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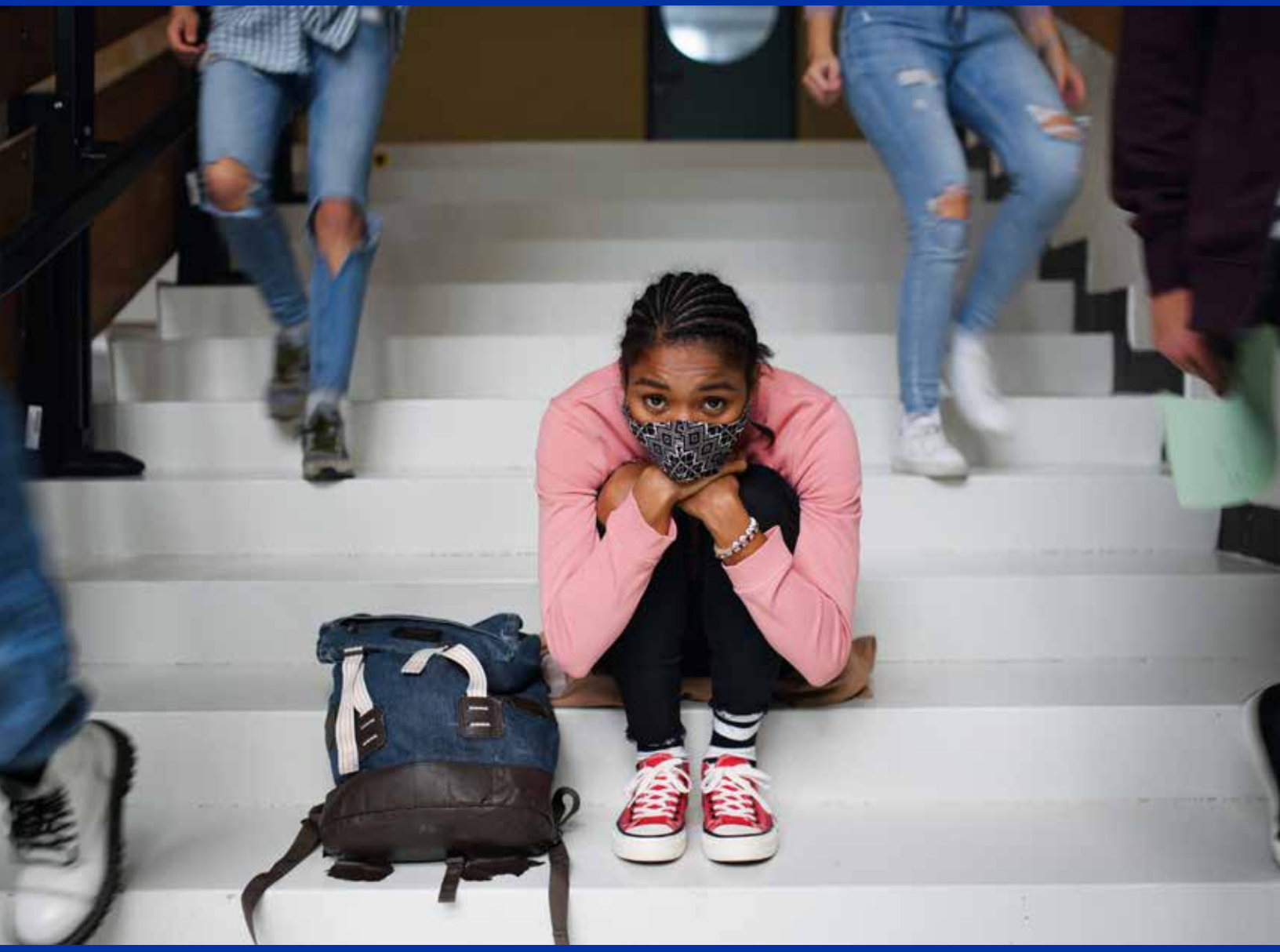
The 2021 National School Climate Survey

The Experiences of LGBTQ+ Youth in Our Nation's Schools



A Report from GLSEN

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The 2021 National School Climate Survey

The Experiences of LGBTQ+ Youth in Our Nation's Schools

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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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CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Acknowledgements

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

ABOUT THE SURVEY

In 1999, GLSEN identified that little was known about the school experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ+) youth and that LGBTQ+ youth were nearly absent from national studies of adolescents. We responded to this national need for data by launching the first National School Climate Survey, and we continue to meet this need for current data by conducting the study every two years. Since then, the biennial National School Climate Survey has documented the unique challenges LGBTQ+ students face and identified interventions that can improve school climate. The study documents the prevalence of indicators of a hostile school climate for LGBTQ+ students, and explores the effects that a hostile school climate may have on LGBTQ+ students' educational outcomes and well-being. The study also examines the availability and the utility of LGBTQ+-related school resources and supports that may offset the negative effects of a hostile school climate and promote a positive learning experience. Across the years, the survey has been slightly modified with each installment to reflect new or emerging concerns about school climate for LGBTQ+ students, but its content has remained largely the same since 2001. However, the data used for this current report is from the 2020–2021 academic year, when schools had to respond to the COVID pandemic. Because of that, we had to adapt and modify some survey questions accordingly to changes in school structures and instructional methods. While the report includes findings about LGBTQ+ students' experiences in schools overall, we also discuss key findings about the differences between the experiences of students in online only, in-person only, and hybrid learning environments throughout the report. The National School Climate Survey remains one of the few studies to examine the school experiences of LGBTQ+ students nationally, and its results have been vital to GLSEN's understanding of the issues that LGBTQ+ students face, thereby informing our ongoing work to ensure safe and affirming schools for all.

In our 2021 report, we examine the experiences of LGBTQ+ students with regard to indicators of negative school climate:

- Hearing biased remarks, including homophobic remarks, in school;
- Feeling unsafe in school because of personal characteristics, such as sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, or race/ethnicity;
- Missing classes or days of school because of safety reasons;
- Experiencing harassment and assault in school and online; and
- Experiencing discriminatory policies and practices at school.

In addition, we examine whether students report these experiences to school officials or their families, and how these adults addressed the problem. Further, we examine the impact of a hostile school climate on LGBTQ+ students' academic achievement, educational aspirations, and psychological well-being. We also examine how the school experiences of LGBTQ+ students vary by personal and community characteristics.

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

- GSAs (Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances) or similar clubs;
- Supportive and inclusive school policies, such as anti-bullying/harassment policies and transgender and nonbinary student policies;
- Supportive school staff; and
- Curricular resources that are inclusive of LGBTQ+-related topics.

Given that GLSEN has been conducting the survey for two decades, we also examine changes over time on indicators of negative school climate and levels of access to LGBTQ+-related resources in schools.

METHODS

The 2021 National School Climate Survey was conducted online from April through August 2021. To obtain a representative national sample of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ+) youth, we conducted outreach through national, regional, and local organizations that provide services to or advocate on behalf of LGBTQ+ youth, and advertised and promoted on social media sites, such as Instagram, Facebook, and Snapchat. To ensure representation of transgender youth, youth of color, and youth in rural communities, we made special efforts to notify groups and organizations that work predominantly with these populations.

The final sample consisted of a total of 22,298 students between the ages of 13 and 21. Students came from all 50 states, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, and Northern Mariana Islands. Just over two-thirds of the sample (67.2%) was White, 33.8% identified as cisgender and 31.5% as nonbinary, and 30.1% identified as bisexual and 28.8% as gay or lesbian. The average age of students in the sample was 15.4 years and they were in grades 6 to 12, with the largest numbers in grades 9, 10 and 11.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Hostile School Climate

Schools nationwide are hostile environments for a distressing number of LGBTQ+ students, the overwhelming majority of whom routinely hear anti-LGBTQ+ language and experience victimization and discrimination at school. As a result, many LGBTQ+ students avoid school activities or miss school entirely.

School Safety

- 81.8% of LGBTQ+ students in our survey reported feeling unsafe in school because of at least one of their actual or perceived personal characteristics.
- 68.0% of LGBTQ+ students felt unsafe at school because of their SOGIE (sexual orientation, gender identity and/or gender expression) characteristics—50.6% because of their sexual orientation, 43.2% because of their gender expression, and 40.3% because of their gender.
- Overall, LGBTQ+ students in online-only learning environments were least likely to feel unsafe at school due to a personal characteristic and those in in-person only learning environments were most likely.
- LGBTQ+ students most commonly avoided school bathrooms, locker rooms, and physical education or gym classes, with approximately 4 in 10 students avoiding each of these spaces because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (45.1%, 42.6%, and 39.4% respectively).
- Most reported avoiding school functions or extracurricular activities (78.8%) because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable.
- LGBTQ+ students who had been only in in-person learning environments did not differ from those who had been in hybrid learning environments with regard to avoiding spaces at school.
- 32.2% of LGBTQ+ students missed at least one entire day of school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, 11.3% missed four or more days in the past month.

- Nearly a fifth of LGBTQ+ students (16.2%) reported having ever changed schools due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable at school.

Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks at School

- Nearly all LGBTQ+ students (97.0%) heard "gay" used in a negative way (e.g., "that's so gay") at school; 68.0% heard these remarks frequently or often, and 93.7% reported that they felt distressed because of this language.

- 95.1% of LGBTQ+ students heard the phrase "no homo" at school, and 63.3% heard this phrase frequently or often.

- 89.9% of LGBTQ+ students heard other types of homophobic remarks (e.g., "dyke" or "faggot"); 44.2% heard this type of language frequently or often.

- 91.8% of LGBTQ+ students heard negative remarks about gender expression (not acting "masculine enough" or "feminine enough"); 56.2% heard these remarks frequently or often.

- 83.4% of LGBTQ+ students heard negative remarks specifically about transgender people, like "tranny" or "he/she;" 39.5% heard them frequently or often.

- 58.0% of students reported hearing homophobic remarks from their teachers or other school staff, and 72.0% of students reported hearing negative remarks about gender expression from teachers or other school staff.

- Overall, students who attended school only in-person heard anti-LGBTQ+ remarks more frequently than did students who attended school only online or in a hybrid setting

- Only one-tenth of LGBTQ+ students (10.9%) reported that school staff intervened most of the time or always when overhearing homophobic remarks at school, and less than one-tenth of LGBTQ+ students (8.8%) reported that school staff intervened most of the time or always when overhearing negative remarks about gender expression.

- LGBTQ+ students who were in in-person only learning environments reported the lowest levels of staff intervention on anti-LGBTQ+ remarks.

Harassment and Assault at School

The vast majority of LGBTQ+ students who attended school in-person at some point during the 2021–2022 academic year (83.1%) experienced in-person harassment or assault based on personal characteristics, including sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, religion, actual or perceived race/ethnicity, and actual or perceived disability. Among LGBTQ+ students who were in in-person only or hybrid learning environments:

- 76.1% experienced in-person verbal harassment (e.g., called names or threatened) specifically based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender at some point in the past year—60.7% of LGBTQ+ students were verbally harassed based on their sexual orientation, 57.4% based on gender expression, and 51.3% based on gender.

- 31.2% were physically harassed (e.g., pushed or shoved) in the past year based on based on their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender—22.4% of LGBTQ+ students were physically harassed at school based on their sexual orientation, 20.6% based on gender expression, and 20.5% based on gender.

- 12.5% were physically assaulted (e.g., punched, kicked, injured with a weapon) in the past year based on their sexual orientation, gender expression or gender—8.8% were physically assaulted based on their sexual orientation, 8.2% based on gender expression, and 8.3% based on gender.

- A sizable number of LGBTQ+ students were harassed or assaulted at school based on other characteristics—34.4% based on actual or perceived disability, 29.0% based on religion, and 23.3% based on actual or perceived race/ethnicity.

- 53.7% of LGBTQ+ students were sexually harassed (e.g., unwanted touching or sexual remarks) in the past year at school.

LGBTQ+ students who attended school online at some point during the 2020–2021 academic year were asked about their experiences with online harassment based on personal characteristics during the school day by students from their school. Among those who attended school online at some point during the 2021–2022 academic year:

- 36.6% were harassed online based on their sexual orientation;

- 31.8% were harassed online based on their gender expression; and

- 30.3% were harassed online based on their gender.

Students who were in online only learning environments experienced higher rates of online harassment based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression than those who were in hybrid learning environments.

Additionally, many LGBTQ+ students reported online harassment based on other characteristics:

- 17.3% reported being harassed online based on their actual or perceived disability,

- 13.7% reported being harassed online based on their religion; and

- 13.2% reported being harassed online based on actual or perceived race/ethnicity.

Student Reporting of Harassment and Assault Incidents

- 61.5% of LGBTQ+ students who were harassed or assaulted in school did not report the incident to school staff, most commonly (69.6% of students experiencing harassment or assault) because they did not think school staff would do anything about the harassment even if they did report it.

- Students in in-person learning environments reported harassment to school staff at higher rates than did students in online only or hybrid settings; half of students (49.5%) who attended school online (both online only and hybrid), stated that they did not report victimization online and instead only reported these experiences to staff when they attended school in person.

- 60.3% of the students who did report an incident said that school staff did nothing in response or told the student to ignore it.

- Staff responses to reports of harassment and assault were similar across all three types of learning environments.

Discriminatory School Policies and Practices

Most LGBTQ+ students (58.9%) had experienced LGBTQ+-related discriminatory policies or practices at school. Some of the most common discriminatory policies and practices experienced by LGBTQ+ students were those that targeted students' gender, potentially limiting their ability to make gender-affirming choices and negatively impacting their school experience:

- 29.2% had been prevented from using their chosen name or pronouns in their schools;
- 27.2% had been prevented from using the bathroom that aligned with their gender;
- 23.8% had been prevented from using the locker room that aligned with their gender;
- 20.6% had been prevented from wearing clothes deemed "inappropriate" based on gender; and
- 16.0% had been prevented from playing on the sports team that is consistent with their gender.

Many LGBTQ+ students also experienced other forms of discrimination:

- 25.2% of LGBTQ+ students were disciplined for public affection, such as kissing or holding hands, that is not similarly disciplined among non-LGBTQ+ students;
- 16.6% of LGBTQ+ students were prevented from writing or talking about LGBTQ+ issues in extracurricular activities;
- 15.6% of LGBTQ+ students were prevented from writing about or doing school projects about LGBTQ+ issues;
- 12.3% of LGBTQ+ students were prevented from wearing clothing supporting LGBTQ+ issues;
- 12.3% of LGBTQ+ were prevented from forming or promoting a GSA; and
- 11.3% of LGBTQ+ students shared that school staff or coaches had prevented or discouraged them from playing sports because they identified as LGBTQ+.

LGBTQ+ students who had only been in in-person learning environments during the academic year were far more likely to experience any form of LGBTQ+-related discrimination than those in the other types of learning environments.

Effects of a Hostile School Climate

A hostile school climate affects students' academic success and mental health. LGBTQ+ students who experience victimization and discrimination at school have worse educational outcomes and poorer psychological well-being.

Effects of Victimization

LGBTQ+ students who experienced higher levels of in-person victimization because of their sexual orientation:

- Were nearly three times as likely to have missed school in the past month than those who experienced lower levels (60.7% vs. 23.3%);
- Felt lower levels of belonging to their school community, performed poorer academically, (2.83 vs.

3.15 average GPA), and were nearly twice as likely to report that they did not plan to pursue any post-secondary education (e.g., college or trade school) than those who experienced lower levels (16.6% vs. 9.4%);

- Were nearly twice as likely to have been disciplined at school than those who experienced lower levels of victimization (61.1% vs. 33.6%); and
- Had lower self-esteem and higher levels of depression than those who experienced lower levels of victimization.

LGBTQ+ students who experienced higher levels of in-person victimization because of their gender expression:

- Were almost three times as likely to have missed school in the past month than those who experienced lower levels (60.7% vs. 23.6%);
- Felt lower levels of belonging to their school community, performed poorer academically, (2.76 vs. 3.17 average GPA), and were twice as likely to report that they did not plan to pursue any post-secondary education (e.g., college or trade school; 18.3% vs. 8.8%) than those who experienced lower levels of victimization;
- Were more likely to have been disciplined at school than those who experienced lower levels of victimization (59.8 % vs. 34.7%), and
- Had lower self-esteem and higher levels of depression than those who experiences lower levels of victimization.

LGBTQ+ students who experienced higher levels of in-person victimization because of their gender:

- Were almost three times as likely to have missed school in the past month than those who experienced lower levels (60.3% vs. 24.4%);
- Felt lower levels of belonging to their school community, performed poorer academically (2.76 vs. 3.17 average GPA), and were twice as likely to report that they did not plan to pursue any post-secondary education (e.g., college or trade school; 18.1% vs. 9.0%) than those who experienced lower levels of victimization;
- Were more likely to have been disciplined at school than those who experienced lower levels of victimization (60.9% vs. 33.9%); and
- Had lower self-esteem and higher levels of depression than those who experienced lower levels of victimization.

Of the LGBTQ+ students who indicated that they were considering dropping out of school, half (51.5%) indicated that they were doing so because of a hostile school climate, including issues with harassment, unsupportive peers or educators, and gendered school policies/practices.

Effects of Discrimination

LGBTQ+ students who experienced LGBTQ+-related discrimination at school were:

- Nearly three times as likely to have missed school in the past month as those who had not (43.3% vs. 16.4%);

- Had lower GPAs than their peers who experienced no anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination (2.92 vs. 3.20);
- Were more likely to have been disciplined at school (51.2% vs. 26.2%); and
- Had lower self-esteem and school belonging and higher levels of depression.

Of the LGBTQ+ students who indicated that they were considering dropping out of school, a sizable percentage (31.4%) indicated that they were doing so because of the hostile climate created by gendered school policies and practices.

LGBTQ+-Related School Resources and Supports

Students who feel safe and supported at school have better educational outcomes. LGBTQ+ students who have LGBTQ+-related school resources report better school experiences and academic success. Unfortunately, all too many schools fail to provide these critical resources.

GSAs (Gay-Straight Alliances/Gender and Sexuality Alliances)

Availability and Participation

- Only a third of LGBTQ+ students (34.8%) said that their school had an active GSA or similar student club in the 2020–2021 academic year.
- LGBTQ+ students in in-school only learning environments were less likely to have a GSA available than those in online only or hybrid learning environments (26.5% vs. 36.8% and 35.6%, respectively).
- About half (47.8%) of LGBTQ+ students with a GSA at school reported having participated in the club.

Utility

Compared to LGBTQ+ students who did not have a GSA in their school, students who had an active GSA in their school:

- Were less likely to hear homophobic remarks at school—using "gay " in a negative way (56.6% compared to 74.3% reporting often or frequently), "no homo" (56.6% vs. 67.0% reporting often or frequently), and other homophobic remarks such as "fag" or "dyke" (34.0% vs. 49.8%) often or frequently;
- Were less likely to hear negative remarks often or frequently about gender expression (48.9% vs. 60.3%);
- Were less likely to hear negative remarks often or frequently about transgender people (30.5% vs. 44.4%);
- Were more likely to report that school personnel intervened when hearing homophobic remarks (16.0% vs. 10.2% reporting staff intervene most of the time or always) and negative remarks about gender expression (11.5% vs. 7.1% reporting staff intervened most of the time or always);
- Were less likely to feel unsafe regarding their sexual orientation (41.1% vs. 55.8%), gender expression (36.6% vs. 46.9%) and gender (35.5% vs 43.0%);
- Experienced lower levels of in-person victimization related to their sexual orientation (17.7% vs 33.0%), gender expression (18.2% vs 31.9%) and gender (17.7% vs 30.2%);

- Were more likely to report having many supportive school staff (67.9% vs 46.6%) and more accepting peers (55.4% vs 32.4%);

- Were less likely to have missed school in the past month because of feeling unsafe or uncomfortable (24.4% vs. 36.3%);

- Felt greater belonging to their school community, performed better academically in school and were more likely to plan on pursuing post-secondary education; and

- Reported better psychological well-being than students in schools without GSAs: higher levels of self-esteem, lower levels of depression, and a lower likelihood of having seriously considered suicide in the past year.

Inclusive Curricular Resources

Availability

- A majority (71.6%) of LGBTQ+ students reported that their classes did not include any LGBTQ+ topics in class.

- Only 16.3% of LGBTQ+ students were taught positive representations about LGBTQ+ people, history, or events in their schools; 14.4% had been taught negative content about LGBTQ+ topics.

- Students who attended school online, either hybrid or only online, were more likely to report that LGBTQ+ topics had been discussed in a positive way than were students who attended school only in-person.

- Only 7.4% received LGBTQ+ sex education, which included positive representations of both LGB and transgender and nonbinary topics.

- Students who attended school online, either in online only or hybrid learning environments, were more likely to report receiving any kind of sex education, and LGBTQ+ inclusive sex education than were students who attended school only in person.

- Under a fifth of LGBTQ+ students reported that LGBTQ+-related topics were included in textbooks or other assigned readings, with only 0.4% of students reporting that these topics were included in many of their textbooks and readings.

- Students who attended school only in-person reported having fewer LGBTQ+ textbooks or other assigned reading than students who attended hybrid or online-only school.

- Under half of students (42.8%) reported that they could find information about LGBTQ+-related issues in their school library.

- Just under half of students (48.2%) with internet access at school reported being able to access LGBTQ+-related information online via school computers.

Utility

Compared to students in school without an LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum, LGBTQ+ students in schools with an LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum:

- Were less likely to hear homophobic remarks—"gay" used in a negative way (48.7% compared to 72.0% reporting often or frequently), "no homo" (51.2% vs. 65.7% reporting often or frequently), and other homophobic remarks such as "fag" or "dyke" (26.7% vs. 47.8% reporting often or frequently);

- Were less likely to hear negative remarks about gender expression often or frequently (42.8% vs. 58.9%);
- Were less likely to hear negative remarks about transgender people often or frequently (23.6% vs. 42.7%);
- Were less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation (23.4% vs. 34.0%), gender expression (34.0% vs. 54.0%) and gender (29.1% vs 42.6%);
- Experienced lower levels of in-person victimization related to their sexual orientation (3.4% vs 7.7%), gender expression (5.1% vs 9.5%) and gender (4.2% vs 8.7%);
- Were less likely to miss school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (54.7% vs. 67.1%);
- Felt greater belonging to their school community, performed better academically in school and were more likely to plan on pursuing post-secondary education;
- Were more likely to report that their classmates were somewhat or very accepting of LGBTQ+ people (66.9% vs. 35.3%); and
- Reported better psychological well-being: higher levels of self-esteem, lower levels of depression, and a lower likelihood of having seriously considered suicide in the past year.

Supportive Educators

Availability

- Almost all LGBTQ+ students (96.3%) could identify at least one staff member supportive of LGBTQ+ students at their school.
- More than half of students (58.2%) could identify at least six supportive school staff, but fewer (34.7%) of students could identify 11 or more supportive staff.
- Those students who were in online learning environments for the entire school year reported a higher number of supportive educators than those in hybrid online and in-person learning environments and those who were only in in-person learning environments.
- Less than a quarter (23.7%) reported that their school administration was somewhat or very supportive of LGBTQ+ students.
- LGBTQ+ students who were in in-person only learning environments were less likely to report that their administration was supportive than those in online only and hybrid learning environments.
- Most students (82.9%) reported having security personnel at school. More than a quarter (30.8%) felt safe at school because of their presence, and a smaller percentage (25.1%) felt unsafe because of their presence.
- About half (51.9%) had seen at least one Safe Space sticker or poster at their school (these stickers or posters often serve to identify supportive educators).
- LGBTQ+ students who were in hybrid learning environments (both online and in-person) were most likely and students in online-only learning environments were least likely to Safe Space stickers or posters at school.

Utility

Compared to LGBTQ+ students with few supportive school staff or none (0 to 5), students with many (11 or more) supportive staff at their school:

- Were less likely to feel unsafe because of their sexual orientation (34.7% vs. 64.2%), gender expression (32.6% vs. 51.7%) and gender (30.1% vs 48.3%);
- Were less likely to miss school because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (20.1% vs. 42.4%);
- Felt greater belonging to their school community, performed better academically in school and were more likely to plan on pursuing post-secondary education; and
- Reported better psychological well-being, higher levels of self-esteem, lower levels of depression, and lower likelihood of having seriously considered suicide in the past year.

Students who had seen a Safe Space sticker or poster in their school were more likely to identify a high number of supportive staff (11 or more) in their schools, compared to students who had not seen a Safe Space sticker or poster at school (50.1% vs 17.8%).

Inclusive and Supportive School Policies

Availability

- Although a majority (76.1%) of students had an anti-bullying policy at their school, only 12.0% of students reported that their school had a comprehensive policy (i.e., one that specifically enumerates both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression).
- LGBTQ+ students who had been in in-person instruction during the entire academic year were, in fact, less likely to report having a comprehensive policy, and more likely to have a generic policy, than students who had been only in online instruction, even after accounting for school characteristics.
- Only 8.2% of LGBTQ+ students reported that their school or district had official policies or guidelines to support transgender or nonbinary students.
- Those students who were in in-person only learning environments were less likely to report having an affirming policy or guidelines for transgender and nonbinary students than students who were in online only and hybrid learning environments, even after considering school characteristics.

Utility

LGBTQ+ students in schools with a comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policy:

- Were less likely to hear “gay” used in a negative way often or frequently (53.9% compared to 69.8% of students with a generic policy and 72.0% of students with no policy);
- Were less likely to hear the phrase “no homo” often or frequently (54.7% compared to 64.9% of students with a generic policy and 63.9% of students with no policy);
- Were less likely to hear other homophobic remarks such as “fag” or “dyke” often or frequently (33.8% compared to 44.8% of students with a generic policy and 49.3% of students with no policy);
- Were less likely to hear negative remarks about gender expression often or frequently (47.1% compared to 56.9% of students with a generic policy and 59.4% of students with no policy);

- Were less likely to hear negative remarks about transgender people often or frequently (30.6% compared to 39.9% of students with a generic policy and 43.4% of students with no policy);

- Were more likely to report that staff intervene when hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks (24.5% compared to 11.6% of students with a generic policy and 7.2% of students with no policy);

- Experienced less anti-LGBTQ+ victimization; and

- Were more likely to report victimization incidents to school staff and were more likely to rate school staff's response to such incidents as effective.

Among transgender and nonbinary students, those in schools with a transgender/nonbinary student policy or guidelines:

- Were less likely to experience anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination in their school than their transgender and nonbinary peers. Specifically, they were:

  - Less likely to be prevented from using their name or pronoun of choice in school (19.4% vs. 54.2%);

  - Less likely to be prevented from using bathrooms aligned with their gender (25.6% vs. 59.3%);

  - Less likely to be prevented from using locker rooms aligned with their gender (29.0% vs. 59.0%); and

  - Less likely to be prevented from wearing clothes thought to be "inappropriate" based on gender (8.8% vs. 31.9%);

  - Less likely to be prevented from playing on the school sports team that is consistent with their gender (18.5% vs 37.9%);

- Were less likely to miss school because of feeling unsafe (30.7% vs. 38.2% missed at least one day of school in the past month for safety reasons); and

- Were more likely to feel a part of their school community (69.2% vs. 42.0% reported higher levels of school belonging).

Changes in School Climate for LGBTQ+ Students Over Time

Although school climate for LGBTQ+ students has improved, overall, since our first installment of this survey in 1999, school remains quite hostile for many LGBTQ+ students. In 2021, we saw few positive changes from the results of the 2019 installment of this survey.

Changes in Indicators of Hostile School Climate

Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks

- Homophobic remarks had been on the decline from 2001 to 2015, and remained consistent from 2015 to 2017, However, in 2019, the frequency of remarks declined and remained static in 2021.

- Use of expressions such as "that's so gay" has remained the most common form of biased language heard by LGBTQ+ students in school. These remarks had been in consistent decline until 2015, but increased from 2015 to 2019 and remained at a similar level in 2021.

- Hearing the expression "no homo" had consistently been less common than most other types of LGBTQ+-related biased remarks, and the frequency had been on a decline from 2011 to 2017. In 2019, we saw a sizeable increase from 2017, and remained at a similar level in 2021.

- Hearing negative remarks about gender expression had not changed in the early years of the survey, but decreased from 2011 to 2013. These remarks increased in 2015 but declined in 2017 and again in 2019. In 2021, the frequency of remarks was higher than in 2019, but lower than all years prior.

- Negative remarks about transgender people had steadily increased from 2013, when we first asked this question, to 2017, but decreased in 2019 and remained at a similar level in 2021.

- Hearing homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression from teachers or schools staff increased from 2019 to 2021 and were significantly higher than most recent years.

Harassment and Assault

- With regard to victimization based on sexual orientation:

  - After years of decline, the frequency of verbal harassment has not changed from 2015 to 2021;

  - Since 2007, the frequency of physical harassment has generally been in decline. Although there was no change from 2019 to 20201, but both years were lower than all years prior to 2017.

  - Physical assault changed little between 2001 and 2007, but generally has declined from 2011 to 2021.

- With regard to victimization related to gender expression:

  - Verbal harassment did not change between 2001 and 2007, and generally decreased from 2009 to 2019 and did not change in 2021, but 2019 and 2021 were lower than most prior years;

  - Physical harassment has not changed from 2017 to 2021, but was lower in these years than prior years.

  - Physical assault continued a pattern of modest decline, and was lower in 2021 than all previous years.

- The rates of victimization related to gender (verbal harassment, physical harassment and physical assault) had not changed in 2021 from 2019, but were all lower than early years of the survey.

- There have been no changes in the frequency of LGBTQ+ students reporting victimization to school staff from 2017 to 2021, and LGBTQ+ students' ratings of the effectiveness of staff intervention when incidents had been reported have remained similar from 2013 to 2017.

Changes in Experiences of Discrimination

Overall, over half of LGBTQ+ students experienced some type of LGBTQ+-related discrimination at school at all five time points. In 2019, we saw the percentage of LGBTQ+ students who experienced any form of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school decline from the previous year; however, the percentage increased in 2021 where it did not differ from the years 2013 to 2017.

With regard to the specific forms of discrimination, the percentages for most forms were highest in 2013. In 2019, we had seen a decline in most forms of discrimination from prior years. In 2021, however, many of these forms of discrimination increased, specifically, restrictions on the use of names and pronouns,

clothing based on gender, clothing supporting LGBTQ+ issue, and school dances, as well as generally being disciplined for identifying as LGBTQ+.

Changes in Availability of LGBTQ+-Related School Resources and Supports

Supportive Student Clubs (GSAs)

- In 2021, the percentage of LGBTQ+ students who had a GSA available at their school dropped significantly. Whereas more than half of LGBTQ+ students had reported having a GSA at school in recent years, less than 40% reported having an active GSA at their school in 2021.

- About half of LGBTQ+ students with a GSA at school participated in the club (47.8%).

Curricular Resources

Overall, there has been few positive changes in LGBTQ+-related curricular resources

- Access to LGBTQ+-related internet resources through their school computers was highest in 2019 but decreased in 2021.

- Access to LGBTQ+-related books and resources in school libraries was highest in 2019 but decreased in 2021. Overall, there have been few changes across the years in the availability of school library resources.

- Being taught positive LGBTQ+ material in class has been one of the least common curricular supports, has changed little across prior survey years, and was even lower in 2021 than in 2019.

- The availability of LGBTQ+ information in textbooks and class resources has also historically been one of the least commonly reported curricular supports for LGBTQ+ students, and was not different in 2021 than 2019.

Supportive Educators

- Since 2011, more than 95% of LGBTQ+ students reported having at least one supportive school personnel at school.

- In 2021, however, the number of supportive school personnel was lower than in recent years, specifically 2013 to 2019. Nevertheless, the number of supportive school personnel in 2021 was higher than early years of the survey, specifically 2009 and earlier.

Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policies

- Overall, there was a sharp increase in the number of students reporting any type of policy after 2009, and the rate has remained more or less consistent since 2011. From 2011 to 2015, there had generally been small increases with regard to any type of anti-bullying/harassment policy, followed by a small decline from 2015 to 2017. In 2021, the rate had not changed from 2019 but was somewhat lower than 2017.

- With regard to enumerated policies, there was little change from 2005 to 2013. However, from 2015 to 2019, we saw a pattern of small increases in the percentages of LGBTQ+ students who reported having comprehensive policies (i.e., fully enumerated), and small decreases in those who reported partially enumerated policies. However, in 2021, the percentage of LGBTQ+ students reporting comprehensive policies was lower than in 2019 and the percentage reporting partially enumerated policies had not changed.

Differences in LGBTQ+ Students' School Experiences by Personal Demographics

LGBTQ+ students are a diverse population, and although they share many similar experiences, their experiences in school often vary based on their personal demographics. We examined differences in LGBTQ+ student experiences, based on: 1) sexual orientation, including differences between gay and lesbian, bisexual, pansexual, queer, asexual and questioning students; 2) gender identity, including differences between and among transgender, nonbinary, cisgender, and questioning students; and 3) racial/ethnic identity, including differences between Arab American/Middle Eastern/North African (MENA), Asian American/Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian (AAPI), Black, Latinx, Native American/American Indian/Alaska Native (referred to as "Native and Indigenous"), multiracial, and White LGBTQ+ students.

Sexual Orientation

- Overall, pansexual students reported the most negative school experiences in comparison to students of other sexual orientations. Pansexual students experienced higher levels of sexual harassment, victimization based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender identity, and victimization based on gender, than students of many other sexual orientations. They also experienced more discriminatory policies and practices, missed more school due to feeling unsafe, changed schools more often and had lower educational aspirations than LGBTQ+ peers of many other sexual orientations.

- Compared to students of other sexual orientations, queer or gay and lesbian students were more likely to be "out" about their sexual orientation at school — both to other students and to school staff.

Gender

- Transgender students, in general, experienced the most hostile school climates compared to their peers. Among transgender students, transgender boys and students who identified as only transgender reported somewhat more negative school experiences than transgender nonbinary students and transgender girls.

- Nonbinary students who did not also identify as transgender had somewhat better school experiences than transgender-identified students. Among nonbinary students, those who identified as nonbinary male or nonbinary female experienced less hostile school climates than those who identified only as nonbinary or genderqueer and those with other nonbinary identities (e.g., agender, demigender).

- Among cisgender LGBQ students, male students experienced a more hostile school climate based on their gender expression and on sexual orientation than cisgender female students, whereas cisgender female students experienced a more hostile school climate based on their gender than cisgender male students.

- Questioning students differed quite significantly from cisgender students, as they reported significantly worse school experiences.

Race and Ethnicity

Overall, we found that Native and Indigenous LGBTQ+ students experienced more hostile school climates than their peers of other racial/ethnic groups. Native and Indigenous students were more likely to experience higher rates of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, and race/ethnicity than almost all other races/ethnicities. Additionally, they were more likely to report poorer outcomes when considering their feelings about education as they reported the lowest levels of school belonging compared to students of all other races/ethnicities.

- Black students were more likely than most other students to feel unsafe due to their race/ethnicity, except for AAPI and Native and Indigenous students.

- Over half of all LGBTQ+ students of color experienced in-person victimization based on race/ethnicity.
- More than a quarter of all LGBTQ+ students of color experienced online victimization based on race/ethnicity in their online classrooms.
- White students were less likely than all other racial/ethnic groups to feel unsafe or experience victimization because of their racial/ethnic identity.

Among the LGBTQ+ students in most racial/ethnic groups, the majority had experienced some form of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, and the percentages were similar across most of the racial/ethnic groups. Although AAPI students were the least likely to report experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination, when compared to students of all other races/ethnicities, and Native and Indigenous and Latinx students were more likely than Black students to report experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination.

Differences in LGBTQ+ Students' School Experiences by School Characteristics

LGBTQ+ students are a diverse population, and although they share many similar experiences, their experiences in school often vary based on the type and location of the schools they attend.

School Level

- LGBTQ+ students in middle school had more hostile school experiences than LGBTQ+ students in high school, including experiencing higher rates of biased language, victimization, and anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices.
- LGBTQ+ middle school students were less likely than high school students to have access to LGBTQ+-related school resources, including GSAs, supportive school personnel, LGBTQ+-inclusive curricular resources, and inclusive policies.

School Type

- Overall, LGBTQ+ students in private non-religious schools had fewer hostile school experiences than those in public schools and those in religious schools.
- LGBTQ+ public school students were most likely to hear homophobic remarks at school and experienced the greatest levels of gender-based victimization, whereas those in religious schools were most likely to hear negative remarks about gender expression.
- LGBTQ+ students in public schools generally experienced higher levels of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization than others.
- Students in religious schools were the most likely to report experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices.
- Overall, students in religious schools were less likely to report having LGBTQ+-related resources and supports in their schools, and students in private schools were more likely to report having these resources and supports. Additionally, students in charter schools in general had greater access to resources and supports than those in regular public schools.

School Locale

- LGBTQ+ students in rural schools faced more hostile school climates than students in urban and suburban schools including experiencing higher rates of biased language, victimization, and anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices.

- LGBTQ+ students in suburban schools experienced lower levels of both in-person and online anti-LGBTQ+ victimization than all others.

- LGBTQ+ students in rural/small town schools were least likely to have LGBTQ+-related school resources or supports, as compared to students in urban and suburban schools.

Region

- LGBTQ+ students in the South had more negative school experiences overall than students in all other regions, including higher rates of biased language, victimization, and anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices, and LGBTQ+ students in the Midwest had more negative experiences overall than those in the Northeast and West.

- Overall, LGBTQ+ students in the South were least likely to have access to LGBTQ+-related resources at school, whereas students in the Northeast were most likely to have LGBTQ+-related school resources.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is clear that there is an urgent need for action to create safe and affirming learning environments for LGBTQ+ students. Results from the 2021 National School Climate Survey demonstrate the ways in which school-based supports—such as supportive staff, inclusive and supportive school policies, curricular resources inclusive of LGBTQ+ people, and GSAs—can positively affect LGBTQ+ students' school experiences. Yet findings on school climate over time suggest that more efforts are needed to reduce harassment and discrimination and increase affirmative supports. Based on these findings, we recommend:

- Increasing student access to appropriate and accurate information regarding LGBTQ+ people, history, and events through inclusive curricula, and library and internet resources;

- Supporting student clubs, such as GSAs, that provide support for LGBTQ+ students and address LGBTQ+ issues in education;

- Providing professional development for school staff to improve rates of intervention and increase the number of supportive teachers and other staff available to students;

- Ensuring that school policies and practices, such as those related to dress codes and school dances, do not discriminate against LGBTQ+ students;

- Enacting school policies that provide transgender and gender nonconforming students equal access to school facilities and activities and specify appropriate educational practices to support these students; and

- Adopting and implementing comprehensive bullying/harassment policies that specifically enumerate sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression in individual schools and districts, with clear and effective systems for reporting and addressing incidents that students experience.

Instituting these measures can move us toward a future in which all students have the opportunity to learn and succeed in school, regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression. Especially given the decline in LGBTQ+ supports in schools that we found in this year's report, it is imperative that all who are committed to ensuring safe and affirming schools for all students intensify their efforts in policy, advocacy, and classroom practices.

INTRODUCTION

For more than 30 years, GLSEN has worked to ensure that schools are safe and affirming spaces for all students, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression. As part of this mission, the GLSEN Research Institute conducts research on sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender identity issues in K–12 education to raise awareness among policymakers, educators, advocates, and the general public. In 1999, GLSEN began conducting the GLSEN National School Climate Survey (NSCS), a national biennial survey of secondary school students who identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender, and as identities change over time, later surveys included those who identify as other non-cisgender and non-heterosexual identities, including pansexual, queer, transgender, nonbinary, genderqueer, and two-spirit (All aforementioned identities are referred to as "LGBTQ+" in this report.) The NSCS explores the experiences of U.S. LGBTQ+ middle and high school students, reports on the prevalence of anti-LGBTQ+ language, discrimination, and victimization, and documents the impact that these experiences have on LGBTQ+ students' educational outcomes and well-being. The NSCS also examines the availability of school resources and supports, including GSAs (Gender and Sexuality Alliances or Gay-Straight Alliances) and similar supportive student clubs, LGBTQ+-inclusive curricular resources, supportive educators, and inclusive and supportive school district policies, and their utility for creating safer and more affirming learning environments for LGBTQ+ students.

The 2020–2021 school year started with a presidential administration in place whose policies and practices were often hostile to LGBTQ+ students, and since our last 2019 report, the Trump administration continued to message to LGBTQ+ students that they were not supportive of them through these policies and actions. Between 2019 and 2020, this administration's actions were particularly hostile to transgender students, especially transgender athletes. They took many approaches to prohibit transgender youth from being able to participate in sports, including filing a statement of interest in the U.S. District Court for the District of Connecticut stating their belief that Title IX protections exclude transgender female athletes,[1] and further, that athletics policies that are supportive of transgender girls violate Title IX,[2] threatening to withhold federal funding from states that allow transgender athletes to participate in sports that align with their gender identity,[3] and publicly supporting states' legislations banning transgender athletes from participating in sports.[4] Regarding LGBTQ+ youth in general, in 2019 the Department of Education removed sexual orientation and gender identity in their tracking of bullying, preventing the collection of any data by the department on LGBTQ+-related bullying. Other policies and actions targeted LGBTQ+ educators, and their rights in schools.[5] In 2019, the administration stated their belief that religious schools should be able to discriminate against LGBTQ+ educators and also to remove LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum and materials from classrooms.[6] Although the Supreme Court's decision on Bostock v. Clayton County in 2020 stated that LGBTQ+ people, including LGBTQ+ educators, were protected from employment discrimination, the Trump administration filed a legal brief arguing that a Catholic school had a right to fire a teacher for being gay[7] as well as worked to avoid enforcing this decision, particularly focusing on limiting the rights of transgender people.[8]

In January of 2021, midway through the 2020–2021 school year, President Biden was inaugurated, marking a transfer of executive and federal power to an administration that took steps to support and protect the right of LGBTQ+ people, including LGBTQ+ students. Soon after taking office, the administration took action to reinstate protections that had been reversed in the previous administration, and to put in place executive orders to protect LGBTQ+ people. Specifically important for LGBTQ+ students, the administration signed an executive order in January 2021 affirming that the Supreme Court's ruling in Bostock vs. Clayton County that workplace protections against discrimination include discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity applies not only to workplaces but also to education (in addition to housing, health care, and credit).[9] Additionally, in 2021, the Department of Education declared that Title IX protections apply to LGBTQ+ students, and that students are protected from discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity.[10]

Although these federal actions communicate a clear support for LGBTQ+ people, they may not have had a profound effect on the experiences of students in the 2020–2021 school year, given that the inauguration occurred in the middle of the school year. Regardless of the progress we

have seen on the federal level, state and local authorities and legislation may have more of an impact on education, and on experiences of U.S. students, especially LGBTQ+ students. In fact, in 2021, many states introduced and argued bills about prohibiting the inclusion of diversity topics in school curriculum, specifically with regard to teaching about race, racism, and the experiences of people of color, [11] and more recently, similar bills have targeted inclusion of LGBTQ+ topics in curricula.[12] Additionally, in 2021, states across the country continued to propose, and in some instances pass, bills banning transgender students from participating in school sports, preventing transgender and nonbinary students from having the same opportunities at school as their cisgender peers.[13] These battles in state legislatures and in school boards have sparked local, state-wide, and national conversations about the rights of students, educators, and marginalized populations in schools, including LGBTQ+ youth and youth of color. This, in turn, brought negative attention to these issues in the public discourse, and may have influenced public opinion, creating more negative attitudes about LGBTQ+ issues and students across the country.

Most, if not all, students in the U.S. during the 2020–2021 school year were impacted by COVID-19, as schools had to adapt in the wake of the pandemic, drastically changing how many students experienced schools. Whereas some schools were open and had students attend in-person for the entire 2020–2021, many schools introduced alternative learning environments – some schools remained entirely online for the school year and others employed hybrid learning environments, wherein students attended some of the year in person and some online. At the beginning of the 2020–2021 school year, only four states (Arkansas, Florida, Iowa, and Texas) required an in-person learning option for students.[14] Online-only instruction was much more common at the beginning of the year, with 74% of the 100 largest school districts in the country starting the school year with this form of learning environment.[15] As the school year progressed, more school districts transitioned to some form of in-person instruction, and by November of 2020, 19% of school districts provided only online instruction, 36% provided only in-person instruction, and 45% of districts used a hybrid model.[16] By the end of the school year, 12 states had required all schools to be open, and an estimated 1% of districts in the U.S. were online only, 53% were in-person only, and 46% were hybrid.[17] Some form of online learning, either only online or hybrid online and in-person was very common in the 2020–2021 school year.

While online schooling was instituted to protect students, their families, and school personnel from risk of COVID-19 infection, many predicted that it would be associated with an array of negative outcomes. Little research exists to date describing the effects of COVID on youth's school experiences, and the experiences of youth in online learning. The little research that does exist suggests that, in general, students who attended school remotely had poorer perceptions about school and reported lower levels of social, emotional, and academic well-being than classmates who attended school in person.[18] Specific to LGBTQ+ youth, one study from early in the pandemic found that LGBTQ+ youth were concerned about being at home with unsupportive parents and no longer having access to supportive spaces at school, although some also reported greater opportunity for personal reflection about identity.[19]

More of the research about youth and COVID has examined the mental health effects of the pandemic on youth. The Center for Disease Control's (CDC) Adolescent Behaviors and Experiences Survey (ABES), conducted in early–mid 2021, found that a third of high school students in general experienced poor mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic, and almost half reported feeling persistently sad or hopeless.[20] The CDC's Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) found in previous years that LGBQ youth reported poorer mental health and higher rates of suicide-related behavior, and data from the ABES shows that this disparity persisted during the COVID pandemic.[21] Additionally, the ABES found that during the 2020–2021 school year when many youth attended school online, LGBQ students were more likely to report parental abuse and greater difficulty in completing their schoolwork than other students. Polling data from the Trevor Project from July 2020 also showed that 35% of LGBTQ youth felt "much more lonely since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic," which was significantly higher than the rate among cisgender heterosexual youth.[22]

Many posit that online learning reduced youth's experiences of bullying, particularly among marginalized students who experience identity-

based bullying, including youth of color and youth with disabilities, although research and data supporting this hypothesis is scarce.[23] An examination of a general population of youth's internet use showed a decrease in searches about school bullying and cyberbullying during the pandemic compared to pre-pandemic rates.[24] One study of rural, low-income neurodivergent youth found that during the lockdown period of the pandemic, these students experienced less bullying than they did before the pandemic.[25] Specifically regarding LGBTQ+ youth, one study compared data from LGBTQ+ youth before and during the pandemic and found that LGBTQ+ youth reported higher levels of anxiety in 2021 than those in 2018, but they also reported lower rates of victimization, and fewer suicide attempts.[26] More research is needed to examine the effects of school closures and online schooling on LGBTQ+ youth's school experiences. To address this need, this year we adapted our survey to account for the various learning environment that students experienced in the 2020–2021 school year, and we discuss important differences when they arise. Additionally, we provide findings about the difference in availability of LGBTQ+ supportive resources by learning environment.

The field of research on LGBTQ+ youth has continued to grow, and national research has been done to examine LGBTQ+ youth in general by the government and by other organizations. For example, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Division of Adolescent and School Health (DASH) added questions about sexual orientation to the federal and standard versions of their Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) in 2015. Additionally, CDC DASH has begun asking students about transgender identity. In 2017, this question was piloted in 19 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) sites, and in 2019, the item was approved for use as an optional question available for all YRBSS sites to use. These changes will allow policymakers and educators to collect state and local data about, and better understand the experiences of transgender youth in their states or localities. Recent results from the national 2019 YRBS data reveal that lesbian, gay, and bisexual students are at greater risk for most adverse health outcomes, including school violence.[27] Further, the 2017 YRBS results from 14 locations that asked about transgender identity similarly reveal a greater risk for adverse health outcomes among transgender students, compared to their cisgender peers.[28] The Trevor Project's National Survey on LGBTQ+ Mental Health contributes invaluable data about LGBTQ+ youth's mental health and information on how to best provide care and support;[29] however, their research contains limited information about school experiences. Given that the YRBS is focused specifically on health risk behaviors, and the Trevor Project's report is focused on mental health, both surveys include limited items specifically related to the school environment. GLSEN's National School Climate survey continues to be vitally important to the understanding of the school experiences of LGBTQ+ students nationally.

The 2021 NSCS offers a broad understanding of the policies, practices, and conditions that make LGBTQ+ students more vulnerable to discrimination and victimization at school and examines how these hostile experiences impact their educational success and trajectories. This year, the report also provides an examination of how LGBTQ+ students' school experiences were impacted by COVID-19 and the different learning environments that resulted from the pandemic. Given that we have been conducting the NSCS for over twenty years, we continue to examine changes over time on measures of school climate and levels of access to LGBTQ+-related resources in schools. The 2021 NSCS report offers advocates, educators, and policymakers up-to-date and valuable information that will strengthen their work in creating safe and affirming schools for all students.

METHODS AND SAMPLE

Participants completed an online survey about their experiences in school during the 2020–2021 school year, including hearing biased remarks, feeling safe, experiencing harassment or assault, feeling comfortable in school, and experiencing discriminatory actions by the school. They were also asked about their academic experiences, attitudes about school, involvement in school, and availability of supportive school resources. Youth were eligible to participate in the survey if they were at least 13 years of age, attended a K–12 school in the United States during the 2020–21 school year, and identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual, queer, or a sexual orientation other than heterosexual (e.g., homoflexible, questioning) or described themselves as transgender or as having another gender identity that is not cisgender ("cisgender" describes a person whose gender identity is aligned with the sex/gender they were assigned at birth). Data collection occurred between April and August 2021.

The survey was available online through GLSEN's website. The survey and survey outreach materials were available in English and Spanish. Notices and announcements were sent through GLSEN's email and chapter networks, SMS messages to GLSEN constituents, and on GLSEN's social media pages including Facebook, Instagram and Twitter. Additionally, national, regional, and local organizations that provide services to or advocate on behalf of LGBTQ+ youth posted notices about the survey on listservs, websites, and social network accounts. To ensure representation of transgender and gender nonconforming youth, youth of color, and youth in rural communities, additional outreach efforts were made to notify groups and organizations that work predominantly with these populations about the survey.

Contacting participants only through LGBTQ+ youth-serving groups and organizations would have limited our ability to reach LGBTQ+ students who were not connected to or engaged in LGBTQ+ communities in some way. Thus, in order to broaden our reach to LGBTQ+ students who may not have had such connections, we conducted targeted outreach and advertising through social media sites. Specifically, we broadly advertised the survey on Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, and Snapchat to U.S. users between 13 and 18 years of age who had interests aligned with LGBTQ+ communities and issues. To ensure representation of groups who have historically been underrepresented in national surveys of LGBTQ+ youth and past GLSEN surveys, including transgender girls, LGBTQ+ youth of color, and cisgender gay, bisexual, and queer boys, additional advertisements were targeted specifically to these groups. Additionally, GLSEN reached out to "influencers," or well-known young actors and social media personalities, with large LGBTQ+ youth audiences and asked them to post or talk about the survey on their social media pages. Information about the survey was also posted on subgroups or pages of social media sites with significant LGBTQ+ youth content or LGBTQ+ youth followers.

The final sample consisted of a total of 22,298 students between the ages of 13 and 21. Students came from all 50 states, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, and Northern Mariana Islands. Table M1 presents participants' demographic and educational characteristics, and Table M2 shows the characteristics of the schools attended by participants. As shown in Table M1, 67.2% was White, 33.8% identified as cisgender and 31.5% as nonbinary, and 30.1% identified as bisexual and 28.8% as gay or lesbian. A third of students reported their family religion as nondenominational Christian (36.5%), although less than a third (30.9%) reported that they themselves identified with their family's religion. Students were most commonly in 9th, 10th, and 11th grades (see also Table M1). As shown in Table M2, the majority of LGBTQ+ students were in public schools (88.1%) and nearly half (44.6%) were from suburban schools. Compared to national public school enrollment,[30] our sample included more students from the North and Midwest and fewer students from the South and West.[31]

As shown in Table M2, the majority of the LGBTQ+ students in the survey (63.4%) had been in hybrid learning environments (i.e., having had classes both online and in-person), and the minority (11.7%) had been in in-person only learning environments. Across all school characteristics, there were significant differences by type of learning environments, as also shown in Table M2:

- School Level: Students in K-12 and lower schools (combined elementary and middle school grades) and in middle schools were less likely to have been in online only learning environments, whereas students in high schools

were more likely to have been in online only learning environments. It may be that schools that include younger students were more likely in general to return to in-person learning environments than schools with older students.

- School Type: Public school students and private non-religious school students were somewhat less likely to have been in in-person only learning environments and religious school students were more likely to have been in in-person learning environments.
- Locale: Students in urban and suburban schools were most likely to have been in online only learning environments, whereas students in rural schools were most likely to have been in in-person learning environments.
- Region: Students in the Northeast and West were much less likely to have been in in-person learning environments, whereas student in the South and Midwest were much more likely to have been in in-person learning environments.

Table M1 Demographic and Educational Characteristics of Survey Participants

Sexual Orientation[32] (n = 22256)	
Gay or Lesbian	28.8%
Bisexual	30.1%
Pansexual[33]	18.3%
Queer	11.0%
Asexual[34]	6.1%
Another Sexual Orientation	2.9%
Questioning or Unsure	2.8%
Race and Ethnicity[35] (n = 16700)	
White	67.2%
Hispanic or Latinx,[36] any race	16.2%
African American or Black	3.3%
Asian American, Pacific Islander, and Native Hawaiian	3.5%
Arab American, Middle Eastern, or North African	1.0%
Native American, American Indian or Alaska Native	0.5%
Multiracial	8.1%
Other Race or Ethnicity	0.1%
Family Religious Affiliation (n = 16649)	
Christian (non-denominational)	36.5%
Catholic	15.3%
Protestant	2.9%
Jewish	2.0%
Buddhist	0.5%
Eastern Orthodox	0.4%
Muslim	0.5%
Hindu	0.7%
Another Religion (e.g., Unitarian Universalist, Wiccan, Pagan)	5.6%
Multiple Religions	12.0%
No Religion, Atheist, or Agnostic	23.7%
Gender[37] (n = 22209)	
Cisgender	33.8%
Female	*26.9%*
Male	*6.9%*
Transgender	26.9%
Female	*1.4%*
Male	*10.4%*
Nonbinary/Genderqueer	*11.0%*
Identified as Only Transgender	*4.1%*
Nonbinary	31.5%
Nonbinary or Genderqueer Only	*19.3%*
Nonbinary or Genderqueer Female	*5.0%*
Nonbinary or Genderqueer Male	*0.9%*
Other Nonbinary Gender Identity (e.g., agender, demigender)	*6.3%*
Questioning	7.9%
Sex at Birth (n = 22241)	
Assigned Male	12.8%
Assigned Female	87.2%
Intersex (regardless of assigned sex)	0.8%
Grade in School (n = 16479)	
6th	1.5%
7th	8.7%
8th	16.3%
9th	21.1%
10th	22.0%
11th	19.0%
12th	11.1%
Other grade	0.3%
Average Age (n = 22297) = 15.4 years	
Receive Educational Accommodations[38] (n = 16598)	23.9%

Table M2 Characteristics of Survey Participants' Schools
(Percentages that share superscripts represent groups that were not different from each other.)

		Type of Learning Environment[39]		
	Total N = 22298	**Online Only 24.9%** (n = 5552)	**Hybrid Online and In-Person 63.4%** (n = 14139)	**In-Person Only 11.7%** (n = 2607)
Grade Level (n = 22298)				
K through 12 School	9.9%	9.3%[a]	9.0%[a]	15.9%[b]
Lower School (elementary and middle grades)	2.4%	2.2%[a]	2.3%[a]	3.3%[b]
Middle School	19.0%	17.2%[a]	19.7%[b]	18.8%[b]
Upper School (middle and high grades)	9.0%	8.6%	9.3%	8.7%
High School	59.7%	62.7%[a]	59.7%[b]	53.2%[c]
School Type (n = 21989)				
Public School	88.1%	89.3%[a]	88.2%[a]	85.2%[b]
Charter	*4.1%*	*5.8%[a]*	*3.5%[b]*	*3.7%[b]*
Magnet	*9.3%*	*9.3%[a]*	*6.0%[b]*	*5.3%[b]*
Religious-Affiliated School	2.7%	2.7%[a]	4.6%[b]	9.9%[c]
Other Independent or Private School	8.0%	8.0%[a]	7.2%[a]	4.9%[b]
School Locale (n = 21803)				
Urban	23.2%	29.4%[a]	21.9%[b]	16.9%[c]
Suburban	44.6%	47.1%[a]	44.7%[b]	38.5%[c]
Rural or Small Town	32.3%	23.6%[a]	33.4%[b]	44.6%[c]
Region[40] (n = 22250)				
Northeast	19.8%	20.4%[a]	21.7%[a]	7.8%[b]
South	32.0%	31.0%	[a]29.4%[a]	48.5%[b]
Midwest	24.5%	18.3%[a]	25.8%[b]	30.8%[c]
West	22.9%	28.0%[a]	22.8%[b]	12.9%[c]
U.S. Territories	0.8%	2.3%[a]	0.3%[b]	0.0%[b]

PART ONE: EXTENT AND EFFECTS OF HOSTILE SCHOOL CLIMATE

SCHOOL SAFETY

Overall Safety at School

Sexual Orientation, Gender Identity, and Gender Expression (SOGIE) Characteristics. Many LGBTQ+ students feel unsafe in school. Four in five LGBTQ+ students (81.8%) in our survey reported feeling unsafe in school because of at least one of their actual or perceived personal characteristics. Notably, the most common reason that LGBTQ+ students gave for feeling unsafe in school concerned their SOGIE (sexual orientation, gender identity and/or gender expression) characteristics—68.0% reported that they felt unsafe in school because of one or more of these characteristics. As shown in Figure 1.1, the most common reason for feeling unsafe, regarding their SOGIE characteristics, was their sexual orientation.

Other Personal Characteristics. LGBTQ+ students also reported feeling unsafe in school because of a variety of characteristics outside of their LGBTQ+ identities, including: body size or weight, family's income or economic status, academic ability, citizenship status, race or ethnicity, developmental or physical disability, mental health or emotional disability, or religion. As shown in Figure 1.2, LGBTQ+ students most commonly felt unsafe in school because of their mental health or emotional disability, followed by their body size or weight.[41]

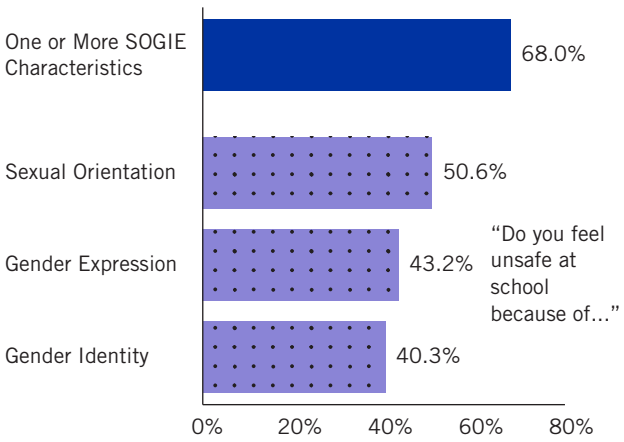
- Over half of LGBTQ+ students (61.6%) reported feeling unsafe in school because of their mental health or emotional disability;
- Over a third (42.1%) reported feeling unsafe because their body size or weight; and
- One-quarter (25.9%) reported feeling unsafe because of their academic ability.

A smaller percentage of LGBTQ+ students reported feeling unsafe for other personal characteristics, such as their religion or their race or ethnicity.

We also asked students to tell us if they felt unsafe in school for another reason not included in the listed characteristics and, if so, why. As shown in Figure 1.2, 3.2% of survey participants reported feeling unsafe in school for other reasons, most commonly due to a fear of sexual harassment or sexual violence, their political beliefs, or gun violence.

Overall, LGBTQ+ students in online-only learning environments were least likely to feel unsafe at school due to a personal characteristic and those in in-person only learning environments were most likely.[42] This pattern largely held true when we examined each type of personal characteristic, with the exception that there were no differences across the groups with regard to feeling unsafe because of race/ethnicity, a physical disability, family income, citizenship status or English language ability.[43] Being in classes online at home rather than in a school buildling may provide LGBTQ+ students with some feelings of protection from their peers.

Figure 1.1 Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Felt Unsafe at School Because of SOGIE Characteristics



School Engagement and Safety Concerns

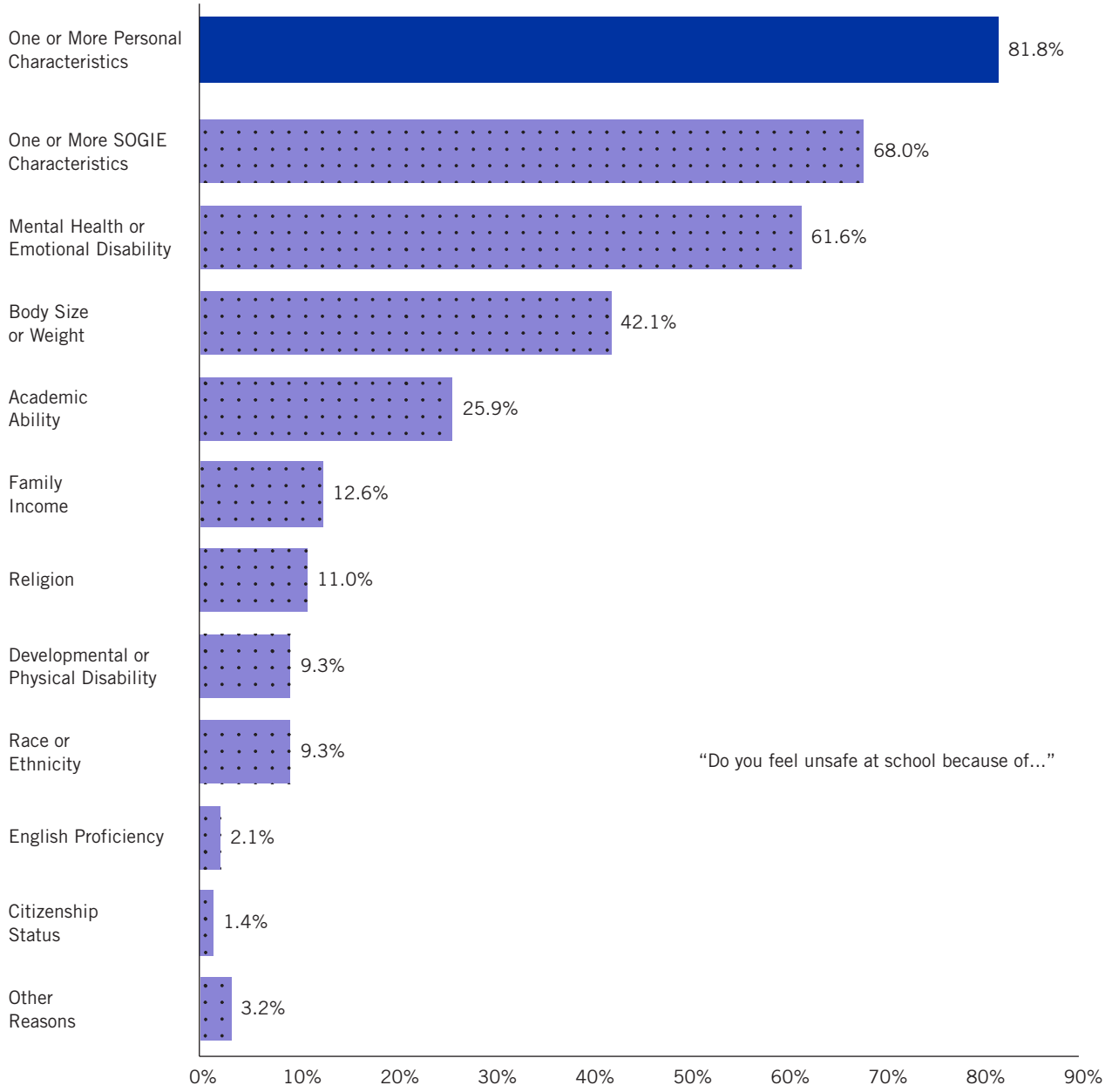
Students who feel unsafe in school may choose to avoid the particular areas or activities where they feel most unwelcomed. For some students, they may feel the need to avoid attending school altogether. Thus, a hostile school climate can impact an LGBTQ+ student's ability to fully engage and participate with the school community.

Avoiding Spaces. To examine this possible restriction of LGBTQ+ students' school engagement, we asked LGBTQ+ students if there were particular spaces in school that they avoided specifically because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable. As shown in Figure 1.3, LGBTQ+ students most commonly avoided school bathrooms, locker rooms, and physical

education or gym classes, with approximately 4 in 10 students avoiding each of these spaces because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (45.1%, 42.6%, and 39.4% respectively).[44] One-quarter of LGBTQ+ students avoided school athletic fields or facilities (24.3%) or the school cafeteria or lunchroom (22.2%) because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable.

Avoiding Functions and Extracurricular Activities. In addition to avoiding certain spaces in school because of safety reasons, LGBTQ+ students may also avoid other more social aspects of student life, for similar fears for personal safety. For any student, involvement in school community activities like clubs or special events can have a positive impact on students' sense of belonging in school, self-esteem, and academic achievement. However, LGBTQ+ students who do not feel safe or comfortable in these environments may not have full access to the benefits of engaging in these school activities. Thus, we specifically

Figure 1.2 Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Felt Unsafe at School Because of Actual or Perceived Personal Characteristics



asked students who had been in school in-person at some point during the academic year if they avoided school functions or other school activities outside of class, such as extracurricular activities because of feeling unsafe or uncomfortable. Most LGBTQ+ students reported avoiding school functions and activities outside of school to some extent (78.8%), and nearly a third avoided them often or frequently combined (14.5% and 15.2%, respectively; see Figure 1.4). Overall, LGBTQ+ students who had been only in in-person learning environments did not differ from those who had been in hybrid learning environments with regard to avoiding spaces at school.[45] These high rates of avoiding school activities indicate that LGBTQ+ students may be discouraged from participating in these important aspects of school communities.

Avoiding School. Feeling unsafe or uncomfortable in school can negatively affect the ability of students to thrive and succeed academically, particularly if it results in avoiding school altogether. When asked about absenteeism, about one third (32.2%) of LGBTQ+ students reported missing at least one entire day of school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, and just over a tenth (11.3%) missed four or more days in the past month (see Figure 1.5). LGBTQ+ students who were only in online learning environments during the academic year reported somewhat fewer days of missing school than those who had only been in in-person learning environments and those who had been in hybrid learning environments.[46] Additionally, in some cases, the school environment may be so hostile

Figure 1.3 Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Avoid Spaces at School Because They Feel Unsafe or Uncomfortable

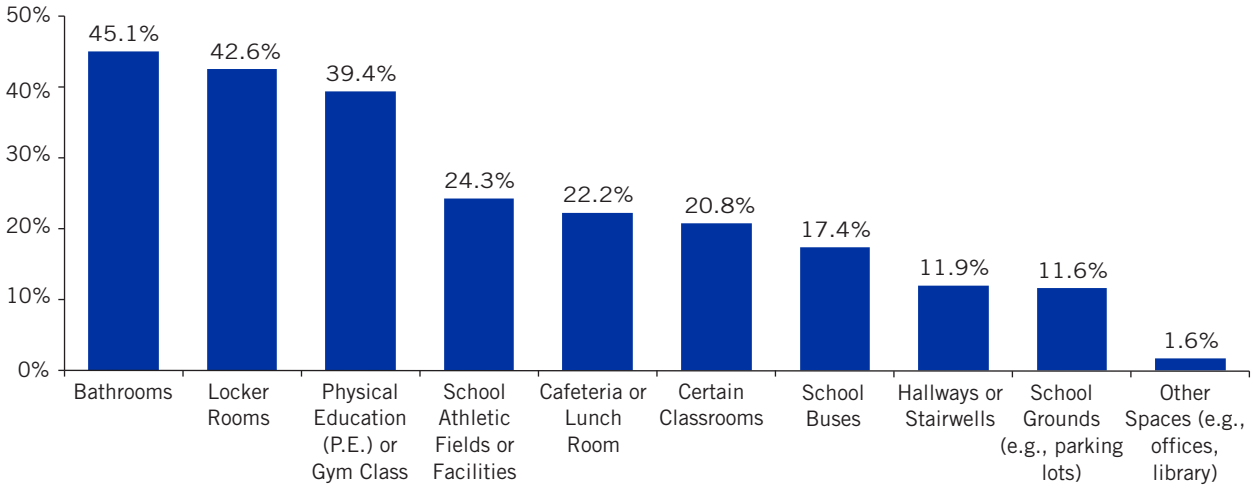


Figure 1.4 Frequency of Avoiding School Functions or Extracurricular Activities Because of Feeling Unsafe or Uncomfortable

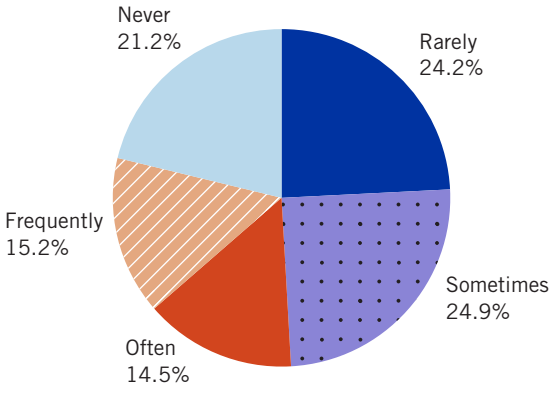
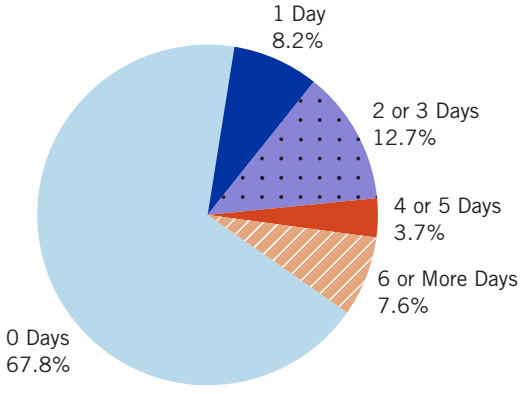


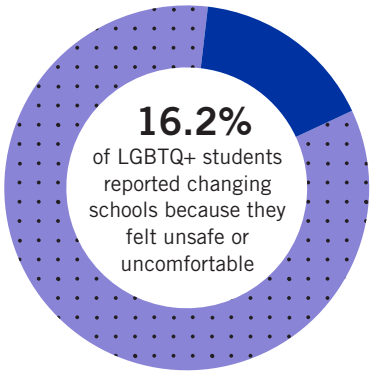
Figure 1.5 Frequency of Missing Days of School in the Past Month Because of Feeling Unsafe or Uncomfortable



that some students may need to leave their current school, and one in six (16.2%) LGBTQ+ students reported ever having had changed schools due to feeling unsafe and uncomfortable (see Figure 1.6).

Our findings suggest that the majority of LGBTQ+ youth do not feel safe at their school. Often this is because of their sexual orientation, gender expression, and/or gender identity. Students may avoid spaces and activities where they experience these feelings of unsafety; many frequently avoid school spaces and activities in school, and some avoid school altogether. These high rates of avoiding or leaving school and/or school activities indicate that LGBTQ+ students may be discouraged from full participation in school life, and for some, are being denied equal access to their education because of a hostile school climate.

Figure 1.6 Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Changed Schools Because of School Safety Concerns



EXPOSURE TO BIASED LANGUAGE

Keeping classrooms and hallways free of homophobic, sexist, racist, and other types of biased language helps create a more positive school climate for all students. In order to assess this feature of school climate, we asked LGBTQ+ students about their experiences with hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and other types of biased remarks while at school, and the response to this biased language.

Hearing Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks at School

We asked students in our survey about the frequency with which they heard homophobic remarks (such as "faggot" and "dyke," the word "gay" being used in a negative way, or the phrase "no homo"). We also asked about the frequency of hearing negative remarks about the way students expressed their gender at school (such as comments related to a female student not acting "feminine enough") and negative remarks about transgender people (such as "tranny" or "he/she"). Further, we also asked students about the frequency of hearing these types of remarks from both students and school staff.

Homophobic Remarks. The most common form of homophobic language that was heard by LGBTQ+ students in our survey was "gay" being used in a negative way at school, such as comments like "that's so gay" or "you're so gay."[47] As shown in Figure 1.7, over two-thirds of LGBTQ+ students (68.0%) reported hearing these types of comments often or frequently in their schools. These expressions are often used to mean that something or someone is stupid or worthless and, thus, may be dismissed as innocuous by school authorities and students in comparison to overtly derogatory remarks such as "faggot" or "dyke." However, many LGBTQ+ students did not view these expressions as innocuous. In fact, 93.7% of LGBTQ+ students reported that hearing "gay" used in a negative manner caused them to feel bothered or distressed to some degree (see Figure 1.8).

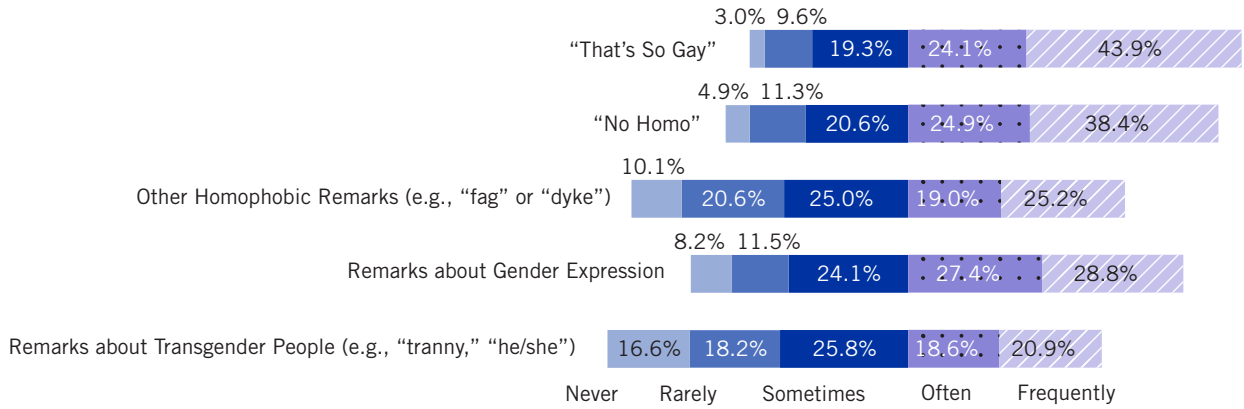
"No homo"[48] was also heard regularly by students. The majority of LGBTQ+ students (63.3%) reported hearing this remark often or frequently in their schools (see also Figure 1.7). LGBTQ+ students were less bothered by hearing "no homo" than they were by hearing "gay" used in a negative way.[49] Nevertheless, 71.2% of students reported that they were bothered or distressed to some degree when they heard the phrase (see also Figure 1.8).

Other types of homophobic remarks (such as "fag" or "dyke") were less commonly reported by LGBTQ+ students. These remarks were nevertheless heard often or frequently at school by nearly half (44.2%) of students in our survey (see also Figure 1.7).

We also asked LGBTQ+ students who heard homophobic remarks in school how pervasive this behavior was among the student population. As shown in Figure 1.9, just over one-fifth of students (21.6%) reported that these types of remarks were made by most of their peers. Furthermore, and perhaps even more disconcerting, more than half of students (58.0%) reported ever hearing homophobic remarks from their teachers or other school staff (see Figure 1.10).

Negative Remarks About Gender Expression. Society often imposes norms for what is considered

Figure 1.7 Frequency of Hearing Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks at School



appropriate expression of one's gender. Those who express themselves in a manner considered to be atypical may experience criticism, harassment, and sometimes violence. Thus, we asked students in our survey two separate questions about hearing comments related to a student's gender expression: one question asked how often they heard remarks about someone not acting "masculine enough," and another question asked how often they heard comments about someone not acting "feminine enough." Findings from this survey demonstrate that negative remarks about someone's gender expression were pervasive in schools. Overall, as shown previously in Figure 1.7, 56.2% of students reported hearing some or most students make either type of remark about someone's gender expression at school. In addition, Figure 1.11 shows the frequency of hearing remarks about other students not acting "masculine enough" and not acting "feminine enough" separately—remarks related to students not acting "masculine enough" were found to be more common than remarks related to students not acting "feminine enough."[50] About half of students (49.1%) heard negative comments related to students' masculinity regularly (i.e., often or frequently), compared to over a third of students (37.4%) that regularly heard comments related to students' femininity.

