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Examining the Relationship between School Climate and Peer Victimization among Students in Military-Connected Public Schools

Kris T. De Pedro

Chapman University, depedro@chapman.edu

Ron Avi Astor

University of Southern California

Tamika D. Gilreath

University of Southern California

Rami Benbenishty

University of Southern California

Ruth Berkowitz

Ben-Gurion University

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**Examining the Relationship between School Climate and Peer Victimization among
Students in Military-Connected Public Schools**
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Kris Tunac De Pedro, Ph.D., Chapman University
Ron Avi Astor, Ph.D., University of Southern California
Tamika Gilreath, Ph.D., University of Southern California
Rami Benbenishty, Ph.D., University of Southern California
Ruth Berkowitz, Ph.D., Ben Gurion University

Abstract

In the Iraq and Afghanistan war context, studies have found that military-connected youth—youth with parents and/or siblings serving in the military—have higher rates of school victimization than their nonmilitary-connected peers. A positive school climate—where students perceive high levels of school connectedness, caring relationships and high expectations from adults, and meaningful participation—is associated with lower rates of victimization in secondary public schools. Based on a survey of 7th, 9th, and 11th grade students (n=14,493) enrolled in six military-connected school districts (districts that have a significant proportion of military-connected students), this study explores victimization rates and the role of school climate, deployment, and school transitions in the victimization of military-connected students and their civilian peers. The findings indicate that deployment and school transitions were significant predictors of physical violence and nonphysical victimization. In addition, multiple school climate factors were significantly associated with physical violence and non-physical victimization. The authors conclude with a discussion of future directions for research on school climate, victimization, and military-connected youth.

KEYWORDS: MILITARY-CONNECTED YOUTH, SCHOOL CLIMATE, PEER VICTIMIZATION, SCHOOLS

Examining the Relationship between School Climate and Peer Victimization among Students in Military-Connected Public Schools

Almost 1.4 million school-age youth have a parent or both parents who is on active duty in the military or in the National Guard or Reserve. The vast majority of military-connected youth attend public schools in civilian communities, while only about 86,000 military-connected youth attend schools operated by the Department of Defense Education Activity (DoDEA). The DoDEA also reports that an additional 625,000 children of National Guard members and 705,000 children of Reserve members also attend public schools operated by civilian educational agencies. Military-connected youth are enrolled in every public school district in the United States. Over 200 public school districts are categorized by the Department of Education as military-connected, since they serve a significant number of military-connected students (over 400 military-connected students or 3% of total student enrollment; for more information see <http://www.militarychild.org>).

Policymakers and researchers have identified military-connected students as a population with significant challenges in civilian school environments (Astor & Benbenishty, 2013; Esqueda, Astor, & De Pedro, 2012; Lester & Flake, 2013). Many civilian schools may not be aware that they have military-connected students. Also, they may not provide services and develop a school climate that supports students experiencing military life challenges (De Pedro et al., 2011; Mmari, Roche, Sudhinaraset, & Blum, 2009). While the majority of military-connected families are resilient and develop strong social supports, a sizable number of families are struggling due to the conditions surrounding the Iraq and Afghanistan wars (Lester & Flake, 2013).

Recent empirical data show that military-connected youth are at a higher risk of peer victimization, when compared to their civilian peers (Gilreath, Astor, Cederbaum, Atuel, Benbenishty, 2014). In an epidemiological study in Washington state, Reed, Bell, and Edwards (2011) found that having a parent in the military is a significant predictor of peer victimization and carrying a weapon on school grounds. More recently, a study conducted in military-connected public school districts in southern California indicated that military-connection and two key military life stressors—family deployments and multiple of school transitions—were associated with higher odds of being victimized, being involved in a physical fight, and carrying a weapon on school grounds (Gilreath et al., 2014).

