The Impact of Social Connectedness and Internalized Transphobic Stigma on Self-Esteem among Transgender and Gender Non-conforming Adults

Ashley Austin, PhD, LCSW

Barry University School of Social Work

Revital Goodman, LCSW

Barry University School of Social Work

**Correspondence should be addressed to first author:** Dr. Ashley Austin, Associate Professor, Director of the Center for Human Rights and Social Justice in the Barry University School of Social Work, 11300 NE 2nd Avenue, Miami Shores, FL 33161, [aaustin@barry.edu](mailto:aaustin@barry.edu)

**Acknowledgements:** The authors would like to express gratitude to the transgender and gender non-conforming participants who so openly shared their experiences with us in an effort to help advance knowledge, understanding, and ultimately well-being for TGNC communities. We would also like to thank Ashley Mason-Elrod for her fastidious work on this project. Finally, the authors acknowledge the Ware Foundation for its steadfast commitment to human rights and social justice and for providing the necessary funding to support this research.

**Introduction**

The range of transgender experiences are evolving in response to increased knowledge and understanding of what it means to be transgender or gender non-conforming (TGNC) in contemporary society, the replacement of the concept of gender as a binary consisting only of male or female with the concept of gender as continuum of experiences that may be fluid over time by many leading scholars and activists, as well as an emerging positive shift in social and cultural attitudes and support for TGNC individuals. As such, there are a growing number of terms, labels, and identities embraced by members of the TGNC community. Transgender is the commonly used umbrella term referring to any individual whose gender identity is incongruent with biological birth sex. As gender is increasingly recognized as a continuum, rather than a male-female binary, the term TGNC will be used in this discussion to encompass the wide array of binary and non-binary gender identities embraced by members of the community [e.g., agender, bigender, boi, Female to Male (FTM), genderfluid, genderqueer, Male to Female (MTF), third gender, transgender, transmasculine, transsexual, two spirit]. Moreover, in contrast with earlier decades, contemporary transgender experiences may or may not include a desire to transition, which is the process of living in a manner consistent with gender identity which may include changing one’s name, taking hormones, having gender confirming surgeries or changing legal documents. For instance, genderqueer or gender neutral individuals may feel more comfortable maintaining at an outward expression of gender that is perceived as neither rigidly male nor rigidly female, and as such have no need for surgeries or hormones to modify their external appearance.

**Disproportionate Risk**

Since 2014 TGNC people and TGNC issues have become more visible in mainstream media with several new television series airing on major networks. While this is an important early step in raising awareness, TGNC individuals continue to represent a notably marginalized population who persistently experience barriers to well-being in contemporary society (Grant, Mottet, Tanis, Harrison, Herman, & Keisling, 2011). Transgender individuals report pervasive discrimination, microaggressions, and victimization across the life span (Grant et al., 2011 Grossman & D’Augelli, 2007; Mizock, & Lewis, 2008; Nuttbrock, Hwahng, Bockting, Rosenblum, Mason, Macri, & Becker, 2010). Discrimination rooted in transphobia, the irrational fear, anger, hatred, disgust, and/or discomfort for individuals who do not conform to society’s gender expectations and genderism, an ideology that reinforces the negative evaluation of gender non-conformity and the privileging of gender conformity (Hill & Willoughby, 2005), begins early as school aged youth who express gender non-conformity or a TGNC identity experience alarming rates of harassment (78%), physical assault (35%), and sexual violence (12%) (Grant et al., 2011). Similarly, Goldblum, Testa, Pflum, Hendricks, Bradford, & Bongar (2012) found that in a sample of 290 TGNC young adults, 44.9% reported experiencing in-school gender based violence during their teen years. In addition, it is increasingly acknowledged that transgender people are regularly exposed to transphobic microaggressions (Austin, Craig, & McInroy, in press; Nadal, Skolnik, & Wong, 2012; Smith, Shin, & Officer, 2012), defined as “brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative slights and insults toward members of oppressed groups” (Sue et al., 2007, p. 271), from family, friends, teachers, and mental health providers, as well as in academic institutions, community service organizations, and the media (Austin et al., in press; Nadal et al., 2012). These experiences of transphobic discrimination and victimization have daunting short and long term physical, mental, and emotional consequences (Grossman & D’Augelli, 2008; Nuttbrock et al., 2010; Spicer, 2010).