Figure 1.8 Degree that LGBTQ+ Students Were Bothered or Distressed as a Result of Hearing Homophobic Remarks

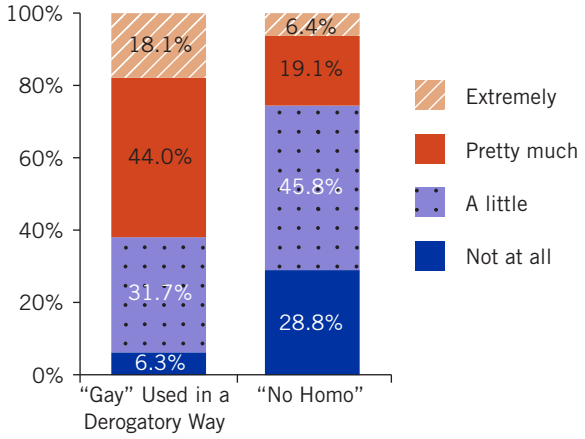


Figure 1.9 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports of How Many Students Make Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks

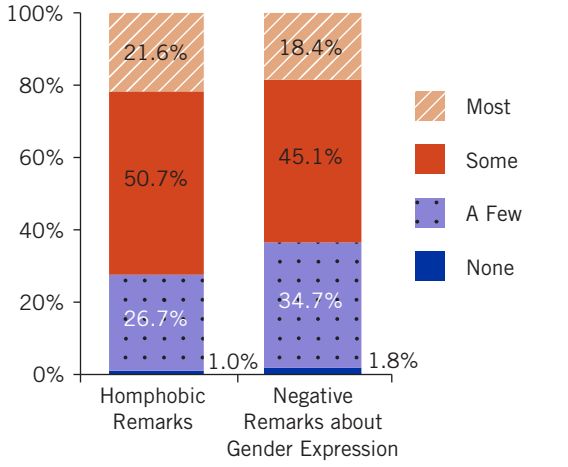


Figure 1.10 Frequency of LGBTQ+ Students Hearing Negative Remarks from Teachers or Other School Staff

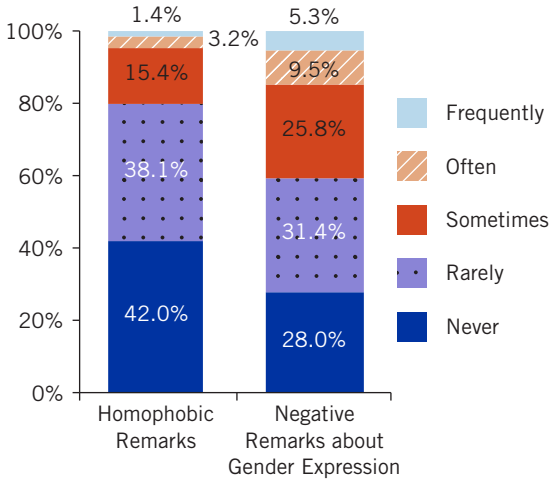
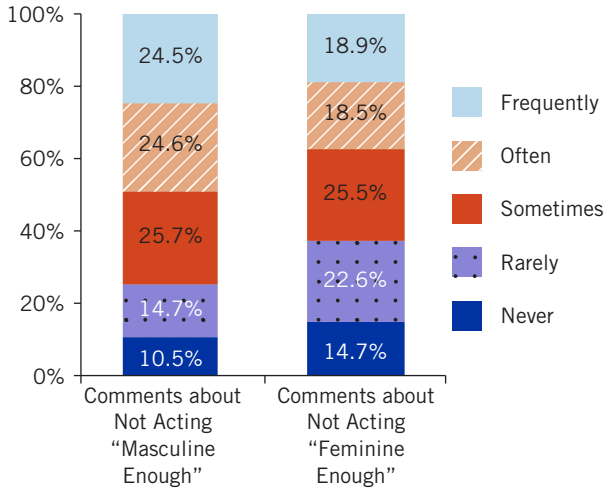


Figure 1.11 Frequency of LGBTQ+ Students Hearing Different Types of Remarks about Students' Gender Expression

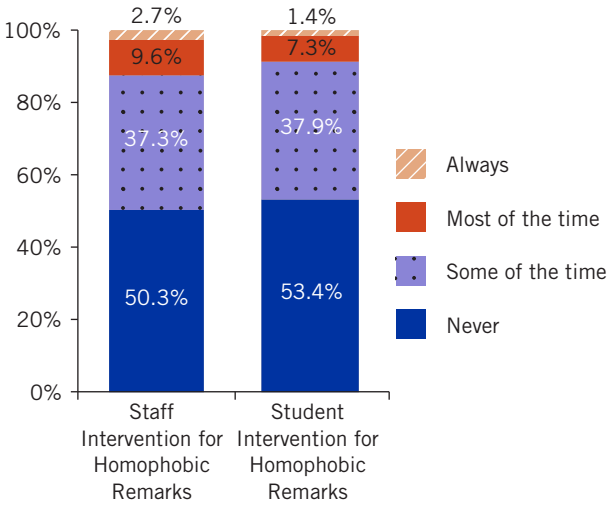


When asked how much of the student population made these types of remarks, almost a fifth of students (18.4%) reported that most of their peers made negative remarks about someone's gender expression (see Figure 1.9). Further, nearly 72.0% of students had heard teachers or other school staff make negative comments about a student's gender expression (see Figure 1.10). Unlike biased remarks heard from other students, LGBTQ+ students heard school staff make negative remarks about gender expression more frequently than homophobic remarks.[51]

Negative Remarks About Transgender People. Similar to negative comments about gender expression, people may make negative comments about transgender people because they can pose a challenge to "traditional" ideas about gender. Therefore, we asked students about how often they heard negative remarks specifically about transgender people, like "tranny" or "he/she." Two-fifths of LGBTQ+ students (39.5%) in our survey reported hearing these comments often or frequently (see Figure 1.7).

Overall, students who attended school only in-person heard anti-LGBTQ+ remarks more frequently than did students who attended school only online or in a hybrid setting.[52] Further, students who attended school only in-person reported that they heard homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression from more of their peers in their school than did students who attended school online (either hybrid or online only).[53] It is likely that students who attended school in-person, whether it was fully in-person or only part of the academic year, heard biased remarks outside of the classroom setting, in places such as hallways, cafeterias, and other school spaces. Additionally, students who attended school in person might be more likely to overhear face-to-face conversations among their peers. Students who attended school online would likely not have had much access to school spaces outside of the classroom, and were only around other students and teachers in online classroom settings. These online spaces likely provided fewer opportunities for biased remarks to be made, as they would often have to be made in front of the whole virtual classroom, including the teacher.

Figure 1.12 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports of Staff and Student Intervention in Homophobic Remarks



Homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression from staff were also more commonly reported among students who attended school only in-person compared to students who attended school online (either hybrid or only online).[54] In-person school likely provided more opportunity for students to hear teachers and school staff make biased remarks in spaces outside of the classroom and in overheard conversations. Additionally, adults may be overheard by students when making these kinds of remarks to other adults when in school buildings, but perhaps less likely in a virtual school setting.

Any negative remark about sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression may signal to LGBTQ+ students that they are unwelcome in their school communities, even if a specific negative comment is not directly applicable to the individual student who hears it. For example, negative comments about gender expression may disparage transgender or LGB people, even if transgender-specific or homophobic slurs are not used.

Intervention in Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks

The pervasiveness of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks in all learning environments is a concerning contribution to hostile school climates for all LGBTQ+ students. The willingness of others at school to intervene when hearing this kind of language may be another important indicator of school climate. To better understand if and how biased remarks are being addressed and interrupted when they are heard in schools, we asked students about staff and other students' intervention on homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression.[55]

Intervention in Homophobic Remarks. Students who reported hearing homophobic remarks at school were asked how often homophobic remarks were made in the presence of teachers or other school staff, and whether staff intervened when present. Almost a third of students (31.7%) in our survey reported that school staff members were present all or most of the time when homophobic remarks were made. When school staff were present, the use of biased and derogatory language by students remained largely unchallenged. For example, 12.3% reported that school personnel intervened most of the time or always when homophobic remarks were made in their presence, and half (50.3%) reported that staff never intervened when hearing homophobic remarks (see Figure 1.12). One would expect teachers and school staff to bear the responsibility for addressing problems of biased language in school. Although, given that school personnel are often not present during these incidents, students may also intervene when hearing biased language. However, less than a tenth of students (8.7%) reported that their peers intervened always or most of the time when hearing homophobic remarks, and more than half (53.4%) said their peers never intervened (see also Figure 1.12).

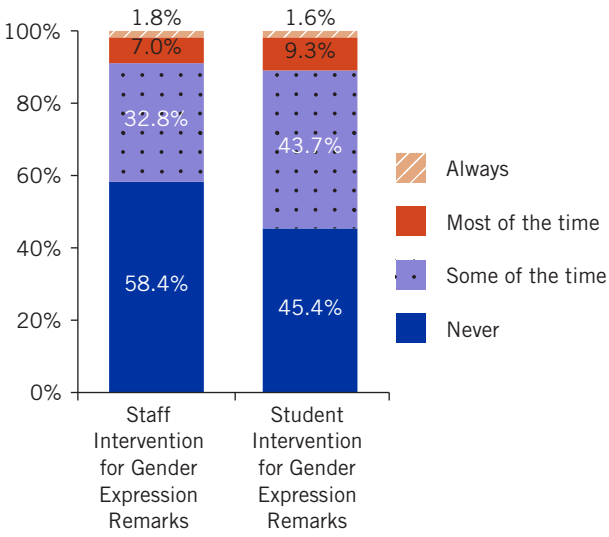
Intervention in Gender-Biased Remarks Almost a third of students (30.8%) in our survey who heard negative remarks about gender expression reported that school staff members were present all or most of the time when these remarks were made. In addition, intervention by educators on gender expression remarks was even less common than intervention on homophobic remarks.[56] For example, 8.8% of LGBQT+ students reported that school staff intervened most of the time or always when remarks about gender expression were made in their presence (see Figure 1.13), compared to 10.9% of LGBTQ+ students who reported that school staff intervened most of the time or always on homophobic remarks, respectively (see Figure 1.13). The high frequency of hearing these remarks, coupled with the fact that these comments are so rarely challenged by adults at school, suggests that acceptance of a range of gender expressions may be relatively uncommon in schools.

LGBTQ+ students who attended school only in person were most likely to report that school staff were present when homophobic remarks or remarks about gender expression were made, and students who attended school only online were least likely.[57] Students who attended school online likely only saw one teacher at a time, during their online instruction. However, students who went to school in-person, for any part of the year, saw and interacted with teachers and staff beyond those who taught the classes they were in. Because of this greater availability of and access to teachers and school staff, it is understandable that students who attended school in person would report greater presence of these adults than students who attended school online.

Although teachers and staff were more likely to be present when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made in in-school learning environments than in online only settings, students who were in in-person only learning environments reported the lowest levels of staff intervention on these remarks.[58] This finding illustrates that simply having adults present more often is not enough to ensure affirming school environments free of biased language, and suggests that more training is needed to provide school staff with the skills they need to intervene when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks are made. In contrast, the rates of student intervention on homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression were similar across the types of learning environments.[59]

These findings indicate that the majority of LGBTQ+ students report rampant usage of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks in their schools, which contributes to a hostile learning environment for

Figure 1.13 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports of Staff and Student Intervention in Negative Remarks about Gender Expression



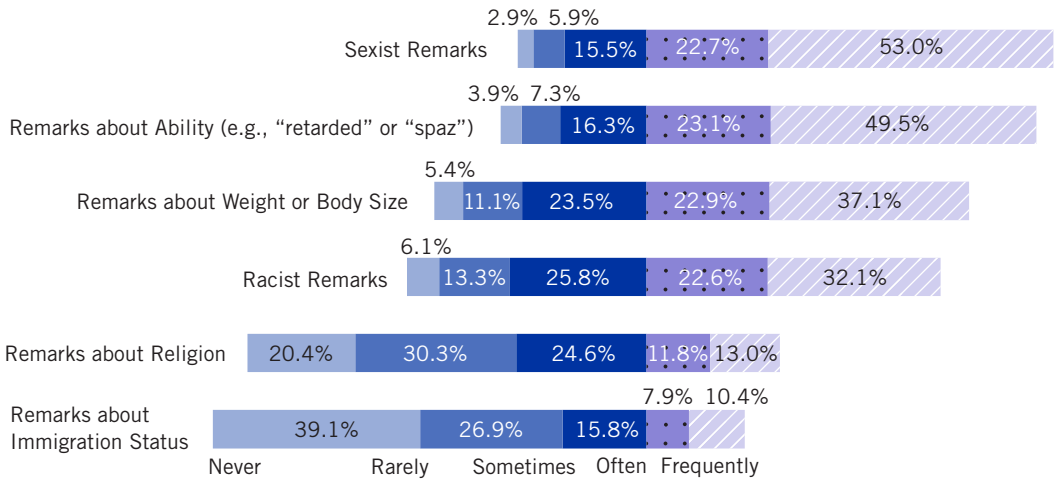
LGBTQ+ students. Infrequent intervention by school authorities when hearing such language in school may send a message to students that homophobic language is tolerated. Furthermore, school staff may be modeling poor behavior and legitimizing the use of anti-LGBTQ+ language, in that many students in our 2021 survey heard school staff make homophobic and transphobic remarks themselves.

Hearing Other Types of Biased Remarks at School

In addition to hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks at school, hearing other types of biased language is also an important indicator of school climate for LGBTQ+ students. We asked students about their experiences hearing racist remarks, sexist remarks, negative remarks about other students' ability, negative remarks about other students' religion, negative remarks about other students' body size or weight, and negative remarks about students' immigration status at school. For most of these types of remarks, LGBTQ+ students in our survey reported that they were commonplace at their schools, although some comments were more prevalent than others (see Figure 1.14).[60] Sexist remarks were the most commonly heard remark—even more so than homophobic remarks. The majority of LGBTQ+ students (75.7%) heard sexist remarks regularly (i.e., frequently or often) at their school and nearly three-quarters (72.6%) heard negative remarks about students' ability/disability regularly. Negative remarks about students' weight or body size and racist remarks were also very commonly heard types of biased remarks; with over half having heard these types of remarks regularly from other students (60.0% and 54.7%, respectively). Comments about religion were somewhat less common, with a quarter (24.8%) reporting hearing negative remarks about other students' religion from other students regularly. Least commonly heard were negative remarks about students' immigration status, with almost a fifth (18.3%) reporting that they heard them regularly at school. For all of these other types of biased remarks, students who were only in in-person learning environments reported hearing them more frequently than did students who were only in online learning environments and those in hybrid learning environments.[61]

Hearing biased or derogatory language is a common occurrence at school, and most teachers and other school authorities did not consistently intervene when these remarks were made in their presence, with regard to homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression. Thus, the pervasive use of biased language would remain largely unchallenged. In order to ensure schools are welcoming and safe for LGBTQ+ students, teachers and other school personnel need to make clear to students that such biased remarks will not be tolerated. Although homophobic and sexist remarks were most commonly heard at school, other types of remarks were also common, such as remarks about a students' ability or body size or weight. As such, any type of biased remark tolerated in school can create an unwelcoming environment for all students, and especially for students with marginalized identities.

Figure 1.14 Frequency of Hearing Other Biased Remarks in School



EXPERIENCES OF HARASSMENT AND ASSAULT AT SCHOOL

Hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks in school can contribute to feeling unsafe and create a negative learning environment. However, direct experiences with harassment and assault may have even more serious consequences on the lives of students. Because students in the U.S. were in different types of learning environments during the 2020–2021 academic year due to COVID, we asked those who were in school in person for all or part of the year about their experiences with in-person harassment and assault and we asked those who were in school online for all or part of the year about their experiences with online harassment.

The vast majority of LGBTQ+ students who attended school in-person for all or part of the school year (83.1%) experienced in-person harassment or assault based on personal characteristics, including sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, and actual or perceived race and ethnicity, religion, and disability. Half of students who attended school online for all or for part of the school year (50.7%) experienced online harassment based on personal characteristics.

Harassment and Assault Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender, and Gender Expression

In-Person Harassment and Assault. We asked survey participants who had attended school in person how often ("never," "rarely," "sometimes," "often," or "frequently") they had been verbally harassed, physically harassed, or physically assaulted at school during the past year specifically based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression (e.g., not acting "masculine" or "feminine enough"). Overall, students in in-person only learning environments experienced higher rates of harassment and assault based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression than did students who were in hybrid learning environments (i.e., attended school both in-person and online).[62]

Verbal harassment. An overwhelming majority (76.1%) reported being verbally harassed (e.g., been called names or threatened) at school specifically based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender at some point in the past year, and over a third (29.8%) experienced higher frequencies (often or frequently) of verbal harassment based on any of these characteristics. LGBTQ+ students most commonly reported experiencing verbal harassment at school based on their sexual orientation and gender expression (see Figure 1.15):[63]

- Six in ten LGBTQ+ students (60.7%) were verbally harassed at school in the past year based on their sexual orientation; 16.6% experienced this harassment often or frequently;
- Over half (51.3%) of LGBTQ+ students were verbally harassed at school in the past year based on their gender; 16.0% experienced this harassment often or frequently; and
- A majority of LGBTQ+ students (57.4%) were verbally harassed at school in the past year based on their gender expression; 18.0% experienced this harassment often or frequently.

Physical harassment. Over a third of LGBTQ+ students (31.2%) had been physically harassed (e.g., shoved or pushed) at some point at school during the past year based on their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender. Students most commonly reported being physically harassed at school based on their sexual orientation, followed by gender expression and gender (see Figure 1.16):[64]

- Approximately a quarter of LGBTQ+ students (22.4%) were physically harassed at school in the past year based on their sexual orientation; 4.4% experienced this harassment often or frequently;
- Over a fifth of LGBTQ+ students (20.5%) were physically harassed at school in the past year based on their gender; 4.4% experienced this harassment often or frequently; and
- More than a fifth of LGBTQ+ students (20.6%) were physically harassed at school in the past year based on their gender expression; 4.5% experienced this harassment often or frequently.

Physical assault. More than a tenth (12.5%) of LGBTQ+ students in our survey reported being physically assaulted (e.g., being punched, kicked, or injured with a weapon) in school during the past

year based on their sexual orientation, gender, or gender expression. Although these experiences may be less common than experiences of verbal and physical harassment, it is a more serious form of victimization. As shown in Figure 1.17, students experienced physical assault based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression at similar rates (As these forms of physical assault are rare and students report low rates, it is unsurprising that they did not differ based on type):[65].

- 8.8% of LGBTQ+ students were physically assaulted at school in the past year based on their sexual orientation;
- 8.3% of LGBTQ+ students were physically assaulted at school in the past year school based on their gender; and
- 8.2% of LGBTQ+ students were physically assaulted at school in the past year based on how they expressed their gender.

Online Harassment. Participants who had attended school online, for either part or all of the school year, reported on how often ("never," "rarely," "sometimes," "often," or "frequently") they had been harassed or threatened online or by phone during the school day by students from their school based on their sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression (see Figure 1.18). Of LGBTQ+ students who attended school online, 36.6% experienced online harassment based on sexual orientation, 30.3% based on gender, and 31.8% based on gender expression. Students who were in online only learning environments experienced higher rates of online harassment and assault based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression than those who were in hybrid learning environments.[66]

Harassment and Assault Based on Other Identity-Based Characteristics

In-Person Harassment and Assault. Although harassment based on gender and sexuality may be the most salient type of victimization for many LGBTQ+ students, students also may be victimized at school for other reasons, given that LGBTQ+ students, like all people, hold multiple identities. We also asked LGBTQ+ students about their experiences with in-person harassment related to other identity-based characteristics, including their religion, their actual or perceived race or ethnicity, and an actual or perceived emotional, developmental, or physical disability. Students who attended school in person were asked how often in the past year they have been verbally harassed (e.g., been called names or threatened), physically harassed (e.g., shoved or pushed), or physically assaulted (e.g., being punched, kicked, or injured with a weapon) based on their disability, their religion, or their actual or perceived race/ethnicity, (see Figures 1.19, 1.20, and 1.21). In general, harassment and assault based on these characteristics did not differ based on whether students attended school online in person, or both in person and online.[67]

Figure 1.15 Frequency of Verbal Harassment Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender, and Gender Expression Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)

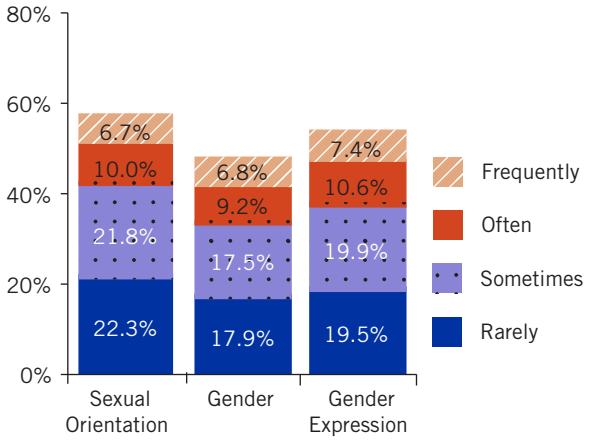
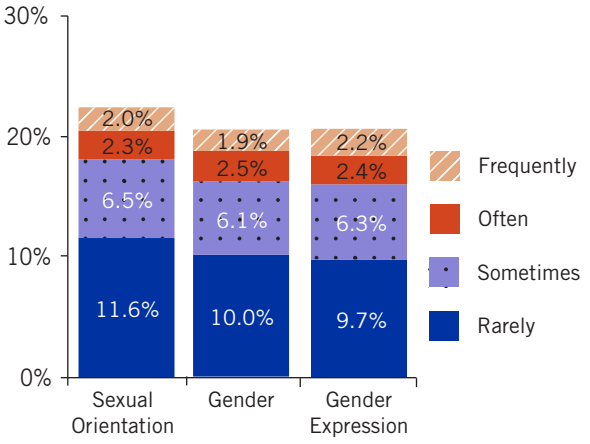


Figure 1.16 Frequency of Physical Harassment Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender, and Gender Expression Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)



Disability. Over a third of LGBTQ+ students who attended school in person experienced victimization at school based on their actual or perceived disability (34.4%):

- 32.9% of students experienced verbal harassment based on actual or perceived disability;
- 11.2% of students experienced physical harassment based on actual or perceived disability; and
- 5.0% of students experienced physical assault based on actual or perceived disability.

Religion. More than one in five of LGBTQ+ students who attended school in person reported victimization at school based on their religion (29.0%):

- 27.5% of students experienced verbal harassment based on actual or perceived religion;
- 7.7% of students experienced physical harassment based on actual or perceived religion; and
- 3.5% of students experienced physical assault based on actual or perceived religion.

Figure 1.17 Frequency of Physical Assault Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender, and Gender Expression Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)

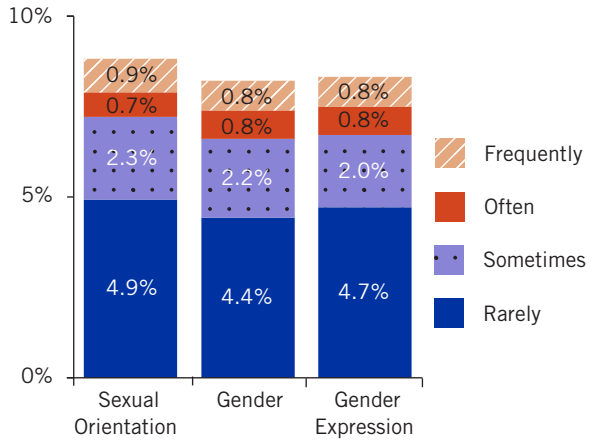


Figure 1.18 Frequency of Online Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender, and Gender Expression Experienced by LBGTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)

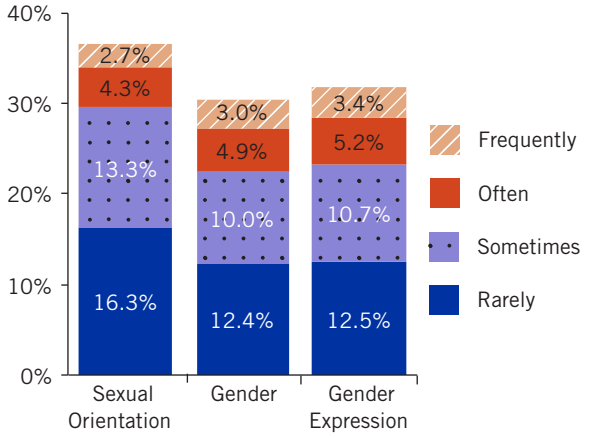


Figure 1.19 Frequency of Verbal Harassment Based on Actual or Perceived Race/Ethnicity, Disability, and Religion Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)

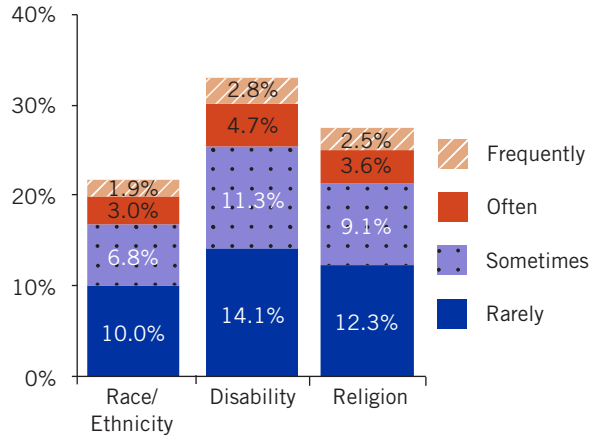
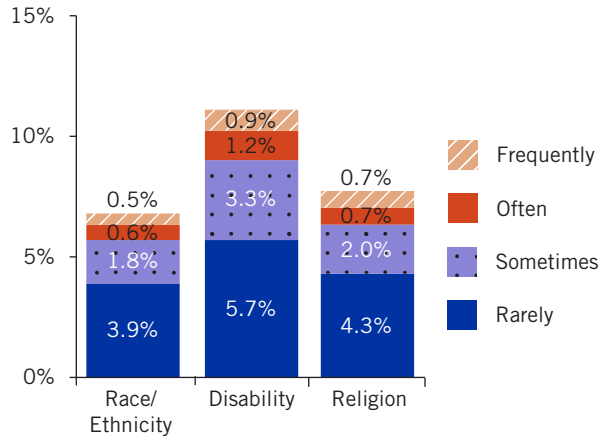


Figure 1.20 Frequency of Physical Harassment Based on Actual or Perceived Race/Ethnicity, Disability, and Religion Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)



Race/Ethnicity. Nearly a quarter of LGBTQ+ students who attended school in person experienced victimization at school because of their actual or perceived race or ethnicity (23.3%):

- 21.7% of students experienced verbal harassment based on actual of perceived race/ethnicity;
- 7.0% of students experienced physical harassment based on actual of perceived race/ethnicity; and
- 3.0% of students experienced physical assault based on actual of perceived race/ethnicity.

Online Harassment. We asked LGBTQ+ students who had been in online only or hybrid learning environments during the academic year about their experiences with online harassment related to other identity-based characteristics, including their religion, their actual or perceived race or ethnicity, and an actual or perceived emotional, developmental, or physical disability (see Figure 1.22). Among LGBTQ+ students who attended school online:

- 17.3% reported being harassed online based on their actual or perceived disability,
- 13.7% reported being harassed online based on their religion; and
- 13.2% reported being harassed online based on actual or perceived race or ethnicity.

Students who only attended school online experienced higher rates of such online harassment than students who attended school both online and in person.[68]

Other Types of Harassment and Negative Events

LGBTQ+ students may be harassed or experience other negative events at school for reasons that are not clearly related to their gender, sexuality, or other identities. In our survey, we also asked students how often they experienced these other types of events in the past year, such as sexual harassment and deliberate property damage.

Sexual Harassment. Survey participants were asked how often they had experienced sexual harassment at school in the past year, such as unwanted touching or sexual remarks directed at them. As shown in Figure 1.23, a majority of LGBTQ+ students (53.7%) had been sexually harassed at school, and 12.2% reported that such events occurred often or frequently. Students who attended school only in person experienced the highest rates of sexual harassment, followed by students who attended school both in person and online.[69]

Relational Aggression. Research on school-based bullying and harassment often focuses on physical

Figure 1.21 Frequency of Physical Assault Based on Actual or Perceived Race/Ethnicity, Disability, and Religion Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)

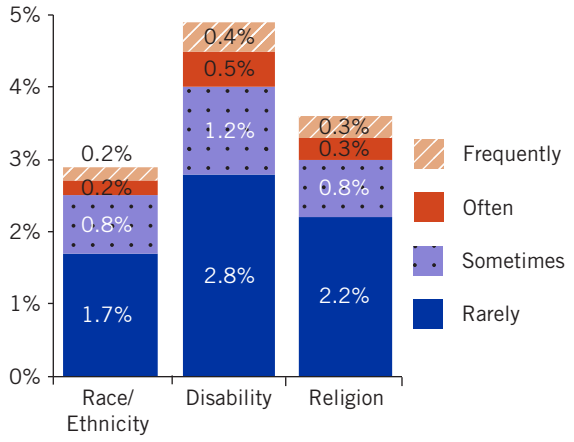
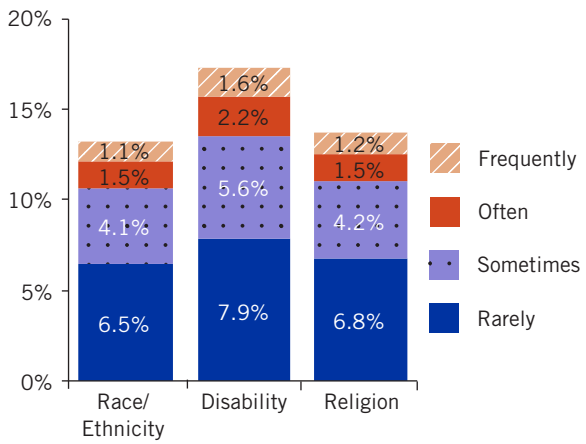


Figure 1.22 Frequency of Online Victimization Based on Actual or Perceived Race/Ethnicity, Disability, and Religion Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past School Year
(Percentages Among Those in In-person Only or Hybrid Learning Environments)



or overt acts of aggressive behavior; however, it is also important to examine relational forms of aggression that can damage peer relationships, such as spreading rumors or excluding students from peer activities.[70] We asked participants how often they had experienced two common forms of relational aggression: being purposefully excluded by peers and being the target of mean rumors or lies. As also illustrated in Figure 1.23, the vast majority of LGBTQ+ students (86.2%) in our survey reported that they had felt deliberately excluded or "left out" by other students, and nearly half (44.1%) experienced this often or frequently. Most LGBTQ+ students (62.3%) had mean rumors or lies told about them at school, and over a quarter (19.2%) experienced this often or frequently. Overall, students who attended school in person reported the highest levels of relational aggression, and students who attended school both in person and online reported higher rates than did those who only attended school online.[71]

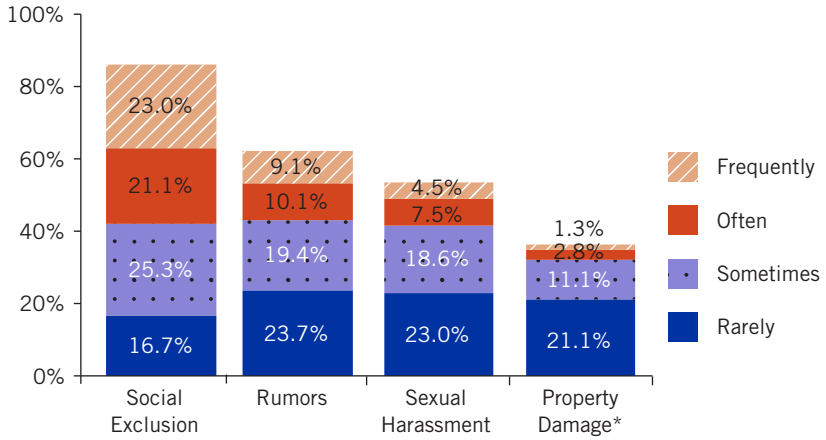
Property Theft or Damage at School. Having one's personal property damaged or stolen is yet another dimension of a hostile school climate for students. Over a third of LGBTQ+ students who attended school in person at some point in the school year (36.4%) reported that their property had been stolen or purposefully damaged by other students at school in the past year, and 4.2% said that such events had occurred often or frequently (see also Figure 1.23). Property damage was more common among students who only attended school in person than students who attended school both in person and online.[72]

General Experiences of Electronic Harassment or "Cyberbullying"

In addition to asking students who attended school online at any point in the past school year about online harassment based on their sexual orientation, gender, and other identities, we asked these students how often they were harassed or threatened in general by students at their school via electronic media (for example, text messages, emails, Instagram, Twitter, Tumblr, Facebook, Snapchat) outside of the school day, and 52.8% of those who only attended school online, and 50.4% of students who attended school both in person and online, reported experiencing this type of harassment in the past year. In addition, for those students were only in school in-person, we asked how often they experienced online harassment from students at their school and around half of these students (47.1%) reported experiencing this type of harassment in the past year. Students commonly reported experiencing electronic harassment via private messages on social media, text messages,and public social media posts (see Figure 1.24).

In this section, we found that the vast majority of LGBTQ+ students experienced identity-based harassment while attending school in-person, online, and in hybrid online and in-person settings. Our results suggest that the frequency of victimization was related to the type of learning environments the students were in. Students who attended school in-person for the entire year experienced more in-person victimization than

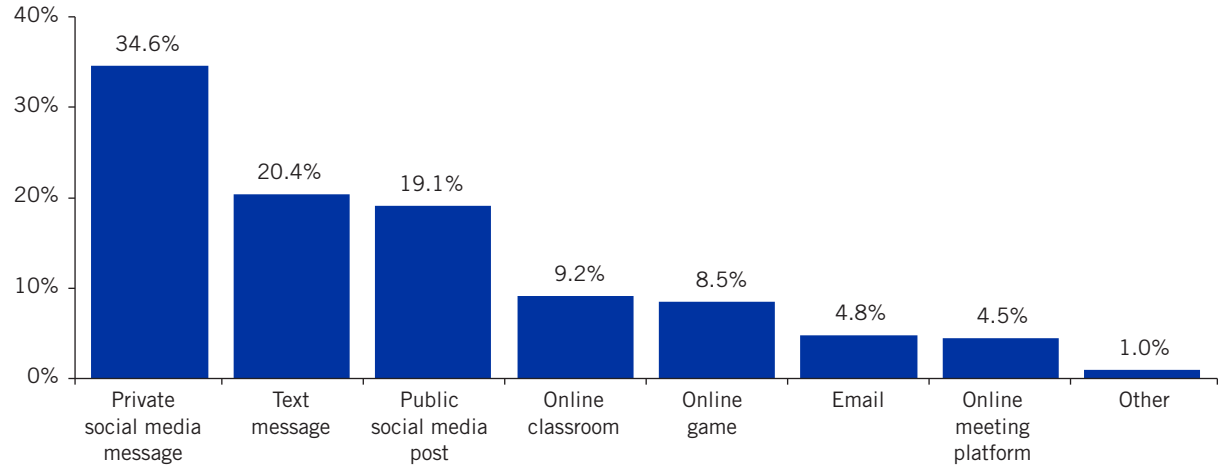
Figure 1.23 Frequency of Other Types of Harassment Experienced by LGBTQ+ Students in the Past Year



*Note: Only students in in-person only and hybrid learning environments were asked about property damage.

hybrid students who were only in person for a portion of the year. Similarly, online only students experienced more cyber harassment than hybrid students. Thus, students who were in hybrid settings experienced a lower frequency of both forms of victimization, but experienced both forms in contrast to their peers in online only or in-person only environments only experienced one form. Most often, the harassment faced by students in our sample targeted their LGBTQ+ identities. We also found that, in addition to verbal, physical, and online harassment and assault, LGBTQ+ students faced other forms of harassment, such as relational aggression and sexual harassment. Although we do not know the degree to which these other forms of harassment target students' LGBTQ+ identities, it is likely that LGBTQ+ youth face these forms of peer victimization more frequently than their non-LGBTQ+ peers. These forms of victimization can have serious consequences on students' academic outcomes and well-being, and we examine these relationships for LGBTQ+ students later in this report.

Figure 1.24 Methods of Online Communication Used to Harass or Threaten Students During the Past School Year
(Percentage of Students Reporting Experiencing Each Method)



REPORTING OF SCHOOL-BASED HARASSMENT AND ASSAULT

GLSEN advocates that anti-bullying/harassment measures in school must include clear processes for reporting by both students and staff, and stipulations that staff are adequately trained to effectively address instances of bullying and harassment when informed about them. In our survey, we asked those students who had experienced harassment or assault in the past school year how often they had reported the incidents to school staff. Given that family members may be able to advocate on behalf of the student with school personnel, we further asked students in our survey if they reported harassment or assault to a family member (i.e., to a parent, guardian, or other family member), and if family members intervened on their behalf with the school.

As shown in Figure 1.25, over half of these students (61.5%) never reported incidents of victimization to school staff, and less than a fifth of students (14.5%) indicated that they reported these incidents to staff regularly (i.e., reporting "most of the time" or "always"). Less than half of students (42.1%) said that they had ever told a family member about the victimization they faced at school (see also Figure 1.25), and of those who had, only half (51.3%) reported that a family member had ever addressed the issue with school staff (see Figure 1.26). LGBTQ+ students who are not out to a parent or guardian may not be comfortable informing a parent or guardian about school victimization, especially if it is related to their LGBTQ+ identity. In fact, we found that students who were out as LGBTQ+ to at least one parent or guardian were more likely to tell their families about the victimization they were experiencing in school (49.1% vs. 26.8%).[73]

LGBTQ+ students' reporting of harassment and assault differed somewhat based on learning environment (online only, hybrid, and in-person only). Students in in-person learning environments reported harassment to school staff at higher rates than did students in online only or hybrid settings.[74] It is possible that students who only attended school in-person had more frequent and regular contact with school staff, and the higher rate of reporting among these students may be related to greater access to teachers and other school staff. Additionally, students who were in in-person only learning environments may have already been familiar with procedures for reporting harassment from the previous academic year, whereas students in online only or hybrid learning environments likely were in schools that had to make adjustments to reporting procedures to adapt to the online learning environment. Students in online, in-person, and hybrid learning did not differ in their reporting to family, suggesting that although these different learning environments may have impacted their relationships with adults in schools, it may not have had such effects on their relationships with adults at home.[75]

Figure 1.25 Frequency of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Incidents of Harassment and Assault

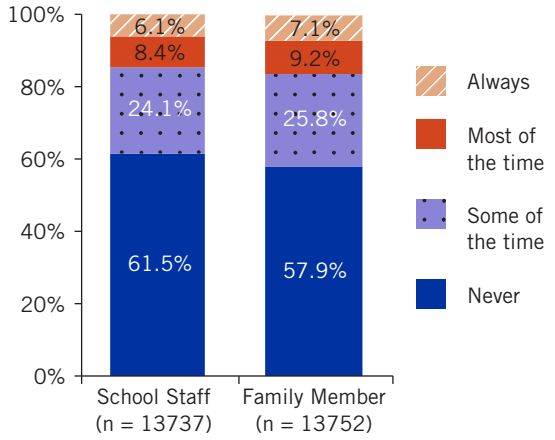
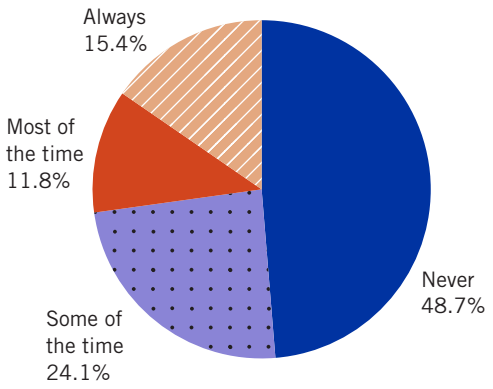


Figure 1.26 Frequency of Intervention by LGBTQ+ Students' Family Members (n = 5773)



Reporting of Harassment or Assault in Online Learning Environments

As discussed above, LGBTQ+ students who attended school online for any portion of the year reported harassment and assault at a lower rate than students who attended school only in-person. These students, for at least some of their school year, were unable to report victimization in person to school staff, and instead had to find virtual methods of communication to report their experiences. It is possible that it is easier or preferable for students to report harassment and assault to staff in person. In fact, we found that half of students (49.5%) who attended school online (both online only and hybrid), stated that they did not report victimization online and instead only reported these experiences to staff when they attended school in person. It is possible that students who were in some form on online instruction did not know how to virtually report harassment and assault, or had challenges in doing so. However, only 14.7% of students who attended school online (both online only and hybrid) reported that a reason they did not report victimization was challenges in online reporting. It may be that students find it easier to approach school staff in person, compared to online where students cannot engage face-to-face with staff and must find an alternative virtual method to communicate the experience to them.

To better understand virtual reporting methods, we asked students who attended school online (both online only and hybrid) and who reported experiences of victimization to staff about the methods they used to communicate with school staff. As shown in Table 1.1, among these students, the most common method to report victimization was by emailing staff (36.8%), followed by speaking to school staff in a private online meeting (13.5%). Less common methods included filing out an online form, sending a private message or speaking up in their online classroom, and reporting via text or phone call, though these methods were not particularly common (Table 1.1).

Reasons for Not Reporting Harassment or Assault

Reporting incidents of harassment and assault to school staff may be an intimidating task for students, especially when there is no guarantee that reporting these incidents will result in effective intervention. Students who indicated that they had not always told school personnel about their experiences with harassment or assault were asked why they did not do so. Figure 1.27 shows the frequencies for the reasons given by survey respondents for not reporting.

As shown in Figure 1.27, among the most common reasons that LGBTQ+ students cited for not always reporting incidents of victimization to school staff were reasons related to doubt that doing so would be effective. Almost three-fourths of victimized students (69.6%) in our survey expressed the belief that school staff would not do anything about the harassment even if they reported it. In addition, about two-thirds of students (60.6%) believed that even if staff did do something,

Table 1.1 Methods of Reporting Experiences of Harassment and Assault When Attending School Online (n = 4510)

Type of Reporting Method	Percentage of Students Reporting Each Method*
Sent an email	36.8%
Spoke to school staff in a private online meeting	13.5%
Filled out an online form	9.4%
Sent a private message in the online classroom	8.8%
Talked to someone during a GSA meeting	6.2%
Made a phone call	5.4%
Sent a text message (including WhatsApp, Viber, GroupMe, Signal)	4.2%
Spoke up during an online class	3.3%

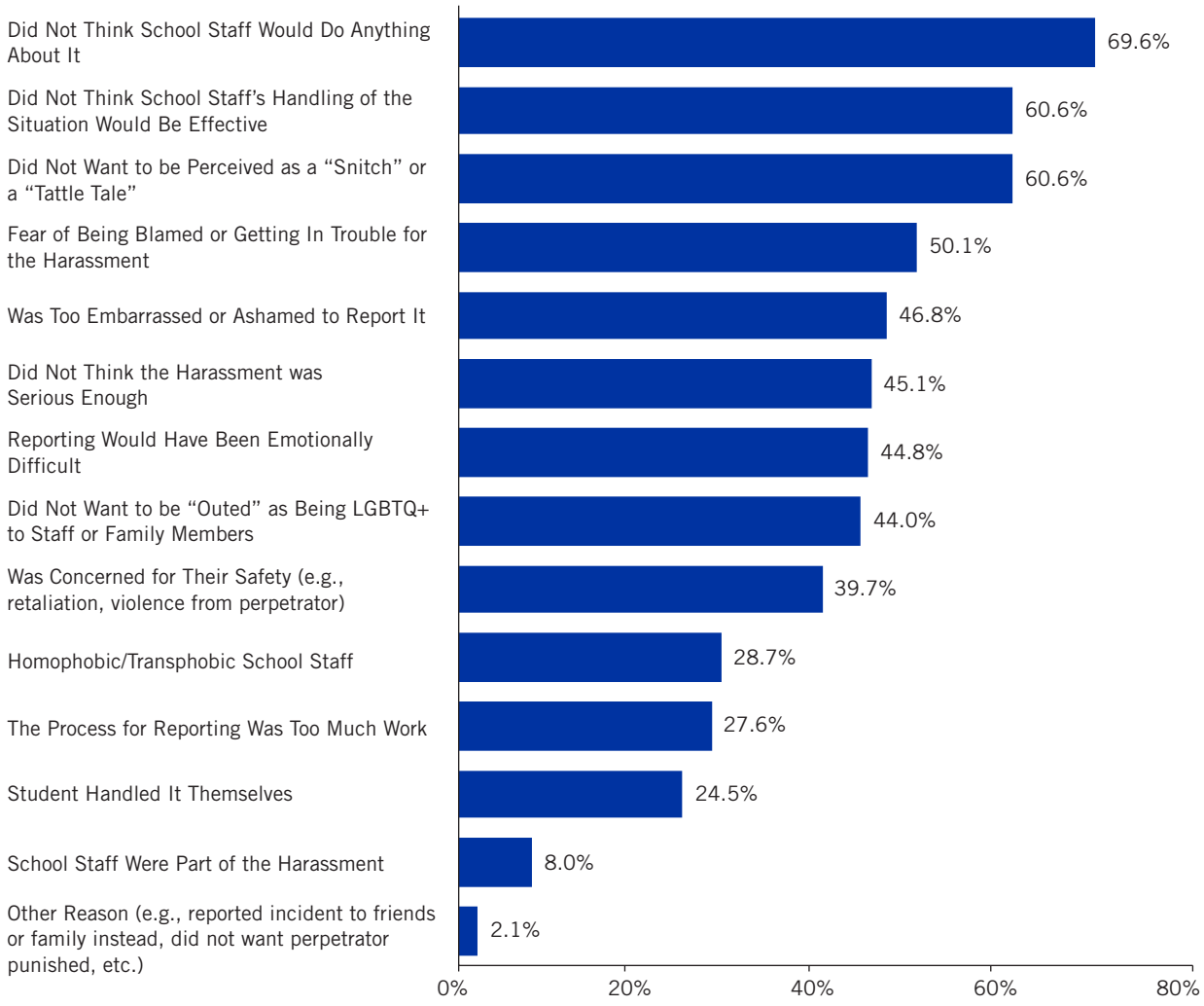
*Because respondents could select multiple responses, categories are not mutually exclusive. Percentages may not add up to 100%.

their actions would not effectively address the victimization that they were experiencing. Many students (60.6%) also reported that they did not report incidents of victimization because they did not want to be perceived as a "snitch" or a "tattle tale."

Many LGBTQ+ students indicated that they did not report instances of victimization because they were afraid of exacerbating an already hostile situation, specifically for themselves. For example, half of these students (50.1%) feared being blamed themselves, or getting in trouble for the harassment they faced. Furthermore, 44.8% of students reported that they were concerned that reporting victimization would have been emotionally difficult. Additionally, many students did not report their harassment or assault to school staff due to concerns about confidentiality. Specifically, approximately two-fifths of LGBTQ+ students (44.0%) in our survey were worried about being "outed" to school staff or to their family members simply by reporting the bias-based bullying that they were experiencing. Lastly, just over two-fifths of students (39.7%) expressed explicit safety concerns, such as fear of retaliation from the perpetrator if they reported the harassment to school staff.

LGBTQ+ students often reported that they were uncomfortable approaching school staff. About half of students said they felt too embarrassed or ashamed to report the incident to school staff members (46.8%) More than a quarter of students (28.7%) were deterred from reporting harassment or assault because they felt that

Figure 1.27 Reasons LGBTQ+ Students Did Not Always Report Incidents of Harassment or Assault to School Staff (n = 5265)



staff members at their school were homophobic or transphobic themselves. Perhaps the most troubling, however, is that nearly one-tenth of victimized students (8.0%) in our survey said that school staff members were actually part of the harassment or assault they were experiencing, thus leaving students to feel that there is no recourse for addressing incidents of victimization at their school.

Nearly half of students (45.1%) expressed that they did not report incidents of victimization to school personnel because they did not consider the harassment to be serious enough to report. Because we lack specific details about these particular incidents of victimization, we cannot determine whether the events perceived as "not serious enough" to report were truly minor. We, nevertheless, did find that students who said they did not report victimization because it was "not that serious" had lower levels of victimization compared to those who did not cite this reason for not reporting harassment or assault.[76] However, it is also possible that some students may convince themselves that their harassment is insignificant, and therefore not worth reporting, due to the many other inhibiting factors discussed throughout this section.

A quarter of students (24.5%) in our survey said they did not report harassment or assault to school staff because they handled the situation themselves. Without further information, we cannot know what specific actions these students took to address these incidents. It may be that they confronted the perpetrator directly, either instructing them to stop, or they retaliated in some way. However, it is a concern because such actions could put the victimized students at risk for disciplinary consequences and may not prevent further peer victimization. Further research is needed to explore the nature and possible consequences of the various ways students handle incidents of harassment themselves.

Taken together, these responses demonstrate a pervasive problem in our nation's schools. It is clear that LGBTQ+ youth are not able to report experiences of harassment and/or assault in their schools, whether due to doubts about school staff taking effective action, fear of retaliation from perpetrators, concerns about being "outed" as LGBTQ+, or by simply being too embarrassed to come forward and report the victimization they are experiencing. In order to create a safe learning environment for all students, schools should work toward appropriately and effectively responding to incidents of victimization. Many of the reasons students gave for not reporting victimization could be addressed through more intentional school policies and practices. School staff should respond to each incident brought to their attention, as well as inform victims of the action that was taken. Training all members of the school community to be sensitive to LGBTQ+ student issues and effectively respond to bullying and harassment, could increase the likelihood of reporting by students who are victimized at school. Such efforts could, in turn, improve school climate for all students.

Students' Reports on the Nature of School Staff's Responses to Harassment and Assault

We asked those LGBTQ+ students who had reported incidents to school staff about the actions taken by staff in response to the most recent incident. As shown in Table 1.2, the most common response was that the staff member did nothing and/or told the reporting student to ignore the victimization (60.3%). The next most common responses involved staff contacting and speaking to individuals other than the student who reported victimization. A third of students (33.9%) reported that staff talked to the perpetrator or told them to stop the harassment, and fewer students reported that staff contacted the parents, of either the reporting student or the perpetrator (19.4%). Some students (17.3%) reported that staff provided them emotional support. However, concurringly, almost as many students (16.0%) reported that staff responding to reports of victimization by telling the student to change their behavior (e.g., not to act "so gay" or not to dress a certain way). Finally, 16.0% of students reported that staff separated them from the perpetrator. Less common responses can be found in Table 1.2.

Failing to intervene when harassment is reported, punishing students for their own victimization, and other inappropriate responses to reports of harassment and assault are unacceptable and potentially harmful to students who experience them. Staff members who do not address reports of student victimization not only fail to help the victimized student, but also may discourage other

students from reporting when they are harassed or assaulted at school.

Staff responses to reports of harassment and assault were similar across all three learning environments.[77] The one exception was that students who were in in-person only learning environments were more likely to report being told to ignore the harassment than students who were in online only or hybrid learning environments. Staff doing nothing or taking no action and staff telling students to ignore the victimization were the two most commonly reported staff responses, regardless of whether students went to school in-person or online. These inappropriate and potentially harmful responses persist across all learning environments suggesting that all educators require more/better training on how to intervene and respond to incidents of LGBTQ+-based harassment and assault.

Effectiveness of Staff Responses to Harassment and Assault

In our survey, students who said that they reported incidents of harassment and assault to school staff were also asked how effective staff members were in addressing the problem. As shown in Figure 1.28, just over a quarter of students (26.6%) believed that staff responded effectively to their reports of victimization. Students' reports of effectiveness of staff response did not differ by learning environment.[78]

Table 1.2 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports of School Staff's Responses to Reports of Harassment and Assault (n = 4841)

Type of Reporting Method	Percentage Reporting Each Type of Staff Response*
Staff Did Nothing/Took No Action and/or Told the Student to Ignore It	**60.3%**
Staff did nothing/Took no action	45.4%
Staff told the student to ignore it	40.8%
Staff Talked to Perpetrator/Told Perpetrator to Stop	**33.9%**
Parents Were Contacted	**19.4%**
Staff contacted the reporting student's parents	12.8%
Staff contacted the perpetrator's parents	11.4%
Provided Them Emotional Support	**17.3%**
Told Reporting Student to Change Their Behavior (e.g., to not act "so gay" or dress in a certain way)	**16.0%**
Separating the Student and the Perpetrator	**16.0%**
Perpetrator Was Disciplined (e.g., with detention, suspension)	**14.1%**
Blamed Reporting Student Because They are LGBTQ+	**12.1%**
Incident Was Referred to Another Staff Person	**12.1%**
Staff Attempted to Educate Students about Bullying	**10.7%**
Staff educated the whole class or school about bullying	6.6%
Staff educated the perpetrator about bullying	6.3%
Filed a Report of the Incident	**10.6%**
Reporting Student was Disciplined (e.g., with detention, suspension)	**7.0%**
Used Peer Mediation or Conflict Resolution Approach	**5.6%**
Other Responses (e.g., staff counseled student, victim was blamed, threats of discipline, etc.)	**2.2%**

*Because respondents could select multiple responses, categories are not mutually exclusive. Percentages may not add up to 100%.

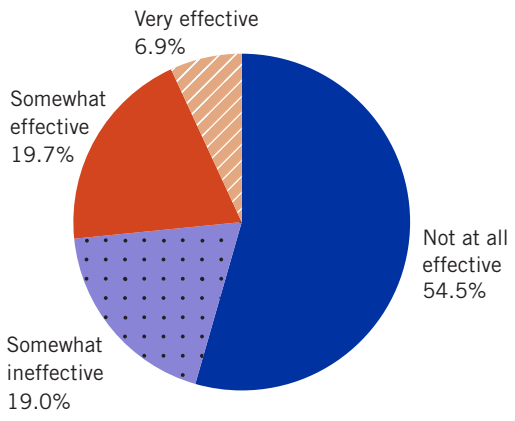
The staff actions that students were more likely to indicate as effective included:[79]

- Staff took disciplinary action against the perpetrator;
- Staff educated the perpetrator about bullying;
- Staff contacted the perpetrator's parents; and
- Staff provided emotional support.

The responses that students were more likely to indicate were less effective were:[80]

- Staff told the reporting student to change their behavior;
- Staff disciplined the student who reported the incident;
- Staff did nothing to address the incident and/or told the reporting student to ignore the harassment;
- Staff talked to the perpetrator/told the perpetrator to stop;
- Staff filed a report;
- Staff referred the incident to another staff member;
- Staff contacted the reporting student's parents;
- Staff used a peer mediation/conflict resolution approach;
- Staff educated the class or student body about bullying; and
- Staff separated the perpetrator and reporting student.

Figure 1.28 LGBTQ+ Students' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Reporting Incidences of Harassment and Assault to School Staff
(n = 5265)



Although these findings about ineffective responses may suggest a lack of care on the part of staff, they may also be indicative of school staff who are well-meaning but are also misinformed about effective intervention strategies for cases of bullying and harassment. For example, peer mediation and conflict resolution strategies, in which students speak to each other about an incident, are only effective in situations where conflict is among students with equal social power. Peer mediation that emphasizes that all involved parties contribute to conflict can be ineffective, and, at worst, may re-victimize the targeted student when there is an imbalance of power between the perpetrator and the victim. When harassment is bias-based, as is the case with anti-LGBTQ+ harassment, there is almost always, by definition, an imbalance of power.[81]

School personnel are charged with providing a safe learning environment for all students. In this survey, the most common reason students gave for not reporting harassment or assault was the belief that nothing would be done by school staff. And as discussed above, even when students *did* report incidents of victimization, the most common staff responses were to do nothing or merely to tell the student to ignore it. By not effectively addressing harassment and assault, students who are victimized are denied an adequate opportunity to learn. It is particularly troubling that 16.0% of victimized students were told by school staff to change their behavior for reasons such as their sexual orientation or gender expression (see Table 1.2), which implies that they somehow brought the problem upon themselves for simply being who they are. This type of response by school staff may exacerbate an already hostile school climate for LGBTQ+ students, and may deter students from reporting other incidents of harassment or assault in the future.

Considering that many students attended school online, for the whole year or for part of the year, and that students may continue to attend school

in online or hybrid learning environments, it is important to consider our findings that students who attended school online at any point in the year were less likely to report harassment and assault to staff than were students who attended school only in-person. Schools that provide online instruction should work to ensure that their procedures for reporting incidents of victimization are clear to students. Additionally, staff in such settings may need to develop methods for students to approach them about harassment and assault and ensure that students understand they are accessible, even in a virtual manner.

EXPERIENCES OF ANTI-LGBTQ+ DISCRIMINATION AT SCHOOL

LGBTQ+ students may experience discriminatory school policies and practices that are related to their actual or perceived LGBTQ+ identities. Examples of policies and practices that LGBTQ+ students might experience in their schools include restricting LGBTQ+ expression, being prevented from using or accessing facilities aligned with one's gender, being disciplined for activities that are not disciplined when it does not involve LGBTQ+ students, and being limited or excluded from activities due to their LGBTQ+ identities. Such policies and practices may disrupt LGBTQ+ students' school experiences and may contribute to overall negative school experiences for LGBTQ+ students and make them feel as if they are not valued, or even allowed, in their school communities.

Experiences of Discriminatory School Policies and Practices

Overall, the majority of students in our survey had personally experienced a number of specific LGBTQ+-related discriminatory policies and practices at their school—nearly 6 in 10 students (58.9%) indicated that they had experienced at least one of such LGBTQ+-related discriminatory policies and practices (see Figure 1.29). Notably, LGBTQ+ students had different experiences with discriminatory policies and practices depending on their learning environment. LGBTQ+ students who had been only in in-person learning environments during the academic years were far more likely to experience any form of LGBTQ+-related discrimination than those in the other types of learning environments.[82]

Some of the most common discriminatory policies and practices experienced by LGBTQ+ students where those that targeted students' gender, potentially limiting their ability to make gender-affirming choices and negatively impacting their school experience:[83]

- 29.2% had been prevented from using their chosen name or pronouns in their schools;
- 27.2% had been prevented from using the bathroom that aligned with their gender;
- 23.8% had been prevented from using the locker room that aligned with their gender;
- 20.6% had been prevented from wearing clothes deemed "inappropriate" based on gender; and
- 16.0% had been prevented from playing on the sports team that is consistent with their gender.

It is important to note that each of these gender-related discriminatory policies and practices explicitly target and limit students' gender identity and expression, and thus, may uniquely impact transgender and nonbinary students. For further discussion on the experiences of transgender and nonbinary students and their experiences with discriminatory policies and practices at school, see the "School Climate and Gender" section of Part Three in this report.

Many LGBTQ+ students in our survey also indicated that some schools maintain policies and practices that targeted or limited their self-expression of being LGBTQ+ (see also Figure 1.29):

- 25.2% of LGBTQ+ students were disciplined for public affection, such as kissing or holding hands, that is not similarly disciplined among non-LGBTQ+ students;
- 15.6% of LGBTQ+ students were prevented from writing about or doing school projects about LGBTQ+ issues; and
- 12.3% of LGBTQ+ students were prevented from wearing clothing supporting LGBTQ+ issues.

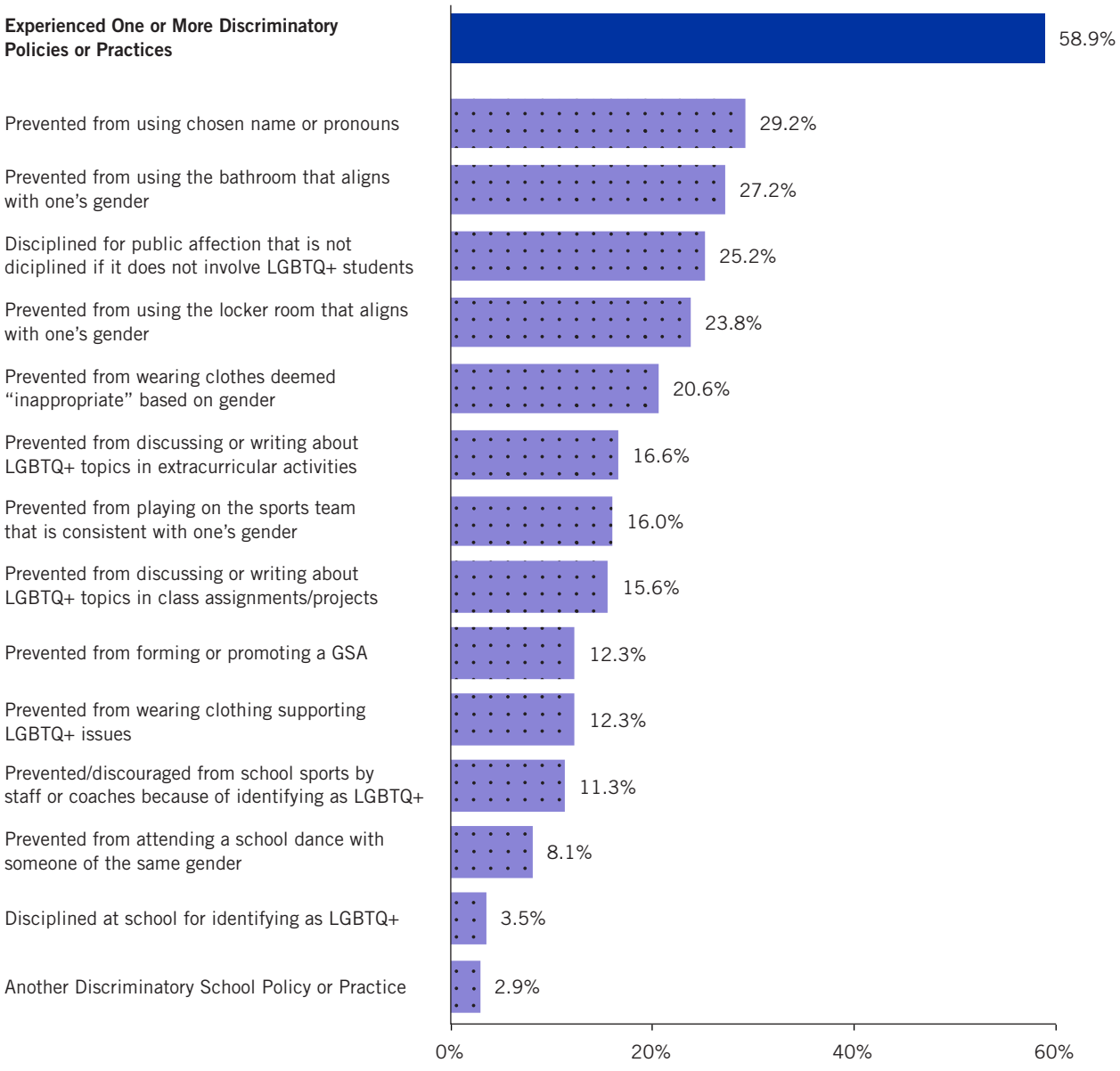
In addition, many of the LGBTQ+ students in our survey indicated that their extracurricular activities were limited or restricted by school discriminatory policies or practices:

- 16.6% of LGBTQ+ students were prevented from writing or talking about LGBTQ+ issues in extracurricular activities;

- 12.3% of LGBTQ+ were prevented from forming or promoting a GSA; and
- 11.3% of LGBTQ+ students shared that school staff or coaches had prevented or discouraged them from playing sports because they identified as LGBTQ+.

Clearly, some schools are sending the message that LGBTQ+ topics, and in some cases, even LGBTQ+ people themselves, are not appropriate for school. Discriminatory policies and practices negatively impact LGBTQ+ students and prevent LGBTQ+ students from participating in the school community as fully and completely as other students (see the *Hostile School Climate: Educational Outcomes and Psychological Well-Being* section of this report). In order to ensure that schools are welcoming and affirming of all students, staff and administration should eliminate policies and practices that target, or disproportionately impact, LGBTQ+ students.

Figure 1.29 Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced Discriminatory Policies and Practices at School



HOSTILE SCHOOL CLIMATE: EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

School Climate and Educational Outcomes

Educational Aspirations. In order to examine the relationship between school climate and educational outcomes, we asked students about their aspirations with regard to further education, including their plans to complete high school and their highest level of expected educational attainment.

Plans to Graduate High School. The vast majority of LGBTQ+ students in our survey (93.8%) planned to graduate high school; however, 5.3% were not sure if they would graduate and 0.9% did not plan to graduate. We also found that LGBTQ+ students in earlier grades were more likely than their older peers to indicate that they were unsure about their high school graduation plans.[84] Further, it is important to note that the 2021 NSCS only included students who were in school at some point during the 2020–2021 school year and does not include youth who had already left school before the school year began.

We also asked LGBTQ+ students who did not plan on completing high school or who were not sure if they would graduate whether they planned to obtain a General Education Diploma (GED) or similar equivalent. The majority of these students (72.3%) were not sure if they would obtain a GED, 21.4% indicated that they planned to and 6.2% indicated that they did not. Some research on high school equivalency certification in the general student population suggests that GED equivalencies are not associated with the same educational attainment and earning potential as high school diplomas.[85] Nevertheless, the majority of students who planned to get a GED (58.3%) indicated that they intended to pursue some type of post-secondary education.[86] More research is needed to better understand how LGBTQ+ students' educational and career plans may be impeded if they do not graduate from high school.

Reasons LGBTQ+ Students May Not Finish High School. We asked those students who indicated they were not planning on completing high school or were not sure if they would graduate about their reasons for leaving school. Most of these students cited multiple reasons for potentially not graduating. As shown in Table 1.3, the vast majority of these students reported reasons related to mental health, such as depression, anxiety, or stress (92.3% of those who provided reasons for leaving high school), and two-thirds (65.5%) reported academic reasons, including poor grades, high number of absences, or not having enough credits to graduate. About half of these students cited reasons related to a hostile school climate (51.5%), including issues with harassment, unsupportive peers or educators, and gendered school policies/practices, such as restrictions on which bathroom they are allowed to use. In addition, about half mentioned reasons related to COVID (49.5%).

LGBTQ+ students may consider leaving school for many reasons, some of which may have little to do with their sexual orientation, gender identity, or peer victimization—as noted above. However, it is also possible that some of the mental health and academic concerns that students reported were caused by experiences of a hostile school environment, as noted later in this section. For example, school-based victimization may impact students' mental health,[87] and this lower psychological well-being may also place students at risk for lower academic achievement.[88] Furthermore, a lack of safety may lead to students missing school, which can result in a student being pushed out of school by school disciplinary or criminal sanctions for truancy,[89] dropping out of school as a result of poor academic achievement, or disengaging with school due to the days missed.

Post-Secondary Aspirations. When asked about their aspirations with regard to post-secondary education, as shown in Figure 1.30, LGBTQ+ students most commonly planned on obtaining a Bachelor's degree (41.1%), followed by a graduate degree, e.g., Master's degree, PhD, or MD (33.9%). Only 11.8% of LGBTQ+ students indicated that they did *not* plan to pursue any type of post-secondary education (i.e., that they only planned to obtain a high school diploma, did not plan to finish high school, or were unsure of their plans).

School Climate and Educational Aspirations. Experiencing victimization related to one's sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender during

the school day can negatively affect an LGBTQ+ student's interest in pursuing further education. As shown in Figure 1.31, among those who attended school in-person either full-time or combined with online instruction, LGBTQ+ students who reported higher levels of in-person victimization regarding their sexual orientation were nearly twice as likely to report that did not plan on pursuing their education beyond high school (16.6% vs. 9.4%), and LGBTQ+ students reporting higher levels of victimization based on gender expression or gender were twice as likely (18.3% vs. 8.8% and 18.1% vs. 9.0%, respectively).[90] Among those LGBTQ+ students who attended school online either full-time or combined with in-person instruction, as shown in Figure 1.32, students who experienced online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment during school or from students at their school were nearly twice as likely to report not wanting to pursue their education beyond high school. For example, 11.6% of LGBTQ+ students who experienced lower levels of harassment online related to their sexual orientation did not plan on further education compared to 18.7% of those who experienced higher levels.[91] Anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices were also related to lower educational aspirations for LGBTQ+ students in our survey—13.7% of students who had experienced this type of discrimination at school did not plan on continuing their education compared to 9.2% of those who had not.[92]

School Climate and Academic Achievement. A hostile school climate may also negatively affect an LGBTQ+ student's academic performance. As shown in Table 1.4, LGBTQ+ students who had higher levels of in-person and online victimization based on their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender had significantly lower GPAs than students who experienced less harassment and assault. For example, LGBTQ+ students who experienced higher levels of victimization based on gender expression reported an average GPA of 2.76 and LGBTQ+ students who experienced lower levels of this type of victimization reported an average GPA of 3.17 (see Table 1.4).[93] As also

Table 1.3 Reasons LGBTQ+ Students Do Not Plan to Graduate High School or Are Unsure If They Will Graduate (n = 1244)

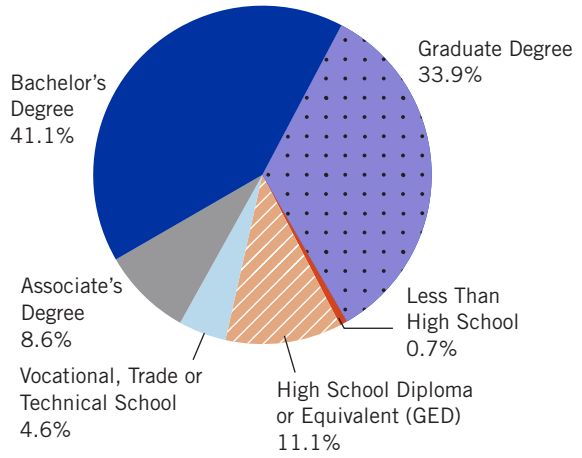
	Percent of Students Who Indicated That They Did Not Plan to Graduate or Were Unsure
Mental Health Concerns (e.g., depression, anxiety, stress)	92.3%
Academic Concerns (Any)	65.4%
Poor Grades	62.7%
Absences	28.8%
Not Enough Credits	28.1%
Hostile School Climate (Any)	51.5%
Unsupportive Peers	38.4%
Harassment	34.0%
Unsupportive Teachers/Staff	27.0%
Gendered School Policies/Practices	31.4%
COVID-Related Issues	49.5%
Challenges related to online learning	39.5%
Challenges related to the COVID-19 pandemic	29.4%
Future Plans Do Not Require HS Diploma	25.2%
Family Responsibilities (e.g., child care, wage earner)	15.8%
Other (e.g., lack of motivation, unsupportive family)	7.6%

*Because respondents could select multiple responses, categories are not mutually exclusive, and percentages do not add up to 100%.

illustrated in Table 1.4, experiences of institutional discrimination were also related to lower educational achievement.[94]

Overall, the vast majority of LGBTQ+ students planned to complete high school as well as some form of post-secondary education, although experiences with anti-LGBTQ+ harassment and discrimination were both associated with lower educational aspirations as well as lower GPA. Thus, supporting LGBTQ+ students' future educational attainment requires focused efforts that reduce anti-LGBTQ+ bias in schools and create affirming academic environments. Further, these efforts must be implemented at all grade levels, with particular attention paid to younger students, who may be at greater risk for not completing high school.

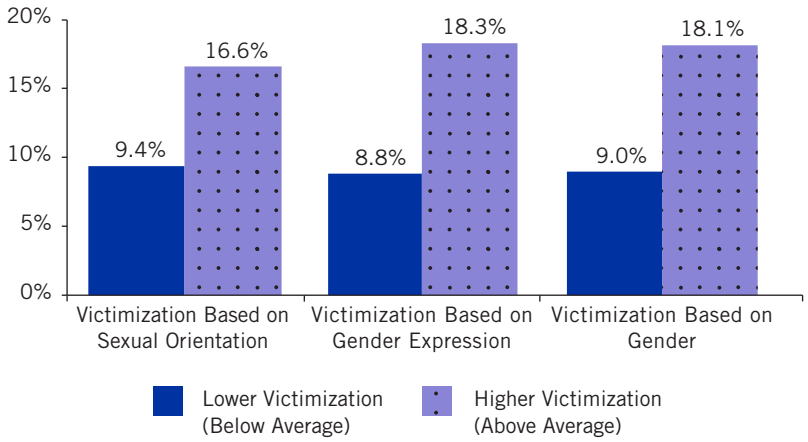
Figure 1.30 Educational Aspirations of LGBTQ+ Students



School Climate and Absenteeism. School-based victimization can impinge on a student's right to an education. Students who are regularly harassed or assaulted during the school day may attempt to avoid these hurtful experiences by not attending school and, accordingly, may be more likely to miss school than students who do not experience such victimization. We found that experiences of both in-person and online victimization were, in fact, related to missing days of school. As shown in Figures 1.33 and 1.34, higher levels of in-person victimization and higher levels of online victimization in school regarding sexual orientation, gender expression and gender were both associated with more than a two times greater likelihood of missing school in the past month for LGBTQ+ students.[95] Experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school was also related to missing days of school—LGBTQ+ students who experienced this type of discrimination at school were nearly three times likelier to have missed school in the past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable than those who had not (43.3% vs. 16.4%).[96]

As these findings indicate, both negative interpersonal experiences, such as victimization, as well as negative institutional treatment, such as anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices contribute to a school setting that feels unwelcoming for many LGBTQ+ students. And as such, they restrict access to an LGBTQ+ student's education. Although LGBTQ+ students reported a lower incidence of online victimization

Figure 1.31 Educational Aspirations and Severity of In-Person Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Not Planning to Pursue Post-Secondary Education)



related to their LGBTQ+ identities than in-person victimization, as discussed previously in this section of the report, the effects of the two forms of victimization were very similar on educational outcomes.

School Climate and School Discipline

The use of harsh and exclusionary discipline, such as zero tolerance policies, has proliferated over the previous several decades for both serious infractions as well as minor violations of school policies.[97] Initially framed as vital for protecting teachers and students,[98] these disciplinary policies are regarded by many as being over-employed in removing students from the traditional school environment.[99] The use of harsh discipline has contributed to higher dropout rates, as well as more youth in alternative educational settings and in juvenile justice facilities, where educational supports and opportunities may be less available.[100] Growing awareness of the soaring use of exclusionary school discipline approaches in the U.S. has included some attention to their effect on LGBTQ+ youth.[101] It is possible that both the high rates of peer victimization and the school policies that, intentionally or unintentionally, target LGBTQ+ students may put these students at risk of greater contact with school authorities and increase their likelihood of facing disciplinary sanctions.

Figure 1.32 Educational Aspirations and Severity of Online Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Not Planning to Pursue Post-Secondary Education)

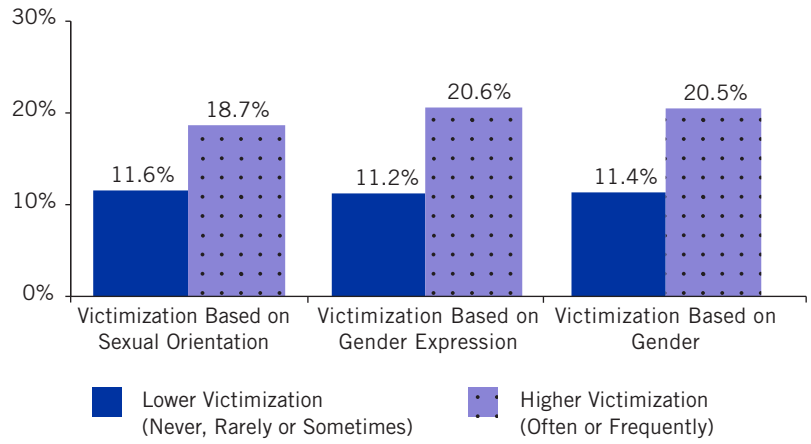


Table 1.4 Academic Achievement of LGBTQ+ Students by Experiences of Victimization and Discrimination

	Grade Point Average (Mean Self-Reported)	
In-Person Peer Victimization	Lower Levels	Higher Levels
Sexual Orientation	3.15	2.83
Gender Expression	3.17	2.76
Gender	3.17	2.76
Online Peer Victimization	Lower Levels	Higher Levels
Sexual Orientation	3.03	2.67
Gender Expression	3.05	2.55
Gender	3.05	2.56
Anti-LGBTQ+ Discrimination	Any Experience of Discrimination	No Experience of Discrimination
	2.92	3.20

Rates of School Discipline. More than a third (40.7%) of students in this survey reported having ever been disciplined at school, with most of these students reporting discipline that occurred in-school, such as being sent to principal's office, being isolated alone in a classroom or hallway, and receiving detention (see Figure 1.35). A smaller portion of LGBTQ+ students reported experiencing disciplinary consequences that prohibited them from attending school, such as out-of-school suspension and expulsion (see also Figure 1.35).

There were no differences by type of learning environment in the likelihood of experiencing any school discipline. However, there are certain forms of discipline that were specific to an online learning environment. Some LGBTQ+ students who had been in online learning environments, either online only or hybrid settings, experienced discipline in the form of restrictions from online participation in class. As also shown in Figure 1.35, 7.8% reported that they had had their online participation restricted and 5.4% said they had been removed from the online classroom.

Disciplinary action in school can lead to having contact with the criminal or juvenile justice system, such as being arrested or serving time in a detention facility. A very small portion of LGBTQ+ students (1.1%) reported having had contact with the criminal or juvenile justice system. It is important to note that we asked students specifically about justice system involvement as a result of school discipline, and thus the finding does not reflect student involvement in criminal or juvenile justice system in general.

LGBTQ+ youths' high rates of victimization,

Figure 1.33 Missing School for Safety Reasons and Severity of In-Person Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Missed At Least a Day of School in Past Month)

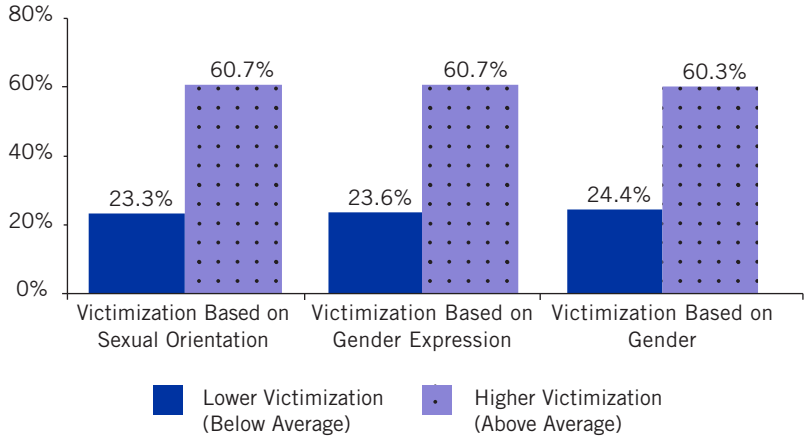
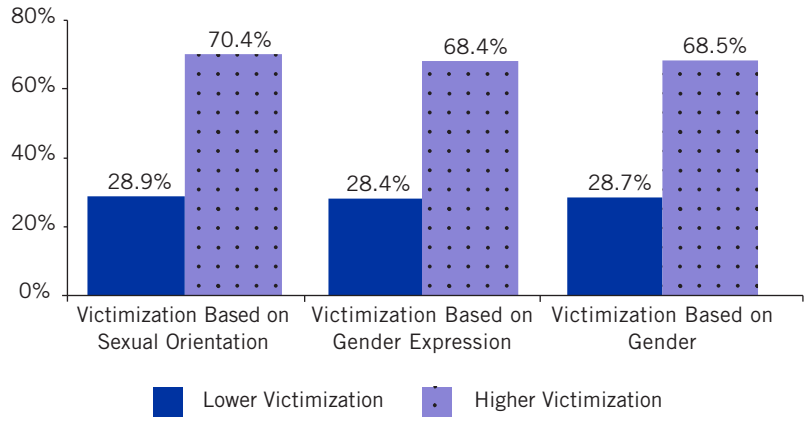


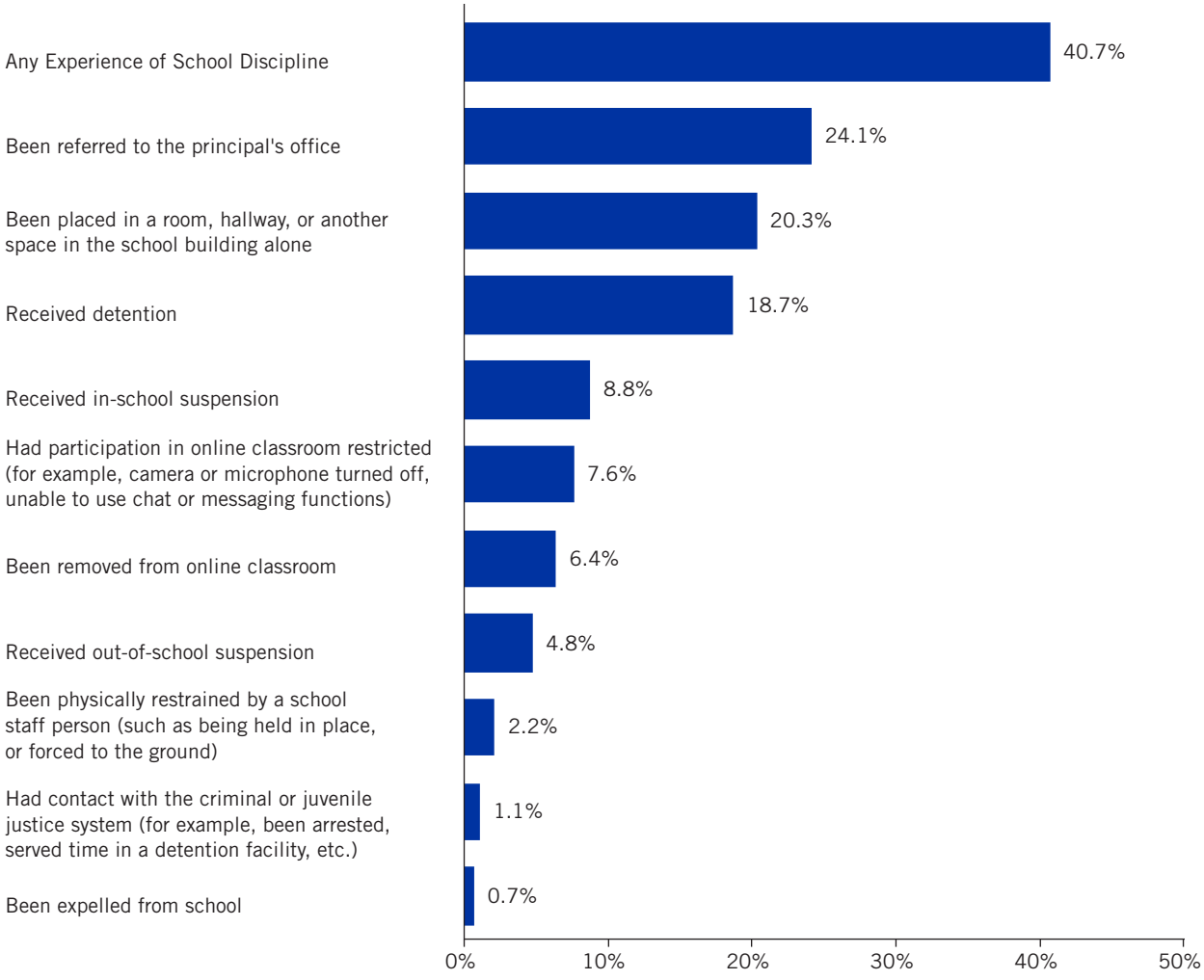
Figure 1.34 Missing School for Safety Reasons and Severity of Online Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Missed At Least a Day of School in Past Month)



and discriminatory policies that intentionally or unintentionally target LGBTQ+ students, may put them in greater contact with school authorities and increase their risk of discipline. For these reasons, we examine whether students who experienced victimization and discrimination experienced higher rates of school discipline.

