity/expression, among others.¹⁶ Many bullying experts and numerous policymakers have deemed enumeration as a critical component of effective bullying laws and policies. The Safe Schools Improvement Act, federal legislation requiring all schools receiving federal funding to enact enumerated anti-bullying policies, has been introduced in both the House and the Senate with bipartisan support, but has not yet been brought up for a vote.¹⁷

Other developments have had an even more specific impact on LGBTQ students. There has been increased acceptance of LGBTQ people in the U.S. and milestone victories with respect to federal rights such as marriage equality and the ending of the “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell” policy regarding gay, lesbian, and bisexual people in the military. Specifically in regards to education, federal law, which protects students from sex discrimination under Title IX, has been increasingly applied to experiences of bullying, harassment, and discrimination based upon students’ sexual orientation or gender expression, and the U.S. Department of Education released additional specific guidance on Title IX directing schools to ensure that transgender students participate in schools in ways that acknowledge and respect their gender identity.¹⁸ Meanwhile, some individual states have also taken explicit action to address LGBTQ youth issues, such as bans of so-called “gay conversion therapy” for youth enacted in states including New Jersey, Oregon, and District of Columbia,¹⁹ and mandates for inclusion of the political, economic, and social contributions of LGBT people in school curriculum in California. We have also seen an increase in official state and district policies to provide transgender and gender

nonconforming students with equal access to a safe and respectful education. However, just as some jurisdictions aim to further civil rights and afford equal access to LGBTQ people, we have seen a rising opposition from other state and local governments which seek to codify anti-LGBT discrimination, including a growing number of states filing lawsuits against the federal government opposing their compliance with the Title IX guidelines as related to transgender students.²⁰

The world for teachers may also be a somewhat different one today than it was in 2005. Standards-based reform has come to a crossroads with many parents and teachers questioning standardized exams as a measure of performance,²¹ while many states continue to put their resources in the implementation of Common Core.²² Conventional school discipline practices have also been called into question both for their rigidity and the fact that they disproportionately affect students who come from traditionally marginalized communities.²³ Finally, we are seeing increasing public and government attention to the effectiveness of teachers and public schools themselves. These questions have become very public through legal battles,²⁴ particularly around tenure, teacher assessment and accountability, and the rise of charter schools.²⁵ We have also witnessed a proliferation of alternative paths to teaching careers beyond the traditional college and university teacher education programs and certification.²⁶ These competing factors have created a tumultuous situation in which teachers face increasingly competing demands as they aim to educate all students and foster learning environments that are safe and inclusive.²⁷

Despite these changes in the social, legal, and educational landscapes, there is limited research that assesses how the school climate may have changed over the past decade in regards to bias, bullying,²⁸ and LGBTQ issues.²⁹ Although the U.S. Department of Education tracks both incidents of bullying and school discipline through its ongoing Civil Rights Data Collection, it is not until this past year that it has included assessment of incidents based on sexual orientation and religion, along with race, sex, and disability that it has been tracking continually. Furthermore,

federal and state data collection with regard to school discipline has provided insight into disparities based on race and sex, and in some cases, disability, but does not include information about potential disparities based on sexual orientation or gender identity. It was not until its 2015 installment of the federal Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) which assesses bullying and absenteeism, along with other risk behaviors, that the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) included items to assess sexual orientation for the first time; and the YRBS still does not include ways to identify transgender students. Furthermore, although there is some academic research assessing changes in school climate specifically for LGBT educators over time, there is no information about potential shifts in the general population of teachers and their beliefs and practices as related to bias, bullying, or LGBTQ issues.³⁰ Thus, despite the public attention and policy efforts regarding bullying and LGBTQ student issues, *From Teasing to Torment* has remained one of few sources of national data on how the general population of students, including LGBTQ students, experience bias, bullying, and harassment in schools. It has also served as a valuable resource for understanding how teachers themselves continue to perceive school climate, and how teachers have been engaging with LGBTQ issues in schools. For these reasons, we felt it was important to reexamine the issues we explored in the 2005 *From Teasing to Torment* report by conducting a similar survey in 2015, exactly a decade after the initial report.

This current report, ***From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited, A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers***, affords us the opportunity to explore how school climate may have changed over the past 10 years for both students and teachers. It also allows us to document the current state of safety, bias, and bullying in schools and assess potential disparities based not only on LGBTQ status, but also on race/ethnicity, sex, gender expression, and socioeconomic status. As school climate is determined not only by the existence or absence of victimization, we also explore students' experiences with school disciplinary actions and extracurricular activities, seeking to

develop a more complete picture of the student experience. Furthermore, we also continue to document students' access to resources that may improve school climate, such as student clubs that address LGBTQ student issues (e.g., Gay-Straight Alliances), inclusive curriculum, and anti-bullying/harassment policies. In addition, in this report, secondary school teachers offer their perceptions on bias, bullying, and LGBTQ students' safety, and provide valuable information about the preparation they may have received to address these issues. We also document teachers' practices in regards to combating bias and supporting LGBTQ students specifically, including the potential barriers to doing so. Lastly, we offer recommendations for both further research and specific programmatic and policy strategies that may help schools reduce the risk of peer victimization, counter the damaging effects of bias, and provide safe and supportive learning environments for all LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students alike. We trust that *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited, A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers* will provide valuable information to advocates, educators, and policymakers that will enrich their efforts to develop safe and affirming schools for all students.

Data and Survey Methodology

Findings in this study came from online surveys conducted by Harris Poll on behalf of GLSEN among 1,367 U.S. secondary school (middle or high school grades) students age 13–18, and 1,015 U.S. secondary school teachers. The national sample was drawn primarily from the Harris Poll Online (HPOL) opt-in panel and supplemented with a sample from trusted partner panels.

For the student survey, figures for sex, age, race/ethnicity, school location, region, and parents' highest education [a proxy for household income] were weighted to reflect the U.S. population of middle/high school grade students age 13–18, based on U.S. Census data obtained via the 2013 Current Population Survey (CPS). Students who identified as LGBT were oversampled, and a postweight was applied in the final data to bring their proportion in line with the general population. Proportions of students who identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer were derived from the GLSEN 2013 *National School Climate Survey* and the 2012 Gallup Poll.

For the teacher survey, figures for sex, age, race/ethnicity, education, household income, and region were weighted to reflect the U.S. national population of full-time teachers of middle/high school grade students, based on data from the U.S. Census obtained via the March 2013 Current Population Survey (CPS). Propensity score weighting was also used for the teacher data to adjust for respondents' propensity to be online.

All further data analysis and reporting was conducted by GLSEN Research.

Results

Findings from Secondary School Students

Perceptions of School Climate

School climate is composed of numerous factors, including not only the level of physical safety at school, but also the extent to which members of the school community feel valued and welcomed at school. Bias, such as homophobia, sexism, and racism, can undermine students' feelings of self-worth and create a hostile school climate, resulting in a negative learning atmosphere. These types of bias can manifest in multiple forms, including direct victimization, such as bullying, and more indirect forms, such as hearing negative or biased remarks, and general attitudes of students and educators. In this section, we examine the frequency of various types of biased language heard at school, as well as the frequency of staff and student intervention regarding such language. We also report on students' perceptions of the most common types of bullying and harassment at school. Also, given the diversity within and across U.S. schools, we examine differences in students' reports based on school characteristics, such as region and school level. Given GLSEN's focus on ensuring schools are safe and affirming for all students regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression, we pay particular attention to bias-related sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression, including examining students' attitudes towards and familiarity with lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) people.

EXPOSURE TO BIASED LANGUAGE AT SCHOOL

Biased language can be damaging to the school environment. Even if students do not experience or witness more direct bullying, harassment, or name calling, biased language can reveal more widespread, persistent, and often implicit beliefs about students and their identities, and thus, it can create a negative school climate for many students. We asked students in our survey how often they heard various types of biased

remarks. Based on our previous research,³¹ we identified which types of remarks were most common and, for those, we also asked students how often teachers and school staff are present when remarks are made and how frequently they intervene in such remarks. For remarks related to sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression, we also asked how frequently other students intervene when hearing such remarks.

Homophobic Remarks

- Expressions using “gay” in a negative way, such as “that’s so gay” or “you’re so gay,” were the most common types of remarks students reported hearing at school: 55.0% of students reported hearing this language often or very often (see Figure 1.1).³²
- Approximately 4 out of 10 students (42.9%) heard other types of homophobic remarks often or very often (e.g., “faggot,” “dyke,” “queer”) from other students at school (see also Figure 1.1).
- Students also heard homophobic remarks from teachers and other school staff (see Figure 1.2). More than one in ten students reported that teachers and staff members use the expression “that’s so gay” or “you’re so gay” (16.4%) or make other homophobic remarks (15.3%).³³

Sexist Remarks

- As shown in Figure 1.1, more than half of students (56.0%) reported hearing sexist remarks at school from other students often or very often.
- One in five students (20.6%) reported that teachers and other staff members had made sexist remarks (see Figure 1.2).

Remarks about Ability

- Comments about students' academic ability were frequently heard from other students (32.9% heard these often or very often) (see Figure 1.1).

- More than one fifth of students (22.5%) reported that teachers and other staff made these types of remarks at school (see Figure 1.2).

Racist Remarks

- Over one third (36.0%) of respondents reported hearing racist remarks from other students often or very often (see Figure 1.1). In addition, 14.4% of students reported hearing teachers and other staff make racist comments (see Figure 1.2).

Negative Remarks about Gender Expression

- As shown in Figure 1.1, 22.0% of students reported hearing negative remarks about gender expression at school often or very often.
- One fourth of students (25.5%) reported that teachers and other school staff have made negative remarks about how “masculine” or “feminine” students are (see Figure 1.2).

Negative Religious Remarks

- As shown in Figure 1.1, one in ten students (9.5%) reported hearing negative remarks about religion from students often or very often.

Figure 1.1 Prevalence of Biased Remarks Heard from Other Students in School

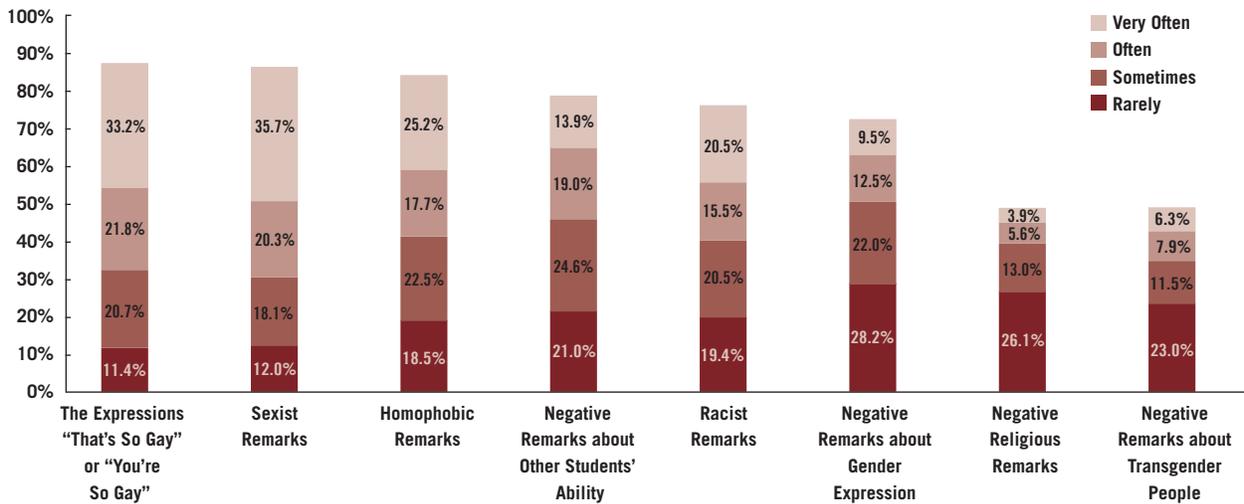
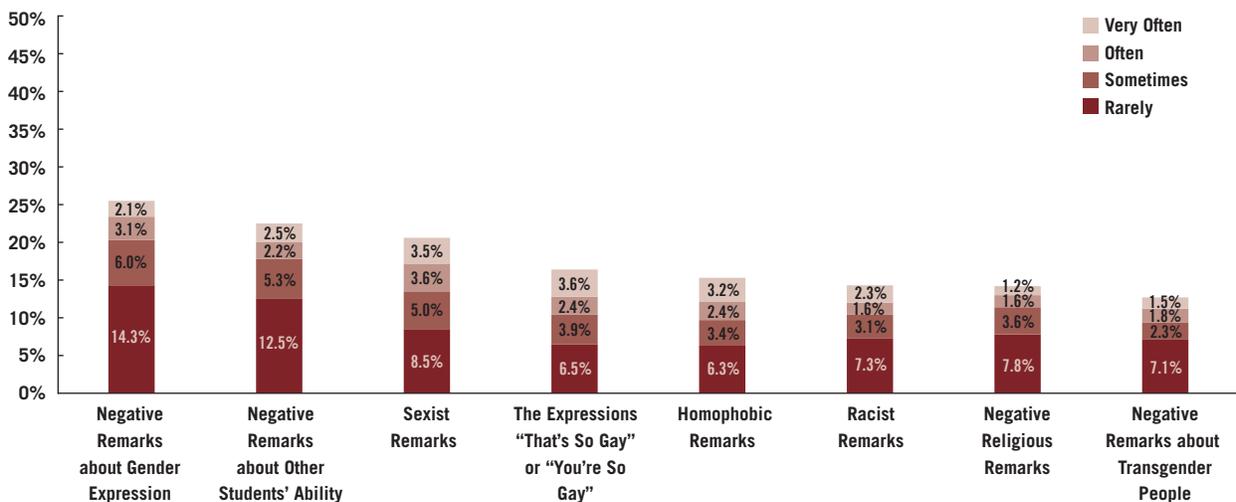


Figure 1.2 Prevalence of Biased Remarks Heard from Other Teachers and Staff in School



- About one in seven students (14.1%) reported that teachers and staff members made negative religious remarks (see Figure 1.2).

Negative Remarks about Transgender People

- As shown in Figure 1.1, 14.2% of students reported ever hearing anti-transgender remarks from other students.
- More than one in ten students (12.6%) reported ever hearing teachers or other school staff make anti-transgender comments (see Figure 1.2).

As indicated by Figure 1.1, homophobic remarks were among the most common remarks heard by students at school, whereas negative remarks about transgender people and negative religious remarks were the least commonly heard, albeit almost half of students still reported hearing these types of comments. The pattern for remarks from school staff was slightly different—students reported that staff members were most likely to make derogatory remarks about gender expression, sexist remarks, and remarks about students' ability (see Figure 1.2). According to students, school staff was least likely to make racist comments, negative remarks about religion, or anti-transgender comments. Nevertheless, the fact that school staff was heard

making *any* biased remarks is troubling, given their role in supporting and educating all students.

Hearing Biased Remarks by School Characteristics

Given the vast number and diversity of schools across the country, students' school experiences may vary significantly based on the characteristics of their schools and where they are located. Thus, we examined students' reports of hearing biased language from other students by geographic region (Northeast, South, Midwest, West),³⁴ locale (urban, suburban, rural), school type (public, religious, private non-religious), and school level (middle school, high school). Although we found no significant differences by locale,³⁵ we did find significant differences for the other types of school characteristics (see Table 1.1). Specifically:

- **School level.** Students in high schools reported higher rates of sexist and negative religious remarks compared to those in middle school.³⁶
- **Region.** Students in the West were generally most likely to report lower rates of hearing biased language from other students, except negative remarks about religion, transgender people, and gender expression.³⁷

Table 1.1 Percentage of Students Reporting Hearing Biased Remarks from Other Students by School Characteristics
(Percentage Reporting "Often" or "Very Often")

	"That's So Gay" or "You're So Gay"	Sexist Remarks	Homophobic Remarks	Racist Remarks	Negative Remarks about Other Students' Ability	Gender Expression	Negative Remarks about Transgender People	Negative Religious Remarks
School Level								
Middle School	53.7%	50.0%	45.9%	34.9%	32.5%	20.4%	16.5%	7.1%
High School	56.0%	58.0%	42.5%	36.6%	33.5%	22.5%	13.6%	10.4%
School Type								
Public	57.4%	58.5%	45.3%	10.1%	34.7%	22.7%	14.8%	37.9%
Private, Non-religious	25.0%	23.9%	16.7%	4.2%	15.2%	8.4%	14.6%	10.8%
Private, Religious	35.1%	35.9%	23.1%	2.6%	16.5%	20.6%	5.2%	19.2%
Region								
Northeast	55.9%	53.7%	53.7%	11.5%	37.0%	23.0%	13.9%	34.2%
South	57.3%	60.7%	46.9%	10.7%	30.8%	24.9%	16.6%	43.2%
Midwest	57.4%	57.7%	46.0%	6.9%	35.6%	20.2%	12.4%	31.9%
West	49.1%	50.0%	36.8%	8.4%	30.1%	18.6%	12.4%	30.9%

- **School type.** Students in public school were more likely to report hearing all types of biased language compared to students who attended private/religious schools and private/non-religious schools.³⁸

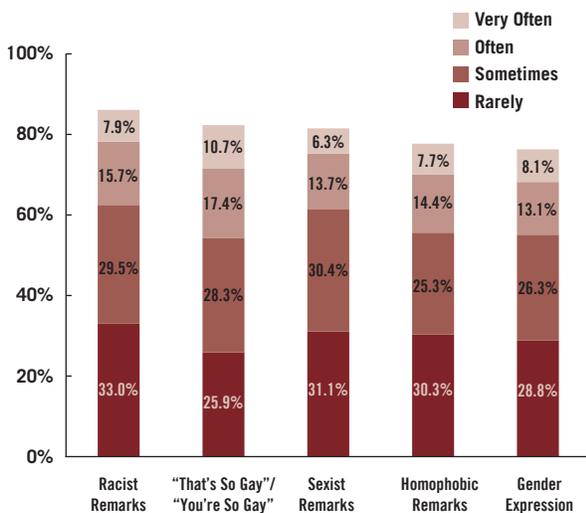
Response to Biased Language at School

Along with the prevalence of biased remarks, we also asked students whether teachers and other staff were present when biased remarks were made, and whether staff and students intervened (specifically, corrected, criticized, or scolded) when students made such remarks.³⁹

Homophobic Remarks

In general, about 4 in 5 students reported that teachers and staff were present at least some of the time when homophobic remarks were made, with some small differences between types of remarks.⁴⁰ For example, as shown in Figure 1.3, approximately a quarter of students reported that staff were present often or very often when homophobic remarks were made (“...so gay” remarks: 28.1%; other homophobic remarks: 22.1%). Given that school staff was commonly present when these remarks were made, according to student reports, it would appear that they would regularly have had the opportunity to intervene. In addition, their presence may also indicate that students feel comfortable making these biased comments in front of teachers and other staff, perhaps because they believe they will face no consequences for making them, and/or that the consequences for making them are

Figure 1.3 How Often Teacher/Staff Has Been Present When Hearing Biased Remarks by Type of Remarks



insufficient to deter students from making such remarks. In fact, we found, overall, that students reported that teachers seldom intervened in incidents of homophobic remarks made in their presence. As shown in Figure 1.4, just over a quarter of students said teachers and staff often or very often intervened in homophobic remarks (“that’s so gay”: 27.6%; other homophobic remarks: 28.3%). Students were even less likely than school staff to intervene in homophobic remarks.⁴¹ For example, only 20.1% of respondents said students intervened often or very often when hearing “that’s so gay,” and only 18.5% when hearing other homophobic remarks (see Figure 1.5).

Figure 1.4 Frequency that Teachers/Staff Correct, Criticize, or Scold Other Students for Making Biased Remarks
(Percentage of Teachers Who Noted Students Made Such Remarks)

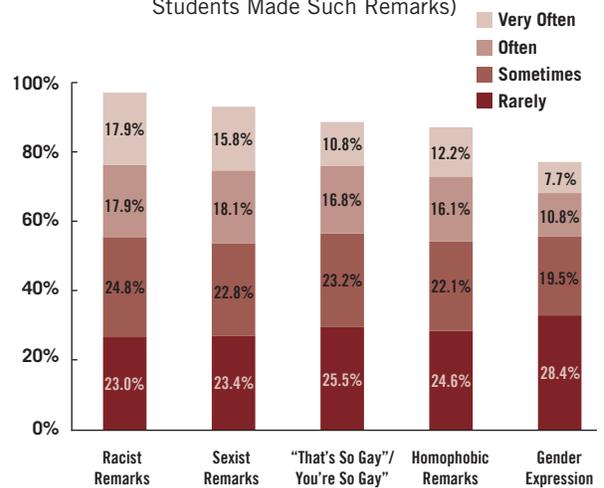
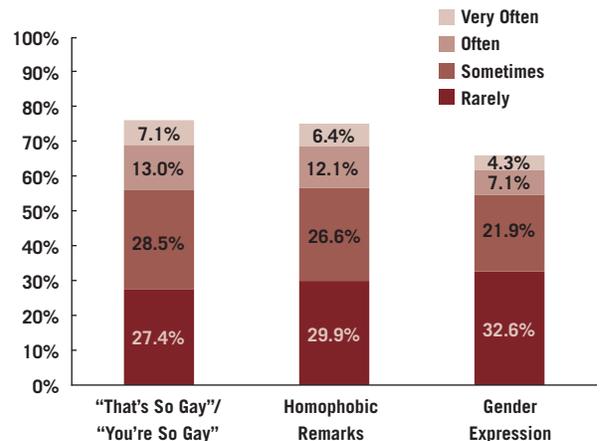


Figure 1.5 Frequency that Students Correct, Criticize, or Scold Other Students for Making Biased Remarks
(Percentage of Teachers Who Noted Students Made Such Remarks)



Negative Remarks about Gender Expression

Just over three quarters (76.2%) of students reported school staff were present at least some of the time when these remarks were made (Figure 1.3). Although school staff were likely to witness these remarks, according to student reports, they were not likely to intervene. Fewer than one in five respondents (18.5%) reported that staff members who were present when students made negative remarks about gender expression intervened often or very often (Figure 1.4). As with teachers and staff, students were also not likely to intervene in remarks about gender expression—only 11.4% of respondents said other students intervened often or very often when hearing these remarks (Figure 1.5).⁴²

Sexist Remarks

As shown in Figure 1.3, 81.5% of respondents reported that teachers and staff had been present for students' sexist remarks. Unfortunately, school staff members intervened only rarely in sexist remarks: only one third of students (33.9%) said staff intervened often or very often when they witnessed such language (Figure 1.4).

Racist Remarks

Although 83.6% of students responded that staff intervened at least some of the time when overhearing racist remarks, only one third (35.8%) reported that they did so often or very often (Figure 1.4).

Overall, students reported that school staff did not often intervene when they heard biased remarks. However, they were less likely to intervene in some types of remarks than others.⁴³ Specifically, teachers and staff were least likely to intervene in negative comments about gender expression, suggesting that these remarks may not be regarded as negative or offensive in the same way as some other types of remarks. Furthermore, school staff members were less likely to intervene when hearing “that’s so gay” or other homophobic remarks than when hearing sexist and racist remarks (Figure 1.4).

Together, the findings about the prevalence and intervention of biased remarks in school reveal that negative messages about students' intrinsic worth, and both explicit and implicit judgments about their identities, permeate the school environment. Students regularly encounter

anti-LGBT and sexist remarks in school, and even the less frequent forms of biased language are heard by at least half the student body. Although the student population is increasingly diverse, the prevalence of these biased remarks may send the message to some students that they are not valued. Staff members' failure to intervene in these types of bias—and indeed, their participation in it themselves—permits these comments to continue and reinforces the notion that the substance of the remarks has merit or truth.

PRESENCE OF BULLYING, NAME-CALLING, AND HARASSMENT AT SCHOOL

Schools are important settings for learning and developing individually and socially. However, for many students, schools serve as locations for bullying, name-calling, and harassment, which can make school less safe and supportive and can impede learning. These forms of harassment may target personal characteristics, which may have particularly damaging consequences as they threaten students' individual identities.⁴⁴ Thus, we asked students how often people at their school are bullied, called names, or harassed because of specific personal characteristics: their actual or perceived sexual orientation, gender expression, race or ethnicity, religion, body size or appearance, academic ability (i.e., how well they do at school), family income, and actual or perceived disability.

About 9 in 10 students (92.0%) said that other students at their school are bullied, called names, or harassed for at least one of these reasons.⁴⁵ As shown in Figure 1.6, students most commonly said that students are harassed because of their body size or appearance (84.1%), their academic ability (75.4%), the way they express their gender (75.3%), and their sexual orientation (74.2%).⁴⁶

In addition to asking about how often other students experience bullying based on personal characteristics, students were asked to select the single *most* common or most frequent reason people are bullied, called names, or harassed at their school (Figure 1.7).⁴⁷ Students reported the most common reason for bullying, name-calling, and harassment was the way someone looks or their body size (36.2%), followed by sexual orientation (because people think they

are gay, lesbian, or bisexual) (19.2%). About one in ten students named a person’s race/ethnicity (10.4%), their academic ability (10.1%), or their gender expression (i.e., how masculine/feminine someone is) (9.2%), as the most common reason for harassment. Fewer students said that religion, family income, or others’ disability served as the most common reason for harassment.

It is not surprising that there were similarities between students’ reports on the frequency that various types of bullying occur and their assessments of the most common form of bullying—the most frequently reported, such as body size/appearance and sexual orientation, were often reported as the most common. The

consistency of the findings regarding body size/appearance and sexual orientation suggest that students with body types which counter common norms or standards, and students who do not identify as heterosexual (or who are perceived as not heterosexual), likely experience more negative school environments. Findings on the frequency of bullying and on the most common type of bullying, however, were not consistent for bullying based on gender expression. Gender expression-based bullying was reported to occur as frequently as bullying based on sexual orientation and was second in frequency only to bullying related to bodily appearance (see Figure 1.6). Yet, gender expression was, according to

Figure 1.6 Prevalence of Students Bullied, Called Names, or Harassed at School by Reason

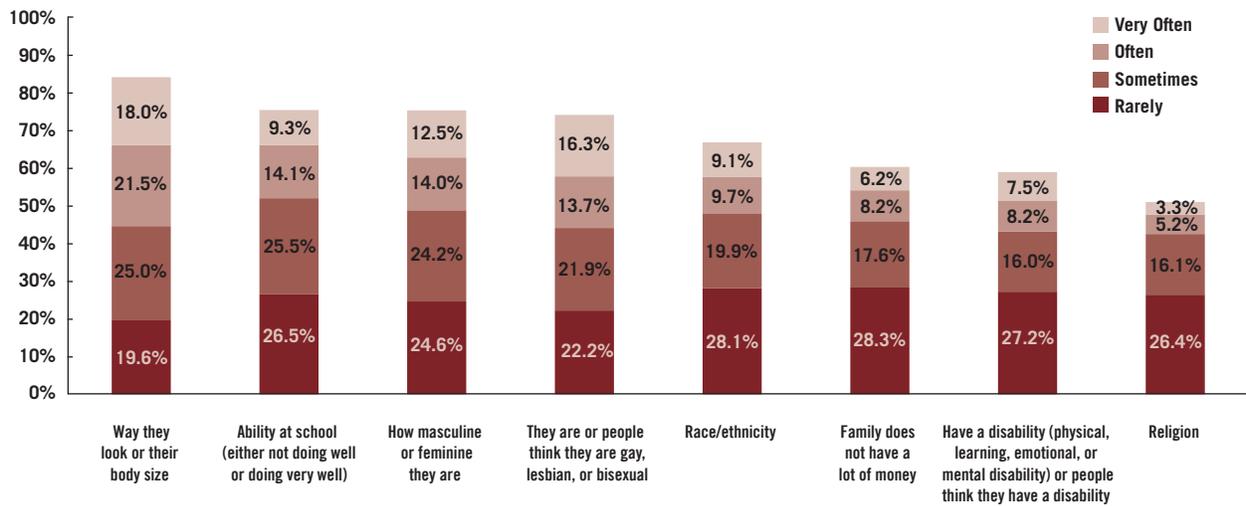
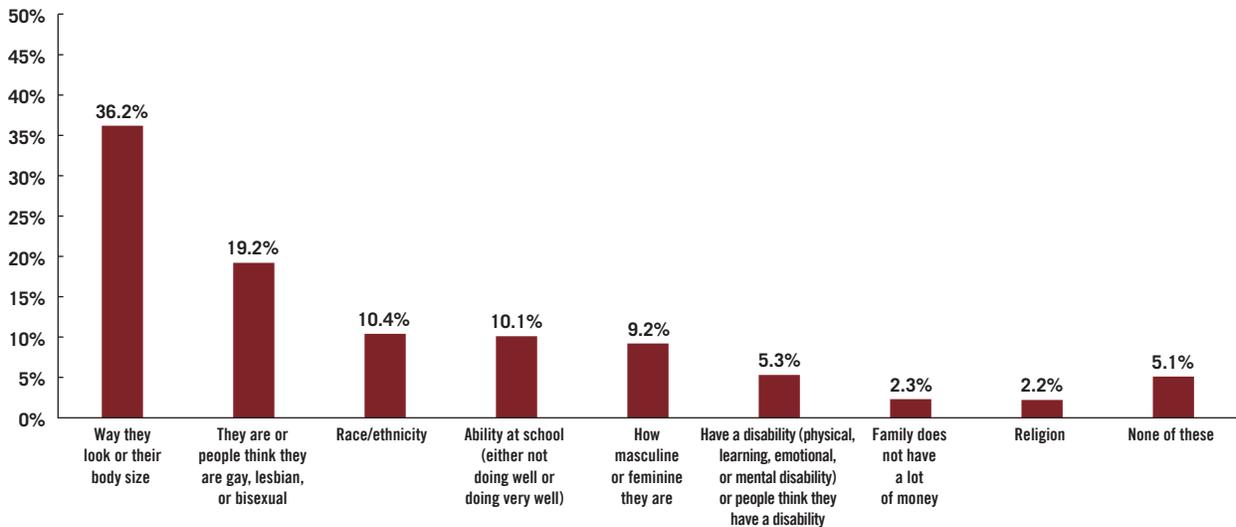


Figure 1.7 Most Common Reason Students are Bullied at School



student reports, the fifth most common reason for bullying (Figure 1.7). It may be that bullying based on gender expression is closely linked to bullying based on other types of characteristics. Specifically, given that gender expression is often conveyed through physical appearance, such as clothing and hairstyles, bullying based on gender expression may be closely related to bullying based on appearance. Furthermore, bullying based on gender expression may involve homophobic language (e.g., a boy not acting “masculine enough”) and thus, it could also be classified as bullying based on actual or perceived sexual orientation.

Presence of Bullying, Name-Calling, and Harassment by School Characteristics

Finally, we examined differences in student perceptions of bullying and harassment at their school (see Table 1.2) and found that overall, students’ perceptions of bullying are fairly similar across school level, type, locale, and region. However, there were a few differences:

- **School level.** Students in high school (vs. middle school) reported a higher prevalence of bullying based on race.⁴⁸
- **School type.** Students in public school (vs. religious or independent schools) were more likely to report bullying and harassment based on all reasons, except disability.⁴⁹
- **Locale.** Students in rural schools (vs. suburban and urban schools) reported higher rates of bullying based on sexual orientation.⁵⁰
- **Region.** In general, students in the West were less likely to report bullying and harassment based on sexual orientation, income, and appearance compared to other students.⁵¹

Table 1.2 Percentage of Students Reporting Bullying, Name-Calling, or Harassment by School Characteristics
(Percentage reporting that students are bullied at school “often” or “very often” for following reasons)

	Way They Look or Their Body Size	Ability at School	How Masculine or Feminine They Are	They Are or People Think They Are Gay, Lesbian, or Bisexual	Race/Ethnicity	Disability	Family Does Not Have a Lot of Money	Religion
School Level								
Middle School	40.0%	32.8%	24.9%	37.6%	13.4%	42.2%	17.2%	9.0%
High School	39.8%	20.9%	27.6%	28.4%	20.5%	38.4%	15.4%	8.5%
School Type								
Public	41.4%	23.3%	27.4%	31.4%	19.8%	16.4%	14.8%	8.9%
Private Non-religious	19.6%	12.5%	12.8%	18.7%	8.5%	8.5%	4.2%	8.5%
Private Religious	23.4%	31.2%	21.4%	14.9%	10.5%	9.2%	15.8%	3.9%
Region								
Northeast	43.2%	20.8%	23.4%	24.9%	16.5%	13.5%	10.2%	7.9%
Midwest	42.7%	24.4%	28.9%	31.6%	19.6%	18.5%	19.5%	9.2%
South	40.6%	25.8%	30.2%	39.0%	23.2%	17.5%	18.3%	10.2%
West	32.2%	21.3%	21.7%	20.6%	13.9%	12.1%	8.0%	6.5%
School Locale								
Urban	35.0%	24.3%	24.7%	29.5%	15.9%	14.1%	17.1%	8.3%
Suburban	41.0%	22.8%	26.7%	29.4%	20.9%	13.6%	13.3%	7.2%
Small Town/Rural	41.8%	23.6%	28.5%	32.2%	17.6%	16.6%	19.4%	11.7%

Personal Experiences of Safety, Bullying, and Harassment

SCHOOL SAFETY

The vast majority of students, more than 9 out of 10, felt safe while at school, with half of students (49.6%) of students reporting that they felt “very safe” (see Figure 1.8). Less than a tenth of students (6.3%) indicated that they felt “not very” or “not at all” safe at school. However, although students as a whole appear to feel safe at school, there may be certain populations of students that are more marginalized, and do not feel as safe. We examined differences in feelings of safety by students’ demographic characteristics and found that LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students,⁵² female students,⁵³ and Black/African-American students all reported feeling less safe at school than other students (see Figure 1.9).⁵⁴

We asked students in the survey about specific reasons why they might feel unsafe at school. Although a small percentage of students reported feeling unsafe at school (as noted above), over half provided a reason they did not feel safe—only 48.3% of students indicated that they did not feel unsafe at school (see Figure 1.10). The most common reason students felt unsafe was related to their appearance, with a third (33.3%) of students indicating that the way they looked or their body size made them feel unsafe at school. About 1 in 10 also reported feeling unsafe

because of their actual or perceived sexual orientation or race/ethnicity.

Feeling safe at school is critical not only to students’ personal well-being but also to their ability to learn and participate in school. Students who do not feel safe at school may be deprived of an opportunity access an education. In fact, 17.7% of students reported missing at least one day of school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, and 8.7% of students reported missing two or more days because of safety concerns (see Figure 1.11). As we found with general feelings of safety at school, we found that missing school varied based on LGBTQ status, gender expression, and sex. Specifically,

Figure 1.8 Students’ Feelings of Safety at School

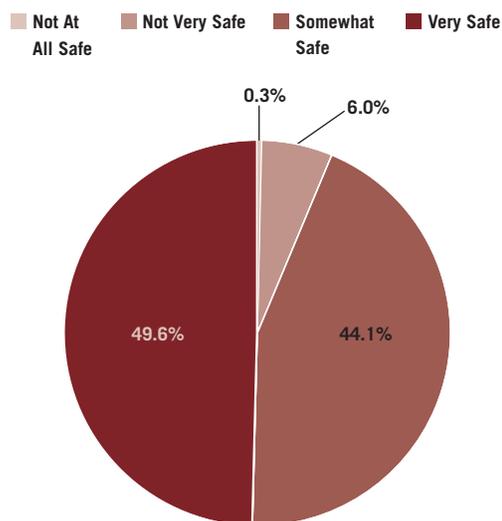
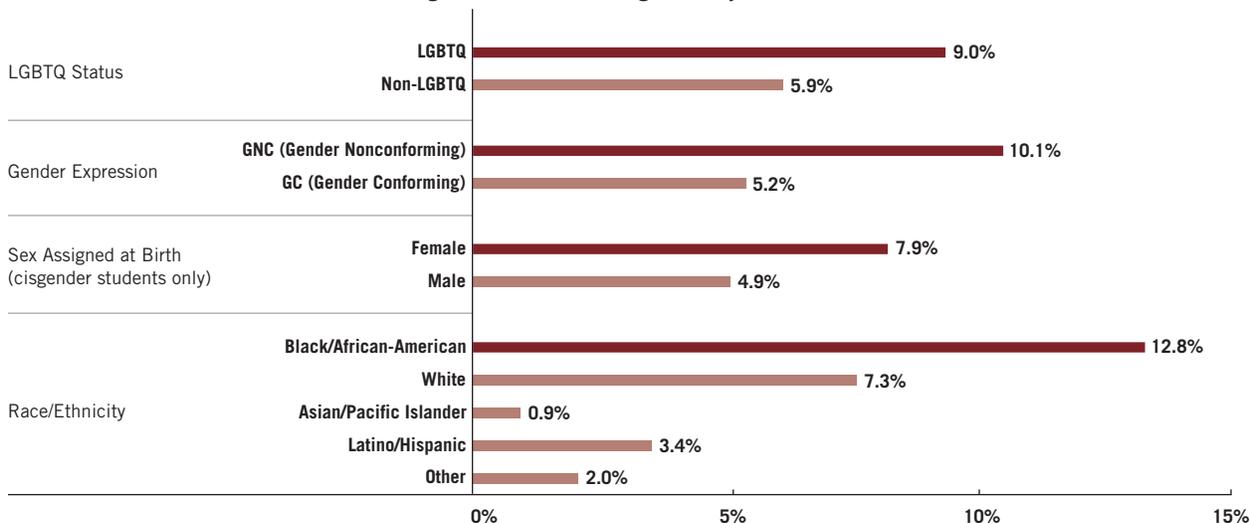


Figure 1.9 Demographic Differences in Not Feeling Safe At School
(Percentage of Students Feeling Not Very or Not at All Safe)



LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, and female cisgender students were more likely to have missed at least one day of school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (see Figure 1.12).⁵⁵ These findings are perhaps unsurprising given these particular groups were also more likely to have felt unsafe at school. However, it is noteworthy that although Black/African-American students were more likely to feel unsafe at school than other students, they were not more likely to have missed school for these reasons. More research is needed to better understand the experiences of Black/African-American students with regard to school safety.

PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF BULLYING AND HARASSMENT

Students were asked how often (never, rarely, sometimes, often, very often) they experienced various types of victimization (verbal harassment, physical harassment, physical assault) based on several actual or perceived characteristics: appearance or body type, gender, sexual orientation, gender expression (how traditionally masculine or feminine they appear), race/ethnicity, religion, and disability. Overall, victimization based on appearance or body size was by far the most commonly reported type of bias-related victimization.⁵⁶ As shown in Figure 1.13, half of all students (50.9%) reported ever

having been verbally harassed at school for this reason at some point during the year. The next most common reason for victimization was actual or perceived race/ethnicity, with slightly less than a third (30.3%) reporting being harassed for this reason. Approximately one in five students reported experiencing sexual orientation (19.4%) and/or gender expression-based (21.9%) verbal harassment. Fewer students reported experiencing harassment based on gender, religion, or disability; nevertheless, more than a tenth of students reported being victimized for each of those reasons. Physical harassment and physical assault were less common than verbal harassment, but the same pattern followed with

Figure 1.11 Missing School Because of Feeling Unsafe or Uncomfortable

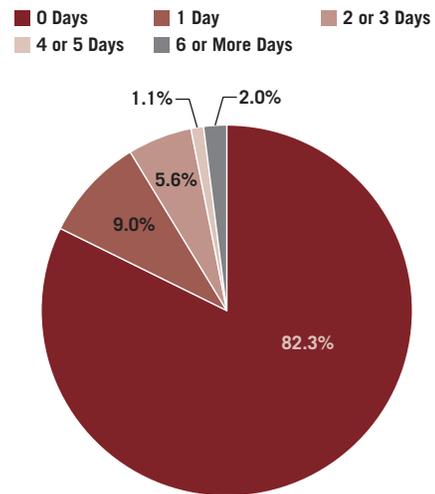
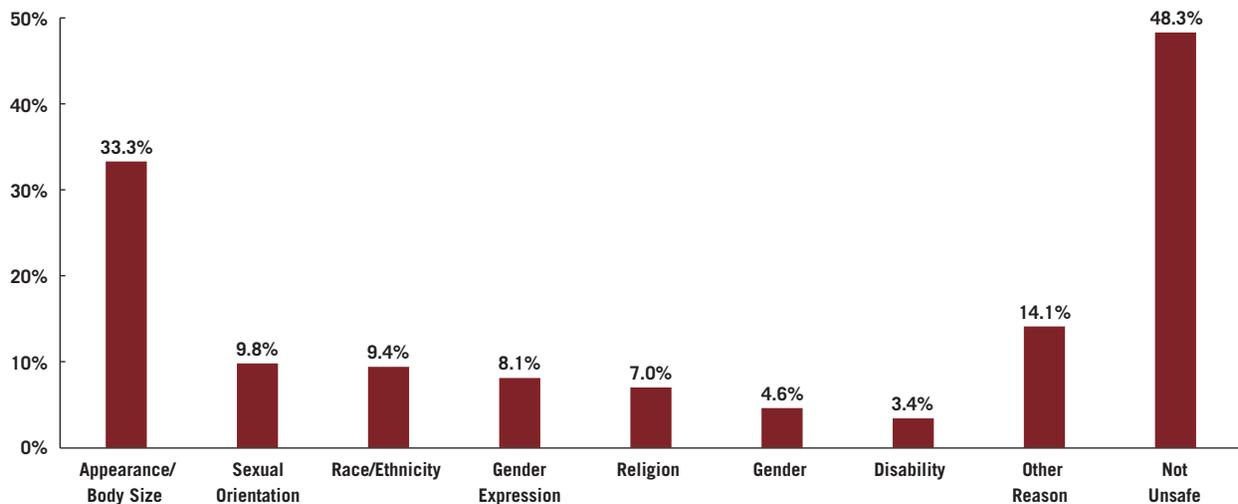


Figure 1.10 Percentage of Students Who Feel Unsafe At School Because of Actual or Perceived Personal Characteristics



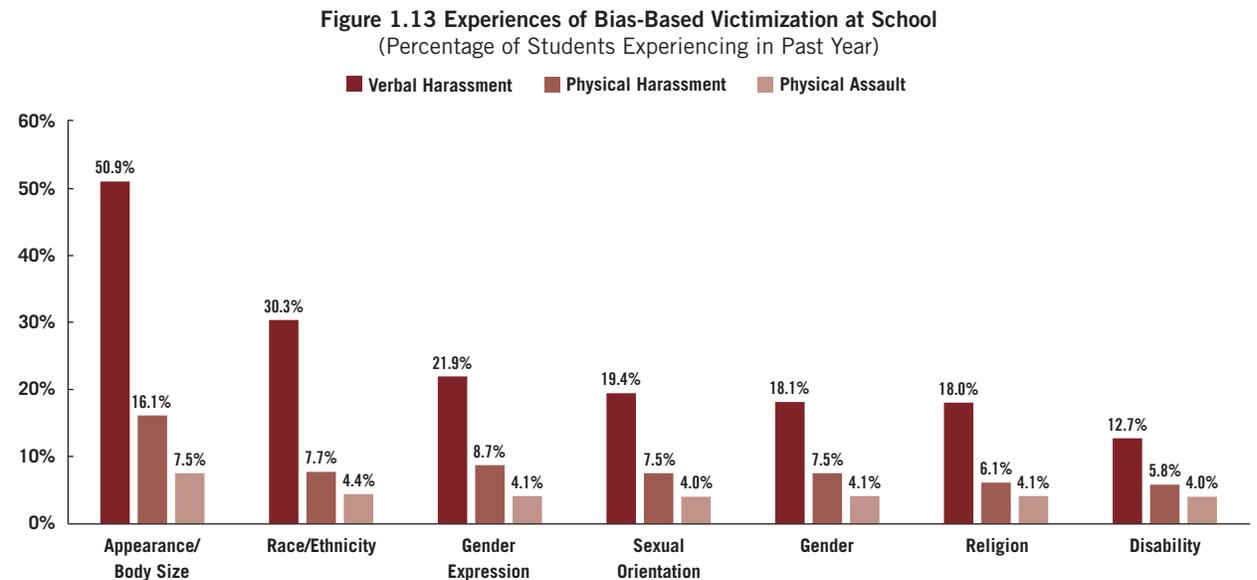
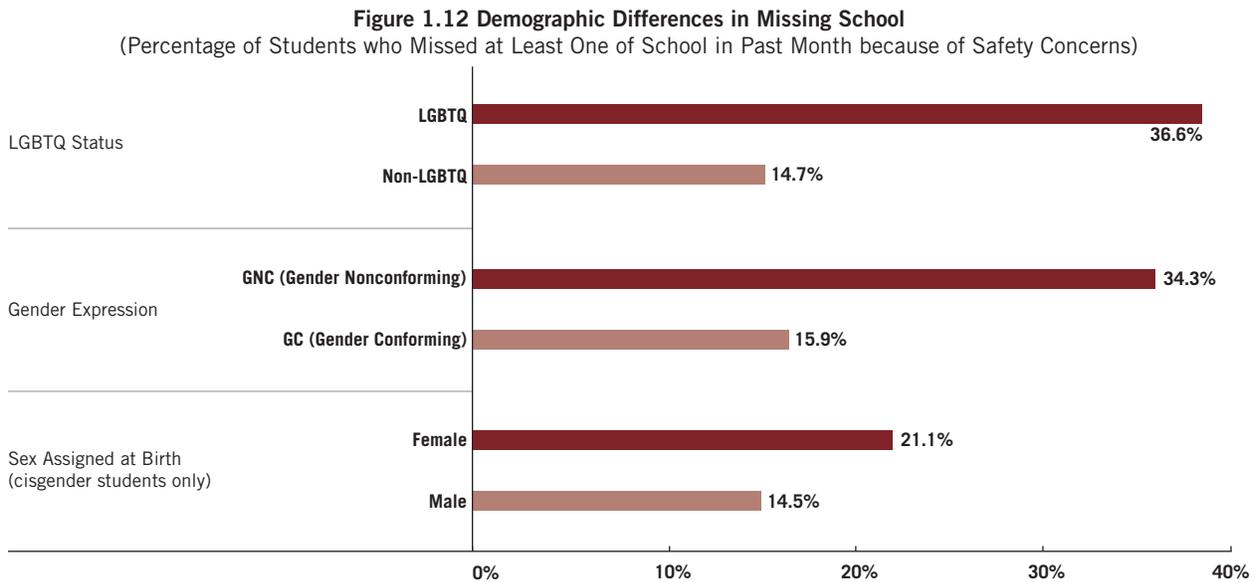
physical victimization based on appearance/body size being the most common, and disability and religion being the least common.⁵⁷ It is worth noting, that for victimization based on religion, it was predominantly students of non-Christian religions (e.g., Muslim and Jewish students) who experienced this type of harassment.⁵⁸

Peer Victimization and Absenteeism

Students who experience higher levels of victimization may feel especially vulnerable at school, and may be more likely to be miss school. Figure 1.14 compares the percentage of students missing at least one day of school in the past month as a result of

feeling unsafe or uncomfortable at school by levels of victimization.⁵⁹ Overall, students who were victimized based on any of the personal characteristics were also more likely to miss school due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable.⁶⁰ For example, almost a third (32.9%) of students experiencing higher levels of victimization based on sexual orientation missed at least a day of school due to feeling unsafe compared to just over a tenth (12.9%) of students that experienced lower levels of victimization.