**Minority Stress Model**

The Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003) has increasingly been used to explain the increased risk for negative outcomes and maladaptive behaviors among Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Questioning/Queer, and Transgender (LGBQ & T) people. According to minority stress theory, members of sexual and gender minority groups experience chronic stress resulting in part from prejudicial encounters, which in turn contribute to a higher prevalence of mental health and behavioral issues (Meyer, 2003). This type of stress is unique to marginalized populations (Meyer, 2003) and is perpetuated by a conflict between one’s internal self and the expectations of one’s social, cultural, and political environments. While this model was not specifically developed to explain stressors among TGNC individuals, several studies support the notion that TGNC individuals experience disproportionate rates of minority stressors, including physical and sexual violence, discrimination, stigma, and microaggressions as a result of a TGNC identity (Bockting, Miner, Swinburne, Hamilton, & Coleman, 2013; Grant et al., 2011; Marcellin, Scheim, Bauer, & Redman, 2013; Hendricks & Testa, 2012) Moreover, a recent study of cross-sectional data from a large (n=1093) and diverse online sample of transgender persons in the United States found that psychological distress was associated with enacted (actual experiences of rejection and discrimination) and felt (perceived rejection and expectations of being stereotyped or discriminated against) transphobic stigma (Bockting et al., 2013). Thus, for transgender individuals, the often daily onslaught of transphobic stereotypes, microaggressions, and discriminatory treatment leads to pervasive experiences of minority stress that may contribute to the development of emotional and behavioral health issues.

The deleterious impact of anti-TGNC discrimination and resultant minority stress has been established in the literature, yet there is little known about resilience and pathways to well-being among TGNC individuals. Several relatively recent qualitative studies uncover and illuminate the strength and resilience embodied by TGNC youth and adults, as well as various coping strategies and processes, as well as sources of support that appear to promote resilience (Austin, under review; Mizock & Lewis, 2008; Riggle, Rostosky, McCants, & Pascale-Hague, 2011) Singh, 2013; Singh, Hays, & Watson, 2011). Scholars agree about the importance of exploring the potential moderating effects of individual, social, and environmental/cultural factors that may buffer the effects of minority stress and anti-transgender discrimination and stigma among TGNC individuals (Breslow, Brewster, Velez, Wong, Geiger, & Soderstrom, 2015; Testa et al., 2014). Emerging evidence suggests that when coping with minority stress, one notable source of strength is a person’s feelings about and connection with other individuals who are stigmatized for the same characteristic (Sa´nchez & Vilain, 2009; Testa et al 2014). Scholars identify the importance of research and practice which attends to questions regarding the extent to which external stigma leads to internalized negative messages regarding TGNC identities and how those negative messages affect individuals’ connection with the TGNC community and overall well-being? (Sa´nchez & Vilain, 2009). The current study aims to address these concerns and advance existing literature through an exploration of the impact and potential interaction of a consequence of anti-transgender stigma, internalized transphobia, and a potential buffer against minority stress, social connectedness, on the self-esteem of TGNC identified adults.