Discipline Due to Punitive Response to Harassment and Assault. As discussed in the *Reporting of School-Based Harassment and Assault* section, some LGBTQ+ students reported that they themselves were disciplined when they reported being victimized to school staff. As a result, LGBTQ+ students who experience higher rates of victimization may also experience higher rates of school discipline, perhaps because they were perceived to be the perpetrator in these incidents. Indeed, LGBTQ+ youth who reported higher than average levels of victimization based on their sexual orientation or gender expression experienced substantially greater rates of discipline examined in this survey.[102] As shown in Figures 1.36 and 1.37, the relationship between victimization and discipline was similar whether it was in-person or online. For example, among those LGBTQ+ students who were in an in-person school environment at any point in the 2020–2021 academic year, 61.1% of students with higher levels of in-person victimization based on sexual orientation experienced school discipline compared to 33.6% of students with lower levels of this type of victimization. For those who were in an online school environment, 68.5% of students who experienced online victimization based on sexual orientation more frequently experienced school discipline compared to 38.9% who experienced it less frequently.

Figure 1.35 Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Have Experienced School Discipline



Discipline Due to Missing School. LGBTQ+ students who are victimized at school may also miss school because they feel unsafe, and thus, face potential disciplinary consequences for truancy. We found that students who reported missing school due to safety concerns were more likely to have experienced school discipline.[103] Specifically, 55.9% of students who had missed at least a day of school in past month because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable had faced some sort of disciplinary action, compared to 33.5% of students who had not missed school for these reasons.

Discipline Due to Discriminatory Policies and Practices. As discussed in the *Experiences of Discrimination* section of this report, some schools have official policies or unofficial practices that unfairly target LGBTQ+ youth, and also put LGBTQ+ youth at greater risk for school discipline. For example, having a gendered dress code may result in a transgender or nonbinary student being disciplined because they are wearing clothing deemed "inappropriate" based on their legal sex. Furthermore, as also indicated in that earlier section, a number of students in our survey reported that they were subjected to punishment for violations that were not similarly punished among their non-LGBTQ+ peers (e.g., same-sex couples experiencing harsher discipline for public displays of affection in schools than heterosexual couples). When we examined the relationship between discrimination and discipline, we found that LGBTQ+ students who had experienced discriminatory policies and practices at school had reported higher rates of school discipline—51.2% of LGBTQ+ youth experiencing discrimination at school had experienced some form of disciplinary action, compared to 26.2% of youth who had not experienced discrimination.[104]

Figure 1.36 Experiences of School Discipline by Severity of In-Person Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Any School Discipline in the Past Year)

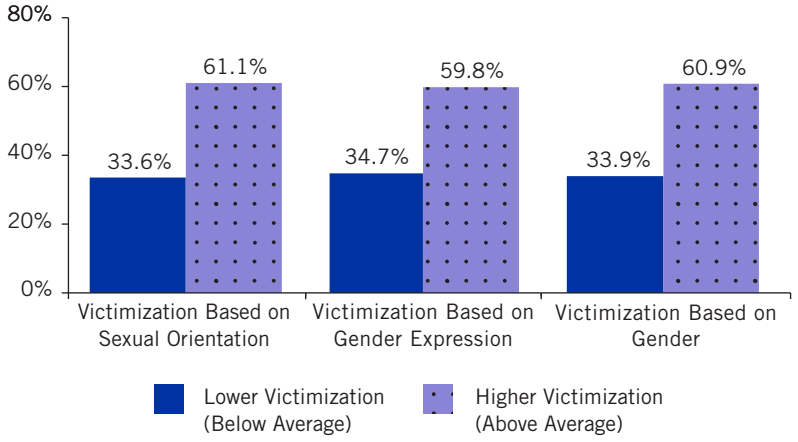
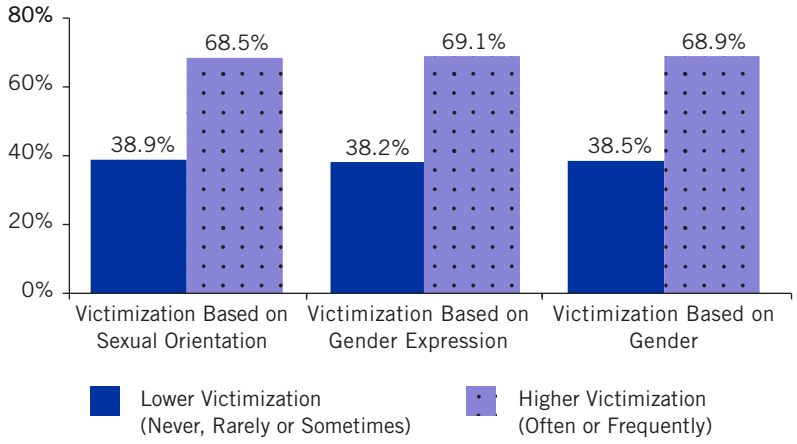


Figure 1.37 Experiences of School Discipline by Severity of Online Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Any School Discipline in the Past Year)



These findings evidence that a sizeable number of LGBTQ+ students experienced school discipline, and that experiences of victimization regarding sexual orientation, gender expression or gender, as well as discriminatory school policies and practices, may contribute to higher rates of school discipline. In order to reduce disciplinary disparities toward LGBTQ+ students, schools need to employ non-punitive discipline practices and the creation of safe and affirming spaces for LGBTQ+ students, with properly trained school personnel. Educators need to be provided professional development trainings on issues specifically related to LGBTQ+ student and bias-based bullying and harassment, so that they can effectively intervene in cases of bullying of LGBTQ+ students. In addition, schools need to eliminate school policies and practices that discriminate against LGBTQ+ students.

School Climate and School Belonging

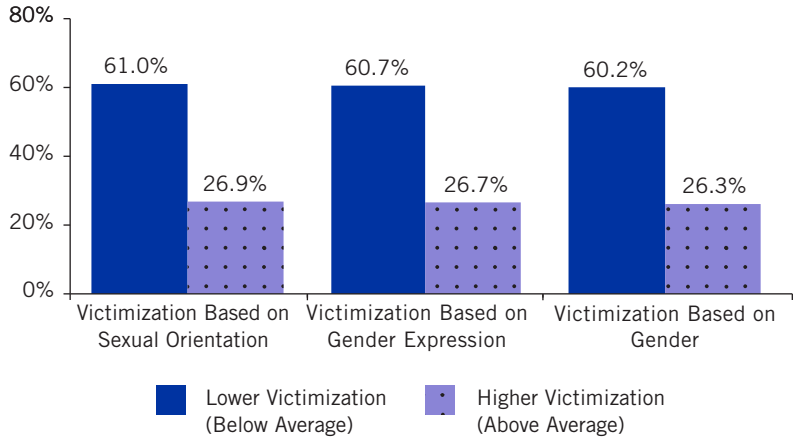
The degree to which students feel accepted by and a part of their school community is another important indicator of school climate and is related to a number of educational outcomes, including greater academic motivation and effort and higher academic achievement.[105] As a result of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and discrimination in school, LGBTQ+ students may have a lower sense of attachment or belonging to their school community. Indeed, we found that LGBTQ+ students who experienced a higher severity of in-person victimization based on sexual orientation or gender expression at school reported lower levels of school belonging than students who experienced less severe victimization in school.[106] For example, as shown in Figure 1.38, more than half (61.0%) of students who experienced lower levels of victimization based on their sexual orientation reported a positive sense of connection to their school, compared to a quarter (26.9%) of students who experienced more severe victimization. Similarly, among LGBTQ+ students who were in school online during the academic year, online victimization related to sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender was also related to a lower sense of belonging at school.[107] As shown in Figure 1.39, for example, 55.2% of LGBTQ+ students who experienced lower levels of online victimization based on their sexual orientation reported positive school belonging compared to 17.3% of those who experienced higher levels.

Experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices at school was also related to decreased feelings of connectedness to the school community. LGBTQ+ students who did not experience school-based discrimination were more likely to report positive feelings of school belonging compared to students who had experienced school-based discrimination (72.5% vs. 36.7%).[108]

School Climate and Psychological Well-Being

Previous research has shown that being harassed or assaulted at school may have a negative impact on students' mental health and self-esteem,[109] which may be even more of a concern for LGBTQ+ students given that that they face an increased likelihood for experiencing harassment and assault in school.[110] To this end, we examined self-esteem[111] and depression and their relationship to in-person and online victimization at school.[112]

Figure 1.38 School Belonging by Experiences of In-Person Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Positive School Belonging)



Previous research has also shown that LGBTQ+ youth are at higher risk for suicidal ideation, and that bullying in school contributes to this risk.[113] Thus, we also examine the relationship between victimization and suicidality among these students.

LGBTQ+ students who reported more severe **in-person victimization** at school regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender:

- had **lower levels of self-esteem** than those who reported less severe victimization of this type (see Figure 1.40); [114]
- had **higher levels of depression** than those who reported less severe victimization of this type (see Figure 1.41);[115] and
- were **more than two times likelier to have seriously considered suicide** in the past year than those who reported less severe victimization of this type.[116]

LGBTQ+ students who reported **online victimization** at school regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender occurring often or frequently:

- had **lower levels of self-esteem** than those who reported online victimization less often (see Figure 1.42);[117]
- had **higher levels of depression** than those who reported online victimization less often (see Figure 1.43);[118] and

Figure 1.39 School Belonging by Experiences of Online Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Positive School Belonging)

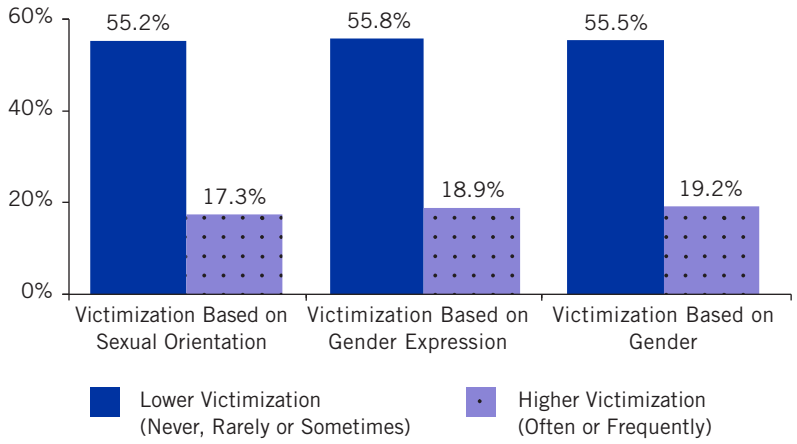
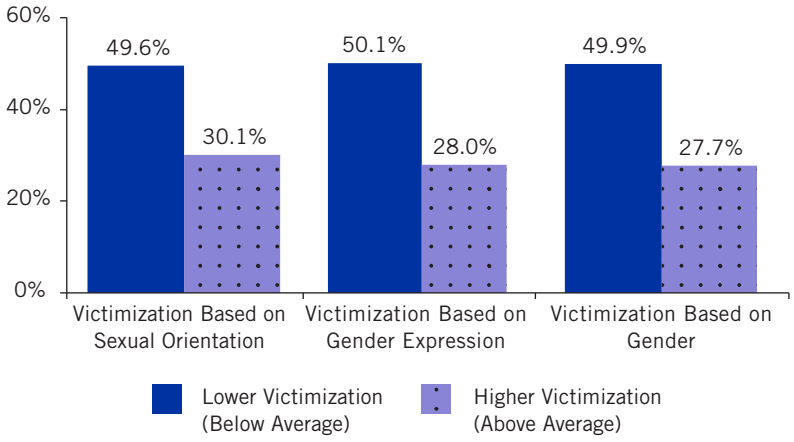


Figure 1.40 Self-Esteem by Experiences of In-Person Victimization
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Higher Levels of Self-Esteem)



- were **more than three times likelier to have seriously considered suicide** in the past year than those who reported online victimization less often.[119]

Discrimination and stigma have also been found to adversely affect the well-being of LGBTQ+ people.[120] We found that LGBTQ+ students in our survey who reported experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies or practices in school:

- had **lower levels of self-esteem** than students who did not report experiencing discrimination (see Figure 1.44).;[121]
- had **higher levels of depression** than students who did not report experiencing discrimination (see also Figure 1.44).;[122] and
- were **more than twice as likely** to have seriously considered suicide in the past year than students who did not report experiencing any discrimination.[123]

Figure 1.41 Depression by Experiences of In-Person Victimization
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Higher Levels of Depression)

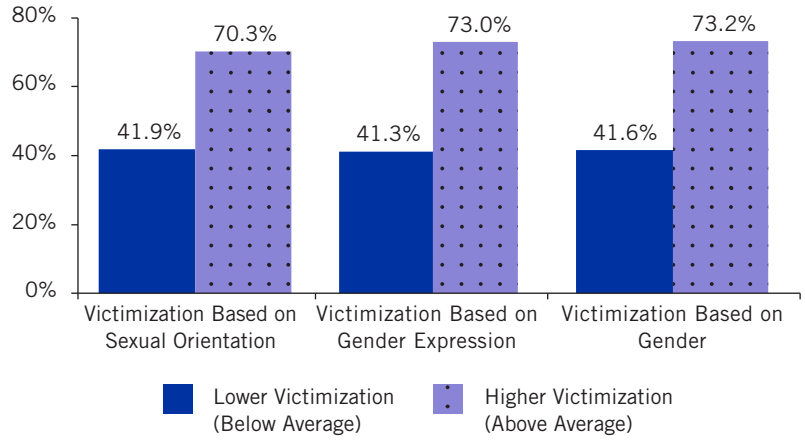


Figure 1.42 Self-Esteem by Experiences of Online Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Higher Levels of Self-Esteem)

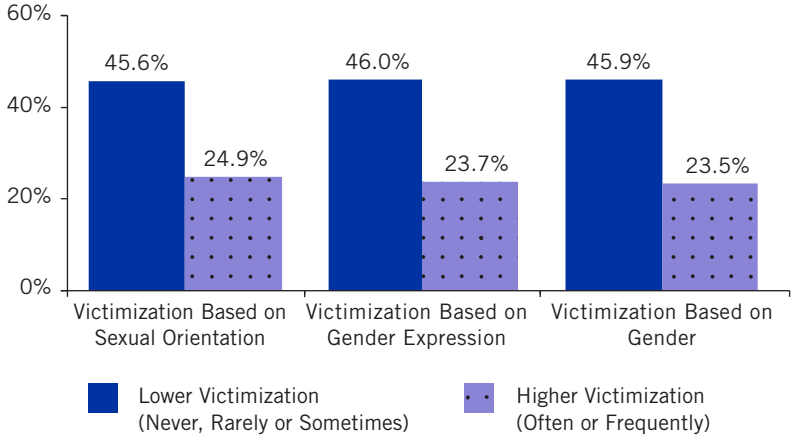


Figure 1.43 Depression by Experiences of Online Victimization at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Higher Levels of Depression)

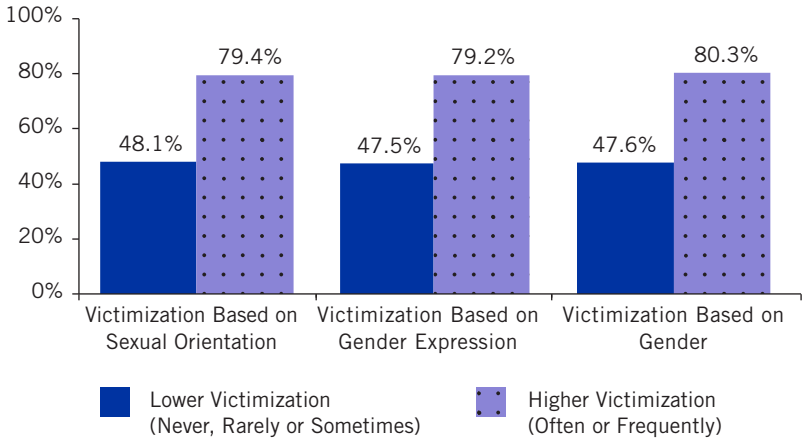
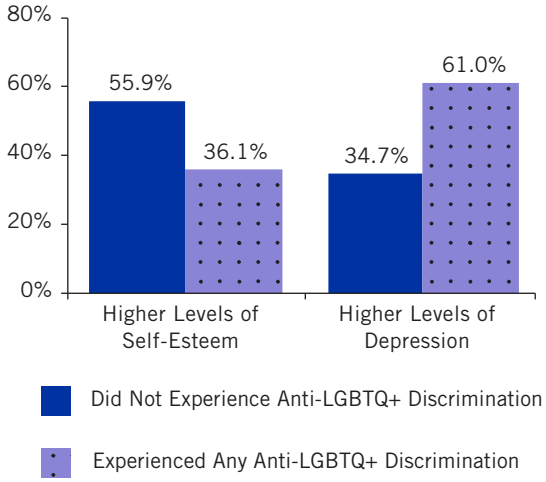


Figure 1.44 Self-Esteem and Depression by Experiences of Anti-LGBTQ+ Discriminatory Policies or Practices at School
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Demonstrating Higher Levels of Self-Esteem and Depression)



Conclusions

The findings in this section provide insight into how peer victimization and institutional discrimination may lead to less welcoming schools and more negative educational outcomes for LGBTQ+ students. LGBTQ+ students who experienced victimization and discrimination were more likely to have lower educational aspirations, lower grades, and higher absenteeism. They were also more likely to experience school discipline, which could result in pushing students out of school, and even into the criminal justice system.[124] These findings also demonstrate that a hostile school climate may negatively impact an LGBTQ+ student's sense of school belonging and psychological well-being. In order to ensure that LGBTQ+ students are afforded supportive learning environments and equal educational opportunities, community and school advocates must work to prevent and respond to in-school victimization and to eliminate school policies and practices that discriminate against LGBTQ+ youth. Reducing victimization and discrimination in school may then lead to better mental health for LGBTQ+ youth, better enabling them to reach their fullest potential inside and outside of school.

PART TWO: SCHOOL-BASED RESOURCES AND SUPPORTS

AVAILABILITY OF SCHOOL-BASED RESOURCES AND SUPPORTS

The availability of resources and supports in school for LGBTQ+ students is another important dimension of school climate. There are several key resources that may help to promote a safer climate and more positive school experiences for students: 1) student clubs that address issues for LGBTQ+ students, 2) school personnel who are supportive of LGBTQ+ students, 3) LGBTQ+-inclusive curricular materials, and 4) inclusive, supportive school policies, such as inclusive anti-bullying policies and policies supporting transgender and nonbinary students.[125] Thus, we examined the availability of these resources and supports among LGBTQ+ students in the survey.

Supportive Student Clubs

For all students, including LGBTQ+ students, participation in extracurricular activities is related to a number of positive outcomes, such as academic achievement and greater school engagement.[126] Supportive student clubs for LGBTQ+ students, often known as Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances (GSAs), can provide LGBTQ+ students in particular with a safe and affirming space within a school environment that they may otherwise experience as hostile.[127] GSAs may also provide leadership opportunities for students and potential avenues for creating positive school change.[128] In our survey, only a third of LGBTQ+ students (34.8%) reported that their school had an active GSA or similar student club available during the school year. Notably, 17.9% of students reported that they ordinarily would have a GSA, however, it was unable to meet this year, possibly because of disruptions related to COVID-19. Among students with a GSA in their school, about half (47.8%) of LGBTQ+ students reported they attended GSA meetings, and about a quarter (26.9%) said that they regularly attended meetings ("often" or "frequently"). In addition, about a quarter (24.6%) had participated as a leader or an officer in their club (see Table 2.1).

GSA availability differed by learning environment. LGBTQ+ students who attended school in-person only were less likely to have a GSA available than those who attended online only and those who attended both in-person and online (26.5% vs. 36.8% and 35.6%, respectively).[129] However, as discussed in the Methods section of this report, the type of learning environment vis-à-vis online versus in-person instruction varied by school characteristics, i.e., school type, region, and locale. Given that school characteristics have historically been related to the availability of LGBTQ+ school supports,[130] it is possible that these differences in the availability of GSAs were related to school characteristics. In fact, when we took these into account, there were no differences across the three types of learning environments in the availability of GSAs.[131] However, LGBTQ+ students in online-only learning environments were less likely to participate in their GSA than LGBTQ+ students in the other two types of learning environments, even after considering school characteristics.[132] It may be that when schools transitioned to online formats, they continued to find ways for student clubs, such as GSAs, to continue to meet, but students may be less inclined to attend student clubs meetings online rather than in-person.

There is a small body of research examining why LGBTQ+ students may or may not participate in their school's GSA. Our GSA study found that the main reasons students do not participate include reasons such as interpersonal conflicts, scheduling conflicts and issues relating to outness.[133] GSA leaders and advisors should assess potential barriers

Table 2.1. Availability of and Participation in GSAs

Have an Active GSA at School	
Yes	34.8%
No	65.2%
Frequency of GSA Meeting Attendance	
Frequently	19.9%
Often	7.0%
Sometimes	9.2%
Rarely	11.6%
Never	52.2%
Acted as a Leader or Officer	
Yes	24.6%
No	75.4%

to GSA attendance at their school and take steps to ensure that GSA meetings are accessible. More information about best practices for GSAs can be found in the *GSA Study Best Practices* report.[134]

Inclusive Curricular Resources

LGBTQ+ student experiences may also be shaped by inclusion of LGBTQ+-related information in the curriculum. Learning about LGBTQ+ historical events and positive role models may enhance LGBTQ+ students' engagement in their schools and provide valuable information about the LGBTQ+ community. Students in our survey were asked whether they had been exposed to representations of LGBTQ+ people, history, or events in lessons at school, and the majority of respondents (71.6%) reported that their classes did *not* include these topics (see Figure 2.1).

Access to LGBTQ+ Instruction. Of the 28.4% of students who indicated that LGBTQ+ topics had been discussed in one or more of their classes, 49.5% said that they were covered in a positive manner only, 43.0% said that they were covered in a negative manner only, and 7.6% said that they were covered both in a positive and negative manner. Overall, considering all students in our sample, only 16.2% of students received any instruction that included positive representations of LGBTQ+ people, issues, and topics. Among the students who had been taught positive things about LGBTQ+-related topics in class, History/Social Studies and English were the classes most often mentioned as being inclusive of these topics (see Table 2.2).

Access to inclusive education varied by learning environment.[135] Students who attended school online, either hybrid or only online, were more likely to report that LGBTQ+ topics had been discussed in a positive way in one or more of their classes than were students who attended school only in person. Further, students who attended school only in person were the most likely to report that LGBTQ+ topics had been taught in a negative way, even when accounting for school differences including region, locale, and school type (religious, private, or public). We are unsure as to why these differences exist, and there is a need for future research to explore the effects of different learning environments on positive LGBTQ+ curricular inclusion. It is possible that there is something about the nature of online instruction that is more conducive to LGBTQ+ curriculum.

Access to LGBTQ+ Inclusive Materials and Resources Outside of Classroom Instruction

Beyond what students are taught in class, it can be beneficial for LGBTQ+ students to have access to LGBTQ+ content in educational materials that are not necessarily covered by classroom instruction. For example, students may benefit from textbooks that include information about LGBTQ+ people, history, or events. Even if their teacher does not directly cover this material, these students can still access this LGBTQ+ content in their textbook on their own time. We asked students about access to LGBTQ+ inclusive material and information in school outside of direct classroom instruction, such as in textbooks or in library materials.[136] Under a fifth of LGBTQ+ students reported that LGBTQ+-related topics were included in textbooks or other

Figure 2.1 Representations of LGBTQ+-Related Topics Taught in Any Classroom Curriculum

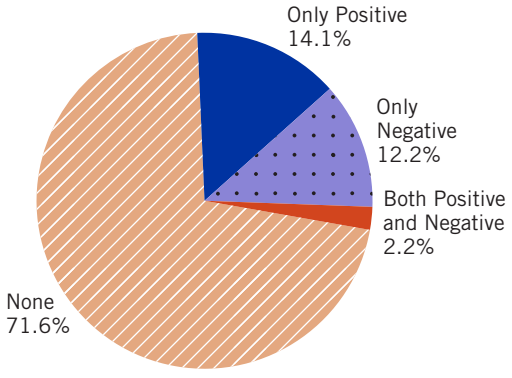
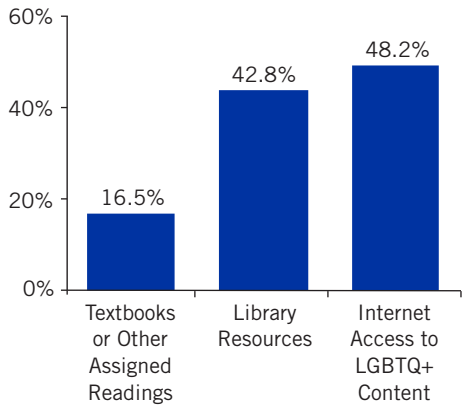


Figure 2.2 Availability of LGBTQ+-Related Curricular Resources



assigned readings, with only 0.4% of students reporting that these topics were included in many of their textbooks and readings and 16.1% of students reporting that they were included in only a few.[137] Additionally, we asked students about their ability to access information about LGBTQ+ issues that may not be directly covered in class or assigned readings, such as information available in school libraries or via school computers. Many LGBTQ+ students in our survey did not have access to these types of LGBTQ+-related curricular resources. As Figure 2.2 illustrates, four in ten students who attended school in person reported that they could find books or information on LGBTQ+-related topics, such as LGBTQ+ history, in their school library (7.2% of students reported they could find many resources, and 35.6% reported they could find only a few.)[138] In addition, around half (48.2%) of students who attended school in person and had internet access at school reported being able to access LGBTQ+-related information via school computers.

Students in different learning environments had varying levels of access to LGBTQ+ materials and resources. Similar to our findings about LGBTQ+ instruction, students who attended school only in person reported having fewer LGBTQ+ textbooks or other assigned reading than students who attended hybrid or online-only school.[139] However, among students who attended school in-person for any time in the school year, rates of access to LGBTQ+ inclusive materials in school libraries and via school internet were similar between those who were in online only learning environments and those in hybrid learning environments.[140]

Access to LGBTQ+ Sex Education. In addition to asking broadly about LGBTQ+ inclusion in students' classes in the past year, we also asked students specifically about any LGBTQ+-inclusion in sex education teaching or classes they had ever received in school. Sex education can be a prime location for LGBTQ+ inclusion and an important source of information for youth about a variety of critical topics—including contraception and pregnancy, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs), dating and marriage, sexual violence, and puberty. Sex education is often included in health classes, and as previously discussed, 20.6% of LGBTQ+ youth reported that they were taught positive representations of LGBTQ+ topics in their health classes. However, we wanted to specifically examine LGBTQ+ inclusion in sex education that occurs in school, both in and out of health classes.

Less than a third (29.6%) of students who received some kind of sex education reported that it positively included LGBTQ+ topics in some way. When considering all students in the sample, including those who did not receive sex education,

Table 2.2 Positive Representations of LGBTQ+-Related Topics Taught in Class

Classes	% of LGBTQ+ Students Taught Positive Rep of LGBTQ+-Related Topics (n = 3580)	% of All LGBTQ+ Students Who Answered the Question (n = 21922)
History or Social Studies	62.3%	9.9%
English	39.2%	6.2%
Health	20.6%	3.3%
Art	16.2%	2.6%
Music	13.8%	2.2%
Science	12.4%	2.0%
Social Science	11.4%	1.9%
Foreign Language	8.4%	1.3%
Gym or Physical Education	5.6%	0.9%
Math	5.1%	0.8%
Other Class (e.g., Multicultural/Ethnic Studies, Advisory, Electives)	7.6%	1.2%

only 7.4% received LGBTQ+ sex education, which included positive representations of both LGB and transgender and nonbinary topics (see Figure 2.3). Students more commonly reported that their sexual education courses positively covered LGB topics but not transgender and nonbinary topics (4.2%) than that their courses including transgender and nonbinary topics but not LGB topics (1.2%).[141] Regarding learning environment, students who attended school online, either in online only or hybrid learning environments, were more likely to report receiving any kind of sex education, and LGBTQ+ inclusive sex education, than were students who attended school only in person.[142]

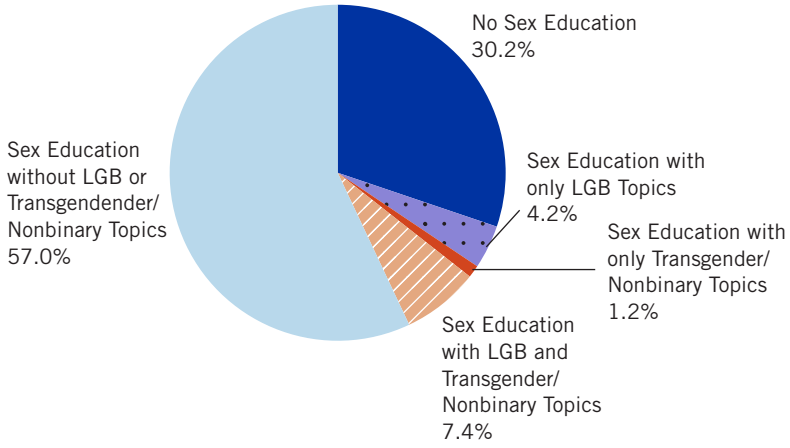
Supportive School Personnel

Supportive teachers, principals, and other school staff serve as another important resource for LGBTQ+ students. Being able to speak with a caring adult in school may have a significant positive impact on school experiences for students, particularly those who feel marginalized or experience harassment.

Number of Supportive School Personnel. In our survey, almost all students (96.3%) could identify at least one school staff member whom they believed was supportive of LGBTQ+ students at their school, and more than half (58.2%) could identify six or more supportive school staff (see Figure 2.4). However, there were significant differences in the number of supportive school staff by type of school environment.[143] Those students who were in online learning environments for the entire school year reported a higher number of supportive educators than those in hybrid online and in-person learning environments and those who were only in in-person learning environments. Further, LGBTQ+ students who were in school only in-person during the year reported the fewest number of supportive educators. Given that school characteristics have historically been related to school climate for LGBTQ+ students and given that the type of learning environment was related to school characteristics (see the Methods section of this report), it is possible that school characteristics could be a factor in LGBTQ+ student reports on supportive school personnel. However, these differences by learning environment were consistent even when school characteristics were accounted for.

Supportive School Administration. As the leaders of the school, school administrators have a particularly important role to play in the school experiences of LGBTQ+ youth. They may serve not only as caring adults to whom the youth can turn, but they also set the tone of the school and determine specific policies and programs that may affect the school's climate. As shown in Figure 2.5, 36.6% of LGBTQ+ students reported that their school administration (e.g., principal, vice principal) was very or somewhat supportive of LGBTQ+ students, and less than a quarter of students (23.7%) said their administration was very or somewhat unsupportive. It is also important to note that over a third of students (39.7%) indicated that their administration was neutral. This may signify administration that has not been actively supportive or unsupportive regarding LGBTQ+ students. It may also signify that students are unsure of their administration's stance on LGBTQ+ issues, perhaps because they have not

Figure 2.3 Content of Sex Education Received by LGBTQ+ Students



been at all vocal about LGBTQ+ student issues.

There were also significant differences by type of learning environment in the perceptions of school administration support for LGBTQ+ students.[144] Similar to our findings regarding supportive school personnel, LGBTQ+ students who were in in-person instruction for all of the school year were less likely to report that their administration was supportive. However, there were no differences between those in online only instruction and those in hybrid online/in-person environments. Further, these differences were maintained even when we considered school characteristics.

Comfort Talking to School Personnel about LGBTQ+ Issues. To understand whether certain types of educators were more likely to be seen as supportive, we asked LGBTQ+ students how comfortable they would feel talking one-on-one with various school personnel about LGBTQ+-related issues. As shown in Figure 2.6, students reported that they would feel most comfortable talking with school-based mental health

Figure 2.4 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports on the Number of Teachers and Other School Staff Who are Supportive of LGBTQ+ Students

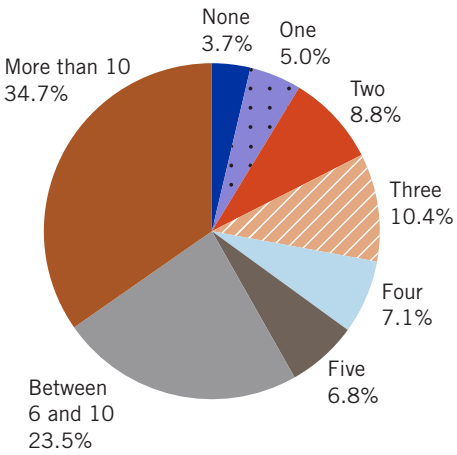


Figure 2.5 LGBTQ+ Student' Reports on How Supportive Their School Administration is of LGBTQ+ Students

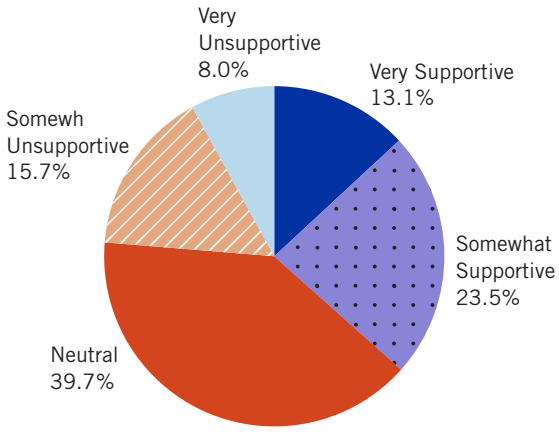
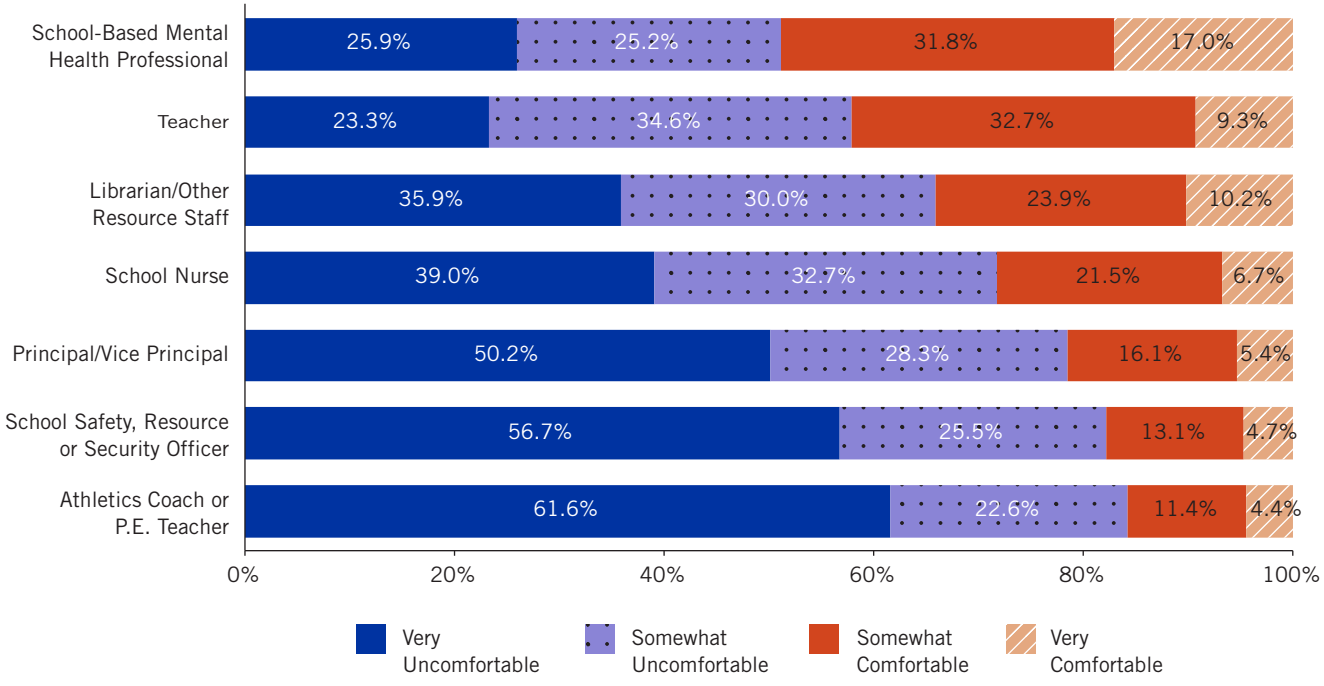


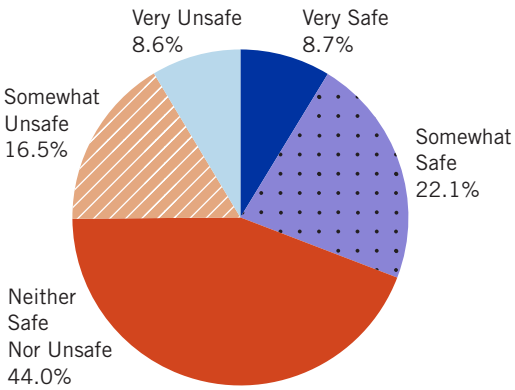
Figure 2.6 Comfort Talking with School Personnel about LGBTQ+ Issues



professionals (e.g., school counselors, social workers, or psychologists) and teachers: 51.8% said they would be somewhat or very comfortable talking about LGBTQ+ issues with school-based mental health professionals and 41.8% would be somewhat or very comfortable talking with a teacher. Fewer students indicated that they would feel comfortable talking one-on-one with a school librarian (30.7%) or a school nurse (28.1%) about these issues. LGBTQ+ students were least likely to feel comfortable talking with a school security officer or school athletic coach or Physical Education (P.E.) teacher about LGBTQ+ issues (see also Figure 2.6).[145]

Similar to our findings regarding supportive school personnel and supportive administration, LGBTQ+ students who were in in-person instruction for all of the school year reported lower level levels of comfort for all types of school personnel compared to those who were in online instruction for the entire year and those who were in hybrid online and in-person school environments.[146] However, when we took into account region, locale and type of school, the only differences remained were with regard to school mental health professionals, school nurses, and school librarians.[147] LGBTQ+ students who had been in both online and in-person learning during the academic year had a higher level of comfort talking with school mental health professionals than other students, and LGBTQ+ students who had had in-person instruction the entire academic year had the lowest level of comfort with school nurses and with school librarians than other students.

Figure 2.7 Feelings of Safety With the Presence of Security Personnel at School



Experiences with School Security Personnel. As discussed above, the vast majority of LGBTQ+ students would not feel comfortable speaking with school security personnel about LGBTQ+ issues. Most students (82.9%) reported having a security personnel at school. As shown in Figure 2.7, more than a quarter (30.8%) felt safe at school because of their presence, and a smaller percentage (25.1%) felt unsafe because of their presence.[148] However, for nearly half of LGBTQ+ students (44.0%), the presence of school security had no effect on their feelings of safety at school. Further, as shown in Figure 2.8, the vast majority of LGBTQ+ students in the survey had little or no interaction with these personnel (80.1% reporting "never" or "rarely"). Half (51.2%) of those who had had any interaction with security personnel at school described the interactions as neither positive or negative, and only about a tenth (12.4%) reported that the interactions had been somewhat or very negative (see also Figure 2.8).

Overall, the type of learning environment that LGBTQ+ students had during the 2020–2021 academic year as a result of COVID may have affected their ability to find and seek out educators and school staff as supports. LGBTQ+ students who were in in-person instruction reported fewer supportive school personnel and rated their school administration as less supportive. Although we might have hypothesized that students who regularly saw school personnel in-person might have greater opportunities to find support from adults in their school, many schools who had in-person instruction may have had restrictions on how much time students could spend outside of classroom instruction, such as in extracurricular activities, interacting with school personnel. In such cases, these students may then not see these adults as supportive as they might have had they had more opportunities for interaction. It is also interesting to note that the level of comfort of talking to school personnel about LGBTQ+ issues varied by learning environment only for school mental health professionals, librarians, and nurses, who are all non-instructional staff. It is possible that students who were in full-time or partial online learning during the year had few opportunities to interact with these staff and may be basing their comfort level on past experiences or may have had no or few current opportunities to have positive or negative experiences with these persons, which may have affected their feelings of comfort talking to them.

Visible Support. Supportive teachers and other school staff members serve an important function in the lives of LGBTQ+ youth, helping them feel safer in school, as well as promoting their sense of school belonging and psychological well-being. One way that educators can demonstrate their support for LGBTQ+ youth is through visible displays of such support, such as Safe Space stickers and posters. These stickers and posters are part of GLSEN's Safe Space Kit,[149] an educator resource aimed at making learning environments more positive for LGBTQ+ students. These materials are intended to help students identify staff members who are allies to LGBTQ+ students and who can be a source of support or needed intervention. We asked students if they had seen Safe Space stickers or posters displayed in their school, and more than half of LGBTQ+ students (51.9%) in the survey reported seeing these materials at their school. LGBTQ+ students who were in hybrid learning environments were most likely and students in online-only learning environments were least likely to see these visible signs of supports at school. This pattern of difference held even after controlling for school characteristics.[150] Those students who were never inside a school building during the year would not have seen a physical Safe Space sticker or poster, and although educators could display these materials in their background, it may be that they were less able or less likely to do so. It is not clear why those who were in hybrid online/in-person instruction during the year were more likely to have seen these visible signs of supports compared to those who were in in-person instruction only, especially after we considered the characteristics of the school.

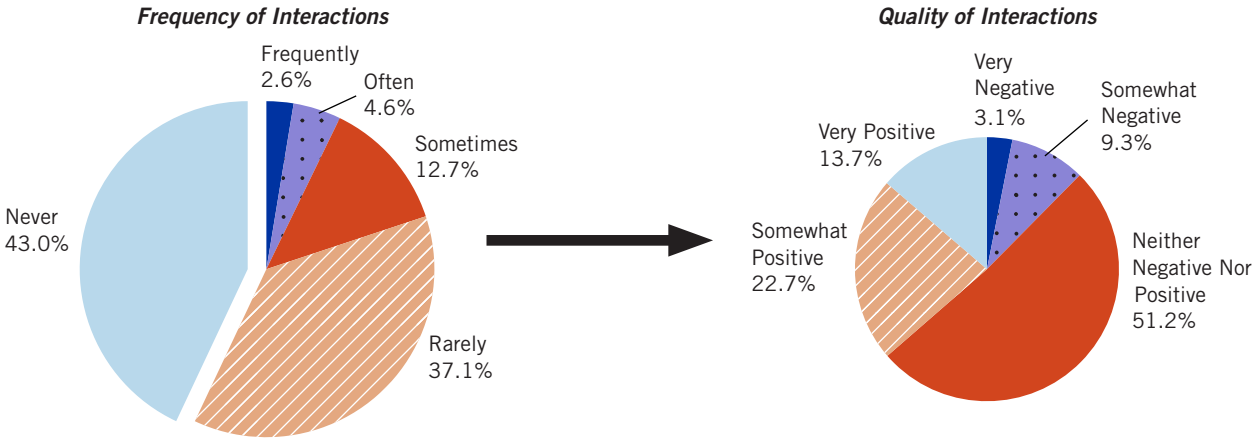
The presence of LGBTQ+ school personnel who are out or open at school about their sexual orientation and/or gender identity may provide another source of support for LGBTQ+ students. In addition, the number of out LGBTQ+ personnel may provide a sign of a more supportive and accepting school climate. Less than half of students (42.4%) in our survey said they could identify at least one out LGBTQ+ staff person at their school (see Figure 2.9).

Inclusive and Supportive School Policies

GLSEN believes that all students should have access to a safe and supportive learning environment, regardless of a student's sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression. Official school policies and guidelines can contribute toward this goal by setting the standards for which students should be treated, noting what types of behavior are unacceptable, and making students aware of the protections and rights afforded to them. In this section, we examine the availability of two specific forms of supportive school policies: inclusive anti-bullying and harassment policies and supportive transgender and nonbinary student policies.

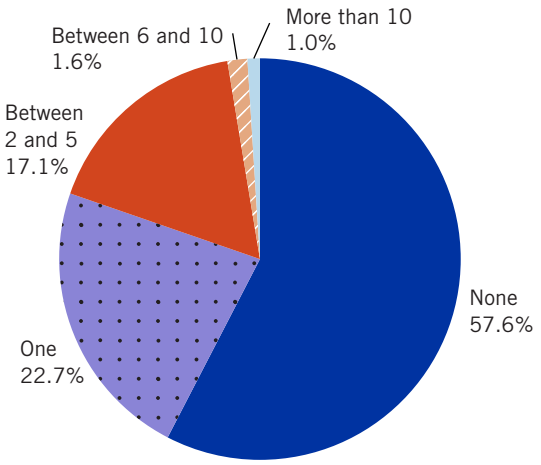
School Policies for Addressing Bullying, Harassment, and Assault. School policies that address in-school bullying, harassment, and assault are powerful tools for creating school environments where students feel safe. These types of policies can explicitly state protections based on personal characteristics, such as sexual orientation and gender identity/expression, among others. In this report, we identify and

Figure 2.8 LGBTQ+ Students' Interaction with Security Personnel



discuss three types of school anti-bullying and harassment policies: 1) comprehensive, 2) partially enumerated, and 3) generic. Comprehensive policies explicitly enumerate protections based on personal characteristics and include both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression. When a school has and enforces a comprehensive policy, especially one which also includes procedures for reporting incidents to school authorities, it can send a message that bullying, harassment, and assault are unacceptable and will not be tolerated. Comprehensive school policies may also provide students with greater protection against victimization because they make clear the various forms of bullying, harassment, and assault that will not be tolerated. They may also demonstrate that student safety, including the safety of LGBTQ+ students, is taken seriously by school administrators. Partially enumerated policies explicitly mention sexual orientation or gender identity/expression, but not both, and may not provide the same level of protection for LGBTQ+ students. Lastly, generic anti-bullying or anti-harassment school policies do not enumerate sexual orientation or gender identity/expression as protected categories.[151]

Figure 2.9 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports on the Number of Openly LGBTQ+ Teachers or Other School Staff



Students were asked whether their school had a policy about in-school bullying, harassment, or assault, and if that policy explicitly included sexual orientation and gender identity/expression. Although a majority of students (76.1%) reported that their school had some type of policy (see Table 2.3), only 12.0% of students in our survey reported that their school had a comprehensive policy that specifically mentioned both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression (see also Table 2.3).

Although we would not necessarily expect the presence of an anti-bullying/harassment policy to vary by type of learning environment during the 2020–2021 academic year, LGBTQ+ students who had been in in-person instruction during the entire academic year were, in fact, less likely to report having a comprehensive policy, and more likely to have a generic policy, than students who had been only in online instruction, even after accounting for school characteristics.[152] It is possible that many schools revisited or revised their anti-bullying/harassment policies after they first entered into virtual instruction at the end of the 2019–2020 academic year to address the online learning environments, and as a result, many students in online-only or hybrid environments were made aware of the new or revised policies.

Policies and Guidelines on Transgender and Nonbinary Students. Anti-bullying and harassment policies are critical for ensuring safe school environments for all students. However, these policies do not explicitly address potential discrimination faced by LGBTQ+ students. Our research has indicated that transgender and nonbinary youth are at heightened risk for in-school discrimination that can greatly hinder their

Table 2.3 LGBTQ+ Students' Reports of School Bullying, Harassment, and Assault Policies

No Policy/Don't Know	23.9%
Any Policy	76.1%
Generic (enumerates neither sexual orientation nor gender expression)	57.4%
Partially Enumerated	6.6%
Sexual orientation only	*5.7%*
Gender identity/expression only	*0.9%*
Comprehensive (enumerates both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression)	12.0%

right to an education (see also the Experiences of Discrimination at School section).[153] Furthermore, during the 2020–2021 school year, many states had attempted to introduce legislation that would negatively affect the life and school experiences for transgender youth.[154] Nevertheless, some state and local education agencies have developed explicit policies and implemented practices designed to ensure transgender and nonbinary students are provided with equal access to education.[155] For example, to ensure that transgender and nonbinary students are called by the appropriate name and pronouns, some schools have adopted policies that require those at school to use students' chosen names and pronouns consistent with their gender identity. However, little is known about the prevalence or the content of these types of policies.

In our survey, we asked LGBTQ+ students whether their school or district had official policies or guidelines to support transgender and nonbinary students, and only 8.5% of all transgender students indicated that their school or district had such policies or guidelines (see also Figure 2.10). Students whose school reportedly had such a policy were asked about specific components of their school's transgender and nonbinary student policy. Among transgender and nonbinary students whose school had a policy, most students reported that these policies commonly addressed use of chosen name/pronouns, appropriate bathroom access, and updating official school records to reflect name or gender change (see Table 2.4). It is important to note that the minority of transgender and nonbinary students reported having a school policy supporting transgender and nonbinary students. Thus, the number of transgender and nonbinary students who are protected by any of these specific policy components would be much smaller. Table 2.4 also shows the total percentage of these students who would be covered. For example, even though 91.1% of transgender and nonbinary students who had a supportive policy at their school reported that it addressed use of chosen name or pronouns, that equates to only 7.7% of all the transgender and nonbinary students in the survey.

There were differences among the LGBTQ+ students in the survey by type of learning environment. Those students who had been in in-person instruction during the entire academic year were less likely to report having an affirming policy or guidelines for transgender and nonbinary students than students who had been only in online instruction and those in hybrid learning environments, even after considering school characteristics.[156] As discussed above, it is possible that in schools that transitioned to online learning, for either part of the year or for the whole year, revised or revisited school policies to adapt to this change, making students more aware of school policies. It is also possible that those students in in-person learning environments were more aware of the lack of supports or the restrictions placed on transgender and nonbinary students in their schools by virtue of being in the school building all year.

Figure 2.10 Percentage of Students Reporting their School has Policy/Guidelines Regarding Transgender/Nonbinary Students

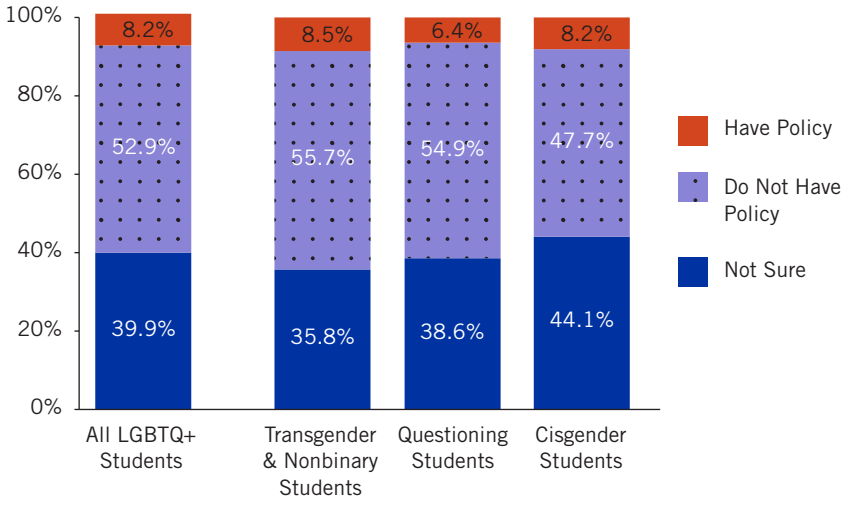


Table 2.4 Transgender and Nonbinary Students' Reports of Areas Addressed in Transgender and Nonbinary Student School Policies and Official Guidelines

	Percent of Transgender and Nonbinary Students* with Policy	Percent of All Transgender and Nonbinary Students in Survey
Use of chosen name/pronouns	91.3%	7.5%
Access to bathroom corresponding to one's gender	64.3%	5.3%
Access gender neutral bathroom	59.3%	4.9%
Change in official school records to reflect name or gender change	58.6%	4.8%
Able to participate in extracurricular activities that match gender identity (non-sports)	51.1%	4.2%
Able to wear clothes that reflect gender identity	47.6%	3.9%
Participate in school sports that match gender identity	39.6%	3.3%
Access to locker rooms that match gender identity	39.2%	3.2%
Stay in housing (e.g., in dorms, during field trips) that matches one's gender identity	23.4%	1.9%
Another topic not listed (e.g., gender-neutral locker rooms, name change on unofficial school documents, safekeeping of name/pronoun change for students who are not out to family)	5.5%	0.5%

*"Transgender and nonbinary students" refers to all students in the survey sample who were not cisgender and were not questioning their gender identity, including transgender students, genderqueer students, nonbinary students, and other students with an identity other than cisgender (e.g., agender).

Conclusions

Overall, the findings in this section on Availability of School-Based Resources and Supports revealed that many LGBTQ+ students did not have access to LGBTQ+ resources and supports at their school. Regarding GSAs, over a third reported that they did not have this type of club at their school. With regard to inclusive curricular resources, the majority of students reported that their classes did not teach positive representations of LGBTQ+ history, people, or events, and did not include positive representations of LGBTQ+ topics in sex education. Furthermore, regarding curricular resources, most students did not have access to LGBTQ+-inclusive materials and resources, including LGBTQ+-related textbooks or other assigned readings, LGBTQ+-inclusive content in the curriculum, and LGBTQ+-related library resources.

Regarding supportive school personnel, although the vast majority of students could identify at least one supportive school staff member, many students could only identify five or fewer supportive staff. Furthermore, less than half of LGBTQ+ students reported that their school administration was somewhat or very supportive, and over a third of the students reported that their administration was neutral in terms of supportiveness. In order to create an inclusive school environment for LGBTQ+ students, it is important for students to have a wide network of staff at school that they can turn to, and administrators that are proactive in their support for LGBTQ+ students.

Finally, few LGBTQ+ students reported having comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies or supportive transgender and nonbinary student policies in their school or district. These findings indicate that more efforts are needed to provide positive supports in schools in order to create safer and more affirming school environments for LGBTQ+ students.

The 2020–2021 school year was unique in that the COVID-19 pandemic caused disruptions to

schools across the country, which in turn impacted LGBTQ+ students' access to and knowledge of supportive resources. Overall, students who attended school in person for the entire year had access to fewer supportive school resources than did student who attended schools that transitioned to full or partial online instruction. LGBTQ+ students who attended school only in-person reported less access to inclusive curriculum, supportive educators, and comprehensive policies. It is possible that online instruction provided opportunities for LGBTQ+ inclusion and support in instruction that did not exist in in-person classrooms. For example, teaching classes from their own homes away from the actual or perceived surveillance of administration may have provided educators more freedom to be supportive and inclusive of LGBTQ+ students and topics. The exception to this pattern regarding LGBTQ+ supports was that in-person only instruction provided less access to GSAs. Although there were no differences in whether schools had a GSA or not, students who attended school only in-person participated in their school's GSA at a higher rate than did students who attended school online for the whole year or for part of the year. It is possible that GSAs met less frequently in virtual spaces. However, it may also be that students may prefer meeting with peers in real life as opposed to in a virtual setting or that students were less comfortable attending the GSA online while at home.

UTILITY OF SCHOOL-BASED RESOURCES AND SUPPORTS

School-based resources, such as supportive student clubs, LGBTQ+-inclusive curricula, supportive school personnel, and inclusive, supportive policies, may contribute directly to a more positive school environment for LGBTQ+ students.[157] These institutional supports may also indirectly foster better school outcomes and well-being for students by decreasing the incidence of negative school climate factors, such as anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and victimization.[158] In this section, we examine the relationship between school-based institutional supports and school climate, as well as educational indicators (specifically, absenteeism, academic achievement, educational aspirations, and school belonging), and indicators of student well-being (specifically, self-esteem, depression, and suicidality).

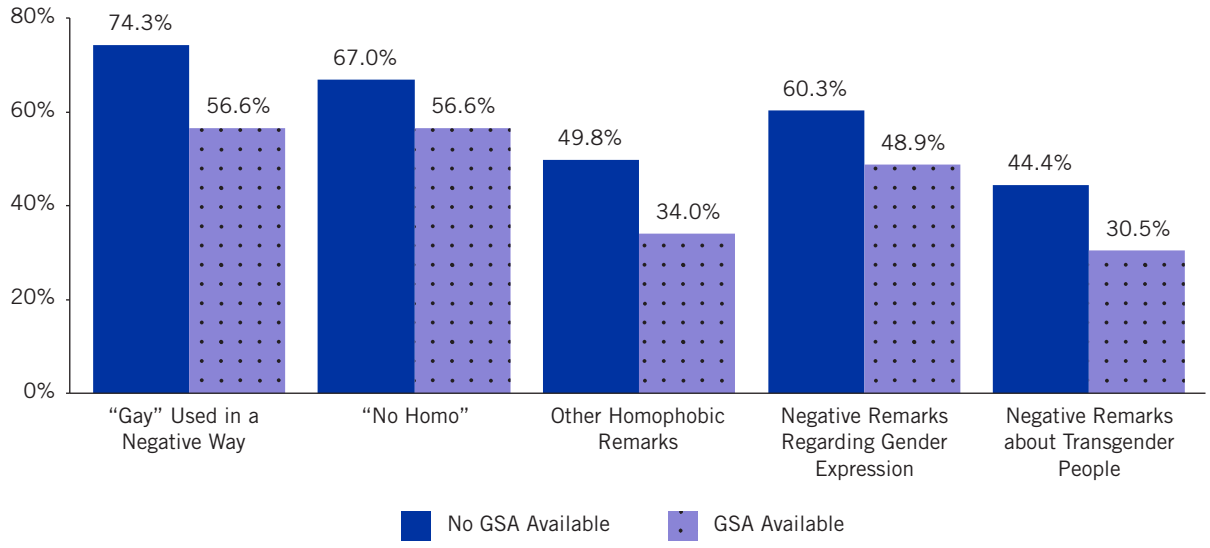
Supportive Student Clubs

Previous research has shown that student clubs that address issues of sexual orientation and gender identity/expression (such as Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances, often known as GSAs) can provide a safe space for LGBTQ+ students.[159] The presence of a GSA may also contribute to a more respectful student body by raising awareness of LGBTQ+ issues, as well as demonstrate to LGBTQ+ students that they have allies in their schools.[160] As such, GSAs can contribute to safer and more inclusive school climates for LGBTQ+ students.[161]

Biased Language, School Safety, and Absenteeism. We found that LGBTQ+ students who had an active GSA in their school:

- **heard anti-LGBTQ+ remarks less frequently** than LGBTQ+ students in schools without a GSA (see Figure 2.11).[162] For instance, 56.6% of students in schools with a GSA at school heard "gay" used in a negative way, compared to 74.3% of students in schools without a GSA at school;
- **were less likely to feel unsafe** than LGBTQ+ students in schools without a GSA because of their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender (see Figure 2.12);[163]
- **experienced less severe in-person victimization** than LGBTQ+ students in schools without a GSA related to their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender (see Figure 2.13);[164]
- **experienced less frequent online victimization** than LGBTQ+ students in schools without a GSA related to their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender (see Figure 2.14);[165] and
- **were less likely to have missed school** in the past month because of feeling unsafe or uncomfortable (24.4% vs. 36.3% without an active GSA).[166]

Figure 2.11 Presence of GSAs and Frequency of Hearing Biased Remarks
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Hearing Remarks Often or Frequently)



Students' Connections to School Staff. Given that GSAs typically include at least one faculty advisor, the presence of a GSA may make it easier for LGBTQ+ students to identify a supportive school staff person. Indeed, students in schools with an active GSA available could identify more supportive staff members than students in schools without an active GSA available.[167] For example, as shown in Figure 2.15, most LGBTQ+ students (67.9%) with an active GSA reported having many supportive staff, compared to 46.6% of those without an active GSA in their school. Additionally, LGBTQ+ students in schools with an active available GSA were more likely to say that they felt comfortable discussing LGBTQ+ issues with their teachers than students in schools without an active GSA—half of students (52.0%) with a GSA indicated that they felt "somewhat" or "very" comfortable talking with their teachers about LGBTQ+ issues, compared to just over a third of students (36.7%) without a GSA.[168]

By increasing awareness of anti-LGBTQ+ bias in the school environment or promoting training for educators on LGBTQ+ issues, GSAs may help increase rates of staff intervention in anti-LGBTQ+ biased remarks. We found that staff in schools with active GSAs available intervened in homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression more frequently than educators in schools without an active GSA available (see Figure 2.16).[169] For example, 16.0% of staff in schools with GSAs available intervened in homophobic remarks most of the time or always, compared to 10.2% of staff in schools without GSAs available.

Achievement and Aspirations. In general, participation in extracurricular clubs and activities has been found to be related to improved academic performance.[170] In addition to this positive impact, GSAs may specifically help to create a more positive school climate for LGBTQ+

Figure 2.12 Presence of GSAs and LGBTQ+ Students' Feelings of Safety and Missing School
(Percentage of students feeling unsafe)

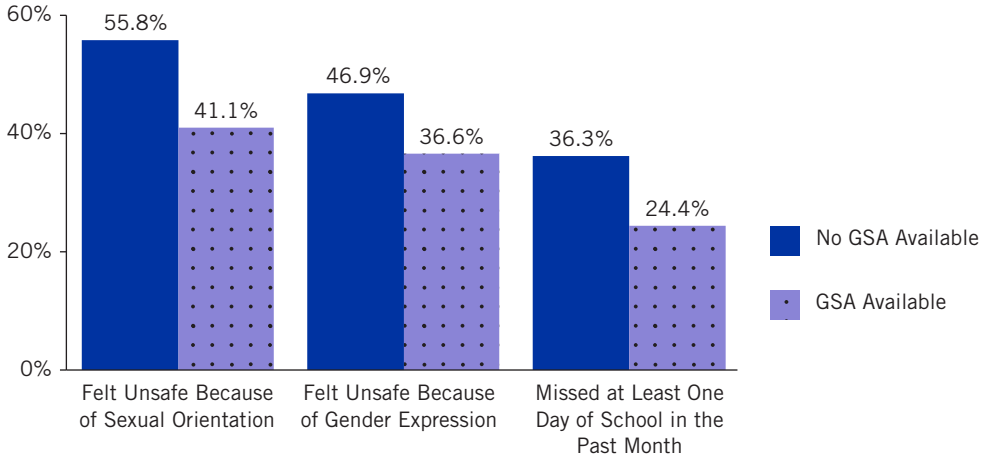
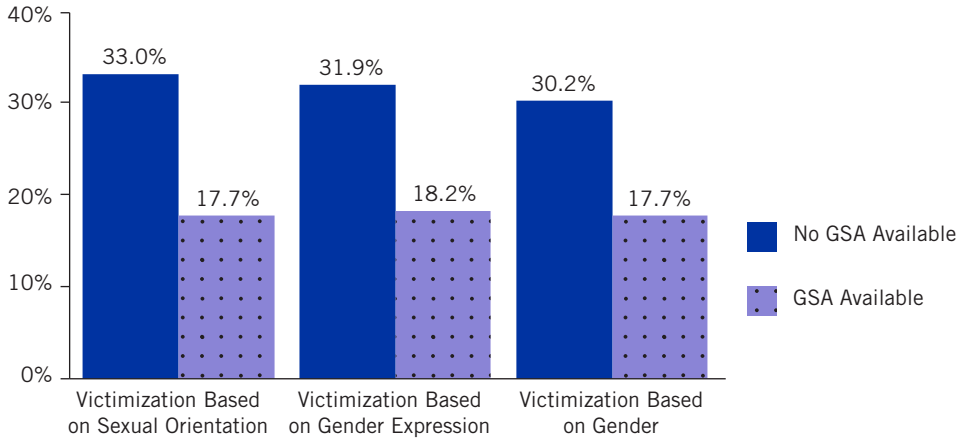


Figure 2.13 Presence of GSAs and In-Person Victimization
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Experiencing Higher Levels of Victimization)



students, which may influence students' academic engagement and educational outcomes. We found, in fact, that LGBTQ+ students in schools with a GSA reported higher grade point averages (GPAs) than those in schools without a GSA (see Figure 2.17).[171] We also found that LGBTQ+ students who had a GSA available at their school were somewhat more likely to say that they planned to pursue some type of education beyond high school than those who did not have a GSA available at their school (see also Figure 2.16).[172]

Peer Acceptance and Intervention. GSAs provide an opportunity for LGBTQ+ students and their allies to meet together in the school environment, and they may also provide an opportunity for LGBTQ+ students and issues to be visible to other students in school. In addition, GSAs may engage in activities designed to combat anti-LGBTQ+ prejudice and raise awareness about LGBTQ+ issues in school. In fact, LGBTQ+ students in our survey with an active GSA in their school were much more likely than students without a GSA to participate in a GLSEN Day of Action,[173] such as the Day of Silence (20.4% of those with an active GSA vs. 9.4% of those without).[174] As such, GSAs may foster greater acceptance of LGBTQ+ people among the student body, which then may result in a more positive school climate for LGBTQ+ students.

Among all students in our survey, 40.5% reported that their peers were somewhat or very accepting of LGBTQ+ people.[175] Students who attended schools with a GSA were much more likely than those without a GSA to report that their classmates were

Figure 2.14 Presence of GSAs and Online Victimization
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Experiencing Higher Levels of Online Victimization — "Often" or "Frequently")

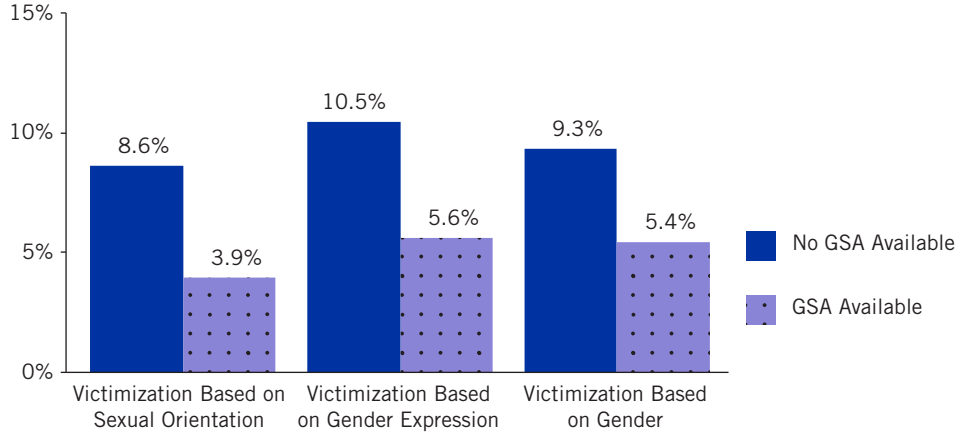
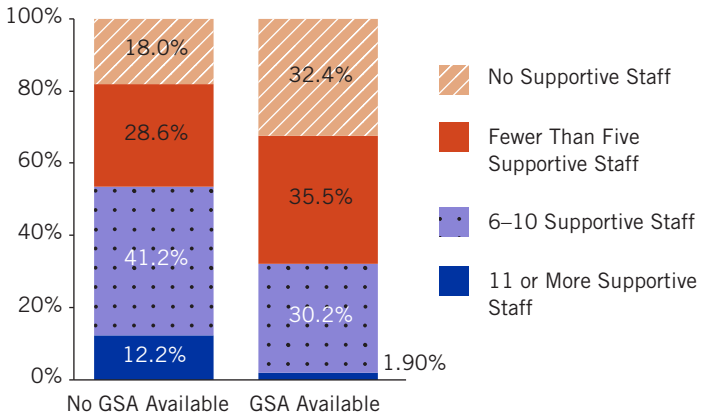


Figure 2.15 Presence of GSAs and Number of School Staff Supportive of LGBTQ+ Students



accepting of LGBTQ+ people. LGBTQ+ students in schools with GSAs available were more likely to describe their peers as accepting compared to students in schools without a GSA available (55.4% vs. 32.4%).[176] Additionally, GSAs were related to increased student intervention in biased remarks; students in schools with GSAs reported that other students intervened more often when hearing homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression than those in schools without GSAs (see also Figure 2.15).[177]

School Belonging. In that the availability of GSAs is related to more supportive educators and more accepting peers, LGBTQ+ students who have a GSA may then feel a greater part of the school community. We found, in fact, that LGBTQ+ students with a GSA reported higher levels of school belonging than those without a GSA.[178]

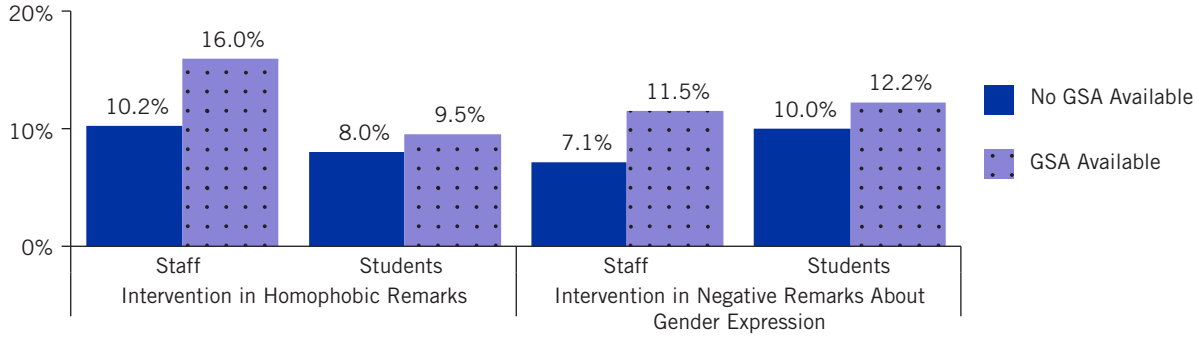
Well-Being. By virtue of the relationship of GSAs to increased feelings of belonging and a greater sense of safety at school, they may then also have a positive effect on LGBTQ+ student well-being. In fact, we found that LGBTQ+ students in schools with GSAs reported lower levels of depression and higher levels of self-esteem than students in schools without GSAs.[179] Additionally, we found that LGBTQ+ students in schools with GSAs were less likely to have seriously considered suicide in the past year than LGBTQ+ students without a GSA.[180]

Overall, we found that the presence of an active GSA is related to a more positive school climate. LGBTQ+ students who had a GSA in their school reported less anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and victimization, were less likely to report that they feel unsafe, and were less likely to miss school because they feel unsafe. Additionally, LGBTQ+ students with a GSA in their school could identify more supportive school staff, reported that they felt more comfortable talking to their teachers about LGBTQ+ issues, and were more likely to have staff intervene when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made. LGBTQ+ students with GSAs also reported higher GPAs and higher educational aspirations. Regarding their peers, LGBTQ+ students with a GSA available reported more accepting peers, as well as a higher likelihood of peers intervening when hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks. Finally, LGBTQ+ students at schools with a GSA reported higher levels of school belonging, lower levels of depression, higher levels of self-esteem, and a lower likelihood of seriously considering suicide, when compared to their LGBTQ+ peers without a GSA.

Inclusive Curricular Resources

Many experts in multicultural education believe that a curriculum that is inclusive of diverse groups—including diverse cultures, races, ethnicities, genders, and sexual orientations—instills a belief in the intrinsic worth of all individuals and in the value of a diverse society.[181] Including LGBTQ+-related issues in the curriculum in a positive manner may make LGBTQ+ students feel like more valued members of the school community, and it may also promote more positive feelings about LGBTQ+ issues and persons among their peers, thereby resulting in a more positive school climate.[182] Thus, we examined the relationship between access to positive LGBTQ+ curricular resources and various indicators of school climate and well-being.

Figure 2.16 Presence of GSAs and Intervention in Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks
(Percentage of LGBTQ Students Reporting that Staff and Students Intervene Most of the Time or Always)



Biased Language. Among the LGBTQ+ students in our survey, attending a school that included positive representations of LGBTQ+ topics in the curriculum was related to less frequent use of anti-LGBTQ+ language.[183] Specifically, LGBTQ+ students in schools with LGBTQ+ inclusion in the curriculum:

- **heard homophobic remarks less frequently** (see Figure 2.18) than students in schools without an inclusive curriculum;
- **heard negative remarks about gender expression less frequent**ly than students in schools without an inclusive curriculum (see also Figure 2.18); and
- **heard negative remarks about transgender people less frequently** than students in schools without an inclusive curriculum (see also Figure 2.18).