There is a current need for research to explore how factors in normative settings, such as civilian public school environments, may have the capacity to positively support the development of military-connected youth in times of war (Astor, De Pedro, Gilreath, Esqueda, & Benbenishty, 2014; De Pedro et al., 2011; Esqueda, Astor, & De Pedro, 2012). This theoretical assertion is partly based on a large body of research on school climate (e.g. caring relationships with adults, school connectedness), which shows that a supportive school climate can reduce occurrences of peer victimization among all students, including at-risk youth (Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, & Higgins-D'Allesandro, 2013; Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009). However, research has not yet focused on empirically assessing the role of school climate in the victimization of military-connected youth. Using a large sample of students attending military-connected public schools surrounding military installations, this study addresses the gap by examining the relationship between school climate and peer victimization among military-connected youth and their civilian peers in public schools. The findings from this study could

inform the creation of school climate interventions that reduce victimization rates in military-connected public schools.

Deployments and Frequent School Transitions among Military-Connected Youth

The stress of family deployment and frequent school transitions may weaken military-connected students' social ties to school, and in some cases, can lead to social alienation, thereby placing them at risk of school victimization (De Pedro et al., 2014; Gilreath et al., 2014). Social development researchers and theorists have posited that youth who experience school victimization tend to be socially isolated, excluded from peer groups, and have few friends (Farrington, 1993; Ttofi, Farrington, & Losel, 2012; Ttofi, Farrington, Losel, & Loeber, 2011). Moreover, social control theorists have posited that alienated individuals who have weak connections to conventional social institutions, including schools, are more prone to victimization (Catalano and Hawkins, 1996; Gasper, DeLuca, & Estacion, 2010).

Since 2002 more than two million school-aged youth have had a parent who has been deployed to Iraq or Afghanistan, many of whom have been deployed multiple times and/or for prolonged periods (more than one year) (De Pedro et al., 2011; Esqueda et al., 2012; Lester & Flake, 2013). During the deployment cycle (pre-deployment, deployment, reunion, and reintegration), military-connected youth are often exposed to numerous stressors including parental separation (Astor et al., 2013; Huebner, Mancini, Bowen, & Orthner, 2009), the fear of a parent's death or injury (Cozza, Chun, & Pollo, 2005; Flake, Davis, Johnson, & Middleton, 2009; Mmari et al., 2009), increased household roles and responsibilities (Faber, Willerton, Clymer, MacDermid, & Weiss, 2008; Huebner et al., 2009) and the anxiety of the left-behind parent (Flake, Davis, Johnson, & Middleton, 2009; Lester & Flake, 2013). In addition, Rodriguez and Margolin (2011) explored the experiences of youth with a deployed sibling. In this study,

adolescents reported emotional distress, sadness, social alienation, and worry over parental stress when a sibling is deployed. Military-connected youth also may find the reintegration period stressful as they re-establish parental relationships after a long period of separation, are exposed to the veteran's trauma, and cope with subsequent deployments (De Pedro et al., 2011; Lester & Flake, 2013).

Often, military-connected families move multiple times and have little choice about where they are stationed. Military-connected youth must adapt frequently to new communities and cope with multiple school transitions (Esqueda et al., 2012). On average, military-connected students change schools approximately every 2.9 years, but can attend up to nine schools (Esqueda et al., 2012). Frequently transitioning military-connected students may have difficulty forming relationships with peers and school staff, adjusting to each new school's rules and procedures, as well as fulfilling state academic course and graduation requirements (Bradshaw, Sudhinaraset, Mmari, & Blum, 2010; Esqueda et al., 2012; Lester & Flake, 2013). Together, deployment and school transitions may create stress and anxiety, alienating military-connected students from civilian peers, teachers, and other school staff. In this study, it is anticipated that military-connection, family deployments and school transitions are associated with higher rates of peer victimization. However, in contrast with prior studies, the potentially positive role of school climate in supporting military-connected students with these challenges is explored and highlighted.