**Internalized transphobia/stigma**

The consequences of pervasive minority stress associated with stigmatization of TGNC identities may complicate pathways to well-being and self-acceptance for TGNC individuals. In particular, experiences of external or public stigma such as discrimination, victimization and rejection from others appears to result in self-stigma, or the internalization of stigma (Mizock & Mueser, 2014; Vogel, Bitman, Hammer, & Wade, 2013). Herek, Gillis, and Cogan (2015) describe internalized stigma as personal acceptance of the stigmatized identity as a part of one’s own value system. They further assert that internalizing identity-based stigma involves adapting one’s self-concept to be congruent with the stigmatizing responses of society. For TGNC individuals, this self-stigmatization is referred to as internalized transphobia or internalized transphobic stigma. While there are relatively few studies exploring internalized stigma among TGNC individuals, existing studies suggest that higher levels of internalized stigma are associated with poorer coping skills (Mizock & Mueser, 2014) and greater psychological distress (Breslow et al., 2015). Similarly, in a study of transgender adults, Sa´nchez & Vilain (2009) found that the internalization of negative feelings about one’s trans identity was associated with lower scores of well-being. Additionally, the more positive participants felt about the trans community in general, the lower their scores of psychological distress. However, Breslow’s research did not support the hypothesis that internalized transphobia plays a mediating role between anti-transgender discrimination and psychological distress. Because internalized transphobic stigma remains a notably understudied area of exploration among TGNC populations and scholars have called for nuanced attention to the experiences of proximal stressors such as internalizations of identity-based stigma (Breslow et al., 2015; Testa et al., 2014), there is a need for additional research aimed at clarifying the potential relevance of internalized transphobia to well-being among TGNC individuals, and the potential factors that may buffer its impact.

**Social Connectedness**

Despite the disproportionate challenges endured by TGNC individuals, many demonstrate remarkable resilience, achieving success, wellbeing, and a positive sense of self and community, in the face of disproportionately high levels of minority stress (Austin under review; Beemyn & Rankin, 2011; McFadden, Frankowski, Flick, & Witten, 2013; Singh, 2013; Singh, Hays, & Watson, 2011; Singh & McKleroy, 2011). In particular, mounting qualitative research highlights unique aspects of resiliency among diverse samples of transgender individuals. In a recent grounded theory study of TGNC young people, narratives highlighted journeys toward authenticity, and self-acceptance that were often steeped in experiences of oppression; nevertheless, participants recounted stories of notable patience, perseverance, strength and emerging confidence (Austin, under review). Research findings highlight sources of resilience which include the ability to embrace self-worth in the face of oppression, hope for the future, social activism, and being a positive role model for others (Singh et al., 2011; Singh & McKleroy, 2011).

While there is little quantitative research examining factors that promote well-being among TGNC population, accruing evidence suggests that positive connection to a supportive community and a sense of social connectedness may be particularly important sources of well-being for members of the TGNC community (Bariola, Lyons, Leonard, Pitts, Badcock, & Couch, 2015; Frost & Meyer, 2012, Sa´nchez & Vilain, 2009; Testa, Jimenez, & Rankin, 2014). Findings from both Frost and Meyer (2012) and Sa´nchez & Vilain (2009) suggest that positive mental health among TGNC individuals is correlated with a connectedness to a community of similar others (e.g, TGNC support groups and TGNC social networks, social media groups). Additionally, survey research conducted by Bariola and colleagues (2015) with a sample of Australian transgender adults found that connecting frequently with LGBT peers was a signiﬁcant correlate of resilience.

Testa et al., (2014) found that connection with other TGNC identified individuals was notably important for both MTF and FTM individuals. Specifically, the authors found that having prior engagement or connection with other TGNC people during early stages of identity development significantly predicted decreased psychological distress (anxiety and suicidality) and increased comfort with one’s TGNC identity. Interestingly, a recent study conducted by Pflum et al (2015) found that transgender community connectedness was negatively associated with anxiety and depression among transfeminine identified participants, but the relation was not significant for transmasculine participants. Taken together, findings are consistent with the minority stress framework, which suggests that minority group connection and involvement may defend against the negative impact of identity-based discrimination (Meyer, 2003; Szymanski & Owens, 2009). Nevertheless there is a need for further research elucidating understanding of the potential role of social connectedness in buffering negative health outcomes and promoting well-being among TGNC individuals

