AFRICAN AMERICAN AND AFRO-CARIBBEAN STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF SUPPORTIVE, RESTORATIVE AND EQUITABLE SCHOOL CLIMATES

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Abstract

The current study examined the degree to which first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students, relative to African American students, experienced a supportive, restorative, and equitable climate in their high school. Prior school climate research has neglected to consider the experience of Afro-Caribbean students. The current study addressed this understudied area of research and also considered whether Afro-Caribbean students' perceptions of school climate varied by immigrant status. The study's participants included 193 students who were enrolled in ninth through twelfth grade at an urban high school in the Northeastern region of the U.S. On surveys, students reported on their perceptions of adult support, restorative practices (RP), and racial and ethnic fair treatment. It was anticipated that Afro-Caribbean students (n = 96) would have more positive reports of supportive, restorative, and equitable treatment relative to their African American peers (n = 97) when accounting for parental educational attainment. It was also anticipated that first generation Afro-Caribbean students (n = 42) would have more positive perceptions of supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate when compared to second-generation Afro-Caribbean students (n = 54). Contrary to the hypotheses, results from multiple regression analyses showed that there were no significant differences between perceived school climate across scales between Afro-Caribbean and African American students. While there were no significant differences across groups on the aforementioned scales, it is noteworthy that Afro-Caribbean student responses on perceptions of support and RP use, on average, trended in a higher direction than African American students. In addition, regression results showed that there were no significant differences across generation status. The findings suggest that, in the participating one school, there were no microclimates for Afro-Caribbean and African American students. Moreover, in general, school climate perceptions were relatively positive. This suggests

the school climate was experienced similarly positive across racial/ethnic groups and first and second-generation immigrants.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

INTRODUCTION……...……... 1

School Climate……..……..…… 1

School Climate Defined……....……..……1

School Climate and Academic Outcomes……..……..……... …2

Race and Ethnicity Defined…...……...…….....3

School Climate and Race and Ethnicity……...……..4

Multidimensional Nature of School Climate…….…….....6

Authoritative School Climate…….…….....6

Supportive School Climate…….……10

Restorative School Climate……12

Microclimates and discipline disproportionality……..12

Reintegrative Theory……...…….……14

Equitable School Climate……...16

Afro-Caribbean Students' Immigration Status…….……18

Afro-Caribbean Culture and Family Values…….……18

Acculturation and Integration of Values…….20

Summary……..……..…….22

THE CURRENT STUDY…..…..…….23

Method.……. 24

Participants…… 24

Procedures……...……. 25

Measures…… 26

Data Analysis Plan……28

Results……30

Descriptive Statistics……30

Correlations……32

Testing differences in perceived school climate……33

Comparisons between Afro-Caribbean and African American groups…33

Comparisons between first and second generation……33

Multiple Regression……34

Afro-Caribbean and perceived support……34

Afro-Caribbean and RP use……35

Afro-Caribbean and racial and ethnic fair treatment……35

First generation and perceived support……36

First generation and RP use……37

First generation and racial and ethnic fair treatment……37

Discussion……38

Do race/ethnicity and immigration status matter for perceived school climate? 39

Identity Development……41

Perceptions of groups within school……41

Restorative Justice……42

Positive School Climate……43

Limitations and Future Implications……45

Conclusions and Implication for Practice……48

REFERENCES……..... 52

APPENDICES……..…. 61

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

1. Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Support……..……..31
2. Descriptive Analysis of Perceived RP Use…….……..…….31
3. Descriptive Analysis of Racial and Ethnic Fair Treatment…….……..…32
4. Correlations among dependent and independent variables…….…….……..33
5. Comparing Afro-Caribbean and African American students' perceived school climate……34
6. Comparing first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean student perceived school climate……34
7. Multiple regression analyses of race predicting perceived school climate…….…….……..36
8. Multiple regression analyses of race predicting perceived school climate……..…….38

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1. Dimensions of School Climate……10

Introduction

Over the last decade, research on school climate has increased (e.g., Thapa et al., 2013) and states and districts have begun collecting school climate data on an annual basis (e.g., The New York City Department of Education, 2018). Often, educators examine results aggregated across the schools, with less consideration for the potential divergence in perspectives among racial and ethnic groups within the same schools. This study addressed that we know little about the intersectionality of race and ethnicity for Afro-Caribbean adolescents. It explored the extent to which African American and Afro-Caribbean students' perceptions of school climate differed. The current study speculated that ethnic and racial factors may be associated with student perceptions of support, procedural justice, and fair treatment. At this stage, little is known about first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean experiences, however what we do know is that values can shift across generations (Berry, 1970). First and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students may be attuned to aspects of support, fairness, and equity in the school climate, given they are potentially negotiating more "authoritarian" parenting styles in their homes. Yet, little is known about how they perceive the school climate relative to their African American peers. Thus, in its examination of student surveys in a single urban school, the current study addressed a gap in knowledge about Afro-Caribbean students' experience of school climate.

School Climate

School climate defined. According to the National School Climate Council (2007), school climate is comprised of patterns of people's experiences of school life and reflects norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning practices, and organizational structures (p.4). It is posited that climate shapes the quality of the interactions of all students, teachers, parents, and school personnel, and reflects the norms of the broader educational and

social mission of the school (National School Climate Council, 2007). Positive school climate has been defined in numerous ways, yet most definitions emphasize the shared norms and values of the school setting related to student and faculty social, emotional, and physical well-being (Cohen et al., 2009). In the last decade, improving school climate has been seen as a way to facilitate broader school reform efforts (Thapa et al., 2013).

School climate and academic outcomes. Cohen and Thapa's (2013) integrative review of 206 qualitative and quantitative studies have linked positive school climates to student outcomes. Implications are that positive school climate might promote students' abilities to learn. Emerging research posits that positive school climates might be associated with students' motivation to learn (Eccles et al., 1993) and decreased incidents of aggression and violence (Gregory et al., 2010; Karcher, 2002). In addition to academic outcomes, studies also indicate that a positive school climate, particularly student perceptions of support, promotes healthy individual and interpersonal development of the self (Thapa et al., 2013).

Research shows that schools where students perceive structure, fair discipline practices, and positive teacher-student relationships are associated with high academic outcomes (Thapa et al., 2013). Corroborating findings from Thapa et al. (2013) and integrating even more studies, Wang and Degol's (2016) review of 297 empirical studies of school climate showed that positive school climate was linked with students' academic, behavioral, and psychological outcomes. They conclude that there is ample evidence that feelings of safety, warm teacher-student relationships, frequent communication between parents and schools, and appreciation for diversity linked to a better academic environment and optimal foundation for social, emotional, and academic learning for middle school and high school students.

Race and ethnicity defined. The concepts of race and ethnicity are social constructs that are used in the process of categorization, grouping, and self-identifying. Ethnicity is based on common ancestral, cultural, national, and social affiliations and experiences (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993). Additionally, Berry (1985) identified that ethnicity is closely interrelated with and influenced by the macro level processes, norms, and values that determine behaviors and interactions of a group of people. Race refers to the identification of people into groups based on a social construct (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993). Moreover, racial groups are used to categorize people drawing on the assumption of shared genetic heritage based on phenotypical features (e.g., skin color, facial features; Betancourt & Lopez, 1993).

Researchers in the social sciences have raised concern regarding racial classification being based on arbitrary biological and phenotypical differences (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993; Mukhopadhyay & Moses, 1997). As human beings, there is arguably more complexity in understanding grouping beyond concrete categories. Most research tends to overestimate the homogeneity within racial categories, while there have been distinct differences in physical features of members of the same racial category. Betancourt and Lopez (1993) found that individuals grouped in the racial category, for instance "Hispanic," could also be White, Black, Asian, American Indian, or any combination thereof. In this regard, researchers tend to use reductionist categories that oversimplify the lived experiences of individuals and miss the inclusion of mixed or multiple identities (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993; Zuckerman, 1990).

In a brief submitted through the National Association of School Psychologists (2017), Proctor, Williams, Scherr and Li argue that students were most authentically represented when addressing intersections of identities. Proctor et al. (2017) suggest school psychologists consider "intersectionality." The use of an intersectional lens in schools may help researchers and school

psychologists to understand students' lived and nuanced experiences. Prior research has shown that race and ethnicity (i.e., culture) explain how people think, behave, make decisions, and define events and experiences to a large degree (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993). In addition, other elements of students' identities are immigration statuses, cultural beliefs and values. To examine how multiple dimensions of students' identity are relevant in the increasingly diverse school-age population, it requires identifying the risk factors for potential discrimination that can lead to marginalized educational experiences (Proctor, Kyle, Fefer, & Lau, 2017). The current study considered race, ethnicity, and immigration status in its examination of Afro-Caribbean high school students.

School Climate and Race and Ethnicity. Thapa et al.'s (2013) systematic review of the literature has shown that race may be a factor in explaining the variation in perceptions of school climate. As evidenced by three studies on school climate, it has been shown that ethnic and/or racial minority students within the same school setting, particularly African American and Latinx students, experience higher levels of peer aggression, stereotyping, or poorer teacher-student relationships than White peers (Bottiani et al., 2016, Konold et al, 2017, Thapa et al., 2013). In a sample of 58 high schools consisting of 19,726 students (including only African American and White students), Bottiani et al. (2016) found that racial disparities were present in African American and White students' perceptions of caring, as measured by a scale assessing for school support. The disparities indicated that African American students perceived slightly lower caring relative to their White peers, even when accounting for maternal education as a proxy for poverty (Bottiani et al., 2016). In addition, corroborating findings from Bottiani et al., in a sample of 323 schools in Virginia, Konold et al. (2017) found that African American students when compared to White peers, experienced a school climate in which their teachers seemed less supportive but

more demanding of academic achievement. Konald et al.'s (2017) findings posit that African American students might be less responsive when they perceive teachers as more demanding and less supportive and fair. Thus, African American students' perceptions of teachers' high demandingness and low support might be contributing factors to the disproportionality of discipline (Gregory & Weinstein, 2008), as well as the achievement gap (Gregory & Ripski, 2008).

One study found that African American and Latinx students, on average, reported poorer safety and connectedness in schools relative to their peers (Voight et al., 2015). In a sample of 754 middle schools in California, Voight et al. (2015) found that African American and Latinx students varied across schools in their reports of negative perceptions of connectedness and safety relative to their White peers, as measured by a school climate scale. The study showed that racial school climate perception gaps (i.e., Latinx-White and Black-White) were positively linked with disparities in achievement. In other words, African American and Latinx students' higher negative perceptions of school safety and connectedness were associated with larger achievement gaps when compared to White peers (Voight et al., 2015).