Victimization and School Safety. Attending a school with positive LGBTQ+ inclusion in the curriculum was also related to greater school safety and fewer absences related to feeling unsafe at school. Specifically, LGBTQ+ students in schools with LGBTQ+ curricular inclusion, compared to those without:

- were **less likely to feel unsafe at school** regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender (see Figure 2.19);[184]
- were **less likely to report having missed at least one day of school** due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable (54.7% vs. 67.1%).[185]
- reported **less severe in-person victimization** based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender (see Figure 2.20);[186] and
- reported **less severe online victimization** based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender (see Figure 2.21).[187]

Figure 2.17 Presence of GSAs and Educational Aspirations

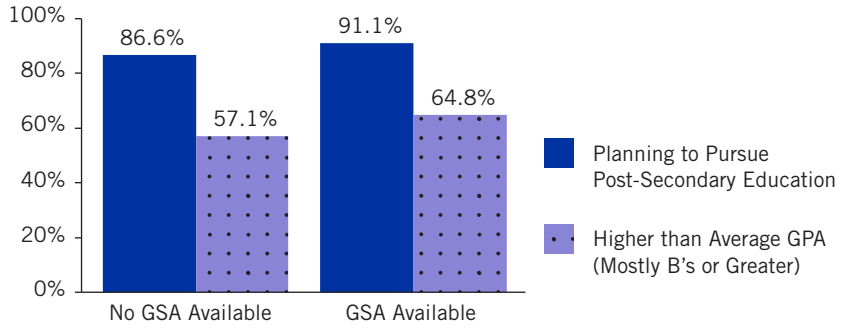
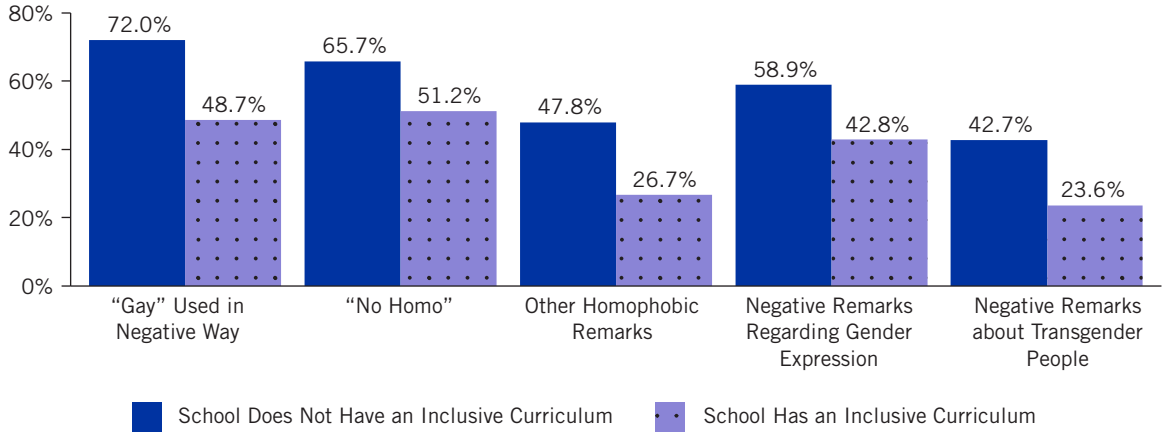


Figure 2.18 Inclusive Curriculum and Frequency of Hearing Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Hearing Remarks Often or Frequently)



Students' Connections to School Staff. When educators include LGBTQ+ content in their curriculum, they may also be sending a message that they are open to discussing LGBTQ+ issues with their students. LGBTQ+ students in schools with an inclusive curriculum were more likely to say they felt comfortable discussing these issues with their teachers than students in schools without an inclusive curriculum—almost two-thirds of students (63.2%) with an inclusive curriculum indicated they felt "somewhat" or "very" comfortable talking with their teachers about these issues, compared to just over one-third of students (37.9%) without an inclusive curriculum.[188]

Achievement and Aspirations. Inclusive curricula can serve a vital role in creating an affirming learning environment where LGBTQ+ students see themselves reflected in their classroom. This may result in increased student engagement and may encourage students to strive academically which, in turn, may yield better educational outcomes. Indeed, we found that LGBTQ+ students in schools with an inclusive curriculum reported higher grade

Figure 2.19 Inclusive Curriculum and LGBTQ+ Students' Feelings of Safety
(Percentage of Students Reporting Feeling Unsafe)

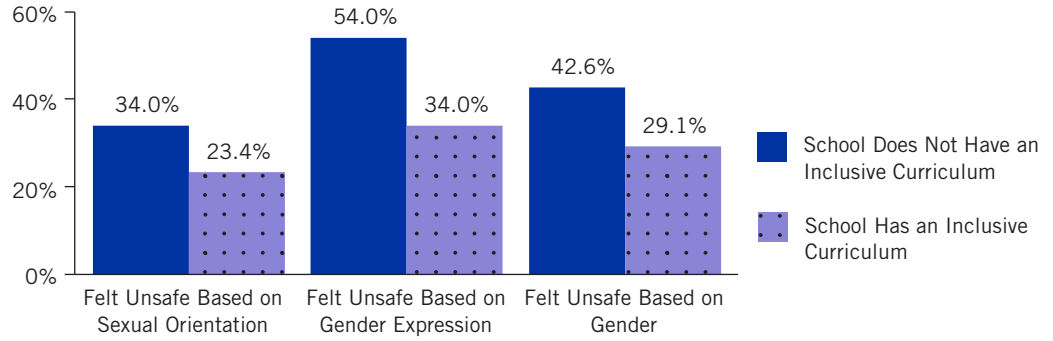


Figure 2.20 Inclusive Curriculum and In-Person Victimization
(Percentage of Students Experiencing Higher Severities of Victimization)

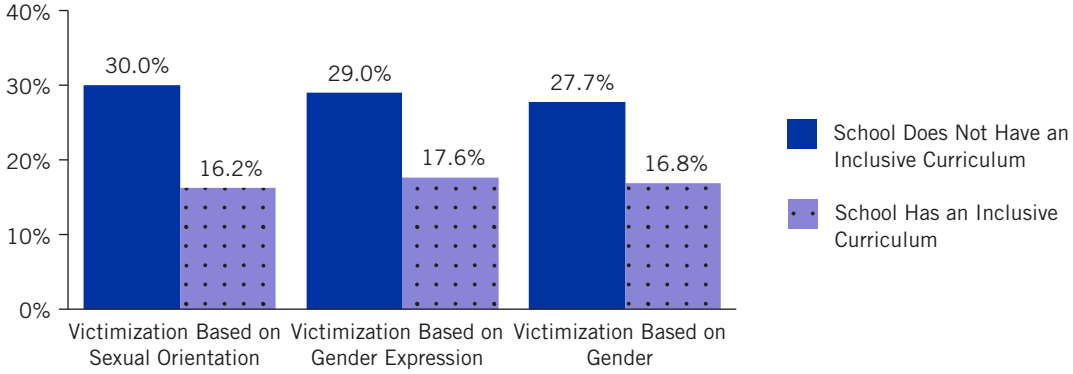
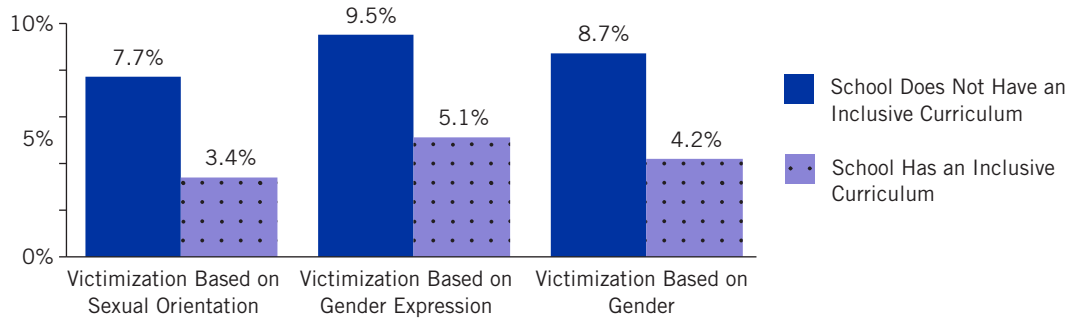


Figure 2.21 Inclusive Curriculum and Online Victimization
(Percentage of Students Experiencing Higher Severities of Victimization)



point averages (GPA) than those in schools without an inclusive curriculum (see Figure 2.22).[189] We also found that students with an LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum evidenced somewhat higher academic aspirations—LGBTQ+ students in schools with an inclusive curriculum were more likely to say that they planned to pursue some type of education beyond high school compared to LGBTQ+ students in schools without an inclusive curriculum (see also Figure 2.22).[190]

Peer Acceptance and Peer Intervention. The inclusion of positive portrayals of LGBTQ+ topics in the classroom may not only have a direct effect on LGBTQ+ students' experiences, but may also help educate the general student body about LGBTQ+ issues and promote respect and understanding of LGBTQ+ people in general. LGBTQ+ students who attended schools with an LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum were much more likely to report that their classmates were somewhat or very accepting of LGBTQ+ people (66.9% vs. 35.3%).[191]

Increased understanding and respect may lead students in general to speak up when they witness anti-LGBTQ+ behaviors. Although overall rates of students' intervention regarding these types of remarks were low, we found that LGBTQ+ students in schools with an inclusive curriculum reported that other students were more than twice as likely to intervene most or all of the time when hearing homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression, compared to students in schools without an inclusive curriculum (see Figure 2.23).[192]

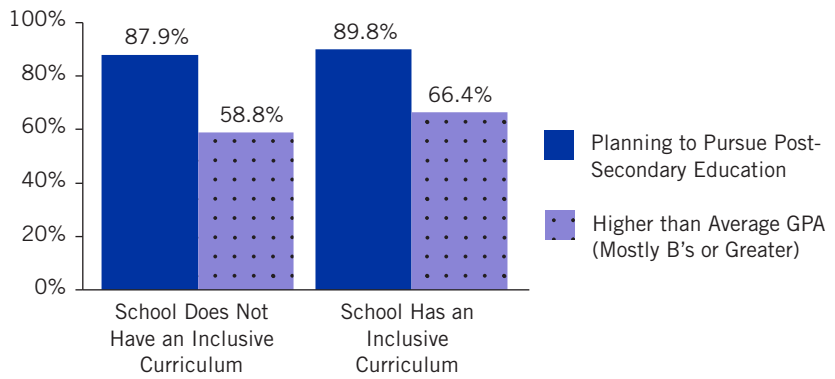
School Belonging. Given that having positive curricular inclusion was related to a greater number of supportive educators and more accepting peers, it is likely that being taught a curriculum that is inclusive of LGBTQ+ people and topics would also be related to LGBTQ+ students feeling more connected to their school community. Indeed, we found that access to an inclusive curriculum was related to more school belonging.[193]

Well-Being. Being taught positive content about LGBTQ+ people, history, and events may also result in LGBTQ+ students feeling more positively about themselves and their LGBTQ+ identity. We found that LGBTQ+ students who had been taught positive LGBTQ+ content in school:

- had **higher levels of self-esteem** than those did not report positive LGBTQ+ inclusion in the curriculum;[194]
- had **lower levels of depression** than those did not report positive LGBTQ+ inclusion in the curriculum;[195] and
- were **less likely to have seriously considered suicide** in the past year.[196]

Overall, we found that access to inclusive curriculum is related to a more positive school climate. Students who are taught an LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum report less anti-LGBTQ+ biased language and victimization, and are less likely to feel unsafe and miss school because of their LGBTQ+ identity than those who do not have access to LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum. LGBTQ+ students with an inclusive curriculum are more comfortable talking to school staff about LGBTQ+ topics and report that their peers are more accepting. Finally, students at schools with an inclusive curriculum report higher levels of school belonging and self-esteem and lower levels of depression. However, as we saw in the Availability

Figure 2.22 Inclusive Curriculum and Educational Aspirations



of School-Based Resources and Supports section, most LGBTQ+ students are not taught positive LGBTQ+-related information and many lack access to other LGBTQ+-inclusive curricular resources at school. It is important for educators to implement LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum in their classes, as increased access to LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum and curricular resources can lead to more positive school experiences for LGBTQ+ students.

Supportive School Personnel

Having supportive teachers and school staff can have a positive effect on the educational experiences of any student, and has been shown to increase student motivation to learn and positive engagement in school.[197] Given that LGBTQ+ students often feel unsafe and unwelcome in school, having access to school personnel who provide support may be particularly critical for these students.[198] Therefore, we examined the relationships between the presence of supportive staff and several indicators of school climate.

School Safety and Absenteeism. Having staff supportive of LGBTQ+ students was related to feeling safer in school and missing fewer days of school. As shown in Figure 2.24, students with more supportive staff at their schools were less likely to feel unsafe regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender, as well as less likely to miss school because of feeling unsafe or uncomfortable.[199] For example, 34.7% of students with a high number (11 or more) of supportive staff reported feeling unsafe regarding their sexual orientation, compared to 64.2% of students with a low number (0 to 5) of supportive staff.

Achievement and Aspirations. Supportive staff members serve a vital role in creating an affirming learning environment that engages students and encourages them to strive academically. Therefore, it stands to reason that supportive staff would be related to LGBTQ+ students' educational outcomes. We found that students with more supportive staff had greater educational aspirations.[200] For example, as seen in Figure 2.24, whereas most of the LGBTQ+ students in

Figure 2.23 Inclusive Curriculum and Student Intervention in Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks
(Percentage of Students who Reported that Students Intervened Most or All of the Time)

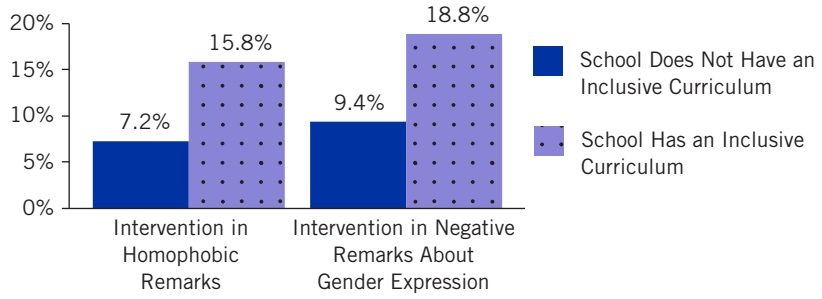
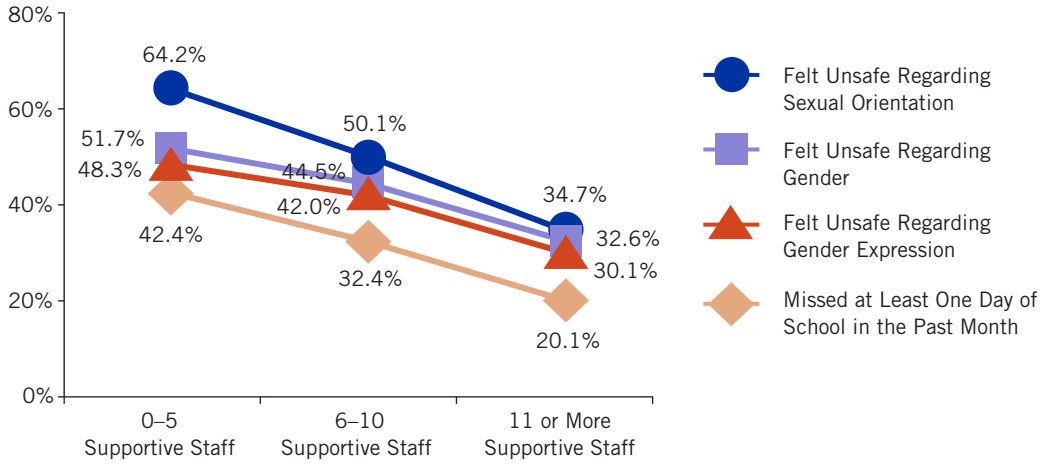


Figure 2.24 Supportive School Staff and Feelings of Safety and Missing School



the survey planned on pursuing education beyond high school, the percent increased as the number of supportive educators increased—from 85.4% among those with few supportive educators to 91.7% for those with a greater number of supportive educators. Similarly, we also found that students with more supportive staff reported higher GPAs—55.7% with a low number of supportive staff reported having above average GPAs versus 65.6% of students with a high number of supportive staff (see also Figure 2.25).[201]

School Belonging. Having supportive school personnel may also enhance a student's connection to school. LGBTQ+ students in schools with more supportive staff had higher levels of school belonging than those who reported fewer supportive educators. Three-quarters (76.0%) of LGBTQ+ students with a higher number of supportive educators at school (11 or more) reported higher levels of school belonging, compared to half (51.7%) of students with a moderate number of supportive educators (6 to 10) and less than a third (31.0%) with few supportive educators (5 or fewer).[202]

Psychological Well-Being. Having supportive school personnel may also enhance LGBTQ+ students' feelings about themselves and their mental health. Students with more supportive school personnel:

- had **higher levels of self-esteem** than those who reported fewer supportive educators (see Figure 2.26); [203]
- had **lower levels of depression** than those who reported fewer supportive educators (see Figure 2.26);[204] and
- were **less likely to have seriously considered suicide** in the past year than those who reported fewer supportive educators (see also Figure 2.26).[205]

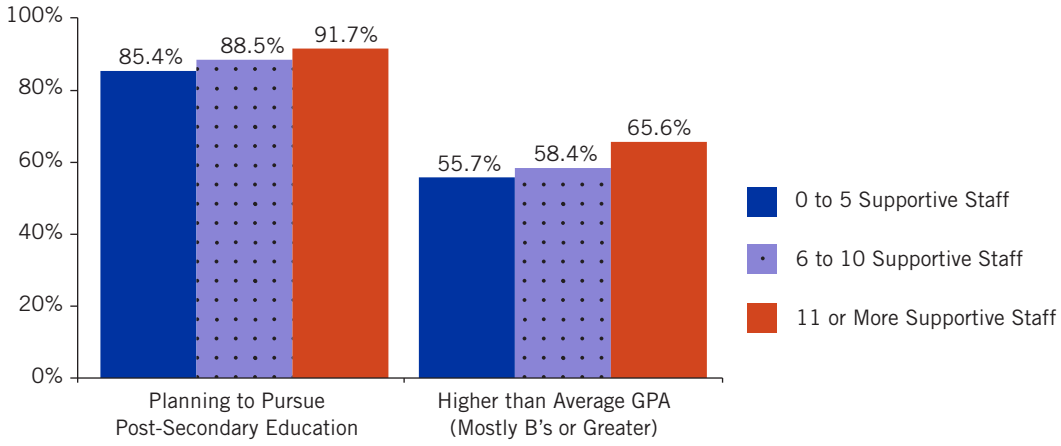
Staff Responses to Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks and Victimization. School staff members serve a vital role in ensuring a safe learning environment for all students, and, as such, should respond to biased language and all types of victimization. We found that when staff intervened more often when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made, LGBTQ+ students:

- **felt less unsafe at school** regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender (see Figure 2.27);[206] and
- **were less likely to miss school due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable**—35.8% of students whose school staff intervened less often (never or only some of the time) when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made missed at least one day of school in the past year compared to 26.4% of those whose staff intervened more frequently (most of the time or always).[207]

Efficacy of Staff Responses to Anti-LGBTQ+ Victimization. Clear and appropriate actions on the part of school staff regarding harassment and assault can improve the school environment for LGBTQ+ youth and may also serve to deter future acts of victimization.[208] When students believed that staff effectively addressed harassment and assault, they:

- **felt less unsafe at school** regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender (see Figure 2.28);[209]

Figure 2.25 Supportive School Staff and Educational Aspirations



- **were less likely to miss school due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable**—35.0% of students whose school staff intervention regarding victimization was seen as effective (very or somewhat effective) missed at least one day of school in the past year compared to 52.4% of those who reported staff intervention was ineffective (somewhat ineffective or not at all effective);[210]

- **experienced lower levels of in-person victimization** at school based on their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender, among those LGBTQ+ students who had been in school in-person at some point during the academic year (see Figure 2.29);[211] and

- **experienced lower levels of online victimization** at school based on their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender, among those LGBTQ+ students who had been in school online at some point during the academic year (see Figure 2.30).[212]

Visible Displays of Support. One of the many ways that educators can demonstrate to LGBTQ+ students that they are supportive allies is through visible displays of support, such as GLSEN's Safe Space stickers and posters. LGBTQ+ students who reported seeing Safe Space stickers and posters were more likely to report having supportive teachers and other staff at their schools.[213] For instance, as shown in Figure 2.31, half of students (50.1%) who had seen a Safe Space sticker or poster were able to identify a high number of supportive staff (11 or more) in their schools, compared to less than a fifth of students (17.8%) who had not seen a Safe Space sticker or poster at school.

LGBTQ+-supportive school staff play a critical role in creating a more positive school climate for LGBTQ+ students. When LGBTQ+ students

Figure 2.26 Supportive School Staff and Psychological Well-Being

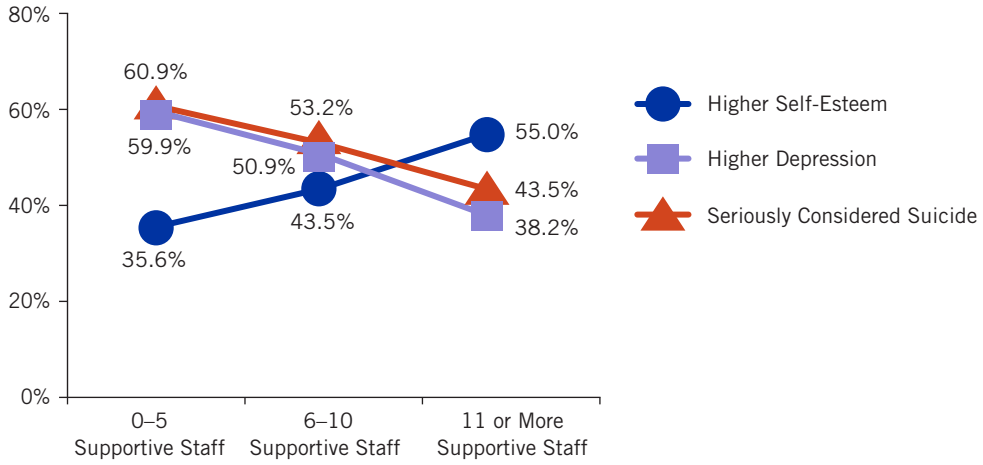
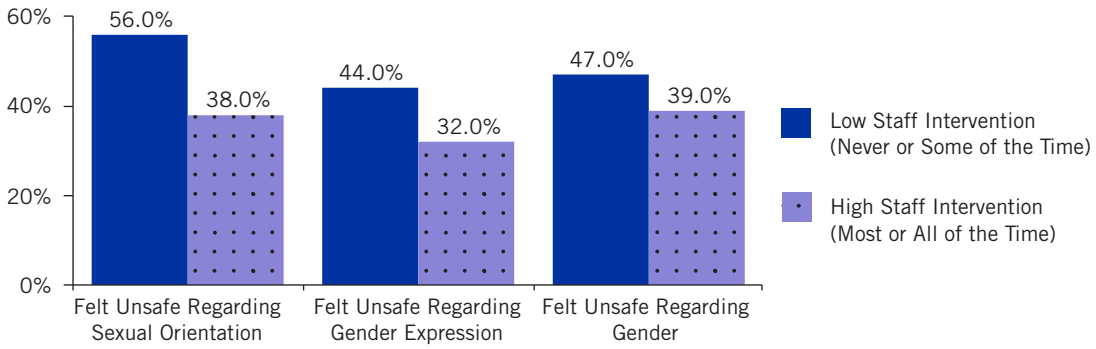


Figure 2.27 Feelings of Safety at School and Staff Intervention in Negative Remarks about Sexual Orientation or Gender Expression
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Who Felt Unsafe)



attend school with more caring adults to whom they can turn, they feel safer and more connected to the school community, and are more likely to plan on graduating and going on to post-secondary education. Further, when school staff demonstrate their support for LGBTQ+ students by intervening on anti-LGBTQ+ language or effectively responding to harassment, they help to reduce hostile school experiences for LGBTQ+ youth, thereby improving the learning environment for LGBTQ+ students. Our findings also highlight the importance of having several LGBTQ+-supportive staff at school, rather than only a few. Having a large network of supportive staff may create more spaces throughout the school where LGBTQ+ students can feel at ease about their identities, and where anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and harassment are interrupted. Thus, schools must invest in professional development for all staff on recognizing and responding to the needs of LGBTQ+ students, and effectively intervening in bias-based harassment.

Figure 2.28 Feelings of Safety at School and Effectiveness of Staff Intervention to Harassment/Assault
(Percentage Among Those Who Reported Victimization to Staff, n = 5237)

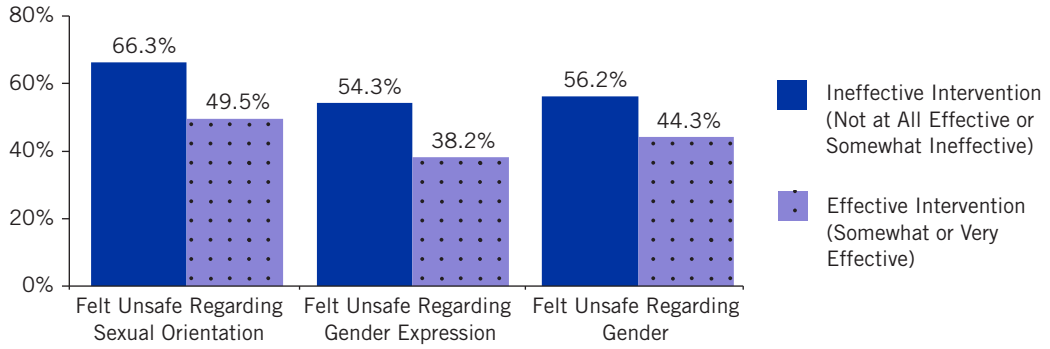


Figure 2.29 Experiences of In-Person Victimization and Effectiveness of Staff Response to Harassment/Assault
(Percentage Experiencing Higher Severities of Victimization Among Those LGBTQ+ Students Who Had Been in In-Person School Instruction)

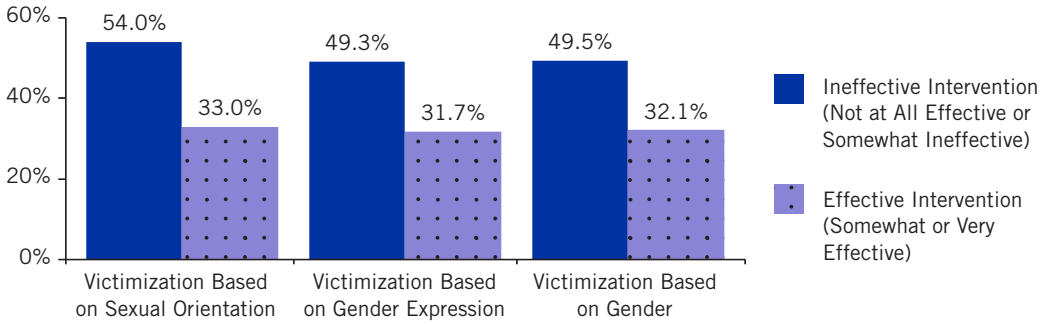
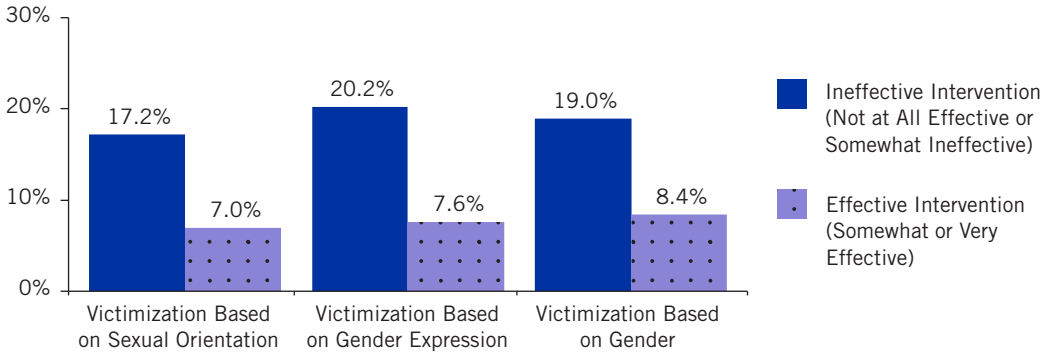


Figure 2.30 Experiences of Online Victimization and Effectiveness of Staff Response to Harassment/Assault
(Percentage Experiencing High Levels of Online Victimization — "Often" or "Frequently" Among Those Who Reported Victimization to Staff)



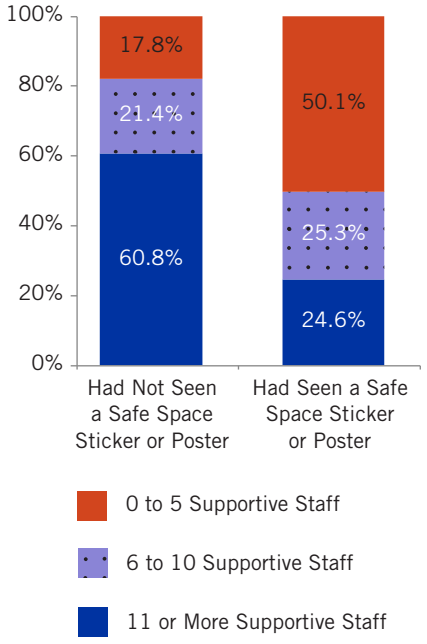
Inclusive and Supportive School Policies

Inclusive and supportive school policies can help to ensure that students are safe, respected, and feel valued in their school. Not only do policies specify prohibited and allowable behaviors, but they also serve to set a tone for the entire school community. When these policies are supportive of LGBTQ+ students, they can contribute to more positive school climate for these students.

Policies for Addressing Bullying and Harassment. Comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies can help ensure schools are safe for LGBTQ+ students in that they explicitly state protections from victimization based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression. Furthermore, comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies may also provide school staff with the guidance needed to appropriately intervene when students use anti-LGBTQ+ language and when LGBTQ+ students report incidents of harassment and assault.

Anti-LGBTQ+ language. Overall, LGBTQ+ students in schools with comprehensive policies were the least likely to hear anti-LGBTQ+ language and those with no anti-bullying/harassment policy were most likely to hear such language (see Figure 2.32).[214] For example, 30.6% of students in schools with a comprehensive policy commonly heard negative remarks about transgender people, compared to 38.6% of students in schools with partially enumerated policies, 39.9% in schools with generic policies, and 43.4% in schools with no policy. With the exception of using "gay" in a negative way, there were no differences between having a generic policy and a partially enumerated policy.

Figure 2.31 Safe Space Stickers/Posters and Number of Supportive School Staff



Responses to anti-LGBTQ+ remarks. School anti-bullying/harassment policies often provide guidance to educators in addressing incidents of harassment and biased remarks. Even though students reported, in general, that staff intervention was a rare occurrence, it was more common in schools with anti-bullying policies. Students in schools with comprehensive policies reported the highest frequencies of staff intervention when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks occurred, followed by partially enumerated policies, and generic policies (see Figure 2.33).[215] For example, a quarter of LGBTQ+ students (24.5%) in schools with comprehensive polices said teachers intervened most of the time or always when homophobic remarks were made, compared to under a fifth of those (16.4%) in schools with partially enumerated policies, 11.6% in schools with a generic policy, and 7.2% of schools with no policy.

Experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization. Among LGBTQ+ students who attended school in person at some point in the academic year, those who were in schools with no anti-bullying and harassment policy reported the highest levels of experiences with in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and those in schools with comprehensive policies experienced the lowest levels (see Figure 2.34).[216] There were no differences, however, in the three types of in-person victimization between students in schools with a generic policy (i.e., those that have no enumeration) and those in schools with only partially enumerated policies. For example, as shown in Figure 2.34, 20.2% of students in schools with a comprehensive policy reported higher levels of in-person victimization based on gender expression, compared to 26.8% in schools with a partially enumerated policy, 26.2% in schools with a generic policy, and 31.9% in schools with no policy. Among LGBTQ+ students who attended school online at some point in the academic year, those who were in schools with no anti-bullying and harassment policy reported

the highest levels of all three types of online victimization (see Figure 2.35), and those who were in schools with a generic policy reported greater online victimization than those with a comprehensive policy.[217] However, those who had a partially enumerated policy did not differ in the severity of victimization from those with a generic policy and those who had a comprehensive policy.

Students' reporting of victimization to school staff and effectiveness of staff response. Policies may provide guidance to students on reporting bullying and harassment, but perhaps more importantly, policies may also signal that students' experiences of victimization will be addressed by school officials. We found that the levels of specific protections for sexual orientation and gender expression was associated with a greater likelihood of LGBTQ+ students reporting harassment or assault to school personnel. As shown in Figure 2.36, students in schools with a comprehensive school policy were most likely to report victimization to school staff compared to all other students in the survey, students in schools with a partially enumerated policy were more likely to report than those in schools with generic policies, and students in schools without a policy were least likely to report harassment or assault.[218]

Anti-bullying and harassment policies that include protections based on sexual orientation and gender expression may also signal to school personnel the importance of addressing anti-LGBTQ+ victimization in their schools. As also shown in Figure 2.36, LGBTQ+ students in schools with comprehensive policies reported that staff intervention regarding victimization was more effective. LGBTQ+ students in schools with comprehensive policies and partially enumerated policies were more likely to report that staff

Figure 2.32 School Harassment/Assault Policies and Frequency of Hearing Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Hearing Remarks Often or Frequenty)

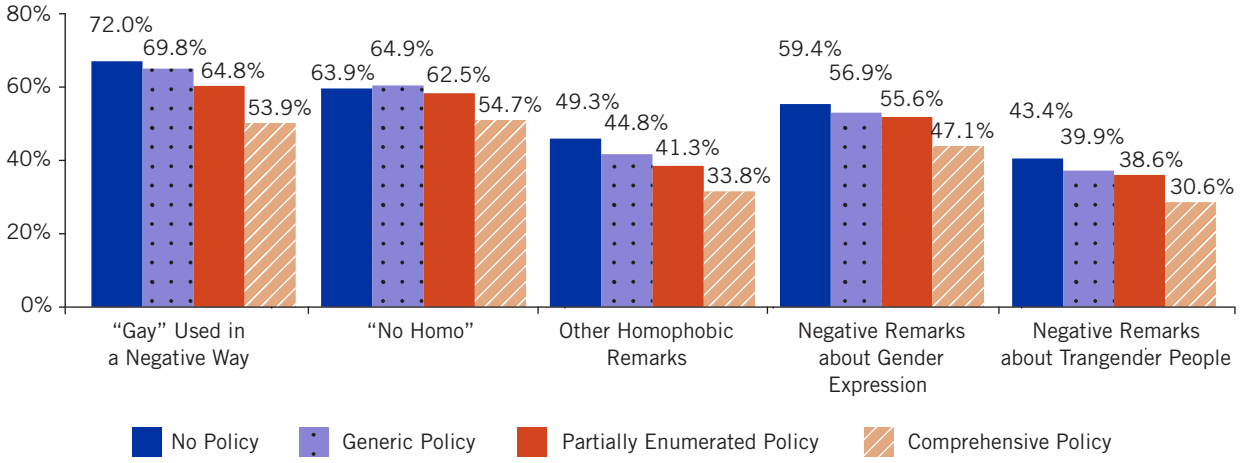
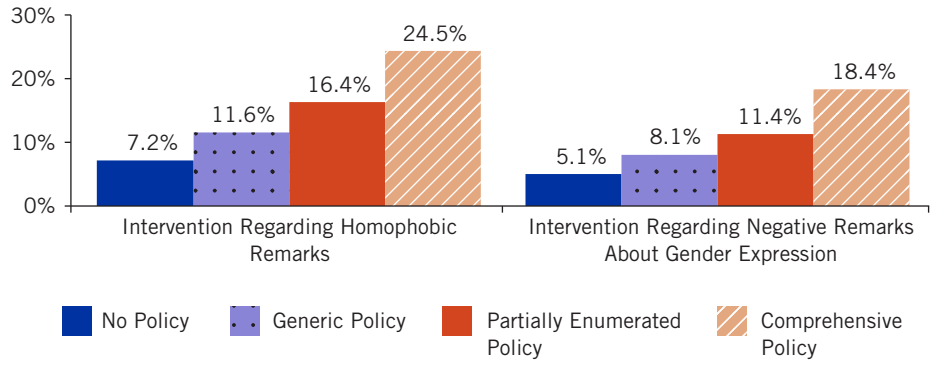


Figure 2.33 School Harassment/Assault Policies and Staff Intervention Regarding Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting That Staff Intervened Most of the Time or Always)



intervention was effective than other students, and those with no policy were least likely to report that staff intervention was effective.[219]

Collectively, these findings suggest that comprehensive policies are more effective than other types of policies in promoting a safe school environment for LGBTQ+ students. These policies may send the message to teachers and other school staff that responding to LGBTQ+-based harassment is expected and critical. As we saw in our results, school personnel intervened more often and more effectively when the school was reported to have a comprehensive policy. In addition, comprehensive policies may be effective in curtailing anti-LGBTQ+ language and behaviors among students—students in schools with comprehensive policies reported the lowest incidence of homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, negative remarks about transgender people, and reported the lowest levels of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization. These policies may also send a message to students that LGBTQ+-based harassment is not tolerated, and that students should take appropriate action when witnessing LGBTQ+-based harassment. Thus, comprehensive policies may signal to all members of the school community that anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and biased remarks are not tolerated. It is important to note that these results also indicate that having a partially enumerated policy, i.e., one that includes protections for sexual orientation or gender but not both, often did not have any greater effect on preventing anti-LGBTQ+ behaviors in schools than having a generic policy with no specific LGBTQ+ protections and even having no policy at all. These

Figure 2.34 School Harassment/Assault Policies and Experiences of In-Person Victimization
(Percentage Experiencing Higher Severities of Victimization Among Those LGBTQ+ Students Who Had Been in In-Person School Instruction)

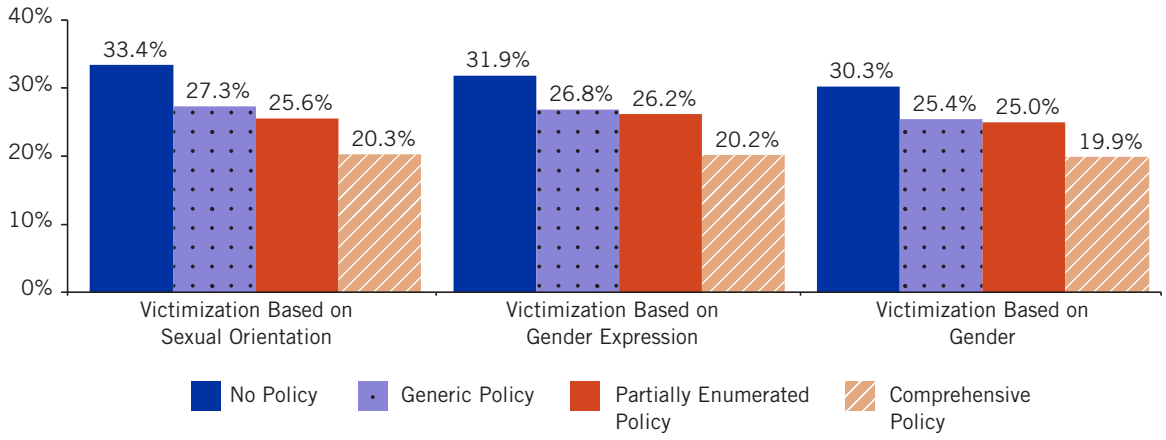
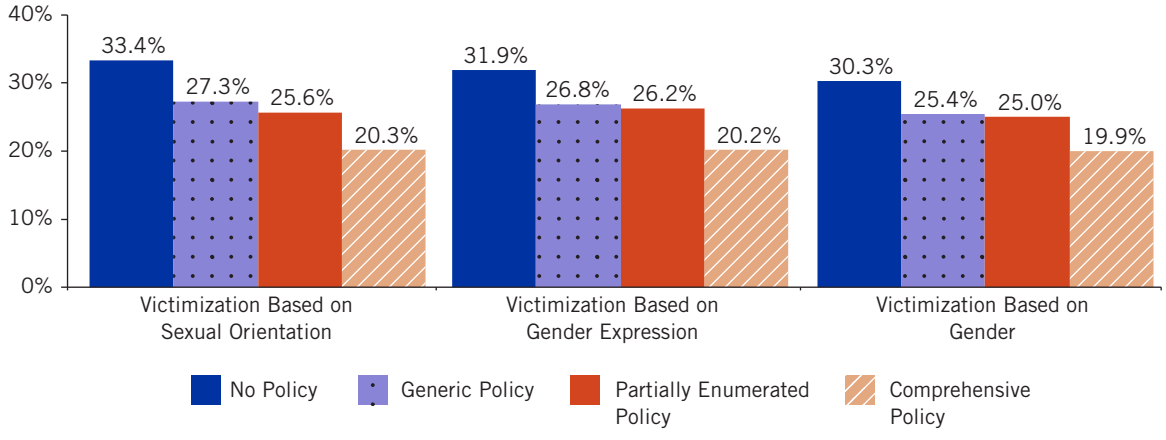


Figure 2.35 School Harassment/Assault Policies and Experiences of Online Victimization
(Percentage Experiencing High Levels of Online Victimization—"Often" or "Frequently" Among Those LGBTQ+ Students Who Had Been in In-Person School Instruction)



findings also highlight the need for school anti-bullying/harassment policies to be comprehensive and specifically enumerate protections based on sexual orientation and gender identity and gender expression.

Policies and Official Guidelines on Transgender and Nonbinary Students. School or district policies detailing the rights and protections afforded to transgender and nonbinary students help to ensure these students have access to an education. These policies can also serve to send the message that transgender and nonbinary students are a valuable and important part of the school community.

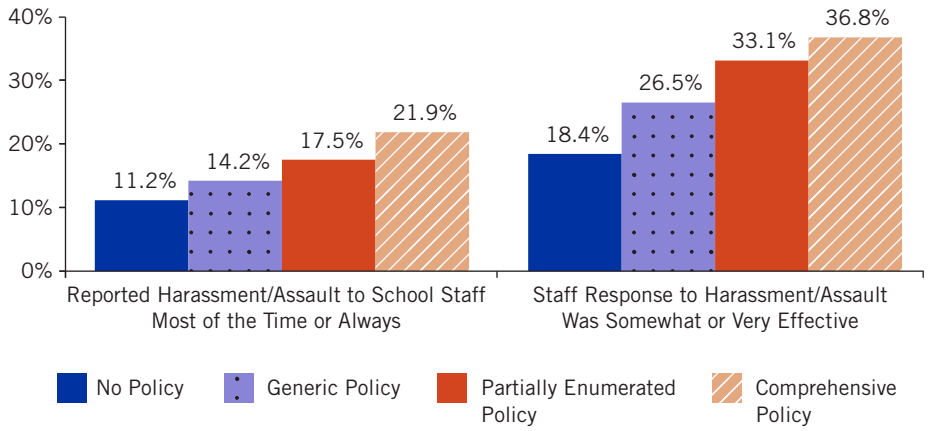
Transgender and nonbinary official policies/ guidelines and school engagement. Having policies that provide access and support to transgender and nonbinary students may help students feel comfortable and welcome in their school, ultimately resulting in greater school engagement. We found transgender and nonbinary students in schools who had these policies or guidelines, compared to those who did not, were:

- Less likely to miss school because of feeling unsafe (30.7% vs. 38.2% missed at least one day of school in the past month for safety reasons); [220] and
- More likely to feel a part of their school community (69.2% vs. 42.0% reported higher levels of school belonging).[221]

Transgender and nonbinary policies/guidelines and students' experiences of discrimination. We examined whether the presence of a policy or official guidelines supporting transgender and nonbinary students was related to experiences of gender-related discrimination at school for these students. We found that having a supportive transgender and nonbinary policy was related to a lower likelihood of gender-related discrimination—specifically, being prevented from using bathrooms of their gender identity, prevented from using locker rooms of their gender identity, prevented from wearing clothes deemed "inappropriate" based on gender, prevented from participating on a school sports team based on gender, and being prevented from using their chosen name or pronouns.[222] For example, as shown in Figure 2.36, transgender and nonbinary students in schools with a transgender and nonbinary student policy were less than half as likely as those in schools without a policy to experience discrimination related to their name or pronouns in school (19.4% vs. 54.2%).

In addition to exploring the overall benefits of having a school policy or guidelines for transgender and nonbinary students with regard to gender-related discrimination, we also examined whether specific components of these policies or guidelines were effective vis-à-vis specific forms of gender-related discrimination at school. For example, we examined: 1) whether protections regarding boys/girls bathrooms and gender-neutral bathrooms were related to a lower likelihood of discrimination in bathroom use; 2) whether protections related to locker rooms were related to a lower likelihood of locker room discrimination; and 3) whether protections regarding name/pronoun use were related to a lower likelihood of discrimination regarding name or pronoun use. Overall, our

Figure 2.36 School Harassment/Assault Policies, Reporting Harassment/Assault, and Effectiveness of Staff Response



results indicate that specific protections were protective toward the related form of discrimination. Specifically, transgender and nonbinary students had a:

- 70.5% lower likelihood of experiencing **discrimination regarding name or pronoun at school** if they had a school policy or guideline that **covered name or pronoun use,** and a 41.0% lower likelihood if the policy or guideline **addressed changing school records after a name or gender change**;[223]

- 47.4% lower likelihood of experiencing **discrimination regarding clothing** if the policy or guideline **addressed following dress codes or wearing uniforms** matching one's gender identity;[224]

- 64.7% lower likelihood of experiencing **discrimination regarding bathroom use** if the policy or guideline **addressed choosing which bathroom to use**, and a 44.6% lower likelihood if the policy or guideline **addressed access to gender-neutral bathrooms**;[225]

- 64.0% lower likelihood of experiencing **discrimination regarding locker room use** if the policy or guideline **addressed access to locker rooms** matching one's gender identity;[226] and

- 74.1% lower likelihood of experiencing **discrimination regarding participation on school sports** teams if the policy or guideline **addressed participation in school sports** matching one's gender identity.[227]

These findings indicate that having specific policies or official guidelines that explicitly document the rights of transgender and nonbinary students can greatly improve the school experience for these students. Given transgender and nonbinary students are at higher risk of in-school victimization, absenteeism, school discipline, and ultimately leaving school altogether,[228] it is critical that schools institute policies to help safeguard these students' rights and ensure they have equal access to an education. These findings not only highlight the importance of school policies or guidelines for transgender and nonbinary students, but also highlight the importance of having clear specifications to prevent gender-related discrimination. For instance, the findings regarding locker room and bathroom discrimination indicate that allowing students to access gendered facilities that correspond to their gender are critical for transgender and nonbinary students. Although having official protections for transgender and nonbinary students and their rights is crucial, the power of the policy is in the degree to which it is implemented. Professional development is critical to ensure that school staff are aware of policy mandates including those that protect transgender and nonbinary students, and are able to enact them. Furthermore, schools and districts should develop monitoring and accountability measures to ensure that these policies are being effectively implemented and that transgender and nonbinary students are not being deprived of their rights.

Supportive and inclusive school policies play an essential role in creating safe and inclusive school communities. However, it is important to note that a significant portion of students in schools with these policies still faced hostile school climates—including victimization and discrimination—even when they reported having an anti-bullying/harassment policy or a transgender and nonbinary student policy. Clearly, it is not enough for policies to merely exist in schools, but they must also be enforced and effectively implemented. For both types of policies, anti-bullying and harassment policies and transgender student policies or guidelines, a substantial portion of students indicated that they did not know whether their school had such policies (see Table 2.3 and Figure 2.10 in "Availability of School-Based Resources and Supports" section). If a student is not aware of their school's policies, then they would not be aware of the valuable rights and protections these policies provide. Therefore, it is critical not only that schools enact these policies but also that all members of the school community are made aware of the policies and what they include. Furthermore, policies are vitally important, yet are only one of the key elements necessary to ensure safe and welcoming schools for LGBTQ+ students.

Conclusions

Our findings indicate that LGBTQ+ supports and resources play an important role in making schools safer and more affirming for LGBTQ+ students. Students in schools that had a GSA and students in schools that had LGBTQ+ inclusive curriculum (taught positive representations of LGBTQ+ people, history, and events) reported less anti-LGBTQ+ biased language and less anti-LGBTQ+ victimization, were less likely to feel unsafe and to miss school for safety reasons. They were more comfortable talking to school staff about LGBTQ+ topics, reported more accepting peers, had higher GPAs and educational aspirations, reported a greater sense of belonging to their school community and increased psychological well-being. Further, students at schools with a GSA reported a higher number of supportive educators, and more frequent intervention on homophobic language by both staff and other students. Our findings also showed that students with more supportive school staff were less likely to feel unsafe and to miss school for safety reasons, had higher GPAs, higher educational aspirations, and reported a greater sense of belonging to their school community and increased psychological well-being.

Students in schools with comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies that included protections for both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression reported less anti-LGBTQ+ biased language and less anti-LGBTQ+ victimization. Students with comprehensive policies also reported greater frequency of school staff intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ biased remarks, were more likely to report incidents of harassment and assault to school personnel, and more likely to rate school staff's response to such incidents as effective. Furthermore, having a policy that enumerated either sexual orientation or gender expression but not both was often no more effective than a policy with no enumeration or no policy at all. Among transgender and nonbinary students, those in schools with supportive transgender and nonbinary official policies or guidelines reported less gender-related discrimination, were less likely to miss school because of feeling unsafe, and felt a greater sense of connection to their school community.

Unfortunately, as discussed previously in the *Availability of School-Based Resources and Supports* section, many LGBTQ+ students do not have access to these supports and resources at their schools. These findings indicate the importance of advocating for the inclusion of these resources in schools to ensure positive learning environments for LGBTQ+ students in all schools. In addition, in the aforementioned section, we found that LGBTQ+ students in in-person learning environments during the 2020–2021 school year were often less likely to have than those in online only learning or hybrid environments, and as such, schools may need to compensate for this difference as they return to their regular in-person learning.

PART THREE: SCHOOL CLIMATE BY DEMOGRAPHIC AND SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

SCHOOL CLIMATE AND SEXUAL ORIENTATION

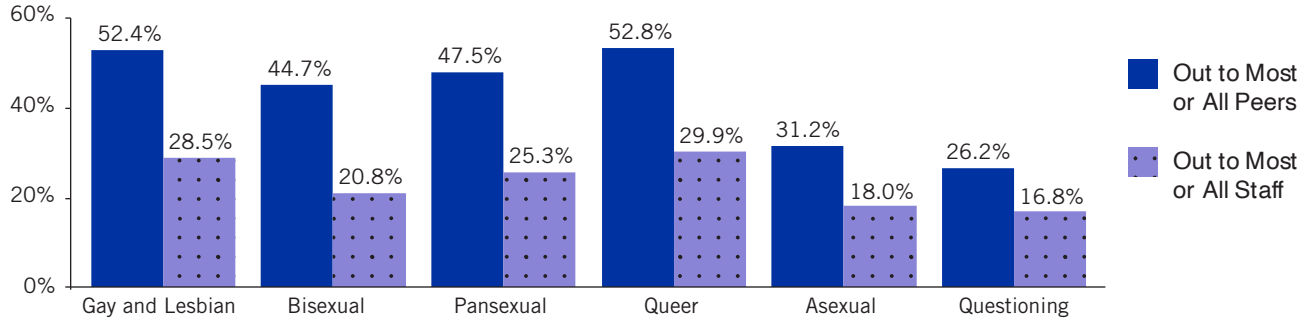
An important element of adolescent development is identity formation, in which youth explore and come to define their personal identity, both as an individual and as a member of different social groups.[229] Youth in our survey were navigating the development of multiple identities, including their sexual orientation identity. As it is a developmental process, age plays a role in identity formation. Older youth, who have had more time to explore and develop their identity, may be more secure and confident about their lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual, queer, or asexual identity, which could contribute to different school experiences than younger youth. In fact, we found that age was related to sexual orientation identity. For example, questioning students were younger than students of all other sexual orientations.[230]

One of the last steps of sexual orientation identity formation is coming out publicly about one's lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual, queer or asexual identity.[231] Students who have reached this stage of identity development may be more confident in their identity, but also may be more targeted for victimization and discrimination. Indeed, previous research has shown that being out about one's LGBTQ+ identity at school relates to greater peer victimization.[232] In our survey, students who identified as queer or as gay or lesbian were, in general, more out to both peers and school staff than students of other sexual orientations (see Figure 3.1).[233]

LGBTQ+ students in our sample were not only navigating their sexual orientation identity; many were also developing their non-cisgender gender identities. It is important to reiterate that sexual orientation identity and gender identity are not wholly independent among LGBTQ+ youth with regard to peer victimization and issues related to school climate, and prior research has shown that transgender and nonbinary students are more likely to have negative school experiences than cisgender students.[234] In our survey, pansexual, queer, and asexual students were less likely to be cisgender—they were more likely to identify as transgender, genderqueer, nonbinary, or another non-cisgender identity than were gay and lesbian, bisexual, and questioning students.[235] A majority of pansexual (72.0%), queer (71.6%), and asexual (67.9%) students did not identity as cisgender. Among questioning students, 50.5% identified as something other than cisgender. Alternatively, gay and lesbian and bisexual students were more likely to identify as cisgender than were pansexual and questioning students[236], and 43.7% of gay and lesbian students and 42.4% of bisexual students identified as such.

We examined differences in school climate and students' school experiences across sexual orientation groups—gay and lesbian students, bisexual students, pansexual students, queer students, asexual students, and students questioning their sexual orientation ("questioning").[237] Because of the differences in age, outness to peers and adults in school, and gender identity discussed above, and the fact that they contribute to students' school experiences, in the following analyses we controlled for all these characteristics.

Figure 3.1 Outness in School by Sexual Orientation
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Out to Peers and to School Staff)



Feelings of Safety at School

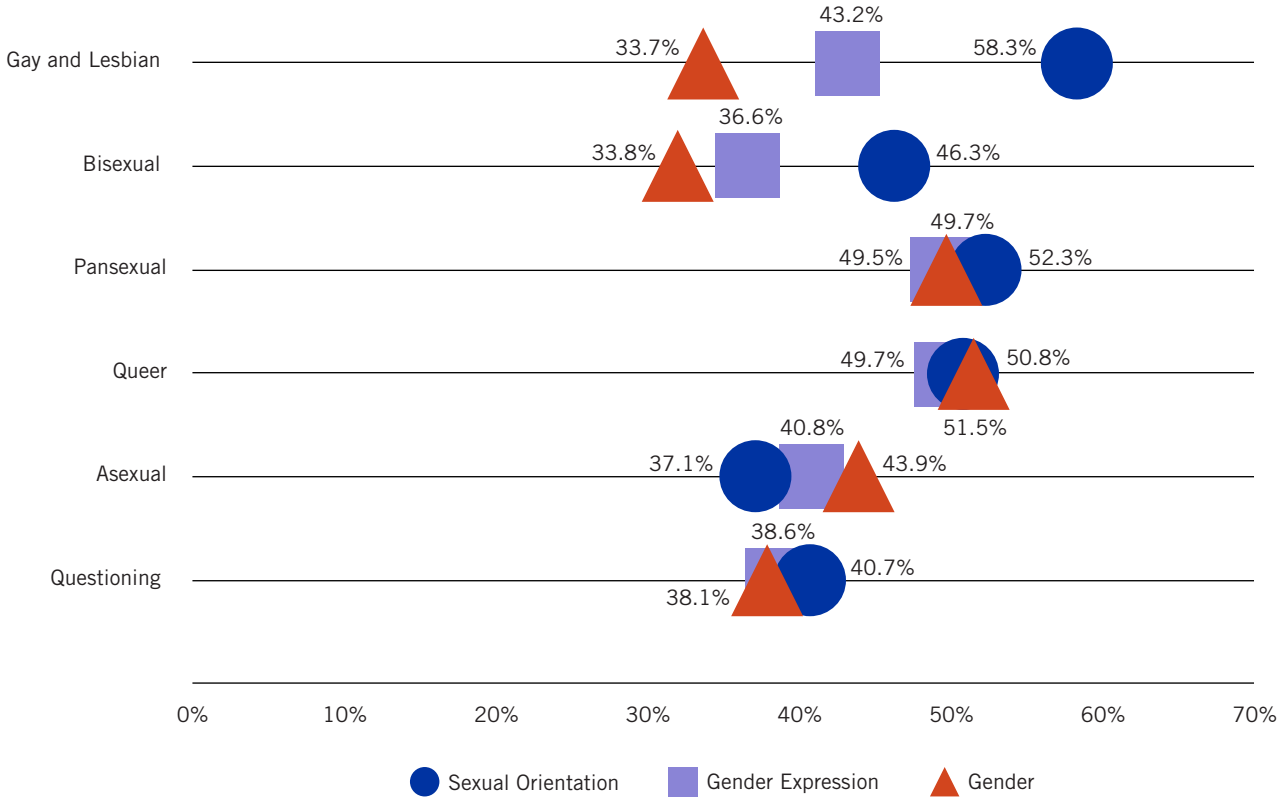
Feelings of safety at school differed significantly by sexual orientation.[238] Gay and lesbian students were the most likely to feel unsafe due to their sexual orientation and asexual students were the least likely, with the exception that asexual students were not different from questioning students (see Figure 3.2). Queer and pansexual students were more likely than many of their peers to feel unsafe due to both their gender expression and gender, when compared to students of other orientations (see also Figure 3.2).

Victimization

LGBTQ+ students' experiences of **in-school victimization** differed based on their sexual orientation (see Figure 3.3 and 3.4):[239]

- The majority experienced **in-person harassment or assault based on sexual orientation** across most sexual orientation groups, among those who were in school in-person at some point in the academic year, except for asexual and questioning students (see Figure 3.3). The highest levels were among pansexual and gay and lesbian students (69.0% and 65.4%, respectively).
- The majority of students in all sexual orientation groups experienced **in-person harassment or assault based on gender expression** in the past year, and pansexual students reported the highest levels of this victimization compared to all other groups (see also Figure 3.3).
- The majority of students in all sexual orientation groups experienced **in-person victimization based on gender** in the past year, with the exception of gay and lesbian students (see also Figure 3.3). Again, pansexual students reported the highest levels of this form of victimization compared to all other groups.
- Regarding **sexual harassment**, we found that pansexual students reported a higher incidence and asexual students reported a lower incidence than most other students (see Figure 3.4).[240]

Figure 3.2 Feelings of Safety at School by Sexual Orientation
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Who Felt Unsafe Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, and Gender)



LGBTQ+ students' experiences of **online harassment** also differed based on their sexual orientation (see Figure 3.5):[241]

- Gay and lesbian and pansexual students had the highest levels of **online harassment based on sexual orientation** across most sexual orientation groups, among those who were in online learning environments at some point in the academic year.
- Pansexual students had the highest levels of **online harassment based on gender expression** across most sexual orientation groups, among those who were in online learning environments at some point in the academic year.
- Pansexual students also had the highest levels of **online harassment based on gender** across most sexual orientation groups, among those who were in online learning environments at some point in the academic year.

Figure 3.3 In-Person Victimization at School by Sexual Orientation
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Who Experienced Any Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, and Gender)

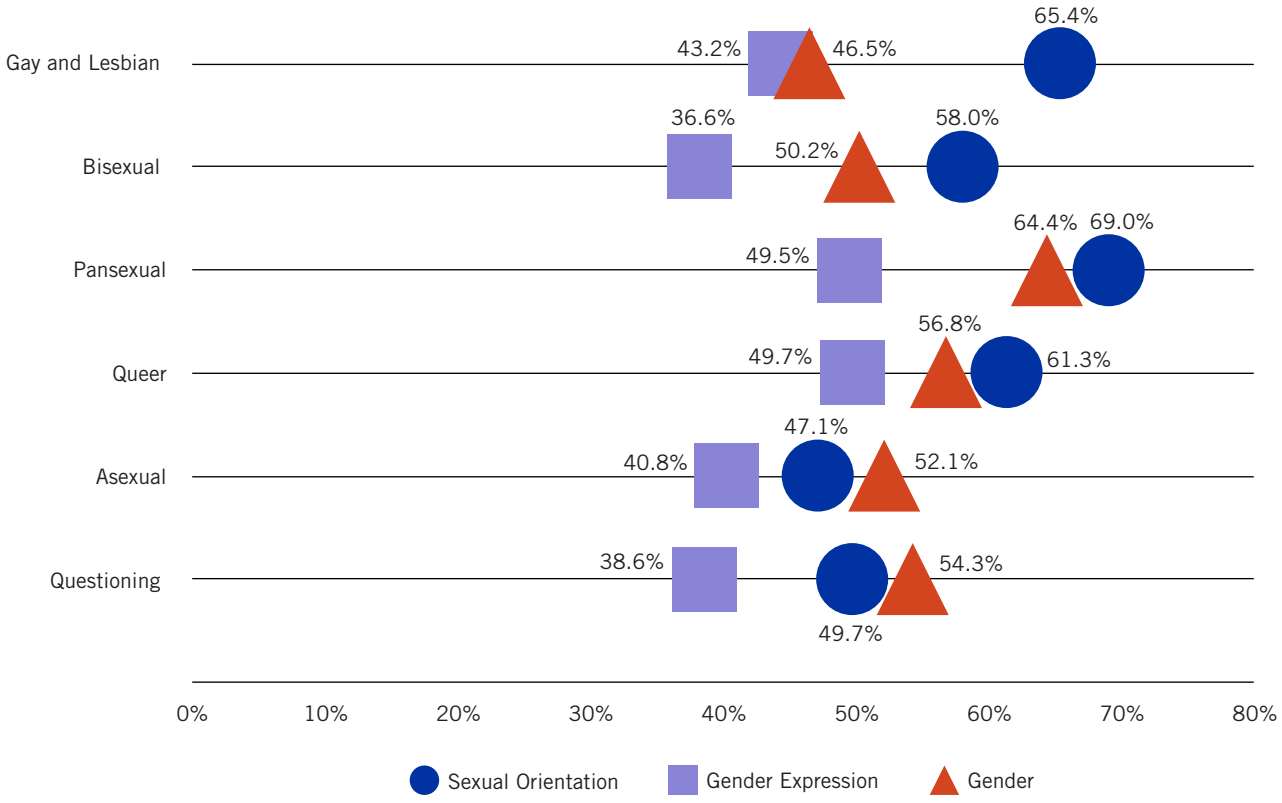
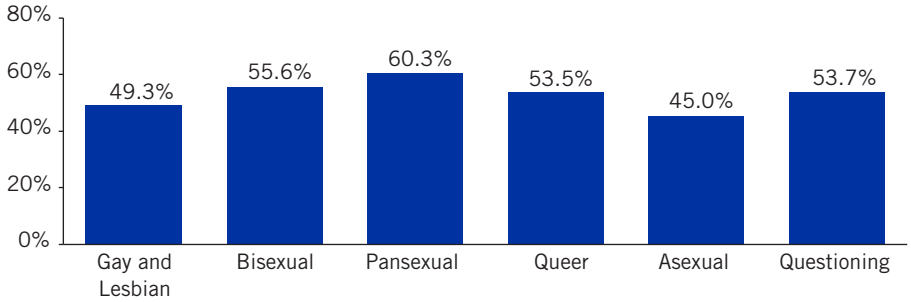


Figure 3.4 Experiences of Sexual Harassment by Sexual Orientation
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced Any Sexual Harassment)



Discriminatory Policies and Practices

Experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination through school policies and practices also varied based on students' sexual orientation.[242] Pansexual students were more likely to report experiencing some form of discrimination at school than all other students (see Figure 3.6). For example, over two-thirds of pansexual students (68.4%) experienced discriminatory policies and practices, compared to approximately half of bisexual and questioning students (54.8% and 55.0%, respectively).

Discipline

A growing field of research on school discipline has suggested that LGBTQ+ students may be at a higher risk of experiencing school discipline than their non-LGBTQ+ peers,[243] but most of these studies have not examined sexual orientation

Figure 3.5 Online Victimization at School by Sexual Orientation
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Who Experienced Any Online Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, and Gender)

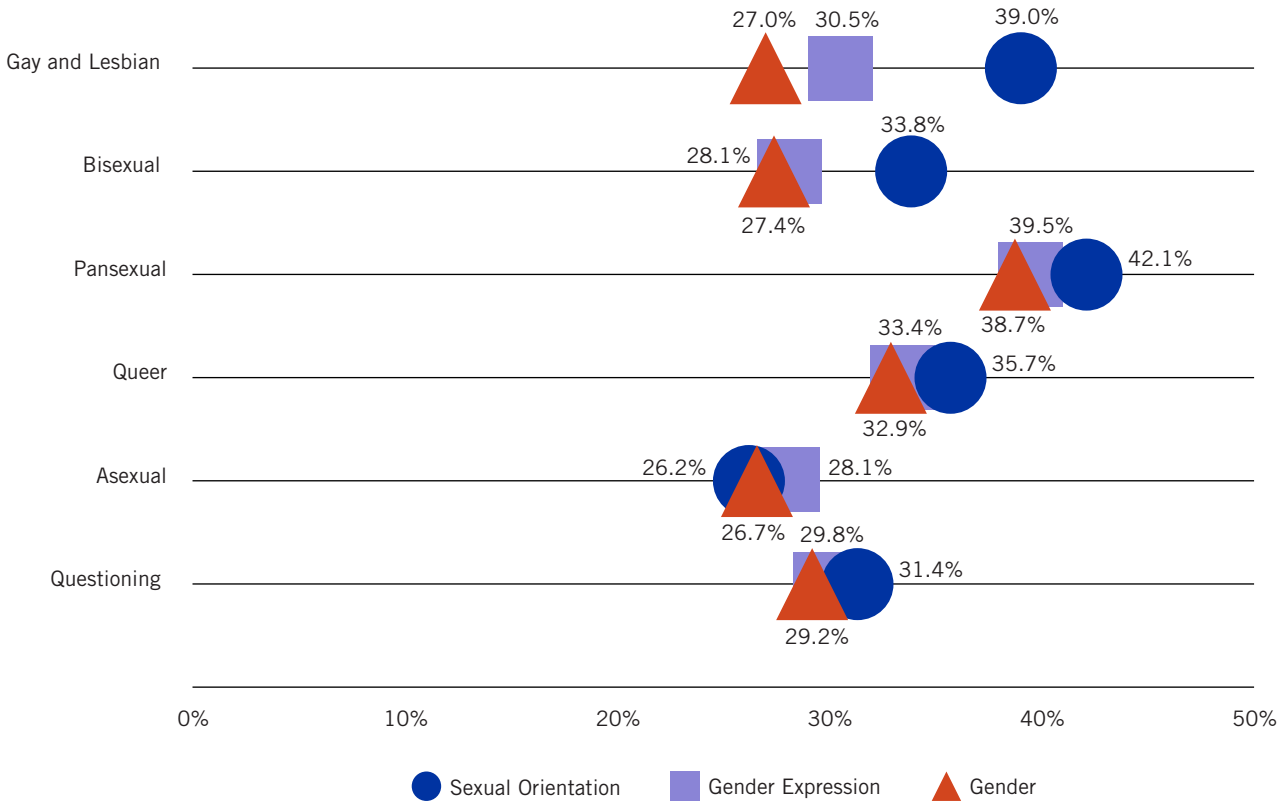
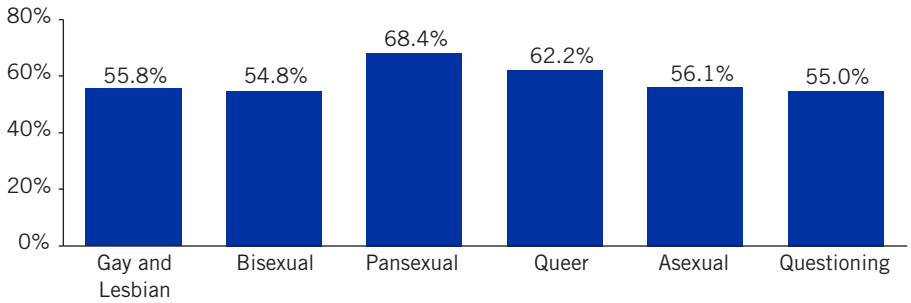


Figure 3.6 Experiences of Discrimination by Sexual Orientation
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced Anti-LGBTQ+ Discriminatory Policies and Practices)



differences within the LGBTQ+ population, perhaps because of small sample sizes of LGBTQ+ students. Thus, we examined differences in having experienced any form of school discipline. As shown in Figure 3.7, pansexual students reported higher rates of discipline than gay and lesbian, queer and asexual students, and bisexual students reported more discipline than asexual students.[244]

Educational Attachment and Aspirations

Experiencing victimization, discrimination, and disproportionate rates of discipline all serve to make schools less safe and welcoming for students, which could influence students' desire to attend school. Given the earlier finding that pansexual students experienced higher rates of victimization, it is not surprising that pansexual students were more likely than gay and lesbian, bisexual, and queer students to report having missed school because they felt unsafe (see Figure 3.8).[245] For example, 39.9% of pansexual students reported missing school in the past month due to safety concerns, compared to slightly less than a third of gay and lesbian (30.7%), bisexual (29.8%), and asexual (28.0%) students. With regard to educational aspirations, pansexual students were less likely to plan on pursuing post-secondary education than queer or bisexual students (see Figure 3.9).[246] With regard to educational attachment, pansexual students reported lower rates of school belonging than many of their peers of other sexual orientations (see also Figure 3.9).

Figure 3.7 School Discipline by Sexual Orientation
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced School Discipline)

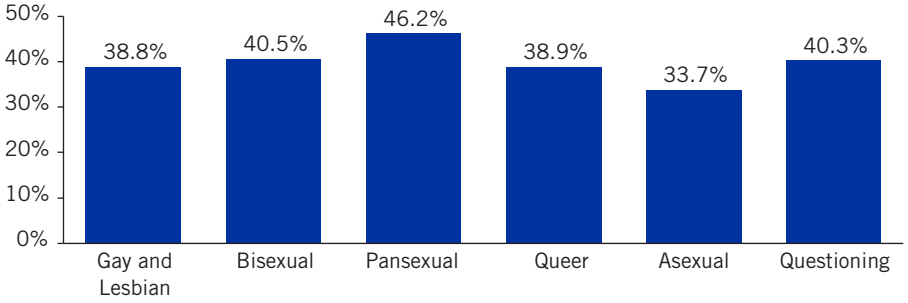


Figure 3.8. Missing School Due to Safety Concerns
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ students missing at least one day of school in the past month)

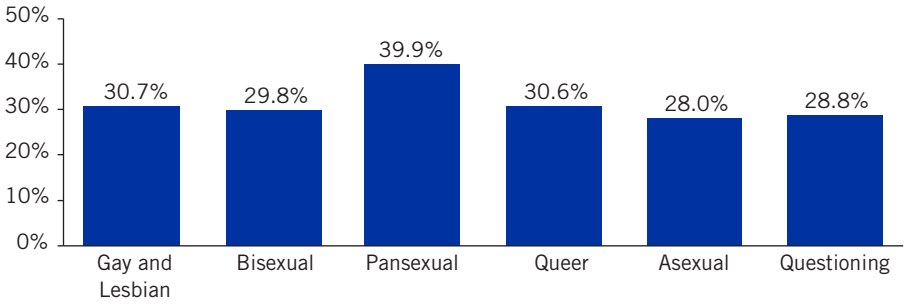
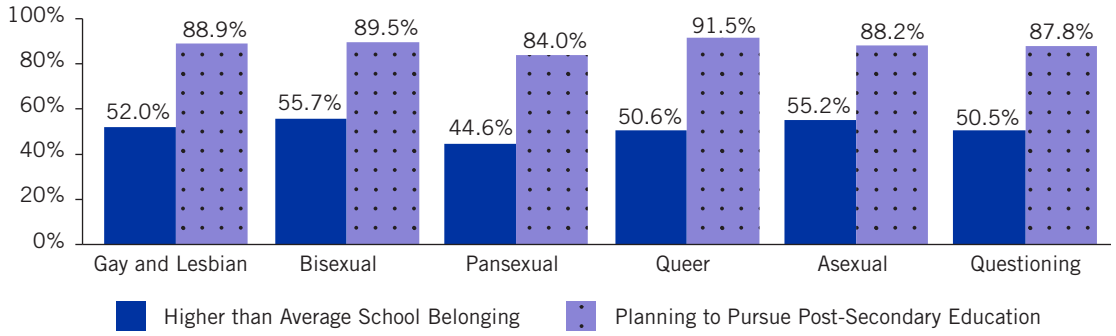


Figure 3.9 Educational Attachment and Aspirations by Sexual Orientation
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students with Higher-Than-Average School Belonging and of Those Planning to Pursue Any Post-Secondary Education)



Conclusions

Overall, our results indicate that pansexual students reported the most negative school experiences in comparison to students of other sexual orientations. Pansexual students experienced higher levels of sexual harassment, victimization based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender identity, and victimization based on gender than students of many other sexual orientations. Pansexual students also experienced more discriminatory policies and practices. Additionally, pansexual students missed more school due to feeling unsafe, changed schools more often, and had lower educational aspirations than LGBTQ+ peers of many other sexual orientations.

Further research is clearly warranted to understand why pansexual students appear to face more hostile school climates than other students. This research should examine factors related to a student's decision to adopt particular sexual identity labels (i.e., why a student who is attracted to people of multiple genders may identify as pansexual as opposed to queer or bisexual) to better understand these different sexual orientation groups.

These findings reveal a complex picture regarding differences among LGBTQ+ students by sexual orientation. Asexual students, for example, were similar to students of other sexual orientations on most of the school climate indicators, except for that they reported a lower incidence of sexual harassment that most, and experienced less victimization based on sexual orientation than gay or lesbian and pansexual students. Bisexual students experienced less victimization based on sexual orientation than gay and lesbian students, but more sexual harassment than their gay and lesbian peers. However, bisexual youth did not differ from gay and lesbian students with regard to victimization based on gender, discrimination, discipline, and missing school due to safety concerns. Yet research on adolescent health outcomes has demonstrated that bisexual youth are typically at higher risk than both heterosexual and lesbian/gay peers on suicidality, substance abuse, and intimate partner violence.[247] However, most of the aforementioned research combines sexual orientations that are attracted to more than one gender, such as bisexual, pansexual, and queer, and does not allow a distinction for the differences among these identities. The findings of such previous research may actually be reflecting the negative experiences of pansexual youth, and not necessarily the experiences of youth who identify specifically as bisexual and not pansexual. More research is needed to better understand the complex role sexual identity plays in the experiences of adolescents' lives both in and out of school.

SCHOOL CLIMATE AND GENDER

We also examined potential differences in LGBTQ+ students' experiences of safety, victimization, and discrimination by gender identity.[248] Furthermore, we examined school engagement, specifically absenteeism for safety reasons, feelings of school belonging, changing schools for safety reasons, and dropping out. Given the growing attention to inequities in administration of school discipline and some previous research indicating that transgender and nonbinary students are more likely to face disciplinary consequences at school,[249] we also examined gender differences in rates of school discipline.

We examine specifically the differences between and among cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning students.

- Cisgender students are those who identify as male or female, and whose gender aligns with their sex assigned at birth.

- Transgender and nonbinary students are those whose gender does not align with their sex assigned at birth. Transgender students in our sample fell into four different categories: 1) transgender boys, i.e., those who identified as transgender and male, 2) transgender girls, i.e., those who identified as transgender and female, 3) transgender nonbinary students, i.e., those who identified as transgender and nonbinary in some way (i.e., nonbinary, genderqueer, agender), and 4) transgender only, i.e., those who identified only as transgender and no other gender identity.

- Nonbinary students were those who endorsed a nonbinary identity but did not also identify as transgender. This group, for which we use the umbrella term "nonbinary" to refer to, included 1) "nonbinary/genderqueer" students who identified only as "nonbinary" or "genderqueer," 2) "other nonbinary" students who wrote in identities outside the gender binary, such as "bigender," "agender," or "genderfluid," and 3) nonbinary students who identified as male or female, but not cisgender and not transgender (referred to here as "nonbinary male/female").

- Questioning students did not identify with any other gender category and indicated that they were questioning their gender identity.

Across all gender groups, students commonly reported feeling unsafe, experiencing high frequencies of harassment or assault, and facing discrimination at school related to their gender, gender expression, and sexual orientation. Furthermore, a sizable number of LGBTQ+ students across gender groups reported missing school and, to a lesser extent, changing schools because of safety concerns. In addition, LGBTQ+ students of all gender identities reported having been disciplined at school. However, there were some significant differences among gender groups in all of these areas. In this section, we discuss the differences in school experiences across the broader gender categories of transgender, nonbinary, cisgender, and examine the differences within each of these four categories. Among transgender students, we examine the differences between transgender boys, transgender girls, transgender nonbinary students, and transgender only students. Next, we examine differences among nonbinary students, including nonbinary/genderqueer students, other nonbinary students, and nonbinary male/female students. Finally, we compare cisgender boys and cisgender girls.

Safety and Victimization

Transgender students were most likely to feel unsafe at school because of their gender and gender expression than all other students, and nonbinary students were more likely to feel unsafe for these reasons than were questioning and cisgender students (see Figure 3.10).[250] With regard to both **in-person victimization and online harassment based on gender and gender expression**, transgender students also experienced higher rates than did students of all other gender identities, and nonbinary students experienced higher rates of such victimization than cisgender students and students questioning their gender identity (see Figures 3.11 and 3.12).[251] Further, questioning students were more likely to report feeling unsafe because of gender and gender expression than were cisgender students.

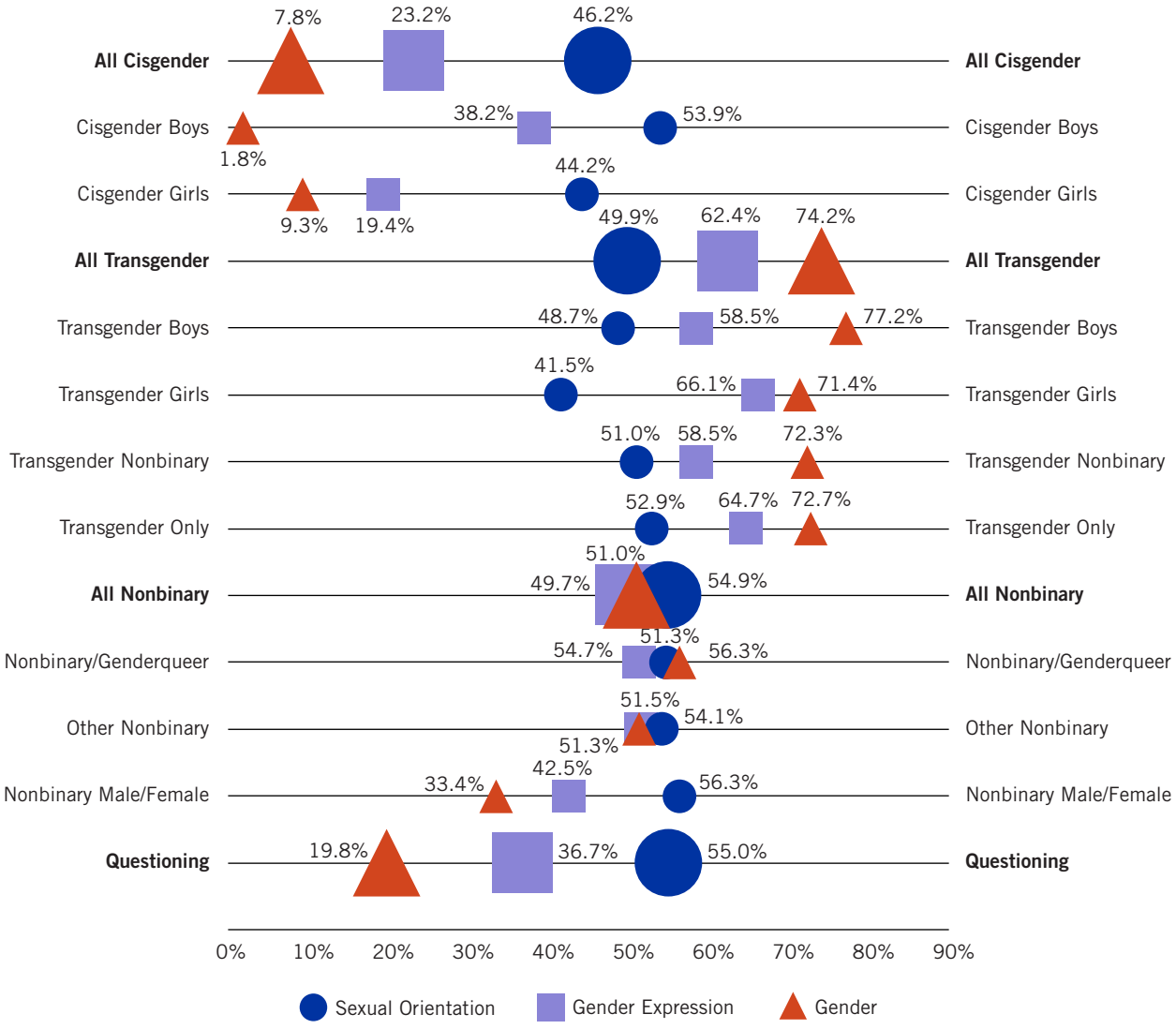
With regard to **in-person and online harassment based on sexual orientation**, nonbinary students experienced higher rates than did students of all other gender identities, and transgender students experienced higher rates of this victimization than cisgender students. Similarly, nonbinary students

reported the highest levels of feeling unsafe at school because of their sexual orientation, followed by transgender students. Cisgender students reported the lowest levels of feeling unsafe because of sexual orientation.