**Self-esteem**

Self-esteem refers to a stable sense of personal worth or worthiness (Rosenberg, 1965) as well as the competence to cope with life stressors (Branden, 1969). The importance of understanding the factors which promote or enhance self-esteem is underscored by the plethora of research demonstrating the relation between high self-esteem and well-being, and low self-esteem and mental health challenges such as depression, isolation, and feelings of shame (Mann Hosman Schaalma, & de Vries, 2004; Orth, Robins, & Roberts, 2008; Strain & Shuff, 2010; Ulrich, Robins, Trzesniewski, Maes, & Schmitt, 2009) among general population, as well as among TGNC specific samples (Grossman, D’augelli, & Frank, 2011). Of notable concern is research which indicates that sexual and gender minority populations may be disproportionately impacted by lower levels of self-esteem (Bauermeister, Johns, Sandfort, Eisenberg, Grossman,& D’Augelli, 2010; Teasdale & Bradley-Engen, 2010; Wolfradt, & Neumann, 2001) as a result of pervasive experiences of internalized and externalized identity based stigma and discrimination. Given the importance of self-esteem to overall well-being and the potential threats to high self-esteem resulting from minority stress, it is vital that researchers explore the factors that potentially enhance or undermine self-esteem among TGNC individuals. As such the primary aim of this study is to explore the influence and potential interactions of internalized transphobia and social connectedness on the self-esteem of a sample of TGNC identified adults. The present study aims to add to this body of knowledge by exploring: (1) the influence of internalized transphobia and social connectedness on self-esteem within this study’s sample and (2) the potential moderating effect of social connectedness on the impact of internalized transphobia on self-esteem.

**Methods**

Procedure

The primary investigator (PI), and one research assistant recruited participants for this study (N = 65) in 2014 from the vendor area of one of the longest running national transgender conferences in the U.S. The PI rented the booth for the event following the standard conference protocol associated with applying for a booth for the purposes of conducting voluntary, informed research with interested, qualifying participants. The PI and a research assistant were stationed at the booth throughout the conference and invited conference attendees visiting the booth to participate in the study if they met the following eligibility criteria: (1) self-identify as transgender/gender non-conforming and (2) were at least 18 years of age. Researchers were available to explain the purpose of the study and/or answer any questions posed by attendees. Attendees who expressed an interest in participating were required to provide informed consent before participating in the study. All those who participated in the study received a $20.00 Amazon.com gift card.

Data was collected through a paper and pencil survey which took approximately 20-30 minutes to complete and was divided into seven sections: 1) demographic/background questions; 2) questions related to experiences with a therapist or counselor related to gender identity; 3) questions related to experiences with community support; 4) questions related to medical and physical modifications associated with bringing about consistency between internal identity and external appearance; 5) The Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale; 6) an internalized transphobia scale; 7) a social connectedness scale. The following study examines findings associated with the relations between internalized transphobia, social connectedness and self-esteem.

**Sample**

The sample for the current study consisted of 65 TGNC adult participants. The majority of study participants were non-Hispanic whites (74%) and had attended at least some college (82%). Self-reported gender identity included: bigender (2%), genderfluid (5%), man (11%), man of trans experience (2%), transgender (17%), transman (26%), transwoman (27%), transsexual (9%), two-spirit (5%) and woman (5%). Most participants selected just one preferred gender identity, while others selected multiple terms with which they identify. Participants reported sexual orientation as: asexual (5%) bisexual (12%) lesbian (12%), gay (3%), straight (38%), pansexual (22%), queer (2%) other (6%). Participants ranged in age from 18-73, with a mean age of 43.

**Measures**

Demographic data collection included solicitation of participants’ age, self-defined gender identity, sexual orientation, racial/ethnic identity, education level, state and country of residence, number of years self-identifying as transgender/gender non-conforming, and number of people to whom participants are “out” as transgender.