Borrowing from environmental sciences, the notion of microclimates is that the distinctive climate of a small-scale area may differ from the larger context. This climate metaphor can be considered within the school context, wherein smaller climates (e.g., among ethnic or racial groups) may differ in perceptions of the overall school climate. For the most part, school climate research is lacking in the exploration of microclimate experiences within school populations beyond the African American and Latinx groups. This lack of research is particularly striking for Afro-Caribbean students. In research studies, Afro-Caribbean students tend to be either grouped within the African American ethnic category (Agyemang et al., 2005) or ignored

from the research sampling, thus it is important to gain insight and understanding of these students' experiences. Less research has examined how student perceptions of school climate can differ through the lens of the interplay of race, ethnicity, and immigration status. By broadening the scope of understanding Afro-Caribbean student perceptions, it may allow schools and researchers to have a more rounded and inclusive understanding of the characteristics of a positive school climate for this group of students (Schneider & Duran, 2010).

Multidimensional Nature of School Climate

One recurring problem in school climate research is that there has not been an established universal definition of the construct of "climate." The multidimensionality of school climate is represented in the research literature, indicating that researchers have used their discretion to focus on particular elements and conceptualizations of the term. Wang and Degol's (2016) review of school climate measurement posits that "school climate represents virtually every aspect of the school experience that impacts cognitive, behavioral, and psychological development" (p. 3). This broad definition of the term may result in variable interpretations of how the constructs are defined or measured. The National School Climate Center's conceptualization of school climate branches into five main domains (i.e., safety, teaching, learning, interpersonal relationships, and institutional environment), which are further broken down into subscales of 12 dimensions within the overarching groupings. The literature on authoritative theory posits a narrower definition of the construct that includes two key dimensions of school climate, which are disciplinary structure and student support (Cornell, 2015; Gregory et al., 2010; Gregory & Cornell, 2009).

Authoritative school climate. Gregory et al. (2009) introduced the conceptualization of authoritative school climate, derived from parenting research on authoritative disciplinary

practices (Gregory & Cornell, 2009). Existing research on authoritative parenting posits that adolescents respond optimally when provided with structure, in tandem with support and encouragement of their developmental need for autonomy and agency. Therefore, providing adolescents with the balance between structure and support provides students with a sense of feeling respected and cared about by peers and adults, coupled with having explicit, universal regulations that guide their behaviors. Gregory (2009) adopted this theory of adolescents' developmental needs as a framework beyond the context of parenting and applied it to the school climate. An authoritative school climate is characterized by school structure (i.e., strict but fair discipline) and school support (i.e., supportive teacher–student relationships; Gregory et al., 2009; Gregory et al., 2010; Shirley et al., 2012). In addition, studies exploring the authoritative approach found that structure and support were positively correlated with each other, indicating that they work with each other rather than as independent elements of school climate (Cornell et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2010).

Further, studies found that authoritative school climate has been associated with higher student engagement, course grades, and educational aspirations (Cornell et al., 2016). In accordance with authoritative discipline theory, Cornell et al. (2012) posits that students were most cooperative with school discipline when they experience school climate as authoritative (structured and supportive) rather than authoritarian (structured, but not supportive), permissive (unstructured, but supportive), or indifferent (neither structured nor supportive). The strongest and most consistent school climate findings were that student engagement was highest in schools with high disciplinary structure and student support (Cornel et al., 2012).

In a sample of 7,318 students across 290 of the 314 public schools in Virginia, Gregory et al. (2010) expand authoritative school climate research. The study found that students who felt a

sense of both structure and support (i.e., connection to peers and teachers in their schools) were associated with differences in student perceptions of bullying and victimization (Gregory et al., 2010). Specifically, higher perceptions of support and structure were associated with less student victimization and less bullying, and these findings held when accounting for school size, socioeconomic status, and racial/ethnic minorities (Gregory et al., 2010). Furthermore, Cornell et al. (2016) found that an authoritative school climate characterized by strict but fair discipline and supportive teacher–student relationships was associated with students' lower levels of alcohol and marijuana use, less bullying, fighting, weapon-carrying at school, less interest in gang membership, and lower rates of suicidal thoughts and behaviors, compared to schools with less of an authoritative school climate. Researchers have found that the outcomes associated with authoritative school climate held for racial groups, including African American and Latinx racial minority students when compared to their White peers (Cornell et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2012). These findings suggest that supportive and structured school climates are beneficial even when accounting for race and ethnicity (Cornell et al., 2016).

Critiquing Authoritative School Climate

The original conceptualization of authoritative school climate under emphasized student autonomy and voice (Cornell et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2012). In fact, it does not directly address the need for student leadership and decision-making despite Baumrind's (1991) theorizing these are integral to healthy adolescent development. Further, according to Baumrind (1991) authoritative parenting includes receptiveness to adolescents' individuality. In addition, other researchers have postulated adolescents' need for self-exploration and interaction (Erikson, 1950). The current study addresses the shortcomings of prior research on the components of authoritative school climate, with its inclusion of student perceptions of restorative practices—

central to which is student voice and decision-making. Furthermore, the prior research on authoritative school climate lacks a focus on issues of equity regarding racial and ethnic fair treatment within the school setting. Previous findings have shown that African American and Latinx students report more negative perceptions of school climate when compared to White peers (Bottiani et al., 2016). The current study incorporates student perceptions of positive racial climate, as a means of deepening the understanding of the fundamental concepts of authoritative theory (i.e., structure and support; Cornell et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2012).

Building on an authoritative theory that highlights structure and support, the current study uses these tenets as a framework to further unpack and define the dimensions of school climate. In the current study, school climate is conceptualized in three dimensions including: (1) supportive, (2) restorative, and (3) equitable school climates (See Figure 1). In accordance with authoritative school climate research, the supportive dimension refers to student perceptions that (a) their teachers treat them with respect and want them to be successful and (b) their sense of community among their peers. The current study integrates authoritative school climate's dimension of structure into a restorative dimension, which refers to student reports of restorative practice use, student voice, and perceptions of procedural justice in the school setting. The school was implementing Restorative Practices (RP), which aim to promote structure and accountability, and integrate fair student process, student leadership, and decision-making (Evans & Vaandering, 2016; Zehr, 2002). Procedural justice is an approach that aims for fair treatment and is based on four central principles including: treating people with dignity and respect, giving students 'voice' during encounters, being neutral in decision making, and conveying trustworthy motives (Tyler, 2006; Tyler & Huo, 2002).

The current study introduces an additional dimension to its conceptualization of school climate: student perceptions of equity (See Figure 1). Typically, equity is otherwise defined in research as the extent to which students, regardless of race, ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic status, receive the resources they need to succeed academically (National School Boards Association, 2012). However, the current study defines equity in terms of students' perceptions of positive racial climate in their school.

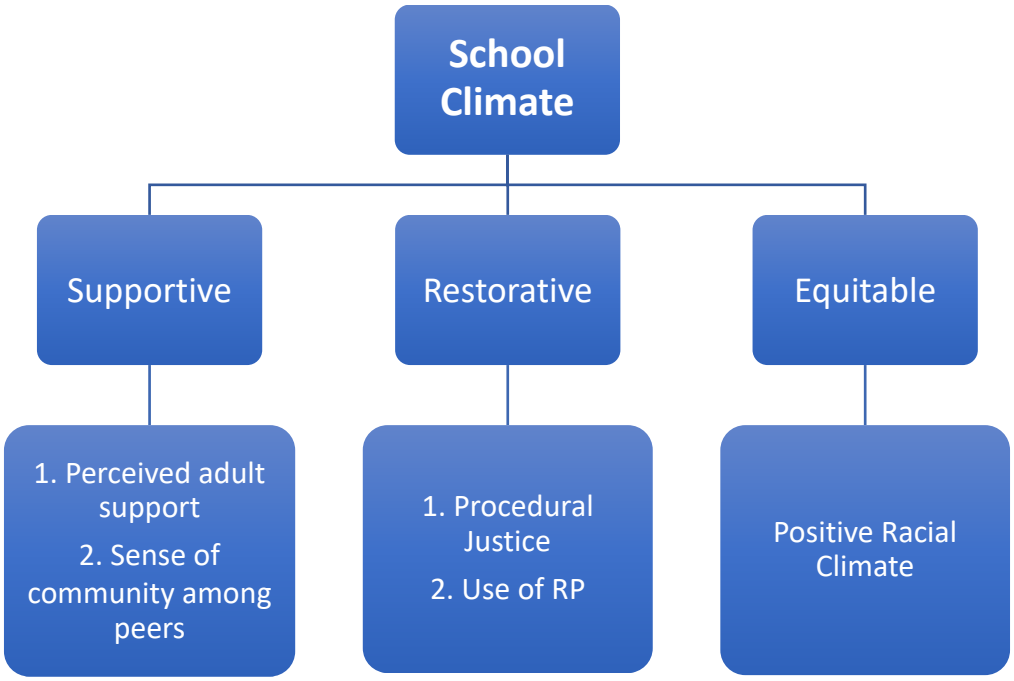

Figure 1. Dimensions of School Climate

Supportive School Climate

Students' perceptions of various dimensions of a supportive school climate (e.g., teacher support and peer relationships) have significant associations with students' liking of school and improves students' sense of resiliency in the face of adverse tasks or circumstances (Cohen et al., 2009; Roser et al., 2000). Decades of research have shown that when students feel like embedded members of their school community and are able to maintain meaningful relationships with

teachers and peers, they feel a sense of connectedness and belongingness (Cornelius-White, 2007).

Overall, the literature postulates that adult-student relationships (i.e., characterized by teachers' level of caring, respect, and willingness to help) are directly related to positive student compliance and engagement in class (Wang & Eccles, 2012). Positive adult-student relationships have also been linked to students' positive view of the classroom setting and perception about themselves (Wang & Holcombe, 2010). One of the most important aspects of relationships in schools is how connected people feel to one another. Across studies, findings show that perceived support from teachers, and positive teacher-student relationships are associated with the greatest impact on students' intrinsic motivation and learning processes, even more so than peer relationships (Johnson et al., 2001; Wang & Eccles, 2012). Findings suggest racial and ethnic differences, wherein African American students perceive less of a supportive climate than their White counterparts (Thapa et al., 2013). In addition, research indicates that positive interracial interactions have been linked to African American and Latinx students' perceptions of positive school community whereas negative interracial interactions were associated with more negative perceptions of school climate (Thapa et al., 2013).