Differences Among Transgender Students. There were no differences among transgender students in feeling unsafe at school because of their sexual orientation. However, feelings of safety about gender and gender expression differed among transgender students—transgender nonbinary students were slightly less likely to feel unsafe at school because of their gender than were transgender boys (see Figure 3.10).[252] Further, transgender nonbinary students were less likely than transgender male students and transgender only students to feel unsafe at school because of their gender expression.[253]

With regard to **in-person victimization based on sexual orientation**, transgender only students reported higher rates than transgender nonbinary and transgender male students, but did not differ from transgender female students. Furthermore, there were no differences between transgender male and transgender female students regarding **in-person victimization based on sexual orientation** (see Figure 3.11).[254] Regarding **in-person victimization based on both gender and**

Figure 3.10 Feelings of Safety at School by Gender Identity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students who Felt Unsafe Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, and Gender)

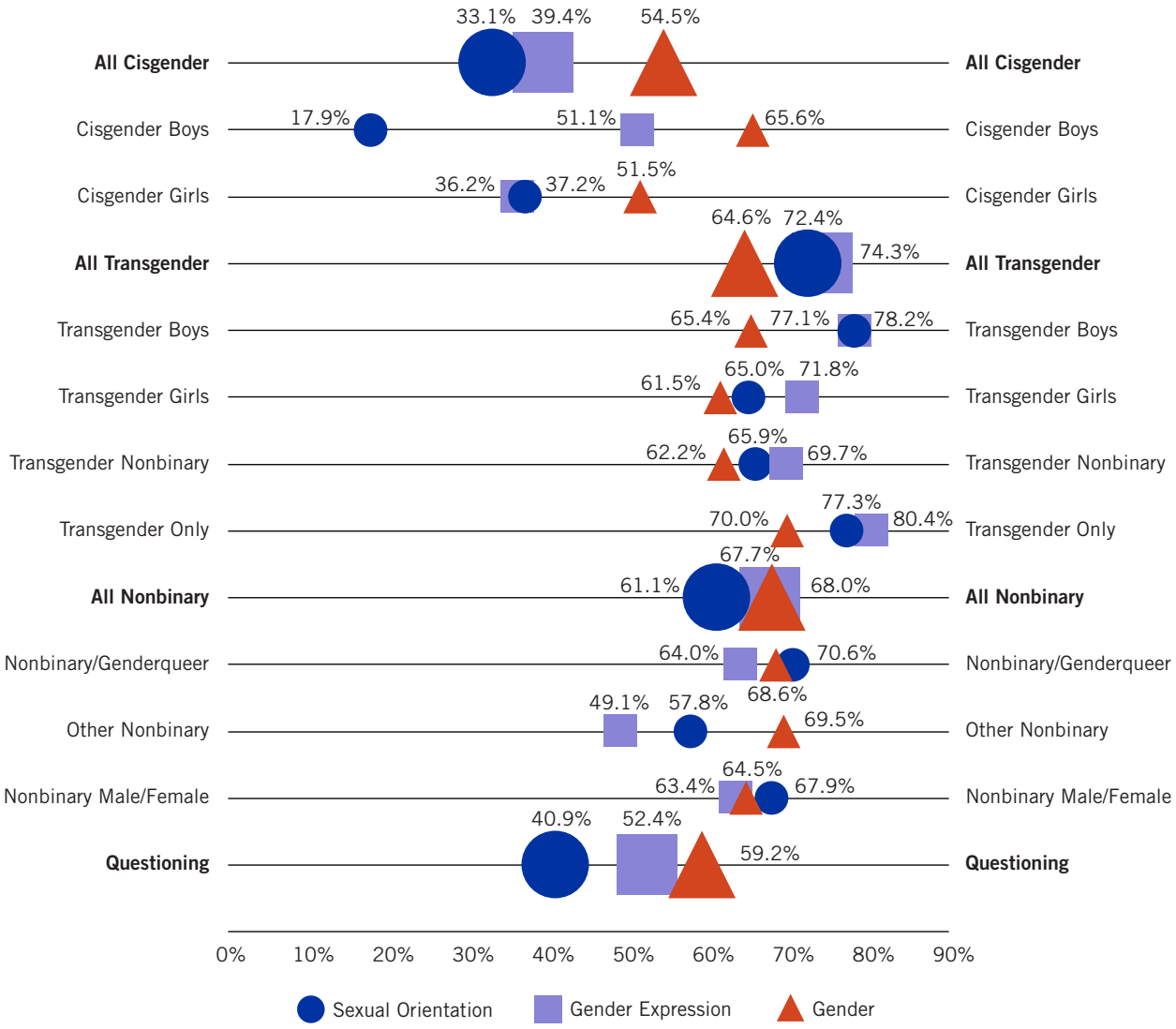


gender expression, transgender only students reported higher rates than transgender boys and transgender nonbinary students, but did not differ from transgender girls. Additionally, transgender female and transgender male students did not differ on **in-person victimization based on gender and gender expression**. However, transgender male students reported higher rates than did transgender nonbinary students (see also Figure 3.11).[255]

Differences among transgender students **regarding online harassment based on gender and gender expression** were similar to those found regarding in-person victimization (see Figure 3.12). Transgender nonbinary students experienced lower levels of **online harassment based on gender and gender expression** than did transgender boys and transgender only students.[256] With regard to **online harassment based on sexual orientation**, the only significant difference among transgender students was that transgender only students experienced higher rates of such harassment than transgender nonbinary students.[257]

Differences Among Nonbinary Students. Similar to what we found among transgender students, nonbinary students reported similar rates of feeling unsafe at school because of their sexual orientation.[258] However, with regard to feeling unsafe because of gender and gender expression, nonbinary

Figure 3.11 In-Person Victimization at School by Gender Identity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced Any In-Person Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, and Gender)

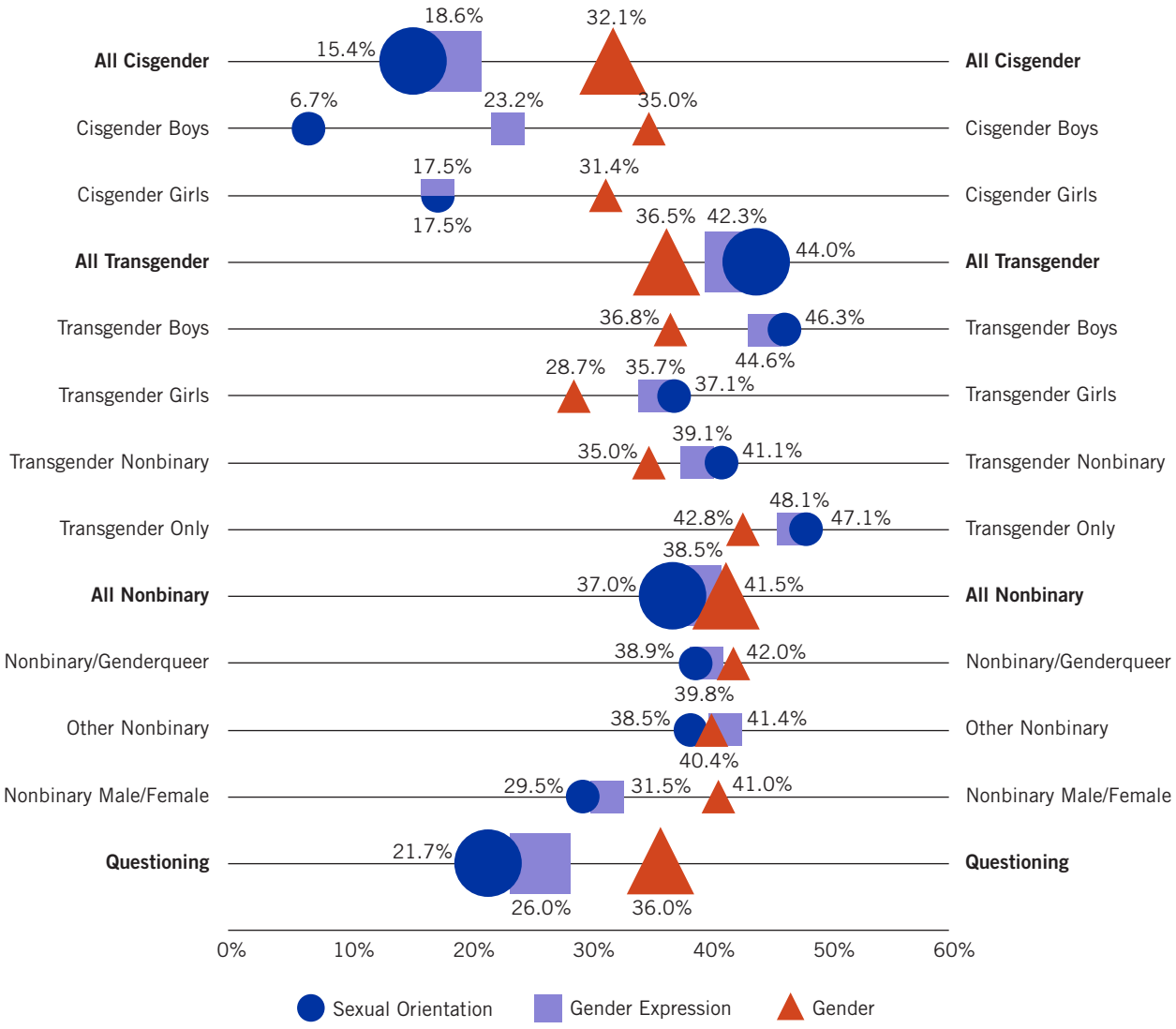


male and female students reported lower rates than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary students.[259] Further, nonbinary/genderqueer students felt more unsafe at school because of gender than did other nonbinary students.

Overall, nonbinary students experienced similar rates of **in-person victimization and online harassment based on sexual orientation**.[260] However, there were differences in experiences **of in-person victimization and online harassment based on gender and gender expression**. Nonbinary male and female students reported lower rates than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary students for **in-person victimization and online harassment based on both gender expression and gender**.[261] In addition, nonbinary/genderqueer students reported higher rates of **online harassment based on gender** than nonbinary male and female students.

Differences Among Cisgender Students. Compared to cisgender girls, cisgender boys felt more unsafe at school because of sexual orientation and gender expression[262] and experienced more in-person victimization based on sexual orientation and gender expression.[263] However, cisgender girls felt more unsafe at school because of their gender and experienced higher rates of **gender-based in-person victimization**. Cisgender girls also reported higher rates of **online harassment based on gender and**

Figure 3.12 Online Victimization by Gender Identity
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced Any Online Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, and Gender)



gender expression, but cisgender boys and girls experienced similar rates of **online harassment based on sexual orientation**.[264]

Avoiding School Spaces

As shown in the *Part 1, School Safety* section, sizable percentages of LGBTQ+ students avoided spaces at school because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, most notably spaces that are traditionally segregated by sex, such as bathrooms and locker rooms, or spaces where activities that segregate by sex take place, such as athletic fields or facilities. Overall, transgender and nonbinary students were more likely than cisgender students to avoid any spaces at school.[265] For transgender and nonbinary youth, sex-segregated spaces at school may be particularly challenging. Transgender boys and girls may be prevented access to the space that aligns with their gender identity and may feel unsafe in the space they are allowed to access, as it aligns with their sex assigned at birth instead of their gender. Nonbinary youth may feel unsafe in any space segregated by sex, as neither aligns with their gender.[266] For these reasons, we examined whether transgender and nonbinary students were more likely to avoid gendered spaces because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable, specifically school bathrooms, locker rooms, Gym/Physical Education (PE) class, and athletic fields or facilities.[267] As shown in Figure 3.13, transgender students were more likely than all other students, and nonbinary students were more likely than cisgender students, to avoid these spaces. Compared to cisgender students, questioning students were more likely to avoid locker rooms, Gym/PE, and sports and athletic fields or facilities.

Differences Among Transgender Students. Transgender students differed in their avoidance of gendered school spaces. Transgender nonbinary students were less likely to avoid bathrooms than were all other transgender students. Further, transgender boys were more likely to avoid these spaces than transgender only students, but there was no difference between transgender boys and transgender girls. Regarding locker rooms, transgender boys and transgender girls were more likely to avoid these spaces than were transgender nonbinary students as seen in Figure 3.13. Finally, transgender nonbinary students were also less likely than transgender boys to avoid Gym/PE class.[268]

Transgender students also avoided certain non-gendered school spaces at different rates. Specifically, transgender girls avoided the cafeteria less than transgender male and transgender only students.[269] Additionally, transgender girls and transgender nonbinary students were less likely to avoid certain classrooms (other than PE/Gym class) than were transgender only students.[270]

Differences Among Nonbinary Students. Nonbinary male and female students were less likely to avoid gendered spaces, including bathrooms, locker rooms, and Gym/PE classes than nonbinary/genderqueer students.[271] Other nonbinary students were also more likely to avoid bathrooms than were male and female nonbinary students. In addition, other nonbinary students also avoided cafeterias more than nonbinary/genderqueer students.

Differences Among Cisgender Students. Cisgender boys and girls differed in avoiding spaces for safety reasons. Cisgender girls were more likely than cisgender boys to avoid spaces that were not gendered, including cafeterias, hallways, buses, and classrooms (not including Gym/PE).[272] However, cisgender boys were more likely to avoid gendered spaces including bathrooms, locker rooms, and athletics fields and facilities.[273]

Educational Attachment and Aspirations

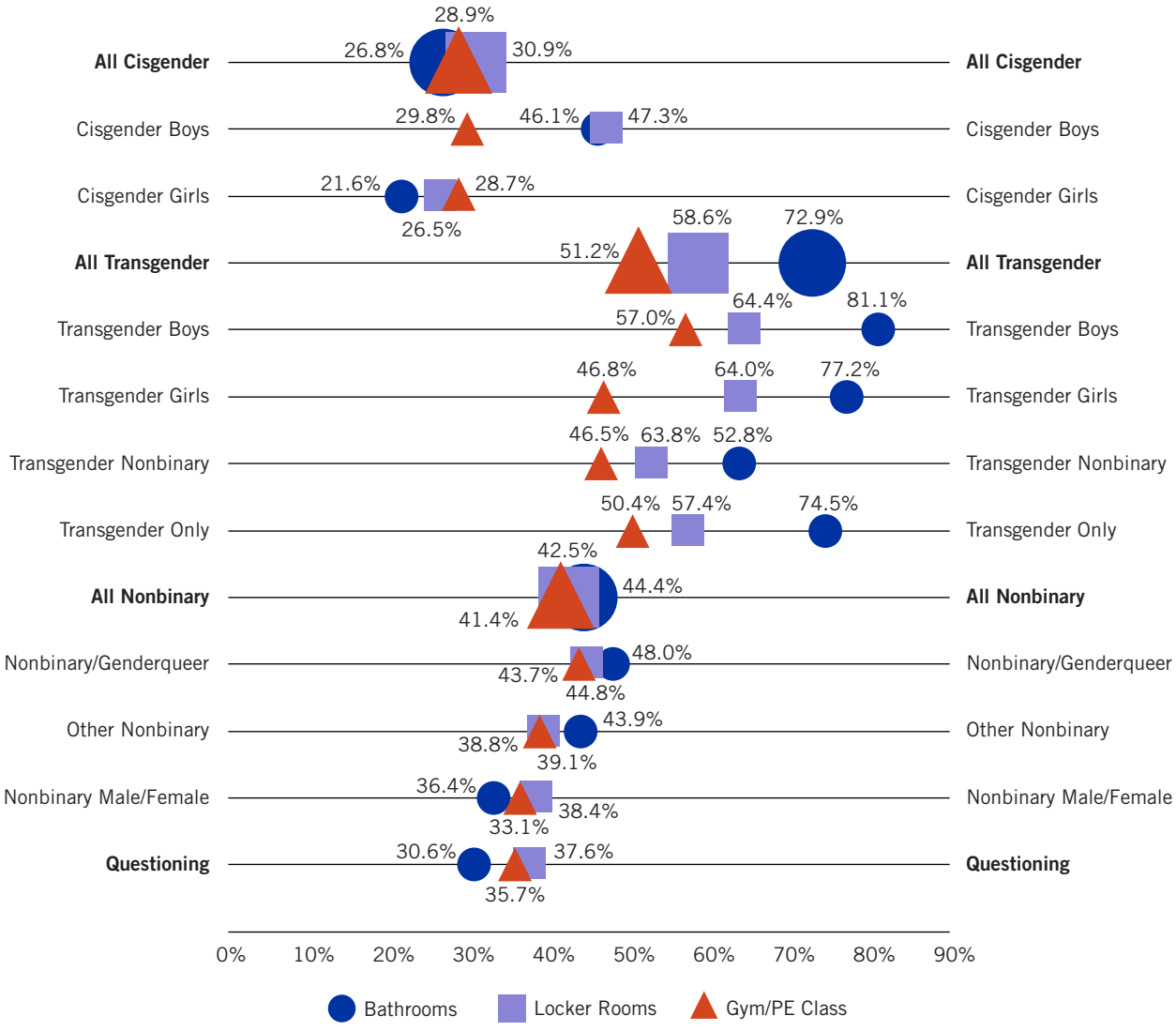
A hostile school climate can affect students' feelings of school belonging, result in students avoiding school altogether, and hinder students' overall educational experience. We found that transgender students were less likely than other students to feel connected to their school, i.e., reported lower levels of school belonging, followed by nonbinary students. Cisgender students reported higher levels of school belonging than all other students.[274] Transgender and nonbinary students were more likely than cisgender and questioning students to report missing school because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (see Figure 3.14), and to report having changed schools because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable.[275] Although cisgender and questioning students did not differ in rates of changing schools, questioning students were more likely to have missed school because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable than cisgender students. Regarding educational aspirations, transgender students reported the lowest levels, followed by nonbinary students.[276] For example, 83.8% of transgender and 86.8% of nonbinary students

planned to pursue education beyond high school compared to 92.2% of cisgender and 91.4% of questioning students.

Differences Among Transgender Students. Feelings of school connectedness differed among transgender students—transgender boys and transgender nonbinary students reported lower levels of school belonging than did transgender girls and transgender nonbinary students.[277] Transgender only students and transgender boys were also more likely than transgender nonbinary students and transgender girls to have missed school because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable (see Figure 3.9).[278] Further, transgender boys were more likely to change schools for safety reasons than were transgender girls and transgender nonbinary students (see also Figure 3.14).[279] Finally, transgender boys and transgender only students reported lower educational aspirations than transgender nonbinary students, and transgender boys had lower aspirations than did transgender girls.[280]

Differences Among Nonbinary Students. Although nonbinary male and female students and other nonbinary students reported similar levels of school belonging, nonbinary/genderqueer students felt less connected to their school than all other groups of nonbinary students.[281] Nonbinary/genderqueer students also reported lower educational aspirations than did nonbinary male and female students.[282] However, nonbinary students did not differ from one another in how often they missed

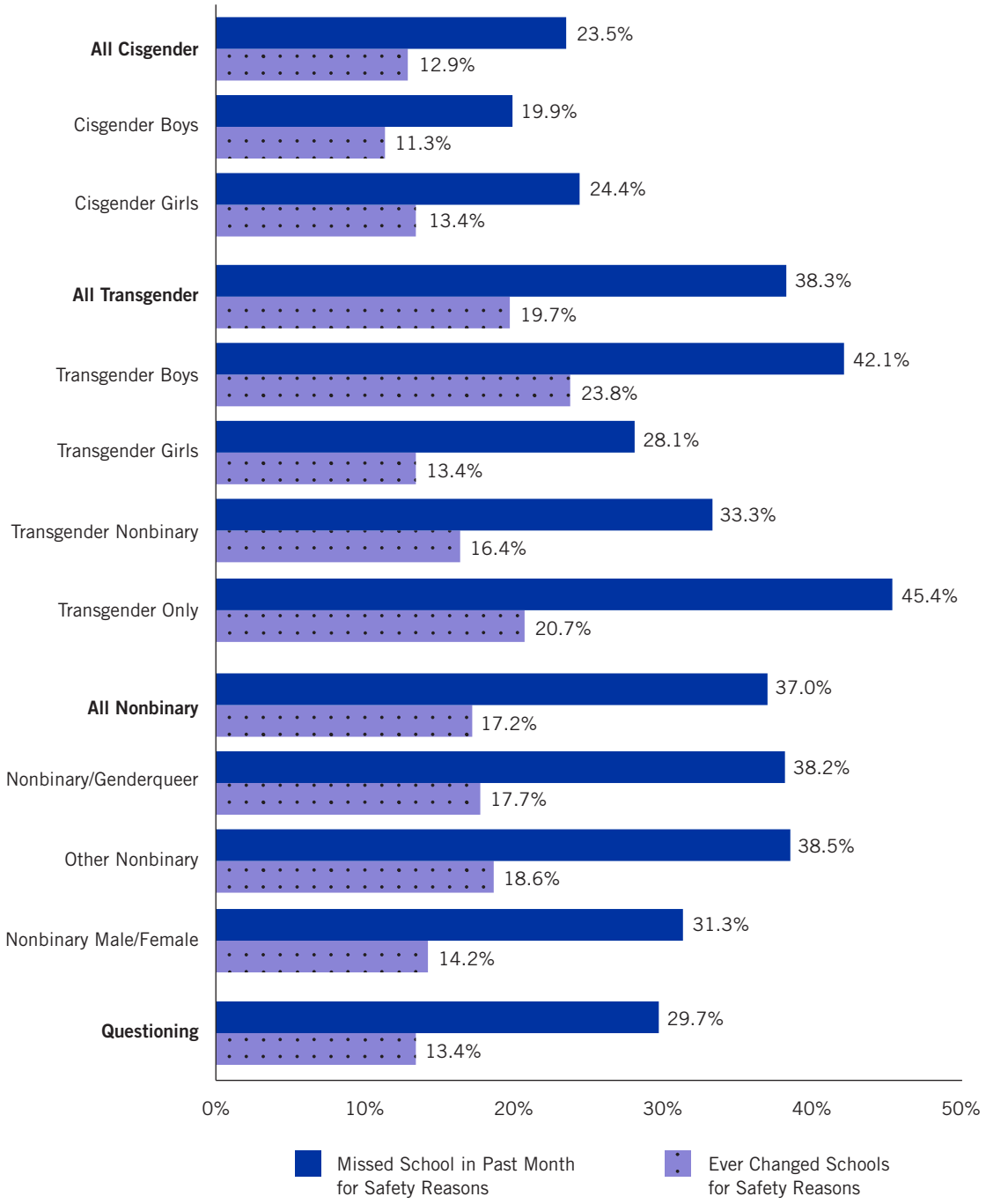
Figure 3.13 Avoiding Spaces at School by Gender Identity
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Avoided Spaces at School for Safety Reasons)



or skipped school because they felt unsafe, or in having had to change schools due to safety reasons.[283]

Differences Among Cisgender Students. Overall, cisgender girls reported lower levels of educational attachment than cisgender boys. Cisgender girls reported lower levels of school belonging[284] and were more likely to miss school because they felt unsafe than cisgender boys, but the two groups did not differ on having had to change schools for safety reasons.[285]

Figure 3.14 Missing or Changing Schools Due to Safety Concerns by Gender Identity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students who Missed Any Days of School in the Past Month and Ever Changed Schools for Safety Reasons)



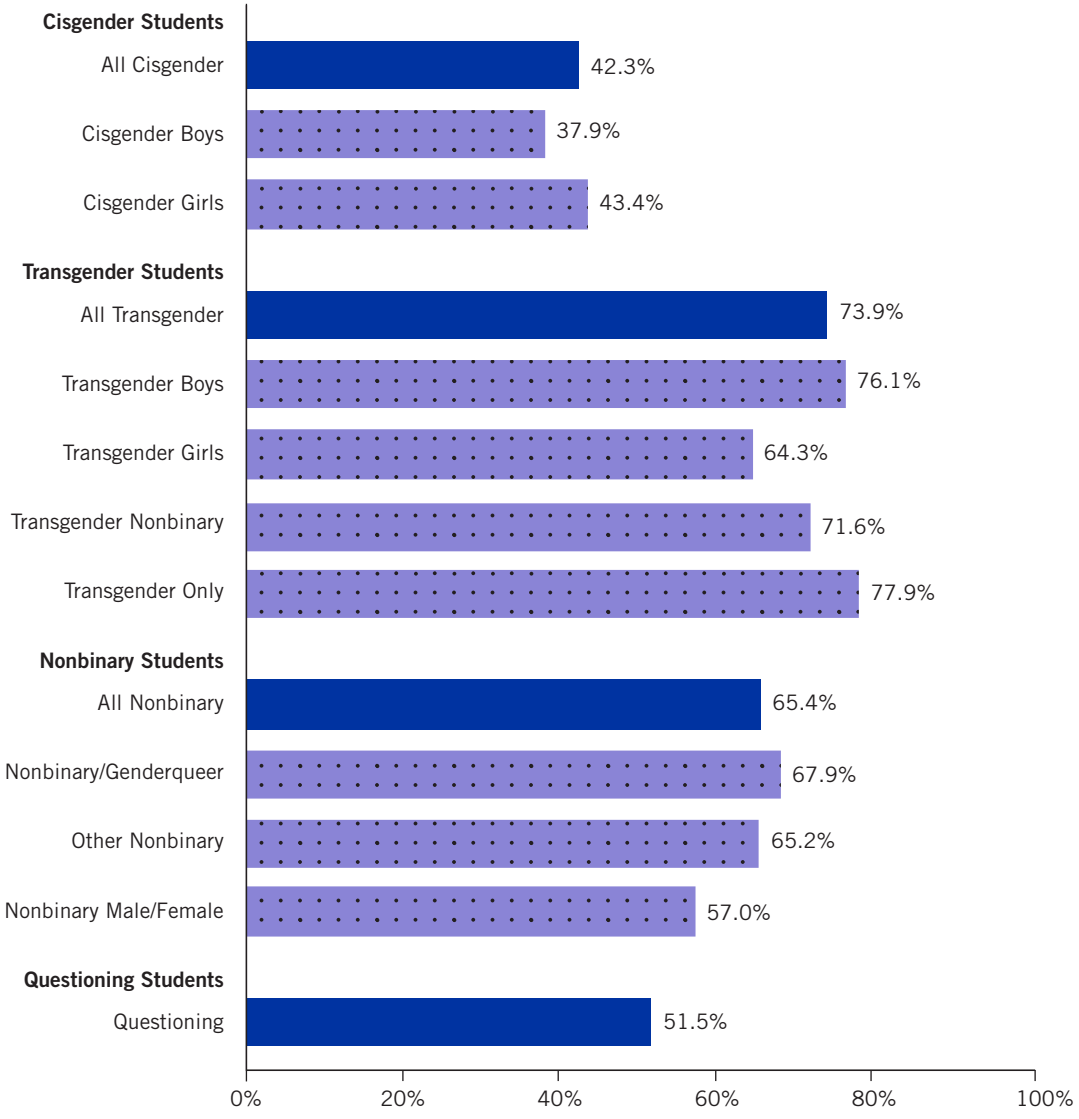
Discriminatory Policies and Practices

As shown in Figure 3.15, transgender students were more likely, overall, to report incidences with discriminatory policies and practices[286]—77.9% of transgender students reported having been discriminated against compared to 57.0% of nonbinary students, 43.4% of cisgender students, and 51.5% of questioning students. Nonbinary students were more likely than cisgender and questioning students to report experiencing discriminatory policies and practices, and questioning students reported experiencing any such policies and practices more than cisgender students.[287]

Certain forms of discrimination are more specific to the experiences of transgender and nonbinary students, such as being prevented from using the bathroom consistent with one's gender identity. Thus, it is not surprising that transgender and nonbinary students were more likely to report these forms of discrimination than were cisgender students.[288] Compared to cisgender and questioning students, as shown in Table 3.1, transgender and nonbinary students were:

- More likely to be required to use the bathroom of their sex assigned at birth;

Figure 3.15 Experiences of School Discipline by Gender Identity
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced School Discipline)



- More likely to be required to use the locker room of their sex assigned at birth;
- More likely to be prevented from playing on the school sports team that is consistent with their gender;
- More likely to be prevented from using their chosen name and pronouns; and
- More likely to be prevented from wearing clothing deemed "inappropriate" based on gender .

As seen in Table 3.1, transgender students also reported more instances of being required to use the bathroom and locker room of their legal sex, being prevented from playing on the sports team that aligns with their gender identity, and being prevented from using their chosen name and pronouns than nonbinary students.[289] However, transgender and nonbinary students reported similar rates of being prevented from wearing clothing deemed "inappropriate" based on gender. Further, questioning students were more likely to have experienced name and pronouns-based discrimination than cisgender students.

In addition to the specific types of gender-related discrimination noted above, transgender and nonbinary students were also more likely than cisgender LGBQ students to experience all forms of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination, including broader forms of LGBTQ+ discrimination, such as being prevented from addressing LGBTQ+ topics in class assignments and being unfairly disciplined for identifying as LGBTQ+.[290] Among LGBTQ+ students, it may be that transgender and nonbinary students are generally more targeted for discipline because they are more visible and/or more stigmatized than their peers. Further research is needed to explore these disparities and the factors that determine which students are most often targeted by discriminatory policies and practices.

Differences Among Transgender Students. When considering overall experiences with anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices, transgender girls and transgender nonbinary students were less likely to have experienced discriminatory policies and practices than transgender only students.[291] Additionally, transgender boys experienced more discrimination than transgender girls. Further, there were significant differences across transgender students when specifically examining gender-specific discriminatory policies and practices:

- Regarding being prevented from playing on a sports team consistent with one's

Table 3.1 Gender-Related Discrimination by Gender Identity

	Bathrooms	Locker Rooms	Names/ Pronouns	Gendered Clothing	Sports Team
All Cisgender Students	**14.7%**	**14.8%**	**14.4%**	**22.8%**	**12.8%**
Cisgender Male	10.7%	11.0%	8.2%	26.6%	9.9%
Cisgender Female	15.3%	15.4%	15.5%	21.7%	13.2%
All Transgender	**67.7%**	**71.3%**	**53.4%**	**27.5%**	**46.0%**
Transgender Male	68.7%	75.0%	50.9%	25.7%	51.5%
Transgender Female	61.2%	67.2%	44.9%	35.8%	45.9%
Transgender Nonbinary	64.8%	65.5%	55.9%	26.0%	37.1%
Transgender Only	74.0%	75.6%	56.7%	33.0%	53.2%
All Nonbinary	**44.8%**	**42.7%**	**48.7%**	**31.9%**	**27.7%**
Nonbinary/Genderqueer	49.6%	47.2%	52.6%	32.5%	29.7%
Other Nonbinary	46.6%	45.4%	47.8%	32.7%	28.4%
Nonbinary Male/Female	25.7%	24.4%	25.6%	28.9%	20.3%
Questioning	**23.5%**	**23.5%**	**29.1%**	**27.3%**	**18.1%**

gender, transgender boys and transgender only students experienced this kind of discrimination more than transgender nonbinary students. There was no difference between transgender girls and transgender boys in gender-based sports discrimination.[292]

- Regarding being prevented from using the bathroom and locker room that align with their gender, transgender only students and transgender boys were more likely to report these forms of discrimination than were transgender nonbinary students (see Table 3.1).[293]

There were, however, no differences across transgender students in the rates of being prevented from using ones name and pronouns.[294]

Differences Among Nonbinary Students. Nonbinary/genderqueer students were more likely than male and female nonbinary students to report any experiences with discriminatory policies and practices.[295] Specifically, compared to male and female nonbinary students, they experienced higher rates of being prevented from using their names and pronouns, using the bathroom and locker room that align with their gender identity, and joining the sports team that aligns with their gender identity.[296] Nonbinary/genderqueer students were also more likely than other nonbinary students to report being prevented from using their names and pronouns.

Differences Among Cisgender Students. Overall, cisgender girls were more likely to report having experienced any discriminatory policies or practices at school than were cisgender boys.[297] Regarding gender-based discrimination, cisgender boys were more likely to report being prevented from wearing clothing that was deemed inappropriate for their gender, and cisgender girls were more likely to report being prevented from using their chosen names or pronouns and using the locker room that aligns with their gender identity.[298]

Discipline

Experiencing more discriminatory policies and practices may in turn lead to higher rates of discipline among transgender and nonbinary students, as these students may face punishment or discipline for breaking school rules. Although there were no differences across genders in whether they had experienced any discipline overall,[299] there were some notable differences by gender in the specific types of discipline. Transgender and nonbinary students were more likely than cisgender students to have been sent to the principal's office, received detention, and been placed in a room, hallway, or another space in the school building alone.[300] Among students who attended school online at any point in the last year, transgender and nonbinary students were more likely to have had their participation in their online classroom restricted (for example, had their camera or mic turned off).[301] Additionally, cisgender students were less likely than nonbinary students to have been removed from their online classroom. When examining differences in experiencing discipline within our samples of transgender, nonbinary, and cisgender students, there were no differences, i.e., students of all transgender identities experience similar rates of discipline, as do all nonbinary and all cisgender students in our sample.[302]

Conclusions

Transgender students, in general, experienced the most hostile school climates compared to their peers. Among transgender students, transgender boys and transgender only students reported somewhat more negative school experiences than transgender nonbinary students and transgender girls. However, regarding certain indicators of school climate that we examined, transgender girls appeared to have more negative experiences than other transgender students, even though these differences were not statistically significant. Our sample included a small number of transgender girls, compared to other gender identities, and we may have been unable to detect statistically significant difference with this small of a sample. Further research is needed to better understand the experiences of transgender girls, and to further examine the differences in transgender girls' and boys' school experiences. Additionally, to date no research exists examining the experiences of youth who identify only as transgender. Considering these youth in general experienced the most hostile school climates, it is critical that future research work to better understand this population.

Nonbinary students who did not also identify as transgender had somewhat better school experiences than transgender-identified students. Among nonbinary students, those who identified as

nonbinary male or nonbinary female experienced less hostile climates than those who identified only as nonbinary or genderqueer and those with other nonbinary identities. Although nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary students were similar on many indicators of school climate, nonbinary/genderqueer youth faced more discrimination, felt less safe because of their gender, and had lower levels of school belonging. Further research is needed to examine the many different ways youth identify as nonbinary and better understand their experiences.

Although LGBQ cisgender students commonly faced hostile school climates, they generally experienced fewer negative experiences in school than did transgender students and nonbinary students. Among LGBQ cisgender students, we found that cisgender male students encountered a more hostile school climate regarding their gender expression and sexual orientation, whereas cisgender female students encountered a more hostile school climate with regard to their gender. Both the bias experienced by cisgender male students based on gender expression (i.e., stigmatizing boys who are perceived to be "feminine") and the bias experienced by cisgender female students based on gender can be considered manifestations of misogyny, in that they demonstrate hostility towards females and femininity. Thus, it is critical that efforts to combat victimization and marginalization of LGBTQ+ students at school also incorporate efforts to combat sexism.

Questioning students differed quite significantly from cisgender students as they reported significantly worse school experiences. These findings suggest that students questioning their gender may not be perceived as cisgender by their peers and teachers, leading to generally more hostile school experiences. When considering students who identify as "questioning," it is also important to recognize that it is unknown which gender identities they are specifically questioning. It could be that these students are questioning whether or not they are cisgender. It is also possible that they know they are not cisgender, but are questioning what their non-cisgender identity is (for example, questioning whether they are transgender and male or whether they are nonbinary). This latter type of questioning could help explain why questioning students in our survey more frequently reported school experiences that were similar to transgender and nonbinary students than experiences that were similar to cisgender students.

Overall, we found that among the LGBTQ+ students in our survey, students whose identities do not align with their sex assigned at birth (i.e., transgender, nonbinary, genderqueer, and other nonbinary-identified students) faced a more hostile climate than their cisgender LGBQ peers. Our findings also highlight that transgender and nonbinary students have less access to education than their peers—not only because they feel more unsafe and experience more victimization, but also because they often have restricted access within the school environment itself, specifically, a lack of access to sex segregated spaces. School staff need to be aware of the various ways that sex-segregated spaces may be particularly difficult for transgender and nonbinary youth to navigate, and should work to ensure that all students have equal access to school facilities. Educators must also be mindful that improving school climate for transgender and nonbinary students goes beyond ensuring that they can access school facilities like bathrooms and locker rooms. They must work to be inclusive and affirming of transgender and nonbinary students in their teaching and in their interactions with transgender and nonbinary students.

SCHOOL CLIMATE AND RACIAL/ETHNIC IDENTITY

As discussed previously in this report, many LGBTQ+ students feel unsafe at school or face identity-based victimization related to a variety of personal characteristics, including race and ethnicity. Furthermore, for students with multiple marginalized identities, such as LGBTQ+ youth of color, multiple forms of oppression may interact with and affect one another.[303] For example, the racism that an LGBTQ+ student of color experiences at school may impact the homophobia or transphobia that they experience, and vice versa.[304] Thus, we examined school climate for different racial/ethnic groups[305] of LGBTQ+ students in our survey: Arab American, Middle Eastern, and North African (MENA); Asian American, Pacific Islander, and Native Hawaiian (AAPI); Black; Latinx;[306] Native American, American Indian, and Alaska Native (referred to as "Native and Indigenous" in this section); multiracial; and White students. Specifically, we examined safety and victimization related to sexual orientation, gender expression, and race/ethnicity. We further examined how anti-LGBTQ+ bias may manifest for different racial/ethnic groups by also examining their experiences with anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices. Given previous research that indicates some youth of color may be disproportionately targeted by school staff for disciplinary action, as compared to their White peers,[307] we also examined students' experiences with school disciplinary action, including any school discipline and contact with the criminal justice system as a result of school discipline. Finally, we examine experiences of educational attainment and aspirations.

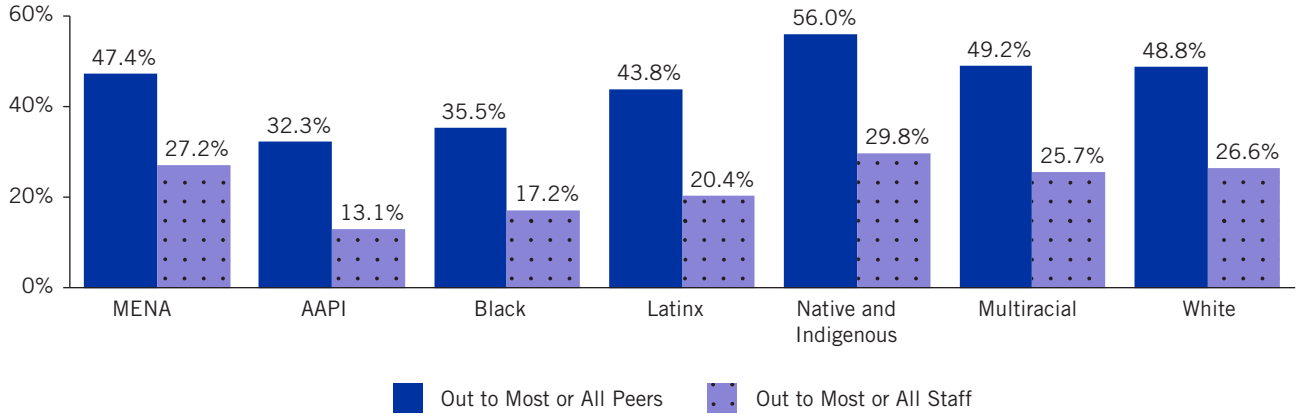
Throughout this section, we examine differences among LGBTQ+ students by race/ethnicity. When examining differences between groups, we considered factors that may also impact students' school experiences. For example, previous research has shown that being out about one's LGBTQ+ identity at school relates to greater peer victimization.[308] We found that outness varied by race/ethnicity.[309] For example, AAPI students were less likely to be out to both their peers and school staff than their peers of other racial/ethnics groups (see Figure 3.16). Because such differences in outness may impact students' school experiences, we account for these and other demographic, student body racial composition, and school characteristics in our analyses, as appropriate.

Feelings of Safety at School

As noted in *Part One*, many LGBTQ+ students feel unsafe at school for various personal characteristics. Overall, we found that feeling unsafe due to sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, and race differed between racial/ethnic groups (see Figure 3.17):[310]

- Black and AAPI students were less likely to report feeling unsafe due to their sexual orientation than their white, Latinx, and multiracial peers.
- Black and AAPI students were less likely to report feeling unsafe due to their gender expression than white, Latinx, Native and Indigenous, and multiracial students. Black

Figure 3.16 Outness in School by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Out to Peers and School Staff)



students were also less likely than MENA students.

- Black and AAPI students were less likely to report feeling unsafe due to their gender than white, Latinx, and multiracial students.

- Black students were more likely than most other students to feel unsafe due to their race/ethnicity, except for AAPI and Native and Indigenous students. Not surprisingly, white students were far more likely to feel unsafe because of the race/ethnicity at school than all other students.

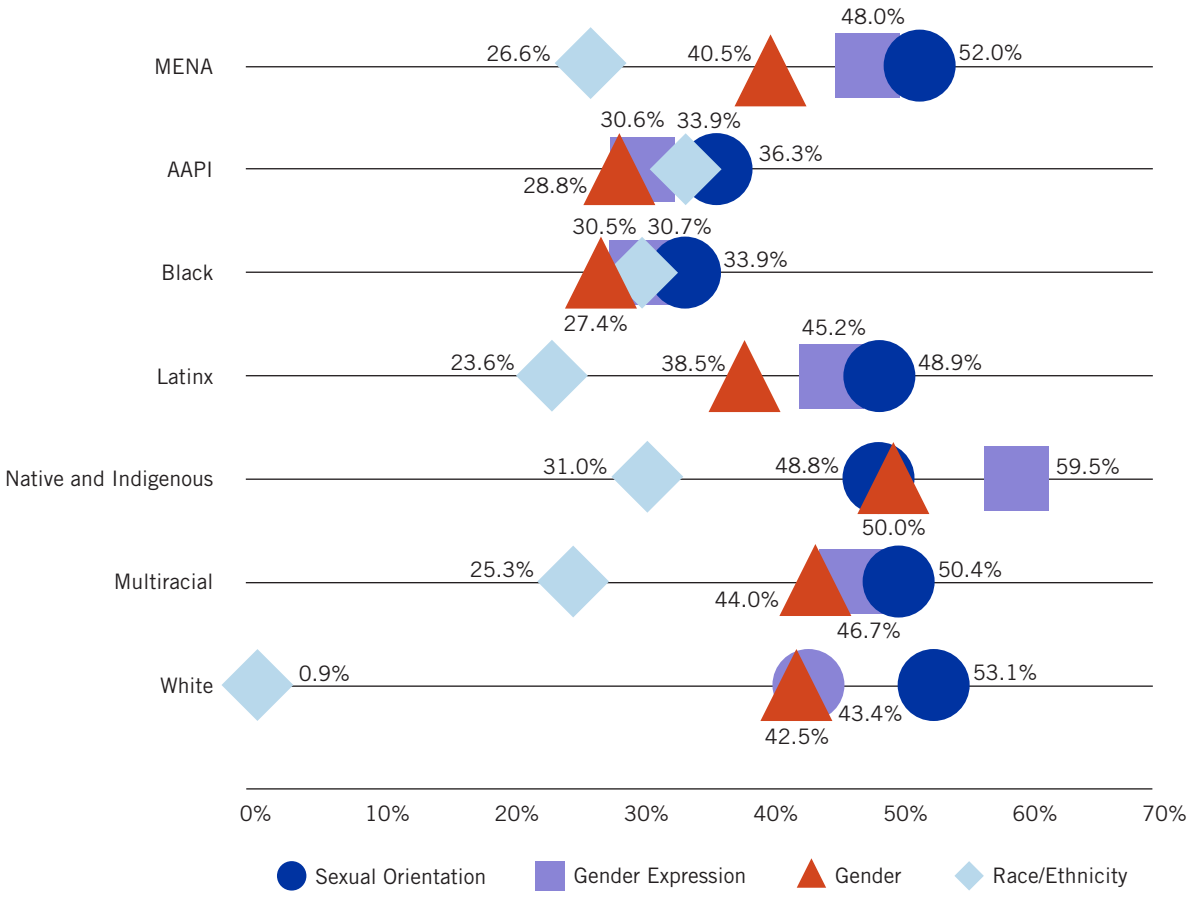
Victimization

In our survey we found that a majority of all LGBTQ+ students reported experiencing some form of **in-person victimization**, based on either sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, or race/ethnicity.[311] Notably, LGBTQ+ students differed by racial/ethnic groups on their experiences with anti-LGBTQ+ victimization, i.e., based sexual orientation, gender expression, gender,[312] and on victimization based on race/ethnicity[313] (see Figure 3.18).

- Native and Indigenous students experienced the highest rates of **in-person victimization based on sexual orientation**, compared to LGBTQ+ students of most other races/ethnicities.

- Native and Indigenous students experienced the highest rates of **in-person victimization based on gender expression** compared to all other students; multiracial students experienced higher rates than white and Black students; and Latinx and MENA students experienced higher rates than Black students.

Figure 3.17 Feelings of Safety at School by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students who Felt Unsafe at School Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity)



- Native and Indigenous students also reported the highest rates of **in-person victimization based on gender** than all others, and multiracial students reported higher rates than white and Black students.

- Over half of all LGBTQ+ students of color experienced **in-person victimization based on race/ethnicity**.

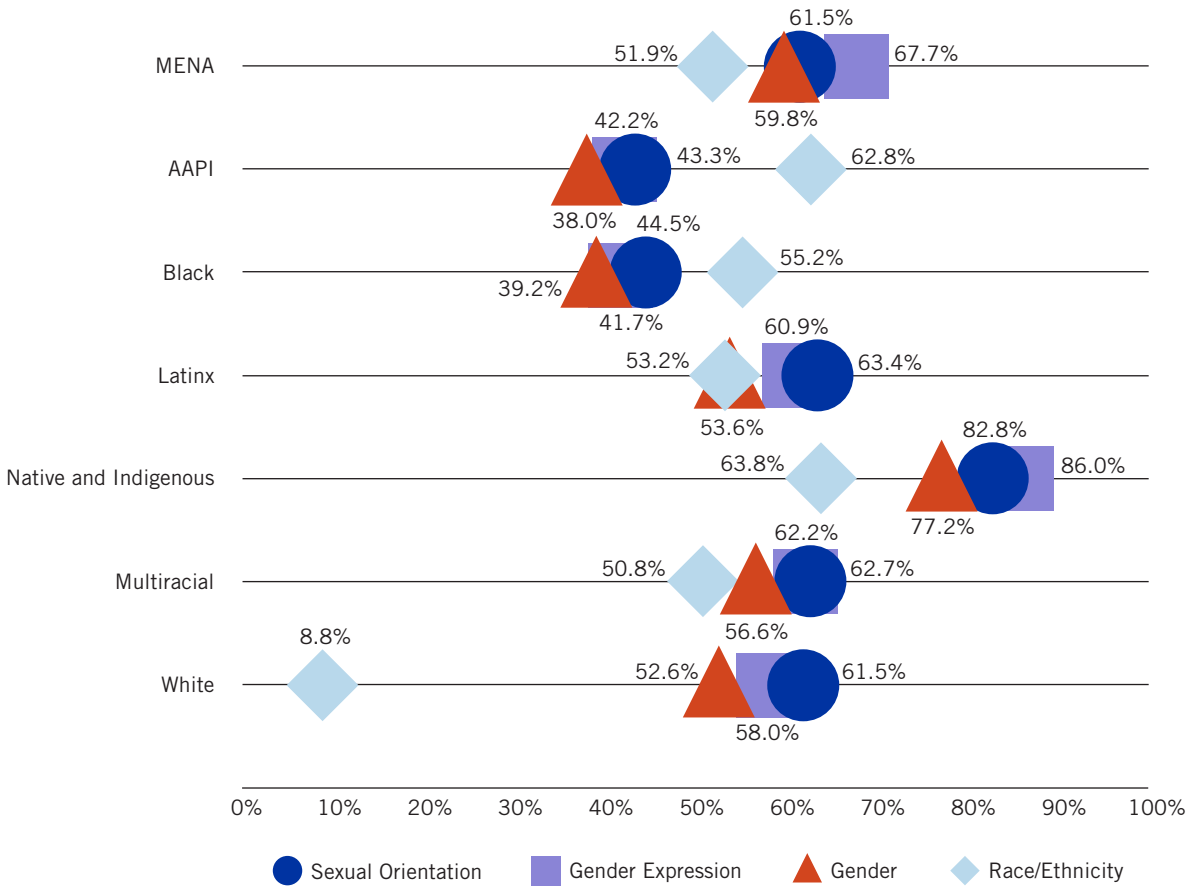
- Native and Indigenous students also reported the highest rates of **in-person victimization based on race** than all others, and white students reported the lowest rates. In addition, Latinx students reported higher rates than multiracial students.

LGBTQ+ students' experiences of **online harassment** also differed based on their race/ethnicity (see Figure 3.19):[314] Native and Indigenous students reported the highest levels of **online harassment based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender**, and Latinx students reported higher levels than white, AAPI and Black students. Multiracial students reported higher levels of **online harassment based on sexual orientation and gender** than Black and AAPI students, and higher levels of **online harassment based on gender expression** than white and AAPI students. Native and Indigenous students also reported the highest levels of **online harassment based on race/ethnicity** than all other racial/ethnic groups, and white students reported the lowest levels.[315]

Discriminatory Policies and Practices

While many LGBTQ+ students in our survey reported experiencing some type of anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies or practices, these experiences differed by race/ethnicity (see Figure 3.20).[316] Among the LGBTQ+ students in most

Figure 3.18 Experiences of In-Person Victimization by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Experiencing Any Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity)



racial/ethnic groups, the majority had experienced some form of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, and the percentages were similar across most of the racial/ethnic groups. However, AAPI students were the least likely to report experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination, when compared to students of all other races/ethnicities, and Black students were less likely than Native and Indigenous and Latinx students to report experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination.

Figure 3.19 Experiences of Online Victimization by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students Experiencing Any Online Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation, Gender Expression, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity)

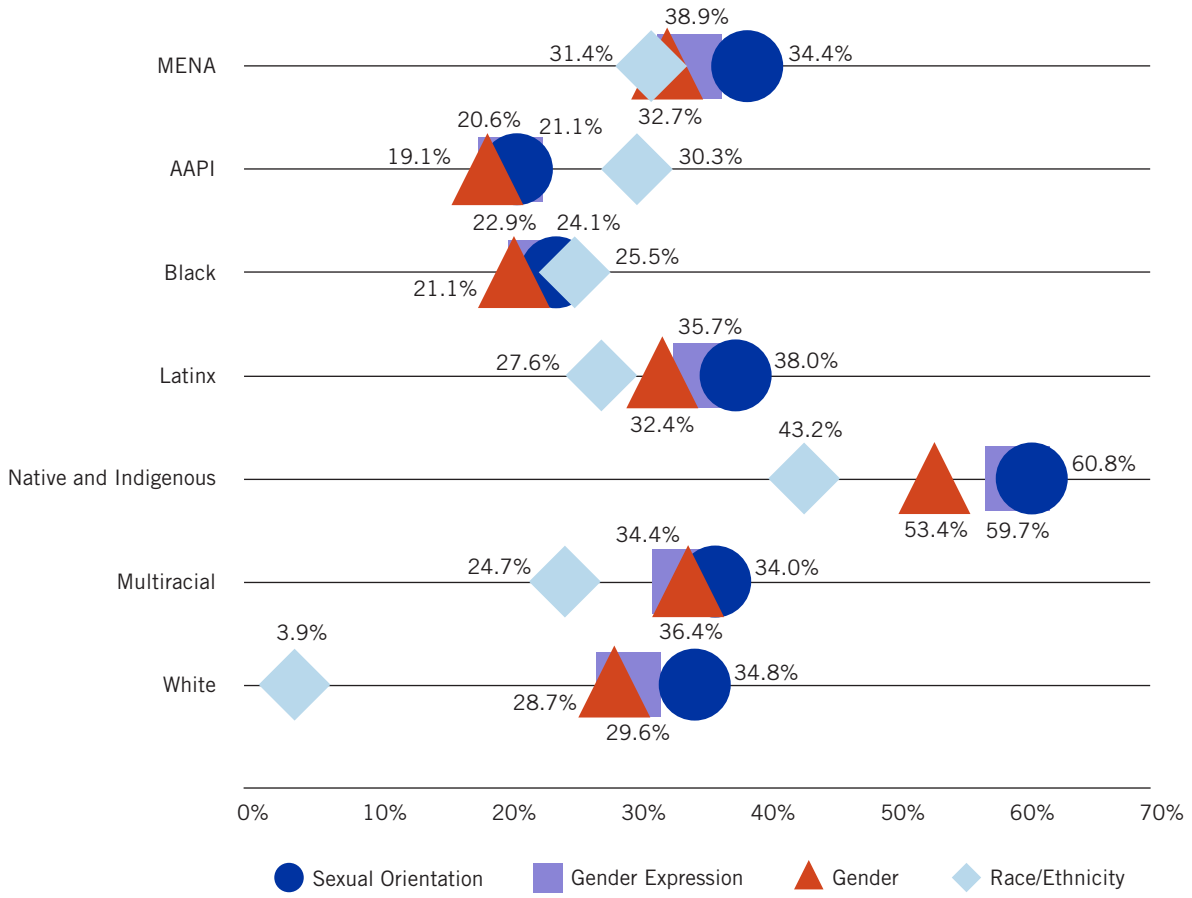
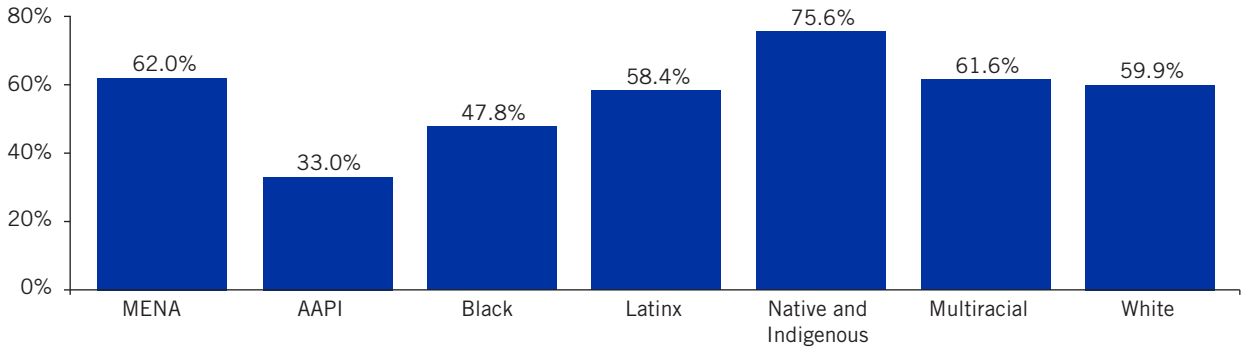


Figure 3.20 Experiences of Discrimination by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Experiencing Anti-LGBTQ+ Discriminatory School Policies and Practices)



Discipline

Prior research suggests that youth of color may be at a higher risk of experiencing school discipline than their white peers, however, fewer studies have examined differences within youth of color, as well as looking specifically at LGBTQ+ youth of color. Therefore, we examined whether rates of school discipline varied based on students' race/ethnicity among the students in our survey. We found that many of the race/ethnicity groups reported similar rates of school discipline (see Figure 3.21). [317] However, AAPI students reported experiencing less school discipline than students from all other racial/ethnic groups except for MENA students. In addition, white students reported less school discipline than Latinx and multiracial students.

Similar to discipline, current narratives suggest that students of color may have disproportionately high interactions, and disproportionately negative interactions, with school security personnel.[318] For this reason, we examined the frequency of interaction with security personnel, the quality of interaction with security personnel, and how safe students felt at school because of security personnel. In our survey, we found that there were no significant differences in these experiences by racial/ethnic group.

Educational Attachment and Aspirations

A hostile school climate can affect students' feelings of school belonging, result in students avoiding school altogether, and hinder students' overall educational experience. Students may miss school entirely if they feel unsafe there, and some may even change schools entirely because of the hostile school climate. Furthermore, they may feel less connected to their school community and less interested in pursuing post-secondary education. For these reasons, we examined students' experiences with missing and changing schools because of safety reasons, feelings of school belonging, and their educational aspirations.

White students missed fewer days of school for safety reasons than Latinx students and Native and Indigenous students, and AAPI students missed fewer days of school than most other students, except for White and Black students (see Figure 3.22).[319] We found that, overall, students of different races/ethnicities reported having had to change schools in the past because of safety reasons at similar rates. However, AAPI students were less likely than Latinx and Native and Indigenous students to have changed schools for safety reasons (see also Figure 3.22).[320] We found that Native and Indigenous students had lower levels of school belonging than students of all other races/ethnicities, and AAPI students had higher school belonging than white, Native and Indigenous, Latinx and multiracial students (see Figure 3.23).[321] With regard to educational aspirations, overall students of different racial/ethnic groups reported similar rates of planning to pursue post-secondary education . However, Native and Indigenous students reported lower rates of planning to pursue post-secondary school than AAPI and MENA students and AAPI students reported higher rates than did Native and Indigenous, Black and Latinx students (see also Figure 3.23).[322]

Figure 3.21 Experiences of School Discipline by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students who Experienced School Discipline)

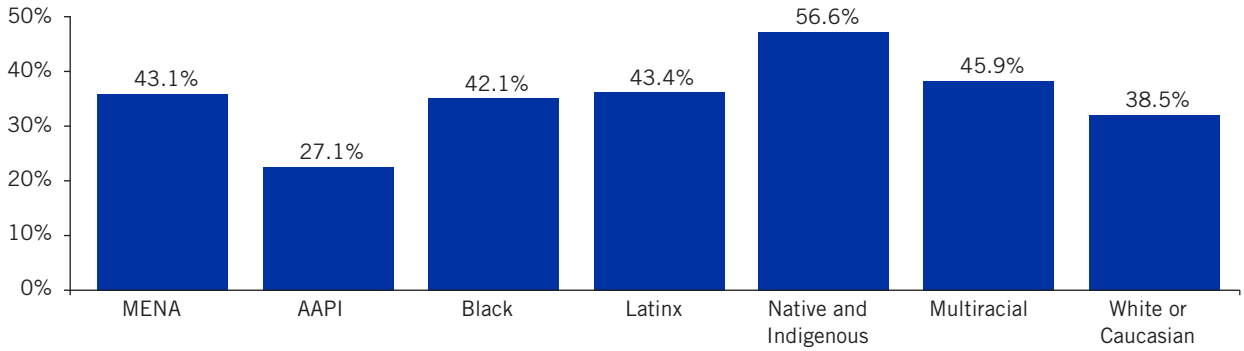


Figure 3.22 Missing or Changing Schools Due to Safety Concerns by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Students who Missed Any Days of School in the Past Month and Ever Changed Schools for Safety Reasons)

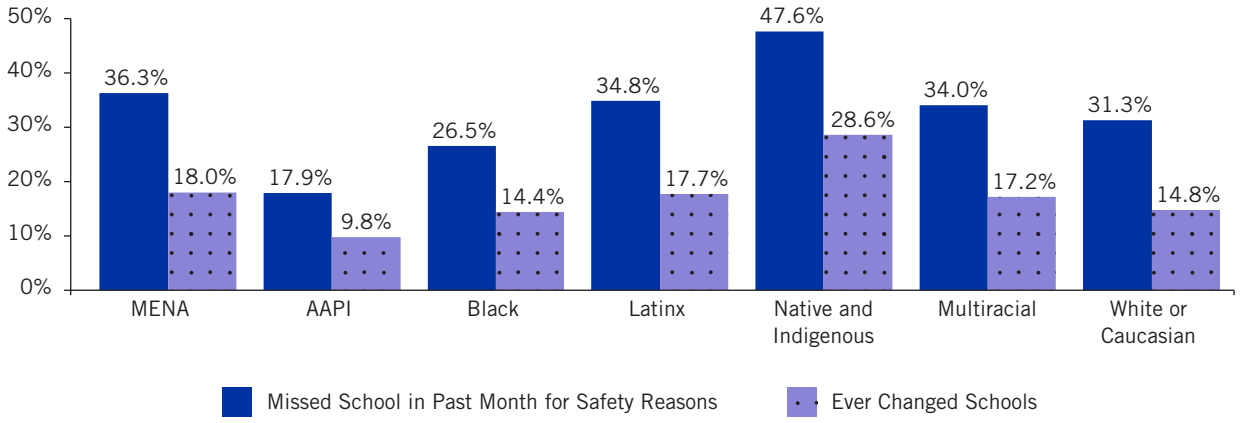
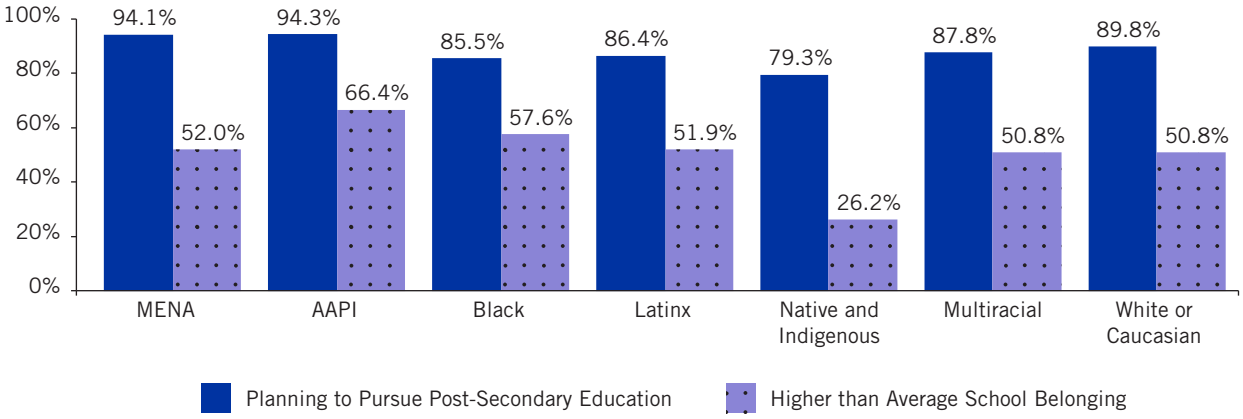


Figure 3.23 Educational Attachment and Aspirations by Race/Ethnicity
(Percentages of LGBTQ+ Student with Higher-than-Average School Belonging and of Those Planning to Pursue Any Post-Secondary Education)



Conclusions

The majority of LGBTQ+ students of all races and ethnicities reported hostile school experiences due to their marginalized identities. Nevertheless, we observed some notable relationships between racial/ethnic identity and feelings of safety as well as experiences of victimization, discrimination, disciplinary action, and educational attainment and aspiration in school. Overall, we found that Native and Indigenous LGBTQ+ students experienced more hostile school climates than their peers of other racial/ethnic groups in many areas. Native and Indigenous students experienced higher rates of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, gender, and race/ethnicity than almost all other students, with the exception of MENA students, specifically concerning victimization based on sexual orientation. Native and Indigenous students also reported poorer outcomes when considering their feelings about education as they reported the lowest levels of school belonging compared to students of all other races/ethnicities. Conversely, Black and AAPI LGBTQ+ students were both generally less likely than others to have had anti-LGBTQ+ experiences at school; they were less likely than many of their peers to report feeling unsafe due to their sexual orientation, gender expression and gender, and they reported less experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination than many of their peers. Additionally, AAPI students reported the lowest rates of discipline and were less likely to report missing or changing schools than many of their peers of other races/ethnicities. AAPI students also reported higher school belonging and were more likely to report that they planned to pursue post-secondary education than many of their peers. It is unclear why anti-LGBTQ+

experiences differ across racial/ethnic groups in this way, and further research is warranted regarding the relationship between racial/ethnic identity and anti-LGBTQ+ school experiences. Although we accounted for the racial composition of the schools in our analyses, it may be that some of these differences are related to variations across racial/ethnic groups in other characteristics of the schools that they attend.

Despite the differences that we found, it is important to acknowledge that, overall, all LGBTQ+ youth of color were at greater risk of experiencing multiple forms of victimization than their White LGBTQ+ peers.[323] Furthermore, our prior research has shown that LGBTQ+ youth of color who experienced both racist and anti-LGBTQ+ victimization at school reported the poorest well-being, and are most likely to feel unsafe at school, compared to those who experienced one or neither form of victimization.[324] Thus, school staff must support LGBTQ+ youth of color with an intersectional approach that acknowledges and responds to racism, homophobia, and transphobia, and to the ways these intersecting forms of oppression may influence one another. Further research is needed to critically examine how school climate manifests for LGBTQ+ students of different racial and ethnic backgrounds, as well as best practices to serve these populations of youth.

SCHOOL CLIMATE BY SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

LGBTQ+ students' experiences at school with regard to safety and LGBTQ+-related supports may vary depending on the characteristics of the school itself. Students in our survey were asked about their grade level, type of school they attend, and geographic location of their school. We examined potential differences in LGBTQ+ students' reports of hearing anti-LGBTQ+ language, experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and discrimination, and access to LGBTQ+-related resources and supports by school level, school type, locale, and geographic region.

Differences by School Level

Experiences of Hostile School Climate. We examined differences in the experiences of LGBTQ+ students in middle school (5th-8th grade) and high school (9th-12th grade). Overall, we found that LGBTQ+ middle school students reported a more hostile school climate than LGBTQ+ high school students. Compared to high school students, middle school students:

- Heard "that's so gay" more frequently than LGBTQ+ students in high school (There was no difference in hearing other anti-LGBTQ+ remarks) (see Table 3.2);[325]
- Experienced higher levels of all types of **in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization, including victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender** (see Table 3.2);[326]
- Experienced higher levels of **online harassment, including victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender** (see Table 3.2);[327] and
- Were more likely to experience anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices (see Table 3.2).[328]

LGBTQ+-Related Resources and Supports. LGBTQ+ students in middle school were less likely to have access to LGBTQ+-related resources and supports in school, as compared to those in high school (see also Table 3.2).[329] LGBTQ+ middle school students were less likely to report having both comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies and policies supportive of transgender and nonbinary students. Middle school students reported having fewer supportive educators, a less supportive school administration, and fewer visible signs of LGBTQ+ support in school, specifically Safe Space stickers/posters. In addition, LGBTQ+ students in middle school were less likely than those in high school to report having LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum and LGBTQ+-inclusive materials and resources outside of classroom instruction, such as website access, library resources, and textbooks/other assigned readings. However, middle school students were more likely than high school students to report that they had had LGBTQ+ inclusive sex education. Sex education often begins in middle school. Therefore, it is possible that middle school students reported higher rates of LGBTQ+ inclusive sex education because they had been taught the information more recently and could recall the information more readily than high school students who may have had sex education classes longer ago. It may also be that as sex education curricula and programs become more inclusive of LGBTQ+ topics, younger students would be more likely to receive such new curricula and instruction, whereas older students may have been less likely to receive the more current and inclusive content.

Middle school students were also less likely to report that their school had a supportive student club, such as a GSA. However, among LGBTQ+ students who had a GSA in their school, those in middle school reported attending meetings more often.[330] It may be that LGBTQ+ students in middle school are more likely than those in high school to seek support at GSA meetings, given the comparatively more hostile school climate in middle school. It is also possible that there are fewer extracurricular activities available in middle schools compared to high schools, and therefore middle school students may less commonly have to choose between going to their GSA and going to another activity.

Overall, these findings are consistent with research on the general population which indicates that middle school students in general face more hostile climates than high school students.[331] School districts should devote greater attention to implementing these LGBTQ+-supportive resources in middle schools and to addressing anti-LGBTQ+ bias in younger grades, before it becomes

engrained in middle school students' behaviors and attitudes. With specific regard to school policies, given that comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies and supportive policies for transgender and nonbinary students are often mandated at the district level, one would not necessarily expect any differences by school level. It may be that younger students are less aware of protective policies at their schools, and as such, school districts may need to increase efforts to educating students at all school levels about their rights. It also might reflect that some districts are inconsistent in the implementation of policies among their schools, particularly middle schools, and in such cases, districts must ensure that all schools are following district policies about school climate.

Table 3.2 Anti-LGBTQ+ Language, Experiences of LGBTQ+-Related Victimization, Discriminatory Policies and Practices, and Availability of LGBTQ+-Related School Resources and Supports, by School Level.
(Only those differences between groups that were statistically significant are listed.)

	Middle School	High School
Anti-LGBTQ+ Language in School (Heard Often or Frequently)		
"Gay" Used in Negative Way (e.g., "that's so gay")	74.3%	64.5%
Experiences of In-Person LGBTQ+-Related Victimization (Any Bullying/Harassment/Assault)		
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	69.6%	32.9%
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	65.2%	55.0%
Gender-Based Victimization	61.5%	49.0%
Experiences of Online LGBTQ+-Related Harassment		
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	39.7%	57.5%
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	35.0%	29.0%
Gender-Based Victimization	34.9%	27.4%
Discriminatory School Policies and Practices		
Any LGBTQ+-Related Discrimination	87.3%	78.2%
School Resources and Supports		
GSA	21.0%	41.3%
Curricular Inclusion		
Positive LGBTQ+ Curricular Inclusion	14.9%	16.6%
Positive LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Sex Education	12.2%	10.0%
Curricular Resources		
LGBTQ+ Website Access	42.8%	8.6%
LGBTQ+ Library Resources	40.7%	59.4%
LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Textbooks or Other Assigned Readings	11.8%	18.6%
Supportive Educators		
Many (11 or More Supportive Staff)	29.0%	37.5%
Supportive Administration (Somewhat or Very Supportive)	34.0%	38.2%
Safe Space Stickers/Posters	43.9%	56.2%
Inclusive and Supportive Policies		
Comprehensive Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policy	9.7%	13.0%
Transgender/Nonbinary Student Policy	6.8%	6.2%

Differences by School Type

We examined differences in the experiences of LGBTQ+ students in public schools, religious schools, and private non-religious schools. Overall, we found that LGBTQ+ students in private non-religious schools experienced the least hostile school climate.

Biased Language. Overall, we found that LGBTQ+ students from private schools were less likely than students from public and religious schools to hear any LGBTQ+-biased language at school (see Table 3.3).[332] LGBTQ+ students in public schools and in religious schools heard "gay" used in a negative way and negative remarks about transgender people at similar rates. However, public school students were in general more likely that religious school students to have heard homophobic remarks overall, whereas students in religious schools heard more negative remarks about gender expression compared to students in public school.

Among public school students, we also examined anti-LGBTQ+ language between students in charter schools and those in regular public schools. Students in public schools reported higher rates of hearing "gay" used in a negative way, other homophobic remarks, and negative remarks about transgender people (see also Table 3.3). However, for "no homo" and negative remarks about gender expression, we did not observe any differences.[333]

Peer Victimization. The frequency of **in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization** also differed across school type (see also Table 3.3).[334] LGBTQ+ students in public schools generally experienced higher levels of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization than others. Public school students experienced higher levels of all types of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization than those in private schools, and higher levels of victimization based on sexual orientation and gender than those in religious schools. However, public school and religious school students did not differ on victimization based on gender expression. Private school students and religious school students did not differ on any type of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization. In regard to **online harassment**, overall, students in all types of schools experienced similar rates of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization.[335] Furthermore, among public school students, there were no significant differences with regard to in-person victimization or online harassment between those in charter schools and those in regular public schools (see Table 3.3).[336]

Anti-LGBTQ+ Discrimination. Students in religious school were more likely than those in private and public schools to report experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices, and there were no differences between students in private school and in students in public schools (see also Table 3.3).[337] Furthermore, among public school students, there were no significant differences in experiences with discrimination between those in charter schools and those in regular public schools (see also Table 3.3).[338]

LGBTQ+-Related Resources and Supports. We examined differences by school type regarding LGBTQ+ students' access to LGBTQ+-related school supports, including: GSAs, supportive staff, LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum, other curricular resources, and inclusive and supportive school policies. Overall, students in religious schools were less likely to report having LGBTQ+-related resources and supports in their schools, and students in private schools were more likely to report having these resources and supports (see Table 3.3).[339] Additionally, students in charter schools in general had greater access to resources and supports than those in regular public schools.[340] Charter school students reported greater access to LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum, including inclusive sex education, comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies, supportive transgender and nonbinary policies, inclusive textbooks, and supportive administrators. However, students in regular private schools were more likely to report having access to GSAs, Safe Space stickers, and library resources inclusive of LGBTQ+ content.

Students in private non-religious schools were generally most likely to have LGBTQ+-related supportive school resources. However, students in private schools did not differ from students in religious schools regarding access to LGBTQ+-related textbooks, and also did not differ from students in public schools regarding library resources, supportive educators, visible displays of support (i.e., Safe Space stickers/posters), and LGBTQ+ library resources. Additionally, students in private schools were slightly less likely than those in public schools to have access to a GSA.

In contrast to private schools, students in religious schools were generally less likely to report having

most supportive school resources. Religious school students had less access than all other students to: GSAs, supportive educators and school administration, protective school policies, LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum including LGBTQ+-inclusive sex education, and LGBTQ+ information on school computers and from the school library. However, we also found that LGBTQ+ students in religious schools were more likely to have LGBTQ+-related information in textbooks or other assigned readings than public school students, and as previously mentioned, were not different from private school students in their access to these types of resources. Furthermore, religious school students were most likely to report *negative* representations of LGBTQ+ people and topics in their curriculum (see Table 3.5).[341]

It is perhaps surprising that LGBTQ+ students from religious schools reported more LGBTQ+ content in their textbooks or other assigned readings than public school students. However, students in the survey were asked about any LGBTQ+ inclusion in textbooks and assigned readings, regardless of its nature. Considering the finding that religious school students were more likely than others to report being taught negative LGBTQ+ content, it is possible that the LGBTQ+ topics included in students' textbooks and assigned readings are often included in a negative manner.

Within public schools, students in charter schools reported greater access to LGBTQ+-inclusive curricular instruction, comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies, transgender and nonbinary student policies, supportive administration, and LGBTQ+ inclusion in textbooks or assigned reading. In contrast, students in public school were more likely to report having access to GSAs, visual signs of support, and LGBTQ+ library resources. Students in charter schools and regular public schools did not differ on access to supportive educators or LGBTQ+ website access.

In general, we found that private schools were more positive environments for LGBTQ+ youth than public or religious schools, as private school students were least likely to hear anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and were most likely to have LGBTQ+-related school resources and supports. The differences between LGBTQ+ student experiences in religious schools and those in public schools, however, are more nuanced. Students in religious schools were less likely than those in public schools to hear "no homo," other homophobic remarks and to experience victimization based on sexual orientation and gender. However, they were more likely to hear negative remarks about gender expression, experience LGBTQ+-related discrimination at school, and less likely to have LGBTQ+ resources and supports. These findings may indicate that traditional gender role behavior is more policed and enforced in religious schools than in other types of schools. Although students in religious schools heard most biased remarks less frequently than those in public school, they heard more negative remarks about gender expression than students in public schools. Additionally, regarding victimization, students in religious schools experienced less victimization based on sexual orientation and gender than did students in public school, but the two groups experienced similar rates of victimization based on gender expression. This strict enforcement of gender norms and roles may also account for our finding that students in religious schools experienced more discriminatory policies and practices than other students, as many of these policies and practices are about adherence to gender norms and binary gender division.

It is important to note that all private schools, both religious and non-religious, can select who attends their school and can more easily expel students than public schools, which could result in comparatively lower rates of harassment experienced by LGBTQ+ students in private non-religious and religious schools. However, the policies and practices of some religious schools may reflect a more negative, anti-LGBTQ+ attitude of their specific religious doctrine or beliefs, which in turn, may result in greater LGBTQ+-related discrimination and fewer supports.

Despite the differences we found between public, religious, and private non-religious schools, we found that LGBTQ+ students in all three school types commonly reported experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks, victimization, and discrimination. For all types of schools, more effort needs to be made to provide positive school environments for LGBTQ+ youth. With specific regard to religious schools, greater efforts toward providing more inclusive curricular resources and policies for LGBTQ+ students are specifically warranted. In addition, given that little is known about the expulsion of LGBTQ+ students in private schools, further research is needed to better

Table 3.3 Anti-LGBTQ+ Language, Experiences of LGBTQ+-Related Victimization, Discriminatory Policies and Practices, and Availability of LGBTQ+-Related School Resources and Supports, by School Type.
(Only those differences between groups that were statistically significant are listed. Percentages that share superscripts represent groups that were not different from each other.)

	Public	Private (non-religious)	Religious
Anti-LGBTQ+ Language in School (Heard Often or Frequently)			
"Gay" Used in Negative Way (e.g., "that's so gay")	69.5%[a]	52.8%[b]	66.3%[a]
"No Homo"	64.6%[a]	52.5%[b]	56.1%[c]
Other Homophobic Remarks	46.1%[a]	27.5%[b]	38.0%[c]
Negative Remarks About Gender Expression	56.3%[a]	51.4%[b]	62.8%[c]
Negative Remarks About Transgender People	40.6%[a]	27.1%[b]	39.7%[a]
Experiences of In-Person LGBTQ+-Related Victimization (Any Bullying/ Harassment/Assault)			
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	63.1%[a]	49.6%[b]	59.0%[b]
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	54.3%[a]	45.3%[b]	47.2%[a,b]
Gender-Based Victimization	59.5%	51.9%[b]	57.7%[b]
Discriminatory School Policies and Practices			
Any LGBTQ+-Related Discrimination	80.3%[a]	77.1%[a]	95.9%[b]
School Resources and Supports			
Availability of GSAs			
Curricular Inclusion	36.1%[a]	35.3%[b]	12.1%[c]
Positive LGBTQ+ Curricular Inclusion	15.9%[a]	27.8%[b]	7.9%[c]
Negative LGBTQ+ Curricular Inclusion	12.2%[a]	13.6%[a]	55.6%[b]
Positive LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Sex Education	10.0%[a]	19.9%[b]	6.2%[a]
Curricular Resources			
LGBTQ+ Website Access	47.8%[a]	59.9%[b]	38.9%[c]
LGBTQ+ Library Resources	44.5%[a]	40.8%[a]	21.6%[b]
LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Textbooks or Other Assigned Readings	15.9%[a]	22.4%[b]	21.2%[b]
Supportive Educators			
Many (11 or More Supportive Staff)	35.5%[a]	41.8%[a]	11.6%[b]
Supportive Administration (Somewhat or Very Supportive)	37.0%[a]	48.4%[b]	12.1%[c]
Safe Space Stickers/Posters	53.5%[a]	55.0%[a]	18.0%[b]
Inclusive and Supportive Policies			
Comprehensive Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policy	12.1%[a]	17.1%[b]	3.4%[c]
Transgender/Nonbinary Student Policy	8.2%[a]	13.3%[b]	2.7%[c]

understand how these and other school disciplinary actions might affect school climate for LGBTQ+ students.

Among students in public schools, specifically, those in charter schools were generally similar to those in regular public schools with regard to anti-LGBTQ+ experiences. With regard to LGBTQ+-related resources and supports, however, students in charter schools were generally more likely to have more supportive resources. More research is needed to understand these differences in resources and supports between charter schools and regular public schools. With increased attention paid to charter schools in recent years, it is also important that future research further examine the experiences of LGBTQ+ students in these schools. As charter schools may vary widely in their missions, ideals, and practices, further exploration into how various types of charter schools address LGBTQ+ student issues would be particularly valuable.

Differences by Locale

We examined differences in the experiences of LGBTQ+ students in urban, suburban, and rural schools. Overall, we found that LGBTQ+ students in rural schools experienced the most hostile school climates.

Biased Language. LGBTQ+ students in rural schools reported hearing all types of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks more frequently than those in urban and suburban schools, and there were no differences between students in urban and those in suburban schools (see Table 3.4).[342]

Peer Victimization. LGBTQ+ students in suburban schools experienced less anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and harassment both **in-person**[343] **and online**[344] compared to students in other locales (see Table 3.4). LGBTQ+ students in urban schools were less likely to experience **in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization** than those in rural schools and less **online harassment based on sexual orientation and gender** compared to students in rural schools. However, urban and rural students did not differ in how often they experienced **online harassment based on gender expression**.

Anti-LGBTQ+ Discrimination. LGBTQ+ students in rural schools were more likely to experience anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination than those in other locales. There were no differences in experiences of this kind of discrimination between students in urban schools and students in suburban schools (see Table 3.4).[345]

LGBTQ+-Related Resources and Supports. As also shown in Table 3.4, students from rural schools had less access to all LGBTQ+-related resources and supports than students in urban and suburban schools.[346] In general, students in suburban schools had more access to LGBTQ+-inclusive resources than students in urban schools. However, suburban and urban schools did not differ on comprehensive policies, transgender/nonbinary student policies, LGBTQ+ website access, LGBTQ+-related library resources, LGBTQ+-inclusive textbooks and reading materials, and supportive administration.

Overall, our findings indicate that schools in rural areas were the most unsafe and were least likely to have LGBTQ+-related school resources and supports. Although schools in suburban areas appeared to be safest for LGBTQ+ students, they sometimes did not differ from urban schools with regard to certain resources and supports. More research is needed to examine the relationship between school supports and their effect on school climate for LGBTQ+ students, particularly while taking into account differences by locale. Nevertheless, given the positive impact of LGBTQ+-related school resources and supports, specific efforts should be made to increase these resources in all schools, and particularly in rural schools where there may be the greatest need.

Differences by Region

We examined differences in experiences of LGBTQ+ students in the South, Midwest, West, and Northeast. In general, LGBTQ+ students from the South and Midwest reported more hostile school climates than students from the West and Northeast.