**Self-Esteem**

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (SES) (Rosenberg, 1965) is perhaps the most widely used self-esteem measure in social science research. Self-esteem is a positive or negative orientation toward oneself—an overall evaluation of one’s worth or value (Rosenberg, 1989). Much of Rosenberg’s work examined how social structural positions such as racial or ethnic statuses and institutional contexts like schools or families relate to self-esteem. This scale has been used successfully with LGBT populations (This 10-item scale includes items such as, *“I feel that I have a number of good qualities”* and *“On the whole I am satisfied with myself”* answered on a 4-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Scores can range from 10 to 40, with 40 indicating the highest level of self-esteem. This brief measure of global self-esteem has high reliability with Cronbach’s alpha for various samples ranging from .77 to .88 (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1993; Rosenberg, 1986, 1989). The scale maintained high internal consistency with the current study sample (.87).

**Social Connectedness**

The Social Connectedness Scale (Lee & Robbins, 1995) measures the degree of interpersonal closeness that is experienced between an individual and his or her social world (e.g., friends, peers, society) as well as the degree of difficulty in maintaining this sense of closeness. The self-report measure is an 8-item scale measuring 3 dimensions of connectedness: belonging, affiliation and companionship through the use a 6-point Likert response option format, 1=agree to 6= disagree (Lee & Robbins, 1995). Sample items include *"I feel disconnected from the world around me.”* And *“Even around people 1 know, I don't feel that I really belong."* Higher scores represent a strong sense of belonging. Scale reliability with the study sample is good, with high internal item consistency ( = .91).

**Internalized Transphobia**

The Internalized Transphobia scale used in this study was adapted from the Internalized Homophobia measure developed by Shidlo (1994) for use with lesbian, gay and bisexual women and men (Shidlo, 1994). This measure consists of thirteen, 4-point Likert Scale items assessing 3 dimensions of internalized transphobia: transgender self-worth, “*Whenever I think about being transgender, I feel depressed*” and “*Most transgender people end up lonely and isolated*); transgender identity and status within society “*I enjoy socializing in public with transgender people”* and *“Some transgender people flaunt their transgender identity too much*”; and extreme or maladaptive strategies to ameliorate transgender identity “*Over the past two years, I have contemplated suicide because I could not accept my transgender identity*”. Findings with the current sample indicated moderately high internal consistency for the adapted internalized transphobia measure (.81).

**Data Analysis**

**Preliminary analyses**

All data analyses were conducted using SPSS version 21. The data were screened for missing values, outliers, and linear relationships. Cases with missing values for key variables were excluded. Frequencies and descriptive analyses were generated for each of the demographic variables, as well as for the two independent variables and the dependent variable. Frequency analyses reveal more than half the sample (60%) had moderate levels of internalized transphobia, a quarter (25%) scored low, and 14% scored high; more than 60% of the sample scored above midway point on social connectedness indicative of a relatively high sense of social connection; finally, in this sample, more than 57% of participants’ scores indicated high self-esteem. Bivariate analyses were utilized to explore linear relationships between the study constructs. Findings assert significant bivariate correlation between internalized transphobia and self-esteem (p < .004) and between social connectedness and self-esteem (p < .000). Specifically, findings from Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analyses suggest statistically significant, relationships with a small effect size (Cohen, 1988) for both the relationship between internalized transphobia and self-esteem (r = -.383, p < .004, 14% shared variance) and social connectedness and self-esteem (r = .514, p < .000, 26% shared variance). Correlations indicate no significant relationships between demographic variables (age, level of education, gender identity, ethnicity, sexual orientation) and self-esteem, internalized transphobia, or social connectedness. Finally, independent variables were centered to reduce potential multicollinearity and a multiple regression analysis was used to examine if the relationship between internalized transphobia and self-esteem was moderated by social connectedness. (Field, 2014).