A comprehensive study that examines the developmental importance of social support in school contexts indicates that "a sense of belonging may be especially critical for young people who must traverse significant ethnic and racial, socioeconomic, and sociolinguistic borders to feel fully part of a school in which middle-class, majority cultural norms often predominate" (Eccles & Roeser 2011, p. 229). Interestingly, two studies have found that positive relationships, both with teacher and peer social support, had a stronger association with African American

students' sense of embeddedness and connection in schools relative to White peers (Downey & Ainsworth-Darnell, 2002; Wang & Eccles, 2012).

Little is known about Afro-Caribbean experiences of teacher-student relationships, and the implications of those experiences on their sense of connection within the school climate. Teacher relationships play a role in students' experience of school climate and can be used to facilitate peer interactions and friendships by initiating activities that build skills of communication and conflict resolution. In order for schools to undertake school climate reform and prevention of student isolation, further understanding of Afro-Caribbean youth's experiences with social supports are vital.

Restorative School Climate

The current study defines a restorative school climate as one that promotes respect, giving students 'voice' during encounters, and being just in decision making processes. A restorative climate may be achieved through the implementation of RP. RP aims to establish teacher-student relationships that empower students to use their voice and agency, which is theorized to increased students' perceptions and experiences of being treated fairly and respectfully by teachers and administrators. Student perception of fairness and respect have been associated with greater compliance and positive relationships with teachers, and may inherently improve the positive, supportive, and equitable school climate at large (Zehr, 2002).

Microclimates and discipline disproportionality. There are possibly divergent experiences of restorative climate that could be based on racial and ethnic groupings among students. Aggregate findings posit that there is a divergence in the social experiences and feelings of connectedness among different identity groups (e.g., gender, sexuality, racial and ethnic identity; Thapa et al., 2013). This is evident in research that shows an existing racial

disparity in exclusionary discipline practices throughout the United States, specifically disproportionality in the distribution of suspension referrals and discipline across student race and ethnicity (Gregory & Weinstein, 2008). African American and Latinx students experience higher rates of suspensions when compared to White and Asian peers (Thapa et al., 2013). Gregory and Weinstein (2008) showed the evident disproportionality in disciplinary referrals for students and have explored possible causes of the disparity. One study explored the underlying feelings and factors for African American students in relation to suspensions referrals. De-identified discipline referral records of suspensions were obtained and assessed for the category of disciplinary offenses that were selected by the referring adult/teacher. Findings suggest that African American students, when compared to other racial and ethnic groups, were overrepresented in their referrals for defiance (Gregory & Weinstein, 2008). Furthermore, findings posit that disciplinary referrals for students were not consistent across teachers, and instead were issued by one or few teachers. In addition, this study explored the extent to which African American students' defiant behaviors were comparable in different classroom settings. Findings indicated that students' defiant and cooperative behaviors differed across two of their classrooms. An interesting finding was that African American students who feel fairly treated by their teachers tend to be perceived as less defiant and more cooperative by their teachers (Gregory & Thompson, 2010; Thapa et al., 2013). Thus, this study has recognized the importance of understanding race and ethnicity as it relates to student perceptions of teachers' fairness and the implications for student behaviors.

Teacher structure and support in tandem with empowerment of student voice may provide insight into understanding how racial disparities in discipline impacts students' perceptions of fairness. Ethnic minority student perceptions of fairness and agency are factors of

interest as they have been shown to influence their behaviors. Over the last several years, behavioral issues and violent acts, such as bullying, have been major concerns for teachers, counselors, and administrators (Thapa et al., 2013). The research has shown that ethnic minority students that exhibit externalizing behaviors are more likely to be in the disciplinary system, which has been shown to increase the likelihood of exposure to and interaction with the judicial legal system (Thapa et al., 2013). There is an increasing appreciation that school climate reform supports effective violence prevention in general and bullying prevention efforts in particular (Thapa et al., 2013). The findings evoke an interest in disciplinary reform that is able to address these issues in a meaningful and sustainable way. Restorative practices are being implemented throughout the nation to help cultivate a restorative school climate and reduce the overuse of exclusionary discipline.

Reintegrative theory. RP was derived in part from the theoretical framework called the "reintegrative shaming theory' (Braithwaite, 2004), which emphasizes the feeling of shame and its impact at both the individual and community levels. Within this theoretical framework, the emphasis is placed on the impact of the "harm" done, on both the offender and the victim(s), rather than on the actual act of wrongdoing. Braithwaite (2004) has shown that shame can be triggered through the direct (e.g., requiring a student to publicly apologize) or indirect (e.g., expressions of disappointment from a teacher to a student) social processes. The "reintegrative" component of the framework suggests that there are different ways in using feelings of shame and instead introduces interventions that facilitate meaningful resolution. Reintegrative and supportive approaches around shaming are catalysts for understanding and taking accountability for both the victims' and offenders' feelings and experiences of the "harm." In other words, exclusionary discipline is understood as an approach that isolates students from the school

community and stigmatizes the wrong-doer. In contrast, the reintegrative shaming theory aims to guide reconciliation and reacceptance of the wrongdoer, by allowing for collaboration between offender, victim, and teacher to process the harmful action. This is the crux and spirit of RP frameworks that informs the approaches to interventions wherein teachers facilitate collaborative RP circles and conferences that promote the accountability, problem-solving skills, support, and relationship-building skills.

Restorative climates and practices within schools aim to change the approach to school discipline. The long-term goal of RP implementation in schools has been to decrease the number of out-of-school suspensions, as a means to keep students, particularly those of ethnic and racial minorities, within the school system and out of the school-to-prison pipeline trajectory. In addition, in alignment with research on authoritative school climate, the empowerment of student voice may access adolescents' developmental need for autonomy (Gregory et al., 2009). Developmental research has associated positive student perceptions of autonomy in the class room (e.g., leadership opportunities and freedom of choice) with increased academic engagement (Gregory et al., 2009; Hafen et al., 2012).

Thus, schools and districts are attempting to use problem-solving methods that reduce the reliance on exclusionary disciplinary approaches for wrongdoings, and instead aim to bring together all stakeholders to resolve issues and build relationships (Zehr, 2002). RP may provide students with an environment that is the optimal balance of structure and support that are proposed to be developmentally optimal for adolescents. Exclusionary discipline is rigid in its boundaries and allows for minimal input from students. Instead, RP utilizes conflict as a means of opportunities for personal growth. In the school context, learning is not limited to academic material but also includes students' self-development (e.g., students' accountability for their

actions, and empathy for others when understanding how their behaviors impact peers and teachers), which may be achieved through a restorative school climate.

One study showed that students of varying race/ethnicities experienced RP implementation similarly (Gregory et al., 2016). Students of White and Asian racial groups reported RP implementation comparably with African American, Latinx, and American Indian students. This suggests that RP may provide students with culturally sensitive and appealing interventions that are consistent across ethnicities. Less is known about Afro-Caribbean youth's perceptions and experiences of restorative climate.

Equitable School Climate

Demographic shifts in the United Stated are most evident in the characteristics of students in public schools, wherein the representation of ethnic minority students has drastically grown (NCES, 2015). One of the issues that set ethnic minority youths' school experiences apart from those of majority students is racial-ethnic discrimination within the school climate. One way to conceptualize inequity relates to discrimination, which refers to perceptions of stereotyped interracial interactions and socialization around race and culture. Negative stereotyping may be characterized by being called names, exclusion from social groups, and more frequent punishment. There is a vast amount of research that has shown that perceptions of differential treatment, exclusion, and discrimination by teachers are associated with negative academic outcomes and have an inverse relationship with students' sense of connectedness within schools (e.g., Debnam et al., 2014; Wang & Degol, 2016).

Wang and Degol's (2016) systematic review of school climate literature shows that when schools value and elicit respect for student diversity, they hold all students to the same standards regardless of ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, or religious affiliation. Furthermore, findings

show that students who perceive greater racial fairness and experience of less discrimination have higher grade point averages (Wang & Degol, 2016). In accordance, numerous studies have found that perceived discrimination is related to poor school self-esteem and school bonding, supporting the notion that experiences with discrimination are a potential risk for adolescents' cognitive and affective school engagement (Thapa et al., 2013; Wang & Degol, 2016).

Byrd and Andrews' (2016) research has primarily focused on racial or ethnic discrimination as perceived and experienced by students of color. The study investigated differences in student background and associated experiences with discrimination. Findings suggested that students of color were more likely than their White counterparts to report discrimination (Byrd & Andrews, 2016). Further, students with other targeted identities were also more likely to report discrimination. The researchers found that students reported their experiences with discrimination most frequently related to their race/ethnicity (e.g., being called names, exclusion from social groups, and frequency of punishments; Byrd & Andrews, 2016). These findings emphasize the need to further explore strategies for reducing negative treatment, increasing cross-cultural understanding among students and between students and adults, and identifying culturally relevant disciplinary practices in schools (Byrd & Andrews, 2016).

Several correlational studies have suggested that there are racial and ethnic differences in experiences of equity in schools. Particularly, African American and Latinx students' perceptions of ethnic discrimination are associated with poorer mental health relative to their White peers (Amaro, Russo, & Johnson, 1987; Salgado de Snyder, 1987). In addition, studies examining inequalities in African American students' report of school climate indicate that African American youth tend to perceive poorer racial climate, greater discrimination, and poorer fairness when compared to White counterparts (Bennar & Graham, 2013; Konold et al.,

2017). Researchers have examined African American, and to some extent Latinx, students' experiences and reports of equity, as well as how the contextual school characteristics interplay. Few studies have examined Afro-Caribbean students' experiences of school equity.

Afro-Caribbean Students' Immigration Status

Afro-Caribbean Culture and Family Values

Several studies of Afro-Caribbean parenting styles suggest that the dominant approach is characterized as high in parental demandingness and low in responsiveness to the child (Baumrind, 1971; Baumrind, 1973; Smith & Mosby. 2003). Some scholars would characterize this as authoritarian parenting style as it is typically categorized as parental attempts to shape their children's behaviors by strict standards or laws that emphasize obedience and display of respect and manners for authority (e.g., parents or teachers; Baumrind, 1971; Durbrow, 1999; Wilson et al., 2003).

