**Believe and Achieve: Examining how Academic Self-Esteem promotes Academic Achievement and College Aspirations in Black Adolescents**

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Abstract

Academic Self-Esteem was examined as a moderator between two dimensions of positive and negative youth experiences (community experiences and perceptions of teacher beliefs) and academic achievement (grade point average and academic future expectations) in a sample of Black adolescents. Self-reported data were collected from 364 participants (grades 9-12, 70% girls) as part of the larger Teen Experiences Project. The students attended a high school in a large and urban city (Mean Age = 15.93, S.D = 1.56). Results from regression analyses revealed that academic self-esteem moderated relations between negative community experiences and academic achievement. For boys, academic achievement increased as academic self-esteem (ASE) and negative community experiences increased; but decreased when ASE was lower and negative community experiences were high. Exploratory regression analysis examining relations between grade level, ASE, and negative community experiences revealed that for students in older grades, achievement reduces when ASE is lower and negative community experiences are high. Implications and future directions for research are discussed.

**Keywords:** Academic Self-Esteem, Negative Community Experiences, Black, Urban adolescents, Academic Achievement, grades, college attendance

**Introduction**

Nationally, Black students drop out of high school at rates that exceed other racial groups, a travesty for a nation that claims to equitably serve America’s youth (National Center of Education Statistics, 2018). Previous literature suggests that Black students begin to struggle long before choosing to withdraw from public education. In fact, Black and White students demonstrate similar academic performance at the start of the 1st grade but Black students gradually begin to perform at lower rates; a gap that increases steadily until there is a measurable difference in mathematics and reading by the 4th grade (Entwisle & Alexander, 1990; Swanson, Cunningham, & Spencer, 2003). Contributing to this phenomenon is research showing that Black youth have significantly more negative, rather than positive, experiences during their childhood that lead to adverse outcomes in physical health, psychological well-being, and academic performance (Busby, 2013; Hunt et al., 2017; Kitsantas et al., 2013, LaVeist & Issac, 2012). These youth experiences may be the difference between a desire to achieve academically and the removal of Black students from academic settings (Hood, Bradley, & Ferguson, 2016; Smalls et al., 2007). A decisive factor in graduating high school versus dropping out for Black adolescents may be associated with how students view themselves. Research demonstrates that self-esteem is a buffer to negative events and a contributor to resilience (Luthar, 2006; Mboya, 1986; Witherspoon et al., 1997). However, self-esteem is multidimensional: encompassing global self-esteem, home self-esteem, peer self-esteem, and school self-esteem (Hare, 1996; Shoemaker, 1980). The academic dimension is associated with educational outcomes and may determine whether Black students remain in schools despite negative community and school experiences (Cunningham & Swanson, 2010). Due to a focus on global esteem (self-esteem in all settings), research has failed to outline how *academic* self-esteem, the way students view the self in academics, may serve as a buffer to negative community and school experiences. Thus, there is a critical need to identify how the academic domain of self-esteem may increase academic outcomes and potentially combat experiences that undermine student performance. Specifically, experiences that Black youth face in school and community contexts may adversely affect academic performance and lower desires to attain secondary education. The extant literature clearly demonstrates a link between negative community and school experiences for academic outcomes (McNeil & Fincham, 2015; Neblett, Philip, Cogburn, & Sellers, 2006; Neblett, Chavous, Nguyen, & Sellers, 2009; Seaton, Caldwell, Sellers, & Jackson, 2008; Smalls et al., 2007; Witherspoon, Seaton, & Rivas-Drake, 2016). Through a more close examination of student identity, we can identify whether academic self-esteem may buffer negative experiences by examining correlates with academic achievement outcomes. In doing so, I present a conceptual model to support the organization of the concepts.

**Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST)**

Spencer (2007) describes PVEST as a recursive process. The initial component is the net vulnerability level, where individuals become knowledgeable about biases and stereotypes associated with their phenomenological traits. These are titled “net vulnerabilities” because they include the balance between factors such as race, age, sex/gender, income or socioeconomic status, and biological features that predispose youth to adverse experiences and protective factors within the environment (Spencer, 1999). The focus is not just on risks, but also includes potential strengths; therefore, a balance between risk factors and protective factors affords more inclusive examination of human behavior. For example, being a Black male may be a risk factor in the U.S. due to racial stereotypes that promote criminality; however, being a male can also serve as a protective factor due to facets of male privilege. Therefore, examining the balances between risk and protective factors is necessary to explain how individuals experience day-to-day life in various contexts. As individuals face “net stress engagement,” adverse encounters that create stress, may lead adolescents to believe that stressors they experience are directly related to their self-appraised characteristics (i.e., race/gender). Conversely, net stress engagement also allows individuals to identify supports within the environment that may help in coping with stressful experiences. For our research purposes, this phenomenon can be seen in the school context for Black adolescents. An example, Black students are often perceived by teachers to have lower ability levels in academic and socio-emotional domains than their same aged peers (see Battery et al., 2018; Gillian et al., 2016). Thus, students may perceive inequitable racial treatment within the classroom, perceptions that serve as a stressor (Minor, 2014). Conversely, students may have supports within the school environment such as a prosocial peer network or staff/teacher mentors, supports that may aid the adolescent through school experiences. In Spencer’s model, net stress engagement leads the individual to create coping mechanisms, i.e., reactive coping strategies, that aim to solve problems associated with the stressors, either adaptively or maladaptively depending on the solutions created. Black students within schools can reactively cope with the stressors of these multiple environments adaptively, through embracing a positive identity in school-related activities, i.e., academic self-esteem, or maladaptively coping through withdrawal/avoidance, i.e., resisting school authority or aversive behaviors. The latter of the two lead to undesirable academic outcomes, including exclusionary discipline, and contributes to student dropouts (Crenshaw, 2015).

Using a PVEST perspective, Spencer (2006) also states that effective adaptations to stress in one environment may not translate as individuals shift contexts. An example of this phenomenon presents during hypermasculine attitude development in urban Black boys (see Spencer, 1999). While this coping strategy is effective in urban environments to gain status with peers and/or for protection, hypermasculine attitudes do not adaptively translate to schools where authority figures perceive the attitudes as violent and/or aggressive (Cunningham, Swanson, & Hayes, 2013). The balance between coping and identity play out over time; coping mechanisms become stabilized “emergent identities” (Spencer, 1999), once proven to be effective in limiting stress. Lastly, the fifth component of PVEST assesses outcomes produced by the newly formed identities. The coping strategies developed by the individual are either adaptive or maladaptive and can yield either adverse or productive outcomes for the individual’s quality of life.

A PVEST perspective provides a lens to understand how individuals view themselves through perceptions of positive and negative experiences and how these appraisals result in the development of coping styles, identity, and life outcomes. Through this perspective, we can consider the ways that Black students use appraisal of community and school experiences to make sense of their emerging identities as scholars and make expectations for their academic futures. By examining youth experiences, we can identify whether outcomes from acquired coping strategies are adverse or productive in helping Black teenagers achieve academically. Furthermore, by understanding how students with high academic self-esteem perform academically, the findings may demonstrate how a sense of self-efficacy may shield against maladaptive experiences in multiple settings. The PVEST interdisciplinary model has guided the current research study by providing a context to situate and interpret findings for the following questions: (1) What is the relationship between youth experiences and academic outcomes for African American adolescent children? (2) Does academic self-esteem serve as a protective buffer against the impact of negative community- and school-based youth experiences on academic outcomes?

**Literature Review**

The review of extant literature for the thesis examines variables in community and school settings that affect the academic achievement of Black students. I assess literature associated with how students view themselves as scholars, and how these variables may be linked to school performance (including an examination of the literature associated with students’ grade point averages and future academic expectations). The topics are reviewed in the order stated.

*Community Context*

Due to race-based factors experienced in the community context by Black youth, positive developmental outcomes are potentially confounded (Garcia Coll et al., 1996; Stevenson, Reed, Bodison, & Bishop, 1997). Specifically, exposure to racism and discrimination has been shown to indirectly influence cognition and socio-emotional development outcomes (Smith & Frank, 2015). Research by English, Lambert, and Ialongo (2014) document the implications of negative race-based experiences for Black youth. The authors show that Black adolescents are psychologically impacted by racial discrimination that results in psychological distress, development of internalizing disorders (depression/anxiety), aggressive behaviors, heighted feelings of hopelessness, increased substance dependency, and poor academic outcomes. For developing Black adolescents, negative community experiences run the gamut of overt slights to covert messages that imply racial inferiority. The net vulnerability of these community-based youth experiences have shown to produce both risk and protective factors during developmental stages of adolescence; resulting in a need to examine risk exposure and protective factors in the community (Spencer, 1996). In doing so, researchers must understand how a typical part of the Black adolescent experience is perceived discrimination and that discriminatory experiences impede on academic achievement.

*Racism Health, Self-Esteem*

 The role of community influences on the development of Black adolescents have been well documented in the literature (Cunningham, 1999; Cunningham et al., 2013; Stevenson, 1997). Within community contexts, Black adolescents are susceptible to negative self-evaluation and perceived discrimination through experiences with minor hassles and exposure to racially prejudiced attitudes (Spencer, 1999; Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008). For many Black adolescents, experiences include slights and insults associated with their racial and ethnic background from outgroup members in the adolescent’s community. It is possible that Black children begin to lose belief in their ability to perform well in school related activities due to persistent reminders of stereotypic traits associated with the self, (i.e., the myth of less cognitive ability). For Black adolescents, racially discriminatory messaging received in the community may result in decreased academic performance.

Racial discrimination and racism have been used interchangeably throughout the literature and are described as actions carried out by members of a dominant group that produce adverse effects for the subordinate racial-ethnic group (Martin, McCarthy, Conger, Gibbons, Simons, Cutrona, & Brody, 2011; Priest, Paradies, Trenerry, Trung, Karlsen, & Kelly, 2013; Williams, Neighbors, & Jackson, 2003; Witherspoon et al., 2016). For African Americans, racial discrimination can be covert and ambiguous; perceptions of isolated events may be misidentified as racially discriminatory whereas actual discrimination may be deemed as innocent (Priest et al., 2013). While racial discrimination is experienced by African Americans throughout the lifespan, several studies have labeled the phenomenon as a normative process for Black adolescents (Benner, Wang, Shen, Boyle, Polk, & Cheng, 2018; Garcia Coll et al., 1996; Smalls, White, Chavous, & Sellers, 2007; Spencer, 1996, 1999). The effects of racial discrimination may be magnified during adolescence as they begin self-appraisal in response to perceived prejudices and biases (Spencer, 2006).

Research shows that Black adolescents have historically perceived themselves as victims and targets of discrimination in both neighborhood and school contexts (e.g., reporting petty hassles in stores from employees and receiving subpar service as customers in comparison to other races) (Brown & Bigler, 2005; Fisher, Wallace, Fenton, 2000). These experiences are frequent enough for Black children that by the time they reach adolescence, they understand that their phenomenological traits subject them to differential treatment and fewer opportunities (Witherspoon et al., 2016). A study by Fisher et al. (2000), detailed discriminatory community experiences for multi-ethnic adolescents in urban settings. The study included 177 high-school aged participants (78 boys, 98 girls, and 1 unidentified participant) who completed the *Adolescent Discrimination Distress Index*, a measure that assesses perceived racial-bias/discriminatory experiences within community settings. Researchers also administered the *Rosenberg self-esteem inventory* to determine how chronic discriminatory experiences in the community may affect global self-esteem. The researchers found that while teenagers of African American, Hispanic, and South Asian ethnicities all experience instances of discrimination, teenagers of African American and Hispanic ethnicities are more greatly implicated by the prejudiced interactions (e.g., inequitable treatment in school settings, perceived interactions that suggest lower intelligence, being hassled by store personnel, etc.). Despite more discriminatory encounters than ethnically diverse participants, African American participants maintained a significantly higher level of globalized self-esteem. The study provides further evidence that perceived discriminatory experiences are a normative developmental process for Black adolescents. Furthermore, results indicate that African American teenagers tend to maintain high views of self regardless of perceived discriminatory experiences. Mboya’s research (1986) has suggested that researchers pay attention to self-esteem in specific settings, as confidence may vary as the adolescent changes context.

*Perceived Discrimination Academic Performance*

Further research has examined Black adolescents’ perceptions of community-based discrimination and found inverse relations with academic outcomes (Neblett, Philip, Cogburn, & Sellers, 2006; Neblett, Chavous, Nguyen, & Sellers, 2009; Smalls et al., 2007). Neblett et al. (2006) developed a study to examine perceived racial discrimination, parental racial socialization (parent messages to their children about what their race means), and factors of academic success including academic curiosity, academic persistence, and student-reported grades. The sample contained 548 African American adolescents in grades 7 through 10 (323 girls), who completed measures for perceived racial discrimination, received messages of racial socialization and racial barriers, academic curiosity and persistence, and self-reported grade point averages (GPA). The authors found a negative correlation between experiences of perceived discrimination and all measures of academic performance (curiosity, persistence, and GPA). The study’s findings inform how racially discriminatory experiences in the neighborhood can affect African American adolescent performance and engagement in school contexts.

Another study by Smalls and colleagues (2007) sought to explore how ideals of race and discriminatory neighborhood experiences are associated with academic engagement in African American adolescents. The study utilized 390 Black students in middle and high school (52% girls) and administered measures for academic persistence and curiosity, problem behaviors, racial ideology, centrality, academic identity, and used the *Racism and Life Experience Scale* (Harrell, 1997) to assess for perceived racial discrimination. The respondents also provided descriptive information such as sex, grade level at the time of assessment, and the average grades of their classes (i.e., A – 100-93 through D – 69 and lower). The study found that while adolescents’ experiences with racial discrimination are not frequent, majority of respondents reported having experiences with the phenomenon at some point throughout their development. Correlational analysis also revealed that engagement with discriminatory experiences serve as a significant factor for reduced academic engagement in African American adolescents, with more pronounced effects for students with assimilation-based racial ideals.