**Primary Analysis**

Standard multiple regression analysis was used to examine whether internalized transphobia and social connectedness predict self-esteem and how much variance in self-esteem scores can be explained by internalized transphobia and social connectedness scores. Additionally, standard regression analysis was used to examine if social connectedness moderates the relationship between internalized transphobia and self-esteem.

**Findings**

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the ability of two measures (internalized transphobia, social connectedness) to predict levels of self-esteem in a sample of TGNC adults (n=65). Findings indicate that internalized transphobia has a statistically significant negative relationship with self-esteem, while social connectedness has a statistically significantly positive impact on self-esteem. The model explains 34% of the total variance in self-esteem. While both internalized transphobia and social connectedness make a unique, and statistically significant, contribution to the prediction of self-esteem, social connectedness scores have a stronger unique contribution (= -.451) than internalized transphobia scores (= -.283) in explaining the variance in self-esteem. Specifically, results indicate that if social connectedness scores increase by one standard deviation, self-esteem scores will increase by .45 standard deviation units. Finally, social connectedness did not significantly moderate the relationship between internalized transphobia and self-esteem.

**Discussion and Implications for Clinical Practice**

Findings from the current study serve to extend our understanding of internalized transphobic stigma and resilience among TGNC adults through the lens of minority stress. In particular, this study’s findings related to the positive influence of social connectedness on self-esteem contribute to growing resiliency based research focused on TGNC populations. While recent research with TGNC individuals suggests the potential importance of social support and social or community connectedness and activism on positive mental health outcomes (Bariola et al., 2015; Pflum et al., 2015, Testa et al., 2014), this is among the first studies to specifically demonstrate that a sense of social connectedness is significantly associated with enhanced self-esteem in a sample of TGNC adults. Findings speak to the importance of developing and fostering (and funding) clinical interventions (e.g., group based interventions for TGNC youth and adults) and community-based programming (e.g., TGNC specific support groups, social groups, and events) aimed at increasing social connectedness among TGNC identified youth and adults. Additionally, findings about social connectedness underscore the potential role and significance of online communities, support groups, and other sources of virtual social connection for TGNC individuals living in rural or suburban areas with fewer LGBT or TGNC specific resources (Austin, under review; Collazo, Austin, & Craig, 2013).

Findings further indicate that internalized transphobic stigma has significant negative impact on the self-esteem of TGNC adults. While quantitative research examining the consequences of internalized transphobia on the well-being is scant, our findings are consistent with earlier research (Mizock & Mueser, 2014) which indicates that internalized transphobia may compromise positive coping skills. Because high self-esteem is a well-established source of resilience and may protect against psychosocial dysfunction and maladaptive coping, the negative influence of internalized transphobia on self-esteem has potentially serious and far reaching consequences for TGNC individuals. Notably, our finding that social connectedness is a significant predictor of self-esteem, but does not buffer (moderate) the negative impact of internalized transphobia has potentially important practice implications. For instance, while individual and community level interventions aimed at developing social connectedness among TGNC individuals would appear to be helpful in strengthening self-esteem, such intervention approaches would likely not be effective in undermining the deleterious impact of internalized transphobic stigma. Instead, clinical interventions (i.e., affirmative interventions which challenge unhelpful and stigmatizing thoughts about a TGNC identities, see Austin & Craig, 2015), socio-cultural practices (i.e., schools, communities, health care providers, and religious institutions which replace a binary understanding of gender with a more inclusive understanding of gender as a spectrum and which recognize and affirm TGNC identities), and policy level changes (e.g., policies that support health, employment, and legal inclusion and equality for TGNC people) aimed at reducing transphobic stigma (internal and external) may be particularly beneficial to the health and well-being of TGNC members of society.