In parenting research, there have been questions raised about whether authoritative or authoritarian groups are better or worse for children/adolescents depending on the context. A comprehensive synthesis of the associated outcomes associated with parenting styles in varying contexts, including racial and ethnic minority families, is beyond the scope of the current literature review. However, it is noteworthy to mention there are likely context-specific and nuanced experiences of parenting and socialization across ethnic and cultural groups (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005; Caughy et al., 2017; Langsford et al., 2012). For example, in two studies, authors refer to positive African American and Latinx parenting as "directive" and "intentional" parenting, coupled with high levels of warmth and sensitivity (Hill & Bush, 2001; Livas-Diott, 2010). An exploratory notion is that that authoritarian or firm parental relationships are normative in Afro-Caribbean cultures (Bornstein, 2012; Pungello et al., 2009). In addition, in a

small study of 70 English-speaking Caribbean immigrant families in Northeastern states in the U.S., Rooparine et al. (2006) found that directive parenting in Latinx and African American families buffers negative academic and behavioral trajectories relative to less directive parenting in these families when compared to White counterparts. It is important to note that researchers need to be careful to *not* mistakenly use a deficit-oriented lens in characterizing cultural differences in parenting styles. Likely, there are cultural manifestations of support that have not been detected in research as of yet. As mentioned above, a comprehensive review of optimal outcomes associated with this type of parenting, especially for Afro-Caribbean youth, is beyond the scope of this literature review. That said, prior theorizing and research suggests there are likely differences between disciplinary norms and values between the home and school settings for Afro-Caribbean students given the more directing parenting styles associated with Afro-Caribbean cultures (Rooparine et al., 2006).

If parents' cultures are different from the dominant culture, students may be expected to behave in one way that is encouraged at home but then find themselves in a context where adults of the mainstream culture attach a different meaning to the same behavior (Bornstein, 2012). For instance, many Afro-Caribbean parents believe in unilateral displays of respect and firm discipline, as a means of maintaining distinct and rigid boundaries between parental authority and child roles (Rooparine et al., 2004; Rooparine et al., 2006). Thus, in accordance with the parent-child boundaries, conflictual situations tend to be resolved at the discretion and authority of parents, and rarely involve children's voices or input (Brown et al., 2008; Rooparine et al., 2004; Smith & Mosby, 2003). In contrast to the fundamental paradigms of Afro-Caribbean adult-child interactions and relationships, authoritative school climate posits that empowerment of student voice in the context of fair and consistent implementation of rules provides optimal

developmental contexts for adolescents. In this manner, Afro-Caribbean students may experience a mismatch between home and school in the way power is enacted and adults and youth relate to one another.

Erikson (1950) posits a theory of adolescent development that emphasizes the need for youth exploration and interaction with both parents and societal influences, to get out of their role confusion stage and "achieve" an identity. Thus, during the high school years, students are open to a range of socializing agents, beyond their family values (Erikson, 1950; Jones et al., 2014). Accordingly, they may manage the conflict between home and school values in an open manner in which they are eager to engage in a different way of relating with adults—particularly regarding student voice empowerment, support and fair process. Given theories of identity development and acculturation for recent immigrants in the U.S., Afro-Caribbean students may be drawn to supportive, restorative, and equitable aspects of the school climate.

Acculturation and Integration of Values. A conjecture is that for Afro-Caribbean students, integrating student voice in school discipline reform may enhance Afro-Caribbean students' interest in RP and in their perceptions of supportive yet structured school climates. In other words, in contrast to directive parenting in their home, Afro-Caribbean students may be more positive toward RP and qualities of an authoritative school climate, relative to their African American peers who may not experience these aspects of school in such a novel manner. Immigration and acculturation contribute to the complexity of the differences in socializations for children. Afro-Caribbean youth who are either first and second-generation statuses are negotiating an acculturative process. According to Berry (2003), acculturation is defined as the process of cultural and psychological change that follows intercultural contact. In other words, first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students may be integrating aspects of the U.S.

cultural values with those from their family contexts. Berry's research explores how immigrant youth live between two cultures, particularly between their immigrant parent, family and community interactions and their peers and the larger society (Berry, 2006). The research on immigration highlights that "acculturation attitudes" are the underlying process of living between two cultures wherein individuals' link to their culture of origin and to their society of settlement which play a role in their stage of adaptation (Berry, 1974, 1980). Building off of this notion of acculturation attitudes, Berry has four stages of acculturation, one of which is called integration (Berry, 1970, 1980, & 2006). Integration is defined as the process that is present when both cultural maintenance and involvement with the larger society are sought (Berry, 1970, 1980, & 2006).

A fair amount of research has explored immigration acculturation, particularly with African American and Latinx populations (e.g., Rooparine et al., 2004; Rooparine et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2013; Wiley et al., 2008). A general consensus is that there are distinctions between generations. One study found that cultural and immigration-related factors were important in explaining variation in parental monitoring and warmth, and these differences remained, even after accounting for socioeconomic status (SES; Chao & Kanatsu, 2008). Due to the nascent stage of immigration research relative to school climate, we know little about how Afro-Caribbean students are likely to deem elements of school climate in their community that contrast their familial values with youth empowerment, procedural justice or fair treatment. What we know is that values and paradigms can shift across generations, as adolescents and youth are highly influenced by both their families and peers (Jones et al., 2014). In sum, while we know little about the Afro-Caribbean adolescents' experience of acculturation in the United States, we can speculate that there is likely a home-school mismatch in disciplinary approaches. In addition,

we know that adolescents, in general, tend to seek affiliation and opportunities for leadership and self-expression (Hafen et al., 2012). This may result in Afro-Caribbean students, especially those from the first generation, being drawn to characteristics of an authoritative school climate (i.e., supportive, restorative, and equitable).

Summary

The current study drew on the theoretical framework of authoritative school environments. Several studies have shown that schools with high academic press/expectations and high consistency in enforcement of rules (structure) as well as high care and sense of community (support) have positive academic outcomes for adolescents (Cornel et al., 2012; Cornell et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2009). Following the lead from research on the authoritative school climate, the study expanded on the definition of school climate by incorporating an equitable dimension.

Little is known about how the home-school dissonance of cultural norms and values may impact student perceptions of the dimensions of school climate. In fact, as yet, no studies have examined the degree to which Afro-Caribbean students experience a microclimate of the school climate of supportive, restorative, and equitable dimensions relative to their African American peers. The current study addressed this underdeveloped area of research and also considered whether Afro-Caribbean students' perceptions of school climate varies by first and second-generational immigrant status. This follows the lead of existing research on acculturation (Berry, 1997; Berry, 2003; Berry et al., 2006). Thus, the study drew an intersectional lens examining race, ethnicity, and immigrant status.

Issues of socioeconomic status and race/ethnicity can be confounded in the U.S. context. Thus, rigorous research on race/ethnicity needs to account for socioeconomic status in statistical

models. Some studies have taken this approach. For example, one study shows that when accounting for socioeconomic status, African American and Latinx students still reported more negative experiences and perceptions of their school climates relative to White peers (Bottiani et al., 2016). Similar to their approach, the current study accounted for students' socioeconomic status, as measured by parental education. The study's aims and research questions are as follows:

Aim 1: Compare Afro-Caribbean (1st and 2nd generation; *n* = 95) and African American (born in US and parents born in US; *n* = 51)

R1. Accounting for parental education, to what extent do Afro-Caribbean students report a higher supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate relative to African American students?

Hypothesis 1: Accounting for parental education, it is anticipated that Afro-Caribbean students will report higher supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate when compared to African-American students. This may indicate that sub-groups within the school population have different experiences of the school climate, due to differences in ethnic and cultural values. The findings will hold above and beyond the education level of students' parent/guardian (a proxy for income). This may be indicative of the difference between home and school cultural and disciplinary norms for Afro-Caribbean students, which may be associated with an enhanced appeal to supportive, restorative, and equitable interactions when exposed to them in schools.

Aim 2: Compare first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students experience of school climate.

R2. Accounting for parental education, to what extent do *first generation* Afro-Caribbean students report a higher supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate relative to *second-generation* Afro-Caribbean students?

Hypothesis 2: Accounting for parental education, it is anticipated that first-generation Afro-Caribbean students will report a higher supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate in comparison to second-generation Afro-Caribbean students. It may be speculated that more acculturated Afro-Caribbean youth perceptions of the US cultural norms will be more similar to that of African American peers. In other words, the difference in students' generational status is expected to impact their report of school climate, with earlier generational statuses having higher reports. Similar to hypothesis 1, this may indicate that specific subgroups in schools may have a heightened appeal to restorative practices due to the home/school mismatch of cultural disciplinary norms.

Method

Participants

Adolescents in the present study were enrolled in a small public high school of approximately 520 students, located in a Northeastern city in the United States. This public school has been engaged in Restorative Justice (RJ) implementation for year and a half, involving: RJ coordinators, restorative circles, and restorative conferences. The current study drew on data collection from a larger evaluation of the RJ effort – an effort in which a private foundation funded a full time RJ coordinator. Fifty-six percent of the students were male, and forty-four percent of students were female. According to the district records, the school's racial and ethnic composition was 71% African American, 18% Latinx, 6% Asian, and 3% White.

Student attendance was 93% during the 2016 to 2017 school year, with a graduation rate of 95% of the students in the four-year school program. In addition, 74% of students were identified as being on Free and Reduced-Price Lunch, with the remaining 26% of students not being listed as such.

All of the study's participants were in grades nine through twelve. The participants received information on the first page of the survey, which described the purpose of the research study. A letter was sent home to parents informing them about the study. Parents were given the option to "opt their student out" of the study. No parents opted any students out. In addition, the assent page of the survey stated that participation was voluntary, and that data collection was anonymous and confidentially protected. Participants were asked to assent to participation in the study by checking "*I agree*" or "*I disagree."* To determine eligibility, participant surveys were screened for their self-reported and self-identified race, ethnicity, and immigration status in the United States. The inclusion criteria included students who identified as both African American (i.e., race) and Caribbean (i.e., ethnicity), both first generation (i.e., student and parent not born in the U.S.; $n = 41$) and second-generation (student born in the U.S. and parent born outside of U.S.; $n = 54$) status. Further, the inclusion criteria included participants that identified as African American for both race and ethnicity, and second-generational status (i.e., student and parent born in the U.S.; $n = 96$). While the school is predominantly African American, 221 students were excluded from the current study due to their self-identification as mixed race (i.e., African American and one or more races).