Research has also identified potential sex differences in the effects of racial discrimination for African American students. Neblett et al., (2009) sought to better understand the impact of perceived discrimination on African American boys and its relations with parental racial socialization messages and academic achievement variables. Responses were collected from a longitudinal study of 144 Black adolescent boys, ranging in age from 12 to 17 years (*M* = 13.79, *SD* = 1.22). The respondents were scored on measures of self-reported racial socialization (i.e., types of racial messages received and how often they occurred), the *Racism and Life Experiences Scales* (RaLES; Harrell, 1997) to determine perceived experiences with racial discrimination through the past year, and academic achievement measures for curiosity, persistence, and performance (GPA). Consistent with previous findings, the study found that experiences of discrimination were negatively correlated with reported academic performance or GPA for boys. Interestingly, the study did not find that discrimination affected other school-based variables such as academic curiosity or persistence. This exploration and the findings produced may indicate sex differences for the relationship as boys have been shown to face more discriminatory experiences within community settings than girls (Kessler, Mickelson, & Williams, 1999; Noguera, 2003; Toomey, Gonzales, & Dumka, 2013; Edwards & Romero, 2008; Seaton, 2010). Results from the study suggest greater implications for Black boys concerning academic performance outcomes.

In summary, the literature clearly indicates that African American adolescents are adversely impacted by perceptions of community-based racial discrimination. Spencer (1996) theorizes that advancements to perceptions are a normative process of teenage development, citing that as children grow into adolescence, they become more aware of stereotypes and bias that influences self-appraisal processes (Spencer, 1996). For example, Fenton and colleagues (2000) demonstrate that racial and ethnic minority children are more aware of stereotypes and bias associated with their race and ethnicity during adolescence, and can clearly perceive differential treatment in community settings. Further studies outline the perception of discrimination by Black adolescents and clearly provide linkages with reduced academic performance via grade point averages (Neblett et al., 2006, 2009; Smalls et al., 2007). A PVEST lens asserts that perceptions of discriminatory behavior, whether real or perceived, produces adaptation responses aimed at lessening the experience of stress. These coping strategies produce behaviors that formulate identity and contribute to either productive or adverse outcomes. When applied to the present study, a clear negative correlation exists between perceptions of discrimination and academic performance for African American youth. The literature fails to identify whether maladaptive coping strategies or poor self-identity is the primary contributor to reduced grade point averages for students with these experiences. It is plausible that students who have experienced racial discrimination have lower academic self-esteem (identity) due to bias (i.e., lower perception of ability), thus producing lower grades (outcomes). However, this is unlikely due to previous research that has identified the presence of academic self-esteem (ASE) as a buffer between discriminatory experiences in community settings and academic performance (Rowley, 1996). Unfortunately, the dearth of literature fails to identify without question, whether lowered ASE precedes perceived discrimination or is a byproduct of the experience. Furthermore, there is a lack of studies definitively identifying academic self-esteem as an established mediator between grades and discrimination. The present study seeks to examine racial discrimination under the blanketed term, negative youth experiences, to cover the basis of perceived racial bias in community settings, i.e., petty hassles and experienced prejudice. For the purposes of our research, we seek to understand why student reports of perceived discrimination are associated with academic performance in Black students, while factoring in school-based experiences and academic self-esteem. The information derived from further inquiry may establish buffers that counter aversive outcomes for African American adolescents who have experienced neighborhood-based discrimination.

*Positive Community Supports*

In addition to the neighborhood challenges faced by Black adolescents, PVEST posits that there are also supports in the community, supports that can serve as protective factors and reinforce the development of adaptive coping strategies (Spencer, 2006). Although slight, few researchers have indicated that the community environment may be encouraging, fraught with positive social interactions and yielding positive academic outcomes for adolescents (Aber & Nieto, 2000; Hurd, Stoddard, & Zimmerman, 2013; Witherspoon et al., 2016). Research has linked productive outcomes for adolescents, such as decreased school dropout rates with neighborhoods that have higher levels of social cohesion and collective socialization (Ainsworth, 2002; Coleman & Hoffer, 1987; Gephart, 1997; Rankin & Quane, 2002; Wilson, 1996). Collective socialization is the process of youths following the example of role models within community settings (Wilson, 1996). The theory states that when role models inspire behaviors and attitudes conducive to optimal outcomes (i.e., values of hard work), adolescents in the community are likely to develop and emulate those modeled behaviors across settings. As mentioned earlier, negative community experiences are linked with harmful outcomes for adolescent youth including consequences for maladaptive physical and mental health development (Witherspoon, et al., 2016). Numerous studies have indicated that community supports serve to buffer to deleterious community effects outlining the importance of examining collective socialization in developing adolescents (Hurd et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2007).

*Collective Socialization and Academic Achievement*

Perceptions of collective socialization in neighborhood contexts have been shown to contribute to increased academic performance for adolescents from urban contexts. In 2002, Ainsworth conducted a study that examined the effects of neighborhood social interaction variables (i.e., social collectivism, residential stability, racial diversity, etc.) to determine neighborhood characteristics with the greatest associations with academic achievement outcomes. The sample contained 13,196 adolescents in the 10th grade, collected from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, and administered measures to identify neighborhood characteristics, characteristics of the family (i.e., parental involvement, number of siblings, etc.), and potential mediating variables, such as time spent on homework, peer dropouts, and school climate. Ainsworth hypothesized that for students to be effective academics they must reside within neighborhoods that influence academic behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs, e.g., encompassing the presence of role models. The study validated his hypothesis. When controlling for family, race/ethnicity, and school-based variables, findings from the study identified that neighborhood characteristics positively influenced academic achievement. Furthermore, of all identified neighborhood characteristics, collective socialization was found to have the strongest mediation effect between neighborhoods and academic outcomes. The study demonstrates the importance of adolescents viewing and interacting with community-based role models who demonstrate achievement ideals, prosocial behaviors, and signifies a potential correlation between these observations and academic success.

Based on PVEST’s theory, a net balance of experiences suggests that adolescents must have positive experiences if negative experiences exist during development. Furthermore, if the literature demonstrates a relationship between negative experiences and academic outcomes, then there is a case to be made that a relationship may exist between positive experiences and academics as well. This presence of role models boost academic achievement (Ainsworth, 2002), yet samples with primarily African American participants have not produced similar results. Furthermore, there has been no data to explain whether the presence of positive community supports is directly related to boosts in academic self-esteem or future academic expectations.

 African American adolescents have vast experiences in the community, experiences that the teen may perceive to be positive. If the extant literature suggests that collective socialization is not impactful for academic outcomes of African Americans, then other positive experiences may have a more profound impact on scholastic achievement. Ideally, these experiences may not be related to grades yielded, but build positive self-esteem in the adolescent that may benefit in the school setting. The present study hypothesizes that Black adolescents who have overwhelmingly positive experiences within their community and school context will have a higher self-concept within the academic sphere (ASE), and thus, produce higher GPAs and desires for future academic expectations.

*School Experiences*

In addition to various experiences in the community, Black adolescents also experience net stress engagement, the presence of both positive and negative supports, in school settings (Spencer, 2001). Factors such as student perceptions of teacher discrimination may be influential in the development of academic self-esteem as well as associated with academic outcomes, such as GPA and future academic expectations (Byrd & Chavous, 2009). The literature from public health, psychology, and education have outlined disciplinary experiences, experience where Black students are subjected to disparities in disciplinary treatment, higher rates of suspensions and expulsions, and theorized phenomena such as “Push Out” for Black girls and the “School-to-Prison Pipeline” (Blake et al., 2011; Crenshaw et al., 2015; Parks, Wallace, Emdin, & Levy, 2016). For the purpose of this study, our efforts will be focused on non-disciplinary practices in schools. Specifically, we examine whether adolescents perceive their teachers as positive or negative contributors to their academic outcomes. Namely, by focusing on student perceptions of teacher beliefs and various supports within the school ecology, factors may be identified that help contribute to success in academic outcomes.

*Discriminatory Teacher Perceptions on Academics*

 African American students have been shown to perceive discrimination from teachers originally hired to facilitate their academic success (Benner & Graham, 2012; Leath et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2009). These perceptions by students have been associated with decreased academic functioning (Benner & Graham, 2012). Benner and Graham’s study (2012) examined multiethnic adolescents to identify their experiences with perceived discrimination in school contexts and potential relations with psychological well-being and academic functioning. Participants included 876 adolescents (*M* = 16.9, *SD* = .43) with approximately 44% boys, of 61% Latin/Latin American, 21% African American, and 15% Asian American ethnicities. The students were given measures to assess racial composition of their school and neighborhood environments, interracial climate of the school and community, psychological well-being, academic performance (including GPA and engagement), and racial awareness (including measures for cultural mistrust and public regard). Participants also completed the *Adolescent Discrimination Distress Index* to determine instances with racial/ethnic discrimination by school personnel, peers, and community members. Relevant to the present study, the researchers found significant correlates between student perceptions of discrimination from adults and reduced academic performance. Other pertinent findings suggest that racial homogeny within schools increased positive perceptions of teachers by students. The findings from the study provide evidence that academic performance is negatively impacted by perceived discrimination from adults in school environments. There may also be factors related to perceived discrimination involving racial composition and mismatch between school staff and students.

 Researchers have further examined the relationship between student perceptions of teacher-based racial discrimination and academic outcomes within samples of primarily Black students. A study by Thomas, Caldwell, Faison, and Jackson (2009) took the knowledge that perceptions of teacher discrimination can affect academic performance and sought to determine whether racial identity served as a buffer. Respondents in the study were 1,170 African American and Caribbean adolescent students (810 African American, 360 Caribbean, 50% male) from the *National Survey of American Life*. The researchers hypothesized that adolescents in the Caribbean would perceive less instances of teacher discrimination than American students but believed that perceptions of discrimination would predict reduced academic performance, in alignment with previous literature (Fisher et al., 2000). After conducting hierarchical regression analysis, results indicated that students who perceived more instances of discrimination from their teachers yielded lower grades, irrespective of ethnicity.

 The findings of the studies demonstrate link between perceived discrimination from teachers and reduced academic outcomes for African American adolescents. Furthermore, researchers have begun research to identify ways to mediate these effects through examinations of buffers, such as racial identity. However, more accurate depiction of the phenomenon is necessary. For African American samples, examining potential variations in the role of student gender could provide a starting point.

*Sex Differences in Perceived Racial Discrimination*

Developmental research has outlined the potential for sex differences in perceived teacher discrimination for African American students. A 2019 study by Leath, Mathews, Harrison, and Chavous examined correlates between perceived teacher discrimination, academic engagement, and racial identity ideals to determine differences between predominantly White and Black school districts. Participants included 1,659 African American adolescents (54% girls) from a longitudinal study. The students completed measures to assess racial identity, perceived racial discrimination from adults/peers in the school environment, and given academic-based measures for curiosity and persistence. Results indicated that across districts, girls perceived less discrimination from peers and teachers than their male counterparts. Perceived discrimination was also found to be negatively correlated with academic curiosity and persistence in both districts, across varying levels of SES, and for members of both sexes.

Research by Chavous and colleagues (2008) examined perceived school-based racial discrimination from teachers as a potential risk factor for academic engagement outcomes, while also factoring in the role of racial identity and academic self-esteem. The study recruited participation from 410 African American adolescents in the 8th and 11th grades (*n* = 204 boys) from a longitudinal study, and provided measures for psychological well-being, academic and social functioning, self-perceptions (including racial and academic identity), future expectations for educational and vocational attainment, and perceived discrimination. The authors found sex differences between boys and feboys, as girls reported significantly better grade point averages and higher academic self-esteem. Boys also reported more instances of perceived discrimination. For boys, perceptions of discrimination in school settings were negatively associated with academic outcomes in 8th grade; these outcomes consequently predicted 11th grade achievement. Specifically, experiences with perceived teacher discrimination in the 8th grade continued to affect academic performance for boys in the 11th grade, though perceptions of teacher discrimination no longer served as a significant factor. The outcomes generated align with previous literature and may suggest that boys disengage from academic tasks at earlier rates than feboys and provides further rationale for examining sex differences in future studies. For girls, perceived discrimination of teachers continued to negatively affect achievement in 11th grade respondents. When examining the role of academic self-esteem, the study found that self-belief in academic tasks had significant negative correlations with perceptions of discrimination for boys and girls of both grade levels. Surprisingly, for girls who reported lower levels of racial centrality, experiences of perceived discrimination from teachers served to improve academic self-esteem.

The studies examined have outlined a clear relationship between negative perceptions of teachers and how they are associated with reduced academic outcomes for African American students. The study by Benner and Graham (2012) suggests that racially diverse students experience discriminatory experiences within schools, indicating a normative process for minority students that results in reduced academic performance. When examined for samples of Black students, perceived discrimination continues to negatively impact student performance, with African American boys perceiving more instances and thus, disengaging from school contexts earlier than girl students (Chavous et al., 2008; Leath et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2009). The data show how negative perceptions of teachers affects African American students. As mentioned earlier, factors within the community also negatively affect student performance for African American youth, presenting compounded negative effects from experiences in multiple environments. If Black youth are hailing from communities where they experience the presence of discrimination and are taught in facilities where they also experience social exclusion, then students who depend on outward sources (i.e., adults/teachers) to instill self-worth would undoubtedly underperform. The data suggest that in each environment, African American students are negatively perceiving the intentions of school and community members who are otherwise, integral in developing productive members of society. If this is true, then the students who are not easily impacted by the thoughts of adult outsiders (i.e., possessing high levels of academic self-esteem), should perform better academically due to nonchalant attitudes. Interestingly, results from the study by Chavous and colleagues also suggests that for some, perceived discrimination by teachers may yield higher ASE. If true, the perception of discrimination may drive students to believe more their abilities to prove teachers wrong. While none of the studies sought to determine how instances of perceived teacher discrimination affected future academic expectations, the findings suggest that both boys and girls may continue to perform well in school despite these challenges with the presence of high academic self-esteem (Chavous et al., 2008). The presence of academic self-esteem may serve as a buffer for students who perceive teachers as negative supports. However, net stress engagement within the PVEST theory emphasizes that students may also perceive positive intentions in their teachers.