**Limitations**

Despite the potential importance of study findings, there are several noteworthy limitations that must be discussed. In particular, the sample used in this study is not necessarily representative of TGNC individuals in general. Because participants were recruited from a long standing national transgender conference they may be unique with respect to their level of connection to the TGNC community, their level of agency and resourcefulness, as well as their socioeconomic status (notable cost associated with attending conference activities and staying at the conference hotel). Moreover, sample was relatively small (n=65) and had a majority non-Hispanic White sample. Because racial ethnic minority TGNC individuals, particularly transgender women experience the greatest rates of transphobic victimization and violence (NCAVP, 2014), a more racially/ethnically diverse sample is important for future research. In addition, the model in this study may have benefited from including a measure of experiences of stigmatization from externally located sources (e.g., discrimination, victimization, bullying or family rejection). Nevertheless the study significantly advances understanding of the effects of internalized transphobic stigma and social connectedness on the self-esteem of TGNC identified adults; given the paucity of research on this topic this is a notable addition to the existing literature.

**Directions for Future Research**

While this study makes a meaningful contribution to research aimed at better identifying the influence on potential risk (internalized transphobia) and resiliency (social connectedness) factors impacting self-esteem among TGNC individuals, specific mechanisms for promoting positive health and well-being among TGNC individuals remain understudied and inadequately understood. Future research should build on existing studies in several notable ways: (1) enhance understanding of additional factors that impact self-esteem among TGNC individuals (e.g., other forms of stigma, such as bullying or microaggressions, social support, coping, self-efficacy); (2) explore individual factors (e. g, depression, anxiety, religiosity, coping skills) and contextual factors (e.g., transphobic bullying, school culture, workplace discrimination and policies, exclusion from religious institutions, family rejection, affirmative health and mental health care) that contribute to internalized transphobia among TGNC youth and adults; (3) develop knowledge related to the mechanisms by which social connectedness promotes self-esteem among TGNC adults; (4) Expand understanding of the minority stress framework for TGNC identified individuals; specifically explore the potential buffering effect of resiliency factors on specific minority stressors (e.g., stigma, discrimination, bullying, victimization); and (5) utilize large samples of heterogeneous TGNC individuals (e.g., diversity across gender identity/expression, racial/ethnic identity, socioeconomic status, and age) in order to explore potential differences across subgroups of participants. Such research will notably expand the existing knowledge base associated with TGNC psychosocial functioning and will have a profound impact on the direction and targets for micro and macro level interventions aimed at interrupting negative health trajectories and promoting resilience and well-being among TGNC individuals.

**References**

Austin, A. (under review). **“**There I am”: Experiences of navigating a transgender or gender nonconforming identity in the dark. *Sex Roles.*

Austin, A., Craig, S. L. & McInroy, L. (In Press). Toward transgender affirmative social work education. *Journal of Social Work Education.*

Austin, A. & Craig, S. L. (2015). Transgender affirmative cognitive behavioral therapy: Clinical considerations and applications. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 4*6(1), 21-29.

Bariola, E. Lyons, A., Leonard, W., Pitts, M., Badcock, P. & Couch, M. (2015). Demographic and psychosocial factors associated with psychological distress and resilience among transgender individuals. *American Journal of Public Health, 105*(10), 2108-2116.

Bauermeister, J., Johns, M., Sandfort, T., Eisenberg, A., Grossman, A. & D’Augelli, A. (2010). Relationship trajectories and psychological well-being among sexual minority youth. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 39(10), 1148–1163.

Beemyn, G., & Rankin, S. (2011). The lives of transgender people. New York: Columbia

University Press.

Blascovich, J. & Tomaka, J. (1993). Measures of Self· Esteem. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver,

L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes* (3rd ed.), (pp. 115- 160). Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research.

Bockting, W., Miner, M., Swinburne, R., Hamilton, A. & Coleman, E. (2013). Stigma, mental health, and resilience in an online sample of the US transgender population. *American Journal of Public Health,* 103(5), 943-951.

Branden, N. (1969). The psychology of self-esteem. New York, NY: Bantam.