Procedures

Rutgers University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the district's IRB approved the study. Student data were collected via a 20-minute, paper/pencil self-reported school climate

survey, which was developed for a larger evaluation of the high school discipline reform initiatives. The surveys were administered in one day of Spring 2017. Data was collected from 439 students of the 520 enrolled students, with an 84% response rate, which reflects students present at school that day.

Measures

Student self-reported demographic variables. Students were asked to self-report on their race/ethnicity and immigration status. Students were asked to indicate their ethnicity from a list of ten ethnic categories (*Eastern European*, *Western European*, *Latin*x, *Middle Eastern*, *African*, *African American*, *Caribbean*, *South Asian*, *East Asian*, *Indigenous*). Participants were also given the option to choose open ended responses (*Mixed*, *Other*) and were then prompted to write in their ethnic identities. Students self-identified the best description of their race from six categories (*American Indian or Alaska Native*, *Asian, African American*, *Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander*, *White*, *Latinx*). Participants were also given the option to choose open-ended responses (*2 or more races, Other*) and were prompted to write in their racial identities. Participants were asked "*Were you born outside the United States*" to identify their Immigration status (1 = *yes*, 0 = *no*). In addition, participants were asked "*Were either of your parents or guardian born outside the United states*?" (1 = *yes*, 0 = *no)*.

Socioeconomic Status (SES) Proxy. The SES proxy that was used in the current study is parental educational attainment. This information was collected via students' report of the highest level of education attained by one parent and used as a proxy for socioeconomic status (*did not graduate from high school*, *graduated from a high school*, *graduated from a 2-year college or technical school*, *graduated from a 4-year college*, *completed postgraduate studies*).

Student perceptions of support. Perceptions of support were quantified by a 6-item self-report scale designed to measure the perceived supportiveness of adult–student relationships. Each item was answered on a 4-point Likert-scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *agree*, 4 = *strongly agree*). The items are derived in part from the Learning Environment Scale (Austin & Duerr, 2005; See Appendix B). Past research found that the scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency of .96. In a prior sample, the scale demonstrated concurrent validity (Gregory, 2010). In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha was .82 indicating good internal consistency. The school-level measure of support is based on the mean score of all students (See Appendix B).

Student perceptions of RP. Student reports of RP use during school were measured with a 7-item, self-reported scale designed to measure the use of restorative practices (See Appendix C). The elements represented are Affective Statements (i.e., "My teacher asks students to express their feelings, ideas, and experiences"); Restorative Questions (i.e., "When someone misbehaves: my teacher asks students questions about their side of the story; my teacher has that person to talk to who they hurt and asks them to make things right; and my teacher has those who were hurt have a say in what needs to happen to make things right"); Proactive Circles (i.e., "My teacher uses circles as a time for students to share feelings, ideas, and experiences"); and Fair Process (i.e., "My teacher takes the thoughts and ideas of students into account when making decisions; the administration (principal, vice principal) listens to my side of the story"). Each answer was reported on a 5-point Likert Scale (*1 = not at all, 2= rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always).* In the current sample, the RP use scale was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86, indicating good internal consistency. In a prior sample, the scale demonstrated concurrent validity (Gregory, 2016).

Student perceptions of positive racial climate. Perceptions of positive racial climate within the school was quantified by a 15-item self-reported scale designed to measure the student perceptions of stereotyping regarding adults and peers. Each item was answered on a 5-point Likert-scale (1 = *completely true*, 2 = *very true*, 3 = *somewhat true*, 4 = *a little true,* 5 = *not true at all true*). Sample items on the scale include items such as: "your racial or ethnic group is seen in stereotypical ways here" and "students here have a lot of stereotypes about your racial or ethnic group." All items on the scale were reverse scored to reflect a positive perspective on the racial and ethnic climate. Subsequently, I called the scale, "positive racial climate" to reflect the direction of the coding. Higher scores on the scale suggest lower perceptions of stereotyping.

The items are derived from Byrd's (2015) racial climate scale. The racial climate scale is comprised of items adapted from the public regard scale of the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, & Smith, 1998) and an unpublished scale by Aber and colleagues (Byrd, 2015; See Appendix D). The measure was reviewed by experts in the field and school officials for face validity (Byrd, 2015; Byrd, 2018). The evidence from research on the racial and ethnic fair treatment scale supported the fit of the data with the theoretical framework and strong reliability of the scale (Byrd, 2015). Specifically, Byrd (2015) found expected correlations between the racial and ethnic fair treatment scale and measures of general school climate, perceived discrimination (e.g., Because of your race/ ethnicity, you were given a lower grade than you deserved), culturally relevant teaching (i.e., the degree to which teachers bring students' culture and home life into the classroom), and academic outcomes. In other words, the racial and ethnic fair treatment scale showed convergent validity with existing measures that are intended to measure similar constructs (Byrd, 2015). In addition, Byrd (2015) found predictive validity using bivariate correlations between the scale and academic outcomes.

Further, Byrd (2015) found that the scale had a high Cronbach's alpha (above .70). In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha was .88 indicating strong internal consistency.

Data Analysis Plan

Before analyses were conducted, the data was screened and cleaned (e.g., keying errors). Ethnicity and race variables were recoded to attain uniformity of terminology used throughout the dataset. In addition, a new variable was generated, and dummy coded for ethnicity and generational status (1st and 2nd Afro-Caribbean = 1; 3rd generation African American = 0).

Missing data. An SPSS Missing Values Analysis (MVA) was conducted to evaluate the amount, distribution, and pattern of missing data. Data were present for 93.4% of the data points in the dataset. Specifically, missing data on scales ranged from 5.7-9.8%. The findings of the Little's Chi square test were not significant ($p = .271$), thus the null hypothesis was rejected. I determined that the missing data were not missing in a systematic fashion thus they may be missing at random.

A variable was created for students missing all data points on one or more rating scale. Chi-square analyses were run to compare missing patterns across race/ethnicity ($X^2 = .604$, $p > .05$) and generational status ($X^2 = .213$, $p > .05$). In other words, I compared the race and immigration status of those with the rating scales (e.g., support, RP use, and racial and ethnic fair treatment) and those without them. The findings suggested that the racial composition and immigration status of those with and without missing ratings did not differ.

Five students who were missing ethnicity, race and immigration status were excluded from the current study given these were key variables that distinguished students. Multiple imputation was used to address the remaining missing data. Five datasets were imputed which were then used in the analyses.

R1a. Accounting for parental education, to what extent do first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students report a higher supportive and equitable school climate relative to African American students?

Independent t-test. Descriptive statistics was examined using means, ranges, and standard deviations. Three independent sample t-tests were used to assess for significant differences between African-American and Afro-Caribbean students' report of perceptions of supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate.

Multiple regression analysis. Three multiple regression analyses (MRA) were conducted. In step 1, I entered covariates (parental educational attainment). In step 2, I entered students' race, ethnicity and generational status.

R2a. To what extent do first generation Afro-Caribbean students report a higher supportive, equitable, and restorative school climate relative to second-generation Afro-Caribbean students?

Independent T-test. Descriptive statistics were examined using means, ranges, and standard deviations. The data was divided and assessed by the ethnicity and generational status variable to examine the effect of ethnicity and generational status on the dependent variables (i.e., perceived support, fair treatment and RP use). Three independent sample *t*-tests were used to assess for significant differences between first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students' report of perceptions of supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate.

Multiple regression analysis. Three multiple regression analyses (MRA) were conducted. In step 1, I entered covariates (parental educational attainment). In step 2, I entered students' race, ethnicity and generational status.

Results

Descriptive Statistics. Descriptive statistics were run for perceived supportive,

restorative, and equitable school climates. As seen in Tables 1 - 3 below, the full-scale range was used by the students when reporting. Student ratings of support scales indicate that students had an overall positive perception of supportive school climate, which was consistent across racial and immigration status groups (See Table 1). A rating of 2.91 and above falls close to "3" suggesting that on average students "agree" that the adults in their school are supportive. Similarly, the mean ratings of RP exposure indicated that students' perceptions of restorative practices were more prevalent than not (See Table 2). A mean rating of 2.51 and above falls close to "3" rating on the RP use scale positing that on average students perceive that teachers use restorative practices "sometimes" in school. The mean ratings of positive racial climate scale were overall positive (See Table 3). A rating of 3.26 and above falls close to "3" rating on the scale suggesting that on average, students' perceive that it is "somewhat true" that adults and peers have positive perceptions of the racial school climate.

Table 1

Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Support

	Mean	Min	Max
Afro-Caribbean	2.95	1	4
First Generation	2.99	1	4
Second-Generation	2.91	1	4
African American	2.93	1	4

Table 2

Descriptive Analysis of Perceived RP Use

	Mean	Min	Max
Afro-Caribbean	2.65	1	5
First Generation	2.68	1	5
Second-Generation	2.60	1	5
African American	2.51	1	5

Table 3

Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Positive Racial Climate

	Mean	Min	Max
Afro-Caribbean	3.30	1	5
First Generation	3.35	1	5
Second-Generation	3.26	1	5
African American	3.30	1	5

Correlations. Pearson's correlations were computed to ascertain the nature of the association between the independent, dependent, and control variables. Table 4 shows the intercorrelations among variables. Significant correlations between various variables were observed and the relationships were in the expected direction. For example, student perceptions of supportive school climate, where significantly positively correlated with perceived restorative school climate ($r = .495$, $p < .01$). In other words, the various aspects of perceived school climate were interrelated. In addition, Table 4 shows that there was a significant negative correlation between first-generation Afro-Caribbean students and parental educational attainment ($r = -.216^*$, $p < .01$). In other words, the parents of second-generation Afro-Caribbean students had higher parental educational attainment, according to their students, relative to the parents of first-generation students.

Table 4

Correlations among dependent and independent variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Afro-Caribbean (1)		f	.083	.012	.077	.001
2. First-Generation (1)			-.216*	.062	.041	.076
3. Parental Ed Attainment				.027	.021	.071
4. Perceived Support					.495**	.489**
5. Perceived RP Use						.442**
6. Perceived Positive Racial Climate						

Note. f. = Missing value(s) due to First and Second-Generation A-C students overlapping with Afro-Caribbean group as a whole
** p < .05; ** p < .01*
Afro-Caribbean (A-C; 1); African American (0); First generation A-C (1); Second-generation A-C (0)

Testing differences in perceived school climate

Comparisons between Afro-Caribbean and African American groups. Independent-samples t-tests were run using Afro-Caribbean and African American student survey responses to test for significant differences between perceptions of supportive, restorative and equitable school climate (See Table 5). There was no significant difference in the self-reported ratings for African American students of perceived support, RP use, and positive racial climate when compared to Afro-Caribbean students. Despite no statistically significant differences, it is noteworthy that Afro-Caribbean student responses on perceptions of support and RP use, on average, trended in a higher direction than African American students.