Students may be harassed or experience other types of negative events at school for reasons not clearly related to a personal characteristic,



such as appearance or sexual orientation. Therefore, we also asked students how often they experienced these other types of events, such as being sexually harassed or having their property stolen or damaged at school. As shown in Figure 1.15, over half (54.8%) of students reported having mean rumors or lies told about them at school, over a third had experienced property damage, and a third had experienced some form of cyberbullying, i.e., been harassed or threatened by other students via phone or Internet communications. Although less common, over a quarter (28.8%) of students reported having had experienced sexual harassment at school in the past year.⁶¹

Taking into account all the aforementioned types of school victimization based on personal characteristics (i.e., bias-based harassment and assault), sexual harassment, property damage/theft, rumors/lies, and cyberbullying—almost three fourths (73.9%) of students had experienced some type of peer victimization during the past school year. However, certain groups of students were more at risk for bullying and harassment than others (see Table 1.3). LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, youth of color, and female students experienced higher rates of overall peer victimization.⁶² But when examining the specific types of victimization experienced by students, these differences are somewhat more nuanced:

- **LGBTQ status.** LGBTQ students experienced more victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, appearance/body size, and disability than non-LGBTQ students.⁶³ They also more frequently experienced sexual harassment, having rumors/lies spread about them, property damage, and cyberbullying.⁶⁴
- **Gender nonconformity.** Gender nonconforming students experienced greater frequency of all types of victimization assessed in this survey compared to their gender conforming peers.⁶⁵
- **Sex.** Female students reported higher frequencies of sexual harassment, having rumors/lies spread about them, and

Figure 1.15 Other Forms of Victimization
(Percentage of Students Experiencing from Other Students in Past Year)

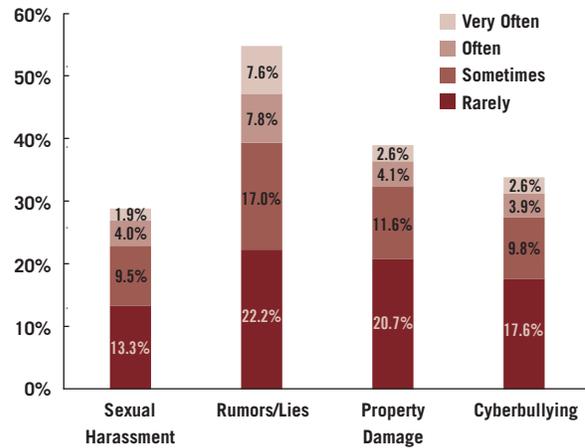
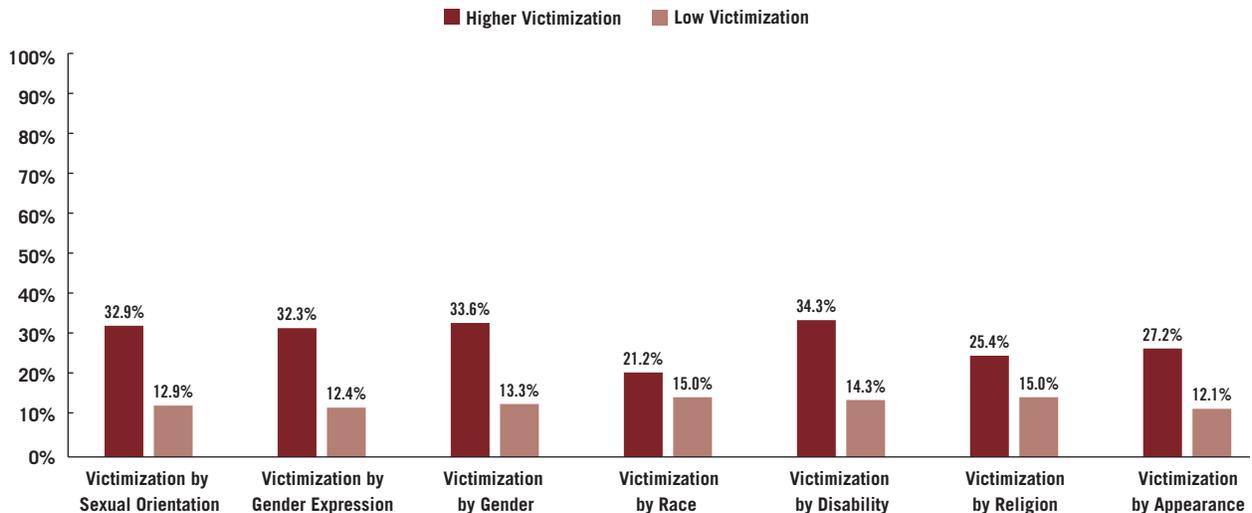


Figure 1.14 Absenteeism and Bias-Based Victimization
(Percentage of Students Missing at Least One Day of School in Past Month because of Safety Concerns)



cyberbullying.⁶⁶ Male students, however, were more likely to have experienced victimization based on sexual orientation, race/ethnicity, disability, and religion.⁶⁷

- **Race/ethnicity.** Students of color were more likely than White students to experience victimization based on race/ethnicity; however, there were no differences among youth of color. White students were more likely than students of color to have reported having rumors/lies spread about them and having experienced cyberbullying.⁶⁸

It is evident from these findings that students are vulnerable to victimization based on their own personal characteristics, e.g., youth of color being more likely to experience racial/ethnic victimization and LGBTQ youth being more likely to experience sexual orientation-based victimization. However, some groups of students appear to be more vulnerable to many types of victimization, even those not obviously related

to their specific identity group. For example, gender nonconforming students were more likely to experience all forms of peer victimization, not just those related to gender or gender expression, and LGBTQ students also experienced greater victimization based on disability, not only victimization based on sexual orientation. Thus, it may be that students who are perceived as more visibly different from other students are targeted for a variety of different forms of harassment or assault. It is worth noting that we did not see differences in victimization based on gender between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students, which is surprising given that our previous research has indicated that transgender youth have higher rates of gender-based victimization than their cisgender LGBQ peers.⁶⁹ The relatively small number of transgender students in this current study did not allow us to look at transgender status separately, and thus, we would not have been able to detect potential disparities in gender-based victimization.

Table 1.3 Demographic Differences in Peer Victimization of Students
(Percentage of students ever experiencing specific types of victimization at school in past year)

Victimization	Student Characteristics							
	LGBTQ Status		Gender Expression		Sex Assigned at Birth (cisgender students only)		Race/Ethnicity	
	LGBTQ	Non-LGBTQ	Gender Nonconforming	Gender Conforming	Female	Male	Students of Color	White Students
Verbal Harassment, Physical Harassment, or Physical Assault Based On:								
Appearance/Body Size	68.4%	50.3%	65.1%	49.0%	58.2%	47.1%	50.3%	54.9%
Sexual Orientation	67.0%	13.5%	45.9%	13.0%	14.2%	24.0%	19.9%	21.3%
Gender Expression	59.7%	17.6%	49.5%	15.3%	20.5%	22.8%	21.6%	25.0%
Gender	39.9%	17.0%	34.2%	15.8%	25.0%	13.2%	18.7%	21.4%
Race	36.7%	31.2%	38.2%	30.1%	30.3%	32.6%	41.9%	22.7%
Religion	28.7%	18.0%	28.8%	16.7%	19.4%	18.8%	19.2%	20.3%
Ability	26.7%	12.2%	26.5%	10.5%	11.4%	15.2%	13.1%	15.2%
Other Types of Victimization:								
Sexual Harassment	43.6%	26.4%	35.9%	26.6%	37.0%	19.9%	27.8%	30.5%
Property Damage	44.1%	38.1%	41.9%	38.0%	37.0%	39.6%	35.3%	42.4%
Cyberbullying	40.2%	32.8%	38.5%	32.3%	39.1%	28.7%	28.4%	39.2%
Rumors/Lies	67.2%	52.7%	57.2%	54.0%	61.2%	48.9%	47.5%	62.4%
Any Type of Victimization	89.4%	71.4%	79.9%	71.9%	78.3%	69.4%	76.8%	70.9%

Note: For race/ethnicity, no significant differences were found among students of color; therefore, percentages are shown for students of color in aggregate.

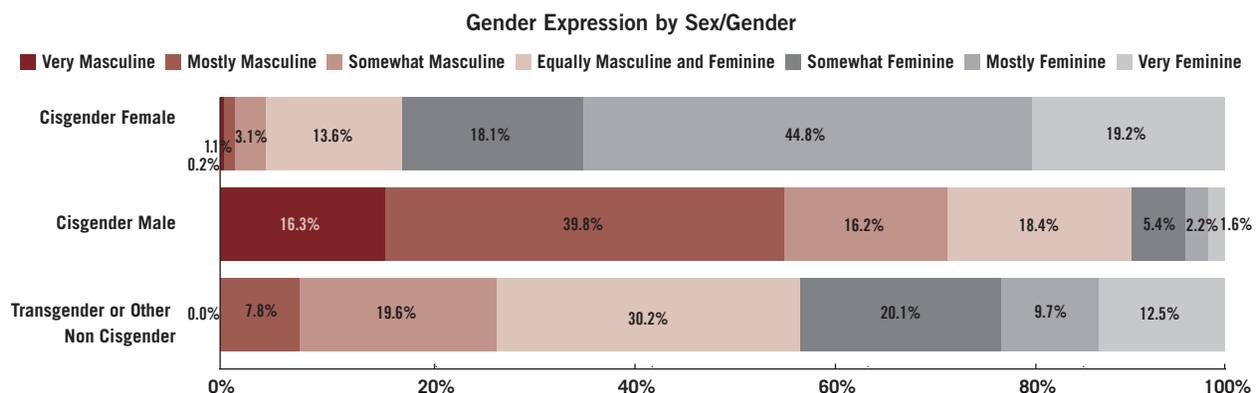
Insight on Gender Expression and Gender Nonconformity

A growing body of research indicates that youth whose gender expression does not conform to traditional expectations for their gender may also be at an elevated risk for victimization and other negative health outcomes.⁷⁰ Indeed, students in our survey reported that gender expression is one of the more common reasons why students were bullied at their school. In addition, as stated previously, one in five students in this survey reported having been personally victimized based on their gender expression (see previous section on Personal Experiences of Bullying and Harassment).

In order to assess gender nonconformity among students in our survey, we asked participants how other people at school would describe their gender expression: very masculine, mostly masculine, somewhat masculine, equally masculine and feminine, somewhat feminine, mostly feminine, or very feminine.⁷¹ As shown in the accompanying Figure, most cisgender students reported a gender expression aligned with traditional expectations based on their gender: 82.1% of cisgender female students reported their gender expression as feminine (either “somewhat feminine,” “mostly feminine,” or “very feminine”) and 72.3% of cisgender male students reported that their gender expression as masculine (either “somewhat masculine,” “mostly masculine,” or “very masculine”). Cisgender males were slightly more likely than cisgender females to endorse a gender expression that was “equally masculine and feminine” (18.4% of males, 13.6% of females).⁷² Transgender and other non-cisgender students (e.g., genderqueer, gender fluid) were almost twice as likely as cisgender students to report their gender expression as equally masculine or feminine (30.2% vs. 18.4% of cisgender males and 13.6% of cisgender females).⁷³

It is important to note that the role of gender norms around personal expression might vary somewhat by sex, such that “very feminine” might indicate a different degree of conformity for females than “very masculine” might for males. Given that gender expression was assessed in our survey by asking students how others at school would perceive them, their responses reflect societal assessments of what is considered masculine and feminine. Our society tends to tolerate a broader range of socially acceptable expression for females than males, and thus, this might influence the varying ways male and female students might report their gender expression.⁷⁴ For example, females may have a societal understanding of “what is feminine” or “what is feminine enough” that has a broader spectrum of behaviors and expressions than males may of “what is masculine” or “what is masculine enough.” This may account for the fact that males in our survey were less likely to endorse high degrees of masculinity than females were to endorse high degrees of femininity. Further research is warranted to better understand the ways in which gender conformity and self-reporting of gender expression may differ between males and females.

We found that almost a quarter (23.8%) of the secondary students in this survey could be identified as gender nonconforming, in that their gender expression was not what would be traditionally expected (e.g., female students reporting a gender expression other than somewhat, mostly, or very feminine).⁷⁵ Throughout this report we examine differences in students’ experiences based on their gender nonconformity (in addition to assessing other demographic differences, such as LGBTQ status and race/ethnicity). In general, we find that gender nonconforming students experience a more hostile school climate than gender conforming students. Schools may often reinforce adherence to traditional gender norms through formal policies or everyday practices of school staff, such as through dress codes, which may be stigmatizing for some students.⁷⁶ In order to ensure that students who might not adhere to gender norms have equal access to education, schools should examine their policies and practices to ensure that they are not discriminatory towards students who are gender nonconforming and do not promote gender stereotypes.



School Engagement

All students deserve equal opportunity to education; however, a variety of obstacles can impede a student's ability to complete and fully engage in their school experiences. In this section, we report on students' plans for future education, experiences they have faced with school discipline, and their participation in extra-curricular activities at school. We assess the effect of hostile school climate on students' outcomes in these areas, and explore potential differences in these areas based on student demographics to identify whether certain groups of youth have access to a productive school experience and educational success.

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

A hostile school climate may have a negative impact on a student's attendance, academic performance, or feelings about school or education in general,⁷⁷ thereby limiting postsecondary interests and opportunities. Some students may have such negative school experiences that they drop out of high school altogether. To assess the relationship between school climate and educational aspirations, we asked students about their aspirations regarding their highest level of expected educational attainment. When asked about their aspirations with regard to post-secondary education, only 6.3% of students indicated that they did *not* plan to pursue any type of postsecondary education (i.e., that they only planned to obtain a high school diploma or a GED) (see Figure 1.16). Approximately a third of students (33.7%) reported that they planned to obtain a college degree (e.g., Bachelor's degree; see Figure 1.16), and another 41.0% said that they planned to pursue a graduate degree (e.g., Master's degree, PhD, or MD). It is important to note that this survey only included students who were attending school. Thus, the percentages of students not completing high school and not pursuing post-secondary education would be higher with the inclusion of students who had already dropped out of high school.

Peer Victimization and Educational Aspirations

To understand how school climate may impact students' educational trajectories, we examined

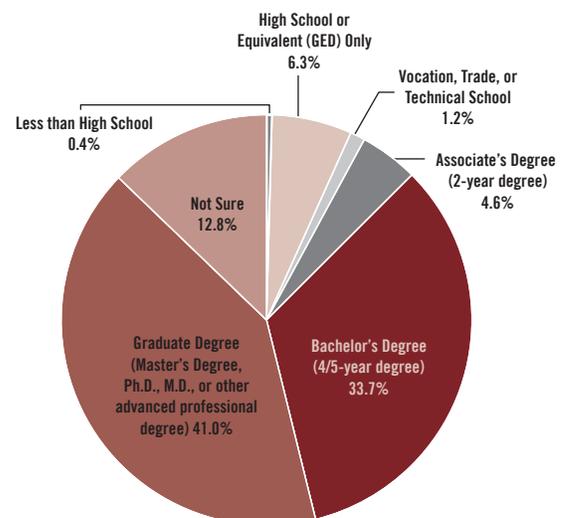
how experiences of bias-based victimization were related to students' aspirations regarding post-secondary education. We found that higher levels of victimization were related to lower educational aspirations.⁷⁸ For example, 88.9% of students who had been victimized due to personal characteristics planned to pursue a postsecondary education compared to 93.6% of students who had not experienced such victimization.

Demographic Differences in Educational Aspirations

We examined differences in educational aspirations by demographic characteristics of the students, specifically LGBTQ status, gender expression, sex, and race/ethnicity:

- **LGBTQ status.** LGBTQ students were nearly twice as likely to report that they did not plan to continue their education past high school (9.6% vs. 5.7% of non-LGBTQ students) or even plan to finish high school (2.7% vs. 0.8% of non-LGBTQ students).⁷⁹
- **Gender expression.** Gender nonconforming students were more likely to report that they did not plan to complete high school (3.1% vs. 0.5% of gender conforming students) or to not continue their education past high school (12.6% vs. 4.2%).⁸⁰ They were less likely to aspire to graduate school (32.5% vs. 43.8%).

Figure 1.16 Highest Level of Education Students Plan to Complete



- **Sex.** Female cisgender students had higher educational aspirations than their male peers—specifically, they were more likely than male cisgender students to aspire to a graduate degree (48.1% vs. 36.2% of male cisgender students).⁸¹
- **Race/ethnicity.** Black/African-American (9.6%) and Latino/Hispanic students (8.3%) were more likely than White students (3.5%) to plan on ending their education once they received their high school diploma or GED and not continue on to higher education.⁸² In addition, Asian/Pacific Islander students were more likely to aspire to a graduate degree than White students (57.8% vs. 40.5%).

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

There has been growing attention in recent years to the prevalence of zero-tolerance policies and other forms of strict punitive disciplinary practices, and their link to elevated school expulsion rates and contact with the juvenile and criminal justice systems.⁸³ These school policies and practices have been known to push students out of school or encourage them to drop out by making schools feel less welcoming. We asked respondents in our survey about their disciplinary experiences at school (i.e., whether they had ever been referred to the principal's office, received detention, been suspended, or been expelled from school). Nearly half (48.1%) of all respondents in this survey said they had ever

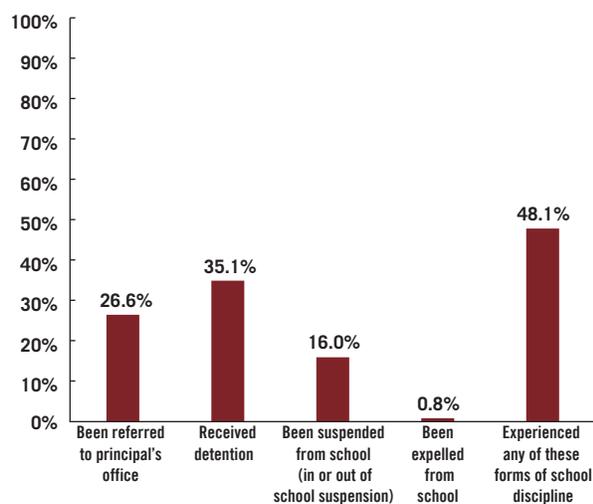
been disciplined at school. As shown in Figure 1.17, receiving detention was the most common type of discipline reported (35.1%).

Demographic Differences in School Discipline

National data indicates that discipline policies and practices have disproportionate effects on certain student groups, including students of color and students with disabilities.⁸⁴ However, there is less information about potential disparities for LGBTQ and gender nonconforming youth, although our prior research has reported on ways that these students may be at higher risk for disciplinary actions.⁸⁵ Therefore, we examined differences in school discipline based on student demographic characteristics. In line with previous literature on school discipline, we found significant differences in suspensions by race and ethnicity for students in this survey.⁸⁶ Black/African-American students were more likely to be suspended from school than White students (29.4% vs. 13.8%) and Asian/Pacific Islander students (29.4% vs. 13.3%). There were also significant differences by sex—male cisgender students were more likely to experience any form of discipline (59.1% vs. 38.4% of female students).⁸⁷

We also found that discipline policies appeared to disproportionately affect LGBTQ and gender nonconforming students. Almost two thirds (62.8%) of LGBTQ students experienced any form of discipline compared to less than half (45.8%) of non-LGBTQ students.⁸⁸ Similarly, 55.2% of gender nonconforming students experienced any form of discipline compared to 45.9% of gender conforming students.⁸⁹ Figure 1.18 indicates the extent to which LGBTQ and gender nonconforming students experienced various disciplinary actions at school. For example, LGBTQ students in our survey have been suspended from school at much higher rates than their non-LGBTQ peers (24.9% vs. 14.5%).⁹⁰ Whereas LGBTQ students are disciplined for a variety of reasons, previous research from GLSEN's *National School Climate Survey* and others suggests that LGBTQ students may be disciplined for being open about their identity or breaking rules that are not enforced for their non-LGBTQ peers.⁹¹ LGBTQ youth who are gender nonconforming may also be more likely to face school discipline due to school rules that

Figure 1.17 Percentage of Students that Have Experienced School Discipline



prohibit some types of nonconforming gender expression, such as gendered dress codes.⁹²

Peer Victimization and School Discipline

Although students' disciplinary experiences may be related to a number of factors, students who have been victimized may be more likely to have received disciplinary infractions either in retaliation to or as part of a particular incident of victimization.⁹³ Given our findings on LGBTQ students and previous research on the impact of discipline policies on students of color and students with disabilities, we explored whether discipline was associated with levels of bias-based peer victimization.⁹⁴ Overall, we found that students who experience higher levels of victimization based on their personal characteristics were also more likely to experience school discipline.⁹⁵ Over half (54.7%) of students who had been victimized at school based on personal characteristics experienced some form of discipline in school compared to 43.9% of students who had not experienced any such victimization. These findings reinforce the need for providing educators with the resources and tools needed to effectively identify and respond to bias-based incidents.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

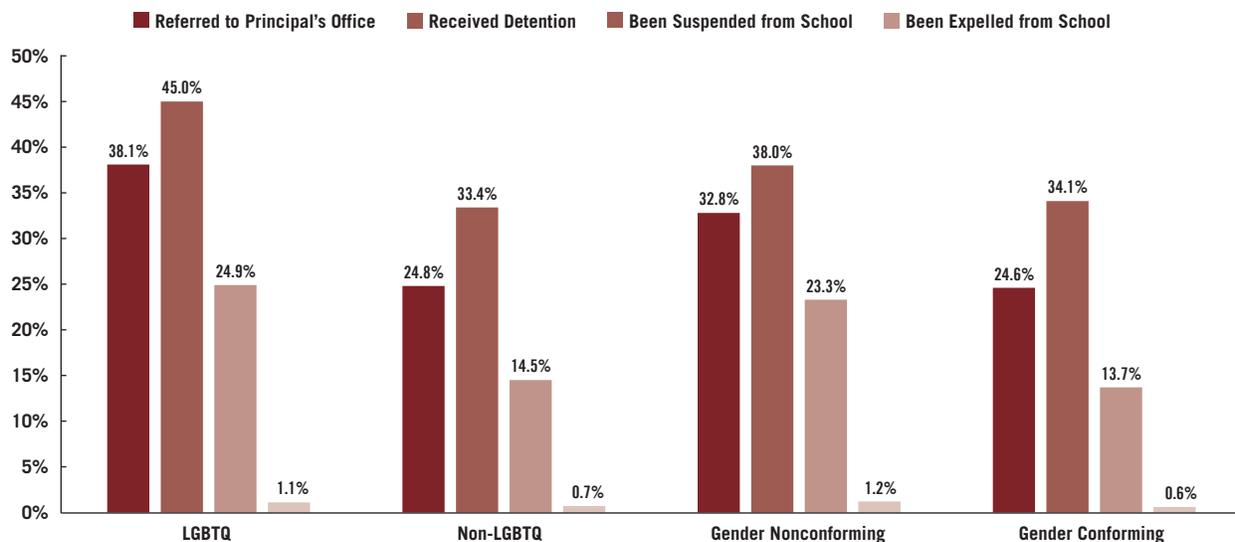
Extracurricular activities serve an important function in the student life experience. Participation in extracurricular activities

has been shown to have positive effects on students' physical health, self-esteem, school connectedness, and academic achievement.⁹⁶ Thus, we asked students about their involvement in a variety of extracurricular school activities. As shown in Table 1.4, the preponderance of students (83.3%) participated in at least one of these 17 types of extracurricular activities.

Overall, participation in academic clubs, music activities, such as band or choir, and sports were most commonly reported, with over a third of all students in our survey having participated in each of these activities (See Table 1.4). The least commonly reported extracurricular activities were cheer club, religious club, ethnic or cultural clubs, general social justice clubs, and JROTC, with around one in ten students participating in each of these activities.

There is very limited research about the socio-demographic characteristics of students who participate in specific extracurricular activities. Some research suggests that students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, female students, and sexual minority students may be less likely to participate in sports-related extracurricular activities.⁹⁷ Therefore, we examined potential differences in extracurricular participation based on these characteristics (specifically, socioeconomic status, sex, and LGBTQ status) among students in our survey.

Figure 1.18 Percentage of Students Disciplined by Discipline Type and LGBTQ and Gender Nonconforming Status



Extracurricular Participation by Socioeconomic Status

One potentially important factor that may impact student participation in extracurricular activities is the degree to which resources are available to students and their families. Some students might not have the financial means to participate in certain activities, or time spent on extracurricular participation might take away from other responsibilities students may have, such as a job or helping their family with childcare. Therefore, we explored potential differences in extracurricular participation based on student socioeconomic status,⁹⁸ and found that students with a higher socioeconomic status were more likely to have participated in at least one extracurricular activity.⁹⁹ Higher socioeconomic status was also associated with students participating in a greater number of

extracurricular activities.¹⁰⁰ Additionally, we found some differences associated with socioeconomic status when looking at participation in specific types of activities. Specifically, higher socioeconomic status was associated with greater participation of students in interscholastic sports, honor society, drama club, student government, service club, hobby club, and academic club.¹⁰¹ Participation in JROTC, on the other hand, was associated with lower student socioeconomic status.¹⁰² Some of these findings are perhaps unsurprising. Interscholastic sports, or competition between sports teams from different schools could require that students have someone available to drive them to and from events, or require more money for equipment and uniforms. Students with higher socioeconomic status (as measured by parents' highest level of education) were more likely to participate in honor society and academic clubs. Student involvement in academic clubs may be indicative of higher interest in post-secondary education. It may be that students from higher income families have greater capacity to afford college or university and these students may then be more oriented to activities that help with the college application process. JROTC, on the other hand, might be more popular among students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds who may see JROTC as an affordable option to gain access to job skill training courses, and financial aid and scholarship opportunities for postsecondary education. It is also worth noting that students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds may live in higher socioeconomic neighborhoods with better resourced schools, which may also account for the differences in participation based on socioeconomic status. For example, schools with greater financial resources may be able to provide the necessary equipment, materials, and transportation needed for participation in many of these types of activities. Further research should explore financial barriers to student participation in school-based activities.

Table 1.4 Student Participation in Extracurricular Activities

Extracurricular Activities	Percentage of Students Participating
Academic club (e.g., Art, Computer, Foreign Language, Debate)	40.4%
Band, orchestra, chorus, or choir	40.3%
Interscholastic sports	37.3%
Intramural sports	33.1%
Hobby clubs (e.g. photography, chess)	24.6%
National Honor Society (NHS) or other academic honor society	24.4%
School play or musical	21.9%
Service club (e.g., Key Club or Big Brother/Big Sister)	21.2%
School yearbook, newspaper, or literary magazine	17.5%
Gay Straight Alliance (GSAs)	16.1%
Student government	14.4%
Vocational club (e.g., DECA, SkillsUSA, VICA, FFA, FHA)	11.4%
Cheerleaders, Pep Club, Majorettes	10.2%
Religious club (e.g., FCA, JSU)	10.2%
Ethnic or cultural club (e.g., ASPIRA, Asian Cultural Society, African American Student Union)	8.7%
Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps (JROTC)	8.0%
Social justice clubs (besides a GSA), such as Amnesty International or a diversity club	7.2%
Participation in at Least One Extracurricular Activity	83.3%

Extracurricular Participation by Sex

In addition to examining differences by socioeconomic status, we also explored differences in extracurricular participation by sex.¹⁰³ It is possible that gender-related stereotypes or other forms of sexism might deter males or females from participating in certain

activities potentially deemed non-traditional, and potentially unacceptable, for their sex. Furthermore, given recent literature regarding females' greater engagement in secondary school generally,¹⁰⁴ we were interested in exploring if this sex difference would manifest in extracurricular activities as well. Overall, we found that cisgender female students were significantly more likely than their cisgender male counterparts to participate in extracurricular activities (86.9% vs. 80.6% had participated in at least one activity).¹⁰⁵ Cisgender females also participated in a greater average number of activities than their male peers (3.0% vs. 2.6%).¹⁰⁶ Specifically, cisgender female students were more likely to participate in music-related clubs (45.2% vs. 35.8%), academic clubs (45.4% vs. 36.1%), and honor society (28.8% vs. 21.6%) compared to their cisgender male peers.¹⁰⁷ Cisgender female students were also more likely to participate in service clubs (27.1% vs. 16.9%), social justice clubs (9.1% vs. 5.1%), and cheer clubs (16.8% vs. 3.7%) than their cisgender male peers.¹⁰⁸

There were two types of extracurricular participation that were more common among cisgender males than cisgender females. First, cisgender males participated in JROTC at greater rates than cisgender females (11.2% vs. 4.7%).¹⁰⁹ Second, cisgender males were more likely to participate in intramural sports than their cisgender female peers (38.9% vs. 27.2%). It is important to note, however, that although there were differences for intramural sports participation by sex, there were no differences for interscholastic sports participation.¹¹⁰ The data of equal participation by sex in interscholastic sports may provide potential evidence of compliance with Title IX of the federal Civil Rights Act.¹¹¹ In an effort to ensure gender equity and equal opportunity for girls, Title IX mandates equal opportunity for school athletic participation for males and females, including extracurricular sports. Sex differences for intramural sports could be because intramural sports are less common in schools, thus presenting fewer opportunities for diverse options that appeal to, and are available to, both males and females. And in fact, lower participation of females in intramural participation mirrors the gender participation differences found at the college/university level.¹¹² More research is needed to understand the different types of athletics available in schools as well as the potential barriers to participation.

Extracurricular Participation by LGBTQ Status

As previously discussed, we found that LGBTQ youth experience higher rates of victimization and felt less safe at school. It may be that students who do not feel safe in their school environment are unlikely to want to spend additional time after school in extracurricular activities. Yet, when examining potential differences in extracurricular activity participation between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students, we did not find differences in overall rates of participation. There were, however, significant differences in the types of extracurricular activities in which LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students participated. Heterosexual, cisgender students were more than twice as likely as LGBTQ students to participate in athletic-related activities such as intramural sports (35.8% vs. 15.9%) and interscholastic sports (40.2% vs. 19.2%).¹¹³ In addition, heterosexual, cisgender students were more than three times as likely to participate in JROTC as LGBTQ students (8.9% vs. 2.7%).¹¹⁴ In contrast, LGBTQ students were three times more likely to participate in GSAs than their heterosexual, cisgender peers (37.8% vs. 12.3%) and twice as likely to participate in other types of social justice clubs, such as Amnesty International or a diversity club (13.5% vs. 6.2%).¹¹⁵ Furthermore, LGBTQ students were also more likely to participate in arts-related activities, both music-related activities such as band, orchestra, chorus or choir (49.1% vs. 39.0%), and theater activities, such as the school play or musical (36.6% vs. 19.6%).¹¹⁶ It may be that certain activities serve as safe havens to those seeking a respite from the hostile environment they might be experiencing during the regular school day, and these activities may provide support or a sense of belonging lacking from the rest of their school experience, whereas other more traditional activities, such as sports and military, may be, or may be perceived to be, less welcoming to LGBTQ students.

Future research should explore the other factors that might lead different groups of students to gravitate to some activities and not others. Nevertheless, schools must take steps to ensure that all extracurricular activities are accessible to all students and provide welcoming and comfortable environments for any student that wants to participate.

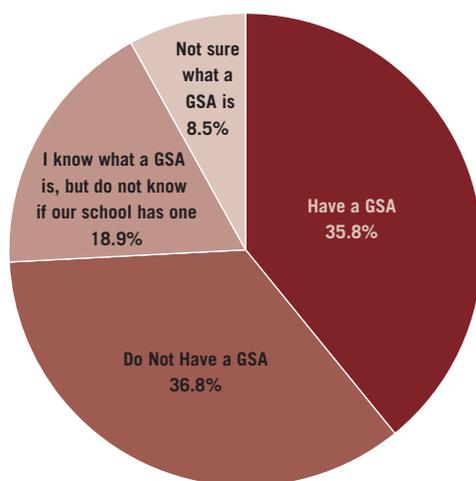
LGBT-Related School Supports and Resources

The availability of resources and supports in school can affect student experiences with and attitudes towards school bullying, harassment, and anti-LGBTQ bias. In our survey, we examined three such resources: Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) or similar student clubs that address LGBTQ issues, LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum, and school policies for addressing incidents of harassment and assault. Although these resources may more specifically address LGBTQ student issues, they may also help to promote a safer climate and more positive school experiences among all students by combating bias and fostering a welcoming environment in general. Thus, we assessed the availability of these resources and supports among students in our survey, and examined the relationships between these resources and perceptions of school climate and safety, personal experiences with victimization, and student attitudes towards LGBTQ people.

GAY-STRAIGHT ALLIANCES

Student clubs that address LGBTQ issues, commonly known as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) or sometimes as Queer Student Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances, are school-based extracurricular organizations open to all members of the student body regardless of

Figure 1.19 Prevalence of Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) in School



sexual orientation or gender identity. These clubs may provide a safe space for LGBTQ youth and their allies, but also may have a broader impact on school climate at large. Specifically, GSAs can educate students and staff on the types and consequences of discrimination and bias in schools. This awareness can help schools combat anti-LGBTQ and other forms of bias. Through their advocacy efforts, GSAs can also promote changes at the school level that can create less hostile environments, such as more inclusive policies. A growing body of research has demonstrated the positive impact that GSAs may have on students' well-being and educational outcomes.¹¹⁷ As student-led clubs, GSAs also provide potentially valuable leadership opportunities for students. In addition, as all student clubs must have a school staff advisor, GSAs can be one way that students identify visible allies to LGBTQ youth. As shown in Figure 1.19, over a third (35.8%) said that their school had a GSA or similar student club. These findings differ from our previous research on GSAs, which found that approximately half of LGBTQ students had access to a GSA.¹¹⁸ This difference is likely due to LGBTQ students being more aware of the existence of GSAs than the general population of students. Also, in our survey of LGBT students, the GSA question does not include the options "Don't know" or "Don't know what this is," as we presume that these options are not relevant for them. It is therefore possible that students in this general population survey have GSAs but are not aware of them.

GSA Presence by School Characteristics

The availability of GSAs may vary based on regional, community, and school characteristics. Therefore, we examined students' reports of the availability of GSAs by geographic region,¹¹⁹ locale, school type, and school level (see Figure 1.20):

- Students in the West were most likely to report having a GSA at school, followed closely by students in the Northeast, whereas students in the South were least likely to report having a GSA.¹²⁰
- Students from small towns/rural areas were least likely to report that their schools have GSAs¹²¹— with just over a quarter of students

in small towns/rural areas reporting having a GSA at school, compared to over half of those in urban and suburban schools.

- Students in religious schools were less likely to have access to a GSA than students in private non-religious schools or public schools.¹²²
- Students in middle schools were much less likely to report having a GSA presence than students in high schools.

Student Attitudes about LGBT People and GSA Presence

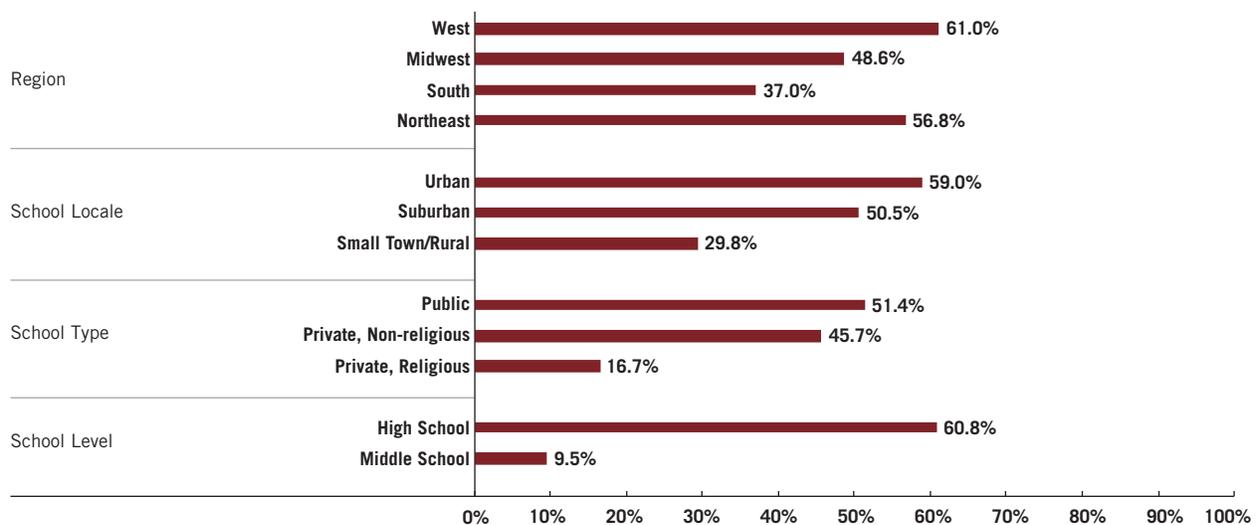
Supportive student clubs such as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) may also provide students with an opportunity to learn more about the LGBT population through school-wide programming that the GSA may implement, potentially resulting in greater acceptance and understanding of the LGBT population. We found that the presence of a GSA at school was associated with more positive attitudes towards LGBT people.¹²³ Students in schools with GSAs had more positive attitudes toward LGBT people than students in schools without a GSA.

School Climate, Safety, and GSA Presence

We examined the frequency of hearing biased remarks from teachers and students based on the presence of a GSA at school. Overall, students in schools with a GSA heard anti-LGBTQ remarks less often than students in schools without a GSA—both remarks from other students and from teachers in their schools.^{124,125}

We also explored whether there were differences in perceptions of bullying in general, perceptions of bias-based bullying, feelings of students' own safety, and experiences of peer victimization according to GSA presence. Having a GSA was not related to student perceptions about the prevalence of bullying in general,¹²⁶ and it was also not related to students' feelings of safety.^{127, 128} However, when we examined reports of victimization, we found that students who reported having a GSA at school were less likely to experience peer victimization based on race/ethnicity and appearance than students who reported not having a GSA at school.¹²⁹ Given that GSAs are generally designed to specifically address LGBTQ student issues, it is somewhat surprising that we saw a relationship between having a GSA and these types of bias-based victimization but not with LGBT-related victimization. However, this is likely due to the fact that LGBTQ students, and those victimized due to their LGBTQ status make up a small percentage of the entire sample, thus making it difficult to observe any differences by LGBTQ students within the entire sample. One way to address this issue is to examine whether the impact of GSA availability on peer victimization differs for LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students. Although GSAs may benefit the school climate overall and have a positive effect on the student body as a whole, GSAs may be particularly valuable for LGBTQ students who often face a more hostile school climate. GSAs

Figure 1.20 Percentage of Students Reporting a GSA Presence by School Characteristics



may provide a safe and affirming space within a school environment that LGBTQ students may otherwise experience as hostile. Furthermore, even if students choose not to participate in the GSA itself, the mere existence of a GSA at school may provide LGBTQ students with visible evidence of support from LGBTQ peers and allies. Although we found, as described above, that students in general felt safer in schools with GSAs, GSAs had an even greater positive impact on LGBTQ students' safety.¹³⁰ The difference between those who felt unsafe versus safe by whether or not there was a GSA in their school was greater for LGBTQ students than for non-LGBTQ students. LGBTQ students in schools with GSAs also experienced a greater reduction in peer victimization than non-LGBTQ students¹³¹—particularly for victimization based on sexual orientation and victimization based on appearance. Thus, while GSAs may help to create a safer and more welcoming climate for all students, regardless of sexual orientation or gender identity, the benefits may be even more pronounced, and therefore even more necessary, for LGBTQ students.

LGBT-INCLUSIVE CURRICULUM

A curriculum that is inclusive of diverse groups—including culture, race, ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation—can help to instill a belief in the intrinsic worth of all individuals and in the value of a diverse society.¹³² Specifically, including LGBT people and issues in the

curriculum may promote acceptance and help to counter homophobia and transphobia. In addition, the inclusion of LGBT topics in the school curriculum may help LGBTQ students feel like they are valued members of the school community.¹³³ Therefore, we asked students in our survey whether they were taught about LGBT people, history, or events in any of their classes. As shown in Figure 1.21, one in five (20.8%) students indicated that LGBT-related topics had been taught at their school, whereas over two thirds (68.6%) of students said that they had not.¹³⁴

LGBT-inclusive Curriculum by School Characteristics

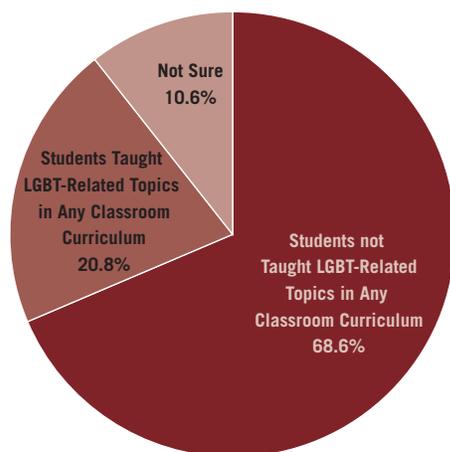
To better understand the types of schools that may or may not be adopting LGBT-inclusive curriculum, we considered differences in the prevalence of LGBT-inclusive curriculum by region, school locale, school type, and school level. Although we found no difference in the prevalence of LGBT inclusive curriculum by locale (e.g., urban, suburban, or rural/small town school) or school type (public, private, religious),¹³⁵ we did find differences by region¹³⁶ and school level (see Figure 1.22).¹³⁷

- **School level.** Students in high school were more likely to have access to an LGBT-inclusive curriculum than students in middle school.
- **Region.** Students in the West were most likely to have access to an LGBT inclusive curriculum, followed closely by students in the Northeast. The greater access to inclusive curriculum in the West might be partially due to the recent Fair, Accurate, Inclusive, and Respectful Education Act enacted in California.¹³⁸ This legislation mandates the inclusion of the political, economic, and social contributions of LGBT people, among other traditionally marginalized groups, into textbooks and curricula in California public schools.