**School Supports**

 Support within school has been theorized as a vital component of school climate, encompassing the interactions between students and staff and presence of supportiveness (Bottiani et al., 2016). The present research study focuses on perceptions of the adolescent, specifically, factors within school environments that provide positive support as perceived by Black adolescent youth. Research has indicated two variables of school supportiveness that can be demonstrated by teachers and have implications for academic outcomes, including the amount of “care” given and holding students to high levels of expectations (Baker, Grant, & Morlock, 2008; Bottiani et al., 2016; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Hughes, Lao, Kwok, & Loyd, 2008). Care as exhibited by teachers is defined by Bottiani et al., (2016) as “warmth” in interactions and regarding students as individuals with idiosyncratic characteristics. Within the same study, Bottiani and colleagues (2016), define “high expectations” as the teacher’s sustained efforts to support students in reaching a rigorous marker of academic competency. Research has cited supportive relationships as positively correlated with adolescent student engagement, socio-emotional competency, and future academic outcomes (Eccles & Roeser, 2011; Roeser, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2000). Within academic contexts for Black students, teacher warmth and high expectations are potentially influential in yielding optimal academic achievement.

In Gregory and Weinstein’s (2003) study, multilevel modeling and repeated measures analysis were used on a sample of 30 Black students (57% male) to examine behavior and cooperativeness with teachers. Students completed measures to self-appraise their defiance and cooperative behaviors with teachers, ratings for how much they believed teachers cared, and perceptions of their teacher’s expectation for their academic performance. Findings from the study indicate that teachers perceived by Black students as more nurturing and having higher standards for schoolwork had a positive correlation with the student’s adherence to rules and trust of teachers. Students who viewed their teachers as possessing “tough-love” qualities were in turn, more apt to follow the teacher’s authority and trust their leadership (Weinstein & Gregory, 2003). Teachers who demonstrate compassion and demanding, “tough-love” traits within the classroom have been lauded throughout the literature for building connections with Black students and are suggested to not be as susceptible to negative academic and behavioral portrayal of Black students (Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 1994).

A study by Tyler and Boelter (2008) gathered responses from 262 low-income African American middle school students (55% male) and administered measures to examine how students perceived their teacher’s expectations. Perceptions were not limited to teacher’s beliefs about cognitive ability, but also examined behavior and emotionality, school engagement, and aspects of academic self-esteem. Results indicated that African American adolescents within the sample reported overwhelmingly high perceptions of teacher expectations, not limited by sex differences. This may be explained through research indicating that students have a desire to form relationships with their teachers who facilitate successful navigation and completion of primary education (Kesner, 2000). Furthermore, the researchers found that these positive perceptions of teacher expectations could predict academic attitudes, specifically producing higher levels of school engagement and academic self-esteem.

Another study by Woolley, Strutchens, Gilbert, and Martin (2010), examined student perceptions of teachers’ beliefs with implications for student performance in mathematics. The researcher recruited 933 African American middle school students (521 girls, 410 boys, and 2 participants who declined identifying sex) from 7 school districts and requested self-reports for measures on motivation, perceived teacher expectations, and results in mathematics, including expected grades and scores on the standardized SAT-10 examination. After structural equation modeling, the researchers found that positive perceptions of teacher beliefs had a profound impact on increasing student confidence and interest in math, while also reducing subject-specific anxiety. Other findings demonstrate that student perceptions of teacher beliefs influenced motivational factors, and in turn, mediated academic outcomes, although perceptions were not associated with outcomes on the SAT-10 examination.

The above studies demonstrate how positive perceptions of teacher’s beliefs may influence academic achievement outcomes for African American adolescents. Findings suggest that positive perceptions of teachers may not be associated with grades but boost academic-related variables such as compliance, motivation, confidence, and academic self-esteem (Gregory & Weinstein, 2003; Tyler & Boelter, 2008; Woolley et al., 2010). This runs opposite of the effects of negative teacher perceptions, which have been shown to directly reduce achievement for the same population of students, suggesting that positive teacher perceptions may not be as impactful for achievement outcomes as negative teacher perceptions. Though positive perceptions of teachers are not direct influencers of academic performance, positive perceptions of teachers may be related to boosts in the student’s academic self-esteem (Tyler & Boelter, 2008, Woolley et al., 2010) which has been demonstrated to positively correlate with academic performance. Therefore, if African American students perceive their teachers to be positive, then those students should have measurably higher ASE than students with lower perceptions of their teachers. Furthermore, those students with more positive perceptions of their teachers should also yield higher grades, if ASE is positively correlated with grades produced. Unfortunately, studies failed to examine whether the perception of positive teachers led to desires to attain higher levels of education. However, it is possible that the perception of positive teachers contributes to a welcoming school environment and academic self-esteem, thereby instilling motivation for students to expect higher academic successes. Further analysis may reveal how positive supports in school are linked to academic self-esteem, future expectations, and academic performance.

*Academic Self-Esteem*

In addition to school and community influences on academic performance, the student’s academic self-esteem (ASE) may be the most pertinent variable to assess. Academic self-esteem has proven to be positively related to academic outcomes for students in previous studies and is defined as the positive or negative personal interpretation of one’s competency in academic tasks (Marsh et al., 2000; Marsh et al., 2002; Wilhite, 1990). Academic self-esteem has multiple aliases throughout literature, though all titles suggest that academic self-esteem is strongly connected to boosts in academic performance (Awad, 2007; Cunningham et al., 2002; Hope, Chavous, Jagers, & Sellers, 2013; Mboya, 1986; Schunk et al., 2007; Witherspoon et al., 2007). Self-esteem previously was evaluated as a globalized index, indicating that an individual’s self-esteem was stabilized across all contexts and in all endeavors (Mboya, 1986). This notion was disproven in a study conducted by Mboya (1986) examining 211 Black adolescents and relations between global self-esteem and academic outcomes. Results from the study indicated that student performance in academic competencies are not significantly correlated to the individual’s globalized self-esteem, but rather, that self-esteem in academics has a direct influence on school performance. For this reason, our study focuses on the impact of self-esteem solely within the school environment, i.e., academic self-esteem (ASE). Spencer’s PVEST perspective theorizes that the way adolescents formulate identity, i.e., confidence in academic related tasks, has the potential to influence adaptive or maladaptive behaviors, identity, and future life outcomes (Spencer, 2001, 2006). Therefore, more information about academic self-esteem may help identify ways to combat negative events that reduce academic performance for African American youth.

*ASE and Academic Outcomes*

 The role of academic self-esteem on academic achievement outcomes has been examined for Black populations, often signifying increased grade point averages for students who view themselves highly (Chavous et al., 2008; Cokley, McClain, Jones, and Johnson, 2012; Rowley, 1996; Witherspoon et al., 1997). A study by Witherspoon and colleagues (1997) involving 86 African American high school students (65% girls) examined factors related to academic achievement, including racial identity, academic self-esteem, and overall globalized self-esteem. Results from the study demonstrated that academic self-esteem positively correlated with grade-point averages (GPA) for African American students. Specifically, students in the study who reported higher levels of academic self-esteem also reported higher grade point averages than those students who reported lower levels of academic self-esteem. Furthermore, similar to the findings produced by Mboya (1986), the study did not find a significant correlation between globalized self-esteem and grade point averages (Witherspoon, Speight, & Thomas, 1997).

Another study conducted by Rowley (1996), examined the relationship between perceptions of discrimination, demographic variables (i.e., sex, family income, neighborhood characteristics, etc.), racial centrality, and academic related variables, including academic self-esteem, grade point average, and race-specific educational utility (how pertinent education is for members of the student’s race). The study collected responses from 40 adolescent participants in high school and 120 college students, all of African American descent. Findings from the study suggest that while race-specific educational utility did not impact grades, it did predict academic self-esteem, which in-turn predicted grades. Other findings show that academic self-esteem also serves as a mediator between perceived racial discrimination and grades, correlating higher achievement for students impacted by discriminatory experiences. The study did not separate respondents by age or grade level, therefore, results for adolescents alone may be confounded by responses from college participants, who may have higher academic self-esteem due to college attainment and success at the primary education level. Furthermore, the study failed to detail demographic information of the participants, leaving questions about differential results between boy and girl participants. Findings suggests that positive relationships of academic self-esteem on grade improvement may be generalized for African Americans across age and gender. The study also shows potential for academic self-esteem as a buffer against experiences of perceived discrimination, a variable that has been shown to reduce academic outcomes (Benner & Graham, 2012; Leath et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2009).

Further studies have sought to determine how sex differences may influence the relationship between ASE and academic performance outcomes. A 2012 study sought to examine the correlates between racial identity, school-reported GPA, and value held on academics (academic disidentification vs. academic self-esteem) in a sample of 96 African American adolescents (41 boys) from urban settings (Cokley et al., 2012). Researchers administered measures and ran analysis to examine descriptive information and correlations. They found that for African American adolescents, girls had significantly better school-reported grades, but entered schools with similar levels of academic self-esteem as their male counterparts. Correlational analysis revealed that younger aged boys had higher levels of academic self-esteem than older boys in the study. Conversely, while younger girls reported lower levels of academic self-esteem, their ASE grew as they grew older. Regression analysis identified that those students who reported higher grades in the study also held higher levels of academic self-esteem. Other significant findings suggest that academic self-esteem predicted school-reported grade point average better than other study variables, including demographic information.

The findings from these studies suggest that in African American populations, having a high degree of academic self-esteem is strongly related to academic success for adolescents with varied implications for sex (Cokley et al., 2012; Rowley, 1996). Rowley (1996) suggests that ASE can be a buffer for negative experiences in youth, specifically discrimination, yielding higher grades for students with higher levels of ASE. Though the study did not indicate whether students of varying sex are disposed and affected by negative experiences at similar rates, the study shows promise for African American students. If discrimination is a normative experience for adolescents of racial minority status as suggested in the study by Fisher and colleagues (2000), then Rowley (1996) has identified ASE as an effective buffer for discriminatory experiences with proven effectiveness in bettering grades. Unfortunately, the Rowley study failed to identify the context for discriminatory experiences in the measures used, therefore, we do not know if discrimination was perceived in the community or in school environments. The Cokley study (2012) suggests that girls students enter schools with similar levels of ASE but gain more overtime, whereas the opposite exists for male students. As stated earlier, previous studies demonstrate that boys perceive more instances of discrimination in school settings, possibly contributing to disengagement and lowered ASE (Chavous et al., 2008; Leath et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2009). Therefore, it is possible that sex differences also exist when relating the presence or absence of ASE to grades and academic future expectations. The current study will focus on the academic self-esteem of African American adolescents to further understand how academic outcomes are associated to high levels of ASE and thus, buffering against negative community and school occurrences.

**Achievement Outcomes**

To examine the relationship of academic self-esteem as a buffer to negative life experiences, measures must be selected that will accurately depict achievement outcomes for adolescent Black youth. To achieve this, the study will use two markers of student reported variables to assess outcomes: (1) self-reported grade point average (GPA) and (2) future expectations of academic outcomes (AFE). GPA has historically been an indicator of student performance and has been widely used in research on academics and education (Zimmerman, Caldwell, & Bernat, 2002). They are described by Bailey et al., (2014) as the summary and culminating average of a student’s grades over the total of their coursework. While GPA has traditionally been used as an indication of a student’s performance, the measure also has implications for a student’s belief in their academic competency and success (Boatright-Horowitz & Arruda, 2013). For Black adolescents, GPA may influence whether they can seek undergraduate education and interviews for prospective jobs post high school.

*Self-Reported GPA Accuracy*

Research attempted to outline the reliability of self-reported GPA by African American adolescents. Zimmerman, Caldwell, and Bernat (2002) conducted a study examining potential discrepancies between self-reported and school-reported grade point averages in a sample of African American adolescents. Participants included 591 students with an average age of 15.1 (*SD =* .63), who received measures for school-recorded GPA, self-reported GPA, psychological distress, substance use, and maladaptive behaviors. The study found that over half of the sample reported grades that were accurately within a half-grade of school recorded GPA. These results are consistent with previous literature suggesting strong correlation between student self-reported grades and actual GPA (Alexander et al., 1994; Dobbins et al., 1993; Frucot & Cook, 1994). With the assurance that student-reported GPA is a relatively accurate depiction of student progress in African American samples, studies can determine how the variable relates to high school completion and academic future expectations.

*GPA and High School Completion*

Research involving African American samples has identified GPA as a predictor of high school graduation. Hickman and Wright (2011) utilized official school data in a 10-year study to determine academic variables that had the most impact on high school graduation. The sample consisted of 447 adolescents who were at-risk for academic challenges because they lived in high poverty communities (79.9% African American, 61.1% male) and examined school records for grade point average, amount of times retained, scores on math and reading proficiency tests, expulsions, and duration of time spent in mentoring programs. Significant findings suggest sex differences for boys and feboys in the study; however, GPA was found to account for the most variance as a predictor of high school completion in both sexes. Findings support that students with higher GPA were more likely to graduate high school. The findings are aligned with those of previous research involving adolescents and provide rationale for using GPA as an index for academic achievement (Anderman, 2003; Bailey & Stegelin, 2003). Furthermore, if GPA is correlated with high school completion, then students with high GPA may also be influenced to attain secondary education and beyond.