Comparisons between first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean groups. Independent-samples t-tests were run on first-generation and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students to test for significant differences between perceptions of supportive, restorative and equitable school climate (See Table 6). There was no significant difference in self-reported

ratings for first-generation Afro-Caribbean students of perceptions of supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate when compared to second-generation Afro-Caribbean students. Despite no statistically significant differences, it is noteworthy that first-generation Afro-Caribbean student responses on perceptions of supportive and restorative school climate, on average, trended in a higher direction than second-generation Afro-Caribbean students.

Table 5

Comparing Afro-Caribbean and African American students' perceived school climate

School Climate	Afro-Caribbean			African-American				
	M	SD	*n*	M	SD	*n*	*t*	*p*
Support	2.95	0.65	96	2.93	0.62	97	-0.142	0.888
RP Use	2.64	0.9	96	2.51	0.76	97	-1.031	0.303
Racial Climate	3.3	0.6	96	3.3	0.55	97	-0.008	0.993

Note. Restorative measured by RP Use scale, and Equitable measured by Positive Racial Climate Scale.

Table 6

Comparing First and Second-Generation Afro-Caribbean students' perceived school climate

School Climate	Group							
	First-Generation			Second-Generation				
	M	SD	*n*	M	SD	*n*	*t*	*p*
Support	3	0.69	42	2.91	0.62	54	-0.566	0.572
RP Use	2.68	0.93	42	2.6	0.88	54	-0.384	0.701
Racial Climate	3.35	0.6	42	3.26	0.55	54	-0.631	0.53

Note. Restorative measured by RP Use scale, and Equitable measured by Positive Racial Climate Scale.

Multiple Regressions

Afro-Caribbean and perceived support. The parental educational attainment variable, in step 1 of the multiple regression analysis (MRA), accounted for .08% of the variability in student perceptions of support (Model 1, Table 7). Parental educational attainment did not significantly predict student perceptions of support ($\beta = .014$, $p = .724$). After entering predictor

variables in step 2, Afro-Caribbean ethnicity explained .4% of variability in student perceptions of support (Model 1, See Table 7). Thus, after accounting for parental education, identifying as Afro-Caribbean, relative to African American, explained less than 1% of variance in perceived school support. This is not a statistically significant amount of explained variance. Contrary to my hypothesis, students who identified as Afro-Caribbean did not report higher perceptions of support in schools relative to African American students (β = -.003, p = .974). Thus, neither parental educational attainment nor Afro-Caribbean ethnicity predicted students' level of perceived support.

Afro-Caribbean and perceived RP use. In model 2, the multiple regression results showed that perceptions of restorative school climate did not explain unique variance above and beyond parental educational attainment (See Table 7). Specifically, parental education attainment explained only .06% (<1%) of the variability in student perceptions of RP Use. Parental educational attainment did not significantly predict student perceptions of RP use (β = .014, p = .78). Including parental educational attainment in Model 2, Afro-Caribbean ethnicity explained only 0.33% of variability in student perceptions of RP Use (Model 2). This is not a statistically significant amount of explained variance. Contrary to my hypothesis, students who identified as Afro-Caribbean did not report more RP use in schools relative to African American students (β = .089, p = .486). Thus, neither parent educational attainment nor Afro-Caribbean ethnicity predicted students' level of RP Use.

Afro-Caribbean and perceived positive racial climate. Model 3 shows the parental educational attainment variable in Step 1 accounted for .56% of the variability in perceived positive racial climate in the school (Model 3, See Table 7). Parental educational attainment did not significantly predict students' reports of positive racial climate (β = .033, p = .375). Similar

to the RP use scale, when accounting for parental educational attainment in Model 3, identifying as Afro-Caribbean, compared to identifying as African American, accounted for only .16% of the variance in perceived racial climate. In addition, contrary to my hypothesis, being Afro-Caribbean was not a significant predictor of perceived racial and ethnic fair treatment (β = -.033, p = .727).

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analyses of Race Predicting Perceived School Climate

	Model 1 Supportive		Model 2 Restorative		Model 3 Equitable	
	β	R^2 Change	β	R^2 Change	β	R^2 Change
Step 1		.0008		.0006		.0056
Parental Ed Attainment	.014		.014		.033	
Step 2		.004		.0033		.0016
Afro-Caribbean (1)	-.003		.089		-0.033	

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p = .00.

Note. Pooled, unstandardized estimates at each step of the regression; Afro-Caribbean = 1; Black/African American = 0

First generation and perceived support. The next set of multiple regression analyses examined the association between immigration status and the three scales measuring different aspects of school climate (Model 4, Table 8). Again, parental educational attainment did not significantly predict student perceptions of support (β = .014, p = .72). As shown in step 2, first-generation status explained only .45% of variability in student perceptions of support (Model 4). This was not a statistically significant amount of explained variance. In other words, generational status (i.e., first versus second-generation) did not account for a significant amount of variance in perceived support in school. Moreover, students who identified as first-generation did not report higher perceptions of support in schools relative to second-generation students (β = 0.00004, p = .970). Thus, neither parental educational attainment nor generational status predicted students' level of support.

First generation and perceived RP use. Parental education attainment explained .06% (<1%) of the variability in student perceptions of restorative school climate (Model 5, Table 8). Again, parental educational attainment did not significantly predict student perceptions of RP use (β = .014, *p* = .78). When controlling for parental educational attainment in Model 5, first-generation variable explained only .33% of variability in student perceptions of RP Use (Model 5). This is not statistically significant amount of explained variance. In addition, contrary to my hypothesis, students who identified as first-generation students did not report more RP use in schools relative to second-generation students (β = -.001, *p* = .489). Thus, neither parent educational attainment nor generational status predicted student ratings of restorative school climate.

First generation and perceived positive racial climate. Model 6 shows the parental educational attainment variable in Step 1 accounted for .56% of the variability in perceived positive racial climate in the school (Model 6, Table 8). Parental educational attainment did not significantly predict students' reports of racial climate (β = .033, *p* = .375). Similar to the RP use scale, after accounting for parental educational attainment in Model 6, identifying as Afro-Caribbean, as compared to African American, accounted for only .16% of the variance in positive racial climate perceptions—a non-significant amount of variance explained. Contrary to my hypothesis, identifying as Afro-Caribbean as opposed to African American was not associated with higher perceptions of positive racial climate (β = .000, *p* = .722).

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analyses of Immigration Status Predicting Perceived School Climate

	Model 4 Supportive		Model 5 Restorative		Model 6 Equitable	
	β	R^2 Change	β	R^2 Change	β	R^2 Change
Step 1		.004		.0006		.0056
Parental Ed Attainment	.014		.014		.033	
Step 2		.0045		.0033		.0016
First Generation (1)	.00004		-.001		.000	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .00$.

Note. Pooled, unstandardized estimates at each step of regression;
First Generation Afro-Caribbean = 1; Second-Generation Afro-Caribbean = 0

Discussion

This study examined the association between race/ethnicity and self-reported perceptions of school climate (i.e., supportive, restorative, and equitable) in one urban school. In addition, it examined whether students' perceptions of school climate were associated with immigration status (i.e., comparisons between first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students). It was hypothesized that Afro-Caribbean students would have more positive perceptions of supportive, restorative, and equitable school climates relative to their African American peers even when accounting for parental educational attainment. Further, it was hypothesized that first-generation Afro-Caribbean students would report more positive reports of supportive, restorative, and equitable school climate when compared to second-generation Afro-Caribbean students. Neither hypothesis was supported. Thus, unexpectedly, relative to African American students, Afro-Caribbean students did not report more positive perceptions of supportive, restorative and equitable treatment in the school. Despite no statistically significant differences, it is noteworthy that Afro-Caribbean student responses on perceptions of support and RP use (i.e., supportive and restorative climate scales respectively), on average, trended in a higher direction than African American students. This hints that a larger sample might detect higher overall perceptions of

supportive and restorative school climates relative to African American students. Similarly, first-generation Afro-Caribbean students did not report more positive perceptions when compared to second-generation Afro Caribbean peers. Additionally, it is noteworthy that first-generation Afro-Caribbean student responses on perceptions of support and RP use, on average, trended in a higher direction when compared to second-generation Afro-Caribbean students.

Do Race/Ethnicity and Immigration Status Matter for Perceived School Climate?

The current study examined the role of race/ethnicity (i.e., Afro-Caribbean and African American) and immigration status (i.e., first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean) in predicting student perceptions of school climate within one school. It was hypothesized that Afro-Caribbean students may be more drawn to and optimistic about an authoritative school climate, given that the emphasis is on empowerment of student voice, fairness and supportive adult-student relationships which can contrast with the authoritarian nature of adult-child relationships in their cultural norms and home settings. In a similar manner, it was hypothesized that first-generation Afro-Caribbean students may experience a novelty effect due to their being less acculturated and, thus, perceive more positive school climate in comparison to second-generation peers. Unexpectedly, all sets of analyses corroborated the same finding: student race/ethnicity and immigration status did not differentiate their reports of supportive, restorative, and equitable treatment in the school. As aforementioned, while there are no significant differences between the groups they trend in the anticipated direction for perceptions of support and restorative climates. Therefore, had there been a larger sample perhaps the findings may have been significant.

That said, it is worth considering why the hypotheses were unsupported. It may be due to more similarities between Afro-Caribbean and African American groups than differences

regarding their perceptions of school climate. Likewise, first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students may also have similar perceptions of the school climate. However, this is surprising given the extensive literature recognizing race as a significant predictor of student perceptions of school climate (Bottiani et al., 2016, Konold et al., 2017; Thapa et al., 2013). While much of the literature has focused on comparing African American and Latinx students with their white peers (Bottiani et al., 2016, Konold et al., 2017; Thapa et al., 2013), the current study only compared variation between two racial/ethnic minority groups. When thinking about the findings in relation to the notion of "microclimates" within schools, it may be possible that African American and Afro-Caribbean students have more similarities than differences in terms of cultural and ethnic identities than theorized, and subsequently have comparable lived experiences within the school. In other words, they may integrate aspects of the U.S. cultural values with those from their family contexts in ways that promote assimilation into the overall school climate.