The Protective Role of School Climate

A large body of research shows that school climate can contribute to lower levels of victimization among at-risk students (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005; Cohen et al., 2009; De Pedro, Astor, Gilreath, Benbenishty, & Esqueda, 2014; Gottfredson, Gottfredson, Payne, & Gottfredson,

2005; Thapa et al., 2013). School climate is defined in this study as students' perceptions of four key dimensions in a school environment. These include caring relationships with adults, school connectedness, meaningful participation, and high expectations from school adults (Austin, Bates, & Duerr, 2013). Caring adult-student relationships in schools promote a collective understanding of violence policies and procedures for swift response to violent incidents. In addition, caring relationships are associated with higher levels of pro-social behavior and help-seeking among students, thus preventing violence (Brand, Felner, Shim, Seitsinger, & Dumas, 2003; Elliot, Cornell, Gregory, & Fan, 2010; Marachi, Astor, & Benbenishty, 2006; Wilson, 2004). School connectedness and meaningful participation are associated with lower rates of behavioral disruptions in class and physical and verbal victimization (Jimerson, Campos, & Grief, 2003; Karcher, 2004; Skiba et al., 2004). Thus, it is anticipated that higher levels of school connectedness, caring relationships, high expectations from adults, and meaningful participation are associated with lower levels of peer victimization.

Study Objectives

To the authors' knowledge, no studies have examined the role of climate in the victimization of military-connected students and their civilian peers in school. Furthermore, most research on military-connected youth has identified risk and protective factors in convenience or clinical samples. This study utilizes a large-scale local sample of military-connected and nonmilitary-connected students attending military-connected schools in southern California. The large-scale local sample reflects the racial and ethnic demographics of California public schools statewide (Fingertip Facts on Education in California, 2014; Gilreath et al., 2015).

Hence, the following goals drive this study. First, this study explores rates of victimization among military and nonmilitary-connected students attending the same public

schools in school districts in southern California. Second, how parental and sibling deployments and school transitions contribute to school victimization will be assessed. We predict deployments and school transitions will contribute to higher levels of victimization on school grounds. Third, the contributing role of school climate controlling for military-connection, deployment, school transitions, and victimization will also be explored. We expect that school climate acts a protective factor associated with decreased victimization.

Methods

Study Sample and Procedures

The data drawn for this study were a subsample of the California Department of Education's (CDE) Spring 2011 administration of the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS). The CHKS is the largest statewide survey of elementary, middle, and high school students' perceptions of school climate, resiliency, and risk behaviors in the United States (Austin et al., 2013). The CHKS is comprised of a core module, which is comprised of items on school climate and risk behaviors, and several survey modules.

The current study's analyses focus on all 7th, 9th, and 11th grade students in 38 schools in six military-connected public school districts in southern California. These school districts administered the optional military-connected module in addition to the required CHKS core module, since they were part of a consortium of military-connected school districts interested in improving school climate for military-connected students. To address the purpose of this study, we utilized core module items on student demographics, school climate, and victimization; and items from the military-connected module assessing military-connection, deployment, and school transitions. Parent/guardian consent was obtained for all participants. Students completed

a paper-and-pencil survey with a trained proctor in class. The final response rate was 86.73%, and the final sample included 14,943 7th, 9th, and 11th graders.

Measures

Dependent Variables. In this study, peer victimization was assessed by student self-reports about physical violence and nonphysical victimization experiences on school grounds in the past 12 months (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005; Gilreath et al., 2014). Physical violence included questions about whether they had been pushed, shoved, slapped, hit, or kicked by someone who wasn't just kidding around; were afraid of being beaten up; been in a physical fight; and had property stolen or deliberately damaged, such as a car, clothing, or books; been threatened or injured with a weapon (gun, knife, club, etc.). Nonphysical victimization was assessed by whether students had mean rumors or lies spread about them; had sexual jokes, comments or gestures made to them; had been made fun of because of their looks or the way they talk. The responses to these items were on a four-point Likert scale and ranged from 1 = 0 times, 2 = 1 time, 3 = 2-3 times, 4 = 4 or more times. Composite physical violence ($\alpha = .71$) and non-physical victimization ($\alpha = .77$) scales were created by summing each set of responses.