School Climate and Inclusive Curriculum

In our previous research on LGBTQ students, we found that students in schools with an LGBT-inclusive curriculum experienced less hostile educational environments.¹³⁹ Thus, we were interested in exploring if this was similar in the general population of students. We examined differences in biased remarks,¹⁴⁰ perceptions

Figure 1.21 Prevalence of LGBT Inclusive Curriculum in School
(Percentage of Students Taught LGBT-Related Topics)



of prevalence of anti-LGBTQ victimization at school (i.e., harassment or assault based on sexual orientation or gender expression),¹⁴¹ and personal experiences of victimization,¹⁴² and found no differences between students who had an inclusive curriculum and those who did not. Although we did not find a relationship between inclusive curriculum and experiences of victimization for students in general, in this survey, we did find that for LGBTQ students specifically, being taught about LGBT topics was related to lower levels of LGBT-related victimization.¹⁴³

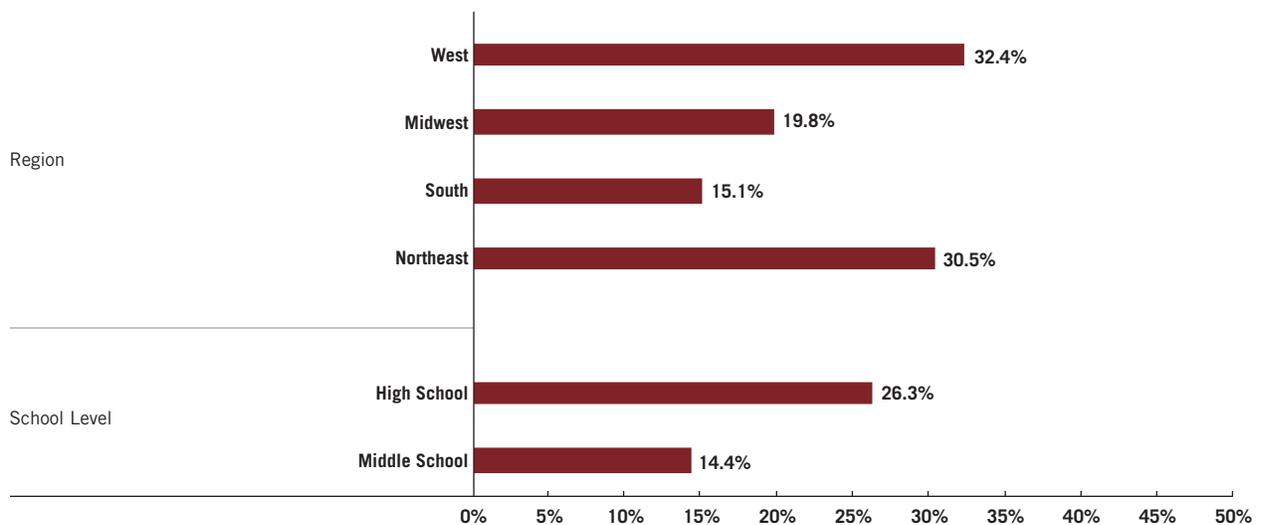
Furthermore, we examined whether LGBT-inclusive curriculum was associated with student attitudes towards LGBT people. Somewhat surprisingly, being taught about LGBT people, history, and events was not associated with more positive attitudes towards LGBT people.¹⁴⁴ Prior research has consistently demonstrated the benefits of positive inclusion of LGBT topics in the curriculum for LGBTQ students specifically,¹⁴⁵ but given that we do not know the depth or the content of the curriculum provided to students in this survey, it is possible that the inclusion was not enough to change negative attitudes of the general student population. Furthermore, in this survey, we only had one measure of student attitudes (how much students agreed that they had a problem with LGBT people) and the overwhelming majority of students indicated positive attitudes so that might make it difficult to detect any possible effects of LGBT-inclusive

curriculum (See Insight on Student Attitudes Towards LGBT People). Future research with a wider array of attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors might provide a richer examination on the potential benefits of inclusive curriculum. Finally, in this survey, we did not ask whether the LGBT-related content was positive or negative—some LGBT content may be derogatory and stigmatizing in nature,¹⁴⁶ and thus, may affect attitudes and behavior toward LGBT people negatively or not at all. Nonetheless, further research needs to be done around the content, implementation, and effects of LGBT-inclusive curriculum in our secondary schools.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF SEXUALITY/SEX EDUCATION

Sexuality/sex education¹⁴⁷ is an important source of information for our nation's youth about a variety of critical topics – including puberty, anatomy, contraception and pregnancy, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections, dating and marriage, gender roles, and sexual violence. Classroom curricula vary in the breadth with which they cover these topics, if these topics are even addressed at all. Not all states, for example, mandate the teaching of sex education in schools, and when it is mandated, only a subset of states specify that the information provided be appropriate for a diverse range of students (e.g., different ages, races/ethnicities, or sexual orientations).¹⁴⁸

Figure 1.22 Percentage of Students Reporting Being Taught LGBT-Related Topics in Any Classroom Curriculum



Although there are some data regarding what students learn in their sex/sexuality education class, there is very little information about whether or not students perceive these classes or programs to be beneficial to them.¹⁴⁹ To better understand the extent to which sex education is meeting the needs of our nation's students, we asked students in our survey about the sexuality/sex education that they received at school. As shown in Figure 1.23, the majority of students (83.5%) reported that they had been taught sex education at school. Nevertheless, it is concerning that more than one in ten students were not receiving sexuality/sex education in school, given that sex education is associated with better health outcomes such as greater use of contraception and a reduction of other risk behaviors.¹⁵⁰

Sex education curriculum in schools, even when delivered, may not always be beneficial or useful to all young people. For example, abstinence is still commonly taught in schools across our nation¹⁵¹ despite the fact that it has been found to have no impact on positive sexual health outcomes, and may result in potential future harm for young people.¹⁵² If students do not find their education relevant to their daily experiences or needs, they may not be engaged in the material and may not see how it applies to their own lives and health. Furthermore, students' perceptions of usefulness might be an indication of the extent to which sex education addresses, or fails to adequately address the needs of all types of

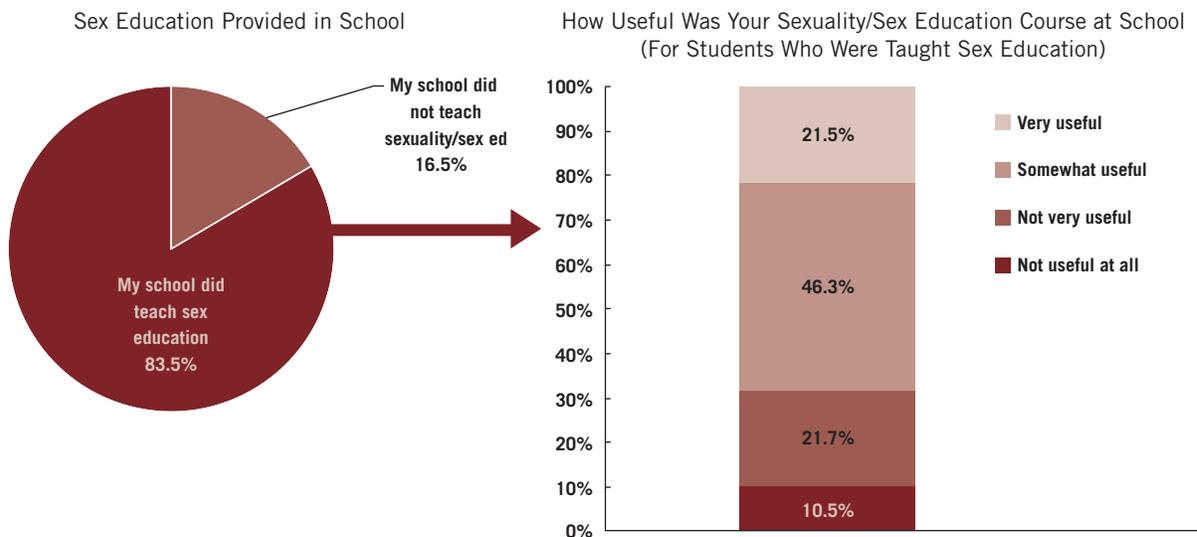
students. Therefore, we asked students who reported receiving sex education how useful it was to them. We then examined these reports of usefulness by school and student characteristics.

When we asked students who had received sex education at school if they found that education useful, two thirds (67.9%) reported that their sex education was useful (see Figure 1.23). Considering both students who had not received sex education and those who had, but found it not useful, 43.4% of adolescents may not be receiving critically important, life-enhancing information. It is important to note that the nature of what was taught and why the content was or was not seen as useful was beyond the scope of this report and deserves further attention in future research.

School Characteristics and Sex Education

Given that schools vary in the type of sex education curriculum they teach (or if they teach any at all), we examined potential differences in the delivery and perceived quality of sex education based on the schools that students attended. Specifically, we examined differences by school level, school type, school locale, and region. We found that high school students were more likely to have received sex education in school compared to students in middle school or junior high, although there were no significant differences in whether students from these schools found their sex education class to be useful.¹⁵³

Figure 1.23 Sex Education Provided by School and Perceived Usefulness



We also examined differences by school type and found that students attending public schools were more likely to have received sex education compared to students in private, non-religious schools.¹⁵⁴ There were no significant differences in receiving sex education between religious schools and public schools, or between religious schools and private, non-religious schools. However, there were differences in perceived usefulness—students attending religious schools found their sex education classes to be less useful compared to students in other schools.¹⁵⁵ This may be because of the religious doctrine of the school and restrictions on discussing issues of sexual behavior beyond abstinence until marriage, or perhaps due to actual or perceived resistance from school administration, parents, or the community. To date, there has been little research done examining differences in sex education by school type, and more research is needed.¹⁵⁶

We examined potential differences in sex education by school location, specifically by locale and region. Students in the Northeast and Midwest were more likely to have received sex education compared to students in the West.¹⁵⁷ There were no regional differences in perceived usefulness of sex education received.¹⁵⁸

Regarding locale differences, there were significant differences in the receipt of sex education between students in urban, suburban, or small town/ rural schools.¹⁵⁹ Students in urban schools were less likely to report having received sex education compared to students in suburban or small town/rural schools. However, there were no significant differences in perceived usefulness of sex education by school locale.¹⁶⁰ Future research should continue to explore school-level differences with respect to sex education curricular content and implementation.

Demographic Differences in Perceived Usefulness of Sex Education

We examined potential differences in usefulness of sex education based on students' sex and LGBTQ status. With respect to sex, there were no differences between cisgender males and cisgender females in their reports of usefulness.¹⁶¹

Stemming from disproportionate violence, discrimination, and stigmatization, LGBTQ youth face increased rates of sexual risk behaviors.¹⁶² Yet, there is evidence that much of the sexuality education in U.S. schools is not inclusive of LGBTQ people and issues,¹⁶³ and, that even when LGBTQ issues are acknowledged, they may be presented in ways that stigmatize or marginalize LGBTQ people.¹⁶⁴ In our most recent biennial survey of LGBTQ students, we found that less than 5.0% of U.S. LGBTQ middle and high school students learned about positive representation of LGBT issues in health class.¹⁶⁵ Given the overall lack of inclusion of LGBTQ people in school curricula, we would expect to see differences in perceived usefulness of sex education classes between LGBTQ students and their heterosexual, cisgender peers. In fact, we found that among students who did receive sex education at school, LGBTQ students were less likely to find this education useful:¹⁶⁶ nearly half (46.5%) of LGBTQ students reported that their sex education classes were not useful compared to less than a third (29.9%) of non-LGBTQ students.

There are many ways that school health curriculum may not be providing LGBTQ students with the sex education they need. The common goals of comprehensive sex education, such as reducing teen pregnancy and knowledge about birth control methods, may fail to be LGBTQ inclusive, and thus, not able to account for the needs of LGBTQ youth. If LGBTQ issues are presented in sex education, they may be done so in harmful and stigmatizing ways—either including direct or implicit statements that being LGBTQ is undesirable or unacceptable, or only mentioning LGBTQ people when discussing riskier sexual behaviors (e.g., HIV/AIDS and STIs).¹⁶⁷ Some states, in fact, have laws that expressly forbid health education from addressing gay or bisexual topics in a positive light, if at all.¹⁶⁸ And some laws even require that teachers actively portray LGB issues and people in a negative or inaccurate way. Furthermore, even if the curriculum is inclusive of sexual orientation or LGBQ people, it is may not necessarily be inclusive of transgender people and issues.¹⁶⁹ In order to ensure that all our youth are provided with the most accurate and relevant

health information, comprehensive sex education that is inclusive and accessible to all students should be provided throughout our nation's schools.

SCHOOL POLICIES FOR ADDRESSING BULLYING, HARASSMENT, AND ASSAULT

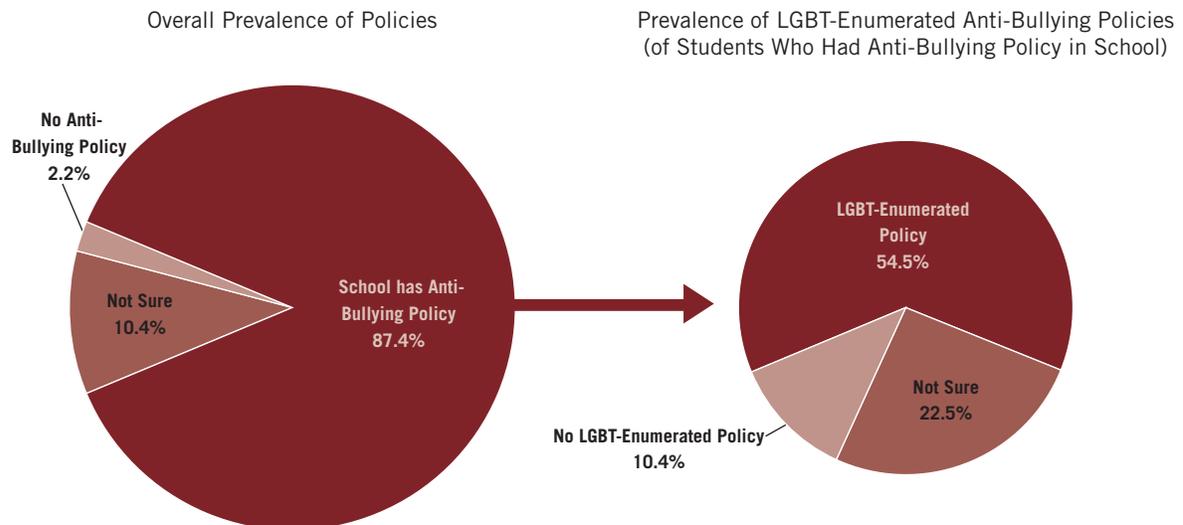
School policies that address in-school bullying, harassment, and assault are powerful tools for creating school environments where students feel safe. Anti-bullying policies outline a school's stance concerning abusive behavior on school grounds and specify what measures school officials will take against those who harass other students. Over the last decade, more and more school districts across the nation have adopted anti-bullying policies in an effort to curtail bullying.¹⁷⁰ In order to understand the potential benefits of these policies for school climate, students were asked whether their school had a policy about in-school bullying, harassment, or assault. As shown in Figure 1.24, most students (87.4%) noted that their school did, in fact, have such a policy.

Although anti-bullying policies, in general, are a step toward protecting students from verbal and physical harassment, anti-bullying governance and policies that provide comprehensive protections for students—those that specifically prohibit bullying based upon personal characteristics such as race/ethnicity, gender,

and sexual orientation (i.e., enumeration)—may be more effective in protecting students than those without such provisions.¹⁷¹ These types of policies may play an especially important role in students' experiences by providing students with greater protection against victimization because they make clear the various forms of bullying, harassment, and assault that will not be tolerated.

We asked students who reported that their school had an anti-bullying policy whether the policy explicitly included sexual orientation and gender identity or expression. Although we asked explicitly about LGBT-enumerated policies, our previous research has shown that policies that enumerate based on LGBT status also enumerate on other personal characteristics such as race, gender, and disability.¹⁷² As shown in Figure 1.24, the majority of students (54.5%) reported that their school's policy was LGBT-enumerated; that is, it enumerated both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression as protected categories. This percentage of enumerated policies is significantly higher than what our previous research analyzing school district anti-bullying policies would have suggested.¹⁷³ It may be that students are not the most accurate reporters of school policies and/or that there has been a significant increase in the number of districts with LGBT-enumerated policies since we collected district policies for our previous research.

Figure 1.24 Prevalence of School Bullying, Harassment, and Assault Policies



School Climate and Safety by Policy

Although we specifically asked only about LGBT enumeration, prior research has demonstrated that schools that enumerate sexual orientation and gender identity/expression rarely do so without also enumerating other protected categories, such as race/ethnicity and sex.¹⁷⁴ We found that attending a school where there is an LGBT-enumerated policy was associated with a more favorable school climate for all students. Students in schools with these policies:

- Heard homophobic and racist remarks less often from other students than students in schools without any policy (see Figure 1.25);¹⁷⁵

- Were less likely to feel unsafe in school overall;¹⁷⁶
- Were less likely to feel unsafe in school due to their sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, disability, and appearance (see Figure 1.26);¹⁷⁷ and
- Were less likely to perceive bullying, name-calling, or harassment as a problem at their school compared to students in schools with a non-enumerated policy, students in schools with no policy, and students who were unsure about their school's policy.¹⁷⁸

Figure 1.25 Prevalence of School Bullying, Harassment, and Assault Policies and Frequency of Hearing Ant-LGBT Remarks from Other Students

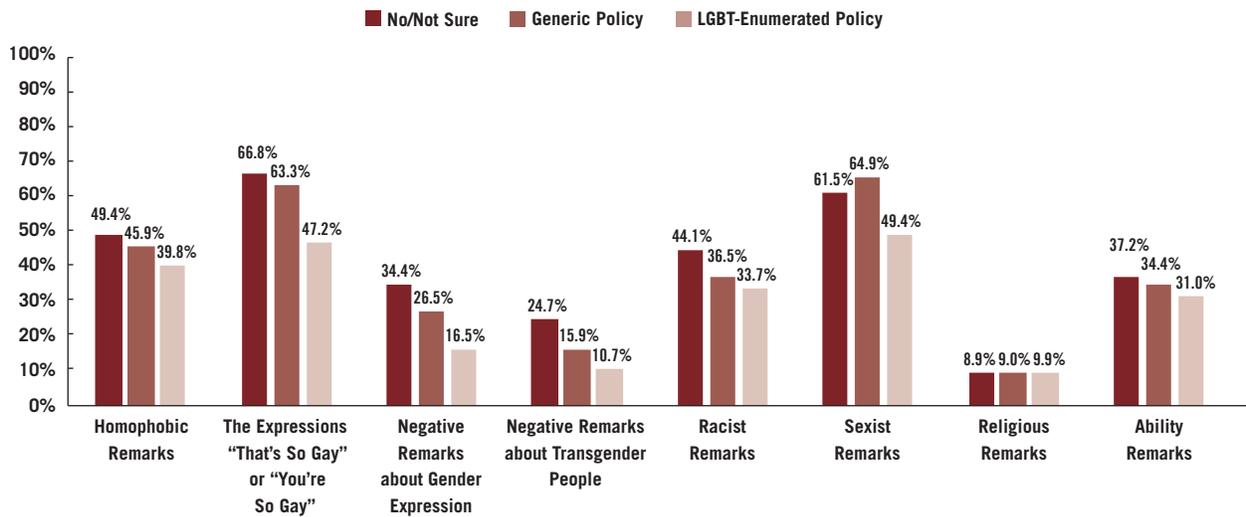
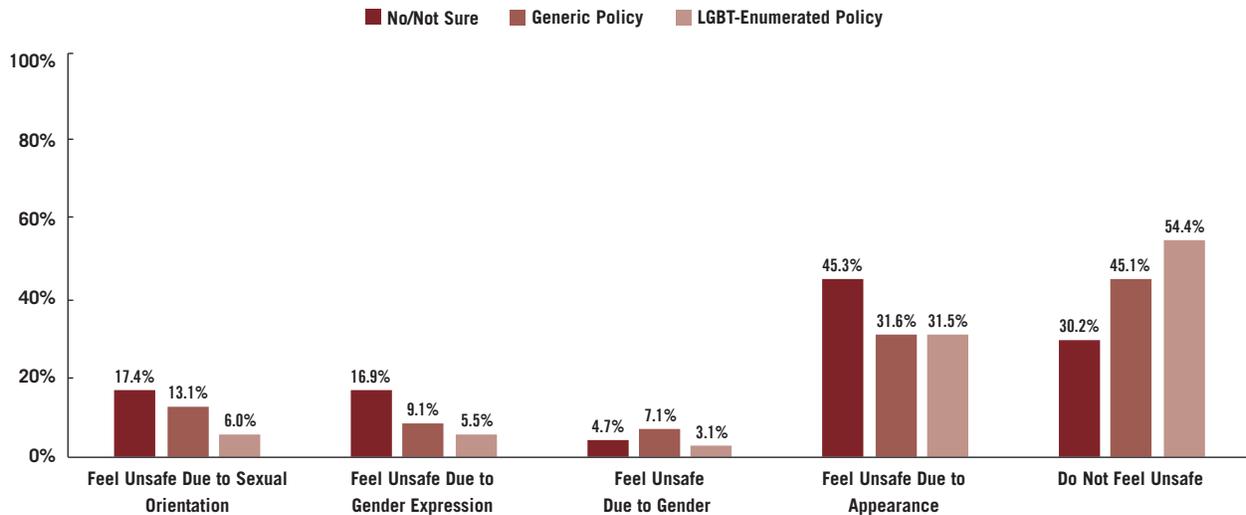


Figure 1.26 Prevalence of School Bullying, Harassment, and Assault Policies and Feeling Unsafe (Percentage of Students Noting Feeling Unsafe)



Given the relationship between policy type and hearing biased remarks, as well as perceptions of safety and bullying, we might also expect to find differences in levels of victimization based on policy type. We found that students in schools with enumerated policies reported that they were more likely to experience victimization based on race, disability, and religion than students in schools with generic policies. However, we found no association between policy type and victimization based on sexual orientation, gender, or gender expression.¹⁷⁹ While surprising, this finding could indicate that simply having policies, enumerated or otherwise, may do little to combat sexual orientation and gender-related harassment and that better implementation and enforcement of such policies is required.

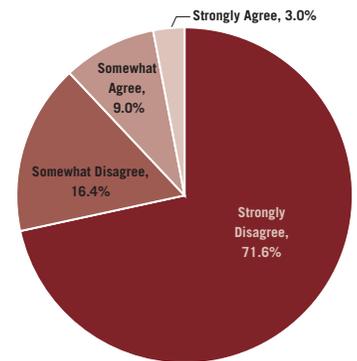
As anti-bullying policies are intended to curtail bullying and harassment in schools, we assessed whether the presence and type of anti-bullying policy was related to teachers' frequency of intervention when they observe incidences of biased remarks. We found no differences in students' reports of teachers' intervention in biased remarks based on policy type.¹⁸⁰

Our findings on school resources demonstrate how enumerated anti-bullying/harassment policies, inclusive curriculum, and GSAs can positively affect students' school experiences. In addition, we found resources such as GSAs and inclusive curriculum were particularly beneficial for LGBTQ students, offering them an improved sense of safety and reducing their odds of being victimized by their peers. Yet, despite their overall benefits, particularly for LGBTQ students, only 35.8% of students reported having a GSA at school, 20.8% reported having access to an LGBT-inclusive curriculum, and only about half of students who reported attending a school with an anti-bullying policy noted that it offered protections related to sexual orientation and gender identity/expression. In addition, students from certain types of schools, such as middle schools or religious-affiliated private schools; or from certain locales, such as small towns or rural areas; were less likely than other students to report having these resources at school. These trends highlight the importance of advocating for the inclusion of these resources in schools to ensure safe and positive learning spaces for all students.

Insight on Student Attitudes towards LGBT People

Our findings on the high prevalence of anti-LGBT remarks and victimization facing students at school, and the low levels of educator intervention when these types of remarks are heard, may be indicative of anti-LGBT bias in many of our nation's schools. Nevertheless, there is evidence that some students are stepping in and speaking out when anti-LGBT remarks are made by their classmates. School climate is shaped not only by those direct incidents of victimization and intervention, but also by attitudes of the student body. To better understand student attitudes towards LGBT people, we asked students the extent to which they agreed with the following statement, "I have a problem with people who are gay, lesbian, bisexual, or transgender." As shown in the accompanying figure, the preponderance (88.0%) of students disagreed with this statement, indicating that the majority of students in our sample did not feel negatively towards LGBT people.

Percentage of Students Who Agree with the Following Statement: "I have a problem with people who are LGBT"



Nevertheless, certain groups of students may be more or less likely to have positive attitudes towards LGBT people. We examined potential differences in student attitudes towards LGBT people by racial group (White, Black/African-American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic, Multiracial/Other Race), sex, and age. Asian/Pacific Islander and Hispanic students had less negative attitudes towards LGBT people compared to their White peers.¹⁸¹ Additionally, cisgender females reported less negative attitudes than their male peers.¹⁸² We did not find any age differences in student attitudes.¹⁸³ There were no differences in student attitudes based on locale (urban, suburban, rural/small town) or region of the country.

Prior research has demonstrated that knowing someone who is LGBT might help to engender more positive attitudes,¹⁸⁴ and thus, we examined differences in student attitudes towards LGBT people based on whether or not they knew someone who identifies as LGBT (e.g., friend, classmate, acquaintance, family member). Overall, the vast majority (82.1%) of students reported knowing someone who was LGBT (see Table). Students were far more likely to report knowing someone who was lesbian, gay, or bisexual than they were to report knowing a transgender person,¹⁸⁵ which is not surprising given it is estimated that there are many more LGB people than transgender people in the U.S.¹⁸⁶ Almost three quarters (72.6%) of students reported knowing an LGBT student at their school and just over a fifth of students (22.5%) reported having LGBT family members, including 2.2% with LGBT parents. We found that students who knew someone who was LGBT did hold less negative attitudes towards LGBT people than students who did not know any LGBT people.¹⁸⁷

LGBT-supportive resources in schools might help to counter homophobic and transphobic attitudes. Therefore, as detailed in the previous section on school resources, we explored the extent to which supportive student clubs (e.g., Gay-Straight Alliances or GSAs) and LGBT-inclusive curriculum were related to more LGBT-positive attitudes. In fact, we found that students in schools with GSAs had more positive attitudes toward LGBT people than students in schools without a GSA.¹⁸⁸ However, we did not see this same relationship with LGBT-inclusive curriculum; being taught about LGBT people, history, and events was not associated with more positive attitudes towards LGBT people in this survey.¹⁸⁹ We only had one measure of student attitudes in this survey, and the vast majority of students held positive attitudes. We also did not have any information about the content or extent of LGBT-curricular inclusion. Therefore, it could be that positive representations of LGBT people and topics in the curriculum do affect general population of students' perspectives and feelings towards LGBT issues, but that we were not able to assess it in this current survey.

Students' Familiarity with LGBT People (Percentage of Students Knowing LGBT People)

	LGBT	LGB	Transgender
Family Members			
Any family member	22.5%	22.3%	2.0%
Parent	2.2%	2.1%	0.2%
Brother or sister	5.6%	5.5%	0.4%
Another family member	17.3%	17.2%	1.5%
Friends and Classmates			
Any student at school	72.6%	71.5%	15.9%
Close friend at school	32.1%	31.6%	3.5%
Another student at school	60.2%	58.1%	13.5%
Close friend not at school	26.0%	23.7%	5.9%
Friend or acquaintance (not at school)	18.8%	18.2%	3.5%
Another Person Not Mentioned			
	19.2%	16.0%	6.0%
Know Any LGBT Person	82.1%	82.1%	28.0%

Comparisons in Students Reports on School Climate between 2005 and 2015

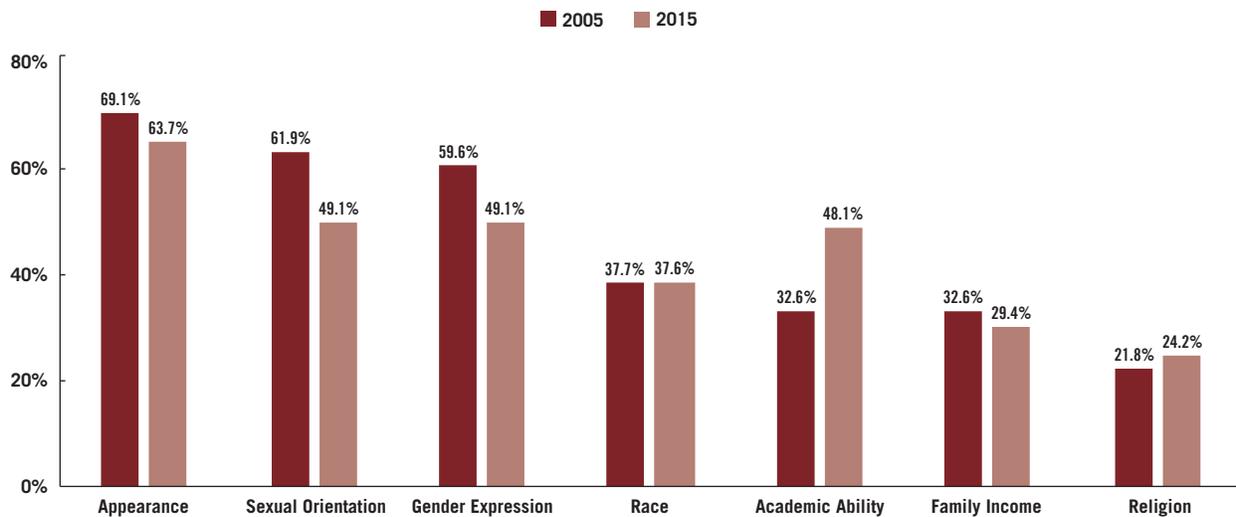
GLSEN originally conducted this study in 2005 to gain a greater understanding of the general perceptions and experiences of students and teachers in the United States. Over the past 10 years, there has been increased attention to bullying and harassment in schools—numerous prevention programs have emerged and proliferated,¹⁹⁰ and more and more states have passed legislation regarding anti-bullying in schools, such that now all have some form of law (see: www.glsen.org/policy). Thus, it is important to examine whether (and how) school climate has changed in the past 10 years. In this section, we examine differences between the student samples in 2005 and 2015 on their general perceptions of school safety, prevalence of biased remarks, and students' own experiences of victimization at school, as well as the availability of LGBT-related supports in school.

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL SAFETY

With regard to students' perceptions of how serious a problem bullying, name-calling, and harassment was at their school, there were no differences between 2005 and 2015. Regarding student perceptions of how often students were bullied, called names, or harassed at school

because of personal characteristics, students in 2015 reported that other students were bullied less often regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, and appearance (see Figure 1.27).¹⁹¹ The frequency with which students believed others were bullied at school because of their academic ability, however, was higher. There were no differences between the two years with regard to other students being bullied because of race/ethnicity or religion. In both years, the highest frequencies were reported regarding bullying based on appearance, sexual orientation, and gender expression (see also Figure 1.27). For example, 69.1% of students in 2005 reported that their peers had been bullied or harassed at least sometimes because of their appearance compared to 63.1% of students in 2015. When asked why students were bullied, called names, or harassed the most at school, students in both 2005 and 2015 more often reported that it was because of appearance (42.4% in 2005 vs. 36.2% in 2015) followed by sexual orientation (22.4% in 2005 vs. 19.2% in 2015).¹⁹² Yet, the percentages of students reporting that others are bullied most often for either characteristics were lower in 2015 than in 2005. There were, however, increases between 2005 and 2015 in the percentages of students who reported students were most often bullied because of their race/ethnicity (7.5% in 2005 vs. 10.1% in 2015), their ability at school (4.1% vs. 10.1%), and their religion (1.2% vs. 2.2%).

Figure 1.27 Frequency of Other Students Being Victimized at School Based on Personal Characteristics: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting "Sometimes," "Often," or "Very Often")



Given our previous research from the GLSEN *National School Climate Survey*¹⁹³ showing that LGBTQ students often have worse experiences in school with regard to bullying, name calling, and harassment than their peers, we examined whether there were differences across years by LGBTQ status. In other words, although we did not find a difference across years among students in general in their perceptions of the seriousness of the problem, we examined whether that still held true for LGBTQ students. We found that, in both 2005 and 2015, LGBTQ students reported that bullying was a more serious problem than non-LGBTQ students, but there was no change across years in the level of seriousness by LGBTQ status, meaning that, similar to their peers, LGBTQ students did not change in their perceptions of how serious they believed bullying to be at their school.¹⁹⁴

HEARING BIASED REMARKS AT SCHOOL

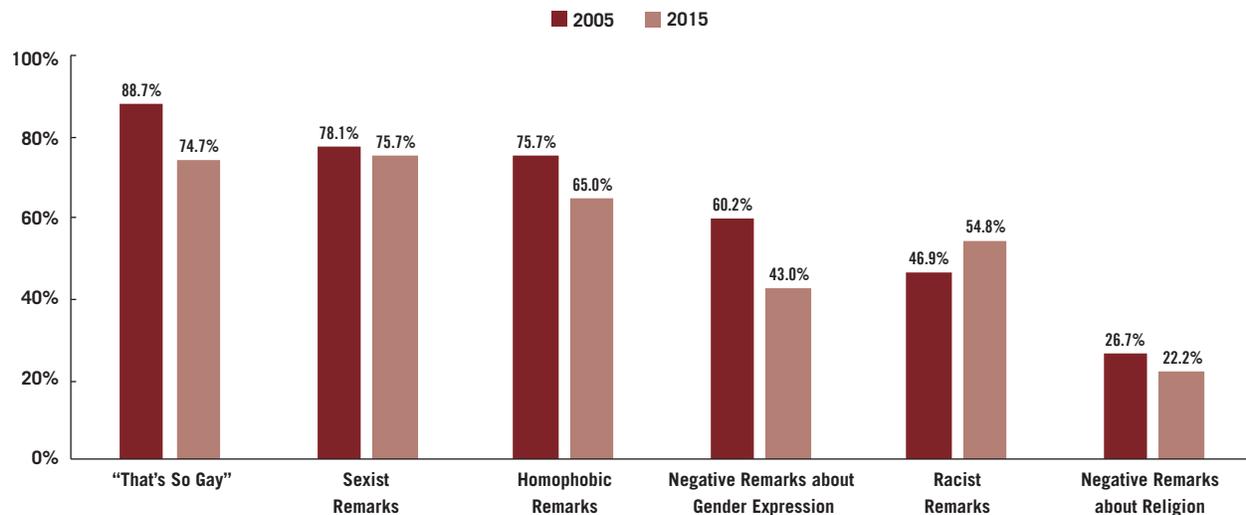
There were significant differences between years with regard to how often students heard biased remarks at school, with the exception of sexist remarks. As shown in Figure 1.28, students reported lower incidence of all other remarks with the exception of racist remarks which were more commonly heard in 2015.¹⁹⁵ In 2015, as in 2005, the frequency of students hearing biased language from staff was very low and there were no significant differences between the years.

Although students in both years reported that the majority of teachers intervened when biased language was used in school, students in 2015 reported a slightly lower frequency of intervention regarding sexist remarks and homophobic remarks (see Figure 1.29).¹⁹⁶ There was no difference in frequency of reported intervention between the years regarding racist remarks. With regard to other students intervening when biased remarks were made, the only difference between years was regarding homophobic remarks; students in 2015 were more likely to report that other students intervened when homophobic remarks were made (see also Figure 1.29).¹⁹⁷ Although students in both 2005 and 2015 reported a very low incidence of hearing biased remarks from teachers, we found that there were small but statistically significant differences with the frequencies of hearing all types of biased remarks from teachers (see Figure 1.30).¹⁹⁸

PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF SAFETY AND VICTIMIZATION

Although we found no difference between students in 2005 and in 2015 on how serious the problem of bullying was at their schools, we found a small increase in how safe students felt, in general, at their school. In 2015, 93.6% of students reported that they felt “somewhat safe” or “very safe” at school compared to 91.7% in 2005.¹⁹⁹ When we examined whether there

Figure 1.28 Frequency of Hearing Biased Language at School: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting “Sometimes,” “Often,” or “Very Often”)



were differences across the two years by LGBTQ status, we found that, in both 2005 and 2015, LGBTQ students reported that they felt less safe in school than non-LGBTQ students. However, both LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students in 2015 reported greater feelings of safety and there was no difference in the change across years by LGBTQ status; i.e., LGBTQ students did not increase at a higher or lower rate than non-LGBTQ students.²⁰⁰

Among the students who felt unsafe because of a personal characteristic, there was a substantial increase in the percentage of students who said they felt unsafe because of their personal appearance—from 22.5% in 2005, to 33.3% in 2015. There were also smaller, but still statistically significant, increases in the percentage of students who said they felt unsafe because of their religion (4.5% in 2005 vs. 7.0% in 2015) and gender (2.3% in 2005 vs. 4.6% in 2015).²⁰¹

Although students between the two years did not differ in their general perceptions regarding school safety, and reported higher feelings of safety at school, it is notable that students in 2015 were much more likely to miss school in the prior month because of feeling unsafe than those in 2005. Only 4.5% in 2005 missed at least one day of school versus 19.2% in 2015.²⁰² Additionally, the percentage of LGBTQ students who had missed school had increased at a higher

rate than for non-LGBTQ students—from 12.6% in 2005 to 36.5% in 2015 for LGBTQ students, compared to 5.1% in 2005 to 14.8% in 2015 for non-LGBTQ students.²⁰³

There were no significant differences between 2005 and 2015 on students' own experiences with harassment and assault based on personal characteristics.²⁰⁴ With regard to other victimization not necessarily related to a student's personal characteristics (e.g., sexual harassment, mean rumors/lies, property damage), there were no significant differences between 2005 and 2015.²⁰⁵ When we examined whether there were differences across the two years by LGBTQ status, we found significant differences for sexual harassment and mean rumors/lies. Regarding sexual harassment, there were no differences between 2005 and 2015 for non-LGBTQ students, whereas there were differences for LGBTQ students—23.3% reported experiencing sexual harassment sometimes, often, or very often in 2005 compared to 27.2% in 2015. Regarding mean rumors/lies, there was a decrease across years among LGBTQ students (51.1% in 2005 vs. 44.8% in 2015) and an increase among non-LGBTQ students (25.8% in 2005 vs. 30.6% in 2015).²⁰⁶ In terms of frequency of reporting incidents of victimization to school staff, we found no differences between years.

Figure 1.29 Frequency of Intervention Re: Biased Remarks: 2005 and 2015
(Percentage Reporting “Sometimes,” “Often,” or “Very Often”)

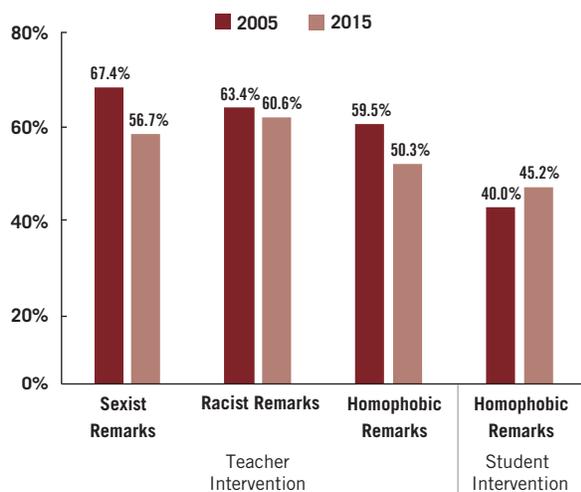
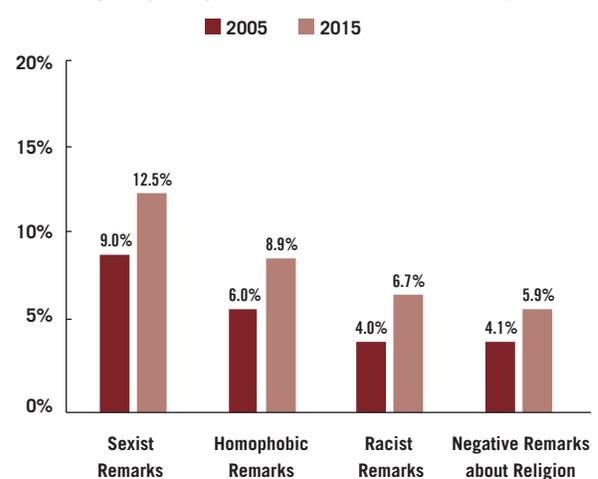


Figure 1.30 Frequency of Hearing Biased Language From Teachers: 2005 and 2015
(Percentage Reporting “Sometimes,” “Often,” or “Very Often”)



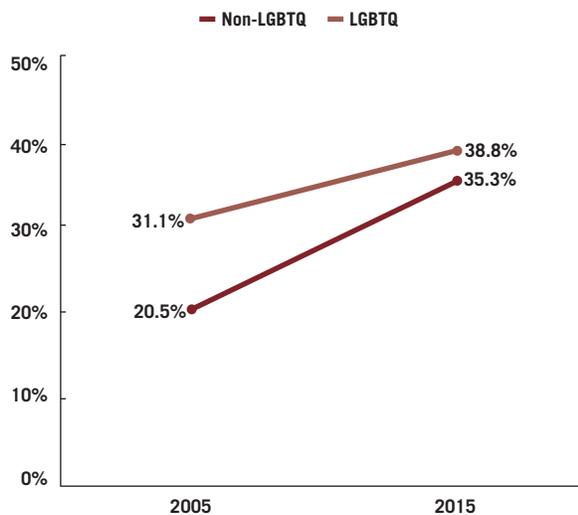
SCHOOL RESOURCES

Given GLSEN's work over the past 25 years to increase the availability of school resources and supports in order to improve the school experiences for LGBTQ students, we asked students in both 2005 and 2015 about the availability of student clubs, such as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) and school anti-bullying policies that enumerate protections based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression, among other characteristics.

GSAs

There has been a significant increase in the percentage of students who reported having a GSA in their school—from 21.2% in 2005 to 35.8% in 2015.²⁰⁷ Although we would not necessarily expect the likelihood of a GSA in a school to be different between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students, it is possible that LGBTQ students would be more aware of these clubs. When we look at the differences between years and between LGBTQ vs. non-LGBTQ students, we found LGBTQ students in both years were more likely to report having GSAs. However, the gap between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students greatly decreased; i.e., the increase in reports of GSAs from 2005 to 2015 was greater for non-LGBTQ students (see Figure 1.31).²⁰⁸ In addition to the likelihood that simply more schools have

Figure 1.31 Percentage of Students Reporting Having a GSA at School by LGBTQ Status: 2005 and 2015

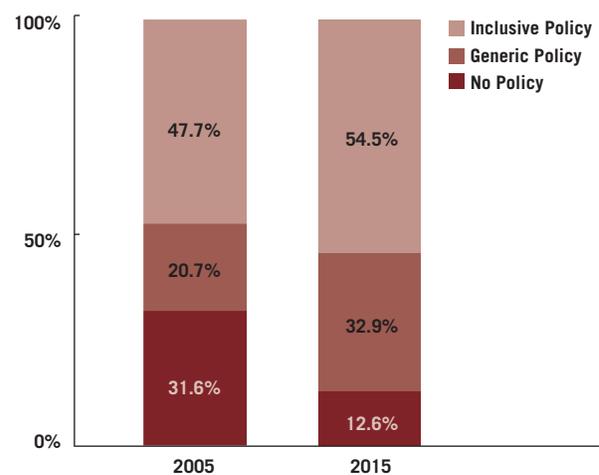


GSAs, it may be that non-LGBTQ students have increased in their awareness of LGBTQ issues over time, and this is reflected in their being more aware of GSAs in their schools.

Anti-Bullying Policies

As shown in Figure 1.32, there were differences between 2005 and 2015 in the type of anti-bullying policies reported. There were fewer students in 2015 reporting that they had no policy at school and more students reporting that they had a policy (either a generic policy or an enumerated policy).²⁰⁹ Although there were differences in the percentages of reported policies for both LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students, the increase in reported inclusive policies was greater for non-LGBTQ students. In that the policy questions specifically asked about sexual orientation and gender expression, it may be that LGBTQ students are less likely to report these inclusive policies because these policies have not prevented them from experiencing LGBTQ-related victimization at school. Or, perhaps non-LGBTQ students are less aware of what is actually in their policy and may just assume that it is enumerated, whereas LGBTQ students may be more likely to have sought out their policy when experiencing victimization and thus be more familiar with their actual content in this area.

Figure 1.32 Type of School Anti-Bullying Policy: 2005 and 2015



SUMMARY

Considering all the findings between 2005 and 2015, we see a complex and changing picture of school climate in U.S. schools. In general, students think name-calling, bullying, and harassment are less serious problems in their schools and feel safer in school. Students overall also reported hearing fewer biased remarks at school from their peers. Yet, there were some indicators that counter these more positive reports. Students in 2015 were somewhat more likely to have heard biased remarks in school from teachers or other school staff, and they reported that staff were less likely to intervene when homophobic and sexist remarks were made, two of the most common forms of biased language in school. Students were also much more likely to have missed days of school because they felt unsafe. In addition, there was little change in personal experiences of victimization, such as harassment and assault related to personal characteristics, property damage, and sexual harassment, although there was an increase in relational-types of aggression—specifically being the target of mean rumors or lies.