Prior research focused on student race and not on ethnicity, which perhaps may help explain the difference in the findings between perceptions in school climate and the presence of microclimates within schools (Bottiani et al., 2016, Konold et al., 2017, Thapa et al., 2013). In other words, it may be that school climate differences are detected through the lens of race and not ethnicity. For instance, Bottiani et al.'s (2016) study included only African American and White students across 58 high schools. Findings showed racial discrepancies were present in African American and White students' perceptions of caring. African American students perceived slightly lower caring relative to their White peers, even when accounting for maternal education as a proxy for poverty. Perhaps, prior findings may be due to colorism within schools, wherein African American and White students had significantly different experiences of school

climate due to the differences in the treatment based on their skin tone. Unlike this prior study, the current study was conducted in a predominantly African American school. Thus, while students may identify differently ethnically, they may be perceived similarly based on skin tone and African ancestry. In other words, I may speculate that African American and Afro-Caribbean students may be perceived as African American, and thus may inform comparable perceptions of school climate between groups. Future research could further investigate the extent to which race compared to ethnicity predicts student experiences of school climate.

Identity development. While Betancourt and Lopez (1993) introduced the idea of racial and ethnic categories being derived from a spectrum of varying group affiliations, perhaps there is a stronger fundamental developmental component than anticipated in the hypotheses in the current study. Erikson's (1950) theory of adolescent development emphasizes the need for youth exploration and interaction with both parents and societal influences, to get out of their role confusion stage and "achieve" an identity. Thus, it may be speculated that students' stage of identity exploration provides a sense of commonality across student experiences and may inform their level of adaptability to and positive engagement with school climate in more similar ways despite differences in race/ethnicity and/or immigration status. Furthermore, this concept of adolescents' developmental needs was one of the core tenets of Gregory's (2009) conceptualization of an authoritative school climate, which may suggest that beyond the context of race/ethnicity and immigration status, the need for autonomy and agency may similarly influence students' experience of the overall school climate.

Perceptions of groups within school. According to Agyemang et al. (2005), research studies tend to group Afro-Caribbean students within the African American ethnic category. Pulling from the notion that researchers tend to use reductionist categories, I may speculate that

this happens in school settings as well. In other words, perhaps Afro-Caribbean and African American students have similar perceptions and experiences because they are treated similarly in the school based on the preconceived merging of both groups. As this study examines adult-student relationships, teacher perceptions of students may impact student perceptions. Therefore, if a teacher “clumps” Afro-Caribbean and African American students into the same racial/ethnic grouping based on phenotype, they are likely interacting with these students in similar ways. Subsequently, similar treatment in the school may be associated with their comparable reports of their perceptions of supportive, restorative and equitable school climates.

Restorative Justice

In the current study, the school was implementing RP into their curriculum for three years. I may speculate that the study’s findings are particular to this school, due to the consistent integration of RP into the school curriculum. The premise of RP within the school system was trying to create a fair and equitable school climate by promoting respect, giving students 'voice' during encounters, and being just in decision making processes. There were no significant differences between perceptions of restorative school climates between Afro-Caribbean and African American students. In accordance, there were no notable differences in perceptions of a restorative school climate between first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean students. Perhaps, these results indicate that students have similar experiences of higher support and lower stereotyping for both Afro-Caribbean and African American students. In other words, there may be no microclimates successive to the implementation of RP within the school at large. The comparable perceptions across both groups corroborates finding from Gregory et al.’s (2016) evaluation that showed that students of varying race/ethnicities experienced RP implementation similarly. This suggests that RP may provide students with culturally inclusive and alluring

interventions that are consistent across ethnicities. However, notably this is a single school with a higher graduation and achievement rate when compared to other high schools with similar demographics in its geographic region. Thus, the findings may have little to do with RJ programming and may instead be associated with the rigor and course content in school.

Positive School Climate

While race/ethnicity and immigration status were not predictors of the three dimensions of school climate studied in the current study, there were positive correlations among perceptions of supportive, restorative, and equitable climates. The moderate correlations (*r* ranging from .44 to .49) suggest the three areas of school climate are distinct but interrelated. When one domain improves it may mean that another domain improves. This has implications for strengthening school climate. I can speculate if you improve student perceptions of support in the school then students' sense of fair treatment may increase. Previous research exploring the authoritative school climate shows that a combination of both structure and support are optimal (Gregory et al., 2009; Gregory et al., 2010; Shirley et al., 2012). The interconnectivity of the dimensions of school climate in the current study are consistent with prior research exploring the authoritative approach, which found that structure and support were positively correlated with each other, indicating that they work with each other rather than as isolated factors of school climate (Cornell et al., 2016; Gregory et a., 2010). Although I did not test for the interplay of the dimensions of school climate, I may speculate that the intercorrelations among the three domains in the current study suggest that the combination is optimal.

The findings also suggest that it is important that schools have both (a) positive perceptions of school climate and (b) no significant differences in those positive perceptions across groups. In other words, it is undesirable to have equally poor perceptions of the climate

across groups. When assessing group means for the support scale, the findings show that ratings were comparable across group. Ratings ranged between 2.91 and 2.99. These ratings fall close to "3" suggesting that, on average, students "agree" that they perceive that there are adults at their school they could talk with if they had a personal problem as well as feel as though there is at least one teacher or other adult at the school who really wants them to do well. Overall, these ratings suggest a positive perception of supportive school climate.

When examining descriptives found from the RP use scale, a mean rating of 2.51 and above falls close to "3" rating on the RP use scale positing that, on average, students perceive that teachers use restorative practices and feel a sense of agency in decision making "sometimes" in school. The average scores that fall in the range of "sometimes" may indicate their opinions and perspectives are sometimes (i.e., neither often nor never) solicited. Students reported that their teachers ask them to express feelings, ideas, and experiences and take their thoughts and ideas into account when making decisions some of the time. Therefore, students' perceptions may hint at positive experiences with student agency and decision-making some of the time but are not consistently practiced.

Average ratings from the racial and ethnic fair treatment scale fall close to a "3" rating on the scale suggesting that, on average, students perceive that it is "somewhat true" that students of all races/ethnicities are treated equally at their school. Additionally, ratings suggest that students experience the principal/administrators' and teachers' treatment of students as racially/ethnically fair. The overall consensus is that there seems to be a sense of racial/ethnic fair treatment, however there is room for improvement.

In sum, the findings from the current study present that across races/ethnicities and immigration status students experienced overall positive school climate. Specifically, student

perceptions of school climate in the school can be seen as follows: (a) perceived support seems high, (b) RP use is positively experienced in that student voice and agency is sometimes elicited, however there is room for improvement, and (c) racial and ethnic fair treatment is generally acceptable, but there is also room for improvement. In other words, the findings suggest that school climate was experienced similarly positive across racial/ethnic and immigration status groups.

Limitations and Future Directions

A limitation to the study is that the results are entirely based on student self-report and a single method (e.g., surveys). Thus, self-report bias and mono-method bias cannot be accounted for. The perceived support, RP use, and racial and ethnic fair treatment ratings may have been highly correlated due to the tendency for students to score items according to a particular response style. Future research should include a multi-informant, multi-method approach to understanding student perceptions of school climate. For example, future research could include interviews with both students and teachers in order to gain a more nuanced understanding of lived experiences at school. In addition, students could provide detailed descriptions of instances experienced in the school and their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors as they relate to said incidents as well as specifically elaborating on the quality of the interactions in relation to their race/ethnicity and immigration status. Interviews that directly address the home-school mismatch may include questions such as “Are there differences in the way you express yourself at home and at school? If so in what ways?”; “Are there differences in expectations of adult-child relationships at home in comparison to at school? If so, in what ways?”; “What are your family’s values around discipline? How are consequences determined?” Further questions aim to tap into students’ feelings about the home-school mismatch, for instance, “How do you feel about being

able to share your feelings at school and why?" These questions may allow for researchers to more directly assess and understand students' behavioral "code switching" or how they shift their behaviors and interactions based on their home and school contexts.

Another limitation is that the study contained a somewhat small sample of student subgroups (n = 191). The sample consisted of African American (n = 96*)* and Afro-Caribbean (n = 95; first generation: n = 41; second-generation: n = 54). Three hundred and twenty-nine students were excluded from the study as they did not meet the inclusion criteria. This is a relatively small sub-sample; thus, a larger sample of African American and Afro-Caribbean students may have been able to detect statistically significant differences. For example, larger samples may have detected statistically significant differences in perceptions of support and RP use ratings of Afro-Caribbean students when compared to African American peers.

Furthermore, student inclusion in the study was, in part, determined by the researcher's discretion. In other words, students self-reported their race and ethnicity on a Likert scale and/or filled in categories in "*other."* During the data management process, it became noticeable that students who filled in race and ethnicity variables as "*other"* entered variations of Caribbean ethnicities for example, "Trinidadian," "Jamaican," and "Bajan." For the purposes of having a uniformed sample for analyses, I created an umbrella variable (i.e., Afro-Caribbean) that merged said racial and ethnic groups. The term "Afro-Caribbean" was devised due to students who self-reported ethnically as Caribbean also identified racially as African American. It is important to note that a limitation to the sampling of the study is the reductionistic nature of the terminology that was used. In accordance with prior literature, it has been shown that there are racial differences that exist with ethnic categories. The current study narrows in on the experience of Afro-Caribbean student perceptions, however does not acknowledge or explore students who

identified ethnically as Caribbean or with a specific Caribbean country but racially as other categories outside of the African American group. Future studies may incorporate a more comprehensive sample that includes variations in racial presentation and identities within the Caribbean ethnic group.

Moreover, it is also important to note that the study assumes that students within groups (e.g., first generation Afro-Caribbean students) are at similar stages of acculturation into the U.S. culture at large. When in reality, it may be possible that students' self-reported race/ethnicity and immigration status vary greatly based on the continuum of acculturation and assimilation in relation to their self-identity and personal development. While the racial/ethnic and immigration groups of students were based on their self-reports; student interviews would provide researchers with more nuanced understandings of the intersectionality between their racial backgrounds and their cultural identities. Thus, for future directions of research of this nature, interviews that directly ask about self-identity and racial and ethnic socialization.