*Academic Future Expectations*

The second variable measure to assess student’s academic achievement is academic future expectations, specifically, the level of education that the student intends on completing. The majority of the literature takes a deficit-based outlook on the future outcomes of Black youth, often discounting the experiences of those that desire to achieve higher levels of educational attainment (Cunningham & Trask-Tate, 2010; Spencer, 2006). Though sparse, researchers have sought to examine academic future expectations (AFE) as it relates to African American adolescents. A study by Cunningham and Trask-Tate, (2010) utilized responses from 206 Black adolescent students (135 feboys) to examine relations between perceptions of school support, parental involvement, and AFE. Results from the analysis demonstrated that a vast majority of African American teenagers in the sample viewed the school environment as a place where they felt supported and encouraged by teachers/staff. Furthermore, the study indicated that when perceiving large amounts of support from school and their caretakers, youth have higher ambitions for future academic endeavors (Cunningham & Trask-Tate, 2010). For feboys in the study, parental involvement held higher correlations with future academic expectations, while boys in the study reported a negative correlation between high levels of parental involvement and AFE. While the study demonstrates sex differences for parental involvement, results indicate that for members of both sexes, having supportive adults in schools may increase desires to remain educational settings for longer periods (Cunningham & Trask-Tate, 2010).

 Another study, conducted by Cunningham, Corprew, and Becker (2009) examined how future expectations may be influenced by peers and academic performance in a sample of 129 African American teenagers (*M* = 1.14, *SD* = 1.03). Participants provided information on demographic variables (e.g., sex, grade level, etc.), AFE, future expectations (e.g., job outlook), and assessed the existence of negative friends through substance use questions. Results from the study found that the majority of participants reported having high expectations for their academic futures, with 97 percent of respondents identifying a desire to attend college, graduate, and/or professional schools. The results did not vary significantly by sex or parent in the households, providing more evidence that African American adolescents tend to have high expectations for their academic futures (Cunningham et al., 2009; Cunningham & Trask-Tate, 2010). The study also found a statistically significant relation between AFE and grade point average, signifying that students with higher grades may have stronger desires to complete higher levels of education.

The study by Cunningham and colleagues (2009) indicate a positive relation between GPA and AFE, suggesting that students who yield better grades are likely to also desire higher educational attainment. The study demonstrates a relationship between GPA and AFE, despite only including responses from students who identified as high achieving. It is likely that these high achieving students had high ASE, thus, were confident in that their abilities would fare them well in higher grade levels resulting in greater AFE. The study failed to capture the ASE of the students, though an examination of students from a wide range of achievement (i.e., a representative sample containing low, average, and higher achievers) could result in a sample that provides more into the relationship between GPA and AFE.

The study by Cunningham and Trask-Tate (2010) further provides evidence that positive perceptions of adults in the school environment may serve to better student AFE. Previous studies in the literature alluded to this correlation through relating perceptions of positive teachers to academic-based variables (i.e., motivation, engagement, compliance, ASE) (Gregory & Weinstein, 2003; Tyler & Boelter, 2008; Woolley et al., 2010). If positive perceptions of teachers are related to AFE, then they may also be related to other academic variables, variables that mediate academic outcomes (GPA). Furthermore, it is likely that adolescents who desire to remain in school contexts for longer periods have greater perceptions of their ability to succeed (ASE). Further exploration may be beneficial in understanding how AFE relates to GPA and ASE, factors often associated with successful academic outcomes for African American students.

**The Current Study**

The academic performance of African American adolescents has been examined with a focus on deficits since the emergence of Garcia-Coll’s integrative model (1996). This emphasis on negative student outcomes has provided much detail about factors within the community and school environments that contribute to deficits in education, while rendering the examination of positive factors (i.e., positive perceptions of teachers and ASE) understudied. The work of Margaret Beale Spencer (1995, 1999, 2006, 2007) identifies net stress engagement as the balance of positive and negative within adolescent experiences, suggesting that while multiple contexts may possess barriers to education, the context also has factors that serve as supports, thereby positively impacting student performance. Through the inclusion of self-reflection and meaning-making processes, Spencer’s theory gives voice to adolescents through examining their perceptions of adults and their environments. Previous research has identified that the presence and interaction with positive adults within the school and community context are related to increases in GPA and AFE. However, when those positive adults are absent, little research has been done to examine how the identity of African American adolescents, specifically academic self-esteem (ASE) may contribute to adaptive academic outcomes. The literature also notes that the presence of high ASE is positively linked to GPA and AFE. The objective in this proposal is to examine the role of ASE as a potential buffer against negative experiences in the neighborhood and school context.

*Research Questions*

(1) Do Black students have experiences in their neighborhood and school contexts that negatively affect performance in school and desired academic outcomes? (2) Does academic self-esteem, or how strongly students feel about themselves within the school environment, serve as a buffer to perceived negative experiences?

*Hypothesis*

Overall Hypothesis: As indicated in Figure 1D, the current study has one main hypothesis and various subcomponents. The main hypothesis asserts that relations between experiences (community and school) and academic performance indicators (GPA and AFE) are moderated by ASE. The literature suggests that positive perceptions of teachers and community experiences will relate positively to academics, whereas negative experiences will reduce performance.

I also hypothesize that students with high perceptions of negative experiences in both school and community settings will have lower GPA/AFE than students with more positive experiences in these contexts. Specifically, for students with higher reports of negative experiences, greater ASE will be a critical moderator for achievement in that the negative correlation between negative community experiences and academic outcomes (e.g., GPA/AFE) will weaken as ASE increases. Conversely, I expect the relation between negative community experiences and academic outcomes will remain the same as ASE decreases. I do not expect positive experiences in the community context to have a statistically significant relation to academic outcomes and ASE will not moderate this relation. When examining the school context, I expect ASE to moderate the relation between negative and positive reports of the school context and the academic outcomes. Specifically, the hypothesized inverse relation that negative school experiences has to the academic outcomes will decrease as ASE increases. In contrast, I expect that the relation of negative school experiences has to academic outcomes increases as ASE decreases. When examining students’ reports of positive school experiences, I expect that ASE to moderate the relation between low reports of positive experiences and the academic outcomes. Specifically, the relation that low reports of positive experiences has to the academic outcomes will decrease as ASE increases. However, I expect the opposite moderating effect when ASE decreases. The relation that low positive reports from the school context has to the academic out will increase as ASE decreases. Next, the literature suggests that negative experiences in the school environment are more related to grades produced than negative community experiences. I hypothesize that positive perceptions in schools will correlate highly with GPA/AFE and higher ASE, in spite of negative community experiences.

1. Relations between Positive/Negative Community Experiences and GPA/AFE are moderated by ASE

(H1) there will be inverse relations between negative community experiences and GPA/AFE; therefore, as ASE increases this inverse relation will weaken. However, as ASE decreases, it will no longer be statistically significant.

(H2) there will be a positive relation between positive experiences in the community and GPA/AFE; ASE will not be a statistically significant moderator.

1. The relations between Positive/Negative School Experiences and GPA/AFE are moderated by ASE.

(H1) there will be inverse relations between negative school experiences and GPA/AFE; therefore, as ASE increases this inverse relation will weaken. However, as ASE decreases, relations will strengthen.

(H2) as positive perceptions in the school increases, the relationship with GPA/AFE will increase, ASE will not be a statistically significant moderator

1. Relations between combined school and community experiences and GPA/AFE are moderated by ASE.

(H1) negative community and school experiences are inversely related to GPA/AFE; when ASE increases GPA/AFE will improve yet will reduce as ASE decreases.

(H2) positive community and school experiences have a positive relations GPA/AFE, ASE will not be a statistically significant moderator.

(H3) as positive community experiences/negative school experiences increase, GPA/ASE will decrease. Relations will weaken as ASE increases, yet strengthen as ASE decreases.

Lastly, the literature suggests that community effects may be more pronounced for male participants and that feboys view school experiences more positively. For this reason, I examine sex differences in addition to our a-priori assumptions.

**Methods**

*Sample*

The participants are 368 African American high school students in a southern, large urban city. Students range from 13 to 17 years of age and attend a predominantly African American high school. School records indicate that the majority of the sample is eligible for free or reduced lunch and approximately 70% of the sample identify as female.

*Procedures*

The participants from the current analysis are derived from a larger study. The *Teen Experiences Project (TEP)* explores social experiences, academic achievement, and resilience of African American high school adolescents in a large southern city in the United States. Data was collected during the 2014-2015 academic school year. Students were recruited from their homeroom classrooms via the researchers visiting their classes to explain the study and pass out parental informed consents. Students were incentivized with pizza and refreshments to turn in their informed parental consent by an ideal date. Adolescent assents followed prior to measure administration. Students completed the survey during their classroom time. In addition to the constructs used in the current proposed study, the survey included questions about school, identity, family, and friends. The measures are included in the appendix and explained more below.

*Measures*

All measures are listed in the Appendix E. The main constructs are described first. Next, included are potential control variables and descriptions of the demographic variables.

Student perceptions of teacher beliefs were measured by a revised Abbott Checklist (Abbott, 1981) of teacher beliefs, a 33-item scale where participants were provided a list of positive and negative teacher beliefs (e.g., “Teachers think I’m a good thinker”, “Teachers think I do not want to learn”.) Students were asked to rate the degree that they believed teachers agreed with the provided statement of student capabilities on a 5-point scale ranging from *Strongly Agree* (1) to *Strongly Disagree* (5). The measure has been previously used with African American adolescents and has strong reliability (see Cunningham et al., 2013).

 Experiences within the neighborhood were assessed by the Youth Experiences measure to capture student perceptions of discrimination and petty hassles attributed to race. The Youth Experiences Measure is a revised measure from the Black Boys Experiences Measure (Cunningham & Spencer, 1996). The original measure has both positive and negative students’ perceptions associated with their community context and included students’ comments that were specific for Black boys. In the revised measure, all questions are gender neutral so that both boys and feboys could complete the measure. The scale asks participants to select responses most aligned with experiences in public places that may indicate the presence of bias (e.g., When you are hanging out (like in the park, playground, street corner, etc.), how often do police/security guards stop you to ask what you are doing? Do people tend to lock their car doors when you pass?). Participants were asked to select the amount of times that the various instances resonate with them from Never (1) to Always (10). The revised scale has adequate psychometric properties for both African American male and female participants (Corprew & Cunningham, 2012; Cunningham et al., 2013; Foney & Cunningham, 2002).

The moderator variable is Academic Self-Esteem (ASE). Academic Self-Esteem is measured by an academic subscale of the Hare Self-Esteem measure (Hare, 1996). Adolescents were instructed to complete 10 items and select responses most aligned with their beliefs on a 4-point scale ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) or *Strongly Agree* (4) The subscale is used to examine participants beliefs about self in academic-related tasks (e.g., “School is harder for me than most people”, “I am usually proud of my report card”). (Hare, 1996). The construct is a subscale of the Hare Self-esteem measure that examines Global Self-esteem, Academic Self-esteem, Home Self-esteem, and Peer Self-esteem. The measure has been used with diverse groups of racial and ethnic minority adolescents and has strong psychometric reports (Cunningham, Hurley, Foney & Hayes, 2002; Cunningham & Swanson, 2010; Hare, 1977, 1996).

**Results**

*Preliminary Analysis*

The current analysis used data provided from students attending a charter school in a large, southern city. Variables used in the current analyses were the only variables included in the data set. Student participants who identified as Black or Black with another race were included in the sample, totaling three hundred and sixty-eight participants total (*n = 368*). Two students were excluded from the analyses as they were missing responses for the academic future expectation variable, which brought the total down to three hundred and sixty-six (*n = 366*). Four additional students did not identify sex. Physical copies of student responses show that students excluded the item; therefore, those participants were excluded from the sample. The final total of participants is three-hundred and sixty-four student participants (*n = 364*). All missing items from participant responses were replaced with predicted means. Next, age was recoded to represent the actual age of participants (*1=13; 2=14; 3=15; 4=16; 5=17; 6=18; 7=19*). Additionally, all the variables were centered, residuals were saved then the normality distribution of the entire model was tested on the dependent variable (FRS). The model was normally distributed. Descriptive statistics were analyzed as well as correlations. Lastly, a hierarchical linear three-way interaction analysis was used to examine the moderation effects of ASE for each student experience variable.

*Descriptive Statistics*

The current study analyzed how greater academic self-esteem in Black teens may buffer against negative community experiences and negative teacher perceptions, thereby yielding higher grades and academic future expectations. The study also examined positive community experiences and perceptions of teacher beliefs to determine how experiences in the community and school influence academic performance and future expectations. Descriptive statistics are depicted in Table 1A. Overall, study participants were three-hundred and sixty-four (*n = 364)* Black youth living in a southern, urban city. The sample was 30% boys (*n* = 112) and 70% girls (*n* = 252). Older students were most of the sample with 60% (*n* = 222) aged 16 and older. Younger participants comprised the remainder of the participants with 40% (*n* = 146) reporting an age of 13-15 years old. Participants in the sample provided reports on experiences in the community, perceptions of teacher beliefs, academic future expectations (AFE), academic self-esteem (ASE), and self-reported grades.

In reports of the community experiences, participants gave responses on a 35-question inventory that assessed neighborhood experiences (Cunningham & Spencer, 1996). The inventory included items for both positive and negative community experiences and responses ranged from *never* (1)to *always* (5). Responses in the middle were said to occur *sometimes* and were coded as 3. As referenced in Table 1A, the total sample reported positive neighborhood experiences in the sometimes range (*M = 2.85, SD = .76*). In contrast, negative community experiences were reported by participants near the almost never mark *(M = 1.70, SD = .76)*.

For positive and negative school experiences, a 33-item inventory that assessed student’s positive and negative perceptions of teacher beliefs was administered (Abbott, 1981). The inventory used a 5-point scale from *strongly agree* (1) to *strongly disagree* (5). Responses in the middle were regarded as *neutral* and were coded as 3. Overall, participants in the sample reported agreeing with perceptions of positive beliefs from teachers (*M = 2.08, SD = .53)*. Additionally, the overall sample endorsed neutral to disagree with items that suggested negative teacher perceptions *(M = 3.76, SD* *= .63).*

Academic self-esteem (ASE) was assessed through 10-questions that focused on student beliefs of their academic ability. The Hare Self-Esteem Inventory is part of a large measure comprised of three subscales (e.g., Home, Peer, Academic); however, only the Academic subscale was used in the current analysis. Previous research demonstrated that that the academic domain is the only self-esteem domain that is related to academic outcomes (Cunningham & Swanson, 2010). The overall scale and the subscales including school-related beliefs and have been psychometrically validated for use with Black populations (Hare, 1997). Using a 5-point Likert scale format, participants in the sample selected accuracy of statement on self in school, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Student responses were reported as (*M = 3.31, SD = .44)* and indicate a range of reported ASE within the study’s sample.