In 2015, negative climate indicators regarding issues of sexual orientation and gender identity and gender expression remain higher than other issues. Sexual orientation and gender expression remain two of the top reasons why students are bullied and harassed at school. Although LGBTQ students in the study improved in their general perceptions of school safety (i.e., seriousness of the problem and feeling safe at school) between 2005 and 2015, they remained significantly lower in these perceptions than their non-LGBTQ peers.

Although the data would suggest that issues of sexual orientation and gender expression are still highly salient with regard to school climate, the data also suggests that problems related to race/ethnicity are increasing in their salience. Whereas students reported others were bullied and harassed less often for many of the personal characteristics, the frequency with regard to race/ethnicity remained steady. Further, the reported frequency of racist remarks from other students had increased in 2015, whereas the frequency of hearing all other types of biased remarks

had decreased. It is worth noting that, although there was no overall pattern related to changes between years in school climate related to ability, religion, appearance, or gender, we did find a few specific differences. Perceptions of how often students are bullied based on ability increased from 2005 to 2015, whereas bullying based on all other characteristics decreased or stayed the same. In addition, we saw a notable increase in the percentage of students who felt unsafe because of their appearance, and a smaller but nevertheless significant increase in the percentage of students who felt unsafe because of their religion and gender.

Overall, our findings related to differences from 2005 to 2015 reveal that schools may be improving when considering the student level, i.e., peer-to-peer interactions. Schools are seen as safer, bullying is less serious of a problem, most types of biased remarks from peers are lower, and students are intervening more often when hearing homophobic remarks. However, when considering the teacher-level, our findings also reveal that teacher practices regarding school climate, from the student perspective, may not be improving—teachers were more commonly heard using biased language in 2015 and were not intervening any more often when students used such language. At the institutional level, i.e., the school or school district level, it would appear that there might be positive changes. In 2015, more students reported having a GSA in their school and more students reported having an anti-bullying/harassment policy that enumerated personal characteristics, including sexual orientation and gender expression. Altogether, these findings indicate that although some progress has been made, much more remains to be done, and school safety and anti-bullying interventions may need to be reexamined so that they reflect the current state of schools in the U.S. and meet the needs of this changing landscape.

Conclusion

The results from this national survey provide new insights into the experiences of today's middle and high school students. Fortunately, the vast majority of students feel safe at school and have opportunities to engage in their education. Nevertheless, students' reports indicate that bias persists in U.S. schools. Sexism, homophobia, and bias based on academic ability and on non-traditional gender expression are evident in schools. Students commonly hear these types of remarks from other students, and albeit to a lesser extent, students hear such remarks from their educators. In addition, students report that educators often fail to intervene in these biased remarks, particularly letting homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression go unchallenged.

Less common, but potentially more damaging, are incidents of bullying, harassment, and name-calling; victimization based on body size/type or appearance was the most prevalent type of peer victimization. Students were also targeted based on their actual or perceived sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity, and, less frequently, their actual or perceived disability and religion. A sizeable number of students also faced other forms of victimization, such as sexual harassment, property damage, rumor spreading, and cyberbullying. This victimization can have negative effects on students' educational experiences. In fact, our findings from this report also demonstrate how these experiences of bullying and harassment were related to greater absenteeism, lower educational aspirations, and more school disciplinary actions (e.g., suspensions, expulsions).

The data illustrate overall improvements over time from 2005 to 2015 in school climate, with decreases in the percentage of students who felt unsafe at school and decreases in hearing most types of biased remarks. However, these gains did not extend to all types of bias. For example, from 2005 to 2015 there was actually an increase in the percentage of students who felt unsafe because of their personal appearance and because of their religion. Unlike other types of remarks, however, we saw no change in the frequency of hearing racist remarks. And

despite a decrease in frequency in reports of how often students are bullied for most personal characteristics, students' reports of how often other students were bullied based on their race/ethnicity, remained steady across the years. Although the data indicate that issues of appearance, sexual orientation, and gender expression remain some of the most pervasive forms of bias, the data also suggest that problems related to race/ethnicity may be increasing in their salience, and attention must be paid to these issues in school.

Our analyses revealed that some students are more likely to experience bullying and harassment than others—specifically, LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, students of color, and female students were at higher risk for peer victimization. Given these differences in victimization and the negative effects victimization has on students' educational experiences, it is not surprising that we also identified disparities with regard to these personal characteristics in absenteeism, educational aspirations, and school discipline. LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, and Latino/a students missed more days of school because of safety concerns, were less likely to plan to graduate from high school or continue their education, and were more likely to have experienced school discipline. Black/African-American students also had lower educational aspirations and cisgender males experienced more school discipline than females. Thus, it is important to note that the improvements we saw among students as a whole may not apply equally to all students. More work is needed to ensure that all students, regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity/expression, sex, or race/ethnicity, have equal access to education.

Despite the findings of improved school climate in regards to peer behaviors, our analyses of school climate over time illustrates a somewhat different picture in regards to students' experiences with educators. Whereas students reported fewer biased remarks from peers and greater overall feelings of safety, they actually heard more biased remarks from teachers and other school staff and reported a lower frequency of intervention from staff in the face of sexist and homophobic remarks in 2015 than they did

in 2005. Given the important role of educators in both the individual lives of students and in shaping the school environment as a whole, this shift is very concerning and should be explored more deeply in further research.

Given GLSEN's commitment to LGBTQ student issues, we gave particular focus to LGBTQ students' experiences in this report. We found that despite LGBTQ students' elevated levels of victimization and the resulting negative impact on their educational outcomes, there is evidence that school climate has improved slightly for this population. From 2005 to 2015, we saw a decrease in homophobic language from peers and an increase in the availability of school-based LGBT-supportive resources, such as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) and enumerated anti-bullying policies. Findings also demonstrate the ways in which LGBT people are an integral and everyday part of students' environment. Today's students have LGBT people in their lives—just over one fifth of the student body reported having an LGBT family member and almost three quarters reported knowing at least one LGBT student in their school. In addition, few students (just over one tenth) reported having negative attitudes towards LGBT people and students report that some of their peers are standing up to the anti-LGBT bias they encounter in school, reporting greater student intervention in anti-LGBT remarks in 2015 than in 2005. Although student attitudes are predominantly positive, LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students alike did report regular incidents of anti-LGBT bias in schools, and homophobic behaviors remained some of the most pervasive types of bias experienced. These findings may demonstrate the damaging impact that even just a small portion of students who are expressing anti-LGBT sentiments and engaging in biased behaviors may have. Furthermore, it may be that students who do not necessarily think negatively about LGBT people are nevertheless engaging in actions that are hurtful to LGBT youth, perhaps unintentionally. These could include comments that perpetuate stereotypes or well-intentioned, though harmful, questions regarding students' sexual orientation or gender identity. Thus, there is a strong need for schools to continue to take affirmative steps to combat bias and support

LGBTQ youth, even with growing societal acceptance and greater civil rights for LGBT people.

Our findings demonstrate the value that school resources may have for LGBTQ youth—both to improve school climate and to ameliorate the negative effects of a hostile environment. The presence of GSAs and similar student clubs addressing LGBT student issues were related to less anti-LGBT remarks and more positive student attitudes toward LGBT people. Furthermore, LGBTQ youth in schools with GSAs reported less LGBT-related victimization and greater feelings of safety. LGBT-inclusive curriculum was also related to lower-levels of victimization for LGBTQ students, but was not related to more positive attitudes towards LGBT people among general student population. We also found that students in schools with anti-bullying policies that enumerated sexual orientation and gender identity/expression reported less biased language and greater feelings of safety; however, surprisingly, they did not report less victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender. Nevertheless, taken together, our findings indicate that these supportive resources may not only provide benefits to LGBTQ youth or guard against anti-LGBT behaviors, but they may also help address other kinds of bias and foster respect for diversity of all students. For example, having a GSA was related to lower levels of race-based and appearance-based victimization for the general student body, in addition to LGBTQ students specifically. Enumerated anti-bullying policies were not only related to greater feelings of safety related to sexual orientation and gender expression, but also greater levels of feeling safe because of disability, appearance, and gender, as well as to lower levels of racist remarks. Despite the value of these school resources for LGBTQ students and non-LGBTQ students alike, the majority of students in our survey attended schools without these supports. And students in middle schools, rural/small town schools, and religious schools were even less likely to have access to these resources. Clearly, more work is needed to implement these helpful resources in all secondary schools across the country.

Findings from this report also provide valuable insight into students' access to and involvement in extracurricular activities, which have the potential to either enhance students' experiences or perpetuate inequities and hostile environments if there were disparities in access across students. The majority of students participated in at least one activity or club in their school. Our findings suggest that some types of activities might be less accessible or welcoming to all students than others. Students from a lower socioeconomic background, for example, were less likely to participate in activities that may have additional costs, such as competitive sports, and LGBTQ youth were less likely to participate in sports-related activities or JROTC, both of which may be viewed as more hostile to LGBTQ people. LGBTQ youth were more active than their non-LGBTQ peers in other types of activities, such as social justice clubs, GSAs, and arts-related activities, perhaps because these activities provide a safe-haven to students facing more negative environment during the regular school day. Further research is needed to examine why certain activities are more useful or popular among some groups of students and not others to ensure that all student needs are being addressed fairly and all students have equal access to the benefits of various extracurricular activities.

Sex education is an important source of information for youth about a variety of critical topics, and effective sex education instruction should be provided to all students. Findings from this report show that the majority of students in our survey did report having received sex education at school. However, there were significant differences by school type, locale, and region—students in private, non-religious schools, in urban schools, and in the Western region of the U.S. were less likely to have had any sex education. Additionally, among those who were taught sex education, a portion did not find it useful for their needs. LGBTQ students were even less likely to find these classes useful compared to their non-LGBTQ peers. Further attention is needed in U.S. education to providing medically accurate, and age-appropriate sexuality education that is representative of and inclusive of the needs of our nation's students.

These findings from middle and high school students across the country offer a snapshot of what students are currently experiencing in their schools and provide valuable information about the ways in which schools have, and have not, changed over the past decade. Schools appear to be becoming somewhat safer for students overall and generally biased behaviors may be on the decline. However, many types of bias remain pervasive in schools, especially those based on appearance, sexual orientation, academic ability, sex, and gender expression. Other types of bias are less common but may be intractable or perhaps are becoming more problematic, such as bias based on race/ethnicity. Furthermore, certain groups of students, such as LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, Black/African-American students, and Latino/a students, continue to disproportionately experience hostile school climates. More must be done to ensure that *all* students benefit from the positive changes made in our schools. The next section explores the critical role of teachers in improving the educational environment, and provides a further roadmap to continuing and expanding these improvements to ensure they extend to the most vulnerable student populations.

Findings from Secondary School Teachers

Teachers are important figures in the school environment, and their beliefs and behaviors can greatly influence students' educational experiences. As teachers, they also bear the responsibility for addressing problems of bullying and harassment, as well as biased language in school. Furthermore, teachers can serve as another important resource for students who feel marginalized or experience bullying and harassment. Given their significance, we asked secondary school teachers about their perspectives, experiences, and behaviors on issues related to school climate.

Teacher Perceptions of School Climate

To examine teacher perceptions of school climate, we asked secondary teachers about their perspectives related to bullying and harassment, biased remarks, and overall safety for LGBT and gender nonconforming students.

PERCEIVED SERIOUSNESS OF BULLYING AND HARASSMENT

As shown in Figure 2.1, approximately half of teachers (51.2%) believed that bullying, name-calling, or harassment was a serious problem

at their school, whereas fewer than ten percent (9.4%) believed it was "not serious at all."

Biased Remarks

Hearing biased remarks can have a negative impact on school climate, making teachers and students feel both uncomfortable and unsafe at school. Teachers, given their role in the classroom and the time they spend with students, are in a unique position to report on the frequency with which students make such remarks. As shown in Figure 2.2, hearing the

Figure 2.1 Teachers' Perception of Seriousness of Bullying, Name-Calling, or Harassment of Students at School

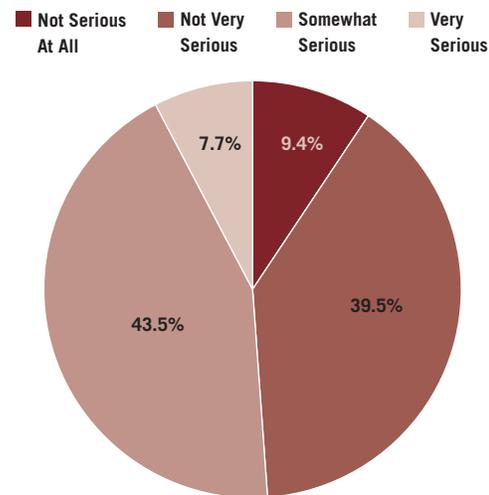
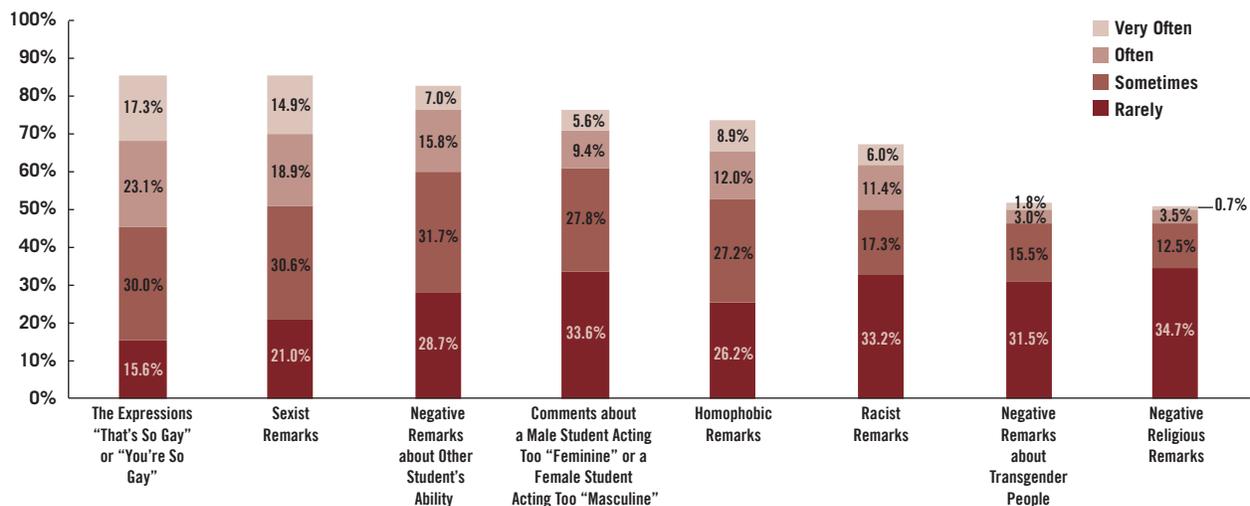


Figure 2.2 Frequency that Teachers Hear Students Make Biased Remarks at School



word “gay” used in a negative way in school, such as in the expression “That’s so gay” or “You’re so gay,” was the most commonly heard biased remark by teachers in our survey—with 40.4% of teachers reporting that they heard students make these remarks often or very often at school.²¹⁰ Sexist remarks were the next most commonly heard (33.8%), followed by negative remarks about other students’ ability (22.8%).

Frequency of Bias-Based Bullying, Harassment, and Name-Calling

Teachers were also asked how frequently they believed certain types of bullying, name-calling, or harassment occurred in their schools. They reported that such offenses occurred most often based upon appearance, followed by academic ability, gender expression, and sexual orientation. For example, as shown in Figure 2.3, approximately one third (32.2%) of teachers reported that bullying based on appearance occurred “often” or “very often” in their school.²¹¹

Overall Safety of LGBTQ and Gender Nonconforming Students

Given that we found LGBTQ students and gender nonconforming students to be more likely to feel unsafe than their peers (see Section: School Safety), and found that sexual orientation and gender expression were some of the major reasons that students were victimized (see Section: Personal Experiences of Bullying and Harassment), we asked teachers to rate the extent to which they believed certain

types of students (i.e., gay/lesbian/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, and female teen who acted traditionally masculine) would feel safe at their school. Although teachers noted that each type of student would be relatively safe overall (see Figure 2.4), teachers believed that transgender teens would feel the least safe—over a quarter (27.7%) of teachers noted that transgender teens would be “not very safe” or “not safe at all” at their school.²¹²

Figure 2.4 Teachers’ Perceptions of Safety

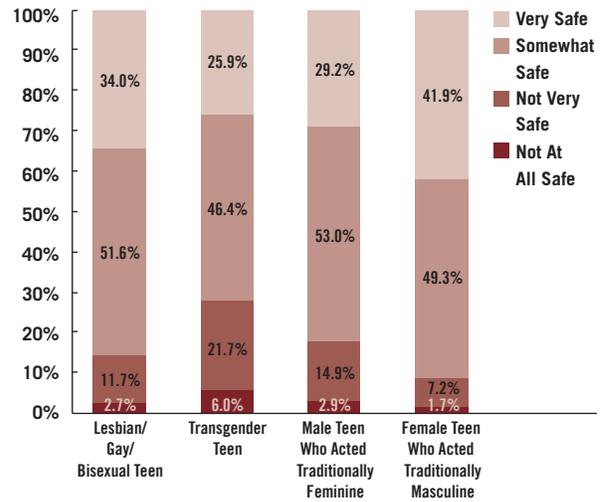
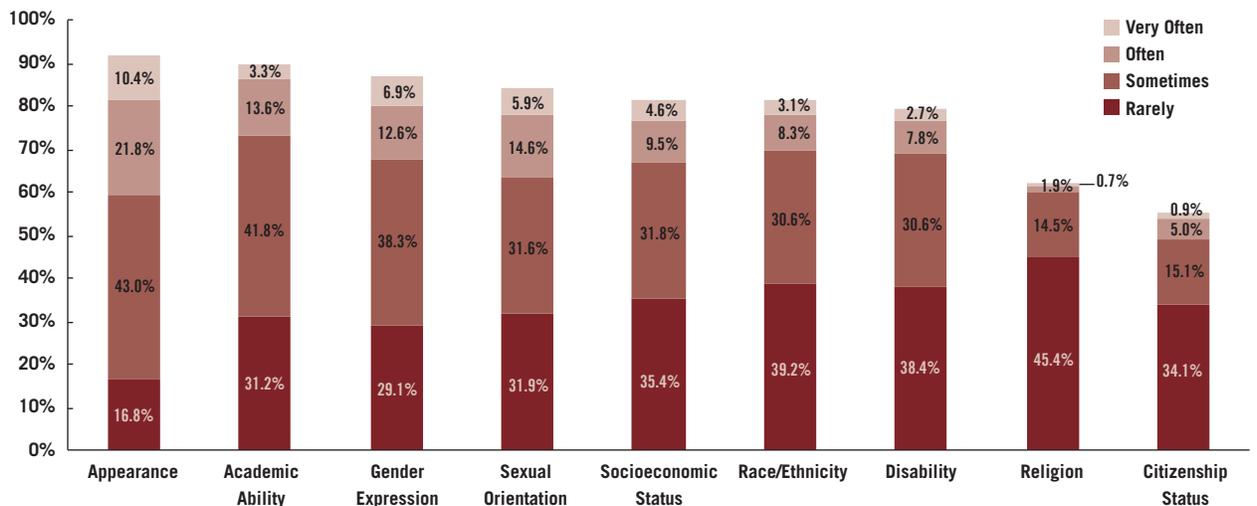


Figure 2.3 Teacher Reports of Frequency of Bias-Based Bullying, Harassment, and Name-Calling



SCHOOL-LEVEL DIFFERENCES IN TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

Teachers' perceptions of school climate may differ based on the characteristics of their schools and the communities where they reside. Thus, we explored whether differences existed in teachers' perceptions of school climate by certain school and community characteristics, including school level (middle school/high school), school type (public, private non-religious, private religious), school locale (urban, suburban, rural/small town), region (Northeast, South, Midwest, West), and school socioeconomic status (SES, i.e., percentage of low-income students).

School Level

There were no school level differences in teachers' perceptions of the seriousness of bullying, name-calling, and harassment at their school.²¹³ However, regarding biased remarks, teachers in middle school were somewhat less likely to hear students make sexist remarks compared to teachers in high school. For example, as shown in Table 2.1, just over a third of middle school students (32.5%) reported hearing sexist remarks often or very often, compared to just over a third (36.3%) of high school teachers.²¹⁴

There were differences in their reports of how frequently bullying and harassment occurred. Specifically, middle school teachers were more likely to report bullying and harassment occurred often or very often based on appearance (39.9% vs. 23.9%), ability at school (23.2% vs. 12.6%), disability (12.0% vs. 11.1%), socioeconomic status (19.8% vs. 11.5%), and citizenship status (7.5% vs. 5.2%) compared to teachers in high school (see Table 2.2).²¹⁵

There were no differences between middle and high school teachers regarding perceptions of safety for LGBT and gender nonconforming students.²¹⁶

School Type

With respect to school type, teachers in public schools reported more hostile school environments than those in other schools. Teachers in public schools (55.4%) were more likely to perceive name-calling, bullying, and harassment as serious compared to teachers in private, non-religious schools (51.0%), and teachers in private, religious schools (13.1%).²¹⁷ With the exception of student remarks about ability, teachers in public schools were also more likely to hear biased remarks from students

Table 2.1 Percentage of Teachers Reporting Hearing Biased Remarks from Students as "Often" or "Very Often" by School Characteristics

	Expression "That's So Gay" or "You're So Gay"	Sexist Remarks	Homophobic Remarks	Racist Remarks	Negative Remarks about Other Students' Ability	Gender Expression	Negative Remarks about Transgender People	Negative Religious Remarks
School Level								
Middle School	43.2%	32.5%	21.1%	19.1%	26.3%	17.4%	5.2%	4.2%
High School	40.5%	36.3%	22.9%	17.6%	19.6%	14.1%	5.1%	4.5%
School Type								
Public	42.1%	36.8%	22.2%	19.5%	23.8%	16.7%	5.4%	4.6%
Private Non-religious	36.0%	22.0%	14.0%	4.0%	26.0%	6.0%	2.0%	0.0%
Private Religious	26.1%	11.8%	12.0%	4.3%	10.6%	4.3%	0.0%	3.2%
School Locale								
Urban	41.4%	41.1%	25.1%	24.9%	23.0%	20.5%	6.7%	4.3%
Suburban	44.3%	34.8%	20.3%	17.1%	26.6%	14.5%	5.3%	5.3%
Small Town/Rural	34.1%	26.1%	17.7%	10.6%	17.7%	10.6%	2.3%	2.9%
School SES								
Higher SES	38.3%	30.7%	19.6%	11.7%	21.7%	13.7%	5.5%	6.4%
Lower SES	43.9%	43.0%	23.1%	15.8%	22.7%	19.2%	5.0%	3.0%

compared to teachers in private, non-religious schools (see Table 2.1).²¹⁸ For all types of bullying and harassment, teachers in public school were more likely to report that these events occurred more frequently than did teachers in private, religious schools (see Table 2.2).²¹⁹ However, teachers in public schools (85.9%) were more likely to perceive LGB teens as being safe compared to teachers in private, religious schools (78.0%) (see Figure 2.6).²²⁰

School Locale

We also found differences in teachers' perception of school climate based on locale. In particular, teachers in schools in small/town rural areas were less likely to report hostile school climates. Teachers in small town/rural areas (44.5%) were less likely to perceive bullying, name-calling, and harassment as being serious, compared to

teachers from suburban schools (53.1%) (Figure 2.5).²²¹ Compared to teachers in urban schools, teachers in small town/rural areas heard sexist remarks, racist remarks, and negative remarks about transgender people less often (Table 2.1).²²² For example, as shown in Table 2.1, 26.1% of teachers in small town/rural schools reported hearing sexist remarks often or very often, compared to 41.1% of teachers in urban schools.

Teachers in small town/rural schools were also less likely to report bullying and harassment based on religion or citizenship status than teachers in suburban schools (see Table 2.2).²²³ Perhaps the differences are a result of schools in small towns/rural areas potentially being more homogeneous and less diverse in terms of race/ethnicity, religion, or nationality than schools

Table 2.2 Percentage of Teachers Reporting Bullying and Harassment as “Often” or “Very Often” by School Characteristics

	Appearance	Ability at School	How Masculine or Feminine they are	They are or People Think They are LGB	Race/Ethnicity	Disability	Socio-economic Status	Religion	Citizenship Status
School Level									
Middle School	39.9%	23.2%	21.1%	22.2%	13.2%	12.0%	19.8%	3.4%	7.5%
High School	23.9%	12.6%	19.8%	21.7%	9.8%	11.1%	11.5%	2.5%	5.2%
School Type									
Public	34.4%	17.8%	21.7%	22.2%	13.1%	11.5%	14.9%	3.0%	6.9%
Private Non-religious	22.9%	29.8%	8.3%	21.3%	2.0%	12.2%	23.4%	0.0%	0.0%
Private Religious	18.6%	3.1%	6.1%	6.4%	2.0%	1.0%	3.1%	0.0%	0.0%
School Locale									
Urban	33.6%	17.0%	21.2%	19.4%	13.1%	8.3%	13.9%	2.7%	8.7%
Suburban	31.3%	18.1%	17.5%	19.9%	12.0%	10.4%	16.7%	2.8%	5.4%
Small Town/Rural	30.0%	13.6%	18.8%	19.9%	8.3%	11.7%	9.4%	1.9%	3.5%
Region									
Northeast	26.3%	12.2%	21.3%	23.4%	6.9%	10.1%	14.1%	2.6%	6.9%
South	28.6%	15.5%	17.2%	17.4%	11.9%	9.5%	12.7%	2.9%	5.0%
Midwest	43.5%	25.2%	17.7%	18.8%	12.0%	12.6%	17.1%	2.9%	2.5%
West	33.7%	16.9%	23.0%	24.2%	14.6%	10.5%	13.2%	1.0%	10.2%
School SES									
Higher SES	28.9%	15.5%	18.8%	21.1%	9.6%	10.0%	14.4%	1.8%	7.4%
Lower SES	37.7%	18.6%	23.1%	21.8%	15.1%	11.0%	13.9%	3.6%	6.3%

in suburban areas. There were no differences across locale for teachers' perception of safety for LGBT and gender nonconforming students.²²⁴

Region

Overall, there were few differences based on region. There were no differences in teachers' perceptions of seriousness of bullying,²²⁵ or in the frequency of hearing biased remarks.²²⁶ However, as shown in Table 2.2, there were some regional differences for bullying, name-calling, and harassment: teachers in the West reported a lower frequency of bullying, name-calling, and harassment due to appearance and ability as compared to teachers in the Midwest.²²⁷

There were also some regional differences in teachers' perceptions of safety for LGBT and gender nonconforming students—teachers in the Northeast were more likely to perceive transgender teens as being safe in school compared to teachers in the South (see Figure 2.6).²²⁸

School SES

Our findings point to significant differences in teachers' perception of school climate based on whether they were in lower income schools or not (i.e., based on the percentage of students reported to be eligible for free or reduced-priced lunch). Overall, teachers from lower SES

Figure 2.5 Seriousness of Bullying, Name-Calling, or Harassment by School Characteristics
(Percentage Of Teachers Reporting “Serious” Or “Very Serious”)

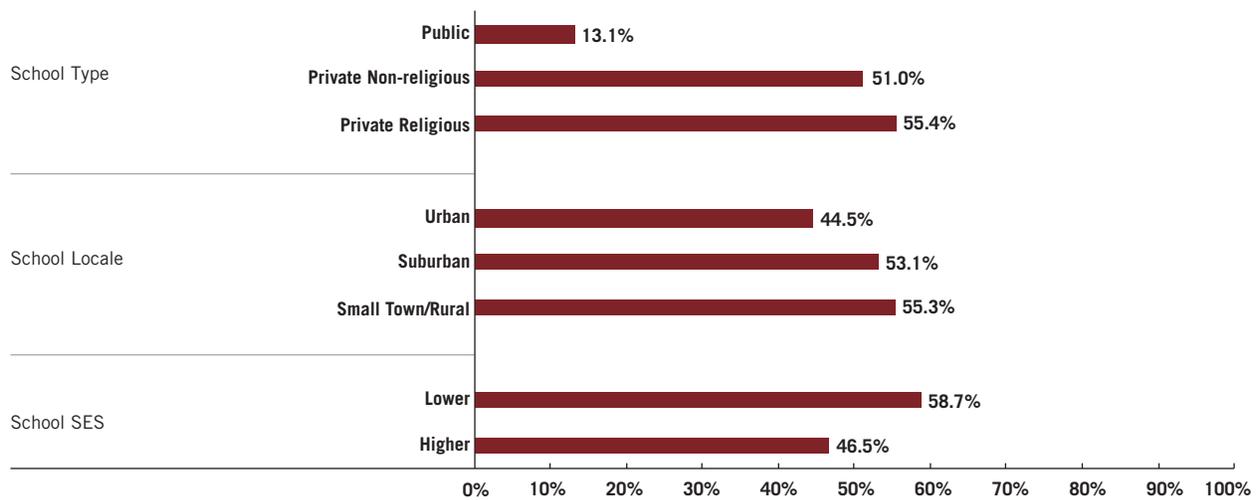
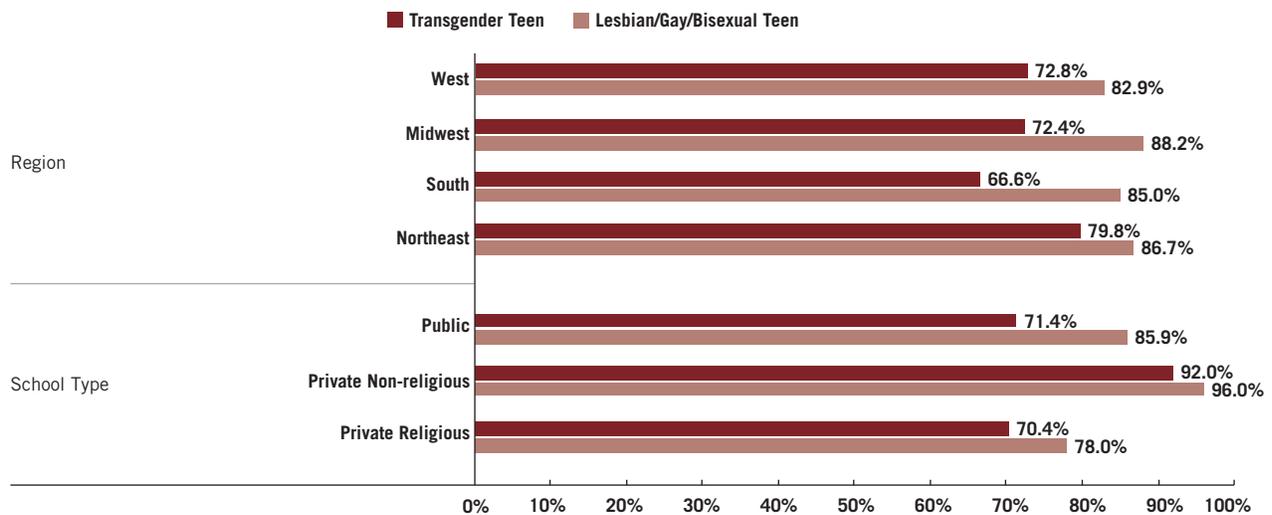


Figure 2.6 Percentage of Teachers Reporting Safety of LGBT Students as “Somewhat Safe” or “Very Safe” by School Characteristics



schools²²⁹ were more likely to report more hostile school environments. Specifically, compared to teachers in higher SES schools, teachers from lower SES schools were more likely to:

- Perceive bullying and harassment at their school as a serious problem (Figure 2.5).²³⁰
- Report hearing all types of biased remarks from students, except negative remarks about religion and transgender people (Table 2.1),²³¹ and
- Report all types of bullying and harassment as occurring more often, except for socioeconomic and citizenship status (Table 2.2).²³²

There were no differences in teachers' perceptions of safety for LGBT or gender nonconforming students based on school SES.²³³

Teacher Practices and Beliefs

Teachers play a critical role in ensuring safe and affirming classroom environments for all students, and may be particularly important supports for those who are targets of bullying and bias. Whether by addressing incidents of negative behavior, providing direct support to individual students, or taking proactive steps to create a positive environment, teachers can help to improve school climate. Given that research has shown LGBTQ students to be most often at risk for bias and harassment at school, we asked teachers whether they believe teachers have an obligation to support this population of students. Overall, the vast majority of teachers (83.3%) agreed that teachers and other school personnel have an obligation to ensure safe and supportive learning environments for LGBTQ students, with most (72.3%) strongly agreeing. Nevertheless, about one teacher in ten (11.8%) actually disagreed with this statement. Furthermore, merely acknowledging this responsibility does not necessarily ensure that teachers will act on it by engaging in behaviors that address bias, support LGBTQ students, or promote a more positive school climate. Therefore, in the remainder of this section, we describe teachers' specific practices as they relate to bias more generally and LGBTQ student issues specifically. We also examine teachers' beliefs as they relate to

these supportive practices and explore possible differences in these practices based on teachers' professional and personal characteristics.

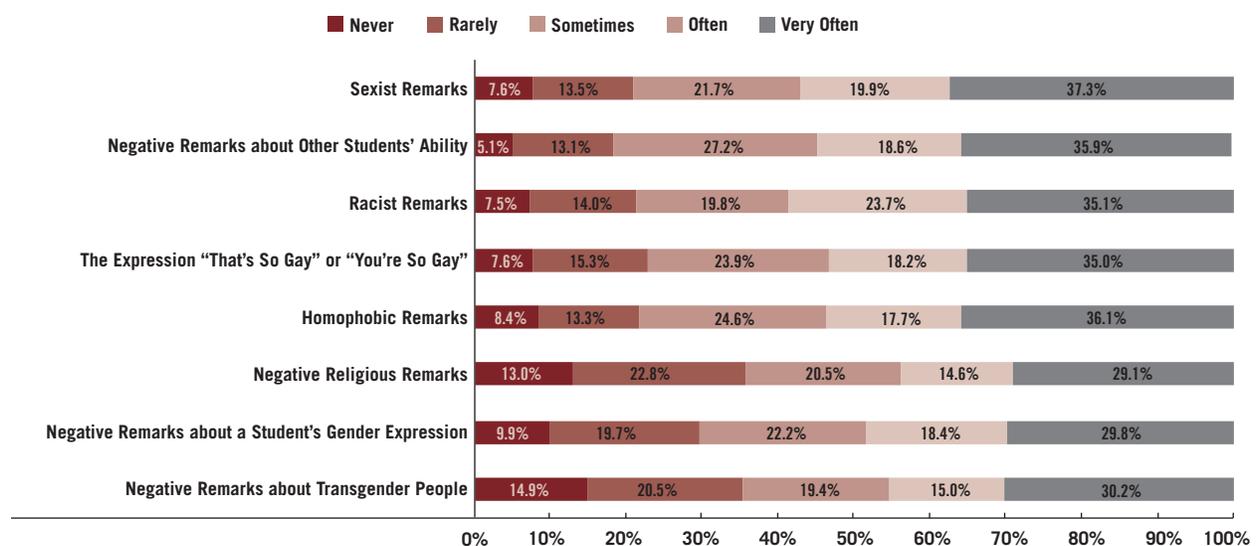
INTERVENTION IN BIASED BEHAVIORS

Teachers serve as important resources regarding school safety in that they can take action when witnessing or learning about biased behaviors. Teacher intervention may not only curtail negative events, but also send a message to students that the school is a respectful and inclusive environment where harassment and violence are not tolerated. To better understand teacher actions, we asked teachers how often they intervened when hearing biased remarks. We also examined teachers' levels of comfort regarding intervention in biased remarks and bullying behaviors, and the extent to which these factors may influence the frequency of their intervention.

Frequency of Intervention

As reported in the previous section, *Teacher Perceptions of School Climate*, most teachers reported hearing students make biased remarks at least some of the time in school. We then asked teachers, who reported hearing these remarks, how often they intervened. The overwhelming majority intervened at least sometimes regarding each type of remark (see Figure 2.7). However, the extent to which

Figure 2.7 Frequency of Teacher Intervention in Biased Remarks



they intervened did vary by type of remark.²³⁴ As shown in Figure 2.7, teachers reported intervening most often when hearing sexist remarks (although there were no differences between sexist remarks as compared to negative remarks about students' ability), with over half of teachers (57.2%) intervening in sexist remarks often or very often. Teachers intervened the least often with negative remarks about transgender people, with slightly less than half of teachers (45.2%) intervening in these types of remarks often or very often. It is possible that intervention could be related to the frequency of hearing remarks, as hearing more remarks could allow for more opportunities to intervene, or potentially make it harder to intervene all of the time if the remarks are so pervasive. However, our analysis revealed that even when we considered the frequency of hearing remarks, the findings related to which remarks teachers intervened in most and least often, remained the same.

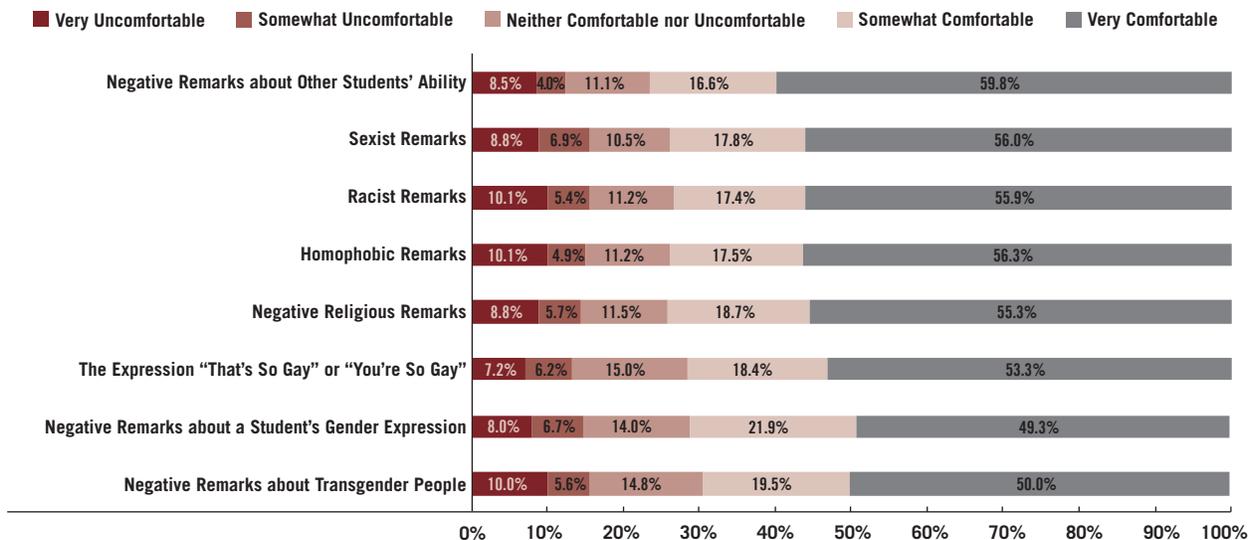
For remarks related to sexual orientation, gender expression, and transgender people, we examined whether teachers' sense of obligation towards LGBTQ students was related to their intervention. We found that a greater sense of obligation was related to a slightly higher frequency of intervention in anti-LGBT remarks, although this association was fairly small.²³⁵

Teachers' Comfort Levels in Intervening

One factor that may account for teachers' level of intervention in the face of biased behaviors, such as biased language or bullying, is the extent to which they feel comfortable taking action. Overall, at least half of teachers reported being very comfortable intervening in all types of biased remarks (see Figure 2.8). Teachers were most comfortable intervening in negative remarks about ability (59.8% were very comfortable), and were least comfortable intervening in negative remarks related to gender expression and transgender people; although, nearly half still reported being very comfortable intervening with these remarks (remarks about gender expression: 49.3%; remarks about transgender people: 50.0%).²³⁶ As we might expect, teachers who reported higher levels of comfort intervening in biased remarks also reported intervening in these types of remarks more frequently.²³⁷

In addition to teachers' comfort addressing biased remarks, we also asked teachers in our survey how comfortable they would be addressing various types of bias-based bullying, harassment, or name-calling (based on actual or perceived: sexual orientation, gender identity or gender expression, race or ethnicity, and religion). Similar to biased remarks, most teachers reported feeling comfortable addressing these behaviors, with most teachers feeling very

Figure 2.8 Teachers' Comfort Level Intervening in Bias-Based Remarks



comfortable in regards to each type of bullying (see Figure 2.9). However, there were differences in levels of comfort by type of bias. Teachers were most comfortable addressing bullying based on religion or race (53.6% and 52.6% reported being “very comfortable,” respectively), and least comfortable addressing bullying based on students’ actual or perceived sexual orientation or gender identity/expression (48.3% and 44.9% reported being “very comfortable,” respectively).²³⁸

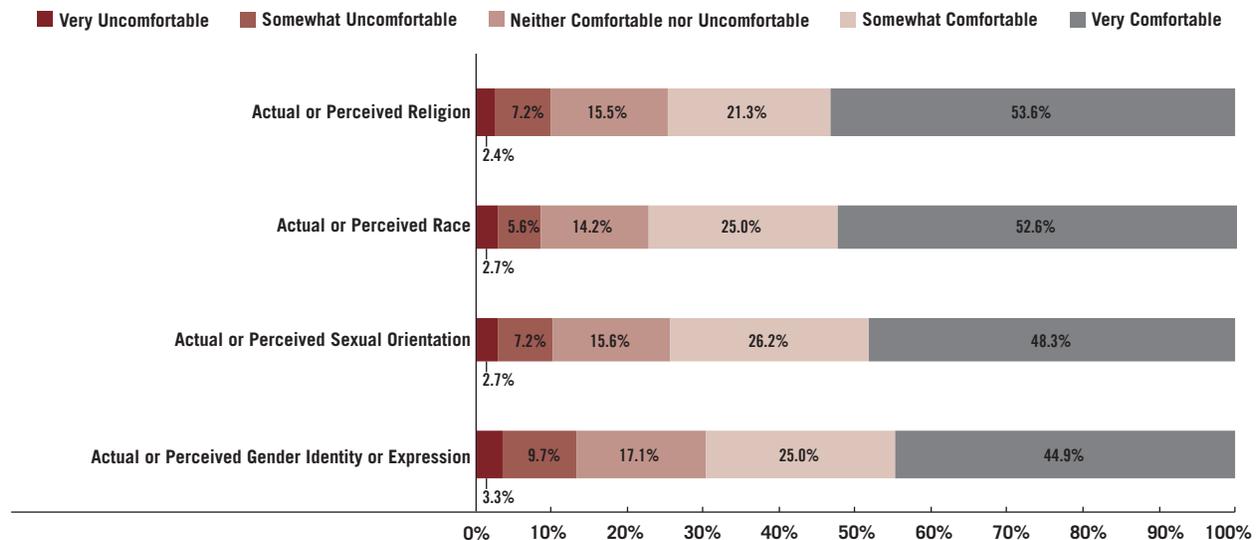
LGBT-SUPPORTIVE TEACHER PRACTICES

Supportive teachers may be particularly important for students who may feel marginalized or disconnected from school, such as LGBTQ students. In addition to addressing negative events, biased behaviors such as harmful remarks and incidents of bullying or harassment, teachers can also engage in practices that create a supportive environment and challenge anti-LGBT attitudes and behaviors. We asked teachers in our survey about a number of these supportive practices. Specifically, we asked about practices directly related to: 1) providing support to individual LGBT students one-on-one; 2) displaying visual signs of support for LGBT people (e.g., Safe Space sticker); 3) informally discussing LGBT topics with students; and 4) including LGBT topics in the curriculum. We also asked about practices related to more

school-wide efforts: 1) serving as an advisor to a student club addressing LGBT issues (e.g., GSA); 2) educating other staff, or advocating for staff training, about LGBT issues; and 3) advocating for LGBT-inclusive policies. As shown in Figure 2.10, we found that half of teachers (50.3%) reported engaging in at least one of these LGBT-related practices, most commonly: working directly with students in an informal manner, such as providing one-on-one student support (28.1%), and discussing these issues with these students when they arose (33.7%).²³⁹

Given that teachers tend to be in regular everyday contact with students, it is not surprising that these practices would be the most common. In contrast, teachers were least likely to report having served as an advisor for a student-led club that addresses LGBT issues, such as a Gay-Straight Alliance (GSA), with less than one in twenty teachers (4.1%) reporting having done so. This is not necessarily surprising given that there may be fewer opportunities for teachers to become involved with GSAs, as student reports from both this study and our previous research with LGBTQ students²⁴⁰ suggest that not more than half of secondary schools have GSAs. Furthermore, there are typically only one or two faculty advisors for each student club, and thus, even in schools with GSAs, the number of teachers who could serve as an advisor is limited.