Independent Variables. Independent variables included covariates such as student self-reported demographic variables (grade level, race and ethnicity, and gender). Grade level was represented by 7th grade as the reference category and two dummy variables: 9th grade and 11th grade. Race and ethnicity was represented by white as the reference category, and the dummy variables were Asian-American/Pacific Islander, black, mixed, and Hispanic ethnicity.

Independent variables also included military connection, number of family member deployments, and number of school transitions. Students were asked to report whether they had a family member in the military—no one in the military, a parent, or a sibling. Students were also

asked to report how many times a family member was deployed in the past 10 years—none, one time, and two or more times. In addition, students were asked to self report the number of school transitions in the past five years – none, once, twice, three times, four times, and more than four times. School climate scales included caring relationships, high expectations, school connectedness, and meaningful participation (Austin et al., 2013).

Caring relationships. The caring relationship scale included three self-reported items ($\alpha = .78$). Students reported whether there is a teacher or some other adult at school who tells them when they do good; who notices when they're not there, and who listens to them when they have something to say. The responses to these items were on a four-point Likert scale, and ranged from 1 = Not at all true, 2= A little true, 3 = Pretty much true, 4 = Very much true.

High expectations. The high expectations scale included three self-reported items ($\alpha = .82$). Students reported whether at school there is a teacher or some other adult who tells them they do a good job; who always wants them to do their best, and who believes they will be a success. The responses to these items were on a four-point Likert scale, and ranged from 1 = Not at all true, 2= A little true, 3 = Pretty much true, 4 = Very much true.

School connectedness. The belonging scale consisted of three student self-reported items ($\alpha = .80$). These items asked students whether they feel close to people at this school; are happy to be at this school, and feel like they are part of this school. The possible responses to these items were on a five-point Likert scale and ranged from 1 = Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 = Neither disagree nor agree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

Meaningful participation. The meaningful participation scale consisted of three items ($\alpha = .74$): I do interesting activities at school; I help decide things like class activities; I do things

that make a difference. The possible responses to these items were on a four-point Likert scale and ranged from 1 = Not at all true, 2= A little true, 3 = Pretty much true, 4 = Very much true.

Data Analysis Procedures

IBM SPSS Version 22 was used to conduct the analyses. To address the study's goals, we conducted bivariate and multivariate analyses. ANOVAs were conducted to compare rates of physical violence and nonphysical victimization in the past year of students by type of military-connection (nonmilitary-connected, having a parent in the military, having a sibling in the military) and by number of deployments (none, once, and twice or more). Correlational analyses were then conducted to examine associations between components of school climate, transitions, and victimization. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the relationship among demographics (race and ethnicity, gender, grade level, and military connection), military life stressors (family deployment and school transitions), school climate, and each domain of victimization. As seen in Tables 3 and 4, demographic variables were entered on Step 1 of each regression model, family deployment and school transitions were entered on Step 2, and school climate variables were entered on Step 3.

Results

Sample Characteristics

As seen in Table 1, the sample was almost evenly split by male and female and by grade level (7th, 9th, and 11th grades). The results indicate a diverse sample of students by race and ethnicity, reflecting the racial and ethnic composition of California schools statewide (California Department of Education, 2015). Almost three-fourths of the sample (72.7%) is non-white. Hispanic students comprise the largest racial/ethnic group in the sample (50.3%), while black students comprise the smallest proportion of students (3.0%). Similar to other data reporting the

military-connected population in this region (Gilreath et al., 2015), about 13% of the sample is military-connected, with 4.2% of the sample having a sibling in the military, 8.8% having a parent in the military, and 87.0% being nonmilitary-connected. About 9.7% of the sample reported one deployment, and 17.3% reported two or more deployments. The results indicate that 17.2% of students reported two or more transitions.