Biased Language. Overall, LGBTQ+ students from the South were more likely to hear all forms of anti-LGBTQ+ language, with the exception of negative remarks about transgender people, which they heard at similar rates as students in the Midwest.[347] Students in the Northeast and West were least likely to hear anti-LGBTQ+ language (see Table 3.5), and heard other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about

Table 3.4 Anti-LGBTQ+ Language, Experiences of LGBTQ+-Related Victimization, Discriminatory Policies and Practices, and Availability of LGBTQ+-Related School Resources and Supports, by Locale.
(Only those differences between groups that were statistically significant are listed. Percentages that share superscrirepresent groups that were not different from each other.)

	Urban	Suburban	Rural or Small Town
Anti-LGBTQ+ Language in School (Heard Often or Frequently)			
"Gay" Used in Negative Way (e.g., "that's so gay")	63.7%[a]	63.4%[a]	78.0%[b]
"No Homo"	62.8%[a]	61.1%[a]	66.9%[b]
Other Homophobic Remarks	40.6%[a]	37.4%[a]	56.6%[b]
Negative Remarks About Gender Expression	53.6%[a]	54.0%[a]	61.5%[b]
Negative Remarks About Transgender People	34.8%[a]	34.7%[a]	50.4%[b]
Experiences of In-Person LGBTQ+-Related Victimization (Any Bullying/Harassment/Assault)			
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	58.9%[a]	57.6%[b]	69.2%[c]
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	53.3%[a]	49.4%[b]	58.0%[c]
Gender-Based Victimization	58.7%[a]	55.3%[b]	63.4%[c]
Experiences of Online LGBTQ+-Related Harassment			
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	36.0%[a]	33.6%[b]	41.6%[c]
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	33.0%[a]	29.1%[b]	34.8%[a]
Gender-Based Victimization	30.7%[a]	28.1%[b]	33.3%[c]
Discriminatory Policies and Practices			
Any LGBTQ+-Related Discrimination	78.5%[a]	78.4%[a]	85.3%[b]
School Resources and Supports			
Availability of GSAs	35.8%[a]	42.4%[b]	24.0%[c]
Curricular Inclusion			
Positive LGBTQ+ Curricular Inclusion	20.9%[a]	17.7%[b]	11.2%[c]
Positive LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Sex Education	13.9%[a]	10.9%[b]	7.4%[c]
Curricular Resources			
LGBTQ+ Website Access	50.1%[a]	50.7%[a]	44.4%[b]
LGBTQ+ Library Resources	42.3%[a]	45.1%[a]	40.9%[b]
LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Textbooks or Other Assigned Readings	17.1%[a]	18.9%[a]	13.1%[b]
Supportive Educators	39.7%[a]	41.6%[b]	21.7%[c]
Many (11 or More Supportive Staff)	41.5%[a]	40.2%[a]	36.7%[b]
Supportive Administration (Somewhat or Very Supportive)	55.0%[a]	59.2%[b]	39.8%[c]
Safe Space Stickers/Posters	13.4%[a]	13.6%[a]	8.9%[b]
Inclusive and Supportive Policies	10.3%[a]	9.1%[a]	5.5%[b]
Comprehensive Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policy			
Transgender/Nonbinary Student Policy			

gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people at similar rates. However, students in the Northeast were least likely, compared to students in all other regions, to hear "gay" used in a negative way, and "no homo." In general, students in the Midwest heard biased language less frequently than students in the South, but at greater rates than those in the West and Northeast, with the exception of "no homo," which students in the West and Midwest heard at similar rates.

Peer Victimization. Overall, LGBTQ+ students from the Northeast reported the lowest levels of **in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization**, compared to students from all other regions (see also Table 3.5).[348] In contrast, LGBTQ+ students from the South and Midwest generally experienced higher levels of **in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization** than students from all other regions. Specifically, **in-person victimization based on sexual orientation** was highest among students in the South and Midwest, and lowest among students in the Northeast, and students in the West experienced these types of victimization at lower rates than those in the West and Midwest. With regard to **in-person victimization based on gender and gender expression**, students in the Northeast reported the lowest rates, and students in the West reported lower rates than those in the South. For the most part, students in the Northeast reported less **online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment** than students in other regions, and there were few differences among students in the South, Midwest, and West.

Anti-LGBTQ+ Discrimination. Students from the Northeast were least likely to experience anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices, followed by students from the West, and then students from the Midwest (see also Table 3.5).[349] Students from the South were the most likely to experience anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices, compared to all other regions.

LGBTQ+-Related Resources and Supports. Students from the South were the least likely to report having access to all resources and supports than all other regions, and students from the Northeast were more likely to report having access to most LGBTQ+-related school resources and supports than all other regions, and (see also Table 3.5).[350] Students in the Northeast were more likely than those in the Midwest to have access to all resources and supports that we examined. Students in the Northeast also were more likely than those in the West to report having supportive school personnel, LGBTQ+ website access, LGBTQ+ library resources, LGBTQ+-related textbooks and other readings, and supportive transgender and nonbinary policies, but they did not differ regarding curricular inclusion, GSAs, and comprehensive antibullying/harassment policies. Students in the Northeast, however, were less likely than those in the West to have received sex education that was inclusive of LGBTQ+ topics. Students in the West were more likely to report having all resources and supports compared to students in the Midwest, except for that they were not different in access to LGBTQ+-related textbooks/other assigned readings.

Overall, LGBTQ+ students in the South and Midwest faced more negative school climates and less access to LGBTQ+-related resources and supports, compared to those in the Northeast and West. These regional findings highlight that much more needs to be done to ensure that LGBTQ+ students are safe regardless of where in the United States they attend school, and that education leaders and safe school advocates must pay particular attention to schools in regions where LGBTQ+ students experience a more hostile school climate. Given that attitudes about LGBTQ+ people are less positive in the South and Midwest,[351] and recent legislative battles over LGBTQ+ rights in schools, including anti-LGBTQ+ curriculum bills in many Southern and Midwestern states,[352] further inquiry is needed on how best to implement LGBTQ+ resources and supports in schools in more conservative regions, in spite of cultural and political beliefs towards the LGBTQ+ community. Furthermore, national efforts regarding bullying prevention and positive school climate must not only take into account the overall experiences of LGBTQ+ students, but they must also acknowledge and respond to regional differences regarding anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and access to LGBTQ+ student supports.

Table 3.5 Anti-LGBTQ+ Language, Experiences of LGBTQ+-Related Victimization, Discriminatory Policies and Practices, and Availability of LGBTQ+-Related School Resource and Supports, by Region.
(Only variables that with statistically significant differences between groups are listed. Percentages that share superscripts represent groups that were not different from each other.)

	Northeast	South	Midwest	West
Anti-LGBTQ+ Language in School (Heard Often or Frequently)				
"Gay" Used in Negative Way (e.g., "that's so gay")	59.6%[a]	74.5%[b]	70.5%[c]	63.8%[d]
Other Homophobic Remarks	37.5%[a]	51.3%[b]	47.2%[c]	64.2%[a]
"No Homo"	56.5%[a]	67.8%[b]	62.1%[c]	36.6%[c]
Negative Remarks About Gender Expression	50.6%[a]	60.6%[b]	57.2%[c]	53.1%[a]
Negative Remarks About Transgender People	33.0%[a]	45.7%[b]	42.9%[b]	33.2%[a]
Experiences of In-Person LGBTQ+-Related Victimization (Any Bullying/Harassment/Assault)				
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	53.9%[a]	67.4%[b]	64.4%[b]	57.6%[c]
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	47.0%[a]	56.6%[b]	55.3%[b,c]	54.6%[c]
Gender-Based Victimization	51.1%[a]	63.9%[b]	60.3%[b,c]	56.1%[c]
Experiences of Online LGBTQ+-Related Harassment				
Sexual Orientation-Based Victimization	32.1%[a]	39.5%[b]	38.1%[b,c]	35.1%[a,c]
Gender Expression-Based Victimization	27.8%[a]	33.7%[b]	32.2%[b]	32.1%[b]
Gender-Based Victimization	27.2%[a]	31.9%[b,c]	30.6%[b,d]	30.8%[a,c,d]
Discriminatory Policies and Practices				
Any LGBTQ+-Related Discrimination	70.3%[a]	87.5%[b]	82.2%[c]	77.5%[d]
School Resources and Supports				
Availability of GSAs	49.3%[a]	21.9%[b]	35.8%[c]	40.5%[a]
Curricular Inclusion				
Positive LGBTQ+ Curricular Inclusion	23.3%[a]	10.5%[b]	14.3%[c]	21.0%[a]
Positive LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Sex Education	14.2%[a]	4.4%[b]	7.1%[c]	18.0%[d]
Curricular Resources				
LGBTQ+ Website Access	57.0%[a]	40.9%[b]	51.8%[c]	46.8%[d]
LGBTQ+ Library Resources	49.5%[a]	36.7%[b]	46.3%[c]	42.0%[d]
LGBTQ+ Inclusion in Textbooks or Other Assigned Readings	20.5%[a]	13.5%[b]	16.6%[c]	17.5%[c]
Supportive Educators				
Many (11 or More Supportive Staff)	48.4%[a]	25.0%[b]	33.1%[c]	39.0%[d]
Supportive Administration (Somewhat or Very Supportive)	50.7%[a]	24.5%[b]	35.6%[c]	43.5%[d]
Safe Space Stickers/Posters	67.2%[s]	37.0%[b]	54.1%[c]	58.6%[d]
Inclusive and Supportive Policies				
Comprehensive Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policy	17.8%[a]	7.0%[b]	10.2%[c]	16.2%[a]
Transgender/Gender Nonconforming Student Policy	12.7%[a]	4.6%[b]	7.1%[c]	10.7%[d]

Conclusions

Overall, schools nationwide are not safe learning environments for LGBTQ+ students and are lacking in LGBTQ+ resources and supports, and they differ, often significantly, by school and geographical characteristics. By and large, the majority of LGBTQ+ students in middle schools, from schools in rural areas, and from schools in the South and Midwest experience more hostile school climate, and have less access to LGBTQ+-related resources and supports.

With regard to school type, the picture of school climate for LGBTQ+ students is more complex. It is evident from our findings that private non-religious schools were safer and had more supportive resources for LGBTQ+ students than religious and public schools. However, the differences between religious and public schools were more nuanced. LGBTQ+ students in religious schools were less likely to hear anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and experienced less victimization based on sexual orientation and gender than those in public schools, but were more likely to experience anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices. However, students in public schools had more positive LGBTQ+ supports and resources. Thus, religious schools may be physically safer but not supportive or equitable learning environments for LGBTQ+ students. It is also important to note that compared to regular public schools, private, religious, and charter schools can more easily expel or remove students who engage in behaviors that make school climates hostile for other students, such as bullying, harassment, and making biased remarks, which may in turn decrease the rates of these experiences in their schools.

To date, there is no federal legislation that has *explicitly* established protections from discrimination in schools based on sexual orientation and gender identity. Although Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX) prohibits discrimination based on sex in federally-funded schools, federal administrative policy has been inconsistent in communicating that discrimination based on sex includes discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity. (Recently, however, the U.S. Department of Education has proposed a revised rule that expressly states that Title IX prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity, including harassment that creates a hostile environment.[353]) Furthermore, private religious schools may be eligible for an exemption from fully applying Title IX,[354] which may allow these schools to discriminate against LGBTQ+ students without the same legal ramifications as public, charter, and federally-funded non-religious schools.[355]

Despite some recent progress in legislation, federal legislation is necessary to ensure nondiscrimination protections are not rolled back under a future presidential administration. Given the lack of consistent federal protections from anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination for LGBTQ+ students, along with our findings regarding LGBTQ+ youth in religious schools, it is evident that focused legislative efforts must be made to provide positive school environments for LGBTQ+ youth in these schools. Efforts should be made to ensure that schools are safe and welcoming for all students across these school characteristics, while paying particular attention to school characteristics with the most hostile school climate. Furthermore, efforts should be made to ensure that LGBTQ+ students are provided with access to affirming LGBTQ+ resources and supports, with particular attention to the types or locations of schools with the least resources and supports.

PART FOUR: INDICATORS OF SCHOOL CLIMATE OVER TIME

GLSEN strives to make schools safe for all students, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity or expression, race or ethnicity, or any other characteristic that may be the basis for harassment. Given that the National School Climate Survey (NSCS) is the only study that has continually assessed the school experiences of LGBTQ+ students, it is vital that we use our data to examine changes over time in the education landscape for this population. In this section, we examine whether there have been changes from 2001 to the present 2021 survey[356] in indicators of a hostile school climate, such as hearing homophobic remarks, experiences of harassment and assault, and experiences of discriminatory school policies and practices. We also examine the availability of positive resources for LGBTQ+ students in their schools such as supportive educators, student-led clubs such as GSAs (Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances), inclusive curricular resources, and comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies. In addition, we examine whether there have been changes over time in students' acceptance of LGBTQ+ people.

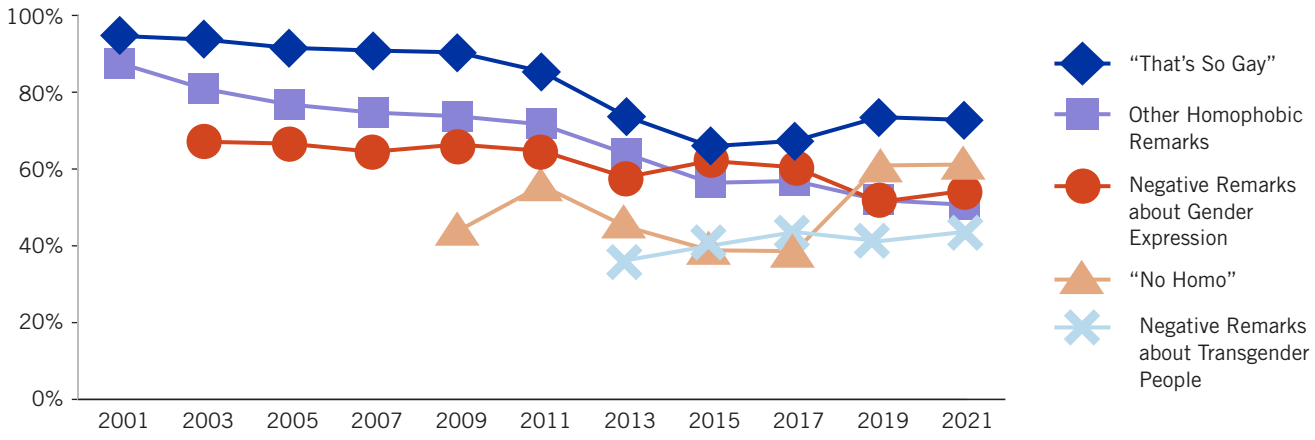
Across the years, the survey has been slightly modified with each installment to reflect new or emerging concerns about school climate for LGBTQ+ students, but its content has remained largely the same and has used virtually the same data collection methods since 2001. However, the most current data is from the 2020–2021 academic year, when schools had to respond to the COVID pandemic. Thus, we also had to adapt and modify our survey questions accordingly to capture changes in school structures and instructional methods, as discussed in the "Methods" section of this report. It is important to note that comparisons across years in anti-LGBTQ+ remarks, feelings of safety at school, experiences of discrimination, and the availability of LGBTQ+ resources at school include the full 2021 sample, regardless of the type of learning environment they were in. However, experiences of victimization include only those students from the 2021 survey who had been in school in-person at some time during the 2020–2021 academic year.

Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks Over Time

Language perpetually evolves, and so is the case with anti-LGBTQ+ remarks since we began conducting the NSCS. To keep current with changes in usage, we have modified how we ask LGBTQ+ students about anti-LGBTQ+ remarks. In 2001, we assessed the frequency of hearing homophobic remarks, either remarks like "fag" or "dyke," but also expressions using "gay" to mean something bad or valueless. In 2003, we began asking questions about hearing negative remarks about gender expression, such as someone acting not "feminine enough" or "masculine enough." In 2009, we began assessing the expression "no homo," and in 2013 we asked about negative expressions about transgender people, such as "tranny" or "he/she."

- **Homophobic remarks** were on the decline from 2001 to 2015, and remained consistent from 2015 to 2017, However, in 2019, the frequency of remarks declined and remained static in 2021 (see Figure 4.1).[357]

Figure 4.1 Anti-LGBTQ+ Language by Students Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Hearing Language Frequently or Often, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)



- **Use of expressions such as "that's so gay"** has remained the most common form of biased language heard by LGBTQ+ students in school. These remarks had consistently declined until 2015, but increased from 2015 to 2019 and remained at a similar level in 2021 (see also Figure 4.1).[358]

- **Hearing the expression "no homo"** had consistently been less common than most other types of LGBTQ+-related biased remarks, and the frequency had been on a decline from 2011 to 2017. However, in 2019, we saw a sizeable increase from 2017, and remained at a similar level in 2021.[359]

- **Hearing negative remarks about gender expression** had not changed in frequency across years between 2003 and 2011, but decreased from 2011 to 2013. These remarks increased in 2015 but declined in 2017 and again in 2019. In 2021, the frequency of remarks was higher than in 2019, but lower than all years prior to that.[360]

- **Negative remarks about transgender people** had steadily increased from 2013, when we first asked this question, to 2017, but decreased in 2019 and remained at a similar level in 2021.[361]

As shown in Figure 4.2, since 2001, the majority of students have reported that they have heard **anti-LGBTQ+ remarks from teachers or other staff** in their school:

- Hearing homophobic remarks from teachers or schools staff decreased from 2007 to 2013, was unchanged from 2013 to 2017, and then decreased further in 2019. In 2021, however, the frequency of staff making homophobic remarks increased and was higher than most recent years starting with 2013;[362]

- Hearing negative remarks about gender expression from school staff had a downward trend in frequency between 2003 and 2013, yet an upward trend from 2013 to 2017, and decreased again in 2019. In 2021, these remarks increased and were more common than in most prior years.[363]

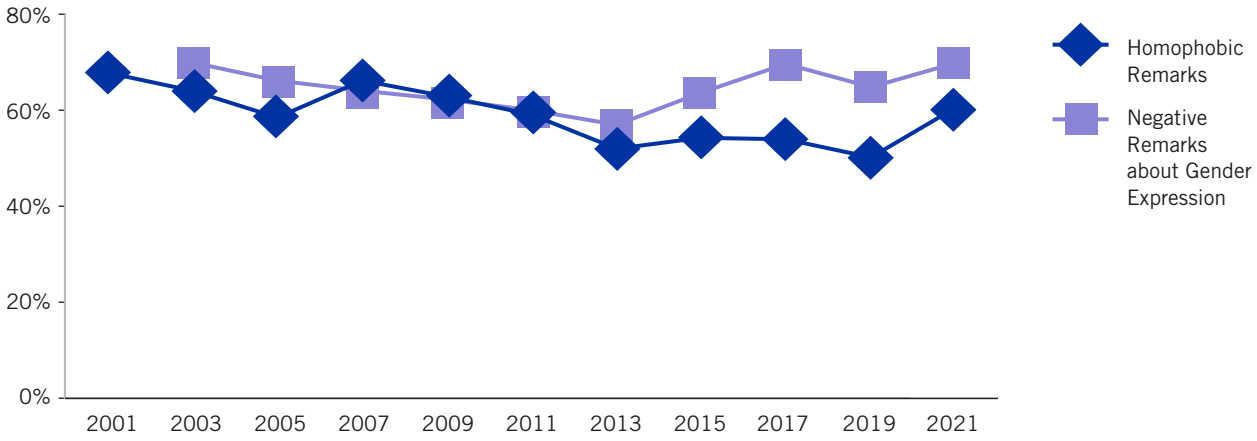
Intervention in Anti-LGBTQ+ Remarks Over Time

In our 2001 survey, we began asking students how frequently people in their school intervened when **hearing homophobic remarks** (see Figure 4.3):

- Rates of intervention by staff were relatively similar across years between 2001 and 2013, but declined from 2013 to 2015, remained at a similar lower level from 2015 to 2019, and decreased again in 2021, when it was at the lowest rate of all years.[364]

- Rates of intervention by other students had largely been decreasing in the early years of the survey through 2013, but increased from 2013 to 2015. The rate then decreased in 2017 and again in 2019. In 2021, however,

Figure 4.2 Anti-LGBTQ+ Language by School Staff Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Ever Hearing Remarks, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)



the rate of student intervention increased from 2019.[365]

In our 2003 survey, we began asking students how frequently people in their school intervened when **hearing negative remarks about gender expression** (see Figure 4.4):

- Rates of staff intervention were similar from 2003 to 2011. There was a small decrease in staff intervention from 2011 to 2013, and intervention has largely remained at a similar rate in subsequent years. The rates of staff intervention beginning in 2013 were lower than prior years. In 2021, the rate of staff intervention was not different from the 2013 survey onward.[366]
- Rates of intervention by other students were in an upward trend after 2013, with a slight decline in 2019, but an increase in 2021 when it was higher than most prior years.[367]

Taking into account all the results related to anti-LGBTQ+ remarks in schools, there were few positive changes in 2021. In 2021, most types of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks made by students were at similar rates as we saw in 2019. The one notable exception was with negative remarks about gender expression, which had increased in 2021 from 2019, but were still lower in frequency than all prior years. Students in 2021, however, increased in their levels of intervention when hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks. But regarding school staff, LGBTQ+ students in 2021 reported an increase in hearing

Figure 4.3 Intervention Regarding Homophobic Remarks Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Any Intervention, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)

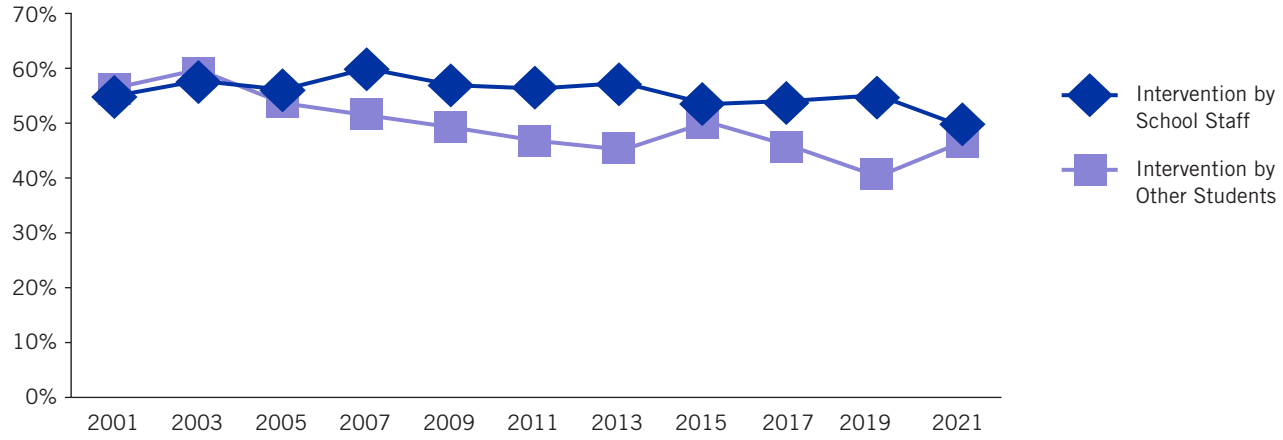
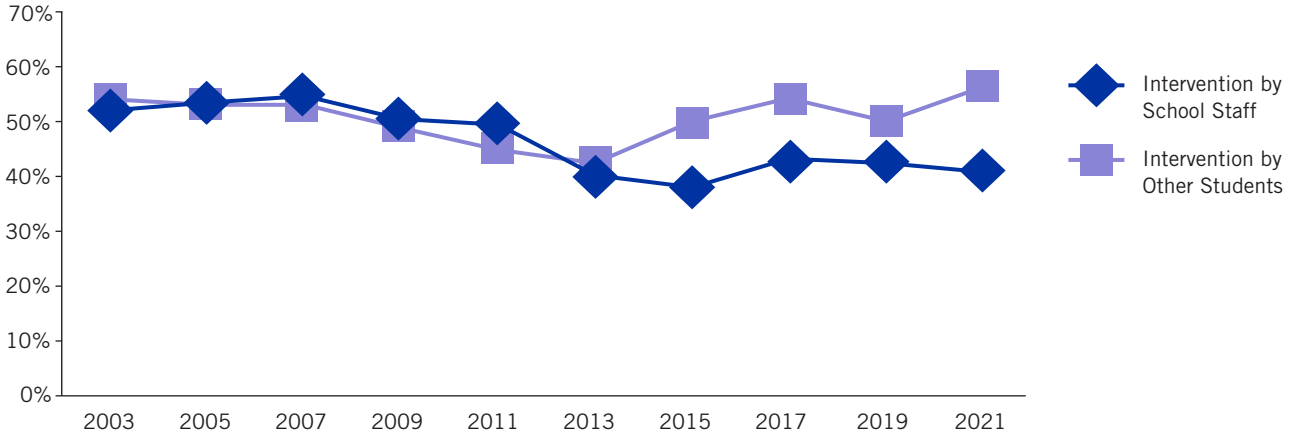


Figure 4.4 Intervention Regarding Negative Remarks about Gender Expression Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Any Intervention, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)



anti-LGBTQ+ remarks from them and less frequent intervention with regard to homophobic remarks and no change in intervention with regard to negative gender remarks. It is possible that this general lack of positive change was related to changes in school instruction in the 2020–2021 academic year as a result of COVID. However, we account for differences across years in personal demographics and school characteristics in our analyses, which would theoretically address some of this. This lack of positive change may be related to changes in public opinion and in public discourse during the 2020–2021 academic year, especially when considering the increase in the reported negative actions or inaction by the adults in school.

Experiences of Harassment and Assault Over Time

To gain further understanding of changes in school climate for LGBTQ+ students in secondary schools, we examined the incidence of reported anti-LGBTQ+ harassment and assault over time. Since 2001, we have assessed the frequency of experiencing verbal and physical harassment and physical assault based on sexual orientation, gender expression and gender in school.

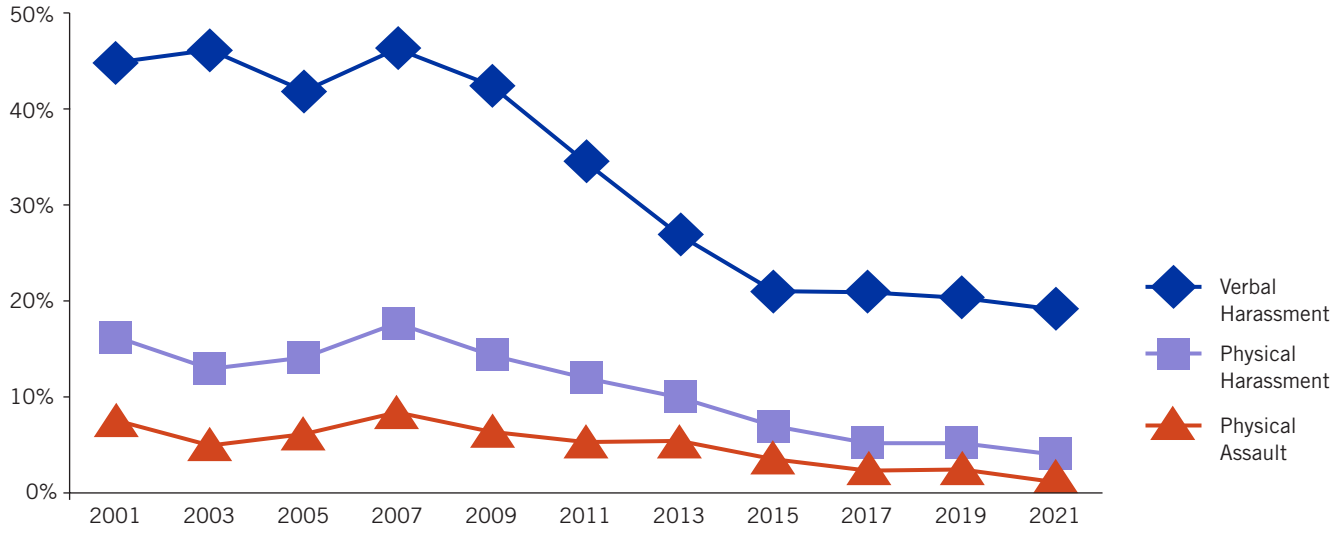
With regard to **victimization related to sexual orientation**:[368]

- **Verbal harassment** changed little between 2001 and 2007, declined significantly from 2007 to 2015, but did not change from 2015 to 2019. In 2021, the frequency did not differ from 2019 (see Figure 4.5).
- **Physical harassment** changed little between 2001 to 2005, and increased in 2007. Since 2007, the frequency has generally been in decline. However, in 2021, the frequency did not differ from 2019, but both years were lower than all years prior to 2017 (see also Figure 4.5).
- **Physical assault** changed little between 2001 and 2007, but generally was in decline from 2011 onward. In 2021, the frequency was lower than all prior years (see also Figure 4.5).

With regard to **victimization related to gender expression**:[369]

- **Verbal harassment** did not change between 2001 and 2007, and generally decreased from 2009 to 2019. In 2021,however, the frequency did not differ from 2019, but both years were lower than most prior years (see Figure 4.6).
- **Physical harassment** declined starting in 2007 after few changes among prior years, but did not change from 2017 to 2021. However, rates of physical harassment in the years 2017 to 2021 were lower than years 2015 and earlier (see also Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.5 Frequency of Victimization Based on Sexual Orientation Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting In-School Experiences Often or Frequently, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)



- **Physical assault** also started to decline in 2007 after few changes among prior years, and in 2021, the frequency was lower than all prior years (see also Figure 4.6).

With regard to **victimization related to gender**:[370]

- **Verbal harassment** changed little between 2001 and 2011, but was lower in later years of the survey than the years prior to 2011. In 2021, the frequency was lower than 2017 and all years 2011 and earlier (see Figure 4.7).
- **Physical harassment** changed little between 2001 and 2007, and generally declined from 2009 onward. In 2021, the frequency did not differ from 2019 but was lower than years 2013 and earlier (see also Figure 4.7).
- **Physical assault** did not change between 2001 and 2009, except for a significant increase in 2007. From 2011, the frequency generally declined, and in 2021 was lower than all years but 2019.

Reporting of School-Based Harassment and Assault Over Time

In 2003, we began asking students about the frequency of students reporting experiences of victimization to school staff. Across years, as shown in Figure 4.8, we saw that the highest level of reporting was in 2003 and the lowest levels in 2007 and 2009, Since that time, we saw a small but significant incline in the frequency of reporting up to 2017. The frequency of reporting did not differ from 2017 to 2021.[371]

Figure 4.6 Frequency of Victimization Based on Gender Expression Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Event Frequently or Often, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)

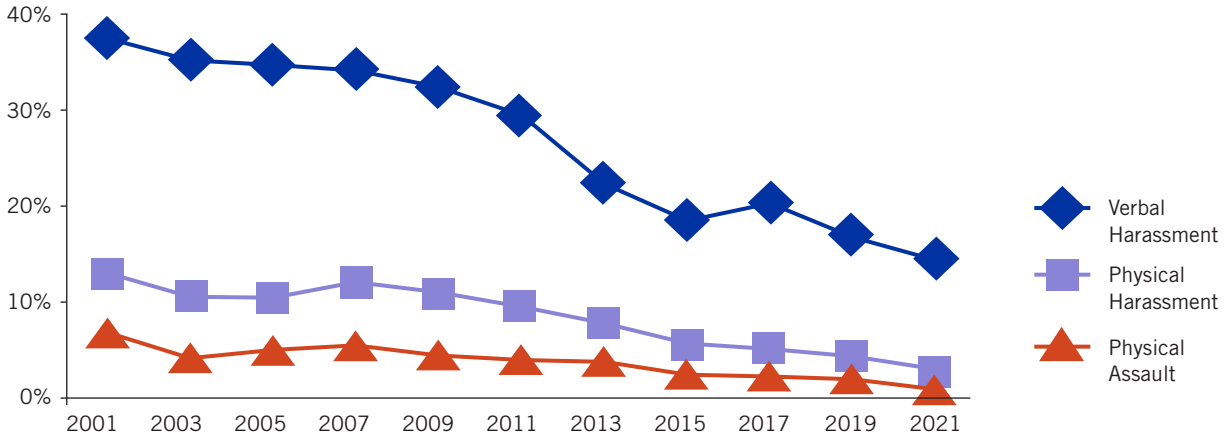
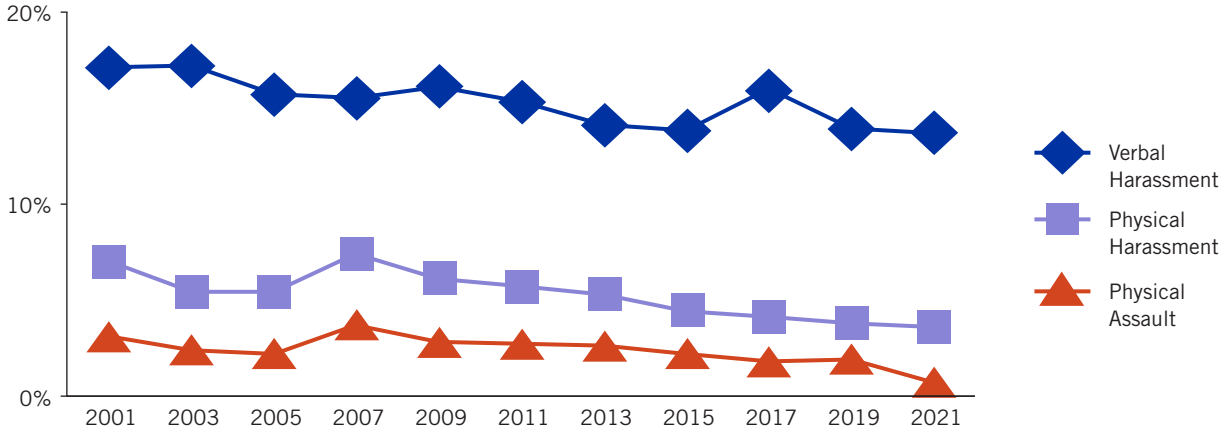


Figure 4.7 Frequency of Victimization Based on Gender Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Event Frequently or Often, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)



In 2005, we began asking students how effective their teachers or other school staff were in addressing incidents of harassment and assault when students reported them. Across all years, a minority of students reported that any intervention on the part of school staff was effective—generally between 30% and 40% reported that staff intervention was somewhat or very effective across years (see Figure 4.8). The highest levels of effectiveness were reported in 2005. In 2021, the effectiveness of reporting was similar to that from the most recent years of the survey (2013 to 2019).[372]

Considering all changes over time with regard to victimization, we have seen significant improvements in more recent years compared to the first years of our biennial survey, but few recent changes. In 2021, the rates of verbal and physical harassment based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender were generally similar to 2019 but lower than in 2017. In contrast, for all three types of physical assault, the rates in 2021 were significantly lower than nearly all prior years. Even though we accounted for differences in types of learning environments in the 2020–2021 academic year, it may still be that the decrease in physical assault was related to fewer opportunities for in-person, peer-to-peer contact, even in schools where students were in school in-person. However, we did not see that same decline in physical harassment.

With regard to reporting harassment and assault, the rate has not changed in recent years. In 2021, as discussed in the "Reporting of School-Based Harassment and Assault" in "Part One" of this report, LGBTQ+ students who were in online learning environments during any time in the 2020–2021 academic year may not have known procedures for reporting online victimization. Given that the preponderance of LGBTQ+ students had had some online learning, whether it was full-time or in hybrid settings, it is possible that that may account for the lack of change seen in 2021, even though we attempt to account for learning environment in our analyses. With regard to the perceived effectiveness of staff response to reported victimization, it is hopeful that the level of effectiveness was higher in the later years of the survey, despite there being no recent change in the frequency of reporting incidents. In sum, although we do not see an overall trend that schools are becoming appreciably safer for LGBTQ+ students, we do not see that they have become significantly worse.

Experiences of Discrimination Over Time

In addition to hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks in the hallways and directly experiencing victimization from other students, LGBTQ+-related discriminatory policies and practices also contribute to a hostile school experience for LGBTQ+ students. As mentioned previously in the section Experiences of Discrimination at School, we began asking students about a number of specific LGBTQ+-related discriminatory policies and practices at their school in 2013, and in this section, we examine how these experiences may have changed between 2013 and 2021.[373]

Figure 4.9 shows the incidence of having had any experience with anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school over the five time points, along with the incidences for the specific types of discriminatory

Figure 4.8 Frequency of Reporting Victimization to School Staff and Effectiveness of Reporting Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)

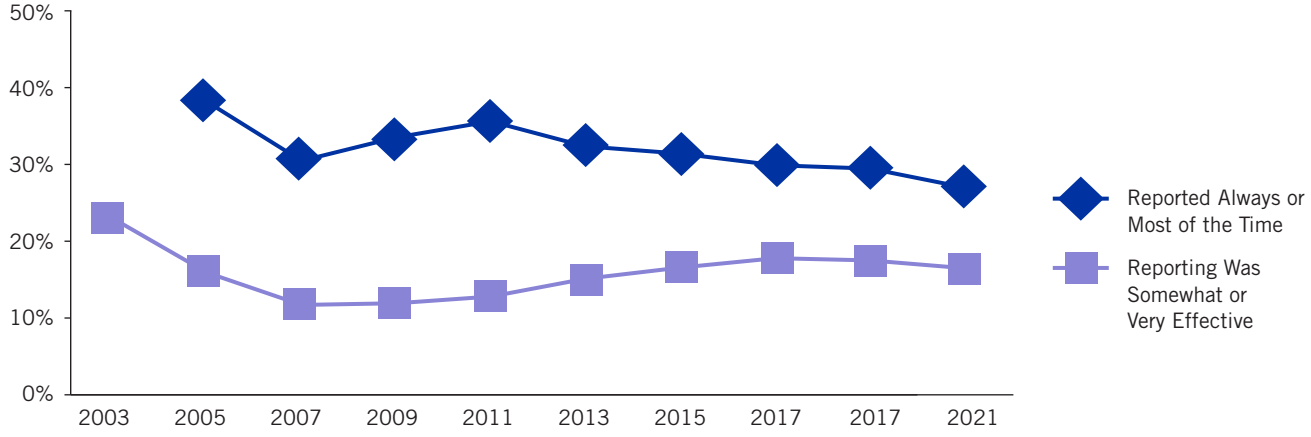
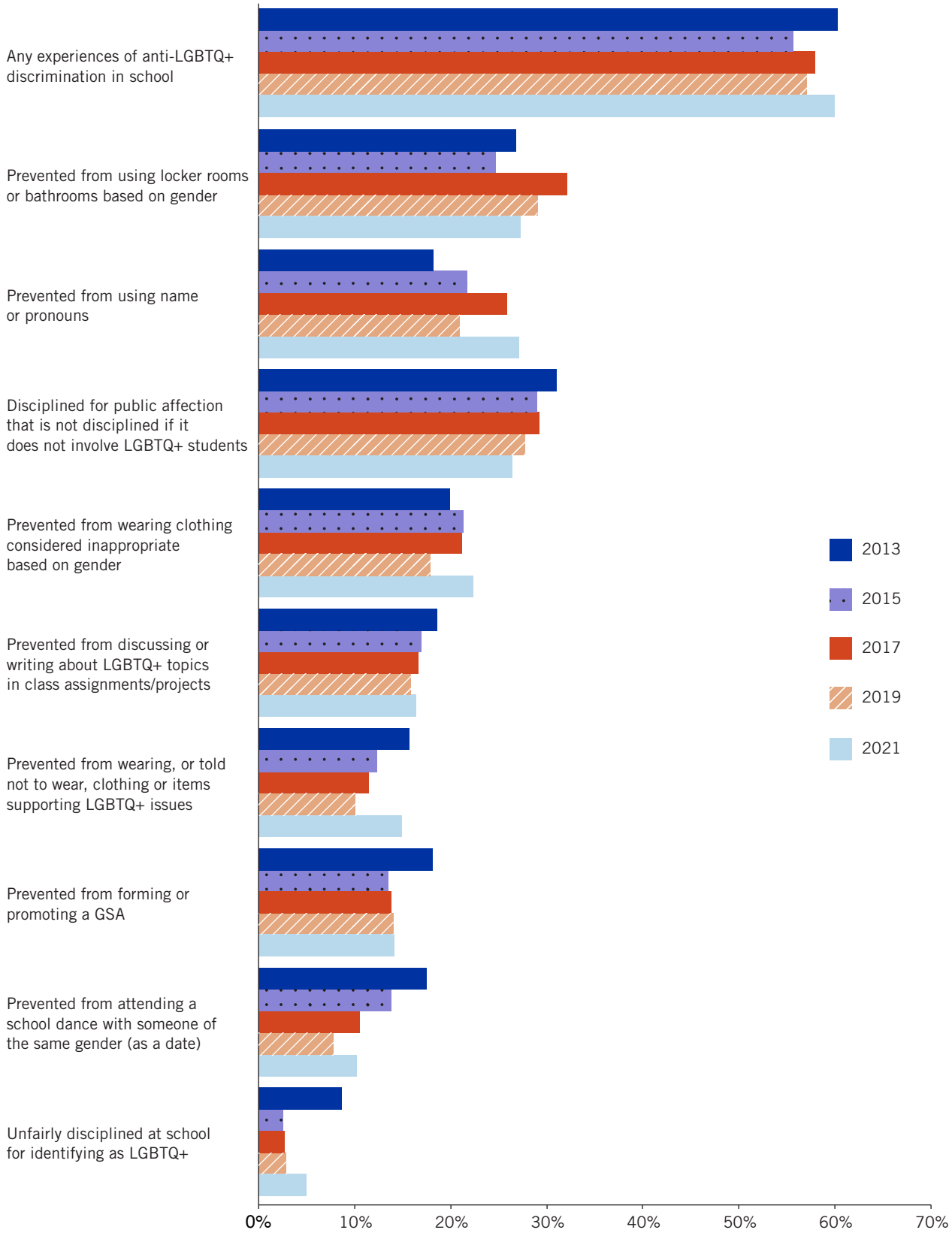


Figure 4.9 Frequency of Experiences with Discriminatory Policies and Practices Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students, Based on Estimated Marginal Means)



policies or practices asked across the five surveys. Overall, over half of LGBTQ+ students experienced some type of LGBTQ+-related discrimination at school at all five time points. In 2019, the percentage of LGBTQ+ students who had experienced any form of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination had declined from the previous years; however, the percentage increased in 2021 and it was not different from the years 2013 to 2017.[374]

With regard to the specific forms of discrimination, the percentages for most forms were highest in 2013, except for bathroom and locker room use and clothing-related discrimination.[375] In 2019, we saw a decline in most forms of discrimination from prior years. In 2021, however, many of these forms of discrimination increased, specifically, restrictions on the use of names and pronouns, clothing based on gender, clothing supporting LGBTQ+ issue, and school dances, as well as generally being disciplined for identifying as LGBTQ+. It is important to note that two forms of discrimination that were specific to gender—prevented from using one's preferred name or pronouns and being prohibited from wearing clothes of another gender—increased from 2019 to 2021; however, the third gender-specific form of discrimination—being prohibited from bathroom or locker room use based on gender—was not different in 2021 than 2019. Even though we accounted for differences in types of learning environments in the 2020–2021 academic year, it may be that focus on name/pronoun use and clothing choices (and perhaps, the use of make-up), by educators was heightened in online learning platforms, whereas the use of school facilities was more limited due to COVID-related prevention (e.g., measures to limit person-to-person contact during in-person instruction).

LGBTQ+-Related Resources Over Time

In 2001, we began asking LGBTQ+ students in the NSCS about the availability of LGBTQ+-related resources in school, such as GSAs (Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances) and curricular resources. In this section, we examine the levels of availability of these supportive school resources over time.

Supportive Student Clubs. In our 2019 survey, we saw a steady, significant increase from previous years in the percentage of LGBTQ+ students having a GSA at school; however, in 2021, the percentage of LGBTQ+ students who had a GSA available at their school dropped significantly (see Figure 4.10).[376] The percentage of students reporting that they had a GSA at school has increased from under 40% in 2007 to over 60% in 2019 but fell to under 40% again in 2021. It is possible that extracurricular activities in general were curtailed in the 2020–2021 academic years because of COVID restrictions, which could explain this sharp decline.

Inclusive Curricular Resources. Overall, there have been few positive changes in LGBTQ+ curricular resources over time (see Figure 4.11):

- **Internet access to LGBTQ+ content** on school computers was highest in 2019 but decreased in 2021. Access was higher in 2021, however, than years 2013 and prior.[377]

- Access to **LGBTQ+ books and resources** in school libraries was also highest in 2019 and decreased in 2021. Overall, there have been few changes across the years in the availability of school library resources.[378]

- The availability of **LGBTQ+ information in textbooks and class resources** has historically been one of the least commonly reported curricular supports for LGBTQ+ students, and the percentage of LGBTQ+ students in 2021 who reported LGBTQ+ inclusion in textbooks and class resources had not changed from 2019;[379]

- Being **taught positive LGBTQ+ material in class** has also been one of the least common curricular supports and has changed little in recent years. However, the percentage of LGBTQ+ students who reported being taught positive LGBTQ+ information in classes was lower in 2021 than in the more recent years of the survey - 2015, 2017, and 2019.[380]

It is interesting to note that there has not been much change over the years with regard to LGBTQ+ students being taught negative LGBTQ+-related content in class. Since we first asked this question in 2013, the percentage increased slightly in 2015, and has not changed since that time.[381]

Supportive School Personnel. In 2003, we began asking LGBTQ+ students about the number

Figure 4.10 Availability of GSAs Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Having GSA in School, Accounting for Covariates)

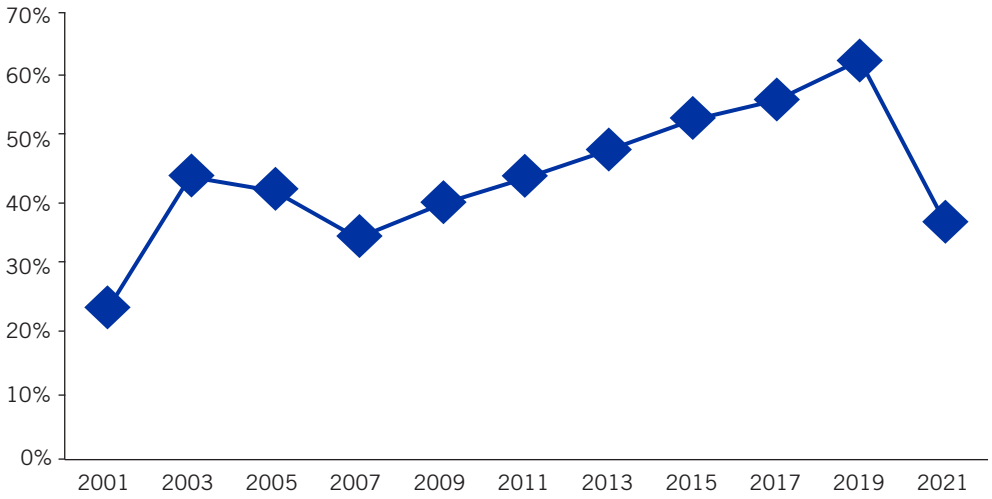


Figure 4.11 Availability of Curricular Resources Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Resource in School, Accounting for Covariates)

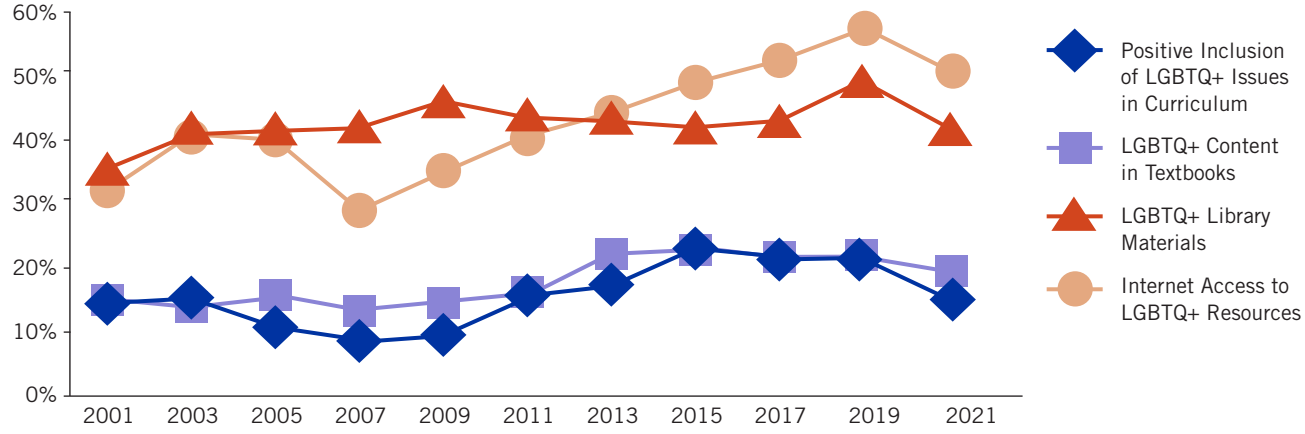
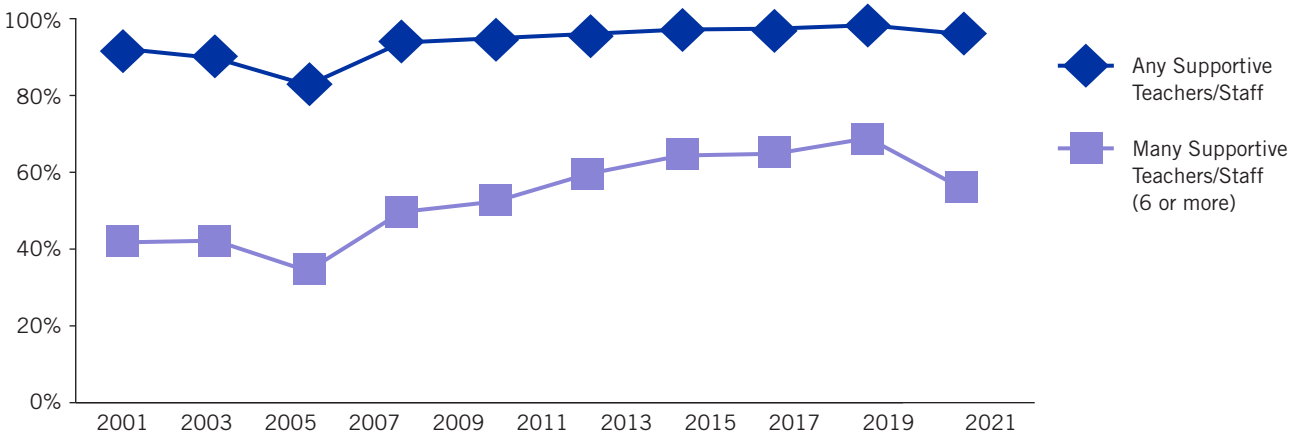


Figure 4.12 Availability of Supportive School Staff Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Having Supportive Staff in School, Accounting for Covariates)



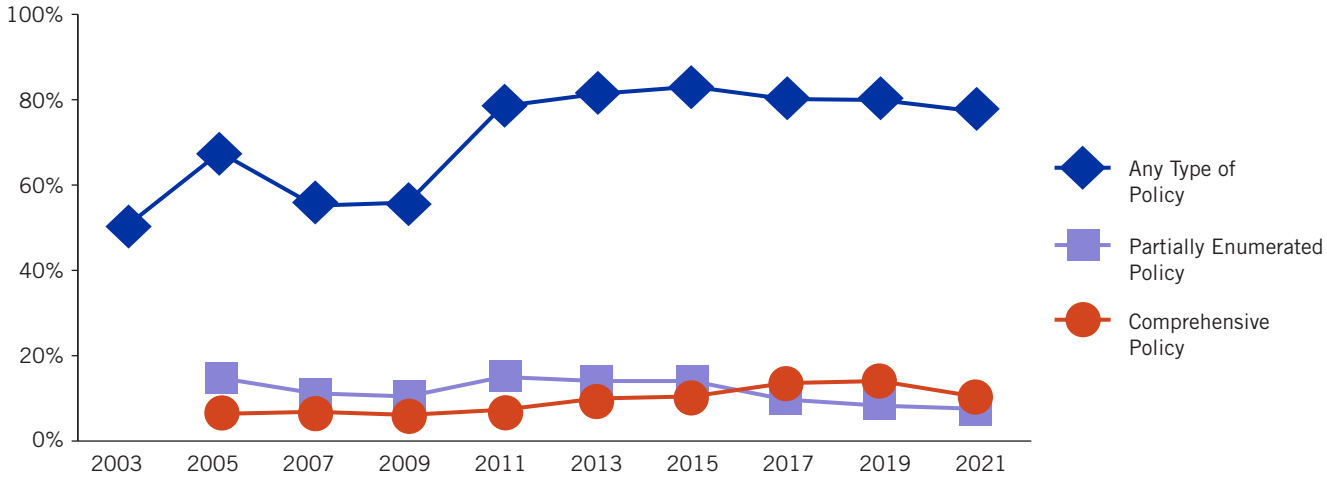
of school personnel who were supportive of LGBTQ+ students.[382] Across the years, we had seen a general, positive increasing trend in the number of supportive educators at school (see Figure 4.12).[383] In 2021, however, the number of supportive school personnel was lower than in recent years, specifically 2013 to 2019. Nevertheless, the number of supportive school personnel in 2021 was higher than early years of the survey, specifically 2009 and earlier. As shown in Figure 4.12, the percentage reporting 6 or more supportive educators ranged from under 50% in the earlier years of the survey, to nearly 70% in 2019 but to less than 60% in 2021. However, as also shown in Figure 4.12, since 2011, more than 95% of LGBTQ+ students reported having at least one supportive school personnel at school.

Bullying, Harassment, and Assault Policies. In all years, as shown in Figure 4.13, the majority of LGBTQ+ students reported that their schools had some type of anti-bullying/harassment policy; however, the minority of students reported that the policy enumerated sexual orientation and/or gender identity/expression. Overall, there was a sharp increase in the number of students reporting any type of policy after 2009, and the rate has remained more or less consistent since 2011. From 2011 to 2015, there had generally been small increases with regard to any type of anti-bullying/harassment policy, followed by a small decline from 2015 to 2017. In 2021, the rate had not changed from 2019 but was somewhat lower than 2017.[384]

With regard to enumerated policies, there was little change from 2005 to 2013. However, from 2015 to 2019, we saw a pattern of small increases in the percentages of LGBTQ+ students who reported having comprehensive policies (i.e., fully enumerated),[385] and small decreases in those who reported partially enumerated policies.[386] However, in 2021, the percentage of LGBTQ+ student reporting comprehensive policies was lower than in 2019 and the percentage reporting partially enumerated policies had not changed.

In 2021, LGBTQ+ students were less likely to report having nearly all LGBTQ+ resources than in 2019. Some of these differences may be related to limitations to in-person contact because of COVID. For example, it may be that school staff were more limited in having one-on-one contact with students in general, whether it be because of limitations with the capacity for online meetings or general restrictions on in-person meetings because of COVID, which may have resulted in LGBTQ+ students reporting a lower number of supportive educators in 2021. Regarding GSAs, schools that were online during the 2020–2021 academic year may not have transitioned extracurricular clubs to online spaces, and schools that had in-person instruction may not have had extracurricular activities because of COVID-related prevention practices. Access to school libraries may also have been limited for those in in-person instruction because of COVID safety protocols, and not have been physical accessible for those

Figure 4.13 Prevalence of School or District Anti-Bullying/Harassment Policies Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporting Policy, Accounting for Covariates)

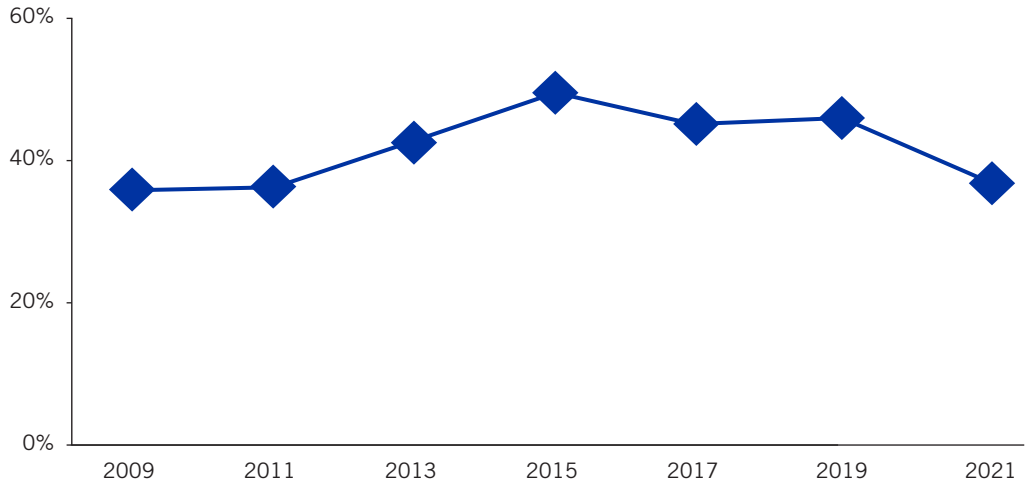


in online instruction. Similarly, access to school computers may have been restricted for those in in-person learning environments for similar reasons, if the computers were in common areas of the school building, such as the library or a computer room. Restrictions in person-to-person contact does not, however, explain why inclusion of LGBTQ+ content in the curriculum was lower in 2021 than 2019. It may be that this decrease in positive LGBTQ+ curricular inclusion reflects the shift in public discourse about diversity in school curriculum, specifically with regard to teaching the histories, experiences, or perspectives of LGBTQ+ people and people of color. In spring 2021, many state legislatures were considering curriculum censorship bills ostensibly opposing the teaching of critical race theory.[387] Also in 2021, three states passed bills that allow parents to opt their students out of any lessons or coursework that mentions sexual orientation or gender identity.[388] Efforts to erase or prohibit content inclusive of communities that experience marginalization may have had a chilling effect on educators who feared heightened scrutiny.[389] This shift in public discourse about curriculum may also, in part, explain the decrease in enumerated school anti-bullying and harassment policies—education leaders may have confounded protections based on sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression as inclusion of sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression content.

Student Acceptance of LGBTQ+ People Over Time

Previously in this part of the report, we noted that the frequency of student intervention with regard to homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression increased in 2021. However, we also found the availability of most LGBTQ+ supports in schools had decreased in 2021, which are related to a more accepting student body (see the Utility of School-Based Resources and Supports section of this report). These findings raise the question as to whether student attitudes about LGBTQ+ people have changed, and if so, in what ways. We examined whether student attitudes toward LGBTQ+ people have changed over time, and found that although student acceptance steadily increased from 2011 to 2015, it had largely level off until 2019, and was significantly lower in 2021 (see Figure 4.14).[390]

Figure 4.14 Perceptions of Peer Acceptance of LGBTQ+ People Over Time
(Percentage of LGBTQ+ Students Reporing Somewhat or Very Accepting Peers, Accounting for Covariates)



Conclusions

Taking into account all the results related to negative indicators of school climate, e.g., anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and victimization, there were few positive changes in 2021. Most types of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks made by students in 2021 were at rates similar to those seen in 2019. Thus, schools have not necessarily become safer for LGBTQ+ students, but they have not become significantly worse with regard to their peer interactions. There were also some concerning changes with regard to school staff. School staff were reported to have more frequently made anti-LGBTQ+ remarks themselves, and fewer were seen as supportive of LGBTQ+ students in their schools. In addition, school staff were reported to be less likely to intervene when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made, although students in 2021 did not differ from those in 2019 with regard to how often they reported victimization to staff and in how effective staff actions were when such incidents were reported. As discussed previously, some of these differences may be due to changes in how schools were operating in the 2020–2021 academic year, but it may also signal changes in public opinion and in public discourse, especially when considering the increase in the reported negative actions or inaction by the adults in school.

It is also a concern that when considering changes in anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination in school, we saw higher levels of reported discrimination in LGBTQ+ self-expression in general—preventing students from wearing clothes related to LGBTQ+ issues or one's gender, using one's name/pronoun, and general discipline for identifying as LGBTQ+. More specifically, a concerning pattern emerged that we saw in 2017 with regard to gender-specific problems in schools—negative remarks about gender expression increased both from students and school staff and two gender-specific forms of discrimination increased from 2019 to 2021. It may be that public discourse on transgender students, such as policy battles about bathroom access and access to sports teams and athletic facilities, and about LGBTQ+ curricular inclusion have brought LGBTQ+ student issues, and transgender student issues in particular, to the forefront in U.S. schools.

In 2021, LGBTQ+ students were less likely to report having nearly all LGBTQ+ resources than those in 2019. Some of these differences may be related to limitations to in-person contact because of COVID, and as schools return to the usual in-person learning, gaps in available supports may be reduced. However, these changes in supportive school personnel and curricular inclusion may also be related to greater negative public discourse on LGBTQ+ issues in education. Given that there continue to be legislative battles about school curriculum and about LGBTQ+ expression in schools since we conducted our 2021 survey, it is a serious concern that LGBTQ+ supports could continue to decline.

In our 2019 report, we developed a hypothesis that the effects of positive changes in LGBTQ+ school supports seen in one year are then reflected in subsequent years as decreases in the negative indicators of school climate. We expressed some hope that the increases in supports in 2019 would be reflected in decreases in anti-LGBTQ+ incidents in school in 2021. Unfortunately, perhaps because of changes in school environments as a result of COVID, we largely did not see the expected decreases in anti-LGBTQ+ incidents, although we did not see much indication of such incidents increasing either. It gives us pause that we saw such a significant decline in LGBTQ+ supports in 2021, with respect to how that may affect school climate for LGBTQ+ students in later school years. Overall, our findings over time clearly show that more work is needed to make schools safer and more affirming for LGBTQ+ students, particularly in establishing positive supports in school.

DISCUSSION

Limitations

Although there are no national population parameters regarding LGBTQ+ youth, we believe that the methods used for our survey resulted in a nationally representative sample of LGBTQ+ students who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer (or another non-heterosexual sexual orientation and/or non-cisgender gender identity) and who were able to find out about the survey in some way, either through a connection to LGBTQ+ or youth-serving organizations that publicized the survey, or through social media. As discussed in the *Methods and Sample* section, we conducted targeted advertising on the social media sites Facebook and Instagram in order to broaden our reach and obtain a more representative sample. Advertising on these sites allowed LGBTQ+ students who did not necessarily have any formal connection to the LGBTQ+ community to participate in the survey. However, the social media advertisements for the survey were shown only to youth who would have had visited pages that include LGBTQ+ content, or who were connected to GLSEN's social media in some way.[391] LGBTQ+ youth who were not comfortable viewing pages with LGBTQ+ content or youth who were not connected to GLSEN pages in some way through their social network would not have received the advertisement about the survey. Thus, LGBTQ+ youth who are perhaps the most isolated—those without a formal connection to the LGBTQ+ community or without access to online resources and supports, and those who are not comfortable viewing LGBTQ+ content on social media—may be underrepresented in the survey sample.

The sample also did not include students who have a sexual attraction to the same gender or multiple genders, but who do not identify themselves as LGBQ.[392] These youth may be more isolated, unaware of supports available to them, or, even if aware, uncomfortable using such supports. Similarly, youth whose gender identity is not the same as their sex assigned at birth, but who do not identify as transgender, may also be more isolated and without the same access to resources as the youth in our survey. The survey was primarily advertised as being for LGBTQ+ students, and students who did not identify as LGBTQ+ but nevertheless self-identified in ways other than heterosexual and cisgender may have been less likely to participate in the survey, even though they were included in the survey sample. For example, among asexual students in particular, some may not identify as LGBTQ+ and the sample of asexual students in our survey would not necessarily reflect the experiences of those students.

Another possible limitation to the survey is related to the sample's racial/ethnic composition—the percentage of LGBQ African American/Black students and LGBQ Hispanic/Latinx students were lower, and LGBQ White students was higher than compared to LGBQ secondary school students from other population-based data.[393] In part, this discrepancy may be related to different methods for measuring race/ethnicity. In our survey, students were asked one question about their race/ethnicity, and could choose multiple options.[394] In contrast, national youth surveys often include two questions —one about whether the respondent identifies as Hispanic/Latinx, and the other about their race.[395] This difference in methodology may also impact how students choose to identify in the survey, and thus may account for some of the discrepancy in racial/ethnic representation between our LGBQ sample and LGBQ secondary students from other population-based data. Nevertheless, it is possible that LGBQ African American/Black students and LGBQ Hispanic/Latinx students were underrepresented, and LGBQ White students were overrepresented in our sample. Additionally, because there are no national statistics on the demographic breakdown of transgender-identified youth, we cannot know how our transgender sample compares to other population-based studies.

Our sample, like other national samples of LGBTQ+ youth, included a small percentage of cisgender males who identified as gay, bisexual, or queer. It may be that these youth are less likely to be out in middle school or high school, and would be less likely to learn about the survey or feel comfortable taking a survey specifically for LGBTQ+ students. Additionally, our sample had a small percentage of transgender female students. In that our sample only includes students who had been in school during the 2020–2021 school year, it is possible that transgender girls leave school at higher rates than do transgender boys, thereby leading to fewer transgender girls eligible to take our survey. It is also possible that transgender boys come out earlier than do transgender girls, which would lead to lower numbers of transgender female secondary school students.

Given that our survey is available only in English and Spanish, LGBTQ+ students who are not proficient in either of those languages might be limited in their ability to participate. Thus, these students may also be underrepresented in our survey sample.

It is also important to note that our survey only reflects the experiences of LGBTQ+ students who were in school during the 2020–2021 school year. Although our sample does allow for students who had left school at some point during the 2020–2021 school year to participate, it still does not reflect the experiences of LGBTQ+ youth who may have already dropped out in prior school years. The experiences of these youth may likely differ from those students who remained in school, particularly with regard to hostile school climate, access to supportive resources, severity of school discipline, and educational aspirations.

Lastly, the data from our survey are cross-sectional (i.e., the data were collected at one point in time), which means that we cannot determine causality. For example, although we can say that there was a relationship between the number of supportive staff and students' academic achievement, we cannot say that one predicts the other.

While considering these limitations, our attempts at diverse recruitment of a hard-to-reach population have yielded a sample of LGBTQ+ students that we believe most likely closely reflects the population of LGBTQ+ middle and high school students in the U.S.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The 2021 National School Climate Survey continues to provide evidence that schools are often unsafe learning environments for LGBTQ+ students. Hearing biased or derogatory language at school, especially sexist remarks, homophobic remarks, and negative remarks about gender expression, was a common occurrence. Almost 8 in 10 students in our survey reported feeling unsafe at school because of at least one personal characteristic, with sexual orientation and gender expression being the most commonly reported characteristics. Students also frequently reported avoiding spaces in their schools that they perceived as being unsafe, especially bathrooms, locker rooms, and physical education (P.E.) or gym classes. The vast majority of LGBTQ+ youth who attended school in-person during the academic year reported being verbally harassed because of their sexual orientation, gender expression, or gender (SOGIE). In addition, many of these students reported experiencing incidents of physical harassment and assault related to their LGBTQ+ identities, as well as other incidents of victimization such as sexual harassment, cyberbullying, and deliberate property damage at school. In addition, many LGBTQ+ students who attended school experienced online harassment during the school day related to their LGBTQ+ identities, with over a third having been harassed online regarding their sexual orientation.

In addition to anti-LGBTQ+ behavior by peers, be it biased language in the hallways or direct personal victimization, the majority of LGBTQ+ students also faced anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies and practices. Schools prohibited LGBTQ+ students from expressing themselves through their clothing or their relationships, limited LGBTQ+ inclusion in curricular and extracurricular activities, and enforced other policies that negatively affected transgender and nonbinary students in particular, such as preventing use of their chosen name or pronoun.

Overall, the vast majority of LGBTQ+ students experienced identity-based harassment while attending school in-person only, online only, and in hybrid online and in-person settings. However, our results suggest that the frequency of victimization was related to the type of learning environments the students were in. Students who attended school in-person for the entire year experienced more in-person victimization than hybrid students who were only in person for a portion of the year. Similarly, online only students experienced more cyber harassment than hybrid students. Thus, the more time a student spent in an online versus in-person learning environment was related to the degree of victimization they experienced online and in-person, respectively. LGBTQ+ students who were in hybrid settings experienced a lower frequency of both forms of victimization, but they were exposed to both online and in-person victimization, in contrast to their peers in online only or in-person only environments who only experienced one form. LGBTQ+ students who were in school in-person entirely were also far more likely to experience any form of LGBTQ+-related discrimination than those in the other types of learning environments.

LGBTQ+ students are a diverse population, and the results from our 2021 survey reveal important differences among these students. Transgender and nonbinary students in particular were more likely to have felt unsafe and face anti-LGBTQ+ victimization at school than their cisgender LGBQ peers. Similarly, pansexual students were more likely to feel unsafe and experienced greater levels of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization than their LGBTQ+ peers with other sexual orientations. Furthermore, we found that LGBTQ+ students of color (including Black, AAPI, Latinx, Native and Indigenous, MENA, and multiracial LGBTQ+ students) commonly experienced both racist and anti-LGBTQ+ victimization at school, and were more likely to experience multiple forms of victimization than White LGBTQ+ students.

Results from our survey also demonstrate the serious consequences that anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and discrimination can have on LGBTQ+ students' academic success and their general well-being. LGBTQ+ students who experienced frequent harassment and assault based on their sexual orientation or gender expression reported missing more days of school, having lower GPAs, lower educational aspirations, and higher rates of school discipline than students who were harassed less often. In addition, students who experienced higher levels of victimization felt less connected to their school community and had poorer psychological well-being, including a higher likelihood of suicidal ideation. LGBTQ+ students who reported experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school also had worse educational outcomes, including missing more days of school, lower GPAs, and lower educational aspirations, and were more likely to be disciplined at school, than students who did not experience anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination. Furthermore, students who experienced anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination also felt less connected to their school community and had poorer psychological well-being.

School personnel are charged with providing a safe learning environment for all students. Teachers and other school authorities, however, most often did not intervene when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made in their presence, leaving the use of anti-LGBTQ+ language largely unchallenged in school. Furthermore, the majority of LGBTQ+ students did not report harassment or assault to school personnel, most often because they believed that there would be no effective action. And even when students did report incidents of victimization, the most common staff responses were to do nothing or merely to tell the student to ignore it. LGBTQ+ students' reporting of harassment and assault did differ by learning environment (online only, hybrid, and in-person only) – students in in-person learning environments reported harassment to school staff at higher rates than did students in online only or hybrid settings. It is possible that students who only attended school in-person had more frequent and regular contact with school staff, and had greater access to teachers and other school staff. Additionally, students who were in in-person only learning environments would likely have been already familiar with procedures for reporting harassment from the previous academic year, whereas students in online only or hybrid learning environments likely were in schools that had to make adjustments to reporting procedures to adapt to the online learning environment, and students may have been unsure of or unfamiliar with these procedures.

In spite of the lack of action by school personnel in general with regard to interventions when anti-LGBTQ+ event occurred in school, the vast majority of the LGBTQ+ students in our survey did have at least one adult at school who was supportive of LGBTQ+ students. Further, our findings demonstrate the important role that supportive school staff can and do play in creating safer and more affirming learning environments for LGBTQ+ students. Supportive educators positively influenced students' academic performance, educational aspirations, feelings of safety, school absenteeism (missing fewer days of school), psychological well-being, and connection to their school community. Furthermore, when staff responded effectively to incidents of victimization, LGBTQ+ students reported less anti-LGBTQ+ victimization than LGBTQ+ students in schools where staff responded ineffectively.

In addition to their role in providing direct support and in intervening when anti-LGBTQ+ events occur at school, educators also serve a crucial role in teaching a curriculum that includes positive representations of LGBTQ+ people, history, and events. By teaching about LGBTQ+ topics in a positive manner, educators may enhance the connections of their LGBTQ+ students to the school environment and to learning, in general. Students in schools where their classroom included positive representations of LGBTQ+ history, people,

or events had better educational outcomes, were more comfortable engaging in conversations about LGBTQ+ issues with their teachers, and had a greater connection to their school community. Furthermore, by teaching positive LGBTQ+-related content in class, educators may also increase the knowledge, awareness, and acceptance of LGBTQ+ people for all students in school. LGBTQ+ students who reported positive curricular inclusion were less likely to feel unsafe and miss school for safety reasons, and reported less hostile behavior from peers (i.e., less anti-LGBTQ+ language and victimization). Students with positive curricular inclusion also reported that their peers were more likely to intervene regarding anti-LGBTQ+ biased remarks, and were more accepting of LGBTQ+ people in general.

In addition to having supportive educators at school, the results from our survey also call attention to the important role that institutional supports and resources have in making schools safer and promoting better educational outcomes and healthy youth development for these students. Our findings indicate that GSAs (Gay-Straight Alliances/Gender and Sexuality Alliances) and similar clubs also play a key role in improving school climate for LGBTQ+ students. Students who attended schools with a GSA or similar club were less likely to feel unsafe at school and miss school for safety reasons, heard fewer anti-LGBTQ+ remarks at school, reported more frequent staff and peer intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ remarks, and experienced less anti-LGBTQ+ victimization both online and in-person. Thus, GSAs may demonstrate to the whole school community that anti-LGBTQ+ behaviors should not be tolerated, and that they must be addressed when they do occur. Students who had a GSA at school also reported that their peers were more accepting of LGBTQ+ people in general, indicating that GSAs may provide awareness to the student community of LGBTQ+ student issues. Furthermore, having a GSA at school was also associated with a greater sense of belonging to the school community and greater psychological well-being among LGBTQ+ students, perhaps as a result of the overall positive impact of GSAs on the school environment.

With regard to school policies, our findings indicate important benefits associated with both comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies, as well as policies affirming the rights of transgender and nonbinary students. LGBTQ+ students with comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies that included protections for sexual orientation and gender identity/expression reported hearing less anti-LGBTQ+ language and greater staff intervention when anti-LGBTQ+ biased remarks were made, as well as reported lower levels of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and more effective staff response when incidents were reported. Furthermore, having a policy that enumerated either sexual orientation or gender expression but not both was often no more effective than a policy with no enumeration or no policy at all. Comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policies may provide important instruction for students on reporting victimization, as well as guidance for educators that these anti-LGBTQ+ behaviors must be addressed and on the appropriate strategies for intervention. Similarly, policies affirming transgender and nonbinary students' rights appear to improve school climate, particularly for transgender and nonbinary students. Transgender and nonbinary students with such policies or guidelines were less likely to miss school because of feeling unsafe, felt a greater sense of belonging to their school community, and were less likely to experience gender-related discrimination.

Unfortunately, each of the LGBTQ+-related resources and supports that we examined were not available to all LGBTQ+ students. GSAs were somewhat more common than other resources, although more than half did not have an active GSA at their school during the 2020–2021 academic year. Most students could not identify a large number of school staff (11 or more) who were supportive of LGBTQ+ students, and a small number were unable to identify any supportive staff. Furthermore, many LGBTQ+ students lacked access to positive LGBTQ+ information from school libraries and school computers, and few LGBTQ+ students reported being taught LGBTQ+ information in class or having this material in their textbooks and other class readings. With regard to supportive school policies, although a majority of students said that their school had some type of harassment/assault policy, few said that it was a comprehensive policy that explicitly stated protections based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression, and less than a tenth reported that they had official policies or guidelines to support transgender and nonbinary students at their schools. Although all LGBTQ+ students commonly lacked access to supportive resources at school, those in middle schools,

religiously-affiliated private schools, schools in rural areas, and schools in the South and Midwest, were all less likely than others to report having these resources. These findings underscore the importance of advocating for GSAs, supportive staff, inclusive curricular resources, and supportive school policies in all schools to ensure positive learning environments for LGBTQ+ students everywhere—environments in which students can be successful in learning, graduate, and continue on to further their education. Furthermore, given that LGBTQ+ students in in-person learning environments during the 2020–2021 academic year were often less likely to have supportive resources than those in online only learning or hybrid environments, schools may need to redouble their efforts to provide positive supports for LGBTQ+ students as they return to more regular in-person instructional practices.

The findings in this report show few gains toward safe and inclusive schools for LGBTQ+ secondary school students since our last report. Taking into account all the results related to negative indicators of school climate, such as anti-LGBTQ+ remarks and victimization, there was little change in students' experiences of hostile school climate from our 2019 findings. Thus, schools have not necessarily become safer for LGBTQ+ students, but they have not become significantly worse with regard to their peer interactions. However, there were some concerning changes with regard to school staff. Our findings show staff more frequently making anti-LGBTQ+ remarks themselves, and fewer staff being seen as supportive of LGBTQ+ students in their schools. In addition, school staff were reported to be less likely to intervene when anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were made. With regard to positive school supports, LGBTQ+ students were less likely to report having nearly all LGBTQ+ resources in 2021 compared to 2019. Some of these differences may be related to limitations to in-person contact because of COVID, and as schools return to the usual in-person learning, gaps in available supports may be reduced. However, these changes in supportive school personnel and curricular inclusion may not be wholly explained by changes in schools because of COVID and may also be related to greater negative public discourse on LGBTQ+ issues in education. Given that there continue to be legislative battles about school curriculum and about LGBTQ+ expression in schools since we conducted our 2021 survey, it is a serious concern that LGBTQ+ supports could continue to decline.

In *Part 4*, we discuss a hypothesis developed from our 2019 findings that the effects of positive changes in LGBTQ+ school supports seen in one year are then reflected in subsequent years as decreases in the negative indicators of school climate, and we expressed some hope that the increases in supports in 2019 would be reflected in decreases in anti-LGBTQ+ incidents in school in 2021. Unfortunately, perhaps because of changes in school environments as a result of COVID, we did not see the expected decreases in anti-LGBTQ+ incidents, although we did not see much indication of such incidents increasing either. It is of grave concern that we saw such a significant decline in LGBTQ+ supports in 2021 with respect to how that may affect school climate for LGBTQ+ students in later school years. Overall, our findings over time clearly show that more work is needed to make schools safer and more affirming for LGBTQ+ students, particularly in establishing positive supports in school.

To date, there is no federal legislation that has *explicitly* established protections from discrimination in schools based on sexual orientation and gender identity. Although Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX) prohibits discrimination based on sex in federally-funded schools, federal administrative policy has been inconsistent in communicating that discrimination based on sex includes discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity.[396] The U.S. Department of Education has proposed a revised rule that expressly states that Title IX prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity, including harassment that creates a hostile environment. Nevertheless, despite this progress on the federal level, education is primarily the responsibility of state and local authorities.[397] For example, states set standards regarding what must be taught, and school districts create curriculum based on these standards. And in 2021, we began to see heightened state legislative activity with regard to disallowing diversity in school curriculum, specifically with regard to teaching the histories, experiences, or perspectives of LGBTQ+ people and people of color. Thus, focused efforts to improve state and local policies are needed to provide positive school environments for LGBTQ+ youth.