Figure 2.9 Teachers’ Comfort Addressing Bias-Based Name-Calling, Bullying, and/or Harassment



To assess whether teachers' beliefs regarding their responsibility to LGBTQ students were related to their actual engagement in practices that might improve school climate for these students, we examined the relationship between teachers' sense of obligation to ensure safe and supportive environments for LGBTQ students and teachers' supportive practices. We found a statistically significant, but relatively negligible, positive relationship, between obligation and teachers' engagement in any practices and the number of type of practices they reported.²⁴¹

Comfort Engaging in LGBT-Supportive Practices

The degree of comfort teachers have engaging in a given practice might result in greater engagement in these practices. In fact, in the previous section on teachers' intervention in biased behaviors, we found that teachers with greater comfort intervening in biased remarks were, in fact, more likely to intervene when hearing such language. In order to examine whether teachers' comfort level regarding specific practices were predictive of them engaging in these practices, we asked teachers to report on their comfort engaging in various types of LGBT-supportive practices: 1) providing support to LGBT students; 2) responding to student questions about LGBT people; 3) serving as an advisor of a GSA or similar student club; 4) incorporating topics into their curriculum. As shown in Figure 2.11., the majority of teachers felt comfortable (somewhat or very) addressing

LGBT issues with individual students, such as supporting LGBT students (60.2%) and responding to students' questions about LGBT people (62.9%). Teachers appeared to be less comfortable with those activities that entailed more official or public roles, with approximately one third stating they would be comfortable serving as an advisor of a GSA (35.3%) or incorporating LGBT topics into their teaching or curriculum (33.1%).²⁴² It may be that these types of activities are more visible and may put teachers at risk of criticism or judgment from their colleagues, administrators, or community members, whereas individual interactions with

Figure 2.11 Comfort Level Engaging in LGBT-Supportive Practices

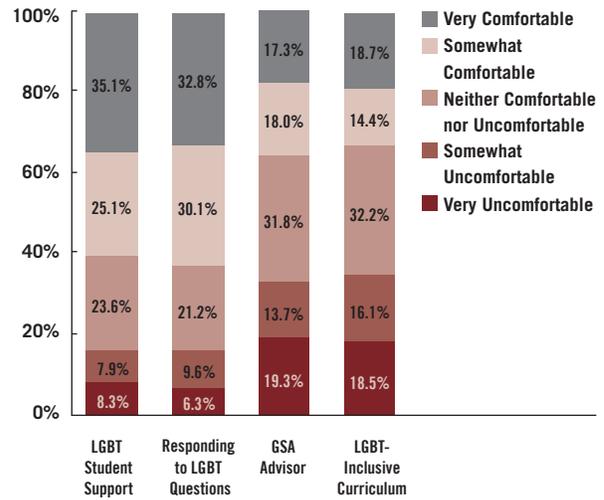
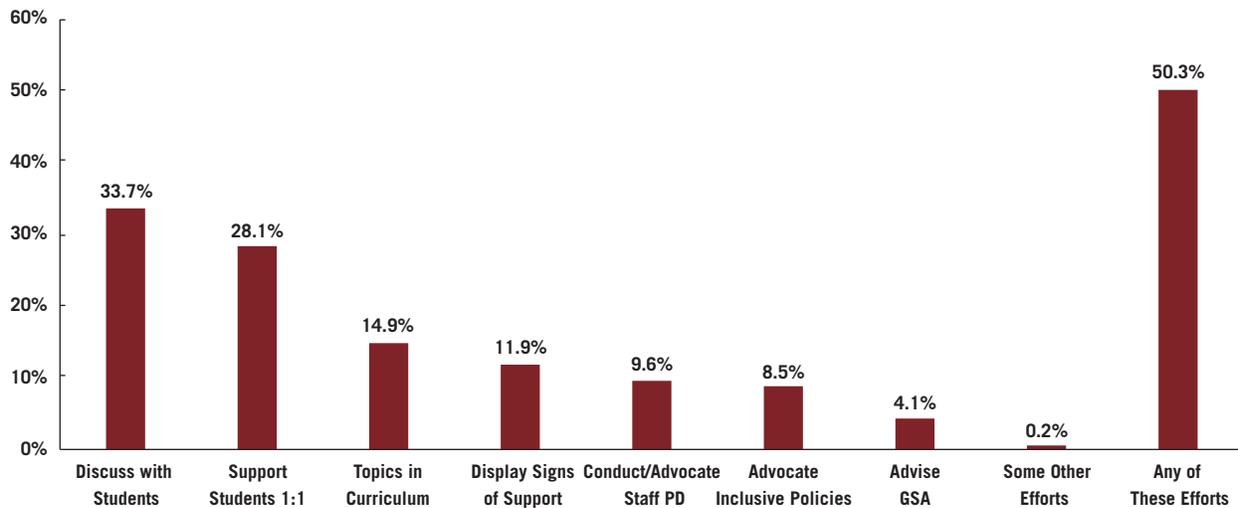


Figure 2.10 Percentage of Teachers Engaging in LGBT-Related Efforts



students who are LGBT themselves or have questions about LGBT issues may not pose the same type of exposure or risk.

In examining the relationships between comfort level and engaging in LGBT-supportive practices, we found that comfort level was related to greater engagement in activities. Specifically, greater comfort was related to greater likelihood of engaging in any practices and in a greater number of practices overall.²⁴³ In fact, we found that although each type of comfort level was positively related to all of the LGBT-related practices assessed, the strongest relationships were found between comfort level and practices that were similar (e.g., comfort talking to LGBT students and having actually provided support to LGBT students).²⁴⁴ It is interesting to note that comfort with the more official or public roles (i.e., being a GSA advisor and incorporating LGBT topics in the curriculum) was more strongly related to all types of activities than comfort with the other activities. It is plausible that these more visible practices require a greater level of comfort with these issues than does interacting with individual students, and thus, if a teacher is comfortable doing that, they are likely to be comfortable interacting with individual students.

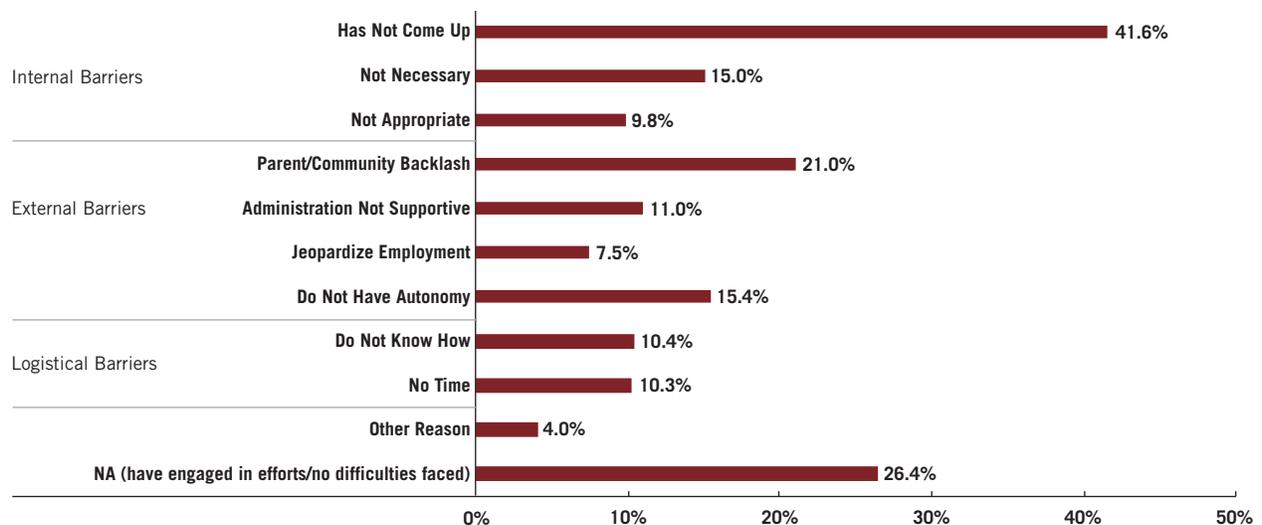
Barriers to Engaging in LGBT-Related Practices

In order to better understand the factors that might inhibit teachers' engagement in LGBT-supportive activities at school, we asked them to

select from a list of potential reasons why they might not have engaged in any of the specific efforts, or might not have engaged in them as in-depth as they would have liked (teachers were also able to write in other reasons in addition to those provided). It was encouraging that over a quarter (26.4%) of teachers indicated that they had engaged in LGBT efforts and faced no barriers in doing so. The remaining three quarters of teachers selected reasons that fell into three main areas:²⁴⁵ external pressures, internal beliefs, or logistical concerns.

As illustrated in Figure 2.12, the most common reasons cited by teachers were ones relating their internal beliefs, with over half (51.7%) of teachers indicating that they believed addressing LGBT issues was not necessary or appropriate, or believed that because these issues had not come up in their classes, there was no need to address them.²⁴⁶ Over a quarter of teachers (26.2%) identified external pressures as barriers to engaging in LGBT efforts, such as lack of administrative support, or backlash from parents or community. Just about one in five (19.0%) teachers noted that they faced logistical barriers, such as not having enough time to include these issues in their teaching or not knowing how to include them. In addition, a small portion of teachers provided a write-in response to share their reasons for not engaging in LGBT-supportive practices (see Figure 2.12).

Figure 2.12 Reasons Teachers Do Not Engage in LGBT-Supportive Efforts



Many teachers selected multiple reasons for not engaging in LGBT-supportive efforts. Those teachers, who reported a greater number reasons, did actually engage in fewer types of practices.²⁴⁷ This suggests that multiple barriers (or multiple perceived barriers) may have an additive effect, and the more barriers teachers face, the less likely they are to take initiative to ensure safe and supportive schools for LGBT students. We were also interested in examining how the different types of barriers related to teachers' practices, and we found that internal barriers had the strongest relationship—more internal barriers were related to both a lower likelihood of engaging in any practices, and engaging in a fewer number of practices.²⁴⁸ Logistical barriers were significantly related, but the relationship was negligible, and external barriers were not related to engaging in practices as a whole. However, when examining the relationship between type of barrier and specific, individual types of practices, we found some more nuanced relationships. Specifically, internal barriers were related to all of the specific practices—teachers citing internal barriers were less likely to engage in each practice.²⁴⁹ Logistical barriers were related to only two of the specific practices: 1) educating or advocating for education of other staff on LGBT issues, 2) including LGBT people and topics in curriculum; however, though statistically significant, these relationships were extremely small.²⁵⁰ External barriers were related to two specific practices: 1) educating, or advocating for education of, other staff on LGBT issues, and 2) advocating for inclusive policies.²⁵¹ However, the external barriers actually predicted *greater* likelihood of engaging in these efforts. As external barriers were predominantly about resistance from administration, other educators, or community members, it is possible that teachers are most likely to experience these barriers when engaging in efforts that require the support or involvement of other school staff or administration, such as educator trainings and policy adoption (which might also draw the negative attention of community members).

Overall, these findings indicate that in order to be most effective, efforts to encourage teachers' LGBT-supportive practices must take into

account the factors that are preventing teachers from taking action, and also acknowledge that multiple strategies might be necessary. For example, addressing internal barriers might require a focus on raising awareness about experiences of LGBTQ students and the effects of negative school climate, and providing information about the potential benefits of effective resources. In contrast, overcoming external barriers, such as other community or administrative resistance, might call for resources and support to assist teachers in advocating for LGBT-supports in their schools and communities. Lastly, specific tools for incorporating LGBT issues into existing curriculum and standards might be particularly helpful for teachers who face logistical barriers, such as not having the time, or those who need more guidance in how to incorporate LGBT issues.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER PRACTICES

We explored how teachers' actions and potential barriers to those actions may vary based on certain professional characteristics (e.g., years of experience and subject matter taught) and personal characteristics (e.g., familiarity with LGBT people).

Years of Experience

Years teaching was not related to teacher intervention in biased remarks.²⁵² However, this could be partially due to teachers' age and generational differences. Research indicates that older people in the U.S. are more conservative on social issues, including LGBT issues.²⁵³ Given that years of experience is related to age (i.e., older teachers may have been in the field longer), we wanted to examine tenure while accounting for age. When taking age into account, we found that years teaching was significantly associated with teacher intervention when hearing biased remarks, with more experienced teachers reporting intervening more frequently.²⁵⁴

We also found that teachers with more experience were more likely to take LGBT-supportive action and faced fewer barriers when doing so. The more experience teachers had, the more likely they were to engage in practices supportive of LGBT students.²⁵⁵ Specifically,

they were more likely to report that they had: provided support one-on-one to LGBTQ students, advocated for inclusive school policies, and included LGBT topics in their curriculum. Furthermore, years of experience was related to fewer reported barriers to engaging in LGBT-supportive practices.²⁵⁶ Specifically, teachers with more years of teaching experience were somewhat less likely to cite external barriers, such as parent/community backlash, and logistical reasons such as not knowing how to address LGBT issues, as reasons for not engaging in these efforts.²⁵⁷

Teacher Subject Areas

In our biennial surveys of LGBT secondary students, LGBT students have indicated that LGBT issues are rarely included in their curriculum; however, when they are included, they are most likely to be addressed in specific subject areas, primarily History/Social Studies and English.²⁵⁸ Given students reported these differences by subject area, we wanted to examine whether teachers themselves reported differences in how they included, or did not include, LGBT issues in their curriculum based on the subject they taught. Furthermore, it is possible that teachers differed by subject area not only regarding inclusive curriculum, but also in how often they addressed incidents of anti-LGBT bias or engaged in other types of supportive efforts on behalf of LGBT students. Teacher preparation and ongoing professional development in certain teaching areas may be more likely to include LGBT content.

Therefore, we examined differences by subject area (for teachers who only taught one subject) in teacher intervention and practices.²⁵⁹ Overall, it appears that English teachers, and History/Social Studies teachers to a lesser extent, were most active in addressing bias and LGBT-related issues in their schools. In contrast, Math teachers and Health/Physical Education (PE) teachers were often less active in addressing these issues. We found no differences in reports of the reasons why teachers chose not to engage in these efforts.²⁶⁰

- **Intervention in biased remarks.** In general, English teachers intervened more frequently when hearing biased remarks compared to Math, History/Social Studies, Science, and Health/PE teachers (See Table 2.3).²⁶¹ There were no differences in the frequency of intervention between English and Music/Art teachers.
- **Engagement in LGBT-supportive practices.** Overall, English and History/Social Studies teachers were most likely to engage in these practices, whereas Math teachers were least likely to do so (see Table 2.3).²⁶²

These findings suggest that there may be something in the teaching of certain subject areas that allows for certain teachers to intervene more frequently. Perhaps these subject areas offer less opportunity for students to make biased remarks, and thus less opportunity for staff to hear them; or, perhaps some teachers are receiving different training than others depending on their subject area of focus. However, more research is needed to better understand the factors that might account for these differences.

Similar to our findings from our LGBT student surveys,²⁶³ we found that English and History/Social Studies teachers were the most likely, and Math teachers some of the least likely, to incorporate LGBT people and topics into their curriculum. Regarding LGBT-inclusive curriculum, given their subject matter, English and History/Social Studies might have the greatest opportunities to incorporate LGBT people, history, and events into their teaching. In addition, the majority LGBT-specific lesson plans available for teachers tend to be geared towards English or History/Social Studies classes, for example, activities about LGBT history or discussion guides for LGBT-inclusive literature. However, there are multiple ways that teachers can be inclusive in their LGBT teaching, even if their subject content does not at first glance seem to provide the opportunity to do so. For example, Math teachers could use data about the LGBTQ population in a statistics unit. Teachers, especially those who are not teaching in the areas of English or History/Social Studies, may need more examples and models of how to actually address LGBT issues in their classroom teaching.

Connection to LGBT Community

Some prior literature has found that familiarity with LGBT people is related to more positive attitudes towards LGBT people in general and more action in the face of anti-LGBT bias among teachers, specifically.²⁶⁴ Therefore, we examined whether teachers' own actions and reported barriers to creating safe and welcoming schools for LGBT students varied by their own connections to the LGBT community.

Overall, teachers who knew LGBT people were more likely to take action on behalf of their LGBT students compared to those who did not know any LGBT people.²⁶⁵ Teachers who reported knowing at least one person who was

LGBT intervened more often when hearing anti-LGBT remarks. As shown in Figure 2.13, approximately a third of teachers who knew an LGBT person reported that they intervened very often when hearing each type of anti-LGBT remarks compared to around ten percent of teachers who did not know an LGBT person.²⁶⁶ In addition, teachers who knew an LGBT person were more likely to have engaged in each of the LGBT-supportive practices, with the exception of advising a GSA (see Table 2.4).²⁶⁷ Even though teachers who knew an LGBT person were more likely to engage in these efforts, they were no more or less likely to report experiencing barriers to taking these actions.²⁶⁸

Table 2.3 Intervention in Biased Remarks and LGBT-Supportive Practices by Subject Matter Taught

	All Teachers	History/ Social Studies/ Political Science	English/ Language Arts	Physical Science	Health/PE	Music/Art	Math
Intervention in Biased Remarks (% "often" or "very often")							
Racist Remarks	63.6%	64.1%	72.5%	59.4%	58.6%	66.7%	51.4%
Sexist Remarks	58.9%	57.7%	74.5%	58.0%	34.1%	57.9%	47.7%
Negative Remarks about Student Ability	57.6%	57.2%	67.5%	60.4%	31.4%	50.2%	53.5%
Homophobic Remarks	57.5%	56.5%	70.2%	59.1%	47.3%	55.6%	40.3%
"That's So Gay" or "You're So Gay"	57.2%	55.5%	72.6%	51.8%	46.4%	56.4%	43.2%
Negative Remarks about Gender Expression	53.9%	51.6%	68.6%	56.1%	22.2%	60.0%	39.8%
Some Other Practices	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.4%	0.0%
Negative Remarks about Transgender People	51.3%	44.4%	65.7%	52.0%	3.8%	61.9%	48.0%
Negative Religious Remarks	49.1%	56.0%	60.8%	41.3%	14.3%	58.3%	40.0%
LGBT-Supportive Practices							
Discuss with Students	38.0%	50.0%	47.3%	27.9%	26.2%	38.1%	22.5%
Support Students 1:1	28.4%	25.0%	43.2%	21.7%	31.0%	16.7%	12.7%
LGBT Topics in Curriculum	15.4%	26.1%	23.1%	13.3%	14.0%	7.0%	2.9%
Display Signs of Support	11.7%	11.4%	14.3%	16.7%	9.5%	4.8%	7.8%
Conduct/Advocate Staff PD	8.9%	8.0%	16.6%	3.3%	2.3%	4.8%	5.9%
Advocate Inclusive Policies	9.3%	9.1%	17.2%	3.3%	2.3%	9.5%	2.0%
Advise GSA	3.9%	5.7%	4.1%	3.3%	0.0%	4.7%	2.0%
Some Other Practices	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.4%	0.0%
Any Practice	53.6%	64.8%	63.9%	50.0%	48.8%	47.6%	36.3%

Teachers who identify as LGBT themselves might be even more driven to address LGBT issues in school, given their own experiences or connection to the issues. Yet, we did not find differences between LGBT and non-LGBT teachers in frequency of intervening in anti-LGBT comments.²⁶⁹ However, LGBT teachers were more likely to report engaging in LGBT-supportive practices (see Table 2.4).²⁷⁰ Specifically, LGBT teachers were more likely to have engaged in all types of supportive activities except for discussing

LGBT issues with a group of students and advising a GSA (the most and least commonly reported activities, respectively).²⁷¹

With respect to potential barriers in addressing, or attempting to address these issues, teachers overall did not differ in the number of barriers they reported facing by LGBT status.²⁷² We further examined the types of barriers—logistical, internal, or external—and their relationship with teacher practices, and found no differences between LGBT and non-LGBT teachers regarding logistical barriers. However, LGBT teachers were more likely to report experiencing external barriers, such as a non-supportive administration, than non-LGBT teachers (see Table 2.5).²⁷³ In contrast, LGBT teachers were less likely to cite internal barriers. Two of the three internal barriers may be indicative of negative beliefs about LGBT people (believing LGBT topics were inappropriate to address in school and believing it was unnecessary to address), which we would expect to be less common for LGBT teachers. Regarding the third internal barrier—LGBT topics not having come up at school—we would also expect LGBT teachers to be more attuned to LGBT issues, and thus, less likely to report that these topics have not come up. In addition, we might expect LGBT teachers to be even more likely to bring these issues up themselves. To date, there has been little research done on the experiences of LGBT

Figure 2.13 Intervention in Anti-LGBT Remarks by Knowing LGBT People
(Percentage Of Teachers Intervening “Very Often”)

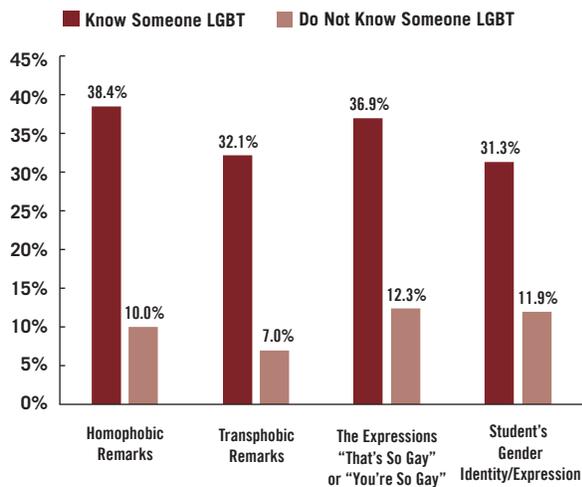


Table 2.4 LGBT-Supportive Practices by Connection to LGBT People

Type of Practice Engaged In	All Teachers	Know LGBT Person		LGBT Identity	
		Yes	No	LGBT	Non-LGBT
Discuss with Students	38.0%	36.4%	10.3%	45.8%	33.3%
Support Students 1:1	28.4%	29.7%	13.7%	40.9%	27.1%
LGBT Topics in Curriculum	15.4%	16.2%	3.3%	31.5%	14.%
Display Signs of Support	11.7%	13.2%	1.4%	43.9%	10.3%
Conduct/Advocate Staff PD	8.9%	10.3%	3.6%	25.2%	8.9%
Advocate Inclusive Policies	9.3%	9.1%	3.1%	21.7%	7.8%
Advise GSA	3.9%	4.3%	2.1%	7.5%	3.9%
Some Other Practices	0.2%	0.3%	0.0%	2.0%	0.2%
Any Practice	53.6%	52.7%	28.5%	74.0%	48.9%

teachers,²⁷⁴ and even less research that has examined differences between LGBT and non-LGBT teachers. Certainly, more work in this area needs to be done.

Table 2.5 Barriers to Engaging in LGBT-Supportive Practices by LGBT Identity Status

Type of Barrier	LGBT Identity	
	LGBT	Non-LGBT
External Barriers		
Unsupportive administration	21.5%	10.5%
Jeopardize employment	11.1%	7.4%
Parent/community backlash	32.3%	20.2%
Do not have autonomy	36.9%	14.4%
Internal Barriers		
Not necessary	1.7%	15.8%
Not appropriate	2.1%	10.3%
Has not come up	16.8%	43.0%
Logistical Barriers		
Do not have time	6.2%	10.6%
Do not know what to do	10.5%	10.2%
Other Barrier	0.5%	4.2%
Any Barrier	67.5%	74.2%

Professional Development and Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policy

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Research has suggested that teachers may not be adequately prepared by their pre-service training or in-service professional development (PD) to address issues related to bullying, bias, and LGBTQ students.²⁷⁵ Therefore, we wanted to assess the extent to whether teachers in our survey received professional development on these issues and the relationship of this PD to their professional practices. In this section, we assess the relevant professional development that has been provided to teachers in areas of bullying, harassment, diversity, and LGBT student issues, explore their potential benefits, and identify areas of need for further professional development for teachers.

Professional Development Received

We asked teachers about whether they had received any professional development (PD) or training in four main areas: 1) bullying and harassment; 2) diversity or multicultural education; 3) lesbian, gay, or bisexual (LGB) student issues; and 4) transgender student issues. For each area, teachers noted if they

received this professional development during their pre-service education (e.g., college courses or student teaching), in their current position, and/or in a previous position. As shown in Figure 2.14, the vast majority of teachers had received professional development on bullying/harassment and diversity (85.1%, 76.4%, respectively), most commonly in their current teaching position. However, less than a third of teachers reported having any professional development on LGB (32.9%) or transgender (23.6%) student issues.

Professional Development and Intervention in Biased Remarks

Professional development (PD) on bullying/harassment was not related to the frequency of teachers' intervention in biased remarks. However, PD on diversity/multicultural education, LGB student issues, and transgender student issues were all related to slightly more intervention in biased remarks.²⁷⁶ For example, as shown in Table 2.6, teachers who had received PD on diversity issues had an overall average intervention score of 3.55 (a score of 3 represents a response of "sometimes" and a score of 4 represents "often") whereas teachers who had not received PD on diversity had an average intervention score of 3.28.

Figure 2.14 Professional Development on Bullying, Diversity, and LGBT Issues

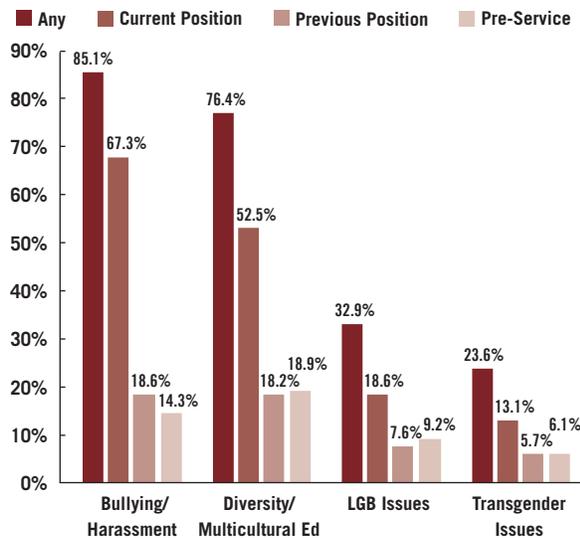


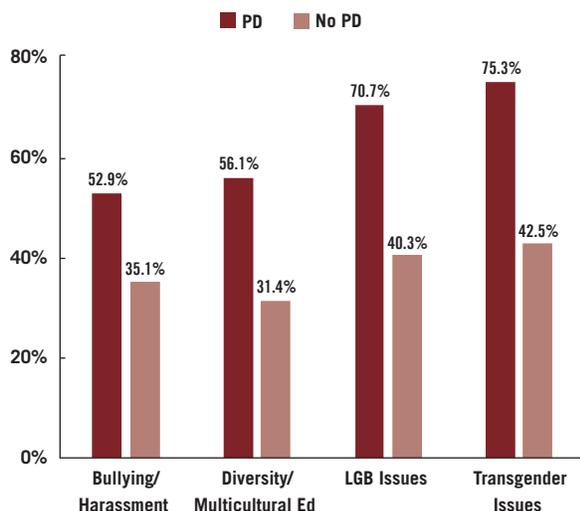
Table 2.6 Frequency of Intervention in Biased Language by Professional Development

(mean, i.e., average, scores for intervention across all types of biased remarks)

Received Any PD On...	Mean Frequency of Intervention	
	Any PD	No PD
Bullying	3.50	3.46
Diversity/Multicultural Ed	3.55	3.28
LGB Student Issues	3.64	3.42
Transgender Student Issues	3.69	3.44

Note: mean scores ranged from 1-5 ("never" to "very often") for frequency of intervention

Figure 2.15 Engagement in LGBT-Supportive Practices by Professional Development (PD)
(Percentage Teachers Who Has Engaged In Practices)



Professional Development and LGBT-Supportive Practices

All types of PD (i.e., bullying, diversity, LGB issues, and transgender issues) were related to LGBT-supportive practices. For each type of professional development, teachers who had received it were more likely to engage in practices supportive of LGBT students than those who had not (see Figure 2.15).²⁷⁷ For example, as shown in Figure 2.15, over 70% of teachers who had received PD in LGB or transgender student issues had engaged in LGBT-supportive practices, compared to just over 40% of teachers who had not. Given that content in PD may overlap, and thus one type of PD might be related to another type of PD,²⁷⁸ we wanted to assess which PD opportunities were most predictive of teachers' practices. Schools and districts often have limited funds and resources for professional development, and thus, we wanted to examine which type of professional development might be the most effective in facilitating LGBT-supportive practices. Further analysis indicated that PD on bullying was no longer predictive of increases in LGBT-supportive practices once all the other types of PD were considered.²⁷⁹ This suggests that PD on bullying that does not include content on diversity or LGBT student issues may not provide the necessary training for teachers to be supportive for their LGBTQ students.

Differences in Professional Development by School Characteristics

Our prior research on elementary educators and K–12 school principals indicated that some types of schools may be more likely to provide professional development on these topics than others.²⁸⁰ We examined differences in teachers' reports of receiving professional development in their current position by characteristics of the school where they worked. There were differences by school level, region, and school SES:

- School level.** There were no school level differences in having received PD on diversity. However, with regard to the other three types of PD—PD on bullying, LGB issues, and transgender issues, high school teachers were more likely than middle school teachers to have received PD on these topics in their current position (PD bullying: 72.1% vs. 65.3%; PD LGB: 21.3% vs. 15.3%; PD transgender: 16.2% vs. 10.8%).²⁸¹
- Region.** There were no regional differences with regard to receiving PD on diversity. However, there were differences for other types of PD. Specifically, teachers in the South were more likely to have had PD on bullying in their current position than were teachers in the West (72.9% vs. 61.8%). Regarding PD on LGB and transgender issues, teachers in the Northeast were more likely to have received PD on these topics in their current position than teachers in the South (LGB: 24.5% vs. 13.5%; transgender: 16.4% vs. 8.6%).²⁸²
- School socioeconomic status (SES).** There were no differences in receiving PD on bullying or on diversity based on school SES. However, teachers in schools with lower SES were less likely to have received LGBT-related PD in their current position as compared to teachers in higher SES schools (LGB: 23.1% vs. 14.0%; transgender: 16.4% vs. 9.1%).²⁸³

No differences were found for school type (public, private non-religious, religious) or locale (urban, suburban, rural/small town); however, when we took into account the overlap between school SES and these school characteristics, we did find some notable differences: 1) private religious school teachers were less likely to have PD on bullying than other teachers, 2) teachers in small town/rural areas were less likely to have PD on LGB issues than teachers in urban or suburban areas, and 3) teachers in urban areas were more likely to have PD on transgender issues than other teachers.

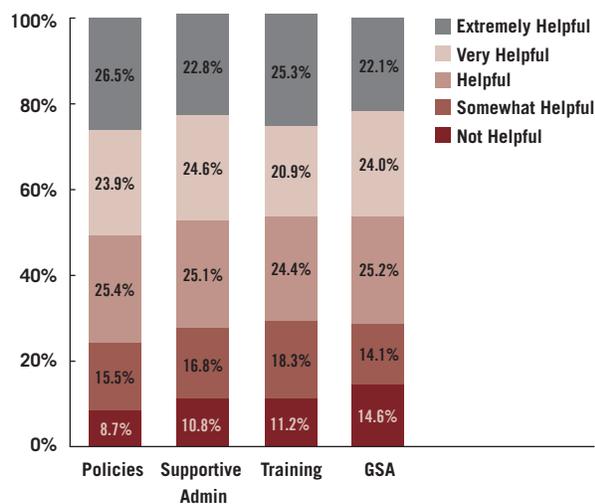
These findings indicate that when it comes to addressing bias, PD may help to increase teachers' reactive and proactive efforts. However, PD on bullying was not related to teachers' intervention in biased remarks. PD on bullying was somewhat related to LGBT-supportive teacher practices, but the relationship was relatively slight. Some evidence has indicated that school-based efforts to address bullying/harassment rarely include content related to bias or prejudice, particularly in regards to sexual orientation or gender identity/expression.²⁸⁴ It is possible that the type of PD teachers receive on bullying is lacking of content that addresses bias-based bullying and, therefore would be unlikely to be effective in preparing teachers to respond to student behaviors based on prejudice and bias. Further examination of the content and effects of PD bullying programs is warranted.

Even though almost all teachers have received PD on bullying and diversity issues, the vast majority of teachers are not receiving PD on LGBT student issues, and thus may be unprepared to serve this student population. Schools and teacher education programs need to be providing the appropriate educational opportunities for their teachers in order to ensure that teachers not only are adequately trained to respond to bias of all kinds, but are also able to create positive classroom environments that are welcoming and affirming to all students, including LGBT students.

Helpful Efforts for Improving School Climate for LGBTQ Students

Professional development is one, albeit important, strategy for creating more positive school climates. Other types of efforts may help to make schools safer and more affirming, such as having: anti-bullying and/or anti-discrimination policies that explicitly protect LGBTQ students, school administrators who openly address LGBTQ student safety issues and support teachers who take action, and student clubs that address LGBT issues, such as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs). We asked the teachers in our survey how helpful they thought the four above mentioned efforts would be in creating safer schools for LGBTQ students: 1) GSAs, 2) teacher training that includes information on dealing with LGBT harassment at schools, 3) supportive administration (i.e., having the principal or superintendent more openly address LGBT student safety and support teacher PD on these issues, and 4) inclusive policies. As shown in Figure 2.16, the vast majority of teachers believed that each of these efforts would be helpful, with about half noting that they would be very or extremely helpful. Although teachers strongly endorsed each of these strategies, they felt most strongly about the value of inclusive policies, with more than nine in ten (91.3%) teachers indicating policies would be helpful, compared to fewer than nine in ten of teachers who reported that the three other type of efforts would be helpful—supportive administration: 89.2%, teacher training: 88.8%, GSAs: 85.6%).²⁸⁵ Teachers may look toward policy for both permission and guidance for how to address LGBT student safety. Therefore, it is

Figure 2.16 Helpfulness of Efforts to Create Safer Schools for LGBT Students



critical that schools not only ensure their anti-bullying/harassment and anti-discrimination policies enumerated sexual orientation and gender identity/expression, among others, as protected categories. Furthermore, schools should fully implement these policies and ensure that all educators are made aware of them each new school year.

ANTI-BULLYING/HARASSMENT POLICY

School policies that address in-school bullying, harassment, and assault are powerful tools for teachers to ensure schools are safe for all students. Our recent research assessing anti-bullying policies from all U.S. school districts demonstrated that the majority of districts across the country had some form of anti-bullying policy.²⁸⁶ However, as we noted earlier in this report, policies that specifically prohibit bullying based upon personal characteristics may be more effective.²⁸⁷ By implementing such policies, schools send a message that bullying, harassment, and assault, including those incidents that are related to bias, are not tolerated. Therefore, we also asked teachers who reported that their school had an anti-bullying policy whether the policy explicitly mentions sexual orientation and gender identity or expression (i.e., LGBT-enumerated). Although we only specifically ask about LGBT enumeration, our prior research indicates that schools that enumerate anti-bullying policies for

LGBT students are also very likely to enumerate based on other characteristics such as race and religion.²⁸⁸ Thus, we would also expect LGBT-enumerated policies to address many of the types of bias we analyze throughout this report.

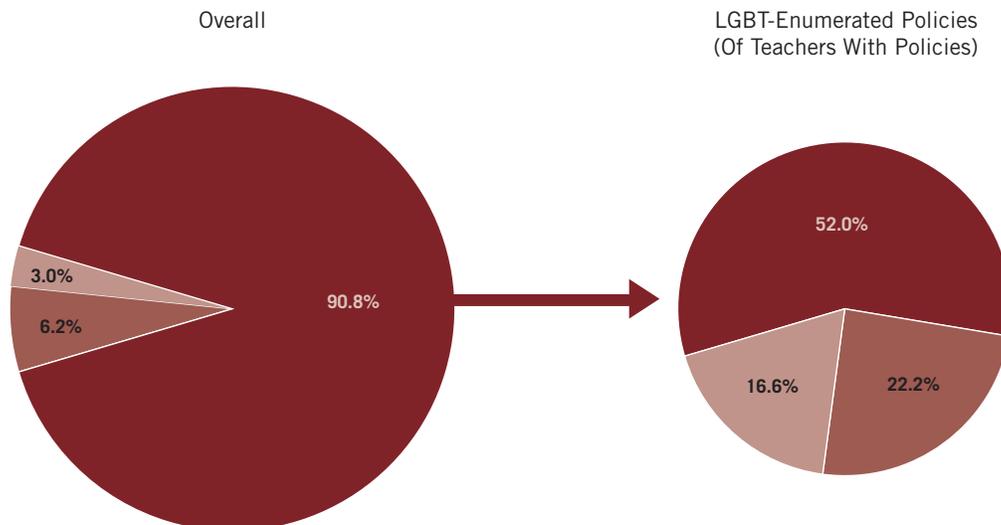
Reports from teachers in this survey corroborate findings that most schools have some type of policy: nine in ten (90.8%) of the teachers believed their school had an anti-bullying policy (see Figure 2.17). As shown in Figure 2.17, just over half of teachers (52.0%) reported that their school's policy was LGBT-enumerated for both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression.

Effects of Policies

Anti-bullying Policies and Teacher Perceptions of School Climate

As school anti-bullying policies are intended to improve school climate in schools, we analyzed whether teachers' perceptions of school climate varied by policy type (no policy, generic policy, LGBT-enumerated policy). We examined differences in teachers' perceptions of the seriousness of bullying and harassment at their school²⁸⁹ and differences in teachers' perceptions of student safety based on the availability of anti-bullying policies.²⁹⁰ However, we found no differences by policy type. We did find, however, the following significant differences in teachers' reports of biased remarks and bias-based bullying and harassment by policy type.

Figure 2.17 Teachers' Report of Prevalence of School Bullying, Harassment and Assault Policies



Biased Remarks

Having a policy was related to teachers reporting more frequent biased remarks. Specifically, we found that teachers in schools without any type of policy reported hearing sexist remarks and expressions using gay in a negative way (e.g., “that’s so gay”) less often than teachers in schools with any type of policy. For example, as shown in Figure 2.18, 25.3% of teachers in schools with no policy heard sexist remarks often or very often compared to 32.4% of teachers in schools with a generic policy and 36.3% in schools with an enumerated policy.²⁹¹ The lower incidence of biased remarks in schools with no policy relative to those with a generic or enumerated policy could be indicative of there being a lesser perceived need for an anti-bullying policy.

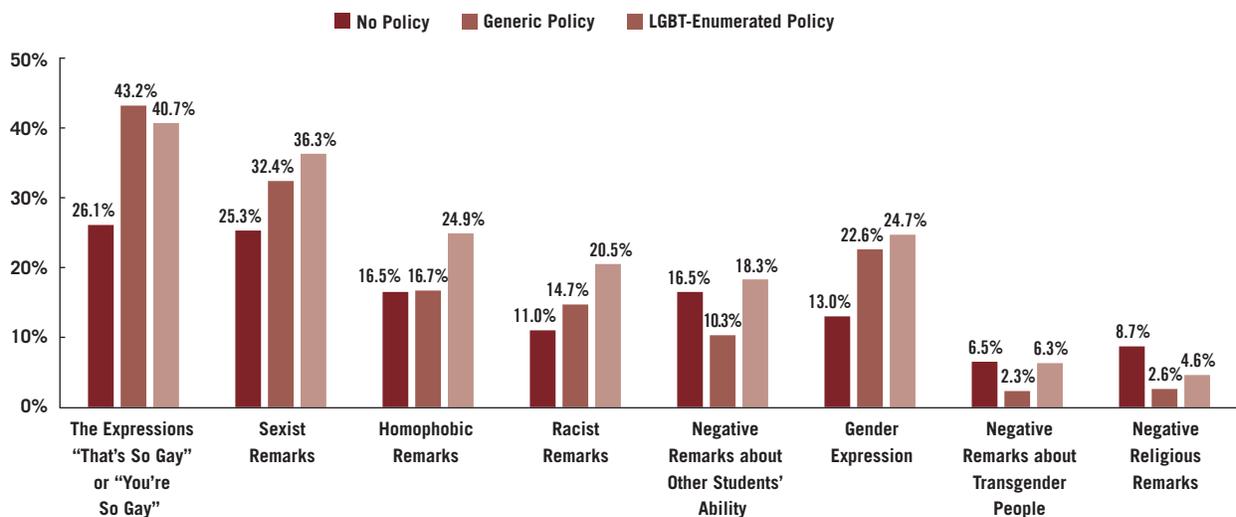
We also found that teachers from schools with an LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policy were more likely to hear homophobic (24.9% vs. 16.7%), negative religious (4.6% vs. 2.6%), negative transgender (6.3% vs. 2.3%), and negative gender expression (24.7% vs. 22.6%) remarks than teachers in a school with a generic anti-bullying policy. In addition, teachers in schools with an enumerated policy heard negative remarks about ability more often than those in schools with no policy (they were not different from teachers in schools with a generic policy). It is possible that teachers in schools with such policies are more aware of students making

such remarks, as perhaps their enumerated policy helps teachers be more attuned to issues of bias. These findings may also be reflective of schools that saw a need for LGBT-enumerated policies as a result of a higher incidence of anti-LGBT remarks. Finally, it is also possible that enumerated policies are not working effectively or they may not be sufficient to address language usage. More research is needed to understand the relationship between policies and biased remarks and the factors that may be impeding effective implementation of anti-bullying policies.

Bullying and Harassment

Next, we explored differences in the frequency of bullying and harassment by the availability of certain anti-bullying policies. In line with our findings on biased remarks from the previous section of this report on the student respondents from our survey, teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies often reported more biased behaviors. As displayed in Figure 2.19, bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity (12.5% often/very often vs. 11.6%), appearance (31.2% vs. 28.4%), academic ability (18.6% vs. 4.7%) were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with no policies²⁹². In some instances, bullying and harassment were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than generic anti-bullying policies. For example, bullying and harassment based on religion was more likely to be reported by teachers in schools with LGBT-

Figure 2.18 Teachers’ Reports of Prevalence of Biased Remarks from Students by Policy Type
(Percentage Hearing “Often” or “Very Often”)



enumerated policies (3.3%) than generic policies (1.0%), Again, these findings may reflect that teachers in schools with enumerated policies are more sensitive to issues of bias, and are thus, more likely to identify bias-based bullying when it occurs.

Anti-Bullying Policies and Teacher Intervention of Bullying, Harassment, and Name-Calling

School anti-bullying policies not only offer students protections against bullying and harassment in schools, but they also offer teachers and other staff a mechanism in which to identify, monitor, and prevent such behavior from occurring and escalating. As such, we explored whether there were differences in teachers' comfort in intervening in biased remarks, and in frequency of intervention in biased remarks according to the presence of an anti-bullying policy.

With regard to teachers' comfort in addressing bullying behavior, we found that teachers in schools with anti-bullying policies reported higher levels of comfort addressing bullying based on sexual orientation (enumerated policy: 77.7%, generic policy: 74.9%, no policy: 53.9%) compared to teachers in schools with no policy (see Figure 2.20). We did not find any significant differences, however, in comfort level between teachers in schools with an enumerated bullying policy and those in schools with a generic policy.