Military Connection, Deployments, Transitions, and Peer Violence and Victimization

ANOVA results indicate significant mean differences in physical violence among students by military connection, ($F_{(2, 13810)} = 40.91; p < .01$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for nonmilitary-connected students ($M = 6.87, SD = 2.71$) was significantly lower than students with a parent in the military ($M = 7.56, SD = 3.25$) and students with a sibling in the military ($M = 7.25, SD = 3.09$). ANOVA results indicate significant mean differences in nonphysical victimization among students by military connection, ($F_{(2, 13761)} = 31.40; p < .01$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for nonmilitary-connected students ($M = 6.87, SD = 3.20$) was significantly lower than students with a parent in the military ($M = 7.60, SD = 3.45$) and students with a sibling in the military ($M = 7.27, SD = 3.20$). ANOVA results indicate significant mean differences in physical violence among students by deployment, ($F_{(2, 10603)} = 104.79, p < .01$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for students reporting no deployments ($M = 6.64, SD = 2.25$) was significantly lower than students reporting one deployment ($M = 7.33, SD = 3.18$) and students reporting two or more deployments ($M = 7.80, SD = 3.52$). There was a significant, but weak positive correlation between number of school transitions and physical violence ($r = .15, p < .01$) and nonphysical victimization ($r = .11, p < .01$).

School Climate and Victimization

Results from the correlational analyses indicate significant and weak negative associations between school climate and both domains of victimization (see Table 2). There was a significant correlation between school connectedness and physical violence ($r = -.18, p < .01$) and nonphysical victimization ($r = -.14, p = .00$). The domain of high expectations was negatively correlated with physical violence ($r = -.16, p < .01$) and nonphysical victimization ($r = -.08, p < .01$). Caring relationships was negatively correlated with physical violence ($r = -.16, p < .01$) and nonphysical victimization ($r = -.08, p < .01$). Meaningful participation was also negatively correlated with physical violence ($r = -.06, p < .01$) and nonphysical victimization ($r = -.02, p < .01$).

Predicting Victimization by School Climate, Military Connection, Deployment, and Transitions

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to predict physical violence and nonphysical victimization (see Tables 3 and 4). Step 1 of both models included demographic variables and military connection. As seen in Table 3, having a military parent ($\beta = .06$) and having a military sibling ($\beta = .03$) were significant predictors of physical violence. Deployment and school transitions were included in Step 2 of both models, significantly increasing the R^2 to .08, ($F_{(12, 9749)} = 68.95; p < .01$). In Step 2, having a parent in the military and having a sibling in the military were not significant predictors of physical violence. One deployment ($\beta = .05$) and two or more family deployments ($\beta = .10$) were significant predictors of physical violence. The number of school transitions was a significant predictor of peer physical violence ($\beta = .12$). School climate variables—feeling safe, school connectedness, caring relationships, meaningful participation, and high expectations—were entered in the final step. The R^2 increased

significantly to .12, indicating that the predictors explained 12% of the variance ($F_{(16, 9611)} = 75.84, p < .01$). Multiple school climate variables were significantly associated with physical violence. School connectedness, for instance, was negatively associated with physical violence ($\beta = -.14$).

As seen in Table 4, results of the hierarchical regression analysis of nonphysical victimization were similar to the regression model of physical violence. In step 2 of the model, there was an R^2 increase to .06 with the addition of deployment and school transitions to the model. One deployment ($\beta = .05$) and two or more deployments ($\beta = .11$) were significant predictors of nonphysical victimization; having a parent in the military or sibling in military were not significant predictors of nonphysical victimization in step 2. In step 3 of the model, school climate variables were included in the model, and there was an R^2 increase to .12. School connectedness ($\beta = -.12$) and high expectations ($\beta = -.03$) were negatively associated with nonphysical victimization.

Discussion

Despite a large body of research on school climate and victimization among at-risk youth, no studies have examined the role of school climate in the victimization of military-connected youth. This is the first empirical investigation to explore this relationship in a large-scale sample of military-connected youth and their peers in civilian public schools. Overall, the findings of this study suggest that school climate is a protective factor associated with lower levels of victimization among military-connected students. While the results reveal weak associations, the R^2 changed significantly with the inclusion of the school climate variables in both regression models. In addition, multiple school climate variables contributed to lower levels of peer victimization, despite the presence of school transitions and family deployments. This provides

overall evidence that multiple components of school climate can be predictive of peer victimization among military-connected youth.