Academic Future Expectations were reported by one question; “how long do you think you will be in school?” The question has been used in studies with Black populations and has adequate construct validity (Cunningham & Trask-Tate, 2010). Responses were presented in Likert-scale format, the options ranging from *planning to quit school ASAP* (1)to *college and graduate or professional school* (5). Participants in the study generally reported higher academic future expectations (*M = 4.36, SD = .72*). Over 92% of respondents (*n = 340*) indicated desires to obtain at least college degree.

Grades were also reported by a single question. Students were asked to self-report their grades by selecting the response that most closely resembled their academic performance. Selected responses ranged from *mostly D* (1) and continued in half mark increments (1.5 – about half Cs and Ds, 2 – Mostly C, etc.) to *mostly A* (4). The overall average suggests that students in the sample scored about average or *about half B and half C* (*M = 2.88, SD = .72)*. Approximately 52% of the sample reported grades of *mostly B* and above (*n = 194).*

*Correlations*

Zero-order correlations were conducted between each variable in the study and are depicted in Table 2A. Demographic information was examined with independent, dependent, and moderator (ASE) variables. Relations between the participants’ gender, age, ASE, student perceptions of teacher beliefs, community experiences, grades, and AFE were as follows:

*Gender*

 A statistically significant relationship was found between sex and negative perceptions of teacher beliefs (*r* = .22, *p* < .001.), meaning that girl students tended to report more negative teacher perceptions than their male peers. Additionally, there was a statistically significant negative relationship between negative community experiences and sex, as boys reported significantly more experiences with discrimination in community settings (*r* = -.24, *p* < .001.). As mentioned in previous research, Black adolescent boys are often perceived as “baby-faced” men instead of teenage boys, which leads to interpretations about their actions that may be mistaken (i.e., perceived hostility during neutral actions) (Allen, 2013; Davis, 2003; Ferguson, 2000, Noguera, 2003). Perceptions of Black boys’ criminality and delinquency may have contributed to the stark differences in negative community experiences between them and their female counterparts. Lastly, there was a statistically significant negative relationship between both outcome variables, AFE and Grades, with sex. Feboys in the sample reported higher grades (*r* = .23, *p* ≤ .001.) and reported desires for greater educational attainment (*r* = .11, *p* ≤ .05.) than boys, despite reports of greater negative perceptions of teachers.

*Age and grade level*

A negative and statistically significant relation between academic self-esteem and age was present (*r* = -.22, *p* ≤ .001.), meaning that younger students had higher academic self-esteem. The same was seen for academic self-esteem and grade level (*r* = -.17, *p* ≤ .001). There were also statistically significant negative relations between perceptions of negative teachers and age (*r* = -.13, *p* ≤ .01.), suggesting that younger students perceive more negative beliefs from their teachers than older students. Grade level also mirrored these results (*r* = -.12, *p* ≤ .05). Lastly, there was a statistically significant negative relation between age and self-reported grades (*r* = -.25, *p* ≤ .001.), denoting that younger students had higher grades. Grade level correlates with self-reported grades depicted relations in the same direction (*r* = -.18, *p* ≤ .001). Relations between students and significant correlations suggest that students enter schools confident in academic abilities. Yet, after perceived negative interactions in schools, Black students may begin to yield worse grades and assume less of an identity as a scholar. It is also possible that due to the nature of school, coursework builds on previous years and becomes increasingly difficult. As student encounter more difficult subject matter, they may begin to see reduced grades and academic self-esteem as a result.

*Positive perceptions of Teachers Beliefs*

 Positive perceptions of teacher beliefs had a negative relation with academic self-esteem (ASE). Students who perceived their teachers to have positive beliefs reported less academic self-esteem (*r* = -.48, *p* ≤ .001). Positive teacher perceptions also were significantly correlated with neighborhood experiences; correlational analysis revealed a positive correlation with negative community experiences (*r* = -.29, *p* ≤ .001.), suggesting that students who reported more negative community experiences were more likely to perceive positive beliefs from their teachers or vice versa. Conversely, positive community experiences are inversely correlated with positive perceptions of teacher beliefs (*r* = -.17, *p* ≤ .001.), suggesting that students who reported more positive community experiences were less likely to perceive their teacher positively. Lastly, students who viewed their teachers positively tended to report lower grades (*r* = -.38, *p* ≤ .001) and have reduced expectations for future educational attainment (*r* = -.28, *p* ≤ .001). These findings may suggest that students who perceive teachers to have more favorable beliefs demonstrate lesser academic self-esteem, grades, and AFE. Correlations suggest that viewing teachers in a positive light may not be beneficial to academic performance of students, contrary to previous research (Chavous et al., 2008; Leath et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2009). Teachers may outwardly exhibit positive beliefs yet do not push students to reach academic potential. In fact, students with more positive experiences in the community had fewer positive perceptions of teachers, which may presume that potentially “nice” teachers’ interactions are viewed as inauthentic to students, as positive interactions may not translate to belief in ability. These relations are explored in more depth below with regression analyses.

*Negative perceptions of Teacher Beliefs*

Students who had more negative perceptions of teacher beliefs had inverted correlations with age (*r* = -.13, *p* ≤ .05) and grade level (*r* = -.12, *p* ≤ .05), suggesting that older students were less likely to perceive that teachers have negative beliefs about their abilities. Negative teacher perceptions also had significant relations with sex (*r* = .22, *p* ≤ .001), as feboys in the sample tended to report more negative perceptions of teacher. Students who reported greater perceptions of negative teacher beliefs had strong positive relations with academic achievement. Specifically, negative teacher beliefs and ASE (*r* = .46, *p* ≤ .001), grades (*r* = .41, *p* ≤ .001), and AFE (*r* = .16, *p* ≤ .01) suggest that though students may perceive teachers to have negative beliefs, the interactions serve beneficial in academic achievement for Black adolescent students. It is suggested in the literature that teachers who demonstrate tough-love qualities in the classroom were more likely to gain trust, build connections, and thus, have students follow their leadership (Weinstein & Gregory, 2003). It is likely that despite students viewing teachers as negative during younger grades, students learn overtime that teachers that are tough have their best interests in mind academically and push them to reach their full academic potential.

*Negative Community Experiences*

As mentioned earlier, boys in the study were more likely to report negative community experiences than girls (*r* = .24, *p* ≤ .001). Additionally, negative experiences in the community were inversely related to academic self-esteem (*r* = -.23, *p* ≤ .001), which may indicate why boys in the sample reported overall less academic self-esteem than girls in the sample. It is likely, that negative community experiences, specifically discrimination, leads students to belief racialized and have less confidence in their academic abilities. Negative community experiences also related positively with positive teachers (*r* = .19, *p* ≤ .001) and inversely with negative teachers (*r* = -.29, *p* ≤ .001). For students who have experienced negative community encounters, interacting with teachers who attempt to communicate and build rapport may contribute to student’s viewing the teacher as overall positive. Yet, for students with lower negative community experiences (in our sample, majority of girls), teachers are viewed less positively. Further data explorations may help to explain the phenomenon.

*Positive Community Experiences*

Students in the study who reported more positive community experiences were likely to report higher ASE (*r* = .24, *p* ≤ .001). Students were also significantly related to outcome variables as students who reported greater positive community experiences had higher grades (*r* = .17, *p* ≤ .001) and further academic expectations for school (*r* = .17, *p* ≤ .05). The numbers suggest that positive interactions in community strongly related to the student’s academic identity and outcomes. Wilson (1996) postulated that when adolescents encounter positive interaction in the community, the behaviors modeled are emulated and generalized across various settings. Positive community encounters may have given students a strong sense of self which generalized into the school environment. As mentioned earlier, students who reported positive community experiences were more likely to perceive their teachers as having negative beliefs about student ability (*r* = .12, *p* ≤ .05) and less likely to view teachers as positive (*r* = -.17, *p* ≤ .001). It may be that students who have had more positive encounters are less likely to confuse a positive demeanor/interaction with care for their well-being. Once again, further analysis may help better understand the nature of relations.

*Grades*

While many of the correlation between variables and grades have been listed above, one that has yet to be mentioned is how grades are related to the other outcome variable (AFE) and the moderator. Results from the correlational analysis indicate that grades are correlated with academic self-esteem (*r* = .54, *p* ≤ .001). The literature is filled with examples of academic self-esteem and has long established a strong relation to academic achievement (Awad, 2007; Cunningham et al., 2002; Hope, Chavous, Jagers, & Sellers, 2013, Mboya, 1986; Schunk et al., 2007; Witherspoon et al., 2007). Other findings suggest that student grades are positively related to AFE (*r* = .28, *p* ≤ .001). The relations between grades and AFE have also previously been identified in a study by Cunningham and colleagues (2009) although those findings were limited to high-achieving students. Contrary to the literature, students who reported positive perceptions of teachers reported lower grades (*r* = -.38, *p* ≤ .001) while students who viewed teachers more negative reported better grades (*r* = .41, *p* ≤ 001). Once again, this may be due to teacher who exhibit tough-love characteristics during interactions yet hold high expectations for student achievement.

*Regression Analyses*

 The present study has two main hypothesis that are tested through regression analyses. The first hypothesis states that students who report negative community and school experiences will also report lower academic outcomes (academic future expectations, AFE; grade point averages, GPA), and that negative experiences can be buffered by reports of greater academic self-esteem, the moderator. For students that report lower academic self-esteem, relations between negative experiences and academic outcomes will remain inverted. The second hypothesis posits that students who report greater positive community and school experiences and will also report higher academic outcomes that are enhanced by the moderator, academic self-esteem. Students that report lower academic self-esteem will have generally positive relations positive experiences and academic outcomes, as suggested by previous literature.

 To examine these hypotheses, hierarchical stepwise regression analyses were used to examine moderation effects of academic self-esteem (ASE) on two-way interactions between experiences and academic outcomes (grade point average and academic future expectations, respectively). For example, several regressions were run. Step 1 of the analysis included demographic covariate variables (Age and Sex) . Step 2 included student experience (i.e., positive or negative community experiences and positive and negative school experiences) and the moderating variable, ASE. Finally, in Step 3 of the model, the between student experience and ASE (i.e., ASE x Positive Community Experiences, ASE x Negative Community Experiences, ASE x Positive School Experiences, or ASE x Negative School Experiences) were entered to test the hypothesized interaction. A total of 8 hierarchical stepwise regressions were conducted to test each student experience on separate outcome variables (GPA and AFE, respectively). None of the models were statistically significant. However, one model approached statistical significance. All of the non-statistically significant tables are presented in Appendix C. The one model that approached statistically significance is explained next.

*Academic Self-Esteem x Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Grade Point Average*

Regressions were run to determine variables that significant contributed to the outcome of grade point averages (GPA) for students. As indicated in Appendix B, Table 1B, grade point average (GPA) outcomes trended towards statistical significance in two-way interactions between academic self-esteem (ASE) and positive perceptions of teacher beliefs (PosTeachers). In step one, both age (*β (364) = -.22, p < .001*) and sex (*β (364) = .19, p < .001*), variables were significant contributors to the overall model, accounting for 1 percent of the variance (*ΔR2= .01,*ΔF = 19.24, *p* ≤ .001). In step two, the moderator, academic self-esteem (ASE) (*β (364) = .41, p < .001*) and positive perceptions of teacher beliefs (PosTeachers) (*β (368) = .19, p < .001*), were both found to statistically contribute to the model, accounting for an additional 27% of variance (*ΔR2= .27,*ΔF = 76.08, *p* ≤ .001). As previously mentioned, the two-way interaction in step three of the model, between academic self-esteem (ASE) and positive perceptions of teacher beliefs (PosTeachers) were found to trend towards significance (*β (364) = .07, p < .10*, Δ*R2* = .01, ΔF =2.08, *p* ≤ .001).

When graphed (as seen in Figure 2D), the two-way interaction demonstrates how students in the sample who reported greater academic self-esteem (ASE) were generally unaffected by their perceptions of teacher beliefs. When ASE was high, students tended to report higher grade point averages (GPA), regardless of whether they perceived high or low positive beliefs from teacher. It is also worth noting that the relationship shifts when students report lesser academic self-esteem (ASE). In these instances, students with lower ASE, who reported positive perceptions of teacher beliefs also reported lower grades. Thus, academic self-esteem can increase GPA for those students Age and Sex variables were statistically significant contributors in each step of the model (see Table 1B), therefore additional analysis were run to consider the contributions of age and sex as moderators to further explain how differences account for variance in the interactions. The simple slopes analysis for this regression was not statistically significant.

 *Achievement Construct and Three-Way Interactions*

 The next step was to run hierarchical stepwise regression analyses with grade point average (GPA) and academic future expectations (AFE) as a single academic achievement construct. Following correlational analysis, it was found that both GPA and AFE were positively correlated (e.g., Table 2A, *r* = .28, *p* ≤ .001) and the decision was made to create a single achievement construct that would help account for the total achievement variance in the study. The combined achievement construct allowed for us to examine moderation effects of academic self-esteem (ASE) on three-way interactions between experiences, sex, on academic achievement (grade point average and academic future expectations). In doing so, step one of the regression analysis included sex, academic self-esteem, and negative community experiences (NegComExp). Step 2 included examined two-way interactions including academic self-esteem by sex (ASE x Sex), negative community experiences by sex (NegComm x Sex), and academic self-esteem by negative community experiences (ASE x NegComExp). In the final step, student experiences were run with sex, and academic self-esteem to test variables on outcomes (i.e., Sex x ASE x NegComExp). The model demonstrated some significant findings in three-way interactions. Significant findings are discussed below.