With regard to intervening in biased remarks, we found no significant differences by policy type in teachers' comfort in addressing remarks or in their actual frequency of reported intervention.²⁹³

Anti-Bullying Policies and Teacher Professional Development

School anti-bullying policies can also offer teachers opportunities to learn more about best practices on how to address bullying and harassment in schools. Policies, for example, can mandate that teachers undergo training to educate them on bullying prevention. In fact, our previous research found that over a quarter of U.S. school district anti-bullying policies did

Figure 2.20 Comfort Level Intervening in Bias-Based Bullying Behavior by Policy Type
(Percentage of Teachers Feeling "Somewhat" Or "Very Uncomfortable")

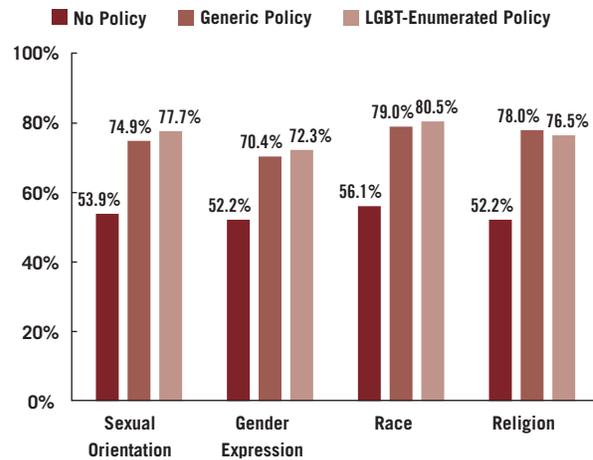
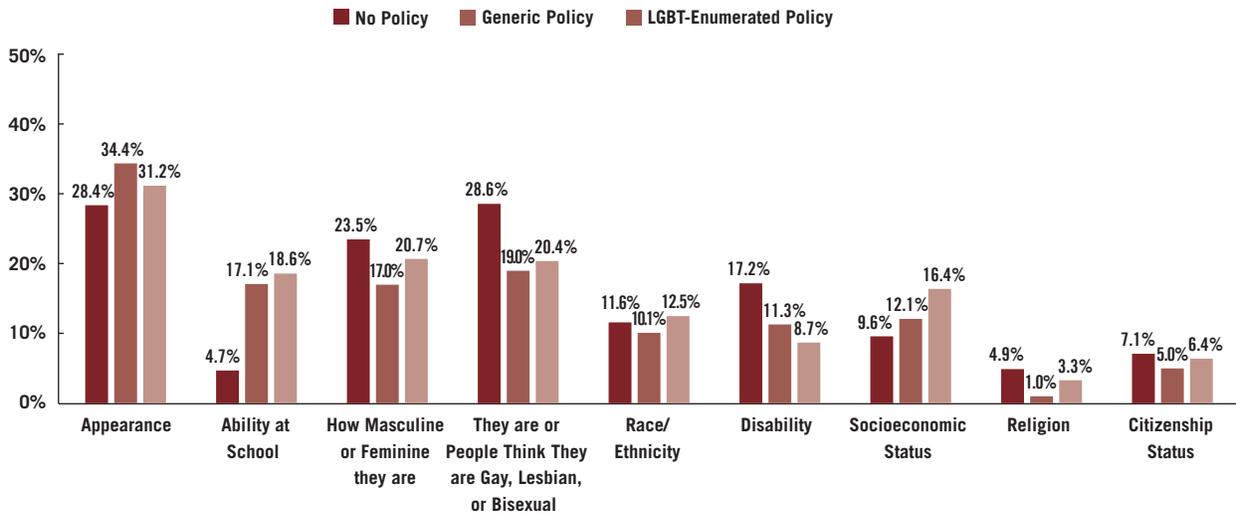


Figure 2.19 Teachers' Reports of Prevalence of Bullying and Harassment by Policy Type
(Percentage Reporting Bullying And Harassment Occurring "Often" or "Very Often")

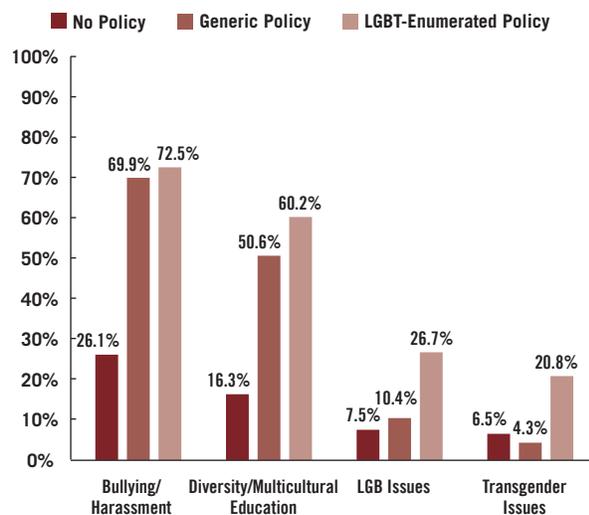


explicitly mandate professional development for school staff.²⁹⁴ Thus, we examined differences in teachers' receipt of certain types of professional development in their current position by whether or not certain anti-bullying policies had been instituted at the school.²⁹⁵ We found that teachers in schools with no anti-bullying policy were less likely to receive professional development on bullying/harassment issues. For example, as shown in Figure 2.21, teachers in schools with no policy were less likely than teachers in schools with either a generic or LGBT-enumerated policy to receive professional development on issues related to bullying or harassment (26.1% vs. 69.9% and 72.5%, respectively). Having any type of policy was also related to greater likelihood of having received diversity/multicultural education professional development; however, teachers in schools with an enumerated policy were most likely to have received professional development on this topic. With regard to both types of LGBT-related professional development, teachers in schools with enumerated policies were more likely than teachers with generic policies and teachers with no policies to receive professional development on these topics (see also Figure 2.21), and there were no differences between teachers in schools with generic policies and with no policies. Based on these findings, it is clear that having anti-bullying policies, particularly ones that are LGBT-enumerated, increase access to professional development opportunities that

could help teachers address bias, bullying, and harassment in schools.

Overall, anti-bullying policies can serve as important tools in reducing bullying and harassment in schools. Earlier in this report, we shared findings indicating that anti-bullying policies, particularly ones that are LGBT-enumerated, may make students feel safer, and in some cases, may lead to less hearing of biased remarks and lower levels of victimization. Our findings on teachers, however, tell a somewhat different story. Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were more likely to report higher incidence of certain biased remarks and bullying and harassment. However, this does not necessarily mean that enumerated policies are resulting in greater levels of bias and bullying. Whether through professional development or by virtue of explicit statements within the policies prohibiting various type of bias-based bullying, it may be that teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies are more attuned to incidences of biased remarks or bullying and that as a result, students feel more protected by their teachers and, thus, safer at school. This notion is further supported by the fact that having an anti-bullying policy, particularly one that is LGBT-enumerated, made teachers more comfortable in addressing bullying behavior against students based on their sexual orientation. Furthermore, policies appear to facilitate professional development—teachers in schools with policies were more likely to receive professional development on related issues. However, with regard to LGBT-related professional development, only enumerated policies were related to greater likelihood of receiving this type of professional development. These findings speak to the potential for policies to result in necessary training and education for teachers, and also to the specific value of enumerated policies for preparing teachers to address anti-LGBT bias in schools.

Figure 2.21 Percentage of Teachers Who Received Professional Development by Policy Type



Comparisons between 2005 and 2015

As mentioned, GLSEN originally conducted this study in 2005 to gain a greater understanding of the general perceptions and experiences of students and teachers in the United States. With student reports on school safety, we saw a complex and changing picture of the school landscape emerge. Specifically related to their reports about teachers, students in 2015 were somewhat more likely to have heard biased remarks in school from teachers or other school staff, and they reported that staff were less likely to intervene when homophobic and sexist remarks were made, two of the most common forms of biased language in school. In order to understand these findings, as well as to assess whether the teacher vantage point has changed regarding school climate, we examined differences between the teacher samples in 2005 and 2015.

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL SAFETY

With regard to teachers' perceptions of how serious a problem bullying, name-calling, and harassment was at their school, there were no appreciable differences between 2005 and 2015.²⁹⁶ There were, however, some small but

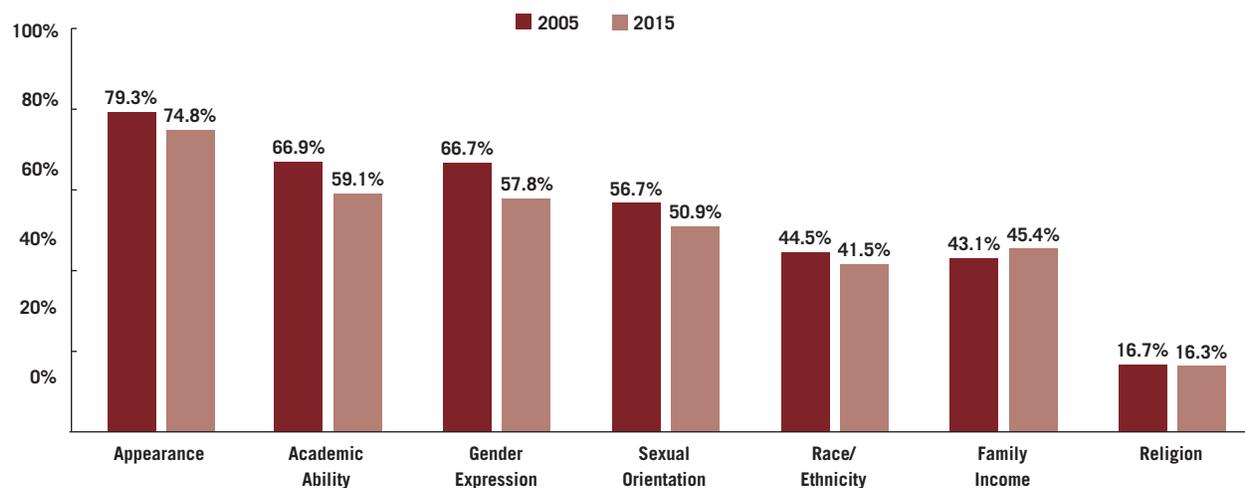
notable differences between 2005 and 2015 regarding teachers' perceptions of how often students were bullied, called names, or harassed at school because of personal characteristics. As shown in Figure 2.22, teachers in 2015 reported that other students were bullied less often regarding their appearance, academic ability, gender expression, and sexual orientation.²⁹⁷ In both years, the highest frequency was reported for bullying based on appearance, followed by academic ability, and gender expression (see Figure 2.22).²⁹⁸

HEARING BIASED REMARKS AT SCHOOL

There were significant differences between years with regard to how often teachers heard biased remarks at school, with the exception of racist remarks and negative remarks about religion, which remained the same over time. As shown in Figure 2.23, teachers in 2015 reported lower incidences of all other remarks.²⁹⁹ The largest decreases were with hearing remarks like “that’s so gay” and hearing other homophobic remarks (e.g., “fag,” “dyke”).

We also compared whether there were differences across years in teachers' comfort in intervention regarding certain biased remarks about which we asked in both 2005 and 2015: homophobic remarks, racist remarks, sexist

Figure 2.22 Teacher Reports on Prevalence of Name-Calling, Bullying, and Harassment Based on Personal Characteristics: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting “Sometimes,” “Often,” or “Very Often”)



remarks, and negative religious remarks. As shown in Figure 2.24, for all four types, teachers reported a lower comfort level with intervention in 2015 than in 2005. Perhaps not surprising because of the lower levels of comfort across years, when examining differences in intervention in these remarks, teachers in 2015 also reported lower levels of intervention with each of the four type of remarks. For example, as shown in Figure 2.24, 88.6% of teachers in 2005 reported intervening regarding sexist remarks at least sometimes compared to 78.9% of teachers in 2015.³⁰⁰ The decrease for intervention regarding negative remarks about religion was somewhat larger between 2005 and 2015 when compared to the other types of remarks.

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING LGBTQ STUDENTS

As discussed, research has shown that LGBTQ students experience high rates of victimization that can have a detrimental effect on educational outcomes, such as attendance, academic performance, and educational attainment. Yet, educators who are supportive of these students can help to ameliorate the negative effects of a hostile school climate. GLSEN has worked, since its founding, to provide professional development opportunities and curricular resources that would be beneficial for working with LGBTQ students. Thus, we wished to examine whether

there were differences across time in teachers' sense of obligation towards LGBTQ students, as well as in their beliefs about the LGBTQ student experiences in their schools and what might be helpful measures to help create more affirming and safer learning environments for this population of students.

With regard to beliefs as to whether educators have an obligation to ensure a safe learning environment for LGBT students, there were no significant differences between teachers in 2005 and 2015. In both years, over 80% of teachers reported that they somewhat or strongly agreed with that statement (85.0% in 2005 vs. 83.3% in 2015). However, with regard

Figure 2.24 Teacher Reports on Intervention Re: Biased Remarks by Students: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting "Sometimes," "Often" or "Very Often")

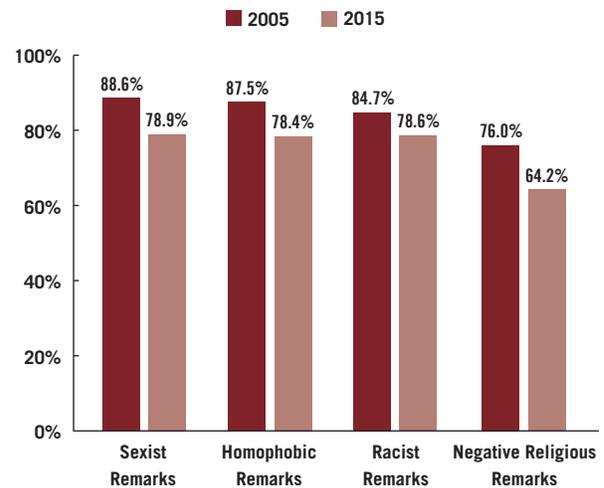
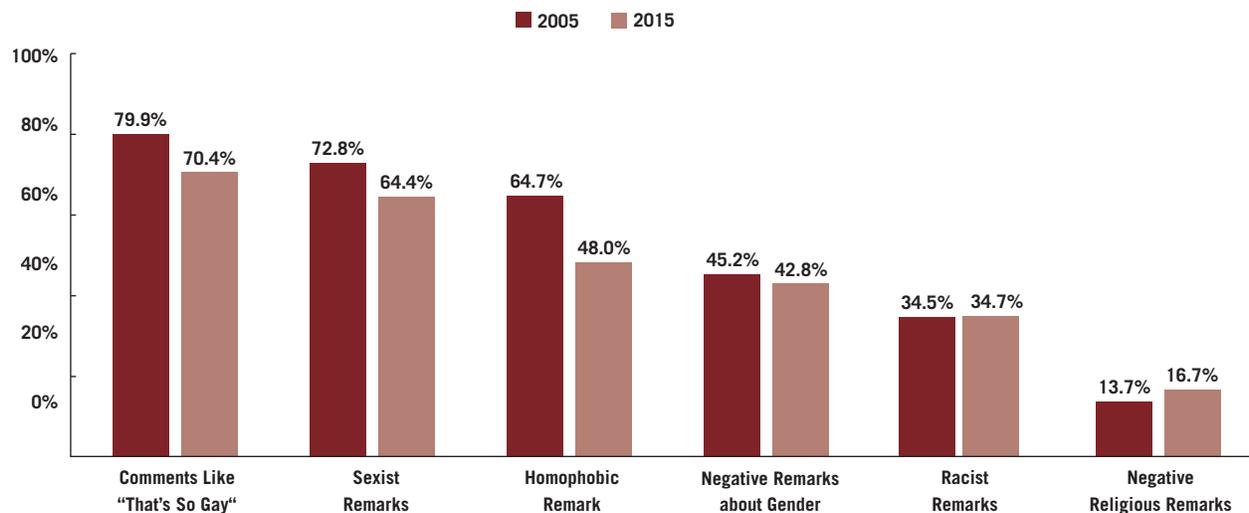


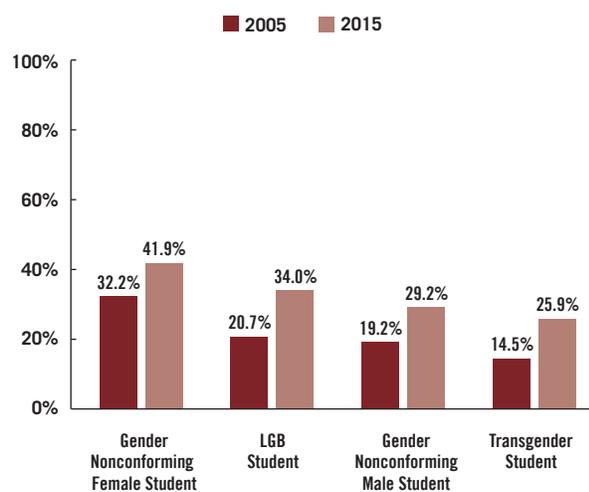
Figure 2.23 Teacher Reports on Biased Language Use by Students: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting "Sometimes," "Often" or "Very Often")



to teachers' beliefs about students' safety, in 2015 teachers were more likely to believe that LGBT and gender nonconforming students would feel safe in their school.³⁰¹ As shown in Figure 2.25, the most notable difference between years was with teachers' beliefs about transgender students—14.5% of teachers in 2005 believed that these students would feel very safe in their schools compared to 25.9% in 2015. Nevertheless, the perceived safety for transgender students remained the lowest in both years.³⁰² Further, the perceived safety for gender nonconforming female students was highest in both years.

We also examined differences between 2005 and 2015 in how helpful teachers perceived different LGBT supports would be in their schools—teacher training on LGBT student issues; anti-harassment and anti-discrimination policies that explicitly protect LGBT students; student clubs on school campus, such as GSAs; and having the principal and/or superintendent more openly address safety issues for LGBT students and support educators who do so. Teachers in 2015 believed all four supports would be more helpful than did teachers in 2005 (see Figure 2.26).³⁰³ In both years, policies were seen as most helpful.³⁰⁴ It is noteworthy that the largest increase in perceived helpfulness was with student clubs (GSA)—28.2% of teachers in 2005 thought GSA clubs would be very or extremely helpful compared to 46.1% of teachers in 2015.

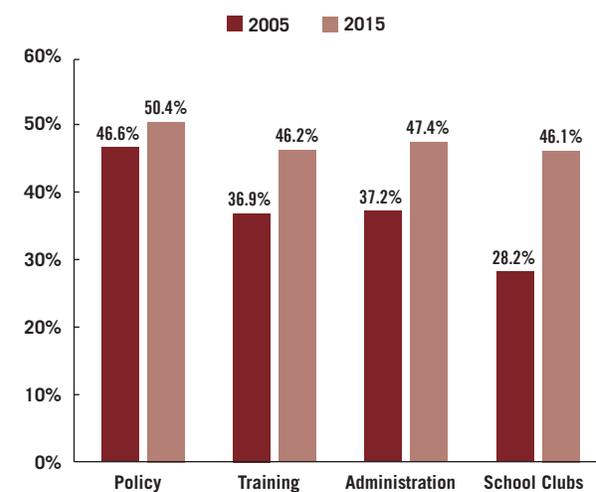
Figure 2.25 Teacher Perceptions of Safety at School for LGBT and Gender Nonconforming Students: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting “Very Safe”)



SUMMARY

Although teachers did not differ between 2005 and 2015 in how serious they thought name-calling, bullying, and harassment were at their schools, teachers in 2015 largely reported that students felt safer in their schools in 2015 and also largely reported lower incidences of biased remarks. Yet, these more positive perceptions did not hold true for safety and bias related to race/ethnicity and religion. Teachers did not differ between the years in how safe they perceived students to be and the frequency of biased remarks related to these two characteristics. For example, even though anti-LGBT remarks remained higher in 2015 than biased remarks about race/ethnicity or religion, they appear to have decreased over time whereas those remarks had not changed. In addition, teachers did not differ between the two years in how safe they thought students would be because of their family income. Together, these findings indicate that, while more is needed to ensure schools are safe and affirming for LGBT students, it may also be important to consider how to improve school climate with regards to matters of race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status (SES), and religion. Future research should seek to identify best practices in reducing bias based on race/ethnicity, SES, and religion, and continue to track teachers' views on school climate to discern if the changes (or lack of changes) we saw between 2005 and 2015 continue.

Figure 2.26 Teacher Perceived Helpfulness of LGBT Supports: 2005 and 2015
(Percent Reporting “Very Helpful” Or “Extremely Helpful”)



It is important to note that teachers' own reports on intervention regarding biased language corroborate the changes in student reports over time as documented in this report; i.e., teachers are intervening less often. From teacher reports, we see that this change may be a result of the change in their comfort levels in intervention. Thus, teachers in 2015 may be less prepared for handling these behaviors among their students, which then may indicate a continuing, and perhaps greater need for professional development.

With regard to teachers' perceptions of the experiences of LGBTQ students specifically, we saw a similar and high sense of obligation for schools to create positive learning environments for this population in both 2005 and 2015. Further, similar to findings related to general student safety, we saw that teachers in 2015 were more likely to think students in their schools would feel safe in their schools regarding LGBT or gender nonconforming status. Perhaps most notable were the increases in perceived usefulness of LGBT-related supports in schools. Not only were all four supports seen as more helpful in 2015 than in 2005, but all four were rated more similarly in their perceived helpfulness in 2015 than 2005. Thus, these findings may be indicative of greater support among teachers today for implementation of institutional changes in their schools for the betterment of the LGBT student experience.

Conclusion

Teachers play a critical role in ensuring that students learn in the safest and most affirming environment possible. Findings from this national survey of secondary teachers provide valuable information about how educators are addressing bias and safety issues in their schools. They also offer important insights into the potential barriers and facilitators of these supportive actions.

Given that teachers are on the front lines of most student interaction during the school day, it is not surprising that, like the students (as reported earlier in this report), teachers are witnessing incidents of bullying and harassment among the student body. Approximately half of the teachers in our study believed that bullying, name-calling, or harassment was a serious problem at their school. Similar to reports from students, teachers reported commonly hearing biased remarks such as “that’s so gay” or “you’re so gay,” sexist remarks, and negative remarks about other students’ ability. They also noted the regularity with which bullying, harassment, and name-calling occurred, specifically with regard to incidents targeting students’ physical appearance, academic ability, and gender expression.

Most teachers reported intervening when hearing biased remarks, and they did so most often when hearing sexist remarks and least often with negative remarks about transgender people. The extent to which teachers felt comfortable taking action was related to teacher intervention; and whereas at least half of teachers reported being very comfortable intervening in all types of biased remarks, teachers were most comfortable intervening in negative remarks about ability and least comfortable intervening in negative remarks related to gender expression and transgender people. Most teachers also reported feeling comfortable addressing bullying behaviors, but noted being most comfortable addressing bullying based on race or religion and least comfortable addressing bullying based on a student’s actual or perceived sexual orientation or gender identity/expression. Furthermore, when considering changes over time, teachers reported intervening in biased remarks less often in 2015 than they did in 2005. This may be a result of

the fact that teachers in 2015 also reported lower levels of comfort intervening than they did in 2005. These findings point to the need for teachers to be more prepared to address issues of bias and anti-LGBT behavior in schools, and particularly with regard to behaviors related to gender identity and gender expression.

Given the preponderance of research showing that LGBTQ students often experience high levels of victimization, as detailed both in this report and in other prior research,³⁰⁵ we examined teachers’ specific practices related to LGBTQ student issues. The overwhelming majority of teachers in our survey felt that teachers and other educators had an obligation to ensure safe and supportive learning environments for LGBTQ students. However, this sense of obligation did not always translate into action, with only about half of teachers reporting having engaged in any LGBTQ-related practices. Most commonly, teachers indicated that they had worked directly with students by providing one-on-one LGBTQ student support and discussing LGBTQ issues with students, and were less likely to report engaging in activities that may have a broader impact on school climate, such as including LGBT people or topics in their curriculum, educating other school staff, advocating for inclusive policies, or advising a GSA or similar student group. Although direct support to LGBTQ students may provide opportunities for meaningful interactions and are extremely important, they are also potentially limited in their reach; whereas activities addressing school climate more systemically, such as GSAs or inclusive policies, may have a greater impact on the broader school community and may be more effective in preventing biased behaviors. However, the greater visibility of serving a more formalized or public role may feel too risky, or teachers may not feel qualified enough, as many cited concerns about resistance from their administration or backlash from parents and community members. Perhaps teachers may feel not expert enough or do not have enough time, as those were also concerns for some, but the most common reasons teachers gave for not engaging in LGBT-supportive practices were related to their own internal beliefs—specifically that addressing LGBTQ issues was

not necessary, not appropriate, or not relevant because these issues had not arisen in class. In order to increase teachers' supportive practices, different strategies may be necessary to address the varying barriers to action. For example, addressing internal barriers might require a focus on raising awareness and empathy about hostile school climate experienced by LGBTQ students, whereas a focus on increasing school administrators' support might be most useful in overcoming administrative barriers. Furthermore, providing concrete resources directly to teachers might be particularly helpful for teachers who face logistical barriers, such as not knowing how to incorporate LGBT issues into their teaching.

The aforementioned factors that may impede teachers' actions in the face of bias are not necessarily insurmountable. Our findings indicate that professional development may help teachers become more aware of the bias students face in schools and more equipped to respond. Specifically, teachers that had received professional development on diversity/multicultural education or on LGBT student issues reported intervening in biased remarks more often and were more likely to engage in LGBTQ-supportive practices; the effect of LGBT-related professional development on LGBTQ-supportive practices was particularly striking. Unfortunately, teachers were unlikely to receive this type of professional development in their pre-service training or when working in schools—although over three fourths of teachers had some type of professional development on diversity/multicultural education, less than a third had received any training on LGBT student issues. It is worth noting that, overall, professional development on bullying and harassment was not related to intervention in biased remarks or engagements in LGBT-supportive practices. This suggests that training on bullying that does not include content on diversity or LGBT student issues may not be effective for equipping teachers to deal with bias-based bullying and other LGBTQ-student issues. Thus, there appears to be a need to expand the professional development opportunities and requirements at both the pre-service and in-service level to ensure that teachers have the knowledge, skills, and confidence to respond to biased behaviors

and effectively support LGBTQ students in their classrooms. Indeed, the vast majority of teachers in this survey indicated that they would find teacher professional development on these topics helpful in making schools safer and more affirming for LGBTQ students.

Regarding anti-bullying/harassment policies, the findings were somewhat mixed. Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were actually more likely to report higher incidence of certain biased remarks and bullying and harassment. This may be because teachers in these schools were likely more attuned to incidents of bias and aware of incidences of biased remarks or bullying and harassment, however more research is needed to better understand this dynamic. In some instances, simply having any anti-bullying policy was enough to make a difference in teachers' dispositions. For example, we found that having any type of anti-bullying policy was related to greater levels of comfort in addressing bullying behavior against students based on their sexual orientation. Surprisingly, the level of comfort was no greater in schools with enumerated policies as compared to schools with generic policies. And yet, over 9 in 10 teachers in our survey indicated that enumerated policies would help to ensure LGBTQ students are safe and respected in their schools. Further research should explore how these policies are implemented and the mechanisms with which they may affect teachers' perceptions and practices.

Our findings suggest that these anti-bullying policies may facilitate professional development. Teachers in schools with enumerated policies were more likely to have received professional development on issues related to LGBTQ students and on diversity/multicultural education. Nevertheless, half of teachers indicated that their school did not have an enumerated policy. Therefore, it is important that existing state and district level enumerated anti-bullying policies be implemented at the school level, and that advocates and educators continue to push for enactment of enumerated policies with professional development mandates in areas that do not currently have them.

Teachers are not a homogeneous group. Each teacher brings to the classroom their own unique set of experiences and perspectives, which may influence how they deal with issues of bullying, harassment, and bias at school. For example, our results show that teachers with more experience were more likely to intervene in the biased remarks, engage in LGBT-supportive practices, and reported fewer barriers in doing so. Perhaps this is because more experienced teachers have developed greater confidence and skills, have more job security, and/or received more professional development. We also found teachers' subject area to be relevant—although few teachers were incorporating LGBT people and topics into their teaching, those teaching English or History/Social Studies were most likely to do so than those who teach in other subject areas. This pattern held true for most LGBTQ-supportive practices as well, suggesting that more attention should be given to helping teachers of all disciplines address anti-LGBT bias and support LGBTQ students. Further, we found that teachers who reported knowing someone who was LGBT were more likely to take action to address LGBT issues in their schools—they both intervened more often when hearing anti-LGBT remarks and, overall, were more likely to have engaged in LGBT-supportive practices. Efforts to increase pre-service and practicing teachers' familiarity with LGBT people and communities may serve to foster greater action in support of LGBT students.

Overall, teachers remain an important lever of change for creating school environments where all students can learn and develop. However, in order to take action and be effective in responding to bias and creating respectful classrooms, teachers must have the proper preparation and support. School administrators must support teachers in these endeavors, whether it is through professional development opportunities or implementing inclusive anti-bullying policies. Teacher education experts note that developing teachers' capacities is not merely a one-time exercise, but instead must happen often, and early. Teacher preparation programs should take a leadership role in helping develop the next generation of prepared, knowledgeable,

and inclusive teachers. We believe that increasing teachers' willingness and ability to address bias and LGBTQ student issues will help current and future students thrive and succeed in schools that are safer and more affirming for all.

Discussion

The findings in *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited* provide many valuable insights into the experiences of both students and teachers as they relate to elements of school climate. We explored the significance of bias-based bullying and harassment, and its impact on students, particularly around feelings of safety and student engagement, as well as their association with the availability of school resources such as Gay-Straight Alliances and similar student clubs, inclusive curriculum, and anti-bullying policies. We also assessed differences in these effects based on students' personal demographic characteristics like race, sex, and LGBTQ status, as well as school characteristics, including school level, school type, region, and locale. For teachers, we examined similar aspects of school climate, such as biased language and their perceptions of bullying and harassment at school, and also explored the role of teacher practices, beliefs, and preparation and how they relate to creating safer and more inclusive school environments.

Limitations

Despite the richness of information in this report, there are certain limitations to be aware of when considering these findings. Specifically, although statistical analysis allowed us to look at associations between several factors and consider differences across groups, the analysis is correlational in nature and we can make no presumptions about causality. Longitudinal research and research utilizing experimental or quasi-experimental designs could provide further information about the causal relationships between factors explored in this report.

Caution should also be taken when interpreting our findings that compare data from this study with data from the 2005 report. Data for both students and teachers come from separate cohorts and are meant to reflect changes among students and teachers in the U.S. overall, but do not reflect changes in either individual students or teachers. We should also note that, when appropriate, we account for potential differences in the demographic composition of samples between 2005 and 2015. However, while each individual sample portrays an approximate

snapshot of that moment in time, some of the changes we find over time (or lack thereof) may still be partially a result of the changing demographics, context of schools, or other unobserved characteristics. Furthermore, given that the samples for this survey were limited to secondary school students and teachers in the U.S., the findings cannot be generalized to other populations, such as elementary school students or secondary students and teachers outside the U.S. Future research should explore these relationships in other types of students, educators, and international settings.

Conclusions

Findings from this report provide a snapshot of the current landscape of middle and high schools in regards to issues of safety and bias, with particular insight into LGBTQ issues. The report also offers an assessment of how the school environment has or has not changed with regard to these issues since our 2005 report. Furthermore, this report explores potential ways we can reduce bias-based bullying and harassment in schools and ensure all students are safe and supported.

SAFETY, BULLYING, AND BIAS IN TODAY'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Results demonstrate that, although most students feel relatively safe at school, secondary schools are still rife with bias—students and teachers alike report high levels of many types of biased language and many note that bullying and harassment are still a significant concern. With regard to biased language, students and teachers both report that expressions using “gay” in a negative way, such as “that’s so gay,” and sexist remarks were the most pervasive type of biased language heard in school, whereas they reported that negative remarks about transgender people and negative religious remarks were the least commonly heard. Furthermore, students and teachers both indicated that victimization based on physical appearance or body size/type was the most prevalent type of peer victimization, with victimization based on actual or perceived sexual orientation, victimization based on academic ability, and victimization based on gender expression all also being relatively common.

Since our previous survey in 2005, school climate appears to have improved in certain areas. Students feel somewhat safer in school today than they did in 2005, and they reported lower frequencies of hearing biased remarks from other students. However, the levels of bullying, harassment, or assault that students personally experienced themselves remained unchanged—for the most part, the frequency of bias-based bullying, sexual harassment, mean rumors or lies, and property damage were similar in 2005 and in 2015.

There were certain types of biased incidents that appeared to be worse in 2015, particularly with regard to bias based on race/ethnicity. The percentage of students who identified race/ethnicity as the reason students were often bullied was higher in 2015, and the frequency of students' own reports of bullying based on race/ethnicity was also higher in 2015. It is important to note that whereas victimization based on race/ethnicity was getting worse, many other types were getting better. A possible explanation is the growing saliency of issues of race and racism in the national discourse since the 2005 survey. From the advent of the Black Lives Matter in 2013 critiquing the aggressive use of police of force against people of color, to calls for immigration reform, issues of race and ethnicity have been elevated in the public consciousness, including on social media. At times, these issues resulted in discourses about race/ethnicity that are often polarizing and combative. Students may have internalized some of this racist rhetoric, resulting in increases in bullying behavior against other students of certain racial/ethnic groups. Alternatively, even if the actual number of severity of these type of bullying incidents has not actually increased, the public attention may have heightened students' awareness resulting in a greater likelihood of identifying and naming these incidents as related to race/ethnicity. The increasing segregation of our nation's schools³⁰⁶ may be another factor in the apparent increase in racial/ethnic bias incidents. Such segregation means that, for many students, by the time they reach high school, they will have had fewer opportunities to interact with peers

from diverse backgrounds. Segregation also results in fewer high school students of color in predominately White schools, which can create marginalization leading to more bullying of these students.³⁰⁷ Moreover, the ability of schools to successfully address bullying may be limited in highly segregated school districts due to lack of sufficient resources and staff with the appropriate training.³⁰⁸ Future research needs to examine how these factors impact rates of bullying and harassment based on race and ethnicity.

We identified a concerning finding regarding differences between reports of teachers' actions in 2005 and teachers' actions in 2015. Students reported that staff were less likely to intervene when hearing homophobic and sexist remarks in 2015 than they were in 2005. Furthermore, teachers themselves in 2015 indicated they were less comfortable intervening in all types of biased remarks than were teachers in 2005. Why teachers are exhibiting greater evidence of bias—whether through direct commission of biased behaviors or through inaction in the face of students' biased behaviors—while students are evidencing less biased language and greater access to resources to combat bias is somewhat unclear. Perhaps it is on account of a changing teacher workforce or a shift in the educational climate for teachers, resulting in less focus or ability to address bias in teachers themselves and in their students. More research is needed to better understand the teacher experience in regards to these issues.

Our findings regarding bullying and harassment should be a concern for educators and society at large, given the negative relationship we found between peer victimization and student outcomes—specifically, greater victimization was related to lower educational aspirations, more absenteeism due to safety concerns, and more school disciplinary sanctions. It is not surprising then that disparities in these educational outcomes were evident among the students who experience a more hostile school climate—LGBTQ youth, gender nonconforming youth, Black/African-American youth, and Latino/a youth.

LGBT BIAS IN SCHOOLS

With specific regard to LGBT issues in schools, we found both some encouraging trends and some findings that indicate the challenges still ahead. There is an indication that the attention to the experiences of LGBTQ students and the increased implementation of supportive school resources in the past decade, such as GSAs, may be beginning to have a positive effect, particularly with regard to student attitudes and behaviors. From 2005 to 2015, we saw a decrease in homophobic language and negative remarks about gender expression (along with decreases in some other forms of biased language) from students' peers—according to both student and teacher reports. Students also reported that student bystanders spoke up against homophobic remarks more often in 2015. Both students and teachers reported less likelihood of bullying and harassment based on sexual orientation and gender expression in their school. Although there were no differences in students' reports of experiencing bias-based victimization themselves, LGBTQ students in 2015 did report feeling safer in school than they did in 2005, similar to the experiences of the general student population in this study. Teachers in 2015 also believed that LGBTQ students would feel safer at school compared to 2005.

We also found some trends that give us pause and shed light on some of the challenges we must continue to address. Most strikingly, we found that missing school due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable actually increased in 2015—and this increase was greater for LGBTQ students than it was for the general student body. Although this appears contradictory to our findings of students' increased feelings of safety, it does mirror trends noted in government population data. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's 2015 Youth Risk Behavior Survey reported an increase in students' missing days of school for safety reasons.³⁰⁹ Perhaps this reflects a change in the school environment or parental oversight—it may be easier and/or more acceptable for students to miss school in 2015 than it was a decade earlier. Further research is needed to better understand these findings. In addition to an increase in absenteeism for LGBTQ students greater than for the general

student body, we found schools were often hostile environments for LGBTQ students. Homophobic language was rampant in schools, and victimization based on actual or perceived sexual orientation was one of the most commonly reported types of bias-based bullying.

Furthermore, stark disparities remained between LGBTQ students and their peers. LGBTQ students experienced higher levels of bias-based bullying and harassment, as well as sexual harassment, having mean rumors or lies spread about them, property damage, and cyberbullying. Likely as a result of this elevated victimization, LGBTQ students also reported feeling less safe at school and were more than twice as likely to have missed school in past month because of safety concerns. Even beyond areas of bullying and safety, we found that LGBTQ students' school experience differed somewhat from their non-LGBTQ classmates. Specifically, LGBTQ students were disciplined at school at higher rates—being more likely to be sent to the principal's office and receive detention and suspension. Although LGBTQ students may suffer disciplinary sanctions for a number of reasons, our previous research suggests that LGBTQ students may be disciplined for being open about their identity, being involved in bullying incidents, dressing or acting in gender nonconforming ways that violate school policies or practices, and breaking rules that are not enforced for their non-LGBTQ peers.³¹⁰ The effects of this hostile school climate can affect youth's educational aspirations by pushing youth out of school. In fact, LGBTQ students in the survey were less likely than non-LGBTQ students to believe they would graduate from high school or continue on to post-secondary education.

The differences between the school experiences of LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students appear to extend beyond the regular school day and into their participation in extracurricular activities. We found that LGBTQ students were much less likely to participate in school sports and in Junior ROTC than non-LGBTQ students. Given our past research with LGBTQ students has identified school athletics, including sports teams, as one of the least safe spaces for these youth, it is not surprising that they would participate less often in extracurricular sports.³¹¹ In terms of Junior ROTC, given the ruling allowing lesbian, gay, and

bisexual people to serve openly in the military was relatively recent,³¹² it may be that LGBTQ students lag behind in their interest and sense of belonging to the military compared to their heterosexual peers. In 2015, when students were surveyed, transgender people were still not allowed to serve openly and accordance to their gender,³¹³ and thus transgender students may have felt that Junior ROTC was not an option available to them. In contrast, LGBTQ students were more likely to participate in GSAs, other social justice clubs (e.g. Amnesty International), and arts-related activities, such as music and theater. Perhaps these activities offer students an opportunity to surround themselves with allies (perhaps particularly true in GSAs or social justice clubs) or to find a safe haven where they feel comfortable and welcome. Club advisors, activity leaders, and coaches have a responsibility to ensure that extracurricular activities are safe and available for all students by swiftly and effectively addressing all types of bias when they arise and working proactively to create accepting and respectful environments. In addition, student leaders, such as club officers and team captains, can play a crucial role by serving as role models and visible allies to LGBTQ youth. Further research should explore the draw and the function of various school-based activities for LGBTQ youth and other traditionally marginalized groups. Although not explored in this report, research should also examine LGBTQ youth's experiences in out-of-school time activities, such as scouting or mentoring programs, in order to provide a more complete understanding of whether LGBTQ youth have access to the same array of benefits provided by various youth development opportunities as do non-LGBTQ youth.

The lack of consistency in teachers' behaviors related to LGBTQ students and issues is somewhat concerning. Despite the finding that nearly all teachers reported positive attitudes towards LGBTQ students, reports on teacher behaviors did not always reflect this. In 2015, students reported that teachers intervened less often when hearing homophobic remarks than they did in 2005 and that teachers still intervene less often with homophobic remarks and remarks about gender expression than

with sexist remarks, racist remarks, or negative remarks about ability. In fact, teachers' reports on their own behavior were consistent with these findings—teachers in 2015 reported intervening less often regarding homophobic remarks than in 2005 and reported intervening the least often regarding anti-LGBT remarks (i.e., homophobic remarks, remarks about gender expression and remarks about transgender people) relative to other types of biased remarks. Although teachers reported being relatively comfortable intervening with all types of biased remarks and bias-based bullying, they reported less comfort with anti-LGBT bullying and remarks than other types of bias, such as racism or sexism. When it came to proactive supportive actions, such as incorporating LGBT topics in their teaching, displaying visible signs of support (i.e., a Safe Space Sticker), or supporting LGBT students one-on-one, half of teachers reported *never* engaging in any of these practices. These findings could be due to the fact that the vast majority of secondary teachers reported not receiving any type of training on LGBT student issues, neither in their pre-service education nor during their teaching career. As such, these findings illustrate the need for greater attention to educator preparation and ongoing professional development in these areas.

SUPPORTIVE RESOURCES

Findings from this study also highlighted the potential for school or district-based resources to help combat bias and protect students, and help teachers develop safe and affirming learning environments for all students. For example, we found that having Gay-Straight Alliances (GSA) were related to more positive school climate for all students, and had even greater benefits for LGBTQ students. Overall, students in schools with a GSA heard anti-LGBTQ remarks from both other students and teachers less often than students in schools without a GSA. We found that GSAs were related to lower levels of race-based and appearance-based victimization for the general student body, and also to lower levels of sexual orientation-based victimization for LGBTQ students. Students in general felt safer in schools with GSAs, with an even greater positive effect on LGBTQ students' safety. It may be that in addition to addressing LGBTQ student issues in

school and serving as a safe haven for LGBTQ youth, GSAs work to combat other types of bias in schools. Of course, it may also be that schools that are more supportive of diversity differences provide more fertile ground for the formation of GSAs and other similar clubs. For LGBTQ students, the presence of a GSA allows for identification of at least one supportive educator (the GSA advisor) that could result in greater feelings of safety. Through education, awareness, and advocacy efforts, GSAs might help to change students' attitudes and resulting behaviors. In fact, we found that students with a GSA at school held more positive attitudes towards LGBTQ people.

Advocates and scholars alike have also asserted that LGBT inclusive curriculum provides LGBTQ students with the benefits of seeing themselves reflected in the curriculum. This current study supports our conclusion from prior surveys of LGBTQ students³¹⁴ that found LGBT-inclusive curriculum was related to more positive climate for LGBTQ students. Yet, the vast majority of students reported that LGBT topics were not included in any of their classes, and only a small percentage of teachers in the survey indicated that they incorporated LGBT topics into their teaching. Furthermore, when asked specifically about sex education, LGBTQ students were more likely than their peers to report that what they were taught was not useful. Therefore, many U.S. secondary schools may be failing to teach in ways that are relevant and applicable to all students. In addition, LGBTQ students appear to rarely, if at all, see themselves represented in their school's curriculum. An LGBTQ-inclusive curriculum could also help to combat bias and promote respect and acceptance for LGBT people among the general student body. However, in this survey, we did not find inclusive curriculum to be related to improved climate for students in general or more positive student attitudes toward LGBT people. With limited information about the content, depth, or quality of the LGBT inclusion in curriculum, it is difficult to interpret these findings. Greater examination of both the actual content and delivery of LGBT-inclusive teaching is warranted.

This report also reinforced findings from GLSEN's previous research that demonstrated that anti-bullying/harassment policy can be an important resource for students.³¹⁵ Such policies can set expectations for student behavior and provide clear guidance to educators about how to address incidents of victimization. Prior research has indicated that anti-bullying policies should enumerate protected categories, including sexual orientation and gender identity/expression, to be most effective in preventing bias-based bullying. Our findings indicated that LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policies were related to improved school climate with regard to both anti-LGBT bias and other types of bias. Most likely, this is due to the fact that policies that enumerate sexual orientation and gender identity/expression by and large also enumerate other protected characteristics, such as race, sex, religion, etc.³¹⁶ We found that students with enumerated policies were less likely to perceive bullying, name-calling, and harassment as a problem in their schools. Enumerated policies were also related to lower levels of homophobic remarks and racist remarks and greater feelings of safety related to sexual orientation and gender expression, disability, appearance, and gender. However, we also found no differences in the incidence of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender, or gender expression between students in schools with generic policies and those with enumerated policies. Furthermore, we found that students in schools with enumerated policies reported *more* victimization based on race, disability, and religion than students in schools with generic policies. Perhaps policies that explicitly state protected categories heighten student awareness of bullying, especially bias-based bullying. However, given that there were no differences in victimization based on sexual orientation, gender, or gender expression by policy type, this explanation seems less likely. Regardless, more research is needed to better understand how these policies are implemented and how they impact students.

Anti-bullying policies were also related to teacher reports of school climate—teachers in schools with enumerated policies were more likely to report a higher incidence of certain biased remarks and bullying and harassment. It may be that teachers are also more attuned to incidents of bias and aware of incidences of biased remarks and bullying and harassment. It may also be because these teachers had more professional development on the related topics and were then more aware of what constitutes biased language and bullying, and more able and motivated to recognize it when it occurs. In fact, we found that teachers in schools with any anti-bullying policy, regardless of type, were more likely to have received professional development on bullying/harassment. However, teachers in schools with enumerated policies were more likely to have received professional development on issues related to LGBT students and on diversity/multicultural education, whereas having a generic policy was not related to these types of professional development. Additionally, when asked about types of efforts that would be helpful in creating safe schools for LGBT students, teachers rated inclusive policies as most helpful of all possible efforts.

Although most students in our survey did not have access to GSAs, LGBT-inclusive curriculum, or enumerated anti-bullying/harassment policies, students in middle schools, rural/small town schools, and religious schools were even less likely to have these supportive resources. Clearly, more work is needed to implement these helpful resources in all secondary schools across the country.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATOR PREPARATION

When teacher education programs, schools, or districts provide the proper training and preparation, teachers are more equipped to respond effectively to bias and bullying. Thus, providing professional development (PD) to educators throughout their pre-service training and continuing into their teaching career can be an important step in ensuring a safe and welcoming school climate for all students. We found that the vast majority of teachers reported having received some type of PD about bullying/

harassment at some point in their pre-service training or during their teaching career. However, we found that PD on bullying/harassment was not related to teachers' actions in addressing biased remarks. However, PD on diversity/education and PD on LGBT student issues were—teachers with PD in either of these areas intervened more often when hearing biased remarks. This suggests that PD on bullying that does not include content on diversity and/or specific reasons why students might be targeted may be ineffective in helping teachers respond to bias incidents in school.