The study drew on students' racial and immigration identity based on their own as well as their parents' country of origin and racial identity. Future research would benefit from larger dataset that could examine the effects of combinations of identities and stages of acculturation and assimilation into the US school system. Acculturation and immersion into the culture at large is a process that can be both intrinsically and externally driven and can vary between students. Given some of the surprising results regarding race/ethnicity and immigration status as not being significant predictors of school climate, more research is necessary to determine if limitations of the current sampling played a role in the study's nonsignificant findings.

Additionally, given the implementation of RP into the school system for the past three years, it is assumed that teachers were utilizing fundamental components of procedures including

"restorative conferences" and "restorative circles." While it is noteworthy that the school is incorporating RP into its curriculum, there are unknowns regarding the level of implementation fidelity across teachers and classrooms (Gregory et al., 2018). The quality of implementation of RP is important to consider because the adherence to the program may impact the way in which students experience RP circles and conferences, and subsequently impact the way in which they are reporting and perceiving the restorative climate at large. If students are not being exposed to RP in a meaningful and sustainable manner, it is hard to know whether reports of RP use reflect the implementation of the program or due to their personal experiences and opinions about the program.

It is noteworthy that school climate research should test means by group with some criteria for what constitutes a positive perception of school climate, as the scales used in the study allow for differing interpretations in rating. For example, rating on a Likert scale (e.g., RP scale) may raise concerns as to the accuracy in capturing comparable student perceptions of the rating "sometimes" in and of itself. In other words, a report of "sometimes" may vary significantly by the rater; students may need more or less exposure to report an item as occurring "sometimes." Thus, schools should work toward developing objective criteria by which both students and researchers can understand the quantitative range associated with a term (e.g., "sometimes" = 4 times or more per week).

Conclusion and Implications for Practice

The current research contributed to knowledge about students' lived experiences and perceptions of school climate in association with their racial/ethnic and immigration identities. The study aimed to gain insight into Afro-Caribbean students' perceptions of adult support, student voice and agency, and fair treatment in their school. The study compared Afro-Caribbean

student groups to African American peers. In addition, the study assessed if students' perceptions varied by first and second-generational immigrant status. While many studies have examined African American and Latinx student experiences of school climate in comparison to Asian and White peers (Bottiani et al., 2016, Konold et al., 2017, Thapa et al., 2013), few examine the wide range of ethnic minority groups within schools, specifically Afro-Caribbean groups. Furthermore, few studies have examined the differences between first and second-generation Afro-Caribbean experiences. It was speculated that values can shift across generations and thus may impact students' motivations and inclinations to perceive the school climate at large (Berry, 1970). The current study speculated that ethnic and racial factors would be associated with student perceptions of support, RP use, and fair treatment.

While the findings did not find race/ethnicity and immigration status to be predictors of perceived school climate, it opened up alternative ways of assessing and thinking about the nuances and factors that interplay in student life at school. The comparable experiences between African American and Afro-Caribbean students imply there were no microclimates for Afro-Caribbean and African American students. Given this limited knowledge about Afro-Caribbean experiences and perceptions of school climate in the US school system relative to their African American peers, this is the first study to show no differences and thus offers us new knowledge about the shared experience among African American and Afro-Caribbean youth in schools. These findings highlight the need for more nuanced and qualitative measures and in-depth assessment of student identity and how perceptions about themselves and their racial and cultural identities may inform perceptions of school climate. Furthermore, the findings suggest that school climate was experienced similarly positive across racial/ethnic groups and first and second-generation immigrants.

Often, educators examine results aggregated across the schools, with less consideration for the potential divergence in perspectives among racial and ethnic groups within the same schools. Surveying youth and examining results by student subgroups can help shine a light on the need to possibly intervene with vulnerable groups in the school. Understanding the nuances of students' experiences may also allow for reduced misconduct and conflict in the future, since educators may have a better understanding of student experiences of the teacher-student interactions. Furthermore, by gaining a deeper understanding of students' experiences of "code switching" between behavioral expectations between home and school may allow for opportunities to help students to develop bicultural skills. For example, students can learn how to assess situational appropriateness of student expression of agency and voice.

Lastly, the findings suggest that while there were no significant differences between racial/ethnic and immigration status group ratings, there may be something unique to RP that enhances the ideal of collective fair experience of school climate. In other words, students did not report racial/ethnic disparities in perceptions of student agency and voice. While the current study was not designed as an evaluation of RP, it does suggest that RP participation and exposure may demonstrate promise for mitigating the existence and experience of microclimates within schools. Particularly interesting, is the fact that the school had been implementing RP for three years, and subsequently the analyses of dimensions of school climate (i.e., supportive, restorative, equitable) were measured within the context of said RP implementation. Thus, the current study's findings may have detected a positive correlate of RP implementation in schools. These insights into the role of RP within the school setting could play a role in improving students' experiences and perceptions of overall school climate. Therefore, it seems as if RP may have benefits across the board. It is imperative that future research identify which components in

programs (e.g., quality of implementation of circles and conferences, involvement of student voice in decision-making) may have the extra boost for providing student with comparable experiences of school climate as a means to maintain a positive school climate.

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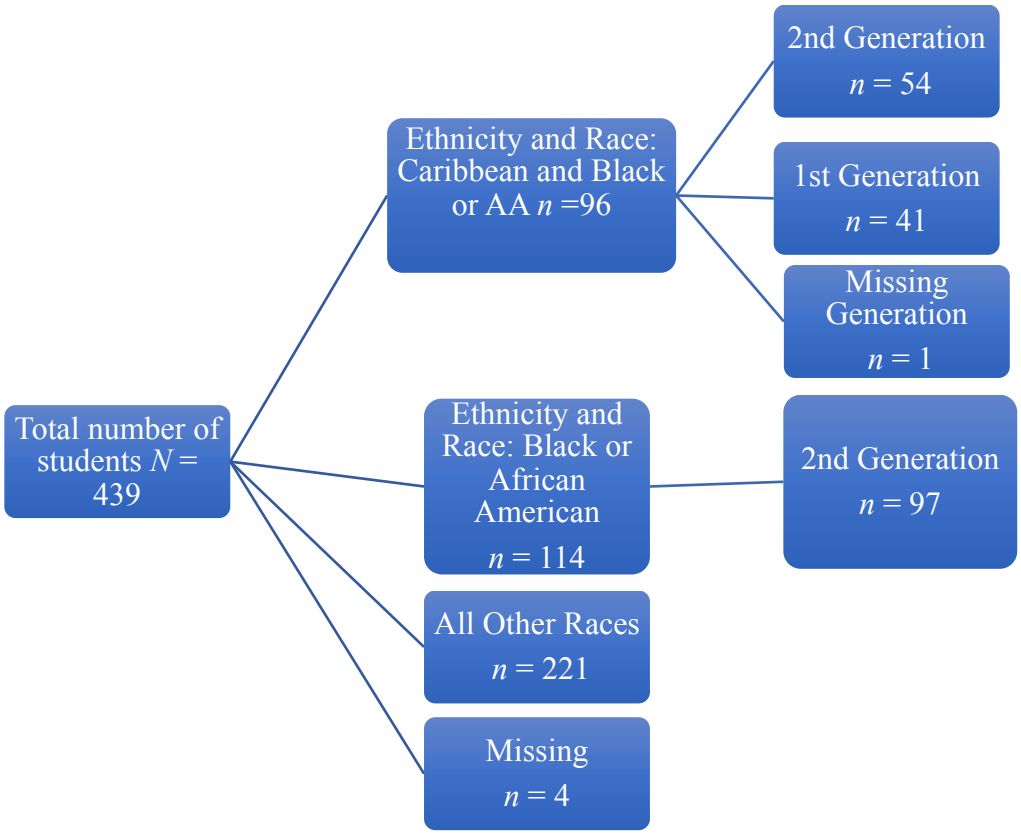
Appendix A



Appendix A. Sampling Strategy

Note: There were 108 students who identified ethnically as Caribbean with no other ethnicity or race, and 96 students identified as both Black or African American and Caribbean. Of 12 remaining students who identified as Caribbean, racially 4 identified as Hispanic/Latino, 2 as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 1 Asian, 2 American Indian, and 3 as Other.

Appendix B

Student Support Scale

We are interested in learning more about your experience with teachers and adults:

Strongly Agree = 1, Agree = 2, Disagree = 3, Strongly Disagree = 4

1. There are adults at this school I could talk with if I had a personal problem.
2. If I tell a teacher that someone is bullying me, the teacher will do something to help.
3. I am comfortable asking my teachers for help with my schoolwork.
4. There is at least one teacher or other adult at this school who really wants me to do well.
5. If another student talked about killing someone, I would tell one of the teachers or staff at school.
6. If another student brought a gun to school, I would tell one of the teachers or staff at school.

(Austin & Duerr, 2005)

Appendix C

Restorative Practices Use Scale

Your school is now using Restorative Practices. It is a way to build community and resolve conflict. Some of your teachers have been trained in Restorative Practices.

Please circle the best number for each statement:

Not at all = 1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3, Often = 4, Always = 5

1. My teachers ask students to express feelings, ideas, and experiences.
2. When someone misbehaves, me teachers ask students questions about their side of the story.
3. When someone misbehaves, my teachers have that person talk to who they hurt and asks them to make things right.
4. When someone misbehaves, my teachers have those who were hurt have a say in what needs to happen to make things right.
5. My teachers use circles as a time for students to share feelings, ideas, and experiences.
6. My teachers take students' thoughts and ideas into account when making decisions.
7. The administration (principal, vice principal) listens to my side of the story.

Appendix D

Positive School Climate

Now we want to ask you about your school. Please circle the best number for each statement:

Not true at all = 1, A little true = 2, Somewhat true = 3, Very true = 4, Completely true = 5

1. Students of different races/ethnicities trust each other.
2. Students here like to have friends of different races/ethnicities.
3. People of different races/ethnicities get along well.
4. Students of all races/ethnicities are treated equally at your school.
5. The principal/administrators treat all races/ethnicities fairly.
6. At your school, teachers are fair to students of all races/ethnicities.
7. Adults in your school encourage awareness of social issues affecting your culture.
8. Adults in your school teach about racial inequalities in the United States.
9. In your classes you have learned about how races/ethnicity plays a role in who is successful.
10. You have opportunities to learn about social justice.
11. Your racial or ethnic group is seen in stereotypical ways here.
12. Students here have a lot of stereotypes about your racial or ethnic group.
13. Teachers and principals believe negative stereotypes about your racial/ethnic groups.
14. Teachers are prejudiced against certain races/ethnic groups.
15. Your racial or cultural group is represented in stereotypical ways in textbook and class material.

(Byrd, 2015)