 *Sex x ASE*

As indicated in Table 2B , the achievement model was statistically significant in two-way interactions between sex and academic self-esteem (ASE) on academic achievement (GPA and AFE) (*β (364) = .40, p < .001*). In step 1, negative community experiences were not found to be a significant contributor. However, both Sex and Negative Community Experiences (*β (364) = .40, p < .001, ΔR2= .319*) were significant contributors to the overall model, accounting for almost 32 percent of the variance. In step 2 of the regression analyses, two-way interactions between negative community experiences and sex (NegComm x Sex) and academic self-esteem by negative community experiences (ASE x NegComExp) were not found to significantly contribute to the achievement construct. Step 3 demonstrated that sex x academic self-esteem x negative community experiences was a significant contributor to the overall model (*β (364) = .40, p < .05, ΔR2= .325*), accounting for an additional 33 percent of the variance.

When examined more closely (as seen in Figure 3D), the interaction appears to indicate sex differences between boys and girls. Additional regressions were run to determine how student experiences and academic achievement were moderated by ASE differently for boys and girls. Of those regressions, only male students trended towards significance (*β (364) = .22, p < .10*). As seen in Figure 3D, for male students who reported lower ASE, achievement (in grade point average and academic future expectations) tended to be better for those students who also reported having fewer negative experiences in their communities. The data goes on to the show that when students with lower ASE reported higher negative community experiences, they also tended to perform lower in the achievement construct. This mirrors results from previous studies involving community experiences and demonstrate inverse relations between negative experiences and academic achievement (Byrd & Chavous, 2009; Fisher et al., 2000; Thomas et al., 2009). When examining results for male students with higher ASE, the opposite held true; male students who reported higher ASE tended to report lower achievement in the presence of low negative community experiences and higher achievement with higher negative community experiences. For male students with greater ASE, students with more negative experiences outperformed students with less negative experiences. It may be that when students who see themselves as scholars engage with negative experiences in the community, those experiences influence them to apply themselves more rigorously to their academics as a means of escaping these settings. The simple slopes analysis for this regression was not significant.

*Age*

 The next step was to examine age, as it was a statistically significant contributor in each step of the original regression analysis. The age variable replaced sex and regressions examined moderation effects of academic self-esteem (ASE) on three-way interactions between student experiences, age, on academic achievement (grade point average and academic future expectations). In doing so, a total of 4 regressions were run; step one of the regression analysis included sex, academic self-esteem, and student experiences (e.g., NegComExp; PosComExp, etc.). Step 2 included examined two-way interactions involving academic self-esteem by sex (ASE x Sex) and student experiences by age (e.g., NegComm x Age). In the final step, student experiences were run with sex, and academic self-esteem to test variables on outcomes (i.e., Age x ASE x NegComExp). The model demonstrated one statistically significant finding in three-way interactions. As noted in Table B4, there was a significant interaction between Age, negative community experiences, and academic self-esteem on predicting achievement. Specifically, in step 1 of the model, while negative community experiences were not statistically significant, ASE (*β (364) = .51, p < .001*) and Age (*β (364) = -.07, p < .001*) were found to significantly contribute to the model, accounting for 28 percent of the variance. In Step 2, neither the interaction between NegCom x Age, Age x ASE, nor ASE x Negative Community Experiences were significant contributors to the overall model. In the last step, the three-way interaction between Age, ASE, and Negative Community Experiences was a statistically significant contributor to the overall model (*β (364) = 1.19, p < .05*). As seen in Figure 4D, students of all ages performed better academically and had higher future academic expectations when they also reported high academic self-esteem. Additionally, and most surprisingly, we see that both older and younger students in the sample who reported high negative community experiences and high ASE also tended to perform better than their peers with high ASE and fewer negative community experiences. This suggests that students may use negative experiences in the community as fuel to foster better achievement; looking to academics as a means of coping and leaving negative community environments upon graduation (as indicated earlier with male students). Lastly, the interaction demonstrated that ASE had strong relations to achievement for younger students with lesser reported negative community experiences and older students with more negative community experiences. As indicated in Figure 4D, the simple slopes analysis was also found to be significant in the interaction. The slopes for age and negative community experiences were evaluated at one standard deviation above and below the mean of academic self-esteem. For males with ASE 1 standard deviation above the mean, the simple slopes test found statistically significant t-values between the achievement of older and younger students who reported high negative community experiences (t = 2.11, *p* < .05). The simple slopes analysis also revealed statistically significant differences between older and younger students who reported lower negative community experiences (t = -2.05, *p* < .05).

*Grade Level Analysis*

The continued significance of the age variable in each 3-way interaction model led to further analysis, including making the age variable dichotomous to test the hypothesis on older and younger students. Students in the sample ranged from age 13-19; therefore, to avoid arbitrary splitting of the ages into older and younger, the researcher settled on using grade level (a variable strongly correlated with age) to produce older and younger groups. Students in 9th and 10th grade were coded as 0 and 10th and 11th graders were coded as 1 with the goal of determining how age (grade level) moderates ASE and Negative Community Experiences on Achievement. In doing so, one additional regression was run with students split into younger (9th and 10th) and older (11th and 12th) grade level groups. Step one of the regression analysis included academic self-esteem, and negative community experiences (NegComExp). Step 2 included the original variables and examined the two-way interactions between academic self-esteem by negative community experiences (ASE x NegComExp). Significant findings were found for student of the older grade level, but not the younger.

*Two-Way Interaction of ASE x NegComExp on Achievement for 11th and 12th graders.*

As seen in Table 5B, in Step 1 of the model Negative Community Experiences were not significant, but ASE continued to be a statistically significant predictor in the model (*β (364) = .47, p < .001).* In Step 2 of the model, the interaction of ASE and Negative Community Experiences were also found to be a significant contributor to the model (*β (364) = .13, p < .05).* The significant two-way interaction was examined further in Figure 5D. The interaction indicates that for students in higher grade levels, those students who reported higher academic self-esteem were more likely to report higher grades in the presence of high negative community experiences than students who reported lower academic self-esteem. Students in older grades who reported lower ASE tended to perform lower overall on the achievement variable, and maintained similar achievement despite high or low negative community experiences. This is consistent with the literature from previous studies suggesting that negative experiences in the community have inverse relations with achievement outcomes (Neblett et al., 2006; Neblett et al., 2009; Smalls et al., 2007). The opposite of which is seen for older students who reported higher ASE; performance was relatively the same amongst high and low reports of negative community experiences, with a slight increase in performance for those students who also reported more negative community experiences. The finding offers continued support that negative community experiences may be a driving force for achievement when students see themselves as scholars. The simple slopes analysis for the regression was not found to be significant.

**Discussion**

 The purpose of the current study was to examine how positive and negative experiences in the school environment and the community environment relate to grade point averages and academic future expectations for Black students. Further, the researchers sought to determine how the presence of academic self-esteem may buffer negative experiences and promote achievement. Most of the research on Black adolescents maintain a deficit focus, with few studies outline factors of resilience. The current study sought to expand the literature by providing a student-centered lens on how identity (academic self-esteem) may promote positive academic outcomes from Black students.

The primary finding in the study adds to research about relations between adverse experiences in the community and academic achievement in Black students. It was hypothesized that students who reported experiencing more negative community experiences in the community would also report lesser grades and negative relations would be buffered by the presence of high ASE. The hypothesis was partially true. This study confirmed the findings from previous studies that suggest that negative community experiences are associated with lower academic performance, but only when that student’s academic self-esteem is low. Interestingly, results demonstrate that for students who have a strong identity as a scholar (high reported academic self-esteem; ASE), student grade point averages and how far they want to go in college (academic future expectations, AFE) increased. In fact, in our sample, as students reported more negative community experiences and high ASE, they also tended to report the highest achievement scores of all students.

Secondly, exploratory analysis with the sex variables suggest that this phenomenon is most pertinent for male students in higher grade levels (11th and 12th grade). This study confirmed data from previous literature suggesting that Black boys have more turbulent experiences in the community than their female counterparts (Kessler, Mickelson, & Williams, 1999; Neblett et al., 20099; Noguera, 2003; Toomey, Gonzales, & Dumka, 2013; Edwards & Romero, 2008; Seaton, 2010). While girl students who reported higher ASE performed better than girls who did not, only boys in the sample reported increased performance when negative community experiences were high.

Thirdly, exploratory analysis with age/grade level suggest that the phenomenon was most prevalent for upperclassmen in high school (11th and 12th graders). Again, the overall age analysis revealed that students with higher ASE reported better achievement scores than their lower ASE counterparts for all ages, regardless of community experiences. Surprisingly, achievement scores were the highest for students who reported higher negative community experiences, high and low ages alike. When separated by grade level, the analysis revealed that students in higher grades (11th and 12th) were more susceptible to negative community experiences. As previously reported, students in upper grades with lower ASE reported far worse achievement scores when negative community experiences were high than students who reported lower negative experiences. These results mirror findings from previous literature related negative community experiences with reduced academic outcomes (Neblett et al., 2006; Neblett et al., 2009; Smalls et al., 2007).

 Finally, the study demonstrated at the trend level that academic self-esteem moderates the relations between grade point average and positive perceptions of teacher beliefs. It was hypothesized that students who reported positive experiences with their teacher would positively correlate with grades and that ASE would not be a statistically significant moderator. This hypothesis was not supported. Results suggest that for students who report high ASE, grades are approximately the same regardless of high or low perceptions of teacher beliefs. However, students with lower ASE reported higher grades when they perceived lower perceptions of teacher beliefs. Conversely, when students who reported lower ASE reported high perceptions of teacher beliefs, they also tended to report lower grades. These findings suggest that perhaps teachers give extra positive attention to students who perform lower academically. In doing so, they attempt to build a relationship with these students through friendly interaction though are not able to make strides academically. Conversely, results from of the analysis suggest that student academic self-esteem may also be a factor. Students in our study who possess lower academic self-esteem may have turned of school as a place where they see themselves as successful. Therefore, students may perform better when taught by teachers who demonstrate tough-love characteristics and demonstrate high expectations for student performance (Weinstein & Gregory, 2003). Though these student’s may not perceive positive teacher beliefs from interactions with the teacher, efforts may work in the best interest of students by providing rigidity and structure, thereby amplifying student performance.

*Implications and Future Research*

 The current study was novel in its key findings, adding another component to literature on negative community experiences and academic outcomes. For instance, the present study shared similar findings with previous studies suggesting that students who report high instances of negative community experiences and perceived discrimination report lower academic achievement outcomes that students who have lesser negative experiences (Neblett et al., 2006; Neblett et al., 2009; Smalls et al., 2007) and that ASE has been shown to correlate with increased performance in Black students (Chavous et al., 2008; Cokley et al., 2012; Rowley, 1996; Witherspoon et al., 1997). To extend those findings, the present study shows that for students who report high academic self-esteem, extraneous factors in the environment do not hold as much barring on student performance. For Black students who identify as scholars, reports of positive teacher perceptions are negated. Factors previously found to be detrimental to student performance (e.g., negative community experiences) may even boost the performance of students who have high academic self-esteem. These findings hold implications for parents, teachers, school-based stakeholders, and school psychologists who seek to enhance the academic performance of Black students. Specifically, by focusing on increasing the academic self-esteem of Black students, the identity of a scholar will buffer against outside factors in the student’s environment.

 This is a subject area that should be examined further to better understand how a strong academic identity may minimize the harmful effects of negative environments and serve to promote academic achievement and college attendance. Future research should examine factors that promote academic self-esteem development and programming that can be successfully implemented in the school and home context. In developing ASE, successful programming may be able to reel students back into school who have previously turned off school as a place where they see themselves belonging. This is especially pertinent for older adolescent boys, who in our study were exceptionally vulnerable to negative community experiences when ASE was low. Additionally, teachers may be better able to facilitate the success of Black boys and girls who come into schools with negative experiences in their communities if they are knowledgeable about contextual factors in the community. To better understand the community experiences of students it is of critical importance to informing teachers about neighborhood experiences through school and community partnerships. Teachers who are more understanding of community culture h

 Furthermore, due to age, grade level, and sex differences found in the study, future research should consider examining the longitudinal data of students to better understand how the factors play out overtime. The youth experiences measure assessing community experiences was adapted from the Black Males Experiences Measure and . The nature of it’s content is more guided toward experiences that It is possible that cohort effects were in play and may better to speak to the difference in the relationship between achievement and age.

**Conclusion**

Although the study has limitations, there are significant take home messages. In sum, the findings expand the knowledge base as it pertains to the academic achievement in Black adolescents. The study’s findings outline the importance academic self-esteem, demonstrating that in the presence of negative community experiences, high academic self-esteem can be a contributor to resilience and foster greater achievement in Black youth. Findings have implications for Black student outcomes, especially in those who are raised in the presence of negative community settings. In alignment with a PVEST perspective, adolescents cannot help where they grow up, but results from the study lean towards resilience pathways based on the adolescent’s identity as a scholar.

The study also outlines gender differences as Black boys appear to be more vulnerable to negative community experiences. Despite reporting more encounters with neighborhood-based discrimination, Black boys appear to benefit academically when negative experiences are coupled with a high academic self-esteem. The highest achievement in our sample was reported by students with high academic self-esteem who also reported higher instances of negative community experiences. These findings may be pertinent for parents, teachers, school-based stakeholders, and school psychologists of urban Black youth who seek to boost the academic performance of Black students. Specifically, by focusing on factors that increase the academic self-esteem of Black students, the identity of a scholar will buffer against outside factors in the student’s environment.

Future research should examine the importance of the school context and academic self-esteem as it relates to lifelong learning. Participants in the present sample were Black adolescents in high-school settings (9th-12th grade); therefore future studies should seek to gain qualitative perspectives of students (particularly successful students with high instances of negative community experiences) to better the phenomenon and resilience factors. To gain an accurate depiction of when academic self-esteem begins to impact achievement outcomes, earlier educational experiences must be considered. For example, students who reported lower ASE may have turned off school as a place for self-esteem due to earlier negative experiences in the school context. To combat this, implications may include school initiatives in early education to establish academic self-esteem. Action research may also evaluate interventions for students in later stages of their education aimed at reengaging students in the school process and late development of academic self-esteem. Most teachers want the best for their students, but they may not know how to engage students who have legacy of bad experiences. The current results indicate that students who see themselves as scholars can make meaning of their school and community experiences and use achievement as a way forward. The present study highlights resilience in students growing up in high-risk community and identifies ASE is a key factor in promoting academic outcomes.