In this survey, teachers themselves noted that staff training would be helpful in terms of ensuring safe and supportive schools specifically for LGBT students. In fact, we found that teachers who received PD in diversity/multicultural education or LGBT student issues were more likely to engage in practices in support of LGBT students. Whereas most teachers had received PD on diversity/multicultural education topics, few received any PD on LGBT student issues and teachers were far less likely to have received PD on LGBT student issues than PD on either bullying/harassment or diversity/multicultural education. And yet, our findings demonstrate a need for this type of PD—teachers still seem to face difficulties addressing LGBT issues. Teachers reported lower levels of intervention and comfort with regard to LGBT-related biased incidents compared to other types of bias. In addition, only half of teachers engaged in any sort of LGBT-supportive practices, such as displaying visible signs of support or talking with students about LGBT issues. It is also worth noting that very few teachers received PD on any of these topics (bullying/harassment, diversity/multicultural education, or LGBT student issues) as part of their pre-service education. Therefore, teacher education programs should assess their efforts to equip teachers to effectively deal with school climate challenges and also ensure that teacher candidates are prepared to address bullying, bias, and LGBTQ student issues.

Our findings also highlighted some promising specific areas of focus for PD—namely, increasing teachers' comfort addressing these issues and fostering teachers' connections to the LGBTQ community. With regard to comfort, teachers' comfort level with intervening in biased

language, with addressing bias-based bullying, and with engaging in LGBT-related efforts were all positively related to their corresponding behaviors. For example, teachers with high comfort levels intervening in racist remarks reported intervening in racist remarks more frequently than teachers with low comfort levels. Therefore, PD should include strategies to increase teachers' comfort in addressing these issues, perhaps through providing best practice examples, and activities designed to develop their skills. PD that provides opportunities for teachers to become familiar with LGBT people in rich and genuine ways may be especially useful given we found that teachers who knew someone who was LGBT intervened more often when hearing anti-LGBT remarks and were more likely to engage in LGBT-supportive practices.

Recommendations

Findings from this report provide some clear direction for improving school climate and affording all students access to education. To that end, we recommend the following measures for educators, administrators, policymakers, teacher educators, researchers, and advocates:

Professional Development and Educator Preparation

- Ensure adequate preparation for teachers through pre-service education and in-service professional development that specifically addresses multiple types of biased behaviors, including racism, sexism, classism, ableism, and homophobia, and that offers teachers opportunities to become familiar with effective ways to respond to bias so that they will be comfortable intervening.
- Equip teachers to effectively address LGBT issues and support LGBTQ students in their schools by enhancing their awareness of students' experiences, increasing their knowledge of best practices, and providing them with relevant resources and administrative support.

- Incorporate meaningful content on bias-based bullying into bullying/harassment education and training programs for both educators and students. Specifically address the victimization of traditionally marginalized students, such as LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, students of color, and students with disabilities.
- Provide opportunities for pre-service and current teachers to become acquainted with and interact with LGBT people in a substantive way, such as engaging in service learning projects with organizations serving LGBT people in the local community or partnering with LGBT community organizations to bring volunteers into the school.
- Create a climate that encourages LGBTQ school staff, students, and families to be open about their identities, as it may benefit those LGBTQ people by allowing them to be their full authentic selves, as well as result in greater opportunities for non-LGBTQ members of the school community to develop natural connections to LGBTQ people, potentially resulting in more LGBT-supportive attitudes and behaviors.

Curriculum and Teacher Practices

- Increase student access to curriculum that incorporates LGBT people, history, and topics. Provide resources for teachers of all subjects to integrate LGBT issues into their curriculum and effectively address bias in their classroom. Find curricular resources to help educators create an LGBT-inclusive curriculum at glsen.org/educate/resources.
- Address some of the logistical barriers to teacher engagement in LGBT-supportive practices by illustrating how LGBT-inclusive teaching can align to curriculum standards and can be incorporated into existing lessons.
- Provide resources to educators on how to advocate on behalf of LGBTQ student issues. Include information on how to anticipate and respond to potential community or administrative backlash they might face when engaging in LGBT-related activities in their school or district.

Student Activities and Attitudes

- Support the implementation of student clubs such as Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) that provide support for LGBT students and address LGBT issues in education. Find resources to support GSAs and similar student clubs at glsen.org/gsa.
- Increase student access to a variety of extracurricular activities by ensuring they are safe and welcoming to all who want to participate, such as training for coaches to ensure school sports are safe spaces. See glsen.org/sports for resources related to school athletics.
- Engage in research to identify factors related to more positive student attitudes and decreased biased behaviors among students, and develop best practices for fostering respect among secondary students.

Policies and Administrative Practices

- Adopt and implement anti-bullying/harassment policies at the school and district level that explicitly enumerate sexual orientation and gender identity/expression as protected categories alongside others such as race/ethnicity, religion, and disability. Ensure fair and appropriate enforcement of these policies. Make certain that members of the school community are aware of the existence and content of such policies. Model policies are available at glsen.org/policy.
- Ensure that district non-discrimination policies, including employment policies, enumerate sexual orientation and gender identity/expression as protected characteristics, along with other characteristics such as race/ethnicity, sex, and disability. Further ensure that actual practices reflect these non-discrimination protections.
- Review policies and practices to ascertain whether there are those that disproportionately affect certain groups of students such as LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, students of color, and students with disabilities; for example, school disciplinary sanctions or dress code policies. Consider

alternatives such as restorative practices or gender neutral dress codes. Provide training and monitoring to ensure policies are enforced fairly and equitably.

- Demonstrate administrative support for LGBTQ students and school staff and for educators who work to address LGBTQ issues in their schools and lead by example. Take proactive steps to set the tone, such as: displaying a Safe Space Sticker (or similar sign of visual support) on the office door; explicitly stating to all staff that anti-LGBTQ bias is not tolerated in the school and that it is expected that school staff will actively address all such issues; providing and attending staff training on LGBTQ issues; actively participating in LGBTQ-related events or actions such as GLSEN's Day of Silence or Pride celebration; or serving on, or starting, a committee that address LGBTQ issues in schools.

Needs Assessment and Targeted Interventions

- Regularly assess the educational landscape at both the local and national levels to ensure that practices and policies continue to meet the needs of the changing school population.
- Routinely evaluate school climate at the building or district level to identify potential areas of need, target interventions, and measure progress, including ways to identify potential disparities among groups of students, such as LGBTQ students, gender nonconforming students, students of color, and students with disabilities. Consider using GLSEN's *Local School Climate Survey* tool to create customized student surveys for local schools and communities, available at localschoolclimatesurvey.org.
- Focus advocacy efforts on ensuring that resources are available where they are most lacking and most needed, such as implementing LGBTQ-related resources in schools in rural/small town areas, middle schools, and lower income schools where they may have fewer financial resources to support professional development and other initiatives.

Together, these recommendations offer strategies to reduce bullying and harassment based on personal characteristics and ensure all students, including LGBTQ students, are afforded an equal opportunity to an education. Schools and school districts must work to eliminate hostile environments, and teacher preparation programs must equip teachers to effectively and confidently address issues of bias and support marginalized students, such as LGBTQ students. Implementing the recommendations set forth in this report can help to create safer and more affirming schools for all students, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression.

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- 33 Mean differences in the frequencies across all types of biased remarks from staff were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance, and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's trace = .133, $F(7, 1379) = 30.26, p < .001$. Resulting univariate effects were considered at $p < .01$. All differences between types of biased remarks were significant, with the following exceptions: homophobic remarks were not different from "that's so gay;" racist remarks were not different from religious remarks and anti-transgender remarks; sexist remarks were not different from remarks about gender expression; and remarks about students' academic ability were not different from homophobic remarks, "that's so gay," remarks about gender expression, and sexist remarks.
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- 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.
- 35 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay," comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine", sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with locale as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 36 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay," comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine," sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by school level, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school level as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .021, $F(8,1291) = 3.52$, $p < .05$. The univariate effect for school level in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .006$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were more prevalent in high school than middle school. The univariate effect for school level in hearing negative religious remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about religion were more prevalent in high school than middle school. Here and elsewhere, percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 37 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay," and comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine", sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with region as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .037, $F(24,4044) = 2.12$, $p < .01$. The univariate effect for region in hearing homophobic remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that homophobic remarks were less prevalent in the West than the Midwest and South. The univariate effect for region in hearing racist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .014$. Post-hoc tests indicated that racist remarks were less prevalent in the West than the Northeast and South. The univariate effect for region in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were less prevalent in the West than the Northeast, Midwest, and South. The univariate effect for region in hearing "That's so gay" was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing "That's so gay" were less prevalent in the West than the Midwest and South. The univariate effect for region in hearing ability remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing ability remarks were less prevalent in the West than the Midwest.
- 38 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay," and comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine", sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school type as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .065, $F(16,2696) = 5.62$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school type in hearing homophobic remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .045$. Post-hoc tests indicated that homophobic remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing racist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .022$. Post-hoc tests indicated that racist remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .035$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing religious remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that religious remarks were more prevalent in public than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing transgender remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .014$. Post-hoc tests indicated that transgender remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing gender expression remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that gender expression remarks were more prevalent in public than private schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing "That's so gay" was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing ability remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing ability remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .013$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing ability remarks were more prevalent in public than private schools.
- 39 Students did not receive the question(s) about teacher/staff presence and intervention, or about student intervention, if they responded that they had not heard a particular form of biased language. Students were also coded as missing for staff intervention if they indicated that teachers/staff had not been present when such remarks were made.
- 40 Mean differences in the frequencies across all types of teacher/staff presence were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance, and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's trace = .126, $F(4, 752) = 27.15$, $p < .001$. Resulting univariate effects were considered at $p < .01$. All differences between types of biased remarks were significant, with the following exceptions: presence in sexist remarks was not different

- from racist remarks; and presence in homophobic remarks was not different from presence in racist or sexist remarks.
- 41 Based on paired sample comparison tests of frequency of teacher and student intervention. Respondents were more likely to say teachers intervened than students in “that’s so gay”: $t(1117) = 3.27, p < .001$ and other homophobic remarks: $t(1058) = 5.24, p < .001$.
- 42 Mean differences in the frequencies of student intervention in anti-LGBT remarks were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance, and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai’s trace = .131, $F(2, 872) = 65.75, p < .001$. Resulting univariate effects were considered at $p < .01$. Student intervention in “that’s so gay” and other homophobic remarks was not different from one another. Intervention in both types of remarks was higher than for remarks about gender expression (a student being “masculine” or “feminine”), however.
- 43 Mean differences in the frequencies across all types of teacher/staff intervention were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance, and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai’s trace = .255, $F(4, 745) = 63.77, p < .001$. Resulting univariate effects were considered at $p < .01$. All differences between types of biased remarks were significant, with the following exceptions: intervention in sexist remarks was not different from racist remarks; and intervention in “that’s so gay” was not different from other homophobic remarks.
- 44 Meyer, I. H. (2003). Prejudice, social stress, and mental health in lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations: Conceptual issues and research evidence. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129, 674–697. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.129.5.674.
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- 45 For the purposes of this analysis, students were coded as missing if they responded that they were “not sure” about the frequency of a particular form of harassment, name-calling, or bullying.
- 46 Mean differences in the frequencies across types of bullying/name-calling/harassment were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance, and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai’s trace = .526, $F(7, 1272) = 201.93, p < .001$. Resulting univariate effects were considered at $p < .001$. All differences between types of bullying were significant, with the following exceptions: bullying based on gender expression (how masculine or feminine someone is) was not different from bullying based on sexual orientation or academic ability; bullying based on family income was not different from bullying based on disability.
- 47 18.8% of respondents said they were “not sure” which form of bullying occurred most often; these respondents were excluded from this analysis.
- 48 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance) by school level, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school level as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai’s trace = .025, $F(8, 1215) = 3.86, p < .001$. The univariate effect for school level in bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was significant: $p < .05, \eta^2 = .004$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to race/ethnicity was more prevalent in high school than middle school.
- 49 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance) by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school type as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai’s trace = .065, $F(16, 2540) = 5.33, p < .001$. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .016$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was more prevalent in public schools than religious and private schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to gender expression was significant: $p < .05, \eta^2 = .007$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to gender expression was more prevalent in public schools than private schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .013$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was more prevalent in public schools than religious and private schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to religion was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .020$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to religion was more prevalent in public schools than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to appearance was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .024$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to appearance was more prevalent in public schools than religious and private schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to academic ability was significant: $p < .05, \eta^2 = .005$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was more prevalent in private schools than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to not enough money was significant: $p < .05, \eta^2 = .006$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was more prevalent in public schools than private schools.
- 50 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance) by locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with locale as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai’s trace = .028, $F(16, 2288) = 2.03, p < .01$. The univariate effect for locale in bullying and harassment due to sexual

- orientation was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to sexual orientation was more prevalent in rural schools than suburban and urban schools.
- 51 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance) by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with region as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .066, $F(24, 3810) = 3.54$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for region in bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .022$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was less prevalent in the West than the South and Midwest, and in the South more prevalent than the Northeast. The univariate effect for region in bullying and harassment due to appearance was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to appearance was less prevalent the West than the Northeast and Midwest. The univariate effect for region in bullying and harassment due to not enough money was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .022$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to income was less prevalent the West than the South and Midwest.
- 52 Transgender, genderqueer and other non-cisgender students (e.g. "gender fluid") were included in our analysis of differences based on gender conforming and gender nonconforming students, along with cisgender students whose gender expression was different from what would be traditionally expected based on their sex assigned at birth, e.g. a male student with feminine gender expression.
- 53 As this survey is of a national sample of students, and such a small percentage of the population identify as transgender or another non-cisgender identity, there were not enough non-cisgender students in our survey to examine sex or gender differences between cisgender and non-cisgender (transgender, genderqueer, etc.) students, or to explore differences among non-cisgender students. Therefore, in our examination of sex differences in this report, we assessed differences between male cisgender and female cisgender students. Transgender, genderqueer and other non-cisgender students (e.g. "gender fluid") were included in our analysis of differences based on gender conforming and gender nonconforming students.
- 54 Mean differences in feelings of safety at school by demographic status were examined through a series of analysis of variance (ANOVAs). Significant differences were found between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students: $F(1, 1365) = 17.23$, $p < .00$; between gender nonconforming and gender conforming students: $F(1, 365) = 13.63$, $p < .001$; female and male cisgender students: $F(1, 1365) = 22.79$, $p < .001$; and Black/African-American students compared to students of other races: $F(4, 1330) = 2.77$, $p < .05$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 55 To compare differences in absenteeism by demographic status LGBTQ status, a series of chi-square tests were conducted looking at levels of absenteeism due to feeling unsafe by demographic group. Significant differences were found between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students: $\chi^2 = 42.42$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .177$; between gender nonconforming and gender conforming students: $\chi^2 = 35.14$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .161$; and female and male cisgender students: $\chi^2 = 9.69$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .085$. There were no significant differences by racial/ethnic group.
- 56 Mean differences in the frequencies of verbal harassment across types were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance: Pillai's trace = .42, $F(6, 1359) = 105.00$, $p < .001$. Univariate analysis indicated that levels of verbal harassment based on sexual orientation and based on gender expression were not significantly different; levels of verbal harassment based on gender and based on religion were not significantly different; and all other types of verbal harassment were significantly different from each other at $p < .001$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 57 Mean differences in the frequencies of physical harassment across types were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance: Pillai's Trace = .08, $F(6, 1374) = 21.02$, $p < .001$. Univariate analysis indicated that the frequency of the following types of physical harassment were significantly different from each other at $p < .01$: harassment based on gender was different from harassment based on gender expression, harassment based on sexual orientation was different from harassment based on disability, religion, and appearance; harassment based on race was different from harassment based on disability; and the following types were different from each other at $p < .001$: harassment based on harassment based on appearance was different from all other types of harassment; harassment based on gender expression was also different from harassment based on religion and disability; harassment based on race was also different from harassment based on religion. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- Mean differences in the frequencies of physical assault across types were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance: Pillai's trace = .03, $F(6, 1374) = 7.30$, $p < .001$. Univariate analysis indicated that the frequency of the following types of physical assault were significantly different from each other: assault based on appearance was different from all other types of assault at $p < .001$; assault based on gender was also different from assault based on gender expression ($p < .01$) and based on race ($p < .05$); assault based on religion was also different from assault based on race at $p < .05$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 58 Mean differences in victimization based on religion by student's religion was examined using analysis of variance: $F(2, 1217) = 4.79$, $p < .01$.
- 59 For purposes of analysis, weighted variables measuring "victimization" were created with more severe forms of harassment receiving more weight to account for the severity of the harassment. Physical assault received the most weight, followed by physical harassment, and verbal harassment.
- 60 To test differences in absenteeism based on victimization, seven separate chi-square tests (based on sexual orientation, gender expression, race/ethnicity, gender,

- religion, disability, and appearance) were conducted looking at absenteeism by whether they experienced low or higher levels of victimization (each victimization measure is based on a binary variable representing the cutoff at the mean score of victimization where students above the mean were characterized as "Experiencing Higher Levels of Victimization."). Sexual orientation: $\chi^2 = 60.49$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .214$. Gender expression: $\chi^2 = 66.73$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .225$. Gender: $\chi^2 = 60.37$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .213$. Race: $\chi^2 = 7.97$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .078$. Disability: $\chi^2 = 40.86$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .176$. Religion: $\chi^2 = 17.05$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .113$. Appearance: $\chi^2 = 47.01$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .189$. Students who experienced higher levels of all types of victimization were most likely to miss a day or more of school.
- 61 Mean differences in the frequencies of other types of harassment across types (sexual harassment, mean rumors/lies, property stolen/damage, cyberbullying) were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance: Pillai's trace = .23, $F(3, 1339) = 130.26$, $p < .001$. Univariate analysis indicated that the frequency each type of harassment was significantly different from each other type at $p < .001$, with one exception: there were no significant differences between the frequency of property stolen/damage and cyberbullying.
- 62 To examine demographic differences in having ever experienced any form of peer victimization at school in the past year, a series of chi-square tests were conducted. Significant differences were found between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students: $\chi^2 = 27.123$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .142$; gender nonconforming and gender conforming students: $\chi^2 = 8.058$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .078$; and female and male cisgender students: $\chi^2 = 15.70$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .108$. There were no significant differences based on race/ethnic group.
- 63 Mean differences in bias-based victimization by LGBTQ student status were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students were found for victimization based on: sexual orientation: $F(1, 1328) = 96.71$, $p < .001$; gender $F(1, 1337) = 28.82$, $p < .001$; gender expression $F(1, 1329) = 58.63$, $p < .001$; disability: $F(1, 1328) = 4.89$, $p < .05$; and appearance/body size: $F(1, 1321) = 10.52$, $p < .01$. No differences were found for victimization based on race/ethnicity or victimization based on religion.
- 64 Mean differences in other forms of harassment by LGBTQ student status were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students were found for all types of harassment: sexual harassment: $F(1, 1357) = 35.33$, $p < .001$; having rumors/lies spread about them: $F(1, 1341) = 22.98$, $p < .001$; property damage: $F(1, 1344) = 5.13$, $p < .05$; and cyberbullying: $F(1, 1320) = 6.38$, $p < .01$.
- 65 Mean differences in bias-based victimization by gender nonconformity were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences between gender nonconforming and gender conforming students were found for all types of bias-based victimization.
- Victimization based on: sexual orientation: $F(1, 1328) = 130.48$, $p < .001$; gender $F(1, 1337) = 53091$, $p < .001$; gender expression $F(1, 1329) = 135.59$, $p < .001$; race/ethnicity: $F(1, 1328) = 24.38$, $p < .001$; disability: $F(1, 1328) = 35.62$, $p < .05$; religion: $F(1, 1331) = 50.69$, $p < .001$; and appearance/body size: $F(1, 1321) = 60.31$, $p < .01$.
- Mean differences in other forms of harassment by gender nonconformity were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences between gender nonconforming and gender conforming students were found for all types of harassment: sexual harassment: $F(1, 1357) = 16.66$, $p < .001$; having rumors/lies spread about them: $F(1, 1341) = 11.91$, $p < .01$; property damage: $F(1, 1344) = 6.64$, $p < .05$; and cyberbullying: $F(1, 1320) = 6.91$, $p < .01$.
- 66 Mean differences in other forms of harassment by sex for cisgender students were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences between male and female cisgender students were found for: sexual harassment: $F(1, 1357) = 63.95$, $p < .001$; having rumors/lies spread about them: $F(1, 1341) = 123.17$, $p < .001$; and cyberbullying: $F(1, 1320) = 21.70$, $p < .001$. There were no significant sex differences in frequency of property damage.
- 67 Mean differences in bias-based victimization by sex for cisgender students by were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences between male and female cisgender students were found for victimization based on: sexual orientation $F(1, 1328) = 7.30$, $p < .01$; race/ethnicity: $F(1, 1328) = 5.28$, $p < .05$; disability: $F(1, 1328) = 7.55$, $p < .01$; and religion: $F(1, 1331) = 8.29$, $p < .01$. There were no significant sex differences in victimization based on gender, gender expression, or appearance/body size.
- 68 Mean differences in bias-based victimization by race/ethnicity were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). There were no racial/ethnic differences for any type of bias-based victimization when looking at the full race variable (i.e., students of color disaggregated). However, when comparing all students of color to White students, there were significant differences, with students of color experiencing higher levels of victimization based on race/ethnicity: $F(1, 1298) = 5.09$, $p < .05$, no other differences were found.
- Mean differences in other forms of harassment by race/ethnicity were examined using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences racial/ethnic differences were found for: having rumors/lies spread about them: $F(4, 1311) = 9.37$, $p < .01$ (with White students reporting this most frequently); and cyberbullying: $F(4, 1292) = 2.98$, $p < .05$ (with White students reporting this most frequently). There were no racial/ethnic differences in sexual harassment or property damage.
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- 73 Differences in gender expression between cisgender and non-cisgender students was assessed through a chi-square test, $\chi^2 = 27.13$, $df = 6$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .121$.
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- 75 For cisgender female students who reported their gender expression as “very,” “mostly,” or “somewhat” “masculine” or “equally masculine and feminine” were coded as gender nonconforming, whereas cisgender male students who reported their gender expression as “very,” “mostly,” or “somewhat” “feminine” or “equally masculine and feminine” were coded as gender nonconforming. All non-cisgender students, i.e. students who identified as transgender or another gender (e.g., genderfluid) were also coded as gender nonconforming.
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- 79 To compare differences in educational aspirations by LGBT status, a chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 16.07$, $df = 6$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .109$. Significant differences were found between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ students for “less than high school” and “high school only.”
- 80 To compare differences in educational aspirations by gender nonconformity, a chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 51.40$, $df = 6$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .194$. Significant differences were found between gender nonconforming and gender conforming students for “less than high school,” “high school only,” and “graduate school.”
- 81 To compare differences in educational aspirations by cisgender, a chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 29.40$, $df = 6$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .147$. Significant differences were found between Male Cisgender and Female Cisgender for “high school/GED only,” “bachelor's degree” and “graduate degree.”
- 82 To compare differences in educational aspirations by race, a chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 51.47$, $df = 24$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .098$. Significant differences were found across racial categories for “high school/GED only” and “graduate degree.”
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- 85 GLSEN (2016). *Educational Exclusion: Drop Out, Push Out, and the School-to-Prison Pipeline among LGBTQ Youth*. New York: GLSEN.
- 86 To compare differences in discipline by race/ethnicity, 4 chi-square tests were conducted looking at whether students experienced being referred to the principal, sent to detention, suspended from school, or expelled from school by race/ethnicity. The following differences were found based on race/ethnicity: Suspensions: $\chi^2 = 34.124$, $df = 4$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .117$. Black/African-American students were more likely than White, Asian/Pacific Islander, and other race students to be suspended from school.
- 87 To compare differences in discipline by cisgender, a chi-square test was conducted looking at "experiencing any type of discipline" by cisgender: $\chi^2 = 57.319$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .205$. Male cisgender students were more likely than female cisgender students to experience any form of discipline.
- 88 To compare differences in discipline by LGBTQ status, a chi-square test was conducted looking at "experiencing any type of discipline" by LGBTQ status: $\chi^2 = 18.692$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .117$. LGBT students were more likely than non-LGBTQ students to experience any form of discipline.
- 89 To compare differences in discipline by gender conformity, a chi-square test was conducted looking at "experiencing any type of discipline" by gender conformity: $\chi^2 = 8.680$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .080$. Gender nonconforming students were more likely than gender conforming students to experience any form of discipline.
- 90 To compare differences in discipline experiences by LGBTQ status, 4 chi-square tests were conducted looking at whether students experienced being referred to the principal, sent to detention, suspended from school, or expelled from school by whether or not they were LGBT. The following differences were found based on LGBTQ status: Referred to principal's office: $\chi^2 = 14.818$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .104$. LGBTQ students are more likely to be referred to the principal's office than non-LGBT students; Received detention: $\chi^2 = 9.507$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .083$. LGBTQ students are more likely to receive detention than non-LGBT students. Suspension: $\chi^2 = 13.020$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .098$. LGBTQ students are more likely to be suspended than non-LGBT students.
- To compare differences in discipline experiences by gender nonconformity, 4 chi-square tests were conducted looking at whether students experienced being referred to the principal, sent to detention, suspended from school, or expelled from school by gender conformity. The following differences were found based on gender conformity: Referred to principal's office: $\chi^2 = 8.62$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .079$. Gender nonconforming students are more likely to be referred to the principal's office than gender conforming students; Suspension: $\chi^2 = 16.98$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .079$. Gender nonconforming students are more likely to be suspended than gender conforming students.
- 91 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Palmer, N. A., & Boesen, M. J. (2014). *The 2013 National School Climate Survey: The Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
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- 92 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. doi: 10.1177/0743558414557625
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- 93 GLSEN (2016). *Educational Exclusion: Drop Out, Push Out, and the School-to-Prison Pipeline among LGBTQ Youth*. New York: GLSEN.
- 94 Anyon, Y., Jenson, J. M., Altschul, I., Farrar, J., McQueen, J., Greer, E., Downing, B., & Simmons, J. (2014). The persistent effect of race and the promise of alternatives to suspension in school discipline outcomes. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 44, 379–386.
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- 95 To test differences in levels of victimization by discipline, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .031, $F(7,1332) = 6.09$, $p < .001$. The univariates for sexual orientation, gender expression, race, religion, and appearance were all statistically significant at $p < .01$. Students who have been victimized due to these characteristics were more likely to experience discipline.

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- 100 Pearson correlation was conducted to examine the relationship between parent education level and the number of extracurricular activities in which students participated. Higher levels of parent education were related to a greater participation in extracurricular activities ($r = .079, p < .05$).
- 101 17 Pearson correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between parent education level and student participation in each of the 17 extracurricular activities. Higher parent education was associated with greater participation in the following activities: *interscholastic sports* ($r = .123, p < .01$), *music* ($r = .150, p < .01$), *Drama* ($r = .089, p < .01$), *student government* ($r = .114, p < .01$), *honor society* ($r = .098, p < .01$), *service club* ($r = .085, p < .01$), *hobby club* ($r = .057, p < .05$), *academic club* ($r = .112, p < .01$).
- 102 Pearson correlation was conducted to examine the relationship between parent education level and participation in specific extracurricular activities. Lower levels of parent education were related to participation in JROTC ($r = -.088, p < .01$).
- 103 As this survey is of a national sample of students, and such a small percentage of the population identify as transgender or another non-cisgender identity, there were not enough non-cisgender students in our survey to examine sex or gender differences between cisgender and non-cisgender (transgender, genderqueer, etc.) students, or to explore differences among non-cisgender students. Therefore, in our examination of sex differences in this report, we assessed differences between male cisgender and female cisgender students. Transgender, genderqueer and other non-cisgender students (e.g. "gender fluid") were included in our analysis of differences based on gender conforming and gender nonconforming students.
- 104 DiPrete, T. A. & Buchmann, C. (2013). *The Rise of Women: The Growing Gender Gap in Education and What It Means for American Schools*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- 105 To compare differences in participation in at least one extracurricular activity between cisgender female and cisgender male students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 9.07, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .085$.
- 106 To compare differences in the mean number of extracurricular activities between cisgender female and cisgender male students, a t-test was conducted: $t(1313) = 3.30, p < .01$.
- 107 To compare differences in participation between activities and cisgender female and male students, chi-square tests were conducted: *music*: $\chi^2 = 11.055, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .096$. *academic club*: $\chi^2 = 10.29, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .095$. *honor society*: $\chi^2 = 7.50, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .083$.
- 108 To compare differences in participation between activities and cisgender female and male students, chi-square tests were conducted. *Service club*: $\chi^2 = 13.92, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .123$. *social justice club*: $\chi^2 = 3.98, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .080$. *cheer club*: $\chi^2 = 50.05, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .066$.
- 109 To compare differences in participation in JROTC between cisgender females and cisgender males chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 9.89, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .119$.
- 110 To compare differences in participation in intramural sports between cisgender female and cisgender male students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 13.61, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .124$.
- 111 Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C.A. §§ 1681–1688 (West Supp. 2014).
- 112 Deaner, R. O., Geary, D. C., Puts, D. A., Ham, S. A., Kruger, J., Fles, E., Winegard, B. & Grandis, T. (2012). A sex difference in the predisposition for physical competition: Males play sports much more than females even in the contemporary U.S. *PLoS One*, 7(11).
- 113 To compare differences in participation in intramural sports between LGBTQ students and heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 18.69, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .144$. To compare differences in participation in interscholastic sports between LGBTQ students and heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 26.29, df = 1, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .150$.

- 114 To compare differences in participation in JROTC between LGBTQ students and heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 4.20$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .080$.
- 115 To compare differences in LGBTQ student GSA participation compared to heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 28.53$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .249$. LGBTQ students were more likely to participate than their heterosexual, cisgender peers. To compare differences in LGBTQ student participation in a social justice club compared to heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 5.72$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .096$.
- 116 To compare differences in participation in music between LGBTQ students and heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 6.01$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .071$. To compare differences in participation in a school play or musical between LGBTQ students and heterosexual, cisgender students, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 23.00$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .141$.
- 117 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Palmer, N. A., & Boesen, M. J. (2014). *The 2013 National School Climate Survey: The Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
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- 119 Students were categorized into regions 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.
- 120 To compare differences in GSA presence by region, a chi-square test was conducted looking at GSA presence by what region they were present in: $\chi^2 = 28.31$, $df = 3$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .144$. Significant differences were found between: West and South, South and Midwest, and South and Northeast.
- 121 To compare differences in GSA presence by school locale, a chi-square test was conducted looking at GSA presence by what type of locale they were present in: $\chi^2 = 35.53$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .161$. Significant differences were found between: small town/rural and suburban, small town/rural and urban.
- 122 To compare differences in GSA presence by school type, a chi-square test was conducted looking at GSA presence by what type of school they were present in: $\chi^2 = 21.91$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .127$. Significant differences were found between: public and private-religious, and private-religious and private-independent.
- 123 Mean differences of student attitudes and the presence of a GSA were examined using independent samples t-test: $t(1159.050) = -3.772$, $p < .01$.
- 124 To test differences in hearing anti-LGBT remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression “that’s so gay” or “you’re so gay,” and comments about a male student acting too “feminine” or a female student acting too “masculine”) from other students by presence of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with GSA presence as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing anti-LGBT remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .031, $F(8,1348) = 5.31$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for GSA presence in hearing racist remarks was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .004$. The univariate effect for GSA presence in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .011$. The univariate effect for GSA presence in hearing religious remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .007$. The univariate effect for GSA presence in hearing negative remarks about transgender people was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .003$. The univariate effect for GSA presence in hearing “that’s so gay” was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .012$. Here and elsewhere, percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 125 To test differences in hearing anti-LGBT remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression “that’s so gay” or “you’re so gay,” and comments about a male student acting too “feminine” or a female student acting too “masculine”) from teachers and staff by presence of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with GSA presence as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing anti-LGBT remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .019, $F(8,1377) = 3.29$, $p < .01$. There were no significant univariate effects. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 126 To compare differences in perceptions of bullying by GSA presence, a chi-square test was conducted looking at perceptions of bullying by whether or not a GSA was present. No significant differences were found.
- 127 To compare differences in feeling unsafe by GSA presence, a chi-square test was conducted looking at feeling of safety by whether or not a GSA was present. No significant differences were found.
- 128 To compare differences in feeling unsafe due to sexual orientation and gender expression by GSA presence, two chi-square tests were conducted looking at “unsafe due to sexual orientation” and “unsafe due to gender expression” by whether or not a GSA was present. No significant differences in feeling unsafe were found by sexual orientation or gender expression.

- 129 To test whether differences in victimization differed by GSA presence, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with seven weighted victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, gender expression, race/ ethnicity, disability, religion, and appearance) as dependent variables with GSA presence as the independent variable. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .016, $F(8,1377) = 3.06$, $p < .01$. The univariate effect for victimization due to race/ethnicity was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .004$. The univariate effect for victimization due to appearance was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .006$. Students who reported having a GSA at school were less likely to experience peer victimization based on race/ethnicity and appearance than students who reported not having a GSA at school.
- 130 A two-way ANOVA was conducted that examined the effect of LGBT status and GSA presence on feelings of safety. There was a statistically significant interaction between the effects of LGBT status and GSA presence on feelings of safety, $F(1, 11417) = 11.55$, $p < .01$.
- 131 To test whether differences in victimization by GSA presence differed by LGBT status, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with seven weighted victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, gender expression, race/ ethnicity, disability, religion, and appearance) as dependent variables with GSA presence and LGBT status as the independent variables. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between LGBT status and GSA presence, $F(7, 1330) = 2.80$, $p < .001$; Pillai's Trace = .015. The univariate effect for victimization due to sexual orientation was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .004$.
- 132 Definitions of multicultural education. (2003). National Association for Multicultural Education (NAME). Retrieved from http://www.nameorg.org/definitions_of_multicultural_e.php
- 133 Greytak, E. A. & Kosciw, J. G. (2013). Responsive classroom curriculum for LGBTQ students. In E. Fisher, & K. Komosa-Hawkins (Eds.) *Creating School Environments to Support Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Questioning Students and Families: A Handbook for School Professionals*. Routledge.
- 134 Cases where students noted being unsure of LGBT-inclusive curriculum were omitted in subsequent multivariate analysis.
- 135 To compare differences in LGBT-inclusive curriculum by school locale and school type, two chi-square tests were conducted. No significant differences were found.
- 136 To compare differences in LGBT-inclusive curriculum by region, a chi-square test was conducted looking at presence of LGBT-inclusive curriculum by what region they were present in: $\chi^2 = 30.75$, $df = 3$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .150$. Significant differences were found between: West and South, West and Midwest, South and Northeast, and Midwest and Northeast.
- 137 To compare differences in LGBT-inclusive curriculum by school level, a chi-square test was conducted looking at presence of LGBT-inclusive curriculum by what type of school they were present in: $\chi^2 = 13.73$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .102$. Students in high school were more likely to be taught LGBT topics than students in middle school.
- 138 California Department of Education (n.d.). Frequently asked questions: Senate bill 48. Retrieved from <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/cr/ct/senatebill48faq.asp>.
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- 140 To test differences in hearing anti-LGBT remarks from other students by LGBT-inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with LGBT curriculum as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing the four types of anti-LGBT remarks (the expressions "that's so gay" or "you're so gay," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 141 To test differences in perceptions of prevalence of anti-LGBTQ victimization at school by LGBT-inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with LGBT curriculum as the independent variable, and the perceived prevalence of bullying/harassment based on sexual orientation and gender expression. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 142 To test differences in victimization by LGBT inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with seven weighted victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, gender expression, race/ ethnicity, disability, religion, and appearance) as dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant. Pillai's trace = .012, $F(7,1332) = 2.26$, $p > .05$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .004$. The univariate effect for victimization based on race was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .007$. Students in schools with LGBT inclusive curriculum were less likely to report victimization based on gender expression or race.
- 143 To test whether differences in victimization by LGBT inclusive curriculum differed by LGBTQ status, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with seven weighted victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, gender expression, race/ ethnicity, disability, religion, and appearance) as dependent variables and an interaction term between LGBTQ status and LGBT curriculum. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between LGBTQ status and LGBT curriculum on the combined dependent variables representing overall victimization, $F(7, 1197) = 3.23$, $p < .001$; Pillai's trace = .019. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .006$.
- 144 Mean differences of student attitudes and inclusive curriculum were examined using independent samples t-test. The effect was not significant, $p > .05$.
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- 146 Greytak, E.A. & Kosciw, J.G. (2013). Responsive classroom curriculum for LGBTQ students. In E. Fisher, & K. Komosa-Hawkins (Eds.) *Creating School Environments to Support Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Questioning Students and Families: A Handbook for School Professionals*. Routledge.
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- 147 Throughout this section we use the terms "sexuality/sex education," "sexuality education" and "sex education" interchangeably.
- 148 Guttmacher Institute. (2016). *State policies in brief: Sex and HIV education*. Retrieved from: https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/spibs/spib_SE.pdf.
- 149 Kirby, D. (2007). Effects of Curriculum-Based Sex and STD/HIV Education Programs. In *Research Findings on Programs to Reduce Teen Pregnancy and Sexually Transmitted Diseases*. Retrieved from https://thenationalcampaign.org/sites/default/files/resource-primary-download/EA2007_full_0.pdf.
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- 152 Trenholm, C., Devaney, B., Fortson, K., Quay, K., Wheeler, J., & Clark, M. (2007). *Impacts of Four Title V, Section 510 Abstinence Education Programs. Final Report*. Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.
- 153 To compare differences in the receipt of sex education by school level, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 15.51$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .111$.
- Mean differences in sex education usefulness between high school and middle school were examined using a t-test. No significant differences were found at $p < .05$.
- 154 To compare differences in the receipt of sex education by school type, one-way ANOVA was run: $F(2,1364) = 4.20$, $p < .05$. Pairwise comparisons only significant between public schools and private, non-religious schools.
- 155 Mean differences in sex education usefulness by school type were examined using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA): $F(2, 1138) = 3.38$, $p < .05$. Pairwise comparisons significant except between private non-religious schools and public schools, $p < .05$.
- 156 Demissie, Z., Brener, N.D., McManus, T., Shanklin, S.L., Hawkins, J., & Kann, L. *School Health Profiles 2014: Characteristics of Health Programs Among Secondary Schools*. Atlanta: Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014.
- 157 To compare differences in the receipt of sex education by region, one-way ANOVA was run: $F(3,1363) = 3.10$, $p < .05$. Pairwise comparisons were significant except between Northeast and Midwest; Northeast and South; South and West.
- 158 Mean differences in sex education usefulness by region were examined using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). No significant differences were found, $p > .05$.
- 159 To compare differences in the receipt of sex education by school locale, chi-square tests were conducted: $\chi^2 = 7.13$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .072$.
- 160 To compare differences in sex education usefulness by school locale, one-way ANOVA was run. No significant differences were found, $p > .05$.
- 161 To compare mean differences in sex education usefulness by gender for cisgender students, t-tests were conducted. No significant differences were found, $p > .05$.
- As this survey is of a national sample of students, and such a small percentage of the population identify as transgender or another non-cisgender identity, there were not enough non-cisgender students in our survey to examine gender differences between cisgender and non-cisgender (transgender, genderqueer, etc.) students or to explore differences among non-cisgender students. Therefore, in our examination of gender differences in this report, we assessed differences between male cisgender and female cisgender students.
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- 174 Kull, R. M., Kosciw, J. G., & Greytak, E. A. (2015). *From Statehouse to Schoolhouse: Anti-Bullying Policy Efforts in U.S. States and School Districts*. New York, NY: GLSEN.
- 175 To test differences in hearing biased remarks from other students by policy type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .023, $F(16,2696) = 4.02, p < .001$. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "homophobic remarks" was significant: $p < .01, \eta^2 = .008$. Post-hoc tests indicated that homophobic remarks were heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "racist remarks" was significant: $p < .01, \eta^2 = .006$. Post-hoc tests indicated that racist remarks were heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "sexist remarks" was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .022$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies and generic policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "negative remarks about transgender people" was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .016$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about transgender people were heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies and generic policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "that's so gay" was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .026$. Post-hoc tests indicated that "that's so gay" was heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies and generic policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "negative remarks about gender expression" was significant: $p < .001, \eta^2 = .017$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about gender expression were heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies and generic policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. The univariate effect for Policy in hearing "negative remarks about disability" was significant: $p < .05, \eta^2 = .005$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about disability were heard more often in schools with no anti-bullying policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies.
- 176 To compare differences in feeling unsafe by policy type, a chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 35.52, df = 2, p < .05$, Cramer's V = .161. Students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were less likely to feel unsafe than students in schools with generic or no policies.
- 177 To compare differences in feeling unsafe due to personal characteristics by policy type, five chi-square tests were conducted. Sexual orientation: $\chi^2 = 28.51, df = 2, p < .05$, Cramer's V = .145. Students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were less likely to feel unsafe due to their sexual orientation than students in schools with generic or no policies. There were no significant differences in feeling unsafe between students in schools with generic and no policies. Gender expression: $\chi^2 = 25.04, df = 2, p < .001$, Cramer's V = .135. Students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were less likely to feel unsafe due to their gender expression than students in schools with generic or no policies. Students in schools with generic policies were also less likely to

- feel unsafe due to their gender expression than students in schools with no policies. There were no significant differences in feeling unsafe between students in schools with generic and no policies. Gender: $\chi^2 = 10.37$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .087$. Students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were less likely to feel unsafe due to their gender than students in schools with generic policies. There were no other significant differences in feeling unsafe by policy type. Disability: $\chi^2 = 7.32$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .073$. Students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were less likely to feel unsafe due to their disability than students in schools with generic or no policies. There were no significant differences in feeling unsafe between students in schools with generic and no policies. Appearance: $\chi^2 = 12.90$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .097$. Students in schools with generic and LGBT-enumerated policies were less likely to feel unsafe due to their appearance than students in schools with no policies. There were no significant differences in feeling unsafe between students in schools with generic and LGBT-enumerated policies.
- 178 To compare differences in perceptions of bullying, name-calling, or harassment at school by policy type, a univariate analysis was conducted with policy type as the independent variable, and severity of bullying as the dependent variable. The univariate effect for Policy in perceptions of bullying was significant: $p < .01$. Post-hoc tests indicated that severity of bullying was greater in schools with no anti-bullying policies than schools with LGBT-enumerated policies. There were no other significant differences in severity of bullying based on policy type.
- 179 To test differences in levels of victimization by policy type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and seven variables representing levels of victimization as dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .024, $F(14,2664) = 1.88$, $p < .05$. The univariate effects of policy type on level of victimization based on race ($p < .01$) was statistically significant. Post-hoc tests indicated that students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were more likely to experience race-based victimization than students in schools with generic policies. The univariate effects for policy type on level of victimization based on disability ($p < .05$) was statistically significant. Post-hoc tests indicated that students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were more likely to experience disability-based victimization than students in schools with generic policies. The univariate effects for policy type on level of victimization based on religion ($p < .05$) was statistically significant. Post-hoc tests indicated that students in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies were more likely to experience religious-based victimization than students in schools with generic policies.
- 180 To test differences in teacher intervention of biased remarks by policy type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and frequency of teacher intervention of biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 181 Mean differences between of student attitudes by race were examined using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA): $F(4, 1282) = 2.55$, $p < .05$. Pairwise comparisons significant between Asian/Pacific Islanders and Whites and Hispanics and Whites, $p < .05$.
- 182 Mean differences of student attitudes by gender were examined using independent samples t-test: $t(1261.531) = -6.947$, $p < .001$. There were not enough non-cisgender students in our survey to examine sex or gender differences between cisgender and non-cisgender (transgender, genderqueer, etc.) students or to explore differences among non-cisgender students.
- 183 To compare association between age and student attitudes a Pearson correlation was run. Effect was not significant, $p > .05$.
- 184 Greytak, E. A., & Kosciw, J. G. (2014). Predictors of U.S. teachers' intervention in anti-lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender bullying and harassment. *Teaching Education, 25*(4), 410–426.
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- 185 Mean difference in the percentage of students knowing an LGB person vs. knowing a transgender person was assessed through a paired t-test: $t(1366) = 38.08$, $p < .001$.
- 186 Gates, G. J. (2011). *How Many People are Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender?* The Williams Institute: Los Angeles, CA.
- 187 Mean differences of student attitudes based on whether or not they know someone LGBT were examined using independent samples t-test: $t(133.098) = 3.45$, $p < .01$.
- 188 Mean differences of student attitudes and the presence of a GSA were examined using independent samples t-test: $t(1159.050) = -3.77$, $p < .01$.
- 189 Mean differences of student attitudes and inclusive curriculum were examined using independent samples t-test. The effect was not significant, $p > .05$.
- 190 Lawner, E., & Terzian, M. (2013). *What Works for Bullying Programs: Lessons From Experimental Evaluation of Programs and Interventions* (Research Brief No. 2013–39). Bethesda, MD: Child Trends.
- 191 Differences between years on student perceptions of how often other students are bullied at school because of personal characteristics were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .09, $F(7,4100) = 57.88$, $p < .001$. Univariate statistics were considered significant at $p < .05$. Actual percentages, not parameter estimates, shown for illustrative purposes.
- 192 Differences between years was tested through chi-square analyses: $X^2 = 212.24$, Cramer's $V = .24$, $p < .001$.