A key contribution of this study is the examination of multiple components of school climate as predictors of peer victimization. Few studies have included several dimensions of school climate. These findings suggest that some aspects of school climate may be more helpful than others. For example, caring relationships had a significant negative association with both domains of peer victimization. This finding supports previous research that has linked school adult support with lower levels of physical and non-physical peer victimization. Elliot et al. (2010) found that when students perceive that teachers and other adults are providing consistent social support and have high academic expectations for them, students are more likely to adopt positive attitudes about seeking help from school staff for bullying and threats of violence among peers. In addition, supportive relationships with adults also help facilitate active student engagement from both victims and bystanders in monitoring and reporting school violence to teachers, principals, and other school staff (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005; Thapa et al., 2013). In addition, the results revealed that school connectedness significantly predicts peer victimization. School climate researchers have found that when students have positive connections to school staff, they are less likely to be involved in violence with students and teachers (Cohen et al., 2011; Thapa et al., 2013). The findings also indicated a positive, weak association between meaningful participation and victimization. Recent studies have also found a positive relationship (Estrada, Gilreath, Astor & Benbenishty, 2013; Marachi, Astor, & Benbenishty, 2006). These studies contradict theoretical work on school climate, which assumes that a high level of student participation is associated with lower levels of victimization (Benbenishty &

Astor, 2005). More studies and theoretical frameworks are needed to understand the role of meaningful participation in school victimization.

The findings of this study also reveal that deployments and school transitions played a significant role in peer victimization, after including school climate in the multivariate models. This supports recent empirical studies using population samples, where single and multiple family deployments and the number of school transitions were significant predictors of peer victimization (Gilreath et al., 2014; Reed et al., 2011). The psychological strain of a family deployment and multiple moves adversely impact the social and emotional functioning of military-connected youth in school. Moreover, frequent school transitions can socially alienate military-connected youth, as it becomes difficult to make friends, create and maintain relationships with school adults, and feel connected to the school community. Alienation and being a newcomer may make them vulnerable to peer victimization (Bradshaw et al., 2010).

As with all studies, this study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting results. First, due to the cross-sectional nature of this study, cause and effect relationships could not be assessed. Second, this study excluded students from continuation/community day schools. This may have affected the statistical analyses, since it is feasible that there is an underrepresentation of high-risk secondary students in this study. Third, military connection was defined in two mutually exclusive categories—having a parent in the military and having a sibling in the military. Items in the CHKS did not ask respondents to report other dimensions of military connection such as military branch, rank, or whether their parents or siblings serve as full-time active duty service-members, Reservists, or National Guard members. Recent studies have found that the deployment experiences of Reservists and National Guard families are qualitatively different from families of full-time, active duty service members

(Bowen, Mancini, Martin, Ware, & Nelson, 2003; MacDermid, Samer, Schwarz, Nishida, & Nyaronga, 2008; Rohall, Weschler, & Segal, 1999). Reservist families, for instance, typically reside in civilian communities and have limited access to health care providers who are aware of military culture and life stressors (Bowen et al., 2003). Fourth, the variables for this study were student self-reported, which may affect the reliability of the items. The CHKS is comprised of only student self-reported items. Objective measures of school climate such as presence of police officers, video surveillance systems, average years of teachers' experience and student-teacher ratio could have been beneficial to the measurement of school climate in this study (Konold & Cornell, 2015). Last, the sample for this study were students in school districts that were part of a consortium of military-connected districts aimed at improving school climate for military-connected students. This may affect the study's results, as students in non-military-connected school districts were not included in the sample.