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Table of Appendices

Appendix A – Correlation and descriptive Tables

Appendix B – Regression Tables that are Statistically Significant

Appendix C - Regression Tables that are not Statistically Significant

Appendix D - Figures

Appendix E – Measures used in the study

Appendix A – Correlation and descriptive Tables

List of Tables

1. Descriptive Statistics
2. Zero-Order Correlations
3. Zero-Order Correlations (Boys)
4. Zero-Order Correlations (Feboys)

Table 1A. Descriptive Statistics

|  |
| --- |
| Table 1A. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sample of African American Teens (N=368)*  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|   | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD |
| Age | 13.00 | 19.00 | 15.93 | 1.56 |
| Sex | 0.00 | 1.00 | .69 | .46 |
| Academic Future Expectations | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.35 | .72 |
| Self-Reported Grades | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.88 | .71 |
| Negative Community Experiences | 1.00 | 5.00 | 1.70 | .60 |
| Positive Community Experiences | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.85 | .76 |
| Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.08 | .53 |
| Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs | 1.00 | 5.00 | 3.76 | .62 |
| Academic Self-Esteem | 1.00 | 5.00 | 3.31 | .44 |

Table 2A. Zero order correlations

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Measure  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 1. Age | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Grade level | .889\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. Sex | -.156\*\* | -.139\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4.NegComEx | .015 | -.001 | -.244\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5.PosComEx | -.067 | -.020 | .086 | .126\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. PosTeach | -.009 | -.040 | .014 | .186\*\*\* | -.186\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 7. NegTeach | -.131\* | -.118\* | .223\*\*\* | -.287\*\*\* | .115\* | -.523\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |
| 8. ASE | -. 223\*\*\* | -.170\*\* | .029 | -.231\*\*\* | .240\*\*\* | .483\*\*\* | .457\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |
| 9. AFE | -.076 | -.037 | .113\* | -.093 | .165\*\* | .276\*\*\* | .164\*\* | .264\*\*\* | 1 |  |
| 10. GPA | -.250\*\*\* | -.175\*\*\* | .223\*\*\* | -.155\*\* | .169\*\*\* | -.376\*\*\* | -.404\*\*\* | .530\*\*\* | .276\*\*\* | 1 |
|  *+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*  |

***Note:*** *NegComEx = Negative Community Experiences
PosComEx = Positive Community Experiences
PosTeacher = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs
NegTeacher = Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs*

*ASE = Academic Self-Esteem*

*AFE = Academic Future Expectations
GPA = Grade Point Average*

Table 3A. Zero order correlations (Boys)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Measure  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |  |
| 1. Age | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Grade level | .889\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3.NegComEx | .006 | .016 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4.PosComEx | .010 | .095 | .330\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. PosTeach | -.091 | -.117 | .172 | -.096\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. NegTeach | -.125 | -.101 | -.291\*\* | .066 | -.556\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 7. ASE | -.197\* | -.183+ | -.189\*\* | .241\* | -.565\*\*\* | .544\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |
| 8. AFE | -.023 | .027 | -.104 | .151 | -.363\*\*\* | .236\*\* | .373\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |
| 9. GPA | -.235\*\* | -.146 | -.081 | .084 | -.355\*\*\* | .418\*\*\* | .554\*\*\* | .343\*\*\* | 1 |  |
|  *+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*  |

***Note:*** *NegComEx = Negative Community Experiences
PosComEx = Positive Community Experiences
PosTeacher = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs
NegTeacher = Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs*

*ASE = Academic Self-Esteem*

*AFE = Academic Future Expectations
GPA = Grade Point Average*

Table 4A. Zero order correlations (Feboys)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Measure  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |  |
| 1. Age | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Grade level | .887\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3.NegComEx | -.035 | -.049 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4.PosComEx | -.080 | -.047 | .042 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. PosTeach | .033 | .002 | .201\*\*\* | -.210\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. NegTeach | -.100 | -.098 | -.208\*\*\* | .128\* | -.522\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 7. ASE | -.232\*\*\* | -.163\*\* | -.252\*\*\* | .235\*\*\* | -.447\*\*\* | .430\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |  |
| 8. AFE | -.075 | -.043 | -.058 | .167\*\* | -.241\*\*\* | .092 | .227\*\*\* | 1 |  |  |
| 9. GPA | -.216\*\*\* | -.150\* | -.110 | .194\*\* | -.421\*\*\* | .356\*\*\* | .535\*\*\* | .225\*\*\* | 1 |  |
|  *+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*  |

***Note:*** *NegComEx = Negative Community Experiences
PosComEx = Positive Community Experiences
PosTeacher = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs
NegTeacher = Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs*

*ASE = Academic Self-Esteem*

*AFE = Academic Future Expectations
GPA = Grade Point Average*

Appendix B – Regression Tables that are Statistically Significant

List of Tables

1. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Teachers on Grade Point Averages
2. A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement
3. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for Boys
4. A Three-Way Interaction of Age x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement
5. A Two Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Negative on Achievement for Students in 11th and 12th Grade.

Table 1B. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Teachers on Grade Point Averages*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* | *ΔR²* | *F* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   | .09 | 17.49\*\*\* |
|  Sex | -.10 | .02 | -.22\*\*\* |  |  |
|  ASE | .29 | .08 | .19\*\*\* |  |  |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  | .36 | 50.98\*\*\* |
| Age | -.06 | .02 | -.13\*\* |  |  |
| Sex | .29 | .07 | .19\*\*\* |  |  |
| Positive Teacher | -.25 | .07 | -.20\*\*\* |  |  |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .66 | .08 | .41\*\*\* |  |  |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  | .37 | 41.65\*\*\* |
|  ASExPosTeacher | .18 | .11 | .07+ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeacher = Positive perceptions of teacher beliefs

Table 2B. *A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* | *ΔR²* | *F* |  |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   | .33 | 57.66\*\*\* |  |
|  Sex | 1.82 | .39 | .21\*\*\* |  |  |  |
|  ASE | 4.90 | .41 | .53\*\*\* |  |  |  |
|  NegComExp | .13 | .31 | .02 |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  | .32 | 28.86\*\*\* |  |
| Sex | 1.82 | .40 | .21\*\*\* |  |  |  |
| ASE | 4.96 | .74 | .54\*\*\* |  |  |  |
| NegComExp | .05 | .48 | .01 |  |  |  |
| Sex x ASE | -.07 | .90 | -.01\* |  |  |  |
| ASE x NegComExp | -.65 | .71 | .04 |  |  |  |
| NegComExp x Sex | .25 | .63 | .03 |  |  |  |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  | .33 | 25.95\*\*\* |  |
| Sex x ASE x NegComExp | -3.60 | 1.46 | -.18\* |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experiences

Table 3B. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for Boys*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* | *ΔR²* | *F* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   | .33 | 26.85\*\*\* |
|  ASE | 5.08 | .71 | .58\*\*\* |  |  |
|  NegComExp | .00 | .46 | .00 |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  | .35 | 21.22\*\*\* |
| ASE | 4.56 | .71 | .52\*\*\* |  |  |
| NegComExp | .22 | .46 | .04 |  |  |
| ASExNegComExp | 2.92 | 1.11 | .22\*\* |  |  |
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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experience

Table 4B. *A Three-Way Interaction of Age x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* | *ΔR²* | *F* |  |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   | .29 | 48.96\*\*\* |  |
|  Age | -.64 | .38 | -.08+ |  |  |  |
|  ASE | 4.71 | .43 | .51\*\*\* |  |  |  |
|  NegComExp | -.23 | .31 | -.03 |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  | .28 | 24.68\*\*\* |  |
| Age | -.69 | .29 | -.08+ |  |  |  |
| ASE | 3.69 | 4.65 | .40 |  |  |  |
| NegComExp | 2.54 | 3.30 | .37 |  |  |  |
| Age x ASE | .07 | .29 | .11 |  |  |  |
| ASE x NegComExp | .49 | .73 | .03 |  |  |  |
| NegComExp x Age | -.17 | .21 | -.40 |  |  |  |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  | .29 | 22.28\*\*\* |  |
| Age x ASE x NegComExp | 1.18 | .49 | 1.19\* |  |  |  |
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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experiences

Table 5B. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for 11th and 12th Graders*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* | *ΔR²* | *F* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   | .23 | 31.58\*\*\* |
|  ASE | 4.63 | .61 | .47\*\*\* |  |  |
|  NegComExp | -.52 | .41 | -.08 |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  | .24 | 22.68\*\*\* |
| ASE | 4.74 | .61 | .48\*\*\* |
| NegComExp | -.17 | .44 | -.03 |
| ASExNegComExp | 2.37 | 1.19 | .13\* |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experience

Appendix C - Regression Tables that are not Statistically Significant

List of Tables

1. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Academic Future Expectations
2. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Academic Future Expectations
3. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Teachers on Academic Future Expectations
4. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Teachers on Academic Future Expectations
5. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Teachers on Grade Point Averages
6. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Grade Point Averages
7. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Grade Point Averages
8. A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Positive Community Experiences x Sex on Achievement
9. A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs x Sex on Achievement
10. A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs x Sex on Achievement
11. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Boys
12. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Feboys
13. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Boys
14. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Feboys
15. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Achievement for Boys
16. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Achievement for Feboys
17. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for Feboys
18. A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Age x Positive Community Experiences on Achievement
19. A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Age x Positive Teachers on Achievement

Appendix C - Regression Tables that are not Statistically Significant

1. A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Age x Negative Teachers on Achievement
2. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for Students in the 9th and 10th grade

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| Table 1C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Academic Future Expectations* |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.03 | .02 | -.06 |
|  Sex | .16 | .08 | .10\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | .00 | .02 | .00 |
| Sex | .16 | .08 | .10\* |
| Negative Community Experiences | -.02 | .06 | -.01 |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .44 | .09 | .27\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASE×NegComExp | .10 | .14 | .04 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative community experiences

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| Table 2C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Academic Future Expectations*  |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.03 | .02 | -.06 |
|  Sex | .16 | .08 | .10\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | .00 | .02 | .00 |
| Sex | .15 | .08 | .10+ |
| Positive Community Experiences | .10 | .05 | .11\* |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .40 | .09 | .25\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASExPosComExp | -.08 | .10 | -.04 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosComExp = Positive community experiences

|  |
| --- |
| Table 3C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Teachers on Academic Future Expectations* |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.03 | .02 | -.06 |
|  Sex | .16 | .08 | .10\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | .00 | .02 | .00 |
| Sex | .16 | .08 | .10+ |
| Negative Teacher | .02 | .07 | .02 |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .43 | .10 | .26\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASExNegTeacher | -.08 | .12 | -.04 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegTeacher = Negative perceptions of teacher beliefs

|  |
| --- |
| Table 4C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Teachers on Academic Future Expectations* |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.03 | .02 | -.06 |
|  Sex | .16 | .08 | .10\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | -.01 | .02 | -.02 |
| Sex | .16 | .08 | .10\* |
| Positive Teacher | -.26 | .08 | -.20\*\*\* |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .43 | .10 | .26\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASExPosTeacher | .14 | .13 | .06 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeacher = Positive perceptions of teacher beliefs

Table 5C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Teachers on Grade Point Averages*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.10 | .02 | -.22\*\*\* |
|  Sex | .29 | .08 | .19\*\*\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | -.05 | .02 | -.11\* |
| Sex | .24 | .07 | .16\*\*\* |
| Negative Teacher | .18 | .06 | .16\*\* |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .70 | .08 | .43\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASExNegTeacher | -.13 | .10 | -.06 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegTeacher = Negative perceptions of teacher beliefs

Table 6C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Grade Point Averages*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.10 | .02 | -.22\*\*\* |
|  Sex | .29 | .08 | .19\*\*\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | -.05 | .02 | -.10\* |
| Sex | .30 | .07 | .20\*\*\* |
| Negative Community Experiences | .02 | .05 | .02 |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .66 | .08 | .51\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASExNegComExp | .13 | .12 | .05 |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative community experiences

Table 7C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Grade Point Averages*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.10 | .02 | -.22\*\*\* |
|  Sex | .29 | .08 | .19\*\*\* |
| Step 2 (independent variables) |  |  |  |
| Age | -.05 | .02 | -.10\* |
| Sex | .30 | .07 | .20\*\*\* |
| Positive Community Experiences | .03 | .04 | .03 |
| Academic Self-Esteem | .81 | .07 | .50\*\*\* |
| Step 3 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  ASExPosComExp | -.06 | .09 | -.03 |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosComExp = Positive community experiences

Table 8C. *A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Academic Self-Esteem x Positive Community Experiences on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   |
|  Sex | 1.73 | .38 | .20\*\*\* |
|  ASE | 4.69 | .41 | .51\*\*\* |
|  PosComExp | .41 | .24 | .08+ |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| Sex | 1.76 | .38 | .20\*\*\* |
| ASE | 5.11 | .74 | .55\*\*\* |
| PosComExp | -.07 | .42 | -.01 |
| Sex x ASE | -.61 | .90 | -.06 |
| ASE x PosComExp | .05 | .51 | .00 |
| PosComExp x Sex | .71 | .51 | .11 |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  Sex x ASE x PosComExp | -1.02 | 1.06 | -.07 |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosComExp = Positive Community Experience