- 193 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Palmer, N. A., & Boesen, M. J. (2014). *The 2013 National School Climate Survey: The Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
- 194 Differences between years by LGBTQ status was conducted with a 2x2 ANOVA. The main effect for LGBTQ status was significant - $F(1,4375) = 16.17, p < .001$. The main effect for time and the interaction were not significant at $p < .05$.
- 195 Differences between years on frequency of biased remarks in school were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .08, $F(6,4385) = 67.26, p < .001$. Univariate statistics were all significant at $p < .001$, except for sexist remarks which was not significant, $p > .05$. Actual percentages, not parameter estimates, shown for illustrative purposes.
- 196 Differences between years on reported frequency of intervention was tested through a series of analyses of covariance controlling for frequency of the type of biased language. Teacher intervention regarding sexist remarks: $F(1,3882) = 28.92, p < .001$; Teacher intervention regarding homophobic remarks: $F(1,3747) = 7.44, p < .01$. Actual percentages shown for illustrative purposes.
- 197 Differences between years on reported frequency of student intervention was tested through analyses of covariance controlling for frequency of hearing homophobic remarks: $F(1,3747) = 7.44, p < .01$. Actual percentages shown for illustrative purposes.
- 198 Differences between years on frequency of biased remarks from teachers were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .004, $F(4,4756) = 4.39, p < .01$. Univariate statistics were significant for racist, sexist and homophobic remarks at $p < .05$.
- 199 Difference between years on general feelings of safety at school was tested through analysis of covariance. Gender, locale, race/ethnicity, region, and sexual orientation were included as covariates as the composition of the samples on these characteristics varied between the two years of data. More so than student reports of general safety or hearing biased language, we maintain that student reports on their own experiences would likely vary based on their personal demographics. The overall statistic was significant: $F(1,4704) = 42.56, p < .001$. Estimated percentages based on covariates were 62.3% in 2005 and 51.4% in 2015. Actual percentages are reflected in the text.
- 200 Differences between years by LGBTQ status was conducted with a 2x2 ANCOVA controlling for sex, race/ethnicity, locale and region. Both main effects for year and LGBTQ status were significant: Year - $F(1,4277) = 8.67, p < .01$; LGBTQ status - $F(1,4277) = 36.48, p < .001$. The interaction Year X LGBTQ status was not significant at $p < .05$.
- 201 Differences between years on feeling unsafe because of personal characteristics was tested through multivariate analysis of covariance controlling for gender, locale, race/ethnicity, region, and sexual orientation. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .013, $F(7,4451) = 8.27, p < .001$. The univariate statistics were significant at $p < .05$ for physical appearance, gender, religion and gender expression. However, the effect size for gender expression made the difference not meaningful significant (eta-squared = .001).
- 202 Difference between years on missing days of school was tested through analysis of covariance controlling for gender, locale, race/ethnicity, region, and sexual orientation. The overall statistic was significant: $F(1,4423) = 91.58, p < .001$. Actual percentages are reflected in the text.
- 203 Differences between years by LGBTQ status was conducted with a 2x2 ANCOVA controlling for sex, race/ethnicity, locale and region. Both main effects for year and LGBTQ status were significant: Year - $F(1,4247) = 106.85, p < .01$; LGBTQ status - $F(1,4247) = 88.91, p < .001$. The interaction Year X LGBTQ status was also significant: $F(1,4247) = 22.92, p < .001$.
- 204 Differences between years on victimization because of personal characteristics were tested through multivariate analysis of covariance using the weighted victimization variables, controlling for gender, locale, race/ethnicity, region, and sexual orientation. The overall statistic was not significant. However, it is worth noting that the univariate statistics for victimization based on race/ethnicity was significant, indicating higher levels in 2015: $F(1,4242) = 4.88, p < .05$.
- 205 Differences between years on victimization of other types of victimization (sexual harassment, having mean lies or rumors spread, and property damage) were tested through multivariate analysis of covariance, controlling for gender, locale, race/ethnicity, region, and sexual orientation. The overall statistic was marginally significant: Pillai's trace = .002, $F(3,4344) = 2.22, p < .10$. Only the univariate statistic was significant for mean rumors/lies, $p < .05$.
- 206 Differences between years by LGBTQ status was conducted with a two-way MANCOVA controlling for sex, race/ethnicity, locale and region. The overall multivariate statistic for the Year X LGBTQ Status interaction was significant: Pillai's trace = .005, $F(3,4170) = 6.68, p < .001$. Univariate interaction effects were considered at $p < .05$ and were significant only for Sexual Harassment and Mean Rumors/Lies.
- 207 Differences between years was tested through chi-square analyses: $X^2 = 107.1, \Phi = .15, p < .001$.
- 208 Differences between years by LGBTQ status was tested through chi-square analyses. There was a significant increase between years for non-LGBTQ students: $X^2 = 100.2, \Phi = .15, p < .001$. The difference in years for LGBTQ students was not statistically significant at $p < .05$.
- 209 Differences between years by LGBTQ status were tested through chi-square analyses: $X^2 = 208.1, \text{Cramer's } V = .20, p < .001$.
- 210 Mean differences in the frequencies of hearing biased remarks across types were examined using repeated measures analysis of variance. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .654, $F(7,904) = 243.62, p < .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p < .05$. Frequency of hearing negative remarks about religion and hearing negative remarks about transgender people were not significantly different from each other. All other pairs were significantly different from each other. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

- 211 Mean differences in the frequencies of bullying, name-calling, and harassment across types were examined using repeated measures analysis of variance. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .648, $F(8, 854) = 196.72$, $p < .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p < .05$. Frequency of harassment based on sexual orientation and based on academic ability were not significantly different from each other. Frequency of harassment based on gender expression and based on academic ability were not significantly different from each other. Frequency of harassment based on race/ethnicity and based on socioeconomic status were not significantly different from each other. Frequency of harassment based on race/ethnicity and on disability was not significantly different from each other. Frequency of harassment based on religion and based on citizenship status were not significantly different from each other. All other pairs were significantly different from each other. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 212 Mean differences in teacher perceptions of safety across types of students (gay/lesbian/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, female teen who acted traditionally masculine) were examined using repeated measures analysis of variance. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .257, $F(3, 923) = 106.17$, $p < .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p < .05$. All pairwise comparisons were significantly different. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 213 To test differences in teachers' perceptions of bullying and harassment by school level, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with school level as the independent variable, and teachers' perception of safety as the dependent variable. The effect was not significant, $p > .05$.
- 214 To test differences in teachers hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "that's so gay" or "you're so gay," and comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine", sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from students by school level, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school level as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .039, $F(8, 777) = 3.90$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school level in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .005$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were more likely to be reported as prevalent by teachers in high school than middle school. The univariate effect for school level in hearing negative remarks about transgender people was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .006$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about transgender people were more likely to be reported as prevalent by teachers in middle school than high school. Here and elsewhere, percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- 215 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance, citizenship status) by school level, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school level as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .108, $F(9, 736) = 9.92$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school level in bullying and harassment due to appearance was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .031$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to appearance was more prevalent in middle school than high school. The univariate effect for school level in bullying and harassment due to academic ability was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .046$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to academic ability was more prevalent in middle school than high school. The univariate effect for school level in bullying and harassment due to socioeconomic status was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .012$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to socioeconomic status was more prevalent in middle school than high school. The univariate effect for school level in bullying and harassment due to disability was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .011$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to disability was more prevalent in middle school than high school. The univariate effect for school level in bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .007$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying due to citizenship status was more prevalent in middle school than high school.
- 216 To test differences in teacher perceptions of safety across types of students (lesbian/gay/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, female teen who acted traditionally masculine) by school level, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school level as the independent variable, and teacher perceptions of safety across types of students as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 217 To test differences in teachers' perceptions of safety by school type, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted, with school type as the independent variable, and teachers' perception of seriousness of bullying as the dependent variable. The univariate effect for school type in perceptions of bullying and harassment was significant: $p < .001$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment were perceived as less serious in religious schools than independent and public schools.
- 218 To test differences in teachers hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay," and comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine", sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from students by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school type as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .134, $F(16, 1804) = 8.09$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school type in hearing homophobic remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .047$. Post-hoc tests indicated that homophobic remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing racist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .061$. Post-hoc tests indicated that racist remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools.

- The univariate effect for school type in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .116$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were more prevalent in public than private and religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing religious remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .022$. Post-hoc tests indicated that religious remarks were more prevalent in public than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing transgender remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .030$. Post-hoc tests indicated that transgender remarks were more prevalent in public than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing gender expression remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .037$. Post-hoc tests indicated that gender expression remarks were more prevalent in public than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing “that’s so gay” was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .049$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing ability remarks were more prevalent in public than religious schools. The univariate effect for school type in hearing ability remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .028$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing ability remarks were more prevalent in public than religious schools.
- 219 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance, and citizenship status) by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school type as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai’s trace = .144, $F(18,1704) = 7.36$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .075$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was less prevalent in religious schools than public and independent schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to gender expression was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .048$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to gender expression was less prevalent in religious schools than public and independent schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .042$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was less prevalent in religious schools than public schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to religion was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .047$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to religion was less prevalent in religious schools than public schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to appearance was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .049$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to appearance was less prevalent in religious schools than public schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to academic ability was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .023$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to academic ability was less prevalent in religious schools than public and independent schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to socioeconomic status was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .062$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to socioeconomic status was less prevalent in religious schools than public and independent schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to disability was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .053$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to disability was less prevalent in religious schools than public and independent schools. The univariate effect for school type in bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .028$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was less prevalent in religious schools than public schools.
- 220 To test differences in teacher perceptions of safety across types of students (lesbian/gay/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, female teen who acted traditionally masculine) by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school type as the independent variable, and teacher perceptions of safety across types of students as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai’s trace = .033, $F(8,1842) = 3.87$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school type in teacher perceptions of safety for LGB teens was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Post-hoc tests indicated that perceptions of safety for LGB teens were lower in religious schools than public and independent schools. The univariate effect for school type in teacher perceptions of safety for transgender teens was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .013$. Post-hoc tests indicated that perceptions of safety for transgender teens were higher in independent schools than religious and public schools.
- 221 To test differences in teachers’ perceptions of bullying and harassment by school locale, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted, with school locale as the independent variable, and teachers’ perception of safety as the dependent variable. The univariate effect for school locale in perceptions of bullying and harassment was significant: $p < .05$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment were perceived as less serious in small town/rural schools than urban and suburban schools.
- 222 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression “That’s so gay” or “You’re so gay, and comments about a male student acting too “feminine” or a female student acting too “masculine”, sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with locale as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai’s trace = .083, $F(16,1804) = 4.89$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for school locale in hearing racist remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .020$. Post-hoc tests indicated that racist remarks were less prevalent in schools in small town/rural areas than schools in urban and suburban areas. The univariate effect for school locale in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .013$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were less prevalent in schools in small town/rural areas than schools in urban areas. The univariate effect for school

- locale in hearing religious remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .018$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative religious remarks were more prevalent in schools in suburban areas than schools in urban and small town/rural areas. The univariate effect for school locale in hearing transgender remarks was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .020$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about transgender people were less prevalent in schools in small town/rural areas than schools in urban and suburban areas. The univariate effect for school locale in hearing ability remarks was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Post-hoc tests indicated that homophobic remarks were less prevalent in schools in small town/rural areas than schools in suburban areas.
- 223 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance, and citizenship status) by school locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school locale as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .039, $F(18,1704) = 1.87$, $p < .05$. The univariate effect for school locale in bullying and harassment due to religion was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .011$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to religion was less prevalent in schools in small town/rural areas than schools in suburban areas. The univariate effect for school locale in bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .011$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was less prevalent in schools in small town/rural areas than schools in suburban areas.
- 224 To test differences in teacher perceptions of safety across types of students (lesbian/gay/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, female teen who acted traditionally masculine) by school locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with school locale as the independent variable, and teacher perceptions of safety across types of students as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 225 To test differences in teachers' perceptions of bullying and harassment by region, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted, with region as the independent variable, and teachers' perception of safety as the dependent variable. The univariate effect for region in perceptions of bullying and harassment was not significant.
- 226 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay, and comments about a male student acting too "feminine" or a female student acting too "masculine", sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with region as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .082, $F(24,2706) = 3.16$, $p < .001$. There were no significant univariate effects for region in hearing biased remarks.
- 227 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance, and citizenship status) by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with region as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .089, $F(27, 2556) = 2.91$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for region in bullying and harassment due to appearance was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .015$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to appearance was less prevalent in schools in the West than schools in the Midwest. The univariate effect for region in bullying and harassment due to academic ability was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .032$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to academic ability was less prevalent in schools in the West than schools in the Midwest.
- 228 To test differences in teacher perceptions of safety across types of students (lesbian/gay/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, female teen who acted traditionally masculine) by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with region as the independent variable, and teacher perceptions of safety across types of students as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .045, $F(12,2763) = 3.50$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for region in teacher perceptions of safety for transgender teens was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .014$. Post-hoc tests indicated that perceptions of safety for transgender teens were higher in schools in the Northeast than the South.
- 229 Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The percentage of lower-income students at the school was calculated based on a cutoff point representing the mean percentage (51.29%) of students on free/reduced priced lunch based on teacher reports. Higher values represent values above the mean. Lower values represent values at or below the mean.
- 230 Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and teacher perceptions of bullying and harassment as severe was positively correlated, $r = .183$, $p < .001$.
- 231 Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing homophobic remarks was positively correlated, $r = .183$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing racist remarks were positively correlated, $r = .282$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing sexist remarks were positively correlated, $r = .306$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing negative remarks about transgender people were positively correlated, $r = .108$, $p < .01$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing "that's so gay" were positively correlated, $r = .180$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing negative remarks about gender expression were positively correlated, $r = .154$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and hearing negative ability remarks were positively correlated, $r = .107$, $p < .01$.
- 232 Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was positively correlated, $r = .115$, $p < .01$. Percentage of

- students on free/reduced price lunch and bullying and harassment due to gender expression was positively correlated, $r = .107$, $p < .01$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was positively correlated, $r = .153$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and bullying and harassment due to appearance was positively correlated, $r = .198$, $p < .001$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and bullying and harassment due to socioeconomic status was positively correlated, $r = .097$, $p < .01$. Percentage of students on free/reduced price lunch and bullying and harassment due to disability was positively correlated, $r = .126$, $p < .001$.
- 233 There were no significant correlations between the percentage of low-income students in the school and teacher perception of these any of the four groups of students being safe.
- 234 Given that only teachers who reported hearing any of the 8 biased remarks were asked to report on their frequency of intervention, and that the chances that teachers would hear transphobic remarks are quite low, a series of paired t-tests were conducted to compare mean differences in teacher frequency of intervention in biased remarks. Paired t-tests were considered significant at $p < .05$. Intervention in sexist remarks was more frequent than intervention in all other remarks except negative remarks about ability. Intervention in negative remarks about ability was more frequent than intervention in negative remarks about gender expression, transphobic remarks, negative religious remarks and homophobic remarks. Intervention in homophobic remarks was more frequent than intervention in negative religious remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, transphobic remarks. Intervention in racist remarks was more frequent than intervention in negative religious remarks, transphobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression. Intervention in negative religious remarks was more frequent than intervention in negative expressions like "that's so gay," and transphobic remarks. Intervention in expressions like "that's so gay," was more frequent than negative remarks about gender expression. Intervention in transphobic remarks was lower compared to intervention in all other remarks. These findings remained the same after controlling for frequency of hearing biased remarks in school.
- 235 he relationship between frequency of intervention and sense of obligation was examined through Pearson correlations. *Homophobic remarks*: ($r = .103$, $p < .01$); *Transphobic remarks*: ($r = .164$, $p < .01$); *that's so gay*: ($r = .168$, $p < .01$); *Negative gender expression remarks*: ($r = .165$, $p < .01$).
- 236 Mean differences in teachers' comfort level intervening across different types of negative remarks were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's trace = .107, $F(7, 919) = 15.66$, $p < .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered significant at $p < .05$. Comfort intervening in negative remarks about ability significantly higher than all other comfort variables, $p < .05$. Comfort intervening in negative remarks about gender expression significantly lower than all other comfort variables, $p < .05$. Comfort intervening in transphobic remarks significantly lower than all other comfort variables, $p < .05$. Comfort intervening in homophobic remarks, racist remarks, sexist remarks, negative remarks about religion, and remarks like "That's so gay" are significantly higher than comfort intervening in transphobic remarks or negative remarks about gender expression, and significantly lower than levels of comfort intervening in negative remarks about ability, $p < .05$. Percentages presented for illustrative purposes.
- 237 To compare the association between comfort and intervention 8 correlations were run. All effects were significant. Homophobic remarks ($r = .306$, $p < .01$), Racist remarks ($r = .142$, $p < .01$), Sexist remarks ($r = .201$, $p < .01$), negative religious remarks ($r = .269$, $p < .01$), transphobic remarks ($r = .365$, $p < .01$), that's so gay ($r = .333$, $p < .01$), negative gender expression remarks ($r = .338$, $p < .01$), negative ability remarks ($r = .270$, $p < .01$).
- 238 Mean differences in teachers' comfort level intervening across different types of bullying based behavior were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's trace = .071, $F(3, 923) = 23.66$, $p < .001$. Univariate analyses were considered significant at $p < .05$. Percentages presented for illustrative purposes.
- 239 To assess differences in prevalence of engaging in various types of LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a repeated measures multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) ($7, 919$) = 90.787, $p < .001$, Pillai's trace: 0.409. Pairwise analysis were considered at $p < .05$. Percentages shown for illustrative purposes.
- 240 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Palmer, N. A., & Boesen, M. J. (2014). *The 2013 National School Climate Survey: The Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
- 241 To compare the relationship between LGBT-supportive practices and sense of obligation 2 correlations were run. *Engagement in any of these practices*: ($r = .064$, $p < .05$); *Number of practices engaged in*: ($r = .098$, $p < .001$).
- 242 To assess differences in comfort engaging in various types of LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a repeated measures multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) $F(3, 923) = 182.80$, $p < .001$, Pillai's trace: 0.373. Pairwise analysis were considered at $p < .05$. Percentages shown for illustrative purposes.
- 243 In order to assess the relationship between comfort level engaging in LGBT-supportive practices and engaging in LGBT-supportive practices engaged in, we first created a composite score for comfort engaging in supportive practices by calculating the mean comfort score for the four items assessing comfort for each type of practice (student support, student LGBT-related questions, serving as GSA advisor, LGBT-inclusive curriculum), then we conducted two Pearson correlations one with having engaged in any practices, and one with the number of practices. Both were significant at $p < .001$ – any practices: $r = .448$, number of practices: $r = .489$. Percentages shown for illustrative purposes.

- 244 In order to assess the relationship between comfort level engaging in four types of LGBT-supportive practices and engagement in each of the LGBT-supportive practices assessed, we conducted a series of Pearson correlations. All were significant except for relationships between comfort level variables and engagement in another LGBT-related activity not listed (e.g. "something else"), therefore correlations with "something else" not displayed. Percentages shown for illustrative purposes. (See table at bottom of page)
- 245 Principal components analysis was used to identify and compute composite scores for the factors underlying the items related to barriers. Initial eigen values indicated that the first three factors explained 24.2%, 15.0%, and 10.7% of the variance respectively. The three factor solution, which explained 49.9% of the variance, was preferred because of: (a) its theoretical support; (b) the 'leveling off' of eigen values on the scree plot after three factors; and (c) the insufficient number of primary loadings and difficulty of interpreting the subsequent factors. No items were eliminated because they did not contribute to a simple factor structure or failed to meet a minimum criteria of having a primary factor loading of .4 or above. The three factors identified were labeled as: internal beliefs, external pressures, and logistical concerns.
- 246 To assess differences in reasons for not engaging in LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a repeated measures multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) $F(2, 673) = 170.67, p < .001$, Pillai's trace: 0.337. Pairwise analysis were considered at $p < .05$. Percentages shown for illustrative purposes.
- 247 To examine relationship between number of identified barriers and number of LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a Pearson correlation: $r = -.222, p < .001$.
- 248 To examine which types of barriers predicted engaging in LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a series of Pearson correlations with the three barrier scales (internal, external, logistic) and the practices (total number of practices, engaged in any practices, and each type of practice). Any practices: internal barriers: $r = -.382, p < .001$; logistic barriers: $r = -.032, p < .05$; external barriers: not significant, $p > .05$. Number of practices: internal barriers: $r = -.383, p < .001$; logistic barriers: $r = -.062, p < .05$; external barriers: not significant, $p > .05$.
- 249 To examine relationship between internal barriers and engaging in each LGBT-supportive practice, we conducted a series of Pearson correlations. Providing support to LGBT students: $r = -.308, p < .001$; GSA advisor: $r = -.090, p < .01$; Educating/advocating for educating school staff: $r = -.195, p < .001$; Advocating for inclusive policies: $r = -.195, p < .001$; Displaying visual signs of support: $r = -.176, p < .001$; LGBT-inclusive curriculum: $r = -.258, p < .001$; Informal discussions with students: $r = -.325, p < .001$.
- 250 To examine relationship between logistical barriers and engaging in each LGBT-supportive practice, we conducted a series of Pearson correlations. Educating/advocating for educating school staff: $r = -.195, p < .001$; Advocating for inclusive policies: $r = -.070, p < .05$; LGBT-inclusive curriculum: $r = -.093, p < .01$. All other practices were not significantly related to logistical barriers, $p > .05$.
- 251 To examine relationship between internal barriers and engaging in each LGBT-supportive practice, we conducted a series of Pearson correlations. Educating/advocating for educating school staff: $r = -.127, p < .001$. Advocating for inclusive policies: $r = -.109, p < .01$. All other practices were not significantly related to external barriers, $p > .05$.
- 252 To compare the association between years teaching and average frequency of intervention in biased remarks, a correlation was conducted. Effect was not significant, $p > .05$.
- 253 Pew Research Center. (2015). Support for Same-Sex Marriage at Record High, but Key Segments Remain Opposed. obtained at file:///C:/Users/egreytak/Downloads/6-8-15-Same-sex-marriage-release1.pdf
- 254 A partial correlation was run to determine the relationship between teachers' years of experience and average frequency of intervention while controlling for age. There was a statistically significant partial correlation between years of experience and average frequency of teacher intervention while controlling for age: $r = .152, p < .001$.
- 255 We examined the relationship between engagement in LGBT-supportive efforts and years of teaching experience with Pearson correlations: There were significant differences in having engaged in any effort: $r = .096, p < .01$, and the total number of efforts: $r = .123, p < .001$. To examine differences in each type of effort by years of teaching experience, a series of correlations were conducted. Only the following were significant: one-on-one LGBTQ student support: $r = .126, p < .001$; advocated for inclusive school policies: $r = .085, p < .01$; and LGBT inclusive curriculum: $r = .090, p < .01$.
- 256 To examine differences in both citing any barriers and the number barriers by years of teaching experience, correlations were conducted; both were significant – any barriers: $r = -.142, p < .001$, number of barriers: $r = -.142, p < .001$.

Table Accompanying Endnote 244: Correlations between Comfort Variables and LGBT-Supportive Practices Variables

	Being a GSA Advisor	Educating Staff	Advancing Policy	Displaying Visual Supports	Inclusive Teaching	Informal Discussions
Comfort with Individual Support	0.066*	0.143	0.169	0.181	0.189	0.320
Comfort with Being GSA Advisor	0.141	0.230	0.251	0.282	0.302	0.359
Comfort with Questions	0.066*	0.134	0.186	0.201	0.256	0.387
Comfort with Inclusive Curriculum	0.114	0.193	0.260	0.242	0.410	0.381

All correlations significant at $p < .001$ unless indicated by *, which indicates significant at $p < .05$

- 257 To examine differences in each type of barriers by years of teaching experience, a series of correlations were conducted. The correlation between years of experience and internal barriers was not significant. The remaining correlations were significant: external barriers: $r = -.075$, $p < .05$, logistical barriers: $r = -.097$, $p < .01$.
- 258 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Palmer, N.A., & M. J., Boesen, M. J. (2014). *The 2013 National School Climate Survey: The Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
- 259 In the survey, teachers were asked which of the following subjects they taught; they could choose one or more of the following responses: Math, English/Language Arts, History/Social Science, Political Science, Social Science, Physical Science, Foreign Language, Computer Science, Home Economics/Shop, Music/Art, Health, Physical Education/Gym, Other Subject. For assessing differences between teachers based on subject taught, we created a new variable for subject taught and based on preliminary analysis, we first consolidated subject areas that were similar in content (e.g., Health and Physical Education, History and Political Science) and in responses to items of interest. Excluded from the analysis were: 1) teachers who taught more than one subject (the newly created combined subjects were considered one subject), 2) subject areas with fewer than 6% of the sample, in order to ensure large enough sample sizes in each category. This resulted in a final sample of $N=538$ teachers, each teaching one of the six subjects indicated in Table 2.3.
- 260 To examine differences in each type of barrier by subject taught, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with subject as the independent variable (analysis conducted only with teachers who taught only one subject) and types of barriers as the dependent variables; the effect was not significant, $p > .05$. To examine differences in number of barriers by subject taught, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted. There were no significant differences, $p > .05$.
- 261 Mean differences in teachers' overall intervention when hearing negative remarks by teacher subject were examined by conducting a one-way ANOVA. Effect was significant: $F(5,470) = 4.87$, $p < .001$. Post Hoc tests were considered significant at $p < .05$. In general these findings held when controlling for teacher LGBT status and sex.
- 262 To assess teacher subject area differences in engagement in any LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a chi-square analysis: $\chi^2 = 25.23$ (5), $p < .001$, Phi /Cramer's $V = .224$. Math teachers were significant less likely than both English and History/Social Studies teachers to have engaged in any practices, there were no other differences between subject areas. To assess teacher subject area differences in number of LGBT-supportive practices teachers engaged in, we conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA), the effect was significant $F(5, 243) = 7.05$, $p < .05$, eta squared = .127, pairwise comparisons were considered at $p < .05$, English teachers engaged in more types of practices than all other teachers, History/Social Studies teachers engaged in a great number of practices than all other subject areas other than English, Music/Art, and Health/PE, there were no other differences between subject areas.
- To assess teacher subject area differences in engagement in each of the LGBT-supportive practices, we conducted a series of chi-square analyses. Individual LGBT student support: $\chi^2 = 35.55$ (5), $p < .001$, Phi /Cramer's $V = .266$, English teachers were more more likely than Math, Physical Science, and Music/Art teachers, there were no other subject area differences; GSA advisor: there were no significant differences between subject areas, $p > .05$; Educating staff: $\chi^2 = 18.42$ (5), $p < .01$, Phi /Cramer's $V = .191$, although the overall chi-square statistic was significant, the univariate differences between subject areas were not; policy advocacy: $\chi^2 = 24.30$ (5), $p < .001$, Phi /Cramer's $V = .220$, Math teachers were significantly less likely than English teachers, there were not other subject area differences; Display visual signs: there were no significant differences between subject areas, $p > .05$; inclusive curriculum: $\chi^2 = 28.66$ (5), $p < .001$, Phi /Cramer's $V = .238$, Math teachers were less likely than English or History/Social Studies teachers, $p > .05$; Discussing with students: $\chi^2 = 27.14$ (5), $p < .001$, Phi /Cramer's $V = .232$, Math teachers were less likely than English or History/Social Studies teachers, $p > .05$.
- 263 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Palmer, N.A., & M. J., Boesen, M. J. (2014). *The 2013 National School Climate Survey: The Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
- 264 Greytak, E.A. & Kosciw, J.G. (2014). Predictors of U.S. teachers' intervention in anti-lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender bullying and harassment. *Teaching Education* 24(4), 410–426.
- 265 One would expect that teachers who reported advising a Gay-Straight Alliance and teachers who indicated that they had provided support to LGBT students would know a least one LGBT students, It is surprising that any of these teachers would indicate that they did not know an LGBT person.
- 266 To test differences in intervention against anti-LGBT remarks among teachers who knew someone LGBT, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's trace = .059, $F(4, 423) = 6.66$, $p < .001$. Univariate tests were significant. *Homophobic remarks*: $F(1,426) = 12.67$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .029$. *That's so gay*: $F(1,426) = 11.27$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .026$. Negative remarks based on gender expression: $F(1,426) = 8.28$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .011$. Intervention in transphobic remarks were not significant, $p > .05$.
- 267 To examine differences in specific types of efforts by LGBT status, a series of chi-squares were conducted. The following were statistically significant: one-on-one LGBT student support: $\chi^2 = 11.71$ (1), $p < .01$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .107$; conduct/advocate for educator PD: $\chi^2 = 4.80$ (1), $p < .05$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .069$; advocate for inclusive policy: $\chi^2 = 4.96$ (1), $p < .05$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .070$; visual signs of support: $\chi^2 = 13.75$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .116$; inclusive curriculum: $\chi^2 = 13.75$ (1), $p < .01$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .108$; and discuss with group of students: $\chi^2 = 29.35$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .170$.

- 268 To examine differences in each type of barrier by knowing someone who was LGBT, a series of chi-squares were conducted for type of barrier. None of the barriers were significant, $p > .05$. To examine differences in the number barriers cited by knowing someone who was LGBT, a t-test was conducted and it was not significant, $p < .05$. To examine differences in identifying any barriers knowing someone who was LGBT, a chi-square test was conducted; there were no significant differences, $p > .05$.
- 269 To test differences in teacher intervention when hearing the following anti-LGBT remarks: negative remarks about transgender people, the expression "That's so gay" or "You're so gay," homophobic remarks, and negative remarks about students' gender expression based on LGBTQ status, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's trace = .045, $F(4, 415) = 4.94$, $p < .01$. Univariate tests were not significant, $p > .05$.
- 270 To examine differences in engaging in any LGBT-supportive effort by LGBT status, we conducted a chi-square: $\chi^2 = 22.54$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .149$. This relationship remained significant even when controlling for knowing another LGBT person). We conducted a t-test to examine relationship between LGBT status and the number of activities engaged in: t-test: $t(1004) = 5.42$, $p < .001$.
- 271 To examine differences in specific types of efforts by LGBT status, a series of chi-squares were conducted. The following were statistically significant: one-on-one LGBT student support: $\chi^2 = 4.32$ (1), $p < .005$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .066$; conduct/advocate for educator PD: $\chi^2 = 14.85$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .121$; advocate for inclusive policy: $\chi^2 = 11.64$ (1), $p < .01$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .108$; visual signs of support: $\chi^2 = 53.74$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .231$; and inclusive curriculum: $\chi^2 = 11.28$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .106$.
- 272 To examine differences in number of barriers by LGBT status, a t-test was conducted: it was not significant. $p > .05$.
- 273 To examine differences in each types of barrier by LGBT status, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, Pillai's trace = .033, $F(3, 914) = 10.46$, $p < .001$. Univariate tests for external barriers and internal barriers were significant at $p < .05$ and $p < .01$, respectively.
- 274 Kahn, M., & Gorski, P. C. (2016). The Gendered and Heterosexist Evolution of the Teacher Exemplar in the United States: Equity Implications for LGBTQ and Gender Nonconforming Teachers. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 18(2), 15–38.
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- 275 Gorski, P. C., Davis, S. N., & Reiter, A. (2013). An examination of the (in) visibility of sexual orientation, heterosexism, homophobia, and other LGBTQ concerns in U.S. multicultural teacher education coursework. *Journal of LGBT Youth*, 10(3), 224–248.
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- 276 To examine differences intervention in biased remarks (using the composite intervention score with the mean of intervention in all types of remarks) by having received any professional development (PD), a series of t-tests were conducted with the: PD Diversity: $t(934) = 2.59$, $p < .01$; PD LGB: $t(934) = 2.56$, $p < .01$; PD Transgender: $t(934) = 2.65$, $p < .01$; PD Bullying was not significant, $p > .05$.
- 277 To examine differences in engaging in any LGBT-supportive practice by receiving PD, we conducted a series of chi-square analyses: PD Diversity: $\chi^2 = 82.61$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .285$; PD Bullying: $\chi^2 = 16.28$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .127$; PD LGB: $\chi^2 = 16.28$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .127$; PD Transgender: $t(934) = 2.654$, $p < .01$; $\chi^2 = 78.577$ (1), $p < .001$, Phi/Cramer's $V = .278$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.
- To examine differences in the number of LGBT-supportive practices engaged in by receiving PD, we conducted a series of t-tests. PD Diversity: $t(1013) = 8.89$, $p < .001$; PD LGB: $t(1013) = 8.41$, $p < .001$; PD Transgender: $t(1013) = 7.51$, $p < .001$; PD Bullying: $t(1013) = 2.69$, $p < .01$.
- 278 The various types of PD were correlated with each other at $p < .001$ with PD on bullying and PD on diversity being relatively highly corrected: $r = .609$, $p < .001$, and PD on LGB issues and PD on transgender issues being strongly correlated at $r = .751$.
- 279 To examine relative contribution of receiving each type of PD on having engaged in any LGBT-supportive practices, a logistic regression was conducted: Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.135$, $\chi^2 = 108.49$ (4), $p < .001$; Bullying PD was not significant, $p > .05$, PD Diversity, PD LGB, and PD transgender were all significant at $p < .01$. = .667, 574, .790, respectively; $df = 1$.
- 280 GLSEN. (2012). *Playgrounds and Prejudice: Elementary School Climate in the United States. A Survey of Students and Teachers*. Gay, Lesbian and Straight Education Network.
- GLSEN & Harris Interactive. (2008). *The Principal's Perspective: School Safety, Bullying, and Harassment: A Survey of Public School Principals*. GLSEN.
- 281 To examine differences in receiving PD in current position by school level (only teachers who taught middle school or high school only), we conducted a series of chi-square analyses: PD Bullying: $\chi^2 = 4.87$ $df = 1$, Phi = .074 $p < .05$; PD LGB: $\chi^2 = 5.31$, $df = 2$, Phi = .078 $p < .01$; PD Transgender: $t(934) = 12.16$ $df = 2$, Phi = .110 $p < .01$. PD Diversity was not significant.

- 282 To examine differences in receiving PD in current position by region, we conducted a series of chi-square analyses: PD Bullying: $\chi^2 = 9.161$ $df=3$, $\Phi = .095$ $p<.05$; PD LGB: $\chi^2 = 13.213$ $df=3$, $\Phi = .114$ $p<.01$; PD Transgender: $t(934) = 9.097$ $df=3$, $\Phi = .110$ $p<.05$. PD Diversity was not significant.
- 283 To examine differences in receiving PD in current position by school socioeconomic status (as assessed by teachers' reports of percentage of students eligible for free/reduced lunch), we conducted a series of Pearson correlations: PD LGB: $r = .103$, $p<.01$; PD Transgender: $r = .103$, $p<.01$. Correlations were not significant for PD Bullying or PD Diversity. Percentages are presented for illustrative purposes. The percentage of lower-income students at the school was calculated based on a cutoff point representing the mean percentage (51.29%) of students on free/reduced priced lunch based on teacher reports. Higher values represent values above the mean. Lower values represent values at or below the mean.
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- 285 To assess differences in teachers' ratings of helpfulness of various efforts to create safe schools, we conducted a repeated measures MANOVA among the four efforts (training, policy, supportive administration, and GSAs). The main effect was significant, $F(3, 810) = 12.45$, $p<.001$, Pillai's trace = .044; Policies were higher than all other three efforts at $p<.001$, There were no other significant differences.
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- 289 To test differences in teachers' perceptions of seriousness of bullying and harassment by policy type, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and teachers' perception of safety as the dependent variable. The univariate effect for policy type in perceptions of bullying and harassment was not significant.
- 290 To test differences in teacher perceptions of safety across types of students (lesbian/gay/bisexual teen, transgender teen, male teen who acted traditionally feminine, female teen who acted traditionally masculine) by policy type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and teacher perceptions of safety across types of students as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was not significant.
- 291 To test differences in hearing biased remarks (homophobic remarks, negative remarks about transgender people, expression "that's so gay" or "you're so gay, and negative remarks about gender expression, sexist remarks, racist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative religious remarks) from other students by policy type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing biased remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .078, $F(16, 1804) = 4.60$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing homophobic remarks was significant: $p<.001$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Post-hoc tests indicated that homophobic remarks were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with generic policies. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing racist remarks was significant: $p<.01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated no significant differences. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing sexist remarks was significant: $p<.01$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that sexist remarks were more prevalent in schools with generic and LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with no policies. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing religious remarks was significant: $p<.001$, $\eta^2 = .021$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative religious remarks were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies and no policies than schools with generic policies. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing transgender remarks was significant: $p<.001$, $\eta^2 = .025$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about transgender people were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with generic policies. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing "that's so gay" was significant: $p<.001$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Post-hoc tests indicated that hearing "that's so gay" was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies and generic policies than schools with no policies. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing gender expression remarks was significant: $p<.01$, $\eta^2 = .016$. Post-hoc tests indicated that negative remarks about gender expression were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with generic policies. The univariate effect for policy type in hearing ability remarks was significant: $p<.05$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Post-hoc tests indicated that ability remarks were more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with no policies. These differences held even when controlling for school characteristics (level, type, local, region, and SES).
- 292 To test differences in bullying and harassment (religion, income, disability, gender expression, ability, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, appearance, and citizenship status) by policy type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable, and frequency of bullying and

- harassment as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .087, $F(18,1704) = 4.29$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect for policy type in bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .008$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to sexual orientation was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with generic policies. The univariate effect for policy type in bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to race/ethnicity was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with no policies. The univariate effect for policy type in bullying and harassment due to religion was significant: $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .027$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to religion was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with generic policies. The univariate effect for policy type in bullying and harassment due to appearance was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to appearance was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with no policies. The univariate effect for policy type in bullying and harassment due to academic ability was significant: $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to academic ability was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with no policies. The univariate effect for policy type in bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was significant: $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Post-hoc tests indicated that bullying and harassment due to citizenship status was more prevalent in schools with LGBT-enumerated policies than schools with generic policies. These differences held even when controlling for school characteristics (level, type, local, region, and SES).
- 293 To test differences between having no policy, a generic policy, and an LGBT-enumerated policy, a one-way ANOVA was conducted with the mean teacher frequency of intervention in sexist remarks, negative remarks about student ability, racist remarks, the expression "that's so gay," homophobic remarks, negative religious remarks, negative remarks about student gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people as the dependent variable. Effect was not significant, $p > .05$.
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- 295 To compare differences in receipt of professional development by policy type, four chi-square tests were conducted.
- Bullying/Harassment: $\chi^2 = 78.77$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .279$. Teachers in schools with no anti-bullying policies were less likely to receive professional development on bullying and harassment than teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated or generic policies. Enumerated and generic policies did not differ. These differences held even when controlling for school characteristics (level, type, local, region, and SES). Diversity/Multicultural Issues: $\chi^2 = 61.530$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .246$. Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policies were more likely to receive professional development on diversity/multicultural issues than teachers in schools with generic or no policies. Teachers in schools with generic policies were more likely to receive professional development on these issues than teachers in schools without a policy. These differences held even when controlling for school characteristics (level, type, local, region, and SES). LGB Issues: $\chi^2 = 48.062$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .217$. Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policies were more likely to receive professional development on LGB issues than teachers in schools with generic or no policies. Generic policies and no policies did not differ. These differences held even when controlling for school characteristics (level, type, local, region, and SES). Transgender Issues: $\chi^2 = 58.07$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .239$. Teachers in schools with LGBT-enumerated anti-bullying policies were more likely to receive professional development on transgender issues than teachers in schools with generic or no policies. Generic policies and no policies did not differ. These differences held even when controlling for school characteristics (level, type, local, region, and SES).
- 296 Differences between years on teachers' perceptions on the seriousness of the problem was tested through an independent samples t-test, which was not statistically significant at $p < .05$. However, when we controlled for personal characteristics (age, race/ethnicity, gender) in an analysis of covariance, there was a significant effect by year: $F(1,1898) = 7.62$, $p < .01$. However, the effect size was small ($\eta^2 = .004$), indicating the differences were very small.
- 297 Differences between years on teachers' perceptions of how often other students are bullied at school because of personal characteristics were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .03, $F(7,1782) = 7.75$, $p < .001$. Univariate statistics were considered significant at $p < .05$. However, even though all dependent variables but "family income" were statistically different between years, an examination of the effect sizes indicated that only "appearance," "academic ability," "gender expression," and "sexual orientation" had meaningful yet still small effects (partial η^2 of .01 or higher). Actual percentages, not parameter estimates, shown for illustrative purposes.
- 298 Differences within subjects on type of bullying and between subjects by year were tested through a repeated measures MANOVA. The multivariate within-subject effect and the interaction were both significant: Bullying Type: Pillai's trace = .637, $F(6,1791) = 524.71$, $p < .001$; Bullying Type X Time: Pillai's trace = .019, $F(6,1791) = 5.69$, $p < .001$. Examination of the univariate effects shows that "Appearance" was highest in both years, and "Academic Ability" and "Gender Expression" were higher than all other types of bullying in both years, but not different from each other. "Religion" was significantly lower in both years.
- 299 Differences between years on frequency of biased remarks in school were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .07, $F(6,1882) = 24.40$, $p < .001$. Univariate statistics were considered at $p < .05$. Actual percentages, not parameter estimates, shown for illustrative purposes. Further examination with repeated measures MANOVA indicated a significant Type of Remarks X Time interaction: Pillai's trace = .07, $F(5,18883) = 28.74$, $p < .001$. The effect of time was largest for "homophobic remarks" and "that's so gay" (partial $\eta^2 = .04$ and $.18$, respectively).

- 300 Differences between years on reported frequency of intervention was tested through a series of analyses of covariance controlling for frequency of the type of biased language: Sexist Remarks – $F(1,1673) = 16.82, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$; Homophobic Remarks – $F(1,1522) = 16.12, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$; Racist Remarks – $F(1,1321) = 12.57, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$; Religious Remarks – $F(1,1018) = 17.86, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$.
- 301 Differences between years on teachers' perceptions of safety for LGBT and gender nonconforming students were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .05, $F(4,1903) = 25.67, p < .001$. Univariate statistics were considered significant at $p < .05$. All four variables were significant across the two years.
- 302 Differences within subjects on teachers' perceptions of safety of LGBT and gender nonconforming students and between subjects by year were tested through a repeated measures MANOVA. The multivariate within-subject effect and the interaction were both significant: Type of Student: Pillai's trace = .343, $F(3,1904) = 331.67, p < .001$; Type of Student X Time: Pillai's trace = .04, $F(3,1904) = 26.45, p < .001$. Examination of the univariate effects shows that perceptions of safety for transgender students had the largest increase yet was still lowest in both years. In addition, perceived safety of gender nonconforming female students was highest in both years. In 2005, there was no difference between perceived safety of gender nonconforming male students and LGB students; but in 2015, perceived safety for LGB students was statistically higher.
- 303 Differences between years on teachers' perceived helpfulness of LGBT-related school supports were tested through multivariate analysis of variance. The overall statistic was significant: Pillai's trace = .054, $F(4,1703) = 24.15, p < .001$. Univariate statistics were considered significant at $p < .05$. All four variables were significant across the two years. The effect size was highest for clubs (partial $\eta^2 = .04$) compared to the other three supports (Policy: partial $\eta^2 = .003$; Administration: partial $\eta^2 = .009$; Training: partial $\eta^2 = .012$).
- 304 Differences within subjects on teachers' perceived helpfulness of LGBT-related school supports and between subjects by year were tested through a repeated measures MANOVA. The multivariate within-subject effect and the interaction were both significant: Type of Support: Pillai's trace = .119, $F(3,1704) = 76.45, p < .001$; Type of Support X Time: Pillai's trace = .04, $F(3,1704) = 23.44, p < .001$. Examination of the univariate effects shows that perceived helpfulness of Policy was highest in both years and that there was a greater increase in perceived helpfulness of Clubs.
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