In summary, the findings from this study provide a detailed understanding of associations among school climate, military connection, deployment, school transitions, and victimization in military-connected schools. This study fills gaps in the military-connected school and school climate literatures and has implications for future research, theory, and educational practice. First, future research could explore the effects of multiple components of school climate on victimization by utilizing longitudinal data and intervention studies with pre- and post- study designs. Second, future studies could employ purposive sampling strategies to assess the effects of schools with varied levels of school climate on victimization (Astor, Benbenishty, & Estrada, 2009). Such research would help us understand the impact of a highly positive climate vs. a negative school climate on school victimization rates. Third, future studies can investigate school contextual factors, including teacher and principal awareness of military life issues, which could

mitigate the relationships among deployments, school transitions, and peer victimization.

Qualitative research designs can help uncover day-to-day events and aspects of school climate that precede the victimization of military-connected students. Fourth, this is the only study that focuses on school climate and victimization among military-connected youth in public schools. Additional studies in other regions in the U.S., including school districts far from military installations with small numbers of military-connected youth, are needed.

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Table 1

<i>Sample Characteristics</i>	
	Total N(%)
<i>Gender</i>	
Female	7606 (51.7%)
Male	7181 (48.6%)
<i>Grade</i>	
7 th	4588 (32.9%)
9 th	4908 (35.2%)
11 th	4446 (31.9%)
<i>Race/Ethnicity</i>	
Asian/PI	1189 (8.2%)
Black	432 (3.0%)
White	3948 (27.3%)
Mixed Race	1606 (11.1%)
Hispanic	7261 (50.3%)
<i>Deployment</i>	
None	8040 (73.1%)
Once	1062 (9.7%)
Twice or more	1903 (17.3%)
<i>School Transitions</i>	
None	7547 (50.5%)
Once	2414 (16.2%)
Twice	1127 (7.5%)
Three times	740 (5.0%)
Four times	379 (2.5%)
More than four times	331 (2.2%)

Table 2

Correlational Analyses of School Climate and Victimization

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. School Connectedness	--	.38**	.37**	.39**	-.18**	-.14**
2. Caring Relationships	.38**	--	.44**	.76**	-.16**	-.08**
3. Meaningful Participation	.37**	.44**	--	.41**	-.06**	-.02**
4. High Expectations	.39**	.76**	.41**	--	-.16**	-.08**
5. Physical	-.18**	-.16**	-.06**	-.16**	--	.57**
6. Nonphysical	-.14**	-.08**	-.02**	-.08**	.57**	--

**p < .001, *p < .01

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression of Physical Violence by Military Connection, Deployment, School Transitions, and School Climate.

Independent Variable	B	SE (b)	β	t	R ²
Constant	7.09	.06		114.94	.06
<i>Race and Ethnicity</i>					
Asian/PI	.08	.01	.01	.82	
Black	.11	.01	.01	.74	
Hispanic	.04	.01	.01	.71	
Mixed**	.26	.03	.03	3.15	
<i>Gender</i>					
Male**	.72	.04	.13	15.37	
<i>Grade Level</i>					
Ninth**	-.68	.06	-.12	-11.68	
Eleventh**	-1.19	.06	-.21	-20.35	
<i>Military Connection</i>					
Military parent**	.62	.08	.06	7.38	
Military sibling**	.43	.12	.03	3.64	
Constant	6.48	.08		83.24	.08
<i>Race and Ethnicity</i>					
Asian/PI	-.01	.10	-.01	-.06	
Black	.01	.16	.01	.06	
Hispanic	.02	.06	.01	.34	
Mixed*	.18	.09	.02	2.02	
<i>Gender</i>					
Male**	.68	.05	.13	13.23	
<i>Grade Level</i>					
Ninth**	-.64	.07	-.16	-9.69	
Eleventh**	-1.07	.07	-.20	-16.39	
<i>Military Connection</i>					
Military parent	.07	.10	.01	.69	
Military sibling	.03	.13	.01	.25	
<i>Deployment</i>					
One deployment**	.40	.09	.05	4.41	
Two or more deployments**	.73	.18	.10	9.20	