Table 9C. *A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Academic Self-Esteem x Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   |
|  Sex | 1.77 | .37 | .20\*\*\* |
|  ASE | 3.87 | .45 | .42\*\*\* |
|  PosTeacher | -1.68 | .37 | -.22\*\*\* |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| Sex | 1.75 | .37 | .20\*\*\* |
| ASE | 4.32 | .84 | .47\*\*\* |
| PosTeacher | -.89 | .65 | -.12 |
| Sex x ASE | -.61 | .99 | -.05 |
| ASE x PosTeacher | .57 | .62 | .04 |
| PosTeacher x Sex | -1.14 | .79 | -.12 |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  Sex x ASE x PosTeacher | .30 | 1.25 | .02 |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeacher = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 10C. *A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   |
|  Sex | 1.53 | .39 | .18\*\*\* |
|  ASE | 4.30 | .45 | .47\*\*\* |
|  NegTeacher | .86 | .32 | .13\*\* |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| Sex | 1.52 | .39 | .17\*\*\* |
| ASE | 4.26 | .86 | .46\*\*\* |
| NegTeacher | .80 | .53 | .12 |
| Sex x ASE | .05 | 1.03 | .01 |
| ASE x NegTeacher | -.34 | .60 | -.03 |
| NegTeacher x Sex | .06 | .67 | .01 |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  Sex x ASE x NegTeacher | 1.18 | 1.20 | .06 |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegTeacher = Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 11C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Boys*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 4.36 | .82 | .49\*\*\* |
|  NegTeacher | .82 | .51 | .15 |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 4.10 | .85 | .46\*\*\* |
| NegTeacher | .76 | .51 | .14 |
| ASExNegTeacher | -.94 | .83 | -.10 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegTeacher = Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 12C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs for Feboys*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 4.28 | .54 | .47\*\*\* |
| NegTeacher | .88 | .42 | .12\* |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 4.25 | .55 | .47\*\*\* |
| NegTeacher | .90 | .43 | .13\* |
| ASExNegTeacher | .24 | .85 | .02 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegTeacher = Negative Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 13C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Boys*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 4.37 | .83 | .50\*\*\* |
|  PosTeacher | -.95 | .64 | -.14 |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 4.33 | .84 | .49\*\*\* |
| PosTeacher | -.91 | .65 | -.13 |
| ASExPosTeacher | .41 | .88 | .04 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeacher = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 14C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs on Achievement for Feboys*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 3.70 | .53 | .41\*\*\* |
|  PosTeacher | -2.03 | .45 | -.26\*\*\* |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 3.71 | .53 | .41\*\*\* |
| PosTeacher | -2.03 | .45 | -.26\*\*\* |
| ASExPosTeacher | .71 | .88 | .04 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeacher = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 15C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Community Experiences on Achievement for Boys*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 5.10 | .71 | .58\*\*\* |
|  PosComExp | -.07 | .41 | -.01 |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 5.20 | .72 | .59\*\*\* |
| PosComExp | -.09 | .41 | -.02 |
| ASExPosComExp | .69 | .82 | .07 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosComExp = Positive Community Experiences

Table 17C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for Feboys*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 4.83 | .51 | .53\*\*\* |
|  NegComExp | .23 | .42 | .03 |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 4.78 | .51 | .53\*\*\* |
| NegComExp | .16 | .43 | .02 |
| ASExNegComExp | -.68 | .90 | -.04 |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experiences

Table 18C *A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Age x Positive Community Experiences on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.67 | .37 | -.08+ |
|  ASE | 4.55 | .43 | .49\*\*\* |
|  PosComExp | .52 | .24 | .10\* |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| Age x ASE | .15 | .30 | .25 |
| ASE x PosComExp | .10 | .59 | .01 |
| PosComExp x Age | .01 | .16 | .02 |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  Age x ASE x PosComExp | .41 | .37 | .56 |
|  |  |  |  |

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*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosComExp = Positive Community Experience

Table 19C *A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Age x Positive Teachers on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.80 | .37 | -.08\* |
|  ASE | 3.70 | .47 | .40\*\*\* |
|  PosTeach | -1.76 | .38 | -.23\*\*\* |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| Age x ASE | .05 | .32 | .08 |
| ASE x PosTeach | .86 | .65 | .06 |
| PosTeach x Age | .27 | .25 | .57 |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  Age x ASE x PosTeach | .65 | .42 | .74 |
|  |  |  |  |

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeach = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 20C *A Three-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Age x Negative Teachers on Achievement*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *β* |
| Step 1 (independent variables/moderator) |   |   |   |
|  Age | -.60 | .37 | -.07 |
|  ASE | 4.02 | .46 | .44\*\*\* |
|  NegTeach | 1.15 | .32 | .18\*\*\* |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| Age x ASE | -.10 | .32 | -.17 |
| ASE x NegTeach | -.50 | .61 | -.04 |
| NegTeach x Age | .01 | .21 | .02 |
| Step 3 (three-way interactions) |  |  |  |
|  Age x ASE x NegTeach | -.61 | .39 | -.77 |
|  |  |  |  |

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note:

ASE = Academic self-esteem; PosTeach = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Table 21C. *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Negative Community Experiences on Achievement for Students in 9th and 10th grade*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Step* | *B* | *SE B* | *Β* |
| Step 1 (control variables) |   |   |   |
|  ASE | 5.01 | .61 | .58\*\*\* |
|  NegComExp | .23 | .49 | .03 |
|  |  |  |  |
| Step 2 (two-way interactions) |  |  |  |
| ASE | 5.08 | .61 | .58\*\*\* |
| NegComExp | .24 | .49 | .03 |
| ASExNegComExp | -.72 | .91 | -.05 |

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experiences

Appendix D - Figures

List of Figures

1. Conceptual Model
2. A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Teachers on Grade Point Averages
3. A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement
4. A Three-Way Interaction of Age x Academic Self-Esteem x Negative Community Experiences on Achievement
5. A Two Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem x Negative on Achievement for Students in 11th and 12th Grade.

Figure 1D. Conceptual Model

Figure 2D *A Two-Way Interaction of Academic Self-Esteem × Positive Teachers on Grade Point Averages*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; Positive Teacher Perceptions = Positive Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs

Figure 3D *A Three-Way Interaction of Sex x Negative Community Experiences x Academic Self-Esteem on Achievement (boys and feboys)*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComm = Negative Community Experiences

Figure 4D *A Three-Way Interaction of Age x Negative Community Experiences x Academic Self-Esteem on Achievement*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experiences

*+= p=< .10 \*= p < .05 \*\* = p < .01 \*\*\* = p < .001*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Slope difference tests:** |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| **Pair of slopes** | **t-value for slope difference** | **p-value for slope difference** |
| (1) and (2) | 2.110 | 0.036\* |
| (1) and (3) | #NUM! | #NUM! |
| (1) and (4) | 0.692 | 0.490 |
| (2) and (3) | 0.552 | 0.581 |
| (2) and (4) | -0.241 | 0.810 |
| (3) and (4) | -2.046 | 0.042\* |

Figure 5D *A Two-Way Interaction of Negative Community Experiences x Academic Self-Esteem on Achievement for 11th and 12th graders.*

Note: ASE = Academic self-esteem; NegComExp = Negative Community Experiences

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | Gradient of slope for Low ASE | **-0.516** |
|  |  | t-value of slope for Low ASE | **-1.270** |
|  |  | p-value of slope for Low ASE | **0.205** |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Gradient of slope for High ASE | **1.854** |
|  |  | t-value of slope for High ASE | **1.313** |
|  |  | p-value of slope for High ASE | **0.191** |

Appendix E – Measures used in the study

List of Measures

1. Descriptive Information: Age, Grade, Sex, Race,
2. Academic Future Expectations
3. Abbott Adjective Checklist - Teacher Perceptions
4. Self-Reported Grades
5. Hare Self Esteem Measure (Academic Self-Esteem)
6. Youth Experiences Measure

Appendix E1:

Descriptive Information

1. How old are you?

⬜ 13

⬜ 14

⬜ 15

⬜ 16

⬜ 17

⬜ 18

⬜ 19 or older

1. What is your grade in school?

⬜ 9th ⬜ 11th

⬜ 10th ⬜ 12th

1. What is your sex?

⬜ Male ⬜ Female

1. How would you describe yourself? Check all that apply:

⬜ American Indian

⬜ Asian (specify): \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

⬜ Black or African American

⬜ Hispanic (specify): \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

⬜ White

⬜ Pacific Islander

1. How do others generally describe you? Check all that apply:

⬜ American Indian

⬜ Asian (specify): \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

⬜ Black or African American

⬜ Hispanic (specify): \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

⬜ White

⬜ Pacific Islander

Appendix E2

Academic Future Expectations

1. **How long do you think you will go to school?**

⬜ I would like to quit school as soon as I can.

⬜ I plan to finish high school but don’t think I will go to college.

⬜ I’d like to go to some kind of trade school or vocational school after high school.

⬜ I’d like to go to college after high school.

⬜ I’d like to go to college **and** then go onto graduate or professional school.

Appendix E3

Teacher Perceptions (Abbott Adjective Checklist)

**For the following questions, think about how much you agree with each of the following statements.**

Likert Response Scale is as follows: (1) Strongly Agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neutral; (4) Disagree (5) Strongly Disagree

* + - 1. Teachers think I am a good thinker
			2. Teachers think I am kind.
			3. Teachers think I am helpful
			4. Teachers think I am a good student
			5. Teachers think I am smart
			6. Teachers think I am a leader
			7. Teacher think I make a lot of mistakes. \*
			8. Teachers think I am bad. \*
			9. Teachers think I am a waste of time.\*
			10. Teachers think I do not want to study.\*
			11. Teachers think I bother other people.\*
			12. Teachers think I am lazy\*
			13. Teachers think I am a hard worker.
			14. Teachers think that I am neat.
			15. Teachers think I get along with others.
			16. Teachers think I am happy
			17. Teachers think I use a lot of good sense
			18. Teachers think I am a good sport.
			19. Teachers think I am silly.\*
			20. Teachers think I am a sloppy worker.\*
			21. Teachers think I am a daydreamer.\*
			22. Teachers think I do not want to learn.\*
			23. Teachers think I am not happy.\*
			24. Teachers think I show concern for others
			25. Teachers think I count on myself
			26. Teachers think I like other people
			27. Teachers think I use good manners
			28. Teachers think I share my things
			29. Teachers think I forget a lot\*
			30. Teachers think I am not ready to learn\*
			31. Teachers think I am afraid\*
			32. Teachers think I am loud\*
			33. Teachers think I am nervous. \*

Appendix E4

Self-Reported Grades

1. **What kind of grades do you earn in school?**

⬜ Mostly A

⬜ About half A and half B

⬜ Mostly B

⬜ About half B and C

⬜ Mostly C

⬜ About half C and half D

⬜ Mostly D

⬜ Mostly below D

Appendix E5

The HARE Area-Specific (School) Self-Esteem Scale

**76. The following sentences are designed to find out how you generally feel when you are with other people your age. There are no right or wrong answers. For each sentence indicate if you Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, or if you Strongly Agree. Remember there are no right or wrong answers. Please read the sentences carefully and indicate how you feel.**

Likert Response Scale is as follows: (1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Neutral; (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

28. My teachers expect too much of me\*

29. I am more curious than most people

30. In the kinds of things we do in school, I am at least as good as other people in my classes.

31. I often feel worthless in school.\*

32. I am usually proud of my report card.

34. School is harder for me than for most other people.\*

35. My teachers are usually happy with the kind of work I do.

36. Most of my teachers do NOT understand me.\*

38. I am an important person in my classes

39. It seems that no matter how hard I try, I never get the grades I deserve.\*

40. All and all, I feel I’ve been very fortunate to have had the kinds of teachers I’ve had since I started school.

Appendix E6

This set of questions asks your opinion about your own experiences of youth in public places (or others that you know who are your age).

Mark **NEVER** if the event did not happen, ALMOST NEVER if the event happened 1-3 times, SOMETIMES if the event happened 4-6 times, ALMOST ALWAYS if the event happened 7-9 times, or ALWAYS if the event happened 10 or more times

* + - 1. When you are hanging out (like in a park, playground, street corner, etc.), how often do police/security guards ask you what you are doings?
			2. How often do people you don’t know think you are doing something wrong? (like selling drugs, preparing to rob somebody, preparing to steal something?)
			3. How often do teacher think you are doing something wrong?
			4. How often do school administrator think you are doing something wrong
			5. How often do neighbors think you are doing something wrong?
			6. How often do sales people think you are doing something wrong?
			7. How often do police think you are doing something wrong?
			8. How often do people in the street think you are doing something wrong?
			9. How often do “White Americans” think you are doing something wrong?
			10. How often do “Black Americans” think you are doing something wrong?
			11. How often are these experiences reported by other youth?
			12. How often are these experiences reported by youth not in your racial group?
			13. How often are these experiences reported by your girls friends?
			14. How often are these experiences reported by your male friends?
			15. How often do the police stop you, or the person you are riding with, for minor driving offenses (like not using turn signals, not coming to a complete stop, etc.)?
			16. How often are you harassed by police (physically and or/abusive language)?
			17. Have you been stopped while driving, walking or riding in a White neighborhood?
			18. Have you been stopped while driving, walking or riding in a Black neighborhood.
			19. Do people tend to lock their car doors when you pass?
			20. Do people go out of their way to speak when you pass? \*
			21. How often do people that you don’t know smile when you approach them?\*
			22. How often do people that you don’t know speak or greet you as you approach them?\*
1. Do you receive “hate states” from men outside your racial group?
2. Do you receive “fear stares” from women outside your racial group?
3. Do you receive “fear stares” from women who are members of your racial group?
4. Have you ever been rejected from a job due to your appearance?
5. Do sales people tend to ignore you when entering a store?
6. Do sales people tend to follow you when entering a store?
7. Do you generally feel welcome when you walk into a place of business?\*
8. Are sales people courteous to you when shopping in a store?\*
9. Do people outside your racial group ask you questions as if you are an expert on ALL issues concerning your race?
10. Do professional men or women of different racial backgrounds talk to you about career options?\*
11. Do professional men or women of your own racial groups talk to you about career options\*
12. Do you ever feel “INVISIBLE” when you walk into a group made up mainly of people from other racial groups?