There are steps that concerned stakeholders can take on behalf of LGBTQ+ students. Results

from the 2021 National School Climate Survey demonstrate the ways in which the presence of supportive student clubs, supportive educators, inclusive and supportive policies, and other school-based resources and supports can positively affect LGBTQ+ students' school experiences. Therefore, we recommend the following measures:

- Support student clubs, such as Gay-Straight Alliances or Gender and Sexuality Alliances (GSAs), that provide support for LGBTQ+ students and address LGBTQ+ issues in education;

- Provide training for school staff to improve rates of intervention and increase the number of supportive teachers and other staff available to students;

- Increase student access to appropriate and accurate information regarding LGBTQ+ people, history, and events through inclusive curricula and library and Internet resources;

- Ensure that school policies and practices, such as those related to dress codes and extracurricular activities including sports, do not discriminate against LGBTQ+ students;

- Enact and implement policies and practices to ensure transgender and nonbinary students have equal access to education, such as having access to gendered facilities that correspond to their gender; and

- Adopt and implement comprehensive school and district anti-bullying/harassment policies that specifically enumerate sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression as protected categories alongside others such as race, religion, and disability, with clear and effective systems for reporting and addressing incidents that students experience.

Instituting these measures can move us towards a future in which all students have the opportunity to learn and succeed in school, regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression. And given the decline in supports seen in our 2021 report, it is imperative that all of us who want safe and affirming schools for all students to intensify our efforts.

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Despite this declaration, to date there is no federal legislation that has explicitly established protections from discrimination in schools based on sexual orientation and gender identity, and federal policy has not been consistent in communicating that discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity is included in Title IX's protections against discrimination based on sex.

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32 Sexual orientation was assessed with a multi-check item (i.e., gay, lesbian, straight/heterosexual, bisexual, pansexual, queer, and questioning) with an optional write-in item for sexual orientations not listed. Youth were allowed to endorse multiple options. Students who endorsed multiple sexual orientations were provided with the option to indicate the sexual orientation with which they identified most strongly. Mutually exclusive categories were created at the data cleaning stage so that analyses could compare youth across sexual orientation categories. Students who indicated which orientation they identified most strongly with were coded as that orientation. For students who endorsed multiple sexual orientations and did not choose to indicate which one they most strongly identify with, responses were categorized based upon the following hierarchy: gay/lesbian, bisexual, pansexual, queer, questioning, asexual, and straight/heterosexual. Thus, as an example, if an individual identified as "gay" and "queer" they were categorized as "gay/lesbian"; if an individual identified as "bisexual" and "questioning", they were categorized as "bisexual."

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

34 Asexual identity is defined as not experiencing sexual attraction, but possibly experiencing other forms of attraction (e.g., intellectual, emotional).

35 Race/ethnicity was assessed with a single multi-check question item (i.e., African American or Black; Asian or South Asian; Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander; Native American, American Indian, or Alaska Native; White or Caucasian; Hispanic or Latino/Latina/Latinx; and Arab American, Middle Eastern, or North African) with an optional write-in item for race/ethnicities not listed. Participants who selected more than one race category were coded as multiracial, with the exception of participants who selected either "Hispanic or Latino/Latina/Latinx" or "Arab American, Middle Eastern, or North African" as their ethnicity. Participants who selected either one ethnicity were coded as that ethnicity, regardless of any additional racial identities they selected. Participants who selected both ethnicities were coded as multiracial.

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

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

39 To examine differences across school characteristics (grade level, school type, school locale, and region) by type of learning environment (online only, hybrd, and in-person only), a series of chi-square analyses were performed, and were all significant at $p<.01$. Comparisons between column percentages within each school characteristic were considered at $p<.01$ and indicated in the table whereby percentages across a row that share a letter are not significantly different and pairs that do not share a letter are significantly difference. Grade level: GSAs was significant: $\chi^2 = 163.11$, $df = 8$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .06; **School type (full sample)**: $\chi^2 = 217.31$, $df = 4$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .07; **Charter (within public school sample)**: $\chi^2 = 45.97$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .05; **Magnet (within public school sample)**: $\chi^2 = 69.45$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .06; **Locale**: $\chi^2 = 422.65$, $df = 4$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .10; **Region**: $\chi^2 = 1022.10$, $df = 8$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .15.

40 Students were placed into region based on the state they were from – Northeast: Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Washington, DC; South: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia; Midwest: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin; West: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, Wyoming; U.S. Territories: Guam, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands (no cases from American Samoa).

41 To examine mean differences in reasons why students feel unsafe at school, a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (RMANOVA) was conducted among the following "Do you feel unsafe at your school or in your online classes because of…" variables: sexual orientation, gender, gender expression, race or ethnicity, developmental or physical disability, mental health status or emotional disability, religion, body size or weight, family income, academic ability, citizenship status, how well one speaks English. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's Trace = .676, F (12, 22093) = 3848.33, p<.001, η_p^2 = .68. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p < .01, and all pair were significantly different except there were no differences between body size or weight and gender expression, and between race or ethnicity and developmental or physical disability.

42 To assess differences in feeling unsafe for any personal characteristic by type of learning environment, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. F(2, 22102) = 120.07, p<.001, η_p^2 = .01. Post hoc comparisons were considered at p<.01. Students in online only learning environments were less likely to feel unsafe than those in hybrid and in-person only learning environments, and students in hybrid learning environments were less likely than those in in-person only learning environments.

43 To compare differences by learning environment among the individual safety variables, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .04, F(26, 44182) = 36.83, p<.001, η_p^2 = .02. Univariate and bivariate effects were considered at p < .01. Results indicated that all variables were significantly different by learning environment except for no differences in feeling unsafe because of race/ethnicity, physical disability, family income, citizenship status, or English ability. Pairwise comparisons across the types of learning environments among the variables with a significant univariate effect indicated a lower likelihood of feeling unsafe for those in online only learning environments than the other two groups. Further, results indicated a lower likelihood of feeling safe for those in hybrid learning environments, with the exception of no differences between the two groups in feeling unsafe because of mental health, body size or weight, or academic ability.

44 To examine mean differences in feelings of unsafety, a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (RMANOVA) was conducted among the following When attending school in person, do you avoid any of these spaces in school because you feel uncomfortable or unsafe in the space?" variables: bathrooms, cafeteria or lunch room, locker rooms, hallways/stairwells, school athletic fields or facilities, school buses, PE or gym, certain classrooms, school grounds. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's Trace = .54, F (9, 16613) = 2190.14, p<.001, η_p^2 = .54, for all variables except cafeteria or lunchroom and certain classrooms, which were both marginally significant at p<.05, hallways/stairwells and school grounds, which was not significant.

45 To compare differences by learning environment among the avoiding spaces variables, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .04, F(10, 16611) =4.26, p<.001, η_p^2 = .003. Univariate and bivariate effects were considered at p < .01. The only significant univariate result was with avoiding certain classrooms for which those in in-person only learning environments was higher than those in hybrid learning environments.

46 To compare differences by learning environment in the number of missed days of school for safety reasons, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed: F(10, 16611) =4.26, p<.001, η_p^2 = .003. Pairwise differences were considered at p < .01, and indicated that those in online learning environments had a lower mean than those in the other two types of learning environments.

47 Mean differences in the frequencies across types of biased remarks were examined using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant. Pillai's Trace = .37, F(4, 22243) = 3223.36, p<.001, and differences were significant for all remarks.

48 "No homo" is a phrase employed at the end of a statement in order to rid it of a potential gay, or "homo" connotation. For instance, some might use the phrase after giving a compliment to someone of the same gender, as in, "I like your jeans—no homo," and is homophobic in that it assumes that being perceived as gay, or "homo," is something to be avoided.

49 Mean differences in how bothered students were by hearing "gay" used in a negative way and "no homo" were examined using a paired samples t-test. The difference was significant, t(22257) = 45.67, p<.001.

50 Mean differences in the frequencies between types of biased remarks based on gender expression were examined using a paired samples t-test. The difference was significant, t(22257) = 45.66, p<.001.

51 Mean differences in the frequencies between homophobic remarks and gender expression remarks made by school staff were examined using a paired samples t-test. The difference was significant, t(20331) = 66.47, p<.001.

52 To assess differences in frequency of hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks by learning environment (online only, hybrid, or in-person only) and multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where frequencies of hearing remarks (remarks ("gay" used in a negative way, "no homo," other homophobic remark, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) were the independent variables, type of learning environment was the dependent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.04, F(5, 42434)=74.92, p<.001. The univariate effect for "gay" used in a negative way was significant: F(2, 21220)=108.88, p<.001, η_p^2=.01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for "no homo" was significant: F(2, 21220)=41.28, p<.001, η_p^2=.004. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for other homophobic remarks was significant: F(2, 21220)=150.74, p<.001, η_p^2=.01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: F(2, 21220)=9.81, p<.001, η_p^2=.001. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: In-person only was higher than online only and hybrid. Hybrid and online were not different. The univariate effect for negative remarks about transgender people was significant: F(2, 21220)=124.62, p<.001, η_p^2=.01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: All learning environments were different from each other.

53 To assess differences in number of students making homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where amount of students making remarks were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.01, F(4, 38836)=42.31, p<.001. The univariate effect for homophobic remarks was significant: F(2, 19418)=82.42, p<.001, η_p^2=.01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: F(2, 19418)=31.02, p<.001, η_p^2=.003. Pairwise comparisons were considered at p<.01: In-person only was higher than hybrid and online only. Hybrid was marginally higher than online only at p=.014.

54 To assess differences in number of staff making homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where amount of students making remarks were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.01, F(4, 38840)=40.45, p<.001. The univariate effect for homophobic remarks was significant: F(2,

19420)=70.10, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: $F(2, 19420)=14.23$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different.

55 Our data allows us to examine intervention on homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression, but we do not have similar data about intervention on transphobic remarks.

56 Mean differences in the frequencies of intervention in homophobic remarks and gender expression remarks by school staff and by students were examined using paired samples t-tests and percentages given for illustrative purposes. The differences were significant at $p<.001$ – staff intervention: $t(13729) = -20.04$; student intervention: $t(20262) = 21.82$.

57 To assess differences in staff presence when biased remarks are made by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where staff presence when homophobic remarks and when negative remarks about gender expression are made were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.01, $F(4, 38754)=37.95$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for homophobic remarks was significant: $F(2, 19378)=72.60$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: $F(2, 19378)=38.11$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other.

58 To assess differences in staff intervention on biased remarks by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where staff intervention when homophobic remarks and when negative remarks about gender expression are made were the independent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.003, $F(4, 26272)=9.28$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for homophobic remarks was significant: $F(2, 13136)=15.02$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was lower than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: $F(2, 13136)=14.23$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was lower than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different.

59 To assess differences in student intervention on biased remarks by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where student intervention when homophobic remarks and when negative remarks about gender expression are made were the independent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.001, $F(4, 38712)=3.92$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for homophobic remarks was not significant. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: $F(2, 19356)=7.51$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2=.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Hybrid was higher than online only. Hybrid and in-person only were not different.

Mean differences in the frequencies across types of biased remarks were examined using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant. Pillai's Trace = .73, $F(5, 22236) = 12012.12$, $p<.001$, and differences were significant for all remarks.

60 Mean differences in the frequencies across types of biased remarks were examined using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The multivariate effect was significant. Pillai's Trace = .73, $F(5, 22236) = 12012.12$, $p<.001$, and differences were significant for all remarks.

61 To assess differences in number of students making other biased remarks by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where amount of students making remarks (racist remarks, sexist remarks, negative remarks about ability, negative remarks about religion, negative remarks about immigration status, and negative remarks about body size) were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.01, $F(12, 42434)=21.00$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for racist remarks was significant: $F(2, 21221)=80.00$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for sexist remarks was significant: $F(2, 21221)=17.56$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid and online only. Online only and hybrid were not different. The univariate effect for negative remarks about ability was significant: $F(2, 21221)=56.28$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for negative remarks about religion was significant: $F(2, 21221)=30.78$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other. The univariate effect for negative remarks about immigration status was significant: $F(2, 21221)=26.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid and online only. Online only and hybrid were not different. The univariate effect for negative remarks about body size was significant: $F(2, 21221)=8.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid and online only. Online only and hybrid were not different.

62 To test for differences in rates of verbal harassment by learning environment (in-person only vs. hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run. The effect for verbal harassment based on sexual orientation was significant, $F(1, 16632)=214.05$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .013$. The effect for verbal harassment based on gender was significant, $F(1, 16530)=66.46$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. The effect for verbal harassment based on gender expression was significant, $F(1, 16560)=71.29$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$.

To test for differences in rates of physical harassment by learning environment (in-person only vs. hybrid in-person and online only, a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run. The effect for sex physical harassment based on sexual orientation was significant, $F(1, 16504)=14.72$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. The effect for physical harassment based on gender was significant, $F(1, 16530)=66.5$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. The effect for physical harassment based on gender expression was significant, $F(1, 16504=19.27$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$.

To test for differences in rates of physical assault by learning environment (in-person only vs. hybrid in-person and online only), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run. The effect for sex physical assault based on sexual orientation was significant, $F(1, 16517)=11.79$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. The effects for physical assault based on gender and gender expression were not significant.

63 Mean differences in the frequencies of verbal harassment based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA): Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(2, 16456) = 191.11$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. There was no significant difference in rates of verbal harassment based on sexual orientation and based on gender expression. Students experienced verbal harassment based on sexual orientation and gender expression more commonly than gender. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

64 Mean differences in the frequencies of physical harassment based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA): Pillai's Trace = .001, $F(2, 16455) = 9.56$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Pairwise comparisons considered at $p<.01$. Students experienced physical harassment based on sexual orientation more commonly than gender expression or gender; we did not observe a difference between physical harassment based on gender expression and based on gender. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

65 Mean differences in the frequencies of physical assault based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression were examined using repeated measures multiple analysis of variance. The effect was not significant.

66 To test for differences in the rates of cyber harassment by learning environment (online only vs hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effect for online harassment based on sexual orientation was significant, $F(1, 19247)=66.55$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.003$. The effect for online harassment based on gender was significant, $F(1, 19124)=234.194$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.012$. The effect for online harassment based on gender expression was significant, $F(1, 19166)=443.12$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.023$.

67 To test for differences in the rate of harassment and assault based on race/ethnicity by learning environment (in-person only vs hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effects for verbal harassment, physical harassment, and physical assault were not significant.

To test for differences in the rate of harassment and assault based on disability by learning environment (in-person only vs hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effects for verbal harassment was significant, $F(1, 16496)=10.03$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2=.002$. The effects for physical harassment and physical assault were not significant.

To test for differences in the rate of harassment and assault based on disability by learning environment (in-person only vs hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effects for verbal harassment was significant, $F(1, 16495)=59.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.004$. The effects for physical harassment and physical assault were not significant.

68 To test for differences in the rate of online harassment based on race/ethnicity, disability, and religion by learning environment (online only vs hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effect for race/ethnicity was significant, $F(1, 19113)=292.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.032$. The effect for disability was significant, $F(1, 19074)=239.54$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.02$. The effect for religion was significant, $F(1, 19033)=197.56$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.01$

69 To test for difference in the rate of sexual harassment by learning environment (online only vs in-person only vs. hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effect was significant, $F(2, 22221)=40.12$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. All learning environments were different from each other.

70 Blakely-McClure, S. J., & Ostrov, J. M. (2016). Relational aggression, victimization, and self-concept: Testing pathways from middle childhood to adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 45*(2), 376–390.

Prinstein, M. J., Boergers, J., & Vernberg, E. M. (2010). Overt and relational aggression in adolescents: Social-psychological adjustment of aggressors and victims. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology, 4,* 479–491.

Young, E. L., Boye, A. E., & Nelson, D. A. (2006). Relational aggression: Understanding, identifying, and responding in schools. *Psychology in the Schools, 4(43),* 297–312.

71 To test for differences in the rate of relational aggression by learning environment (online only vs in-person only vs. hybrid in-person and online), a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with learning environment as the independent variable and rumors and feeling excluded as the dependent variables. The effect for exclusion was significant, $F(2, 22250)=69.68$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.006$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. All learning environments were different from each other. The effect for rumors was significant, $F(2, 22227)=77.71$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.007$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. All learning environments were different from each other.

72 To test for differences in the rate of property damage by learning environment, (in-person only vs. hybrid in-person and online), an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effect was significant, $F(1, 16567)=25.34$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.002$.

73 To test differences in frequency of reporting victimization to family members by outness to family members, we conducted an independent samples t-test among LGBTQ+ students who had experienced victimization, where frequency of reporting to family was the dependent variable and being out or not was the independent variable. Results were significant, $t(10292) = -22.01$, $p<.001$.

74 To assess differences in rates of reporting harassment to staff by learning environment, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed where rate of reporting was the dependent variables and learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable. The effect was significant: $F(2, 13734)=5.24$, $p<001$, $\eta_p^2=.001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid and was slightly higher than online only (p=.011). Hybrid was not different from online only.

75 To assess differences in rates of reporting harassment to family by learning environment, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed where rate of reporting was the dependent variables and learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable. The effect was not significant.

76 For purposes of analysis, we measured victimization by creating composite weighted variables for both types of victimization (victimization based on sexual orientation and victimization based on gender expression) based on the severity of harassment with more weight given to more severe forms of harassment. Physical assault received the most weight, followed by physical harassment, and verbal harassment. To test differences on severity of experiences with anti-LGBTQ+ victimization between those who reported that they did not report victimization because it was "not that serious" and those who did not cite this reason for not reporting victimization, two multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were conducted. Separate ANOVAs were run for in-person victimization experienced by students who attended school in person and for online harassment for students who attended school online. For in-person victimization, three weighted victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression) were dependent variables. The independent variable was dichotomous, where 1 = "not that serious" and "0" indicated that students had not cited this reason for not reporting victimization to school staff. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .85, $F(3, 9547) = 18184.82$, $p<.001$. Univariate effects for all three types of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization were significant. In-person victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(1, 9549) = 343.71$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$; in-person victimization based on gender: $F(1, 9549) = 217.46$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; in-person victimization based on gender expression: $F(1, 9549) = 244.78$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Students who said that they did not report in-person victimization because it was not that serious had lower levels of victimization based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender, and victimization based on gender expression, than students who did not say this as a reason for not reporting victimization. For online harassment, three victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression) were dependent variables. The independent variable was dichotomous, where 1 = "not that serious" and "0" indicated that students had not cited this reason for not reporting victimization to school staff. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .78, $F(3, 11028) = 12684.89$, $p<.001$. Univariate effects for all three types of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization were significant. Online victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(1, 11030) = 290.26$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$; online victimization based on gender: $F(1, 11030) = 207.49$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; Online victimization based on gender expression: $F(1, 11030) = 196.67$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Students who said that they did not report online harassment because it was not that serious had lower levels of harassment based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender, and victimization based on gender expression, than students who did not say this as a reason for not reporting harassment.

77 To assess differences in staff response to reports of harassment and assault by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where staff responses were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.02, $F(34, 10016)=2.57$, $p<.001$. The effect for "told student to ignore it" was significant: $F(2, 5023)=6.81$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than online only and hybrid. Online only and hybrid were not different. The effect for "did nothing" was significant: $F(2, 5023)=5.42$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid. There were no other group differences. The effect for "told victim to change their behavior" was significant: $F(2, 5023)=5.99$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: In-person only was higher than hybrid. There were no other group differences. The effect for

"provided student with emotional support" was significant: $F(2, 5023)=5.73$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Hybrid was higher than online only. There were no other group differences.

78 To assess differences in students' beliefs about effectiveness of staff intervention by learning environment, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed where response effectives was the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The effect was not significant.

79 Chi-square tests were performed examining type of school staff response by whether it was perceived to be effective or ineffective (dichotomous variable was created for effectiveness: effective = "very effective" or "somewhat effective"; ineffective = "not at all effective" or "somewhat ineffective"). Responses that were more likely to be effective: Disciplined perpetrator: $\chi^2 = 774.67$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = .39$; Educated perpetrator about bullying: $\chi^2 = 298.44$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = .24$; Contacted perpetrator's parents: $\chi^2 = 297.20$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = .24$, and Provided emotional support: : $\chi^2 = 635.49$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = .35$.

80 Chi-square tests were performed examining type of school staff response by whether it was perceived to be effective or ineffective (dichotomous variable was created for effectiveness: effective = "very effective" or "somewhat effective"; ineffective = "not at all effective" or "somewhat ineffective"). Responses that were more likely to be ineffective: Told reporting student to change their behavior: $\chi^2 = 180.13$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.19$; Disciplined the reporting student: $\chi^2 = 82.94$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.13$; Did nothing/Told student to ignore: $\chi^2 = 1351.40$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.51$; Talked to the perpetrator/told the perpetrator to stop: $\chi^2 = 451.19$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.29$; Filed a report: $\chi^2 = 228.50$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.21$; Referred the incident to another staff member: $\chi^2 = 42.83$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.10$; Contacted the reporting student's parents: $\chi^2 = 20.44$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.06$; Used peer mediation/conflict resolution approach: $\chi^2 = 15.35$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.05$; Educated class/school about bullying: $\chi^2 = 256.95$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.22$; Separated students: $\chi^2 = 125.48$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.16$; and Blamed reporting student for being LGBTQ+: $\chi^2 = 147.34$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = -.17$.

81 stopbullying.gov. (n.d.). *Misdirections in bullying prevention and intervention*. https://www.stopbullying.gov/sites/default/files/2017-10/misdirections-in-prevention.pdf

82 A chi-square test was conducted to examine differences in likelihood of experiencing LGBTQ+-related discrimination at school by type of learning environment: $\chi^2 = 233.45$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$. Comparison of column proportions indicated that those in in-person only learning environment were much more likely to have experienced discrimination than those in hybrid and in online only learning environments (70.5% vs. 59.3% and 52.3%, respectively). Further, students in hybrid setting were more likely to have experienced discrimination than those in online only learning environments.

83 To examine mean differences in reasons why students feel unsafe at school, a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (RMANOVA) was conducted among the following variables: prevented from wearing clothing supporting LGBTQ+ issues, prevented from attending a school dance with another person of the same gender (as a date), prevented from wearing clothing deemed inappropriate based on gender, disciplined for PDA that is not disciplined if it involved not LGBTQ+ people, disciplined at school for identifying as LGBTQ+, prevented from writing about or doing school projects about LGBTQ+ issues, prevented from forming or promoting a GSA, prevented from writing or talking about LGBTQ+ issues in extracurricular activities, prevented or discouraged from playing school sports by school staff or coaches because of identifying as LGBTQ+, prevented from playing on the sports team that is consistent with my gender, prevented from using my chosen name or pronouns, prevented from using bathrooms that are consistent with my gender, prevented from using locker rooms that are consistent with my gender. The multivariate effect was significant, Pillai's Trace = .326, $F(12, 20605) = 829.40$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .33$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p < .01$, pairs were significantly different, except there were no significant differences between the following: prevented from attending a school dance with another person of the same gender and prevented from forming a GSA, prevented from attending a school dance with another person of the same gender and prevented from using bathrooms that are consistent with my gender, prevented from wearing clothes deemed inappropriate for my gender and prevented from using my chosen name and pronouns, prevented from forming a GSA and prevented or discouraged from playing school sports by school staff or coaches because of identifying as LGBTQ+, prevented from writing about LGBTQ+ issues in class and prevented from using bathrooms that are consistent with my gender, prevented from using my chosen name and pronoun and +, prevented from writing about LGBTQ+ issues in class, and prevented from playing on the sports team that is consistent with my gender and prevented from using locker rooms that are consistent with my gender.

84 To assess differences in high school graduation plans by grade level, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed where grade level was the dependent variable and high school graduation plans was the independent variable. Results were significant: $F(2, 16449) = 148.22$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Students who were unsure whether they would graduate high school were, on average, in lower grades than those who planned on graduating high school as well those who did not plan on graduating high school. We did not observe a significant difference between those who planned on graduating high school and those who did not plan on graduating high school.

85 Heckman, J. J., Humphries, J. E., & Mader, N. S. (2010). *The GED: NBER working paper no. 16064*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. https://www.nber.org/papers/w16064.pdf

Tyler, J., & Lofstrom, M. (2008). *Is the GED an effective route to postsecondary education for school dropouts?* Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA). https://www.nber.org/papers/w13816.pdf

86 The full percentage breakdown of educational aspirations for LGBTQ+ students planning to obtain a GED are as follows: 40.6% planned to obtain a GED only; 12.4% planned to complete Vocational, Trade, or Technical School; 17.4% planned to obtain an Associate's degree; 18.9% planned to obtain a Bachelor's degree; and, 9.7% planned to obtain a Graduate degree.

87 Espelage, D. L., Merrin, G. J., & Hatchel, T. (2016). Peer victimization and dating violence among LGBTQ+ youth: The impact of school violence and crime on mental health outcomes. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice, 16*(2), 156–173.

88 Watson, R.J., & Russell, S.T. (2014). Disengaged or bookworm: Academics, mental health, and success for sexual minority youth *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *26*(1), 159–165.

89 Palmer, N. A., & Greytak, E. A. (2017). LGBTQ+ student victimization and its relationship to school discipline and justice system involvement. *Criminal Justice Review, 42*(2), 163–187.

90 To assess the relationship between anti-LGBTQ+ victimization and educational aspirations, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where severity of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression and gender were the dependent variables, plans for pursuing post-secondary education was the independent variable, and student grade level was included as a covariate. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(3, 11859) = 83.04$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(1,11861) = 132.66$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was also significant: $F(1,11861) = 240.10$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was also significant: $F(1,11861) = 207.41$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

91 To assess the relationship between anti-LGBTQ+ online victimization and educational aspirations, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where severity of online victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender were the dependent variables, plans for pursuing post-secondary education was the independent variable, and student grade level was included as a covariate. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(3, 13627) = 41.05$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(1,13629) = 41.09$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was also significant: $F(1,13629) = 107.54$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .008$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was also significant: $F(1,13629) = 104.37$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .008$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

92 To assess the relationship between anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory school policies/practices and educational aspirations, a partial correlation was performed between the variable for having any experience of discrimination at school and the variable for plans to pursue pos-secondary education, controlling for student grade level: partial $r(15789) = -.06$, $p < 001$. Percentages mentioned are for illustrative purposes.

93 The relationship between GPA and severity of victimization was examined through Pearson correlations – in-person victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(15153) = -.15$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(15012) = -.18$, $p<.001$; in-person victimization based on gender: $r(14496) = -.18$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(17493) = -.12$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on gender expression $r(17421) = -.16$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on gender: $r(17386) = -.16$, $p<.001$.

94 To test differences in academic achievement (GPA) by experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, we conducted an independent samples t-test with missing any school as the dependent variable, and having experienced discrimination as the independent variable. Results were significant: $t(18623.76) = 18.45$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = .26. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

95 The relationship between missing school and severity of victimization was examined through Pearson correlations – in-person victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(16425) =.40$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(16271) = .40$, $p<.001$; in-person victimization based on gender: $r(16250) = .39$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(19212) =.35$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on gender expression $r(19131) = .34$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on gender: $r(19089) = .34$, $p<.001$.

96 To test differences in missing school for safety reasons by experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, we conducted an independent samples t-test with missing any school as the dependent variable, and having experienced discrimination as the independent variable. Results were significant: $t(20467.93) = -41.60$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = -.55. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

97 Kang-Brown, J., Trone, J., Fratello, J., & Daftary-Kapur, T. (2013). *Generation later: What we've learned about zero tolerance in schools.* New York, NY: Vera Institute of Justice.

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Skiba, R. J., Arredondo, M. I., & Williams, N. T. (2014). More than a metaphor: The contribution of exclusionary discipline to a school-to-prison pipeline. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, *47*(4), 546–564.

White, R. E., & Young, D. C. (2020). The social injustice of zero-tolerance discipline. In R. Papa (Ed), *Handbook on Promoting Social Justice in Education* (pp 2471–2485). Switzerland: Springer.

98 Kang-Brown, J., Trone, J., Fratello, J., Daftary-Kapur, T. (2013). *Generation later: What we've learned about zero tolerance in schools.* New York, NY: Vera Institute of Justice.

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99 Carr, S. (2014). How strict is too strict? The backlash against no-excuses discipline in high schools. *The Atlantic, December 2014*. Retrieved from http://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2014/12/how-strict-is-too-strict/382228/?utm_source = JFSF+Newsletter&utm_campaign = 78e5068481-Newsletter_December_2014&utm_medium = email&utm_term = 0_2ce9971b29-78e5068481-356428881

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100 Christle, C. A., Jolivette, K., & Nelson, C. M. (2005). Breaking the school to prison pipeline: Identifying school risk and protective factors for youth delinquency. *Exceptionality*, *13*(2), 69–88.

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Kang-Brown, J., Trone, J., Fratello, J.,& Daftary-Kapur, T. (2013). *Generation later: What we've learned about zero tolerance in schools.* New York, NY: Vera Institute of Justice.

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101 Arredondo, M., Gray, C., Russell, S., Skiba, R., & Snapp, S. (2016). *Documenting disparities for LGBT students: Expanding the collection and reporting of data on sexual orientation and gender identity.* Discipline Disparities: A Research-to Practice Collaborative. The Equity Project. Bloomington, IN.

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Snapp, S. D., Hoenig, J. M., 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.

102 In-Person Victimization: To compare disciplinary experiences by severity of in-person victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed where severity of victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender were the dependent variables, and any experience of school discipline was the independent variable. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .08, $F(3, 14336) = 83.04$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(1,14338) = 1088.14$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was also significant: $F(1, 14338) = 1068.44$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was also significant: $F(1, 14338) = 946.97$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. High and low

levels of victimization are indicated by a cutoff at the mean score of victimization: students above the mean were characterized as "Experiencing Higher Levels of Victimization.

Online Victimization: To compare disciplinary experiences by severity of online victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed where frequency of online victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender were the dependent variables, and any experience of school discipline was the independent variable. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .07, $F(3, 16593) = 434.54$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. The univariate effect for online victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(1,16595) = 1088.22$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was also significant: $F(1, 16595) = 1021.23$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was also significant: $F(1, 16595) = 902.72$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. For both in-person and online victimization, having experienced school discipline with greater victimization.

103 To compare disciplinary experiences by missing school due to safety reasons, a partial correlation was performed between the variable for having any experience of discrimination and the variable for days of missed school in the past month: $r(19665) = .22$, $p < 001$. Percentages mentioned are for illustrative purposes. Students who had experienced discipline was associated with more days of missed school for safety reasons.

104 To compare disciplinary experiences by experiences of discrimination at school, a chi-square test was conducted using a dichotomized variable indicating that students had experienced discriminatory policies or procedures and a dichotomized variable regarding having experienced any type of school discipline: $\chi^2 = 1198.61$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\phi = .25$. Students who had experienced discriminatory policies or practices at school reported higher rates of school disciplinary action than students who had not experienced these policies or practices.

105 Goodenow, C., & Grady, K.E. (1993). The relationship of school belonging and friends' values to academic motivation among urban adolescent students. *Journal of Experimental Education*, *62*(1), 60–71.

Murdock, T. B., & Bolch, M. B. (2005). Risk and protective factors for poor school adjustment in lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) high school youth: Variable and person-centered analyses. *Psychology in the Schools*, *42*(5), 159–172.

Wang, W., Vaillancourt, T., Brittain, H. L., McDougall, P., Krygsman, A., Smith, D., & Hymel, S. (2014). School climate, peer victimization, and academic achievement: Results from a multi-informant study. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *29*(3), 360–377.

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106 To assess school belonging in our survey, we used an instrument designed to measure the psychological sense of school membership among adolescents by Goodenow (1993): Goodenow, C. (1993). The Psychological sense of school membership among adolescents: Scale development and educational correlates. *Psychology in the Schools*, *30*(1), 79–90.

The measure includes 18 4-point Likert-type items, such as "Other students in my school take my opinions seriously."

The relationship between school belonging and severity of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization was examined through Pearson correlations — victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(14404) = -.38$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(14273) = -.38$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender: $r(14247) = -.39$, $p<.001$. For illustrative purposes percentages of LGBTQ+ students "Demonstrating Positive School Belonging" are shown; positive and negative school belonging are indicated by a cutoff at the score indicating neither positive nor negative attitudes about one's belonging in school: students above this cutoff were characterized as "Demonstrating Positive School Belonging."

107 The relationship between school belonging and severity of online anti-LGBTQ+ victimization was examined through Pearson correlations – online victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(16358) = -.34$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on gender expression: $r(16290) = -.34$, $p<.001$; online victimization based on gender: $r(16254) = -.33$, $p<.001$.

108 To test differences in school belonging by experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, we conducted an independent samples t-test with school belonging as the dependent variable, and having experienced discrimination as the independent variable. Results were significant: $t(18859) = 62.82$, $p<.001$, Cohen's $d = .93$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

109 Gruber, J. E., & Fineran, S. (2008). Comparing the impact of bullying and sexual harassment victimization on the mental and physical health of adolescents. *Sex Roles, 59*(1–2), 1–13.

Hase, C.N., Goldberg, S.B., & Smith, D. (2015). Impacts of traditional bullying and cyberbullying on the mental health of middle school and high school students. *Psychology in Schools*, 52(6), 607–617.

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110 Greytak, E.A., Kosciw, J.G., Villenas, C., & Giga, N.M. (2016). *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited, A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers*. New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-12/From_Teasing_to_Tormet_Revised_2016.pdf

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111 Self-esteem was measured using the 10-item Likert-type Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1989), which includes such items as "I am able to do things as well as most people":

Rosenberg, M. (1989). *Society and the adolescent self-image* (Revised ed.) Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.

112 Depression was measured using the 20-item Likert-type CES-D depression scale (Eaton et al., 2004), which includes such items as "During the past week, I felt hopeful about the future":

Eaton, W. W., Smith, C., Ybarra, M., Muntaner, C., & Tien, A. (2004). Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale: Review and Revision (CESD and CESD-R). In M. E. Maruish (Ed.), *The use of psychological testing for treatment planning and outcomes assessment: Instruments for adults* (pp. 363–377). Mahwah, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

113 Greytak, E.A., Kosciw, J.G., Villenas, C., & Giga, N.M. (2016). *From Teasing to Torment: School Climate Revisited, A Survey of U.S. Secondary School Students and Teachers*. New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-12/From_Teasing_to_Tormet_Revised_2016.pdf

Kann, L., McManus, T., Harris, W. A., Shanklin, S. L., Flint, K. H., Queen, B., Lowry, R., Chyen, D., Whittle, L., Thornton, J., Lim, C., Bradford, D., Yamakawa, Y., Leon, M., Brener, N., & Ethier, K. A. (2018) Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance – United States, 2017. *MMWR Surveillance Summary* 2018; 67(No. SS-8):1-114. https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/67/ss/ss6708a1.htm

114 The relationship between self-esteem and severity of in-person victimization was examined through Pearson correlations: Victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(12515) = -.22$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(12406) = -.25$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender: $r(12391) = -.25$, $p<.001$. For illustrative purposes, the categories of higher and lower levels of victimization were determined by a mean split on each of the three weighted victimization variables, and the percentages shown of LGBTQ+ students with "Higher Levels of Self-Esteem" was also determined by a mean split of the self-esteem scale scores.

115 The relationship between depression and severity of in-person victimization was examined through Pearson correlations: victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(12772) = .33$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(12659) = .36$, $p<.001$;

victimization based on gender: $r(12648) = .35$, $p<.001$. For illustrative purposes, the categories of higher and lower levels of victimization were determined by a mean split on each of the three weighted victimization variables, and the percentages shown of LGBTQ+ students with "Higher Levels of Depression" was also determined by a mean split of the depression scale scores.

116 A series of logistic regression models were used to examine the association between each of the three types of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization at school and considering suicide in the past year after adjusting for proportion of school time spent in-person: victimization re: sexual orientation – OR = 2.93, $p < .001$; victimization re: gender expression - OR = 3.03, $p < .001$; victimization re: gender - OR = 3.09, $p < .001$.

117 The relationship between self-esteem and frequency of online victimization at school was examined through Pearson correlations: victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(14125) = -.20$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(14073) = -.21$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender: $r(14040) = -.21$, $p<.001$. For illustrative purposes, the categories of higher and lower levels of victimization were determined by creating a dichotomous variable of "Never," "Rarely," and "Sometimes" responses into "Lower Levels of Victimization," and "Often" and "Frequently" into "Higher Levels of Victimization on each of the three online victimization variables, and percentages of LGBTQ+ students with "Higher Levels of Self-Esteem" are shown, determined by a mean split of the self-esteem scale scores.

118 The relationship between depression and frequency of online victimization was examined through Pearson correlations: victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(14420) = .30$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(14368) = .31$, $p<.001$; victimization based on gender: $r(14337) = .31$, $p<.001$. For illustrative purposes, the categories of higher and lower levels of victimization were determined by creating a dichotomous variable of "Never," "Rarely," and "Sometimes" responses into "Lower Levels of Victimization," and "Often" and "Frequently" into "Higher Levels of Victimization on each of the three online victimization variables, and percentages of LGBTQ+ students with "Higher Levels of Depression" are shown, determined by a mean split of the depression scale scores.

119 A series of logistic regression models were used to examine the association between each of the three types of online anti-LGBTQ+ victimization at school and considering suicide in the past year after adjusting for proportion of school time spent in-person: victimization re: sexual orientation – OR = 3.50, $p < .001$; victimization re: gender expression - OR = 3.89, $p < .001$; victimization re: gender - OR = 3.72, $p < .001$.

120 Bockting, W. O., Miner, M. H., Swinburne Romine, R. E., Hamilton, A., & Coleman, E. (2013). Stigma, mental health, and resilience in an online sample of the US transgender population. *American Journal of Public Health, 103*(5), 943–951.

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Lee, J. H., Gamarel, K. E., Bryant, K. J., Zaller, N. D., & Operario, D. (2016). Discrimination, mental health, and substance use disorders among sexual minority populations. *LGBT Health, 3*(4), 258–265.

Meyer, I. H. (2003). Prejudice, social stress, and mental health in lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations: Conceptual issues and research evidence. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*(5), 674.

121 To test differences in self-esteem by experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, we conducted an independent samples t-test with school belonging as the dependent variable, and having experienced discrimination as the independent variable. Results were significant: $t(13899.59) = 30.49$, $p<.001$, Cohen's $d = .49$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The percentages shown of LGBTQ+ students with "Higher Levels of Self-Esteem" was also determined by a mean split of the self-esteem scale scores.

122 To test differences in depression by experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school, we conducted an independent samples t-test with school belonging as the dependent variable, and having experienced discrimination as the independent variable. Results were significant: $t(16756) = -42.77$, $p<.001$, Cohen's $d = -.67$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. The percentages shown of LGBTQ+ students with "Higher Levels of Depression" was also determined by a mean split of the depression scale scores.

123 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between experiencing any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school and considering suicide in the past year after adjusting for proportion of school time spent in-person: OR = 2.47, $p < .001$.

124 GLSEN (2016). *Educational exclusion: Drop out, push out, and school-to-prison pipeline among LGBTQ+ youth*. New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-11/Educational_Exclusion_2013.pdf

Center for American Progress & Movement Advancement Project (2016). *Unjust: How the broken criminal justice system fails LGBT people*. Washington, DC: MAP. https://www.lgbtmap.org/file/lgbt-criminal-justice.pdf

Palmer, N. A., & Greytak, E. G. (2017). LGBTQ+ student victimization and its relationship to school discipline and justice system involvement. *Criminal Justice Review, 42*(2), 163–187.

Poteat, P. V., Scheer, J. R., & Chong, E. S. K. (2016). Sexual orientation-based disparities in school and juvenile justice discipline: A multiple group comparison of contributing factors. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*(2), 229–241.

125 Kosciw, J. G., Palmer, N. A., Kull, R. M., & Greytak, E. A. (2013). The effect of negative school climate on academic outcomes for LGBT youth and the role of in-school supports. Journal of School Violence, 12(1), 45–63.

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126 Denault, A. & Guay, F. (2017). Motivation towards extracurricular activities and motivation at school: A test of the generalization effect hypothesis. *Journal of Adolescence, 54*, 94–103.

Farb, A. F., & Matjasko, J. L. (2012). Recent advances in research on school-based extracurricular activities and adolescent development. *Developmental Review*, *32*(1), 1–48.

Fredericks, J. A., & Eccles, J. S. (2006). Is extracurricular participation associated with beneficial outcomes? Concurrent and longitudinal relations. *Developmental Psychology*, *42*(4), 698–713.

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Toomey, R. B., & Russell, S. T. (2013). An initial investigation of sexual minority youth involvement in school-based extracurricular activities. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *23*(2), 304–318.

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

128 Griffin, P., Lee, C., Waugh, J., & Beyer, C. (2004). Describing roles that gay-straight alliances play in schools: From individual support to school change. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Issues in Education*, *1*(3), 7–22.

129 A chi-square test was conducted to examine differences in GSA availability by type of learning environment: $\chi^2 = 92.57$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$. Percentages shown for illustrative purposes.

130 To learn more about differences by school characteristics, please see the "School Climate and School Characteristics" section in "Part Three" of this report.

131 Logistic regression was used to examine differences in the likelihood of having a GSA by type of learning environment after taking into account school characteristics (school type, school level, and geographic region and locale of the school). School characteristics were entered in the first step which was significant: $\chi^2 = 2897.80$, df = 11, $p<.001$. Type of learning environment was entered in the second step which was not significant, indicating that there was not difference in likelihood of having a GSA after accounting for school characteristics.

132 To assess differences in how often students attended a GSA by type of learning environment, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. The effect as significant, $F(2, 7520) = 25.82$, $p<.001$,

η_p^2 = .01. Pairwise differences were considered at $p < .01$, and indicated that those in online learning environments had a lower likelihood of attending a GSA than those in the other two types of learning environments. There were no differences between in-person and hybrid.

133 Truong, N. L., Clark, C. M., Rosenbach, S., & Kosciw, J. G. (2021). The GSA Study: Results of National Surveys About Students' and Advisors' Experiences in Gender and Sexuality Alliance Clubs. New York: GLSEN.

134 Truong, N. L., Adelman, M., Clark, C. M., Borman, B., Nonnenmacher, S., & Kosciw, J. G. (2022). The GSA Study: Student Leader Narratives on Best Practices for Gender and Sexuality Alliance Clubs. New York: GLSEN.

135 To assess differences in inclusive curriculum by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where presence of positive LGBTQ+ representation in instruction and presence of negative LGBTQ+ representation in instruction were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.01, $F(4, 41626)=49.18$, $p<.001$. The effect for positive inclusion was significant, $F(2, 20813)=40.92$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .00. Pairwise comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$: In-person only was lower than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different. The effect for negative inclusion was significant, $F(2, 20813)=59.07$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$: All learning environments were different from each other.

136 Students in all learning environments were asked about access to textbooks and reading materials that contain information about LGBTQ+ people, history, or topics. Only students who attended school in person (both only in person and hybrid) were asked about access to access to LGBQT+ library resources and access to LGBTQ+ content via school internet.

137 73.5% of students reported that LGBTQ+ topics were not included in any textbooks or other assigned readings and 10.0% reported that they did not know if these topics were included.

138 28.8% of students who attended school in person reported that they could not find books or information with LGBTQ+ content in their school library, and 28.4% reported that they did not know if their library had these resources.

139 To assess differences in inclusive textbooks by learning environment, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed where presence of positive LGBTQ+ representation in textbooks or other readings was the dependent variable, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The effect was significant: $F(2, 20849)=41.25$, $p<.01$, η_p^2 = .01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$: In-person only was lower than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different.

140 To assess differences in inclusive library resources and internet access by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where presence of positive LGBTQ+ representation in the school library and via school internet access were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was not significant. This analysis only included students who attended school in-person only or hybrid, as students who attended online only were not asked about library materials and internet access at school.

141 To test differences between inclusion of LGB topics and inclusion of trans/nonbinary topics, a McNemar Chi-Square test was conducted among students who had received sex education. The test included two dichotomous variables, indicating whether LGB and whether trans/nonbinary topics were positively included in their sex education. The results were significant: $\chi^2=706.64$, $p<.001$, φ = .62.

142 To assess differences in inclusive sex education by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed where presence of positive LGB representation in sex education and positive trans/nonbinary representation in sex education were the dependent variables, learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable, and school level, school type, region, and locale were controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace=.01, $F(4, 29082)=21.25$, $p<.001$. The effect for LGB inclusion was significant, $F(2, 14541)=36.96$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$: In-person only was lower than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different. The effect for trans/nonbinary inclusion was significant, $F(2, 14541)=36.23$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .01. Pairwise comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$: In-person only was lower than hybrid and online only. Hybrid and online only were not different.

143 To assess differences in the number of school personnel who were supportive of LGBTQ+ students by type of learning environment, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed where number of supportive school personnel was the dependent variable and type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable. Results were significant: $F(2, 20357)$ = 131.42, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .01. Post hoc pairwise comparisons were all significant at, $p<.01$. Students in hybrid learning environments (online and in-person) had the highest mean for supportive school personnel and students in in-person only learning environments had the lowest mean.

144 To assess differences in the number of school personnel who were supportive of LGBTQ+ students by type of learning environment, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed where number of supportive school personnel was the dependent variable and type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) was the independent variable. Results were significant: $F(2, 20418)$ = 169.88, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .02. Post hoc pairwise comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$. Students in in-person only learning environments had a lower mean than the other two groups, and there were no significant differences between students in online only and hybrid learning environments.

145 Mean differences in comfort level talking to school staff across type of school staff member were examined using repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (repeated measures MANOVA), with type of school staff as the independent variable and comfort level for each of the seven school staff categories as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .52, $F(6, 16294) = 2983.89$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .52. Univariate effects were considered at, $p<.01$. All pairwise differences were significant.

146 To assess differences in comfort level talking to school staff by learning environment, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed with the set of school personnel variables as dependent variables and type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, or in-person only) as the independent variable. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(14, 36106) = 8.50$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .003. Univariate effects were considered at, $p<.01$. Results indicated that for all but school resource offices, the mean level of comfort was lowest for the in-person only group. For school security personnel, there were no differences in the means across groups. For school librarians, the mean level of comfort for the online only group was also significantly higher than the mean for the hybrid group.

147 To examine whether differences in level of comfort with school personnel was, in part, related to school characteristics, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed with the set of school personnel variables as dependent variables, type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, or in-person only) as the independent variable, and with school characteristics as covariates, specifically region, locale, and school type. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .003, $F(14, 34666) =4.02$, $p<.001$, η_p^2 = .002. Univariate effects were considered at, $p<.01$. After controlling for school characteristics, significant mean differences only held for comfort with school mental health professionals, comfort with librarians, and comfort with school nurses. For comfort with school mental health professionals, the mean was highest for the hybrid learning environment group and there were no differences between the online only and the in-person only groups. For comfort with school nurses and comfort with school librarians, the mean was lowest for the in-person only group and there were no differences between the online only and the hybrid groups.

148 Given the role of school security personnel, only students who had had instruction in a school building during the 2020–2021 school year (whether full-time or part-time) were asked these specific questions about experiences with school security. There were no meaningfully significant differences between students in

in-person only and hybrid learning environments with regard to the experiences with and perceptions of security personnel at school.

149 Visit https://glsen.org/safespace for more information or to obtain a Safe Space Kit for an educator or school.

150 To compare LGBTQ+ students' reports of seeing Safe Space stickers or posters, a chi-square test was conducted. The test was significant: $\chi^2 = 358.98$, df = 2, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .13. The percentage of students seeing these signs of support was higher for the hybrid group than the online only and the in-person only groups, and the percentage was higher for the in-person only group than the online only group.

151 Note: The generic policy category includes students who explicitly said that their school policy included neither sexual orientation or gender expression, and also student who said they were unsure if their school policy included those protections.

152 To compare LGBTQ+ students' reports of availability and type of anti-bullying/harassment policy at their school by type of learning environment (Online Only, Hybrid, and In-Person only) a chi-square test was conducted. The test was significant: $\chi^2 = 98.33$, df = 6, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .07. In-Person Only was less likely than Hybrid and Online Only and Hybrid was less likely than In-Person Only to report that they had a comprehensive policy; Hybrid was more likely than the other groups to have a partially enumerated policy; In-Person Only was more likely than the other groups to have a generic policy, and there were no difference by learning environment is having no policy. When controlling for school characteristics (region, locale, school type) through a series of logistic regression: 1) with a dichotomous dependent variable for presence of a comprehensive policy, and 2) with a dichotomous dependent variable for presence of a generic policy. Results indicated that these differences held after entering school characteristics into the equation on the first step: comprehensive policy - $\chi^2 = 22.44$, df = 2, $p<.001$ and generic policy - $\chi^2 = 139.04$, df = 2, $p<.001$.

153 Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Zongrone, A. D., Clark, C. M., & Truong, N. L. (2018). The 2017 National School Climate Survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth in our nation's schools. New York: GLSEN. http://live-glsen-website.pantheonsite.io/sites/default/files/2019-10/GLSEN-2017-National-School-Climate-Survey-NSCS-Full-Report.pdf

GLSEN (2016). *Educational exclusion: Drop out, push out, and the school-to-prison pipeline among LGBTQ+ youth.* New York, NY: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-11/Educational_Exclusion_2013.pdf

Movement Advancement Project (MAP) and GLSEN. (April 2017). *Separation and stigma: Transgender youth and school facilities.* https://www.lgbtmap.org/file/transgender-youth-school.pdf

154 Krishnakumar, P. (2021, April 15). This record-breaking year for anti-transgender legislation would affect minors the most. https://www.cnn.com/2021/04/15/politics/anti-transgender-legislation-2021/index.html

155 U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Safe and Healthy Students. (May 2016). *Examples of policies and emerging practices for supporting transgender students.* https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oese/oshs/emergingpractices.pdf

156 To compare LGBTQ+ students' reports of having a transgender and nonbinary policy in their school by type of learning environment (Online Only, Hybrid, and In-Person only) a chi-square test was conducted. The test was significant: $\chi^2 = 395.28$, df = 4, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .13. In-Person Only was more likely than others and Hybrid was more likely than Online Only to report they did not have a policy; In-Person Only was less likely than the other groups to report having a policy. Online Only were most likely to report not being sure, followed by Hybrid. When controlling for school characteristics (region, locale, school type) through logistic regression with a dichotomous dependent variable for presence of a transgender and nonbinary policy (Yes vs. No/Not Sure), results indicated that these differences held after entering school characteristics into the equation on the first step: $\chi^2 = 32.48$, df = 2, $p<.001$.

157 Palmer, N.A., Kosciw, J.G., & Greytak, E.A. (2017). Disrupting hetero-gender-normativity: The complex role of LGBT affirmative supports at school. In S. T. Russell & S. S. Horn (Eds.) *Sexual orientation, gender identity, and schooling: The nexus of research, practice, and policy* (pp. 68–74). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

158 Kosciw, J. G., Palmer, N. A., Kull, R. M., & Greytak, E. A. (2013). The effect of negative school climate on academic outcomes for LGBT youth and the role of in-school supports. *Journal of School Violence*, *12*(1), 45–63.

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

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

160 Griffin, P., Lee, C., Waugh, J., & Beyer, C. (2004). Describing roles that gay-straight alliances play in schools: From individual support to school change. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Issues in Education*, *1*(3), 7–22.

161 Poteat, V. P. (2017). Gay-straight alliances: Promoting student resilience and safer school climates. *American Educator*, *40*(4), 10.

Toomey, R. B., Ryan, C., Diaz, R. M., & Russell, S. T. (2011). High school gay–straight alliances (GSAs) and young adult well-being: An examination of GSA presence, participation, and perceived effectiveness. *Applied developmental science*, *15*(4), 175–185.

162 To test differences in hearing biased remarks 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-LGBTQ+ remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .05, $F(5, 21607) = 203.40$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. The univariate effects of GSA presence on anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were all significant: "gay" used in a negative way: $F(1, 21611) = 899.15$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$; "no homo" used in a negative way: $F(1, 21611) = 291.66$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; other homophobic remarks: $F(1, 21611) = 620.76$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$; negative remarks regarding gender expression: $F(2, 21611) = 180.77$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; negative remarks about transgender peopl: $F(1, 21611) = 427.68$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

163 To test differences in feeling unsafe due to sexual orientation, gender expression and gender by presence of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with GSA presence as the independent variable, feeling unsafe as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .02, $F(3, 21478.00) = 166.56$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effect of GSA presence on feeling unsafe due to sexual orientation was significant: $F(1, 21480) = 215.72$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effect of GSA presence on feeling unsafe due to gender expression was significant: $F(1, 21480) = 212.43$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The univariate effect of GSA presence on feeling unsafe due to gender was significant: $F(1, 21480) = 115.03$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

164 To test differences in in-person victimization by the availability of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) among students in the sample who attended school in person at any time in the last school year, with the availability of a GSA as the independent variable, and the three weighted in-person victimization variables (based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression) as the dependent variables. The univariate effect of GSA presence on victimization due to sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 15545) = 152.38$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. The univariate effect of GSA presence on victimization due to sexual orientation was significant: $F(1, 15547) = 431.71$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. The univariate effect of GSA presence on victimization due to gender expression was significant: $F(1, 15547) = 356.81$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effect of GSA presence on victimization due to gender was significant: $F(1, 15547) = 285.27$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. For illustrative purposes, figures depicting differences in victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression or gender rely on a cutoff at the mean score of victimization: students above the mean score were characterized as "Experiencing Higher Levels of Victimization."

165 To test differences in online victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression and gender by availability of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted among students in the sample who attended school online at any time in the last school year, with availability of a GSA as the independent variable, and online victimization based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression as the dependent variables. The

multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .02, $F(3, 18452) = 112.68$, $p<.001$. The univariate effects for online victimization were significant – Online victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(1, 18454) = 309.70$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; Online victimization based on gender was significant: $F(1, 18454) = 243.84$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Online victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(1, 18454) = 181.97$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

166 To test differences in missing school because of feeling unsafe or uncomfortable by presence of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with GSA presence as the independent variable, missing school as the dependent variable. The univariate effect of GSA presence on days missing school in the past month was significant: $F(1, 21618) = 322.79$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

167 To test differences in number of supportive school staff by presence of a GSA, a t-test was conducted, with GSA presence as the independent variable, and number of supportive staff as the dependent variable. The effect of GSA presence on number of supportive staff was significant: $t(19237.46) = -56.50$, $p<.001$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes. In addition, a chi-square test was conducted to compare the likelihood of having any supportive staff at all by presence of a GSA: $\chi^2 = 129.57$, df = 2, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .12$. Students who had a GSA were more likely to have at least 1 supportive educator compared to students who did not have a GSA.

168 To test differences in feeling comfortable talking to teachers about LGBTQ+ issues by presence of a GSA, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with presence of a GSA as the independent variable and feeling comfortable talking to teachers about LGBTQ+ issues as the dependent variable. The main effect was significant: $F(1, 18371) = 570.07$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Percentages are provided for illustrative purposes.

169 To test differences in staff intervention in anti-LGBTQ+ remarks by presence of a GSA, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with GSA presence as the independent variable, and frequency of staff intervention as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .02, $F(4, 27454) = 59.36$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The univariate effects of GSA presence on staff intervention were both significant. Homophobic remarks: $F(1, 13727) = 99.90$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; negative remarks about gender expression: $F(2, 13727) = 87.48$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

170 Eccles, J. S., Barber, B. L., Stone, M., & Hunt, J. (2003). Extracurricular activities and adolescent development. Journal of social issues, 59(4), 865–889.

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171 To test differences in academic achievement, an independent-samples t-test was conducted with presence of a GSA as the independent variable, and GPA as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(15561.16) = -12.54$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = 1.07.

172 To test differences in educational aspirations, an independent-samples t-test was conducted with presence of a GSA as the independent variable and educational aspirations as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(16417.94) = -9.77$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = 0.32.

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

174 To test differences in GLSEN Days of Action participation by presence of a GSA, a chi-square test was conducted: $\chi^2 = 421.70$, df = 2, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .16$. Of the students in our survey with an active GSA in their school, 20.4% participated in a GLSEN Day of Action in the previous year. Of students without an active GSA, 9.4% participated.

175 The full breakdown of student responses to the question, "In general, how accepting do you think students at your school are of LGBTQ+ people?" was as follows: not at all accepting: 5.1%, not very accepting: 28.0%, neutral: 26.4%, somewhat accepting: 30.6%, very accepting: 9.9%.

176 To test differences in peer acceptance and the availability of a GSA, a t-test was conducted, with presence of a GSA as the independent variable and peer acceptance as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(15384.50) = -39.14$, $p<.001$. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes.

177 To test differences in peer intervention by presence of a GSA, we conducted a t-test with each of the student intervention variables by presence of GSA in school. Both were significant: intervention in homophobic remarks – $t(13983.25) = -3.78$, $p<.001$, intervention in negative gender remarks – $t(12555.38) = -4.55$, $p<.001$.

178 To test differences in school belonging and presence of a GSA, a t-test was conducted, with presence of a GSA as the independent variable and school belonging as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(14030.18) = -33.55$, $p<.001$.

179 To test differences in well-being and presence of a GSA a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with the presence of a GSA as the independent variable, and depression and self-esteem as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .02, $F(2, 16693) = 164.31$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effects of GSA presence on depression and self-esteem were both significant. Depression: $F(1, 16694) = 242.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; self-esteem: $F(1, 16694) = 314.83$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

180 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association of presence of a GSA and considering suicide in the past year after adjusting for proportion of school time spent in-person. The model indicated that the presence of a GSA was associated with a lower likelihood of considering suicide: OR = .62, $p < .001$.

181 Gay, G. (2018). Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice, third edition. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

National Association for Multicultural Education (NAME). (2020). *Definitions of multicultural education*. https://www.nameorg.org/definitions_of_multicultural_e.php

182 Greytak, E. & Kosciw, J. (2013). Responsive classroom curricula for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and questioning 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* (pp. 156–174). New York, NY: Routledge.

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Snapp, S. D., Sinclair, K. O., Russell, S. T., McGuire, J. K., & Gabrion, K. (2015). LGBTQ+-inclusive curricula: Why supportive curricula matter. *Sex Education, 15*(6), 580–596.

183 To test differences in hearing homophobic remarks by presence of an inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with inclusive curriculum presence as the independent variable, and frequency of hearing anti-LGBTQ+ remarks as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .06, $F(5, 21871) = 252.95$, $p<.001$. The univariate effects for inclusive curriculum presence was significant for hearing all types of anti-LGBTQ+ language – "Gay" used in a negative way: $F(1, 21875) = 1022.62$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$; The phrase "no homo": $F(1, 21875) = 426.65$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; Other homophobic remarks: $F(1, 21875) = 832.23$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$; Negative remarks about gender expression: $F(1, 21875) = 415.96$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; Negative remarks about transgender people: $F(1, 21875) = 671.41$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$.

184 To test differences in feelings of safety because of sexual orientation and gender expression by the presence of an inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis or variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with presence of inclusive curriculum as the independent variable and feeling unsafe because of sexual orientation, feeling unsafe because of gender and feeling unsafe because of gender expression as dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillia's Trace = .03, $F(3,$

21732) = 200.79, $p<.001$. The univariate effects for feeling unsafe were significant – Feeling unsafe regarding their sexual orientation: $F(1, 21734) = 513.24$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; Feeling unsafe regarding gender: $F(1, 21734) = 239.77$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Feeling unsafe regarding their gender expression: $F(1, 21734) = 193.79$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

185 To test differences in missing days of school for safety reasons by presence of an inclusive curriculum, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The main effect was significant: $F(1, 21876) = 191.21$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

186 To test differences in in-person victimization by presence of an inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted among students in the sample who attended school in person at any time in the last school year, with presence of inclusive curriculum as the independent variable, and victimization based on sexual orientation, gender, and gender expression as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .01, $F(3, 15781) = 72.78$, $p<.001$. The univariate effects for victimization were significant – Victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(1, 15783) = 215.04$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Victimization based on gender was significant: $F(1, 15783) = 136.25$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(1, 15783) = 149.04$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

187 To test differences in online victimization by presence of an inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted among students who attended school online at any time in the last school year, with presence of inclusive curriculum as the independent variable, and cyber harassment based on sexual orientation and gender expression as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .01, $F(3, 18696) = 82.10$, $p<.001$. The univariate effects for victimization were significant – Victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(1, 18698) = 231.86$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Victimization based on gender was significant: $F(1, 18696) = 154.86$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(1, 18696) = 160.52$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

188 To test differences in feeling comfortable talking to teachers about LGBTQ+ issues by presence of an inclusive curriculum, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with presence of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable and feeling comfortable talking to teachers about LGBTQ+ issues as the dependent variable. The main effect was significant: $F(1, 18373) = 893.64$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$.

189 To test differences in academic achievement, an independent-samples t-test was conducted with presence of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable, and GPA as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(5006.97) = -11.18$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = 1.07.

190 To test differences in educational aspirations, an independent-samples t-test was conducted with presence of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable and educational aspirations as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(4617.30) = -5.75$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = 1.30.

191 To test differences in peer acceptance about LGBTQ+ people and student intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ remarks by presence of an inclusive curriculum, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with inclusive curriculum as the independent variable, and peer acceptance about LGBTQ+ people and peer intervention regarding homophobic remarks and negative remarks about gender expression as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .08, $F(3, 18784) = 510.01$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for peer acceptance was significant: $F(1, 18786) = 1420.02$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$.

192 To test differences in student intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ remarks by presence of an inclusive curriculum, these variables were included in the MANOVA described in previous endnote. The univariate effects were significant – Peer intervention when hearing homophobic remarks: $F(1, 18786) = 259.57$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Peer intervention when hearing negative remarks about gender expression: $F(1, 18786) = 288.44$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

193 To test differences in school belonging and presence of an inclusive curriculum, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with presence of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable and school belonging as the dependent variable. The main effect was significant: $F(1, 19278) = 1830.21$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$.

194 To test differences in well-being and presence of an inclusive curriculum, an analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with the presence of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable and self-esteem as the dependent variable. The univariate effect was significant: $F(1, 16696) = 266.66$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

195 To test differences in well-being and presence of an inclusive curriculum, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with the presence of an inclusive curriculum as the independent variable and depression as the dependent variable. The univariate effect for depression was significant: $F(1, 16696) = 275.09$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

196 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between presence of inclusive curriculum and considering suicide in the past year after adjusting for proportion of school time spent in-person. The model indicated that the presence of inclusive curriculum was associated with a lower likelihood of considering suicide: OR = .63, $p < .001$.

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199 The relationships between number of supportive staff, and feeling unsafe at school and missing school due to feeling unsafe were examined through Pearson correlations – Feeling unsafe regarding their sexual orientation: $r(20205) = -.24$, $p<.001$; Feeling unsafe because of their gender expression: $r(20205) = -.15$, $p<.001$; Feeling unsafe because of their gender: $r(20205) = -.15$, $p<.001$; Number of school days missed because of feeling unsafe: $r(20205) = -.20$, $p<.001$.

200 To assess the relationship between number of supportive staff and educational aspirations, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed where number of supportive staff was the dependent variable, and educational aspirations was the independent variable: $F(5, 19565) = 50.69$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$. All differences between levels of educational aspiration were significant, with the exception of no significant difference in the number of supportive educators between "Vocational, Trade, or Technical School" and "Associate's Degree." Overall, results indicate that a greater number of supportive educators is associated with a greater number of years planned for post-secondary education – "Less than High School" reported the fewest number of supportive educators and "Graduate Degree" reported the highest number of educators. (Vocational or technical programs and Associate's degree programs often take the same amount of time to complete, which is consistent with the pattern found across aspiration levels.)

201 The relationship between number of supportive staff and GPA was examined through Pearson correlations: $r(20156) = .08$, $p<.001$.

202 The relationship between number of supportive staff and school belonging was examined through Pearson correlations: $r(19010) = .45$, $p < .001$.

203 The relationship between number of supportive staff and self-esteem was examined through Pearson correlations: $r(16547) = .19$, $p < .001$.

204 The relationship between number of supportive staff and depression was examined through Pearson correlations: $r(16883) = -.21$, $p < .001$.

205 A series of logistic regression models was used to examine the association between number of supportive educators and considering suicide in the past year after adjusting for proportion of school time spent in-person. The main model, using the full interval variable for number of supportive educators, indicated that an increase of supportive educators was associated with a lower likelihood of considering suicide: OR = .75, $p < .001$. Having 6 or more supportive educators was associated with a 42% lower likelihood of having seriously considered suicide (OR = .58, $p < .001$), and having 11 or more supportive educators was associated with a 44% lower likelihood of seriously considering suicide (OR = .56, $p < .001$).

206 To examine staff intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ remarks, we created a composite variable of the frequency of staff response to homophobic remarks and frequency of staff response to gender-biased remarks, which used the higher value of the two when they differed. The relationship between feeling unsafe because of sexual orientation, gender, or gender expression and frequency of school staff intervention was examined through point biserial correlations – unsafe re: sexual orientation: $r(18792) = -.13$, $p < .001$; unsafe re: gender expression: $r(18792) = -.06$, $p < .001$; unsafe re: gender: $r(18792) = -.09$, $p < .001$.

207 The relationship between missing school due to feeling unsafe and frequency of school staff intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ remarks was examined through Pearson correlations: $r(18895) = -.07$, $p < .001$.

208 In the NSCS we asked students about the last time they reported victimization experiences to staff, how staff responded, and how effective that response was. Although we only asked students about how effective staff were the last time they responded to victimization, we used this as a proxy measure in this section for how effective staff are, in general, when responding to LGBTQ+ students' reports of victimization.

209 The relationship between feeling unsafe regarding their sexual orientation, gender expression or gender and effectiveness of staff intervention was examined through point biserial correlations – unsafe re: sexual orientation: $r(5237) = -.18$, $p < .001$; unsafe re: gender expression: $r(5237) = -.12$, $p < .001$; unsafe re: gender: $r(5237) = -.15$, $p < .001$.

210 The relationship between missing school due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable and effectiveness of staff intervention was examined through a Pearson correlation: $r(5258) = -.20$, $p < .001$.

211 To examine the relationship between in-person victimization and effectiveness of staff intervention Pearson correlations were conducted: victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(4024) = -.22$, $p < .001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(3989) = -.21$, $p < .001$; victimization based on gender: $r(3974) = -.20$, $p < .001$.

212 To examine the relationship between online victimization and effectiveness of staff intervention Pearson correlations were conducted: victimization based on sexual orientation: $r(4467) = -.23$, $p < .001$; victimization based on gender expression: $r(4444) = -.22$, $p < .001$; victimization based on gender: $r(4435) = -.20$, $p < .001$.

213 To test differences in number of supportive educators by presence of Safe Space stickers/posters, an independent-samples t-test was conducted with Safe Space sticker/poster presence as the independent variable, and number of supportive staff as the dependent variable. The effect was significant: $t(17290.51) = 63.75$, $p < .001$, Cohen's d = .80.

214 To test differences in anti-LGBTQ+ language by type of school policy, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable and frequency of hearing each type of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks as the dependent variables. To examine negative remarks about gender, we created a composite variable for hearing negative gender, which used the higher value of the two when they differed. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .02, $F(15, 65877) = 32.82$, $p < .001$. All univariate effects were significant – "Gay" used in a negative way: $F(3, 21961) = 138.37$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; The phrase "no homo": $F(3, 21961) = 48.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Other homophobic remarks: $F(3, 21961) = 86.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Negative remarks about gender expression: $F(3, 21961) = 55.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Negative remarks about transgender people: $F(3, 16625) = 61.14$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p < .01$. All types of anti-LGBTQ+ remarks were least frequently heard by those students with comprehensive policies. For use of "gay" in a negative way, all policy types were significantly different: those with no policy reported the highest frequency followed by those having a partially enumerated policy and then those with a generic policy. For use of the expression "no homo" and negative remarks about gender expression, there were no differences between having no policy, a generic policy, and a partially enumerated policy. For other types of homophobic remarks and for negative remarks about transgender people, those with no policy reported the highest frequencies of these remarks, but there were no differences between having a generic policy and a partially enumerated policy.

215 To test differences in rates of staff intervention regarding anti-LGBTQ+ language by type of school policy, a series of analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted, with policy type as the independent variable and frequency of intervention regarding homophobic remarks and intervention regarding negative remarks about gender expression as the dependent variables. The univariate effects of policy type on both types of intervention were significant – intervention regarding homophobic language: $F(3, 16697) = 165.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$; intervention regarding negative remarks about gender expression: $F(3, 16697) = 149.98$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Post-hoc Bonferroni comparisons were considered at, $p < .01$. For both types of interventions, students in schools with comprehensive policies reported the most frequent teacher intervention, followed by those in schools with partially enumerated policies, followed by those in schools with a generic policy, and lastly followed by those in schools with no policy. Percentages of staff intervention "most of the time" or "always" are shown for illustrative purposes.

216 To test differences in in-person victimization by type of school policy, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable and experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (in-person victimization based on sexual orientation, in-person victimization based on gender expression, and in-person victimization based on gender) as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .01, $F(9, 47595) = 15.18$, $p < .001$.The univariate effect of policy type was significant for all three types of victimization – victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(3, 15865) = 37.90$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; victimization based on gender expression: $F(3, 15865) = 37.81$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; victimization based on gender $F(3, 15865) = 30.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p < .01$. For all three types of victimization, students in schools with comprehensive policies experienced the least victimization and those in schools with no policies experienced the most victimization, with the exception that the difference between having a partially enumerated policy and a comprehensive policy was marginally significant at $p = .10$ for in-person victimization based on gender. For all three types on in-person victimization, there were no significant differences between having a partially enumerated policy and a generic policy. Percentages of students experiencing "higher levels" (i.e., higher than the average of the survey sample) of victimization are shown for illustrative purposes.

217 To test differences in online victimization by type of school policy, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable and experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (online victimization based on sexual orientation, online victimization based on gender expression, and online victimization based on gender) as the dependent variables. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's trace = .01, $F(9, 56352) = 12.14$, $p < .001$. The univariate effect of policy type was significant for all three types of victimization – online victimization based on sexual orientation: $F(3, 18784) = 30.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; online victimization based on gender expression: $F(3, 18784) = 23.56$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$; online victimization based on gender $F(3, 18784) = 13.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p < .01$. For all three types of

online anti-LGBTQ+ victimization, those who were in schools with no anti-bullying and harassment policy reported the highest levels of all three types of online victimization, and those who were in schools with a generic policy reported greater online victimization than those with a comprehensive policy. However, those who had a partially enumerated policy did not differ in the severity of online victimization from those with a generic policy and those who had a comprehensive policy.

218 To test differences in rates of student reporting of victimization incidents to staff by type of school policy, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable and frequency of student reporting of victimization to staff as the dependent variable. The main effect of policy type on rates of reporting was significant: $F(3, 13567) = 36.38$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc Bonferroni comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$. The mean for reporting was significantly different across all four policy groups: students in schools with a comprehensive policy had a higher mean than all other students, students in schools with a partially enumerated policy had a higher mean than those with a generic policy or no policy, and those in schools with a generic policy had a higher mean than those in schools with no policy. Percentages of students reporting victimization incidents to school staff "most of the time" or "always" are shown for illustrative purposes.

219 To test differences in effectiveness of staff intervention regarding victimization incidents by type of school policy, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, with policy type as the independent variable and effectiveness of staff intervention as the dependent variable. The main effect of policy type on effectiveness of intervention was significant: $F(3, 5190)=39.99$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.01$. Students in schools with a comprehensive policy and students in schools with a partially enumerated policy were more likely to report effective staff intervention than students in schools with a generic policy and students in schools with no policy, and students in schools with no policy were least likely to report effective intervention. Students having a partially enumerated policy at school was marginally statistically different than having a comprehensive policy or a generic policy ($p < .05$). Percentages of students reporting that staff intervention regarding victimization incidents was "somewhat" or "very" effective are shown for illustrative purposes.

220 To compare number of days having missed school in past month due to feeling unsafe or uncomfortable by presence of supportive transgender and nonbinary policies among transgender and nonbinary students, an independent-samples t-test was conducted. The effect was significant: $t(1337.50) = 5.35$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = .16. Percentages are discussed for illustrative purposes.

221 To compare means of school belonging by presence of supportive transgender and nonbinary policies among transgender and nonbinary students, an independent-samples t-test was conducted. The effect was significant: $t(1070.83) =20.46$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = .74. Percentages are discussed for illustrative purposes.

222 A series of chi-square analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between presence of school transgender and nonbinary student policies/guidelines and experiences with gender-related discrimination among transgender and nonbinary students: 1) prevented from using chosen name or pronouns – $\chi^2 = 398.16$, df = 1, $p<.001$, $\varphi = -.20$; 2) prevented from using bathrooms with one's gender - $\chi^2 = 334.78$, df = 1, $p<.001$, $\varphi = -.20$: 3) prevented from using locker rooms consistent with one's gender - $\chi^2 = 210.08$, df = 1, $p<.001$, $\varphi = -.17$; 4) prevented from wearing clothing considered inappropriate based on gender - $\chi^2 = 194.41$, df = 1, $p<.001$, $\varphi = -.14$; 5) prevented from playing on the school sports team that is consistent with one's gender - $\chi^2 = 95.00$, df = 1, $p<.001$, $\varphi = -.11$. The incidence of each type of discrimination was significantly lower for those students whose school had transgender and nonbinary student policies or guidelines.

223 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between whether school transgender and nonbinary student policy or guideline addressed use of names or pronouns or addressed changing official school records after a name or gender and the likelihood of experiencing discrimination related to name or pronoun use at school. The variables indicating whether the policy or guideline addressed use of names or pronouns were entered in the final step of the equation, after type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) and all other stipulations of the transgender student policy or guideline. Thus, we would be able to examine the unique contribution of these specific characteristics of the policy or guideline above and beyond all other characteristics of the policy or guideline. The final step of the equation was significant ($\chi^2 = 30.68$, df = 2, $p<.001$) and the odds ratios indicated that having a policy or guideline that addressed use of names or pronouns was associated with a lower likelihood of experiencing discrimination related to name or pronoun use at school: OR = .29, $p < .001$, and having a policy or guideline that addressed changing names or pronouns on official records was also associated with a lower likelihood of this form of discrimination: OR = .59, $p < .01$.

224 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between whether school transgender and nonbinary student policy or guideline addressed dress codes or uniforms and the likelihood of experiencing discrimination related to clothing use. The variable indicating whether the policy or guideline addressed clothing use was entered in the final step of the equation, after type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) and all other stipulations of the transgender student policy or guideline. Thus, we would be able to examine the unique contribution of this specific characteristic of the policy or guideline above and beyond all other characteristics. The final step of the equation was significant ($\chi^2 = 4.08$, df = 2, $p<.001$) and the odds ratio indicated that having a policy or guideline that addressed clothing use was associated with a lower likelihood of clothing-related discrimination: OR = .53, $p < .001$. Note: the standard of $p < .05$ was used for these analyses rather than the more restrictive $p < .01$ used throughout most of this report because the subsample for this analysis was a fraction of the size of the full sample.

225 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between whether school transgender and nonbinary student policy or guideline use of gendered bathrooms and use of a gender-neutral bathroom and the likelihood of experiencing discrimination related to bathroom use at school. The variables indicating whether the policy or guideline addressed bathroom use were entered in the final step of the equation, after type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) and all other stipulations of the transgender student policy or guideline. Thus, we would be able to examine the unique contribution of these specific characteristics of the policy or guideline above and beyond all other characteristics of the policy or guideline. The final step of the equation was significant ($\chi^2 = 38.91$, df = 2, $p<.001$) and the odds ratios indicated that having a policy or guideline that addressed use of gendered bathrooms was associated with a lower likelihood of experiencing discrimination related bathroom use at school: OR = .35, $p < .001$, and having a policy or guideline that addressed use of gender-neutral bathrooms was also associated with a lower likelihood of this form of discrimination: OR = .55, $p < .01$.

226 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between whether school transgender and nonbinary student policy or guideline addressed locker room use and the likelihood of experiencing discrimination related to locker rooms. The variable indicating whether the policy or guideline locker rooms use was entered in the final step of the equation, after type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) and all other stipulations of the transgender student policy or guideline. Thus, we would be able to examine the unique contribution of this specific characteristic of the policy or guideline above and beyond all other characteristics. The final step of the equation was significant ($\chi^2 = 14.55$, df = 2, $p<.001$) and the odds ratio indicated that having a policy or guideline that addressed clothing use was associated with a lower likelihood of locker room discrimination: OR = .36, $p < .001$.

227 A logistic regression model was used to examine the association between whether school transgender and nonbinary student policy or guideline addressed sports team participation and the likelihood of experiencing discrimination related to sports. The variable indicating whether the policy or guideline addressed sports teams was entered in the final step of the equation, after type of learning environment (online only, hybrid, in-person only) and all other stipulations of the transgender student policy or guideline. Thus, we would be able to examine the unique contribution of this specific characteristic of the policy or guideline above and beyond all other characteristics. The final step of the equation was significant ($\chi^2 = 18.88$, df = 2, $p<.001$) and the odds ratio indicated that having a policy or guideline that addressed sports teams was associated with a lower likelihood of sports-related discrimination: OR = .26, $p < .001$.

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229 Kroger, J. (2007). *Identity development: Adolescence through adulthood.* Sage Publications.

McClean, K. C. & Syed, M. (2015). *The Oxford Handbook of Identity Development.* Oxford University Press.

230 To examine differences in age by sexual orientation, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effect was significant, $F(6, 22154) = 60.09$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: queer (M=15.56) was different from pansexual (M=15.23); pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations, with the exception of questioning (M=14.98); questioning was different from all other sexual orientations, with the exception of pansexual. There were no other group differences.

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232 Kosciw, J. G., Palmer, N. A., & Kull, R. M. (2015). Reflecting resiliency: Openness about sexual orientation and/or gender identity and its relationships to well-being and educational outcomes for LGBT students. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 55*(1), 167–178.

Watson, R. J., Wheldon, C. W., & Russell, S. T. (2015). How does sexual identity disclosure impact school experiences? *Journal of LGBTQ+ Youth, 12*(4), 385–386.

233 To examine differences in outness to peers and outness to staff by sexual orientation, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with degree of outness to peers and degree of outness to staff as the dependent variables, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age and gender as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(12, 33352) = 30.18$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for outness to peers was significant: $F(6, 16677) = 53.15$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: asexual students were different from students of all other sexual orientations, with the exception of questioning students and questioning students were different from students of all other sexual orientations; gay or lesbian students were different from bisexual, pansexual and questioning students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for outness to staff was significant $F(6, 16677) = 33.73$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: queer students were different from bisexual, asexual and questioning students; gay or lesbian students were different from all other sexual orientations, with the exception of queer students; pansexual students were different from bisexual, asexual and questioning students. There were no other group differences.

234 Kosciw, J. G., Clark, C. M., Truong, N. L., & Zongrone, A. D. (2020). *The 2019 National School Climate Survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth in our nation's schools.* New York: GLSEN.

235 To examine differences in identifying as cisgender or not cisgender by sexual orientation, a chi square test was conducted. The test was significant: $\chi^2 = 1406.519$, $df = 12$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .18. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.05$. Pansexual queer and sexual were not different from each other, but were different from all other sexual orientations. Gay and lesbian, bisexual and questioning were not different from each other, but were different from all other sexual orientations.