<i>School Transitions**</i>	.26	.02	.12	11.83
Constant	8.94	.16		57.40
<i>Race and Ethnicity</i>				
Asian/PI	-.08	.10	-.01	-.83
Black	-.10	.16	-.01	-.64
Hispanic**	-.78	.06	-.02	-1.27
Mixed	.09	.09	.01	1.06
<i>Gender</i>				
Male**	.64	.05	.12	12.43
<i>Grade Level</i>				
Ninth**	-.71	.07	-.13	-10.84
Eleventh**	-1.18	.07	-.22	-18.05
<i>Military Connection</i>				
Military parent	.12	.10	.01	1.21
Military sibling	.08	.13	.01	.64
<i>Deployment</i>				
One deployment**	.38	.09	.04	4.19
Two or more deployments**	.74	.08	.11	9.37
School Transitions**	.22	.02	.10	10.20
<i>School Climate</i>				
School Connectedness**	-.41	.03	-.14	-13.11
Caring Relationships*	-.12	.05	-.04	-3.97
Meaningful Participation**	.10	.04	.03	2.86
High Expectations**	-.20	.05	-.06	-3.97

**p < .001, *p < .01

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression of Nonphysical Victimization by Military Connection, Deployment, School Transitions, and School Climate.

Independent Variable	B	SE (b)	β	t	R ²
Constant	7.74	.07		104.71	.03
<i>Race and Ethnicity</i>					
Asian/PI	-.12	.11	-.01	-1.12	
Black	-.06	.18	-.03	-.33	
Hispanic	-.55	.07	-.09	-8.37	
Mixed**	.18	.1	.02	1.79	
<i>Gender</i>					
Male**	-.81	.06	-.13	-14.50	
<i>Grade Level</i>					
Ninth**	-.23	.07	-.04	-3.38	
Eleventh**	-.37	.07	-.05	-5.27	
<i>Military Connection</i>					
Military parent**	.65	.10	.06	6.51	
Military sibling**	.37	.14	.02	2.68	
Constant	7.21	.09		75.30	.06
<i>Race and Ethnicity</i>					
Asian/PI	-.24	.13	-.02	-1.93	
Black	-.11	.20	-.01	-.57	
Hispanic	-.57	.07	-.09	-7.68	
Mixed*	.05	.11	.01	.48	
<i>Gender</i>					
Male**	-.87	.06	-.14	-13.71	
<i>Grade Level</i>					
Ninth**	-.18	.08	-.03	-2.18	
Eleventh**	-.29	.08	-.04	-3.64	
<i>Military Connection</i>					
Military parent	-.06	.12	-.01	-.45	
Military sibling	-.10	.16	-.01	-.62	
<i>Deployment</i>					
One deployment**	.54	.11	.05	4.80	
Two or more deployments**	.92	.10	.11	9.46	

<i>School Transitions**</i>	.23	.03	.09	8.66	
Constant	9.28	.19		48.07	.12
<i>Race and Ethnicity</i>					
Asian/PI*	-.31	.13	-.03	-2.47	
Black	-.20	.20	-.01	-.99	
Hispanic**	-.63	.07	-.10	-.08	
Mixed	-.10	.11	-.01	-.08	
<i>Gender</i>					
Male**	-.90	.06	-.14	-14.19	
<i>Grade Level</i>					
Ninth**	-.25	.08	-.04	-3.05	
Eleventh**	-.41	.08	-.06	-5.03	
<i>Military Connection</i>					
Military parent	-.11	.12	-.01	-.88	
Military sibling	-.13	.16	-.01	-.85	
<i>Deployment</i>					
One deployment**	.54	.11	.05	4.80	
Two or more deployments**	.94	.10	.11	9.62	
School Transitions**	.20	.03	.08	7.53	
<i>School Climate</i>					
School Connectedness**	-.43	.04	-.12	-11.03	
Caring Relationships	-.09	.06	-.02	-1.34	
Meaningful Participation**	.15	.04	.04	3.46	
High Expectations**	-.14	.06	-.03	-11.03	

**p < .001, *p < .01