236 See previous endnote.

237 Sexual orientation was assessed with a multi-check item (i.e., gay, lesbian, straight/heterosexual, bisexual, pansexual, queer, and questioning) with an optional write-in item for sexual orientations not listed. Youth were allowed to endorse multiple options. Students who endorsed multiple sexual orientations were provided with the option to indicate which sexual orientation they most strongly identified with. Mutually exclusive categories were created at the data cleaning stage so that analyses could compare youth across sexual orientation categories. Students who indicated which orientation they identified most strongly with were coded as that orientation. For students who endorsed multiple sexual orientations and did not choose to indicate which one they most strongly identify with, responses were categorized based upon the following hierarchy: gay/lesbian, bisexual, pansexual, queer, questioning, and straight/heterosexual. Thus, as an example, if an individual identified as "gay" and "queer" they were categorized as "gay/lesbian"; if an individual identified as "bisexual" and "questioning", they were categorized as "bisexual". In addition to the list of sexual orientation options students could choose, students were also provided with the opportunity to write in a sexual orientation that was not included in the list of options. Most write-in responses were able to be coded into one of the listed sexual orientations. A small portion of the total sample indicated that they identified with a sexual orientation other than the ones listed (0.4%). Of these, some defined themselves as some form as "flexible," (e.g., "homo-flexible") and others refused to label themselves altogether (e.g., "I love who I love"). Another group, made up predominantly of students with nonbinary gender identities, defined their sexual identity in terms of solely the gender identity or expressions of others, without reference to their own gender (i.e., 'androsexual' or 'gynosexual' individuals - those who have sexual feelings towards men or women, respectively). Given that these categories do not comprise a meaningful group and that they account for such a small portion of the sample, we did not include these students in this analysis examining differences based on sexual orientation.

238 To compare experiences of feeling unsafe at school by sexual orientation, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three unsafe variables (feeling unsafe because of sexual orientation, feeling unsafe because of gender expression and feeling unsafe because of gender) as dependent variables, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(15, 48408) = 23.01$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for feeling unsafe regarding sexual orientation was significant: $F(5, 16136) = 54.96$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: gay or lesbian was different from all other sexual orientations and asexual was different from all other sexual orientations, with the exception of questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for feeling unsafe regarding on gender expression was significant: $F(5, 16136) = 10.15$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: bisexual was different from gay or lesbian, pansexual, and queer, asexual was different from gay or lesbian, queer and pansexual. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for feeling unsafe regarding gender identity was significant: $F(5, 16136) = 5.90$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: bisexual was different from gay or lesbian and pansexual. There were no other group differences.

239 To compare experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by sexual orientation, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. Only students who had been in school in-person at some point during the academic years were included in the analyses. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(15, 35604) = 16.33$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(5, 11868) = 23.53$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual and gay/lesbian were higher than all other groups, exception questioning, but were not different from

each other. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(5, 11868) = 21.15$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations, with the exception of questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender identity was significant: $F(5, 11868) = 24.32$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations. There were no other group differences.

240 To examine differences in experiences of sexual harassment by sexual orientation, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with sexual harassment as the dependent variable, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(5, 11868) = 21.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all sexual orientations, with the exception of questioning; gay/lesbian was different from bisexual; bisexual was different from asexual. There were no other group differences.

241 To compare experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by sexual orientation, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three online harassment variables (based on sexual orientation, based on gender expression and based on gender) as dependent variables, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. Only students who had been in school in-person at some point during the academic years were included in the analyses. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(15, 40623) = 8.54$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for online harassment based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(5, 13541) = 14.62$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual and gay/lesbian were higher than bisexual and asexual, and pansexual was also higher than queer. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(5, 13541) = 12.61$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations, with the exception of questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender identity was significant: $F(5, 13541) = 12.59$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations. There were no other group differences.

242 To examine differences in experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by sexual orientation, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with the composite anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination variable (experienced any anti-LGBTQ+ victimization) as the dependent variable, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(5, 15881) = 13.64$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations. There were no other group differences.

243 Greytak, E. A., Kosciw, J. G., Villenas, C, & Giga, N. M. (2016). *From teasing to torment: School climate revisited, a survey of U.S. secondary school students and teachers.* New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-12/From_Teasing_to_Tormet_Revised_2016.pdf

Mittleman, J. (2018). Sexual orientation and school discipline: New evidence from a population-based sample. *Educational Researcher, 47*(3), 181–190.

Palmer, N. A. & Greytak, E. A. (2017). LGBTQ+ student victimization and its relationship to school discipline and justice system involvement. *Criminal Justice Review, 42*(2), 163–187.

Poteat, V. P., Scheer, J. R., & Chong, E. S. K. (2016). Sexual orientation-based disparities in school and juvenile justice discipline: A multiple group comparison of contributing factors. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*(2), 229–241.

244 To examine differences in experiencing school discipline by sexual orientation, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with a composite variable for any discipline as the dependent variable, and sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: $F(5, 15946) = 8.48$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from gay or lesbian, queer, and asexual, and bisexual students were different from asexual students. There were no other group differences.

245 To examine differences in missing school by sexual orientation, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with days of school missed in the last month due to feeling unsafe as the dependent variable, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(5\ 16232) = 16.81$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations. There were no other group differences.

246 To examine differences in GPAs by sexual orientation, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with GPAs as the dependent variable, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 20359) = 40.50$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from all other sexual orientations and bisexual was different from queer. There were no other group differences. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes

To examine differences in educational aspirations by sexual orientation, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with plans to pursue post-secondary education as the dependent variable, sexual orientation as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 16483) = 10.17$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: pansexual was different from bisexual and queer, queer was different from gay or lesbian. There were no other group differences. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes

247 O'Malley Olsen, E., Vivolo-Kantor, A., & Kann, L. (2017). Physical and sexual teen dating violence victimization and sexual identity among U.S. high school students, 2015. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence.* Published online. doi: 10.1177/0886260517708757

Rasberry, C. N., Lowry, R., John, M., Robin, L., Dunville, R., Pampati, S., Dittus, P. J., & Balaji, A. B. (2018, September 14). Morbidity and mortality weekly report: Sexual Risk Behavior Differences Among Sexual Minority High School Students — United States, 2015 and 2017. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*, *67*, 1007–1011.

Saewyc, E. M., Skay, C. L., Pettingell, S., Bearinger, L. H., Resnick, M. D., & Reis, E. (2007). Suicidal ideation and attempts in North American school-based surveys: Are bisexual youth at increasing risk? *Journal of LGBT Health Research, 3*(1), 25–36.

248 Gender was assessed via two items: an item assessing sex assigned at birth (i.e., male or female) and an item assessing gender identity (i.e., cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, genderqueer, male, female, questioning, and an additional write-in option). Based on responses to these two items, students' gender was categorized for this analyses as: Cisgender (including cisgender male, cisgender female, cisgender nonbinary/genderqueer, or unspecified male or female), Transgender (including transgender male, transgender female, transgender nonbinary/genderqueer, and transgender only), Nonbinary (including nonbinary, genderqueer, nonbinary/genderqueer male, nonbinary/genderqueer female, or another nonbinary identity (i.e., those who wrote in identities such as "genderfluid," "agender" or "demigender") and Questioning.

249 GLSEN (2016). *Educational exclusion: Drop out, push out, and the school-to-prison pipeline among LGBTQ+ youth.* New York: GLSEN.

250 To compare feelings of safety by gender identity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three safety variables (safety because of sexual orientation, safety because of gender expression, and safety because of gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff. sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .33, $F(9, 49881) = 674.45$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 16627) = 35.47$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary was higher than all others. Transgender was higher than cisgender. Questioning was higher than cisgender. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(3, 16627) = 2201.94$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .28$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was

higher than all others. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. Questioning was higher than cisgender. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(3, 16627) = 549.47$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all others. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. Questioning was higher than cisgender. There were no other group differences.

251 To compare experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by gender identity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression, and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff. sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .08, $F(9, 36690) = 116.76$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 11230) = 34.60$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: cisgender students were lower than transgender and nonbinary students. Transgender students were lower than nonbinary students. Nonbinary students were higher than all others. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(3, 11230) = 192.45$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all others. Cisgender was lower than all others. Nonbinary was higher than questioning. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(3, 11230) = 208.96$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all others. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences.

To compare experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by gender identity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (victimization based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender expression, and victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff. sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .08, $F(9, 41826) = 132.25$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 13942) = 26.57$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary was higher than all others. Transgender was higher than cisgender. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(3, 13942) = 192.47$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all others. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(3, 13942) = 255.27$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all others. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences.

252 To compare feelings of safety by gender identity among transgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three safety variables (safety because of sexual orientation, safety because of gender, and safety because of gender expression) as dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(9, 13989) = 6.21$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for safety because of sexual orientation was not significant. The univariate effect for safety because of gender was significant: $F(3, 4663) = 4.15$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male was marginally higher than trans nonbinary at $p=.011$. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for safety because of gender expression was significant: $F(3, 4663) = 8.83$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and marginally lower than trans only at $p=.011$. There were no other group differences.

253 See previous endnote.

254 To compare experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by gender identity among transgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression, and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .03, $F(9, 10278) = 11.29$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 3426) = 8.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only was higher than trans male and trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(3, 3426) = 19.52$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only was higher than trans female and trans nonbinary. Trans male was higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(3, 3426) = 21.93$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only was higher than trans female and trans nonbinary. Trans male was higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

255 See previous endnote.

256 To compare experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by gender identity among transgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (victimization based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender expression, and victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(9, 11717) = 4.12$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 3909) = 4.25$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only was higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(3, 3909) = 7.83$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only and trans male were higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(3, 3909) = 6.32$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans only and marginally lower than trans male ($p=.011$). There were no other group differences.

257 See previous endnote

258 To compare feelings of safety by gender identity among nonbinary students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three safety variables (safety because of sexual orientation, safety because of gender, and safety because of gender expression) as dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, and nonbinary male/female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .04, $F(6, 10198) = 31.47$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for safety because of sexual orientation was not significant. The univariate effect for safety because gender was significant: $F(2, 5100) = 68.71$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than all groups. Nonbinary M/F was lower than all groups. The univariate effect for safety because of gender expression was significant: $F(2, 5100) = 9.98$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

259 See previous endnote.

260 To compare experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by gender identity among nonbinary students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression, and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to

staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .03, $F(6, 7540) = 8.25$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(2, 3771) = 6.70$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(2, 3771) = 20.07$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(2, 3771) = 17.60$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

To compare experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by gender identity among nonbinary students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (victimization based on sexual orientation, victimization based on gender expression, and victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(6, 8544) = 12.49$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was not significant. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(2, 4273) = 8.41$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(2, 4273) = 12.57$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences.

261 See previous endnote.

262 To compare feelings of safety by gender identity among cisgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three safety variables (safety because of sexual orientation, safety because of gender, and safety because of gender expression) as dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .05, $F(3, 5468) = 89.32$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for safety because of sexual orientation was significant: $F(1, 5470) = 18.03$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. The univariate effect for safety because gender was significant: $F(1, 5470) = 72.83$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$ The univariate effect for safety because of gender expression was significant: $F(1, 5470) = 157.17$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$.

263 To compare experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by gender identity among cisgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression, and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .06, $F(3, 3974) = 89.59$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(1, 3976) = 80.75$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(1, 3976) = 50.07$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(1, 3976) = 29.73$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

264 To compare experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by gender identity among cisgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three anti-LGBTQ+ victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression, and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .03, $F(3, 4609) = 40.60$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was not significant. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(1, 4611) = 16.39$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(1, 4611) = 44.52$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

265 To compare avoiding spaces by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with having avoided any space as dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and sexual orientation as controls. The effect was significant: $F(3, 12568) = 259.13$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Cisgender avoided spaces less than all other gender identities; transgender avoided spaces more than all other gender identities, Nonbinary avoided space more than questioning. There were no other group differences.

266 Foley, J. T., Pineiro, C., Miller, D., & Foley, M. L. (2016). Including transgender students in school physical education. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, *87*(3), 5–8.

Johnson, J. (2014). Transgender youth in public schools: Why identity matters in the restroom. *William Mitchell Law Rev Sua Sponte*, *40*, 63–98.

Murchison, G. R., Agénor, M., Reisner, S. L., & Watson, R. J. (2019). School restroom and locker room restrictions and sexual assault. *Pediatrics,* 143(6).

Szczerbinski, K. (2016). Education connection: The importance of allowing students to use bathrooms and locker rooms reflecting their gender identity. *Child Legal Rights Journal*, *36*, 153.

267 To compare avoiding gendered spaces at school because they felt unsafe or uncomfortable by gender identity, a multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with different avoiding gendered spaces variables (school bathrooms, school locker rooms, Gym/P.E. class, athletics fields and facilities) as the dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning), as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and sexual orientation as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .14, $F(9, 37701) = 149.01$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for avoiding bathrooms was significant: $F(3, 12568) = 565.90$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .12$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding locker rooms was significant: $F(3, 12568) = 193.15$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other. Cisgender was lower than all others. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding Gym/P.E. class was significant: $F(3, 12568) = 130.86$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Cisgender was lower than all other groups. Nonbinary was higher than questioning. The univariate effect for athletic fields and facilities was significant: $F(3, 12568) = 42.17$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Cisgender was lower than all other groups. There were no other group differences.

268 To compare experiences of avoiding gendered school spaces by gender identity among transgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four avoiding gendered spaces variables (avoiding bathrooms, avoiding locker rooms, avoiding Gym/P.E. class, and avoiding athletic spaces) as dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans NB, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .04, $F(12, 10593) = 11.20$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for avoiding bathrooms was significant: $F(3,3532) = 38.82$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than all other groups. Trans only was lower than trans male. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding locker rooms was significant: $F(3, 3532) = 12.66$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male and trans female were lower than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding Gym/P.E. class was significant: $F(3, 3532) = 9.73$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male was higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding athletic spaces was not significant.

269 To compare experiences of avoiding other school spaces by gender identity among nonbinary students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four avoiding gendered spaces variables (avoiding cafeterias, hallways, buses, classrooms, school grounds) as dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(15, 10590) = 2.45$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for avoiding cafeterias was significant: $F(3,3532) = 4.57$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male and trans only were higher than trans female. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding classrooms was significant: $F(3, 3532) = 5.76$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only was higher than trans female and trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effects for hallways, buses, and school grounds were not significant.

270 See previous endnote.

271 To compare experiences of avoiding gendered school spaces by gender identity among nonbinary students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four avoiding gendered spaces variables (avoiding bathrooms, avoiding locker rooms, avoiding Gym/P.E. class, and avoiding athletic spaces) as dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(8, 7718) = 7.44$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for avoiding bathrooms was significant: $F(2, 3861) = 23.16$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding locker rooms was significant: $F(2, 3861) = 6.51$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding Gym/P.E. class was significant: $F(2, 3861) = 9.83$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for avoiding athletic spaces was not significant.

To compare experiences of avoiding other school spaces by gender identity among nonbinary students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four avoiding gendered spaces variables (avoiding cafeterias, hallways, buses, classrooms, school grounds) as dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .004, $F(10, 7716) = 1.39$, $p<.01$. The univariate effect for avoiding cafeterias was significant: $F(2, 3861) = 5.03$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences. The univariate effects for classrooms, hallways, buses, and school grounds were not significant.

272 To compare experiences of avoiding other school spaces by gender identity among cisgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four avoiding gendered spaces variables (avoiding cafeterias, hallways, buses, classrooms, school grounds) as dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(5, 4091) = 8.06$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for avoiding cafeterias was significant: $F(1, 4095) = 33.06$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The univariate effect for avoiding hallways was significant: $F(1, 4095) = 9.65$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .002$.The univariate effect for avoiding buses was significant: $F(1, 4095) = 8.52$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$.The univariate effect for avoiding classrooms significant: $F(1, 4095) = 8.70$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .002$. The univariate effect for school grounds was not significant.

273 To compare experiences of avoiding gendered school spaces by gender identity among cisgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four avoiding gendered spaces variables (avoiding bathrooms, avoiding locker rooms, avoiding Gym/P.E. class, and avoiding athletic spaces) as dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .07, $F(4, 4092) = 73.42$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for avoiding bathrooms was significant: $F(1, 4095) = 221.37$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .05$. The univariate effect for avoiding locker rooms was significant: $F(1, 4095) = 113.18$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$.The univariate effect for avoiding athletic spaces was significant: $F(1, 4095) = 13.09$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. The univariate effect for avoiding Gym/P.E. class was not significant.

274 To compare school belonging by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with school belonging as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning), as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant. $F(3, 16737) = 376.51$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was higher than all other groups. Transgender was lower than all other groups. Nonbinary was lower than questioning.

275 To compare missing school by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with missing school as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant: $F(3, 16669) = 88.32$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender and nonbinary were higher than cisgender and questioning, but not different from each other. Questioning was marginally higher than cisgender at $p=01$.

To compare changing schools by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with changing school as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant: $F(3, 16689) = 20.62$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender and nonbinary were higher than cisgender and questioning, but not different from each other. There were no other group differences.

276 To compare educational aspirations by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with educational aspirations as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning), as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant. $F(3, 16564) = 112.86$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was lower than all other groups. Nonbinary was lower than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences.

277 To compare school belonging by gender identity among transgender students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with school belonging as the dependent variable, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only), as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant. $F(3, 4673) = 20.04$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male and trans only were lower than trans female and trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

278 To compare missing school by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with missing school as the dependent variable, gender identity (transgender boys, transgender girls, transgender nonbinary, and transgender only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant: $F(3, 4670) = 18.14$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male and trans only were higher than trans female and trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences

To compare changing schools by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with changing school as the dependent variable, gender identity (transgender boys, transgender girls, transgender nonbinary, and transgender only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff),

sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant: $F(3, 4675) = 10.10$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans male was higher than trans female and trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

279 See previous endnote.

280 To compare educational aspirations by gender identity among nonbinary students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with education aspirations as the dependent variable, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant, $F(2, 5069) = 11.98$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was lower than nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences.

281 To compare school belonging by gender identity among nonbinary students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with school belonging as the dependent variable, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F), as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant. $F(2, 5134) = 19.02$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Nonbinary/genderqueer was lower than other nonbinary and nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences.

282 To compare educational aspirations by gender identity among nonbinary students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with education aspirations as the dependent variable, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant, $F(2, 5069) = 11.98$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than nonbinary male/female. There were no other group differences.

283 To compare missing school by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with missing school as the dependent variable, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, nonbinary only, and other nonbinary) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

To compare changing schools by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with changing schools as the dependent variable, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, nonbinary only, and other nonbinary) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

284 To compare school belonging by gender identity among cisgender students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with school belonging as the dependent variable, gender identity (cis male, cis female), as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant. $F(1, 5518) = 15.22$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .003$.

285 To compare missing school by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with missing school as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender boys and cisgender girls) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant: $F(1, 5518) = 7.90$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .001$. To compare changing schools by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with changing schools as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender boys and cisgender girls) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

To compare missing school and changing schools by gender identity among cisgender students, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with missing school and changing schools as dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .002, $F(2, 5515) = 12.39$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. The univariate effect for missing school was significant: $F(1, 5516) = 7.93$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .001$. The univariate effect for changing school was not significant.

To compare educational aspirations by gender identity among cisgender students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with education aspirations as the dependent variable, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

286 To compare having experienced any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary [NB], and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and sexual orientation as controls. The effect was significant. $F(3, 16312) = 430.79$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: all gender identities were different from each other.

287 To compare having experienced any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination at school by gender identity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination as the dependent variable, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary [NB], and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and sexual orientation as controls. The effect was significant. $F(3, 16312) = 430.79$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: all gender identities were different from each other.

288 To compare experiencing gender-based anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for gendered clothes was significant: $F(3, 12441) = 32.47$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. Nonbinary was marginally higher than questioning at $p=.01$. There were no other group differences. The effect for name/pronouns usage was significant: $F(3, 12471) = 601.37$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .13$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Cisgender was lower than all other groups. Nonbinary was higher than questioning. Questioning was higher than cisgender. The effect for bathroom access was significant: $F(3, 10985) = 802.29$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Cisgender was lower than all other groups. Nonbinary was higher than questioning. Questioning was higher than cisgender. The effect for locker room access was significant: $F(3, 9731) = 808.00$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Cisgender was lower than all other groups. Nonbinary was higher than questioning. Questioning was higher than cisgender. The effect for gendered sports team access was significant: $F(3, 9566) = 288.79$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .16$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: all gender identities were different from each other Transgender was higher than all other groups. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences.

289 See previous endnote.

290 To compare experiencing anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for prevented from wearing clothing related to LGBTQ+ issues was significant: $F(3, 12884) = 17.32$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for bringing same-sex date to a dance was significant: $F(3, 10727) = 13.85$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for PDA was significant: $F(3, 11739) = 62.46$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all other groups. Cisgender was lower than all other groups. Questioning was lower than nonbinary and transgender. There were no other group differences. The effect for being disciplined for being LGBTQ+ was significant: $F(3, 13958) = 7.68$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender

and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for prevented from including LGBTQ+ content in assignments was significant: $F(3, 13553) = 25.41$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for prevented from forming a GSA was significant: $F(3, 11030) = 32.07$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for prevented from talking about LGBTQ+ issues in extracurriculars was significant: $F(3, 12011) = 35.08$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for prevented from playing sports because of being LGBTQ+ was significant: $F(3, 11104) = 100.59$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender was higher than all groups. Nonbinary was higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences.

291 To experiencing discrimination by gender identity among transgender students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with any discrimination as dependent variable, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant, $F(3, 4588) = 8.64$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only was higher than trans female and trans nonbinary. Trans male was higher than trans female. There were no other group differences.

292 To compare gender-specific anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity among transgender students, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for gendered clothes was significant, $F(3, 3642) = 6.51$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans only. Trans only was marginally higher than trans male ($p=.011$). There were no other group differences. The effect for sports team access was significant, $F(3, 2698) = 24.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only and trans male were higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for pronouns was significant, $F(3, 3995) = 4.36$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .003$. However, pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$ and there were no significant group differences. The effect for bathrooms was significant $F(3, 3477)= 8.21$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and trans only. There were no other group differences. The effect for locker rooms was significant $F(3, 2861)= 12.21$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and trans only. There were no other group differences.

293 To compare gender-specific anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity among transgender students, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for gendered clothes was significant, $F(3, 3642) = 6.51$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans only. Trans only was marginally higher than trans male ($p=.011$). There were no other group differences. The effect for sports team access was significant, $F(3, 2698) = 24.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only and trans male were higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for pronouns was significant, $F(3, 3995) = 4.36$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .003$. However, pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$ and there were no significant group differences. The effect for bathrooms was significant $F(3, 3477)= 8.21$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and trans only. There were no other group differences. The effect for locker rooms was significant $F(3, 2861)= 12.21$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and trans only. There were no other group differences.

294 To compare gender-specific anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity among transgender students, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for gendered clothes was significant, $F(3, 3642) = 6.51$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans only. Trans only was marginally higher than trans male ($p=.011$). There were no other group differences. The effect for sports team access was significant, $F(3, 2698) = 24.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans only and trans male were higher than trans nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The effect for pronouns was significant, $F(3, 3995) = 4.36$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .003$. However, pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$ and there were no significant group differences. The effect for bathrooms was significant $F(3, 3477)= 8.21$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and trans only. There were no other group differences. The effect for locker rooms was significant $F(3, 2861)= 12.21$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Trans nonbinary was lower than trans male and trans only. There were no other group differences.

295 To compare experiencing discrimination by gender identity among nonbinary students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with any discrimination as dependent variable, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant, $F(2, 5024) = 18.34$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences.

296 To compare gender-specific anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity among nonbinary students, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, nonbinary M/F) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for gendered clothes was not significant. The effect for sports team access was significant, $F(2, 2992) = 13.74$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than nonbinary M/F. There were no other group differences. The effect for pronouns was significant, $F(2, 4004) = 42.88$, $p<.01$ $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons were considered $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than other nonbinary and nonbinary M/F. Other nonbinary was higher than nonbinary M/F. The effect for bathrooms was significant $F(2, 3317) = 51.30$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary/genderqueer was higher than nonbinary MF. There were no other group differences. The effect for locker rooms was significant $F(2, 2910) = 39.60$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Nonbinary M/F was lower than nonbinary/genderqueer and other nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

297 To compare experiencing discrimination by gender identity among nonbinary students, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with any discrimination as dependent variable, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was significant, $F(1, 5380) = 12.47$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$.

298 To compare gender-specific anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination by gender identity among nonbinary students, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted with each type of discrimination as the dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect for gendered clothes was significant: $F(1, 3898) = 19.71$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$The effect for pronouns was significant, $F(1, 3572) = 19.12$, $p<.001$ $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The effect for locker rooms was significant $F(1, 3224) = 6.83$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. The effects for sports team and bathroom access were not significant.

299 To compare experiencing discipline by gender identity, an of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with experiencing

any discipline as the dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

300 To compare experiencing discipline by gender identity, a multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with each type of discipline as the dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(24, 47461) = 3.70$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for sent to the principal was significant: $F(3, 16371) = 13.52$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender and nonbinary were higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for received detention was significant: $F(3, 16371) = 6.96$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for being placed somewhere along was significant: $F(3, 16371) = 20.36$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Transgender and nonbinary were higher than cisgender and questioning. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for in-school suspension was significant: $F(3, 16371) = 5.06$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effects for out-of-school suspension, physical restraint, expelled, and contact with justice system were not significant.

301 To compare experiencing online discipline by gender identity, a multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with each type of online discipline as the dependent variables, gender identity (cisgender, transgender, nonbinary, and questioning) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .004, $F(6, 28006) = 8.34$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for had online participation restricted was significant $F(3, 14003) = 14.53$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$:Cisgender was lower than transgender and nonbinary. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for had online participation restricted was significant $F(3, 14003) = 6.26$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Cisgender was lower than nonbinary. There were no other group differences.

302 To compare experiencing discipline by gender identity among transgender students, an of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with experiencing any discipline as the dependent variables, gender identity (trans male, trans female, trans nonbinary, and trans only) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

To compare experiencing discipline by gender identity among nonbinary students, an of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with experiencing any discipline as the dependent variables, gender identity (nonbinary/genderqueer, other nonbinary, and nonbinary/MF) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

To compare experiencing discipline by gender identity among nonbinary students, an of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with experiencing any discipline as the dependent variables, gender identity (cis male, cis female) as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), sexual orientation, and learning environment as controls. The effect was not significant.

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304 Truong, N. L., Zongrone, A. D., & Kosciw, J. G. (2020). *Erasure and resilience: The experiences of LGBTQ+ students of color, Asian American and Pacific Islander LGBTQ+ youth in U.S. Schools*. New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2020-06/Erasure-and-Resilience-AAPI-2020.pdf

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305 Race/ethnicity was assessed with a single multi-check question item (i.e., African American or Black; Asian or South Asian; Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander; Native American, American Indian, or Alaska Native; White or Caucasian; Hispanic or Latino/Latina/Latinx; and Arab American, Middle Eastern, or North African) with an optional write-in item for race/ethnicities not listed. Participants who selected more than one race category were coded as multiracial, with the exception of participants who selected either "Hispanic or Latino/Latina/Latinx" or "Arab American, Middle Eastern, or North African" as their ethnicity. Participants who selected either one ethnicity were coded as that ethnicity, regardless of any additional racial identities they selected. Participants who selected both ethnicities were coded as multiracial. The resulting racial/ethnic groupings were: MENA, AAPI, Black, Latinx, Native and Indigenous, multiracial, and White.

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

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309 To examine differences in outness to peers and outness to staff by race/ethnicity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with degree of outness to peers and degree of outness to staff as the dependent variables, race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, racial composition of the school, school location, and gender as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .004, $F(12, 32030) = 10.63$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for outness to peers was significant: $F(6, 16015) = 14.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from white, Latinx, Native and Indigenous, and multiracial students;

white students were different from Black and Latinx students, and Black students were different from multiracial students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for outness to staff was significant F(6, 16015) = 17.25, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from white, Latinx, and multiracial students; white students were different from Black and Latinx students, and Black students were different from multiracial students. There were no other group differences.

310 To compare experiences of feeling unsafe at school by race/ethnicity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three unsafe variables (feeling unsafe because of sexual orientation, feeling unsafe because of gender expression and feeling unsafe because of gender) as dependent variables, race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(18, 47697) = 5.94$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for feeling unsafe based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(6, 15899) = 9.99$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Black students were different from white, Latinx and multiracial students and AAPI students were different from white, Latinx and multiracial students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for feeling unsafe based on gender expression was significant: $F(6, 15899) = 4.48$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Black students were different from Native and Indigenous, Latinx and multiracial students and Latinx students were different from white and AAPI students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for feeling unsafe based on gender identity was significant: $F(6, 15899) = 10.11$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Black students were different from white, Latinx and multiracial students. There were no other group differences.

To examine differences in experiences of feeling unsafe at school due to race/ethnicity by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with feeling unsafe due to race/ethnicity as the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 15899) = 299.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .10$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: white students were different from all other races/ethnicities, Latinx students were different from Black and multiracial students, and multiracial students were different from Black and AAPI students. There were no other group differences.

311 To examine differences in experiences of victimization by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with a composite of "any" form of victimization, including verbal harassment, physical harassment and physical assault because of either sexual orientation, gender expression, gender or race/ethnicity, as the dependent variable, race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 12029) = 6.57$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Latinx students were different from white, Black, and AAPI students. There were no other group differences.

312 To compare experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by race/ethnicity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three victimization variables (weighted victimization based on sexual orientation, weighted victimization based on gender expression and weighted victimization based on gender) as dependent variables, race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(18, 35319) = 6.04$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(6, 11773) = 9.77$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students were different from all other races/ethnicities, with the exception of MENA students, Black students were different from Latinx students, and multiracial students were different from white, Black, and AAPI students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(6, 11773) = 15.00$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students were different from all other races/ethnicities, Black students were different from MENA students, Latinx students were different from white and Black students, and multiracial students were different from white and Black students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender identity was significant: $F(6, 11773) = 12.68$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students were different from all other races/ethnicities and multiracial students were different from white and Black students. There were no other group differences.

313 To compare experiences of in-person racist victimization by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with the weighted victimization based on race/ethnicity as dependent variables, race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 11882) = 137.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$.Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students were different from all other races/ethnicities; Latinx students were different from Multiracial students, and white students were different from all other groups. There were no other group differences.

314 To compare experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by race/ethnicity, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with three online harassment variables (based on sexual orientation, based on gender expression and based on gender) as dependent variables, race/ethnicty as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as controls. Only students who had been in school in-person at some point during the academic years were included in the analyses. The multivariate effect was significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(18, 39996) = 7.82$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for online harassment based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(6, 13332) = 14.46$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students reported higher levels than all others; Latinx students reported higher levels than white, Black, and AAPI students; white students reported higher levels than Black and AAPI students, and Multiracial students reported higher levels than Black and AAPI students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for online harassment based on gender expression was significant: $F(6, 13332) = 17.04$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students reported higher levels than all other groups, Latinx students reported higher levels than white, Black, and AAPI students, and Multiracial students reported higher levels than white and AAPI students. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender identity was significant: $F(6, 13332) = 10.81$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students reported higher levels than all other groups; Latinx and Multiracial students reported higher levels than white, Black, and AAPI students. There were no other group differences.

315 To compare experiences of racist online harassment by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), and gender as covariates. Only students who had been in school in-person at some point during the academic years were included in the analyses. The univariate effect for racist online harassment was significant: $F(6, 13332) = 14.46$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Native and Indigenous students were different than all others; white students were different from all others; Latinx students were different than Multiracial students. There were no other group differences.

316 To examine differences in experiences of discrimination by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with a combined score of experiencing any discrimination as the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 15687) = 19.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from all other race/ethnicities and Black students different from Native and indigenous and Latinx students. There were no other group differences.

317 To examine differences in experiences of discipline by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with a combined score of experiencing any school discipline as the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the

school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 15717) = 12.90$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from all other race/ethnicities, with the exception of MENA students, and white students were different from Latinx and multiracial students. There were no other group differences.

318 Crosse, S., Gottfredson, D. C., Bauer, E. L., Tang, Z., Harmon, M. A., Hagen, C. A., & Greene, A. D. (2022). Are effects of school resource officers moderated by student race and ethnicity?. *Crime & Delinquency*, *68*(3), 381–408.

319 To examine differences in missing school by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with number of days of school missed as the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 15984) = 12.59$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from Native and indigenous, Latinx, MENA and multiracial students, Native and Indigenous students were different from white students, Latinx students were different from white students. There were no other group differences.

320 To examine differences in changing schools by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with having changed schools the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 16001) = 5.98$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from Native and indigenous and Latinx students. There were no other group differences.

321 To examine differences in educational attachment by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with school belonging as the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 15999) = 14.13$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: white students were different from AAPI, Native and Indigenous and Latinx students, AAPI students were different from Native and Indigenous, multiracial and Latinx students, and Native and indigenous students were different from students of all other races/ethnicities. There were no other group differences.

322 To examine differences in post-secondary education plans by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with plans to pursue post-secondary education as the dependent variable and race/ethnicity as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The effect was significant: $F(6, 15871) = 7.62$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: AAPI students were different from Black, Native and Indigenous and Latinx students, Native and Indigenous students were different from MENA students, and Latinx students were different from white students. There were no other group differences.

323 To compare experiencing multiple forms of victimization by race/ethnicity, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with a dichotomous variable, whether a student experienced both racist and anti-LGBTQ+ victimization as the dependent variable, racial/ethnic as the independent variable, and age, outness (to peers and to staff), racial composition of the school, school location and gender as controls. The main effect was significant: $F(6, 12029) = 6.57$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Latinx students were different from white, Black and AAPI students. There were no other group differences.

324 Truong, N. L., Zongrone, A. D., & Kosciw, J. G. (2020). *Erasure and resilience: The experiences of LGBTQ+ students of color, Asian American and Pacific Islander LGBTQ+ youth in U.S. Schools.* New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2020-06/Erasure-and-Resilience-AAPI-2020.pdf

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Zongrone, A. D., Truong, N. L., & Kosciw, J. G. (2020). *Erasure and resilience: The experiences of LGBTQ+ students of color, Native and Indigenous LGBTQ+ youth in U.S. Schools.* New York: GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2020-06/Erasure-and-Resilience-Native-2020.pdf

325 To test differences in anti-LGBTQ+ language by school level, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the anti-LGBTQ+ remarks variables ("gay" used in a negative way, "no homo," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) as the dependent variables, and school level (middle school and high school) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(5, 16329) = 52.01$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for gay used in a negative way was significant: $F(1, 16333) = 255.16$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The effects for "no homo," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people were not significant.

326 To examine differences in in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization experiences by school level, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables, school level (middle school and high school) as the independent variable, and sexual orientation and gender expression as covariates. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .02, $F(3, 11909) = 92.25$, $p<.001$. Univariate effects were significant for anti-LGBTQ+ victimization – Sexual orientation: $F(1, 11911) = 266.32$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$; Gender expression: $F(1, 11911) = 156.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Gender: $F(1, 11911) = 187.41$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

327 To examine differences in online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment experiences by school level, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables, school level (middle school and high school) as the independent variable, and sexual orientation and gender expression as covariates. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(3, 13670) = 35.70$, $p<.001$. Univariate effects were significant for anti-LGBTQ+ victimization – Sexual orientation: $F(1, 13672) = 95.58$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Gender expression: $F(1, 13672) = 47.36$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$; Gender: $F(1, 13672) = 73.87$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

328 To compare differences in experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices by school level, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with experiencing any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination (a combined variable of whether the student experienced any of the discriminatory actions assessed [see Discriminatory Practices and Policies section]) as the dependent variable, school level (middle school and high school) as the independent variable, and sexual orientation and gender expression as covariates. The results of the analysis were significant: $F(1, 11432) = 114.20$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

329 To examine differences in access to GSAs, inclusive curriculum, inclusive curricular resources and materials, and comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment and supportive trans/nonbinary policies by school level, a series of chi-square tests were conducted. (For the purposes of this analysis and similar analyses in this section regarding school differences in availability of comprehensive policy, we examined only whether students reported that their school had a comprehensive, i.e., fully enumerated, anti-bullying/harassment policy or not. Therefore, students without a comprehensive policy might have had a partially enumerated policy, a generic policy, or no policy at all). The effect for GSAs was significant: $\chi^2 = 1093.34$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .26$. The effect for LGBTQ+ website access was significant: $\chi^2 = 80.60$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .08$. The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum was significant: $\chi^2 = 6.76$, $df = 1$, $p<.01$, $\varphi = .02$. The effect+ for LGBTQ+-inclusive sex education was significant: $\chi^2 = 10.48$, $df = 1$, $p<.01$, $\varphi = .03$. The effect for Safe Space stickers/posters was significant: $\chi^2 = 194.10$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .11$. The effect for comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 32.27$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .04$. The effect for transgender/other nonbinary

student policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 9.20$, $df = 1$, $p<.01$, $\varphi = .02$. To compare differences in LGBTQ+-inclusive resources and materials, two separate independent samples t-tests were conducted, with LGBTQ+-inclusive library resources and LGBTQ+-inclusive textbooks and readings as the dependent variables, and school level (middle school and high school) as the independent variable. Both analyses were significant – Library: $t(6718.97) = -5.66$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = .63; Textbooks: $t(8991.64) = -10.59$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = .39.

To compare differences in supportive school personnel by school level, two separate independent samples t-tests were conducted, with supportive educators and supportive administrators as the dependent variables, and school level (middle school and high school) as the independent variable. Both analyses were significant – Supportive educators: $t(6932.73) = 14.54$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = .2,12; Supportive administrators: $t(1560.82) = 3.12$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = 1.10.

330 To compare differences in GSA participation by school level a t-test was conducted. The analysis was significant: $t(1223.06) = 7.77$, $p<.001$, Cohen's d = 1.62.

331 U.S. Department of Education. (2019). *Student reports of bullying: Results from the 2017 School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey*. Retrieved August 2, 2020. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2019/2019054.pdf

332 To examine differences in anti-LGBTQ+ language by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the anti-LGBTQ+ remarks variables ("gay" used in a negative way, "no homo," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) as the dependent variables, and school type (public, religious, and private non-religious) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .03, $F(10, 43866) = 52.22$, $p<.001$. All univariate effects were significant for the anti-LGBTQ+ language remarks – "Gay" used in a negative way: $F(2, 21936) = 147.50$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; "No homo": $F(2, 21936) = 91.87$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$; Other homophobic remarks: $F(2, 21936) = 178.85$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, Negative remarks about gender expression: $F(2, 21936) = 29.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$; Trans remarks: $F(2, 21936) = 85.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. "Gay" used in a negative way: Private was lower than public and religious. Public and religious were not different. "No homo": Public was higher than religious and private. Religious was higher than private. Other homophobic remarks: Public was higher than religious and private. Religious was higher than private. Gender expression remarks: Religious was higher than public and private. Public was higher than private. Trans remarks: Private was lower than public and religious. Public and religious were not different.

333 To examine differences in anti-LGBTQ+ language by type of public school, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the anti-LGBTQ+ remarks variables ("gay" used in a negative way, "no homo," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) as the dependent variables, and type of public school (regular public school and charter school) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .00, $F(5, 19323) = 6.46$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for "gay" in a negative was significant: $F(1, 19327) = 30.31$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. The univariate effect for other homophobic remarks was significant: $F(1, 19327) = 16.69$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. The univariate effect for negative remarks about transgender people was significant: $F(1, 19327) = 13.04$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. The univariate effects for "no homo" and negative remarks about gender expression were not significant.

334 To examine differences in in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization experiences by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables and school type (public, religious, and private non-religious) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .00, $F(6, 31790) = 8.94$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for sexual orientation was significant: $F(2, 15897) = 20.84$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Public was higher than religious and private. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for gender expression was significant: $F(2, 15897) = 11.17$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post host comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: public was higher than private. There were no other group differences The univariate effect for gender was significant: $F(2, 15897) = 15.39$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Public was higher than religious and private. There were no other group differences.

335 To examine differences in online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment experiences by school type, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables and school type (public, religious, and private non-religious) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .00, $F(6, 37570) = 4.50$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for sexual orientation was significant: $F(2, 18786) = 8.59$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Public was higher than private. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for gender expression was significant: $F(2, 18786) = 4.86$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$, and though the univariate effect was significant, there we no significant group differences. The univariate effect for gender was significant: $F(2, 18786) = 5.34$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$, and though the univariate effect was significant, there we no significant group differences.

336 To examine differences in experiences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization by type of public school, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables and type of public school (regular public school and charter school) as the independent variable. The multivariate results were not significant.

To examine differences in experiences of online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment by type of public school, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables and type of public school (regular public school and charter school) as the independent variable. The multivariate results were not significant.

337 To examine differences in experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices by school type, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with experiencing any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination (a combined variable of whether the student experienced any of the discriminatory actions assessed [see Discriminatory Practices and Policies section]) as the dependent variable and school type (public, religious, and private non-religious) as the independent variable. The results of the analysis were significant: $F(2, 14648) = 63.36$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Religious was higher than private and public. There were no other group differences.

338 To examine differences in experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices by type of public school, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with experiencing any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination (a combined variable of whether the student experienced any of the discriminatory actions assessed [see Discriminatory Practices and Policies section]) as the dependent variable and type of public school (regular public school and charter school) as the independent variable. The results of the analysis were not significant.

339 To examine differences in access to GSAs, inclusive curriculum, inclusive curricular resources, and comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment and supportive trans/nonbinary policies by school type, a series of chi-square tests were conducted. (For the purposes of this analysis and similar analyses in this section regarding school differences in availability of comprehensive policy, we examined only whether students reported that their school had a comprehensive, i.e., fully enumerated, anti-bullying/harassment policy or not. Therefore, students without a comprehensive policy might have had a partially enumerated policy, a generic policy, or no policy at all). The effect for GSAs was significant: $\chi^2 = 623.63$, $df = 4$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .12. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Religious was lower than public and private. Public was marginally higher than private ($p=.01$). The effect for LGBTQ+ website access was significant: $\chi^2 = 91.34$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .08. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Private was higher than public and religious. Public was

higher than religious. The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum was significant: $\chi^2 = 206.11$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .10. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Private was higher than public and religious. Public was higher than religious. The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive sex education was significant: $\chi^2 = 106.45$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .08. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Private was higher than public and religious. Public was higher than religious. The effect for Safe Space stickers/posters was significant: $\chi^2 = 501.17$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .15. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Religious was lower than public and private. There were no other differences. The effect for comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 110.92$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .07. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Private was higher than public and religious. Public was higher than religious. The effect for supportive trans/nonbinary student policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 94.42$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .07. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Private was higher than public and religious. Public was higher than religious.

To examine differences in library resources and textbook content by school type, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with library resources and inclusive textbook access as the dependent variables, and school type (public, religious, and private non-religious) as the independent variable. The effect for library resources was significant: $F(2, 16055) = 83.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Religious was lower than public and private. There were no other group differences. The effect for inclusive textbooks was significant: $F(2, 21547) = 36.93$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Public was lower than private and public. There were no other group differences.

To examine differences in supportive school personnel by school type, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with supportive educators and supportive administrators as the dependent variables, and school type (public, religious, and private non-religious) as the independent variable. The effect for supportive educators was significant: $F(2, 20085) = 519.03$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Post hoc comparison were considered at $p<.01$: Religious was lower than public and private. There were no other group differences. The effect for supportive administrators was significant: $F(2, 20144) = 593.20$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Private was higher than public and religious. Public was higher than religious.

340 To examine differences in access to GSAs, inclusive curriculum, inclusive curricular resources, and comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment and supportive trans/nonbinary policies by type of public school (regular or charter), a series of chi-square tests were conducted. (For the purposes of this analysis and similar analyses in this section regarding school differences in availability of comprehensive policy, we examined only whether students reported that their school had a comprehensive, i.e., fully enumerated, anti-bullying/harassment policy or not. Therefore, students without a comprehensive policy might have had a partially enumerated policy, a generic policy, or no policy at all). The effect for GSAs was significant: $\chi^2 = 30.04$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .12$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Regular (36.4%) was higher than charter (29.7%). The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum was significant: $\chi^2 = 26.66$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .04$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Charter (22.6%) was higher than regular (15.6%). The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive sex education was significant: $\chi^2 = 12.96$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .03$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Charter (14.6%) was higher than regular (9.8%). The effect for Safe Space stickers/posters was significant: $\chi^2 = 9.73$, $df = 1$, $p<.01$, $\varphi = .02$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Regular (53.7%) was higher than charter (48.0%). The effect for comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 12.42$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .03$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Charter (16.1%) was higher than regular (11.9%). The effect for supportive trans/nonbinary student policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 17.32$, $df = 1$, $p<.001$, $\varphi = .03$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Charter (12.2%) was higher than regular (8.0%). The effect for LGBTQ+ website access was not significant. To examine differences in library resources and textbook content by school type, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with library resources and inclusive textbook access as the dependent variables, and school type (charter, non-charter) as the independent variable. The effect for library resources was significant: $F(1, 14070) = 9.88$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Regular (44.8%) was higher than charter (35.5%). The effect for inclusive textbooks was significant: $F(1, 18973) = 9.01$, $p<.01$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Charter (19.1%) was higher than regular (15.8%). To examine differences in supportive school personnel by school type, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with supportive educators and supportive administrators as the dependent variables, and school type (charter, non-charter) as the independent variable. The effect for supportive educators was not significant. The effect for supportive administrators was significant: $F(1, 17734) = 17.29$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Charter (42.7%) was higher than regular (36.8%).

341 To examine differences in having negative LGBTQ+ representation in the curriculum by school type, a chi-square test was conducted. The results of the analysis were significant: $\chi^2 = 1504.73$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .26. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Religious was higher than public and private. There were no other group differences.

342 To examine differences in anti-LGBTQ+ language by locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the anti-LGBTQ+ remarks variables ("gay" used in a negative way, "no homo," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) as the dependent variables, and locale (urban, suburban, rural) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .05, $F(10, 43502) = 104.46$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for "gay" used in a negative way was significant: $F(2, 21754) = 287.35$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .031$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than suburban and urban. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for "no homo" was significant: $F(2, 21754) = 47.29$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than suburban and urban. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for other homophobic remarks was significant: $F(2, 21754) = 415.64$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than suburban and urban. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: $F(2,21754) = 82.30$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than suburban and urban. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for negative transgender remarks: $F(2, 21754) = 307.59$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than suburban and urban. There were no other group differences.

343 To examine differences in in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization experiences by locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) and as the dependent variables, locale (urban, suburban, and rural) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(6, 31656) = 33.84$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(2, 15829) = 97.81$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than urban and suburban. Urban was higher than suburban. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(2, 15829) = 68.40$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than urban and suburban. Urban was higher than suburban. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(2, 15829) = 61.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than urban and suburban. Urban was higher than suburban.

344 To examine differences in online anti-LGBTQ+ harassment experiences by locale, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables and locale (urban, suburban, and rural) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(6, 37298) = 24.80$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(2, 18650) = 68.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than urban and suburban. Urban was higher than suburban. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(2,$

18650) = 37.18, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Suburban was lower than rural and urban. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(2, 18650) = 30.76$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was higher than urban and suburban. Urban was higher than suburban. Percentages are shown for illustrative purposes

345 To examine differences on experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices by locale, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with experiences of any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination (a combined variable of whether the student experienced any of the discriminatory actions assessed [see Discriminatory Practices and Policies section]) as the dependent variable and locale (urban, suburban, and rural) as the independent variable. The results of the analysis were significant: $F(2, 14591) = 50.68$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Rural students were higher than urban and suburban. There were no other group differences.

346 To examine differences in access to GSAs, inclusive curriculum, inclusive curricular resources, and comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment and supportive trans/nonbinary policies by locale, a series of chi-square tests were conducted. (For the purposes of this analysis and similar analyses in this section regarding school differences in availability of comprehensive policy, we examined only whether students reported that their school had a comprehensive, i.e., fully enumerated, anti-bullying/harassment policy or not. Therefore, students without a comprehensive policy might have had a partially enumerated policy, a generic policy, or no policy at all). The effect for GSAs was significant: $\chi^2 = 1033.34$, $df = 4$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .16. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Suburban was higher than urban and rural. Urban was higher than rural. The effect for LGBTQ+ website access was significant: $\chi^2 = 55.63$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .06. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was lower than urban and suburban. The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive sex education was significant: $\chi^2 = 90.21$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .08. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Suburban was higher than urban and rural. Urban was higher than rural. The effect for Safe Space stickers/posters was significant: $\chi^2 = 619.56$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .17. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Suburban was higher than urban and rural. Urban was higher than rural. The effect for comprehensive policies was significant $\chi^2 = 94.16$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .07. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was lower than urban and suburban. There were no other group differences. The effect for trans/nonbinary student policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 107.59$, $df = 2$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .07. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Suburban was higher than urban and rural. Urban was higher than rural. To examine differences in LGBTQ+ resources locale, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with inclusive library resources and textbooks/readings as the dependent variables, and locale (urban, suburban, and rural) as the independent variable. The effect for library resources was significant: $F(1, 15968) = 25.40$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$; Rural was lower than urban and suburban. There were no other groups differences. The effect for textbooks was significant: $F(2, 21368) = 46.51$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Rural was lower than urban and suburban. There were no other group differences. To examine differences in supportive school personnel by locale, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with supportive educators and supportive administrators as the dependent variables, and locale (urban, suburban, and rural) as the independent variable. The effect for supportive educators was significant: $F(2, 19967) = 340.69$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$; Rural was lower than urban and suburban. Urban was marginally lower than suburban at $p=.01$. The effect for supportive administrators was significant: $F(2, 20023) = 229.84$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. Rural was lower than urban and suburban. Urban was lower than suburban.

347 To examine differences in anti-LGBTQ+ language by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the anti-LGBTQ+ remarks variables ("gay" used in a negative way, "no homo," other homophobic remarks, negative remarks about gender expression, and negative remarks about transgender people) as the dependent variables, and region (South, Midwest, West, and Northeast) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .04, $F(15, 66.072) = 53.76$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for "gay" used in a negative way was significant: $F(3, 22026) = 150.64$; $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: All groups were different from each other. South was greater than Midwest, West, and Northeast. Midwest was greater than West and Northeast. West was higher than Northeast. The univariate effect for "no homo" was significant: $F(3, 22026) = 75.91$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: South was higher than all other groups. Northeast was lower than all other groups. Midwest and West were not different. The univariate effect for other homophobic remarks was significant: $F(3, 22026) = 153.38$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: South was higher than all other groups. Midwest was higher than West and Northeast. West and Northeast were not different. The univariate effect for negative remarks about gender expression was significant: $F(3, 22026) = 54.01$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: South was higher than all other groups. Midwest was higher than West and Northeast. West and Northeast were not different. The univariate effect for trans remarks was significant: $F(3, 22026) = 144.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: South and Midwest were higher than West and Northeast. South and Midwest were not different. West and Northeast were not different.

348 To examine differences of in-person anti-LGBTQ+ victimization experiences by region, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ victimization (i.e., the three weighted victimization variables for victimization based on sexual orientation, gender expression, and gender) as the dependent variables and region (South, Midwest, West, and Northeast) as the independent variable. Multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .01, $F(3, 48123) = 15.43$, $p<.001$. The univariate effect for in-person victimization based on sexual orientation was significant: $F(3, 16039) = 44.77$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$:Northeast was lower than all other groups. South was higher than Northeast and West. Midwest was lower than Northeast and West. West was higher than Northeast and lower than South and Midwest. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender expression was significant: $F(9, 16039) = 28.12$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$:South was higher than Northeast and West. Midwest was lower than Northeast and West. West was higher than Northeast and lower than South. There were no other group differences. The univariate effect for victimization based on gender was significant: $F(3, 16039) = 22.25$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Northeast was lower than all other groups. South was higher than Northeast and West. Midwest was higher than Northeast. West was higher than Northeast and lower than South. There were no other group differences.

349 To examine differences on experiences of anti-LGBTQ+ discriminatory policies and practices by region, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with experiences of any anti-LGBTQ+ discrimination (a combined variable of whether the student experienced any of the discriminatory actions assessed [see Discriminatory Practices and Policies section]) as the dependent variable and region (South, Midwest, West, Northeast) as the independent variable. The results of the analysis were significant: $F(3, 14713) = 125.32$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. South was higher than all other groups. Northeast was lower than all other groups. West was lower than Midwest and South. Midwest was lower than South.

350 To examine differences on access to GSAs, inclusive curriculum, inclusive curricular resources, and comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment and supportive trans/nonbinary policies by region, a series of chi-square tests were conducted. (For the purposes of this analysis and similar analyses in this section regarding school differences in availability of comprehensive policy, we examined only whether students reported that their school had a comprehensive, i.e., fully enumerated, anti-bullying/harassment policy or not. Therefore, students without a comprehensive policy might have had a partially enumerated policy, a generic policy, or no policy at all). The effect for GSAs was significant: $\chi^2 = 1392.15$, $df = 6$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .18. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: North and West were higher than Midwest and South. Midwest was higher than South. There were no other

differences. The effect for LGBTQ+ website access was significant: $\chi^2 = 236.34$, $df = 3$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .12. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: North and West were higher than Midwest and South. Midwest was higher than South. There were no other group differences. The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive curriculum was significant: $\chi^2 = 424.26$, $df = 3$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .14. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: North and West were higher than Midwest and South. Midwest was higher than South. There were no other group differences. The effect for LGBTQ+-inclusive sex education was significant: $\chi^2 = 479.76$, $df = 3$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .18. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: West was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. North was higher than Midwest. The effect for Safe Space stickers/posters was significant: $\chi^2 = 1118.26$, $df = 3$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .23. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Northeast was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. West was higher than Midwest. The effect for comprehensive anti-bullying/harassment policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 400.68$, $df = 3$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .14. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: North and West were higher than Midwest and South. Midwest was higher than South. There were no other group differences. The effect for supportive trans/nonbinary student policy was significant: $\chi^2 = 283.63$, $df = 3$, $p<.001$, Cramer's V = .11. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$:Northeast was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. West was higher than Midwest.

To examine differences in LGBTQ+ resources by region, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with inclusive library resources and textbooks/readings as the dependent variables, and region (Northeast, West, Midwest, and South) as the independent variable. The effect for library resources was significant: $F(3, 16216) = 65.86$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$; Northeast was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. West was higher than Midwest. The effect for textbooks was significant: $F(3, 21639) = 31.11$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$: Northeast was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. West and Midwest were not different.

To examine differences in supportive school personnel by region, two separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with supportive educators and supportive administrators as the dependent variables, and region (Northeast, West, Midwest, and South) as the independent variable.

The effect for supportive educators was significant: $F(3, 20174) = 271.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. North was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. West was higher than Midwest.

The effect for supportive administrators was significant: $F(3, 20239) = 363.36$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Post hoc comparisons were considered at $p<.01$. North was higher than all other groups. South was lower than all other groups. West was higher than Midwest.

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356 Although we have been collecting NSCS data since 1999, the first survey differed slightly from all subsequent surveys in the comprehensiveness of the survey questions and in the methods. Thus, we did not include it in these over-time comparisons. Even though the survey is slightly modified with each installment to reflect new or emerging concerns about school climate for LGBTQ+ students, it has remained largely the same and has used virtually the same data collection methods from 2001 to 2021. For LGBTQ+ students who had been in in-person learning environments for the entire academic year, the survey questions for 2021 were similar than for LGBTQ+ students in prior years of the survey. For those who had been in online only or hybrid learning environments, the survey included more questions about the online learning environment and online harassment.

357 To examine differences across years in use of anti-LGBTQ+ language, a series of one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were performed. Given certain demographic differences among the samples across the years, we controlled for participation in a community group or program for LGBTQ+ youth, age, racial/ethnic group, gender, sexual orientation, and method of taking the survey (paper vs. internet version). Because the geographic locations varies somewhat across survey years, we controlled for region and locale. Further, we controlled for type of learning instructions (online only, hybrid, or in-person only), such that all years prior to 2021 were coded as being in in-person only learning environments. These individual-level covariates were chosen based on preliminary analysis that examined what school characteristics and personal demographics were most predictive of survey year membership. Because there were more cases in recent survey years that were missing on demographic information, we also included a dummy variable controlling for missing demographics. Because of the large sample size for all years combined, a more restrictive p-value was used when determining statistical significance, $p<.001$.

To examine differences across years in the use of other homophobic remarks (e.g., "fag," "dyke"), an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, controlling for demographic and method differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant, indicating mean differences across years: $F(10, 100216) = 297.30$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021 and 2019**< all years; **2017 and 2015**<prior years, >2019, 2021; **2013**<prior years, >later years; **2011**<2005 and earlier, >later years; **2009 and 2007**<2001, >2013 and later; **2005**<2001, >2011 and later; **2003**<2001, >2011 and later; **2001**>all years.

358 To examine differences across years in the use of expressions like "that's so gay," an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant, indicating mean differences across years: $F(10,100220) = 469.92$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021**<2011 and prior years, >2015, 2017; **2019**<2011 and prior years, >2017,2015; **2017**<2013 and prior years, 2019, 2021; **2015**<all years; **2013**<2011 and prior years, >2015, 2017; **2011**<2009 and prior years, >2013 and later years; **2009**<2001, 2003, >2011 and later years; **2007**<2001, >2011 and later years; **2005**>2011 and later years; **2003**>2009 and later years; **2001**>2007 and later years.

359 To examine differences across years in the use of "no homo," an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant, indicating mean differences across years: $F(6, 90594) = 342.02$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021**>all years except 2019; **2019**>all years except 2021; **2017**<2011, 2013, 2019,2021; **2015**<2011, 2013, 2019, 2021; **2013**<2011, 2019, 2021, >2009, 2015, 2017; **2011**<2019, 2021, >2011, 2013, 2015, 2017; **2009**< all years but 2015 and 2017.

360 To examine differences across years in the use of negative remarks about gender expression, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years, using a composite variable of the means of the two variables (negative remarks about not acting "masculine enough" and about not acting "feminine enough"). The main effect for Survey Year was significant, indicating mean differences across years: $F(9, 99374) = 124.97$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021**<2017, 2015, 2011 and prior years; >2019; **2019**< all years; **2017**<all years

prior years, >all years later years; **2015**<2005 to 2011, >2013 and all later years; **2013**<2011 to 2003, 2015, 2017, >2019; **2011**> 2013 to 2021; **2009**>2013 and later; **2007**>2013 and all later years; **2005**>2013 and all later years; **2003**>2013, 2017 and all later years.

361 To examine differences across years in the use of negative remarks about transgender people, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant, indicating mean differences across years: $F(3, 57656) = 53.86$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021**>2013; **2019**<2017, >2013; **2017**>2013, 2015, 2019; **2015**>2013, <2017; **2013**<all years.

362 To examine differences across years in the frequency of hearing homophobic remarks from school staff, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(10, 99807) = 70.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021**>2005, 2013 to 2019; **2019**<all years**; 2017**<2001, 2003, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2021, >2019**; 2015**<2001, 2003, 2007 to 2011, >2019**; 2013**<2001 to 2011, 2021, >2019**; 2011**<2001, 2007, 2009, 2021, >2013 to 2019**; 2009**<2007, >2005, 2011 to 2019**; 2007**>2005, 2009 to 2019**; 2005**<2001, 2007, 2009, 2021, >2013 and 2019; **2003**<2001, >2013 to 2019**; 2001**>2003, 2005, 2011 to 2019.

363 To examine differences across years in the frequency of hearing negative gender remarks from school staff, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(10, 94967) = 65.85$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed)**: 2021**>2015 and all prior years, 2019; **2019**<2017,2021; >2009,2011,2013; **2017**>2015 and all prior years, 2019; **2015**<2017, 2021, >2009, 2011, 2013; **2013**<all years; **2011**<2007, 2015 to 2021, >2013; **2009**<2015 to 2021, >2013; **2007, 2005 and 2003**<2017, 2021, >2013.

364 Mean differences in staff intervention regarding homophobic remarks were examined using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years, as well as the frequency of hearing those remarks. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(9, 81055) = 22.30$, $p<001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed): **2021**<all years; **2019 and 2017**<2015 and prior years,>2021; **2015**<all years prior years, >2021; **2013 and 2011 and 2009**<2007, >2015 and all later years; **2007**>2009 and all later years; **2005 and 2003**>2015 and all later years; **2005, 2001**>2021.

365 Mean differences in student intervention regarding homophobic remarks were examined using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years, as well as the frequency of hearing those remarks. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(10, 99425) = 44.83$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$ Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed): **2021**<2007 and prior years, >2019; **2019**<all years; **2017**<2009 and prior years, 2015, >2019; **2015**<2001, 2003, >2011 and all later years; **2013**<2009 and prior years, 2015, >2009; **2011**<2007 and prior years, 2015, >2019; **2009**<2001 to 2007, 2015, >2013, 2017, 2019; **2007**<2001, 2003, >2009 and all later years; **2005**>2009 and all later years; **2003**>2007 and all later years; **2001**>2007 to 2021.

366 Mean differences in staff intervention regarding negative remarks about gender expression were examined using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was also significant: $F(9, 72551) = 47.07$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed): **2021**<2003 to 2011; **2019**<2003 to 2011,>2015; **2017**<2003 to 2011, >2015; **2015**<all years but 2021; **2013**<all years prior, >2015; **2011 and 2009**<2007, >2013 and all later years; **2007**>2009 and all later years: **2005 and 2003**>2013 and all later years.

367 Mean differences in student intervention regarding negative remarks about gender expression were examined using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(9, 92862) = 55.31$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Pairwise differences were considered at, $p<.001$ (non-significant pairs not listed): **2021**>2001, 2009 to 2015, 2019; **2019**<2007, 2017, 2021, >2009, 2011, 2013; **2017**>all years but 2021, <2021; **2015**<2007, 2017, 2021, >2011, 2013;= **2013**<all years but 2011; **2011**<all years but 2013; **2009**<2007, 2017 to 2021; >2011, 2013; **2007**>2009 to 2015, 2019; **2005**<2021, >2009 to 2013; **2003**>2009 to 2013.

368 To test differences across years in the experiences of victimization based on sexual orientation, a multivariate analysis of covariance was conducted with the three harassment/assault based on sexual orientation variables as dependent variables. In order to account for differences in sampling methods across years, youth group participation, age, race/ethnicity, and survey method were used as covariates. In 1999, frequency of harassment and assault was assessed using a 4-point scale, and in the subsequent year, a 5-point scale was used. To accommodate these differences for this variable, we examined differences in the frequency of reporting "Frequently." The multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace=.056, $F(30, 284502) = 179.24$, $p<.001$. Univariate effects and subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$. All three types of victimization were significant (non-significant pairs not listed). For verbal harassment: **2021**<all years except 2015 and 2019; **2019**<2013 and prior years; **2017**<2013 and prior years, >2021; **2015**<2013 and prior years; **2013**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2011**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2009**<2007, >all years later years; **2007**>all years later years; **2005, 2003 and 2001**>2011 and later years. For physical harassment: **2021**<2015 and prior years; **2019**<2015 and prior years; **2017**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2015**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2013**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2011**<2001, 2007, 2009, >all years later years; **2009**<2001 and 2007, >all years later years; **2007**>2005, 2009 and later years; **2005**>2011 and later years; **2003**>2013 and later years; **2001**>2011 and later years. For physical assault: **2021**<all years; **2019**<2015 and prior years, >2021; **2017**<all years prior years, >2021; **2015**<all years prior years, >2017, 2019, 2021; **2013**<2001, 2007, and 2009, >all years later years; **2011**< 2007, >2015 to 2019; **2009**<2001 and 2007, >2013 and later years; **2007**>all years except 2001; **2005**>2015 and later years, <2007; **2003**>2015 and later years, <2007; **2001**>2013 and later years.

369 To examine differences across years in the experiences of victimization based on gender expression, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with the three harassment/assault based on gender expression variables as dependent variables, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across years. The multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .035, $F(30, 278877) = 110.28$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Univariate effects and subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$. All three types of victimization were significant. For verbal harassment: **2021**<2017 and prior years; **2019**<2017, 2013 and prior years; **2017**<2001 to 2013, >2015, 2019, 2021; **2015**<2001 to 2013, 2017, >2021; **2013**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2011**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2009**<2001, 2007, >all years later years; **2007**>all years later years; **2005 and 2003**>2011 to 2021; **2001**>2009 to 2021. For physical harassment: **2021, 2019 and 2017**<2015 and prior years; **2015**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2013**<all years prior years, >all years later years; **2011**<2001, 2007, 2009, >all years later years; **2009**<2001, 2007, >all years later years; **2007**>2005, 2009 and later years; **2005**>2013 and later years; **2003**>2013 to 2021; **2001**>2011 and later years. For physical assault: **2021**<all years; **2019, 2017 and 2015**<2013 and prior years, >2021; **2013**<2009, 2007, 2001, >2015 and later years; **2011**<2001 and 2007, >2015 and later years; **2009**<2007, >2013 and later years; **2007**>2009 and later years; **2005 and 2003**>2015 and later years; **2001**>2011 and later years.

370 To examine differences across years in the experiences of victimization based on gender, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with the three harassment/assault based on gender variables as dependent variables, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across years. The multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .039, $F(30, 281148) = 21.21$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Univariate effects and subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at,

p<.001. All three types of victimization were significant. For verbal harassment: **2021**<2017, 2011 and prior years; **2019**<2011 and prior years, 2017; **2017**<2011 and prior years, >2015, 2019, 2021; **2015**<2011 and prior years, 2017; **2013**<2011 and prior years, >2021; **2011**>2001, 2013 and later years; **2009**>2013 and later years; **2007**>2013 and later years; **2005**>2013 and later years; **2003**>2013 and later years; **2001**>2007, 2011 and later years. For physical harassment: **2021**<2013 and prior years, 2017; **2019**<2013 and prior years; **2017**<2013 and prior years, >2021; **2015**<2013 and prior years; **2013**<2001, 2007 and 2009, >2015 and later years; **2011**>2015 and later years, <2007; **2009**>2013 and later years, <2007; **2007**>2005, 2009 and later years; **2005**>2015 and later years, <2007; **2003**>2015 and later years; **2001**>2013 and later years. For physical assault: **2021**<all years except 2019; **2019**<2001, 2007 to 2013; **2017 and 2015**<2007 to 2013, >2021; **2013 and 2011**<2007, >2015 and later years; **2009**>2015 to 2021; **2007**>2005, 2011 and later years; **2005**<2007, >2021; **2003**>2021; **2001**>2019, 2021.

371 Mean differences in reporting victimization to school personnel were examined using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(9, 63490) = 33.32$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2003, >2007, 2009, 2011; **2019**<2003, >2007 to 2013; **2017**<2003, >2005 to 2013; **2015**<2003, >2007 to 2011; **2013**<2003, 2017 and 2019, >2007 to 2011; **2011**<2003, 2013 and later years; **2009**<all years except 2007 and 2011; **2007**<2003, 2013 and later years; **2005**<2003, 2017; >2009; **2003**>all years.

372 Mean differences in the effectiveness of staff intervention regarding victimization were examined using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(8, 28141) = 8.95$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**, **2019 and 2017**<2005, 2009 and 2011; **2015 and 2013**<2005; **2011 and 2009**>2017, 2019 and 2021; **2007**<2005; **2005**>2007, 2013 and later years.

373 The set of discrimination variables has changed over the years. In 2013, the set included 9 types of discrimination. In 2015, the list was expanded to 12 items. For the over-time analyses, we only examined the 9 types of discrimination that occurred in all years of the survey. In 2015, we added questions about sports-related discrimination and about being prevented from raising LGBTQ+ issues in extracurricular activities. In 2017, we also split the single question about discrimination regarding bathrooms and locker rooms into two separate questions. But for analysis over time, we combined the two variables about discrimination regarding bathrooms and regarding locker rooms so the data from 2017, 2019 and 2021 would be consistent with the data from 2013 and 2015.

374 Mean differences in overall experiences of discrimination were examined using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(4, 74674) = 14.78$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**>2019; **2019**<all years except 2015; **2017**>2019; **2015**<2013; **2013**>2015 and 2019.

375 To examine differences across years in experiences of the specific types of discrimination, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with the 9 discrimination variables as dependent variables, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The multivariate results were significant: Pillai's Trace = .026, $F(36, 293028) = 52.50$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Univariate effects and subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$. Bathroom or locker room use: **2021**<2017, >2015; **2019**<2017; >2013 and 2015; **2017**>all years; **2015**<all years; **2013**<2017 and 2019, >2015. Using preferred names/pronouns: **2021**>all years except 2017; **2019**<2021 and 2017, >2013; **2017**>all years except 2021; **2015**<2017 and 2019, >2013; **2013**<all years. Public affection: **2021**<all years except 2019; **2019**<2013 and 2017; **2017**<2013, >2019 and 2021; **2015**<2013, >2021; **2013**>all years. Prevented from wearing clothes based gender: **2019**<all years. LGBTQ+ topics in class assignments/projects: **2013**>2017, and 2019. Wearing clothing supporting LGBTQ+ issues: **2021**>all years except 2013; **2019**<all years; **2017 and 2015**<2021, 2013,>2019; **2013**>all years except 2021. Forming or promoting a GSA, Identifying as LGBTQ+: **2013**>all years. Attending a school dance: **2021**<2013 and 2015, >2019; **2019**<all years; **2017**<2013 and 2015, >2019; **2015**<2013, >2017, 2019 and 2021; **2013**>all years. Unfairly disciplined at school for identifying as LGBTQ+: **2021**<2013, >2015, 2017 and 2019; **2013**>all years.

376 To examine differences across years in presence of a GSA, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with the GSA variable as the dependent variable, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across survey years. The univariate effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(10, 99934) = 295.82$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Post-hoc group comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2003, 2011 to 2019, >2001; **2019**>all years; **2017**<2019, >2001 to 2015, 2021; **2015**<2017 and 2019, >2001 to 2013, 2021; **2013**<2015, 2017 and 2019, >2001, 2005 to 2011, 2021; **2009**<2011 to 2019, >2001 and 2007;**2007**<2003 to 2019; >2001; **2005**<2013 to 2019, >2001 and 2007; **2003**<2015 to 2019, >2001, 2007, 2021; **2001**<all years.

377 To examine differences across years in access to LGBTQ+ information on school computers, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across survey years. The univariate result was significant: $F(10, 95839) = 218.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2019, >2013 and earlier; **2019**>all years; **2017**>all years except 2021; **2015**<2017 and 2019, >2013 and earlier; **2013**<2015 and later years; >2001, 2007 to 2011; **2011**<2013 and later years, >2001, 2007, 2009; **2009**<2011 and later years, >2007; **2007**<2003 to 2017, 2021; **2005**<2013 and later years, >2001 and 2007; **2003**<2015 and later years, >2001, 2007; **2001**<all years except 2007 and 2009.

378 To examine differences across years in inclusion of LGBTQ+ books in school libraries, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across survey years. The univariate result was significant: $F(10, 95821) = 27.02$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. Subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2009, 2019, >2001; **2019**>all years; **2017**<2009, 2019, >2001; **2015**<2009, 2019, >2001; **2013 and 2011**<2019, >2001; **2009**<2019, >2001, 2015, 2017, 2021; **2007**<2009, 2019, >2001; **2005**<2019; **2003**<2019; **2001**<2007 and later years.

379 To examine differences across years in inclusion of LGBTQ+-related topics in textbooks, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across survey years. The univariate result was significant: $F(10, 99889) = 51.50$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2015, >2003 to 2011; **2019**>2011 and earlier; **2017**<2015, >2011 and earlier; **2015**>all years except 2013 and 2019; **2013**>2011 and earlier; **2011**<2013 and later, >2007; **2009**<2013 and later; **2007**<2011 and later; **2005 and 2003**<2013 and later; **2001**<2013 to 2019.

380 To examine differences across years in positive LGBTQ+ curricular inclusion, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across survey years. The univariate result was significant: $F(10, 99851) = 111.95$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Subsequent post-hoc comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2015 to 2019, >2007 and 2009; **2019**<2015. >2013 and earlier, and 2021; **2017**>2013 and earlier, 2021; **2015**>all years except 2017; **2013 and 2011**<2015 to 2019, >2005 to 2009; **2009**<all years except 2005 and 2007; **2007**<all years except 2005 and 2009; **2005**<2011 to 2019; **2003 and 2001**<2015 to 2019, >2007, 2009.

381 To examine differences across years in being taught negative LGBTQ+-related content, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across the survey years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant, indicating mean differences across years: $F(4, 74636) = 9.91$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Post-hoc group comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$. The percentage in 2013 was lower than all other years, and there were no other significant differences across years. Estimated marginal means were: 2013 - 14.3%; 2015 - 16.2%; 2017 - 17.1%; 2019 – 16.1%; 2021 – 18.4%.

382 In 2001, students were asked a "Yes/No" question about whether there were any supportive school personnel in their school. Starting

in 2003, we asked a Likert-type question about the number of supportive school personnel and examined mean differences in this variable from 2003 to 2021.

383 To examine differences across years in the number of supportive school personnel, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across survey years. The univariate result was significant: $F(9, 97551) = 526.19$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. **2021**>2003 to 2009,<2013 to 2019; **2019**>all years; **2017**<2019, > all other but 2015; **2015**<2019, >2003 to 2013, 2021; **2013**>2003 to 2011, 2021, <2015, 2017, 2019; **2011**>2003 to 2009, <2013 and later years; **2009**>2003, 2005, 2007, <2011 and later years; **2007**<all years; **2005**>2007,<2009 and later years; **2003**>2007, <2007 and later years.

384 To examine differences across years in the percentage of students reporting a school harassment/assault policy, three analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were performed controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences with the three dependent variables: any type of policy, partially enumerated policy (enumerating sexual orientation or gender identity/expression, but not both), and comprehensive policy (enumerating both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression). Univariate effects indicated significant difference across years for having any type of policy: $F(8, 99225) = 437.06$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Post-hoc comparisons by survey year were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**>2009 and earlier,<2013 to 2017; **2019**>2009 and earlier,<2015; **2017**<2015, >2021,2011 and prior years; **2015**>all years except 2013; **2013**>2021,2011 and prior years; **2011**>all years prior years, <2013 to 2017; **2009**>2001, <all years others except 2007; **2007**<2005, 2011 and later years; **2005**<2011 and later years, >2003, 2007, 2009; **2003**<all years except 2007.

385 To examine differences across years in the percentage of students reporting a school harassment/assault policy, three analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were performed controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences with the three dependent variables: any type of policy, partially enumerated policy (enumerating sexual orientation or gender identity/expression, but not both), and comprehensive policy (enumerating both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression). Univariate effects indicated significant difference across years for having a comprehensive policy: $F(8, 98342) = 83.88$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc comparisons by survey year were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**>2011 and prior years, <2017 and 2019; **2019 and 2017**>all years; **2015 and 2013**>2011 and prior years, <2017 and 2019; **2011, 2009, 2007 and 2005**<2013 and later years.

386 To examine differences across years in the percentage of students reporting a school harassment/assault policy, three analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were performed controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences with the three dependent variables: any type of policy, partially enumerated policy (enumerating sexual orientation or gender identity/expression, but not both), and comprehensive policy (enumerating both sexual orientation and gender identity/expression). Univariate effects indicated significant difference across years for having a comprehensive policy: $F(8, 98342) = 62.08$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc comparisons by survey year were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2017 and prior years; **2019**<all years prior years; **2017**>2019 and 2021, <2005, 2011 to 2015; **2015** and 2013>2007, 2009, 2017 and later years; **2011**>2007, 2009, 2017 and later years; **2009** and 2007>2019 and 2021,<2005, 2011 to 2015; **2005**>2007, 2009, 2017 and later years.

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390 To examine differences across years, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with the student acceptance variable as the dependent variable, controlling for demographic, method, and learning environment differences across years. The main effect for Survey Year was significant: $F(6, 89844) = 188.08$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Post-hoc group comparisons were considered at, $p<.001$: **2021**<2013 to 2019; **2019**<2015, >2009 to 2013, 2021; **2017**<2015, >2009, 2011 and 2021; **2015**>all years; **2013**<2015 and 2019, >2009, 2011 and 2021; **2011 and 2009**<2013 to 2019.

391 A variety of strategies were used to target LGBTQ+ adolescents via Facebook, Instagram, and Snapchat ads: ads were shown to 13- to 18-year-olds, who indicated that they were interested in causes, events, or organizations specifically related to LGBTQ+ community or topics, or who were "friends" of those who followed one of the GLSEN-related Facebook/Instagram pages. Advertising on Instagram also involved videos of LGBTQ+ students from GLSEN's National Student Council promoting the survey study. In order to be included in the final sample, respondents had to have identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer or as a sexual orientation or gender that would fall under the LGBTQ+ "umbrella" (e.g., pansexual, questioning, genderqueer).

392 Pooled data from the 2015 and 2017 Youth Risk Behavior Survey document ways in which high school students who identify as LGBQ differ from students who engage in same-sex behavior but do not identify as LGBQ:

Rasberry, C. N., Lowry, R., Johns, M., Robin, C., Dunville, R., Pampati, S., Dittus, P. J., & Balaji, A. (2018). Sexual risk behavior differences among sexual minority high school students – United States, 2015 and 2017. *MMWR*, 67(36), 1007–1011.

393 Comparisons between the racial/ethnic composition of the NSCS 2021 sample with the unweighted population-based data from the CDC 2019 Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) of those youth who indicated something other than "straight/heterosexual" as their sexual orientation indicated: 1) our percentage of Black/African American LGBQ (3.3%) students was lower than the YRBS percentage of Black/African American LGBQ (16.4%); 2) our percentage of Hispanic/Latinx LGBQ students (16.2%) was lower than the YRBS percentage (23.1%), 3) our percentage of White LGBQ students (67.3%) was higher than the YRBS percentage (46.6%); and 4) our percentage of LGBTQ+ AAPI (3.5%) and Native (0.5%) students were similar but significantly different from the YRBS percentage (5.8% and 1.4%, respectively), and 5) our percentage of LGBTQ+ Multiracial (8.2%) students was higher than the YRBS percentage (6.7%). Although the YRBS data provides the closest estimate for NSCS data (as they are both national percentages of secondary school students), there are key differences between these samples to bear in mind when considering comparisons—as noted in the text, racial/ethnic identity is captured differently by the NSCS and YRBS, and YRBS data is from 2019 whereas NSCS data is from 2021. Furthermore, the NSCS sample consists of both middle and high school students, whereas the national YRBS sample consist of only high school students. Finally, the full NSCS sample includes transgender and other nonbinary students, and there is no population-based national data of transgender and nonbinary students with which to compare the NSCS sample. Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). *YRBSS Data & Documentation*. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/healthyyouth/data/yrbs/data.htm.

394 Hispanic/Latinx and Arab American/Middle Eastern/North African categories were considered ethnicities as opposed to races, and thus students selecting either of those categories were coded as such, regardless of race (e.g., students selecting "African American" and "Latino/a" were coded as "Latino/a").

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GLSEN is the leading 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.

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