Breslow, A., Brewster, M., Velez, B., Wong, S., Geiger, E., & Soderstrom, B. (2015). Resilience

and collective action: Exploring buffers against minority stress for transgender individuals. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, *2,* 253-265.

Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral science* (2nd Ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Collazo, A., Austin, A., & Craig, S. L. (2013). Facilitating transition among transgender clients: Components of effective clinical practice. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 41*, 228–237. doi.org/10.1007/ s10615-013-0436-3

Orth, U., Robins, R. W., & Roberts, B. W. (2008). Low self-esteem prospectively predicts depression in adolescence and young adulthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 95*, 695–708.

Field, A. (2014). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics*. New Delhi, India: SAGE Publications.

Frost, D. M., & Meyer, I. H. (2012).  Measuring community connectedness among diverse

sexual minority populations. *Journal of Sex Research, 48*, 36-49.

Goldblum, P., Testa, R., Pflum, S., Hendricks, M., Bradford, J., & Bongar, B. (2012). Gender-

based victimization and suicide attempts among transgender people. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 43(5),* 465-475.

Grant, J. M., Mottet, L. A., Tanis, J., Harrison, J., Herman, J. L., & Keisling, M. (2011). Injustice at every turn: A report of the national transgender discrimination survey. Retrieved February, 12, 2012, from http://endtransdiscrimination.org/report.html

Grossman, A. H., & D’Augelli, A. R. (2007). Transgender youth and life-threatening behaviors. *Suicide & Life-Threatening Behavior, 37*, 527–537. doi.org/10.1521/suli.2007.37.5.527

Grossman, A. D’augelli, A. & Frank, J. (2011). Aspects of psychological resilience among transgender youth. *The Journal of GLBT Youth, 8*(2), 103-115.

Hendricks & Testa (2012). A conceptual framework for clinical work with transgender and gender nonconforming clients: An adaptation of the minority stress model. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 43(5),* 460-467. doi: 10.1037/a0029597

Herek, G. M., Gillis, J. R., & Cogan, J. C. (2015). Internalized stigma among sexual minority adults: Insights from a social psychological perspective. *Stigma and Health, 1S*, 18-34.

Hill, D. B. & Willoughby (2005). Development and validation of the genderism and transphobia scale. *Sex Roles, 53*(7/8), 531-544.

Lee, R., & Robbins, S. (1995). Measuring belongingness: The social connectedness and the

social assurance scales. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42*(2), 232-241.  doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.42.2.232

Mann, M., Hosman, C., Shaalma, H. & de Vries, N. (2004). Self-esteem in a broad-spectrum approach for mental health promotion. *Health Education Resources, 19*(4), 357-372.

Marcellin, R., Scheim, A., Bauer, G., & Redman, N. (2013). Experiences of transphobia among trans Ontarians. *Trans PULSE e-Bulletin, 3(2).* http://www.transpulseproject.ca.

McFadden, S. H., Frankowski, S., Flick, H., & Witten, T. M. (2013). Resilience and multiple stigmatized identities: Lessons from transgender persons reflections on aging. In J. D. Sinnott (Ed.)*Positive Psychology: Advances in Understanding Adult Motivation.* Springer Science & Business Media; pp. 247-267

Meyer, I. H. (2003). Prejudice, social stress, and mental health in lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations: Conceptual issues and research evidence. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*, 674–697. doi.org/10.1037/00332909.129.5.674

Mizock, L., & Lewis, T. K. (2008). Trauma in transgender populations: Risk, resilience, and clinical care. *Journal of Emotional Abuse, 8,* 335–354. doi.org/10.1080/10926790802262523

Nadal, K. L., Skolnik, A., & Wong, Y. (2012). Interpersonal and systemic microaggressions toward transgender people: Implications for counseling. *Journal of LGBT Issues in Counseling, 6*, 55–82. doi.org/10.1080/15538605.2012.648583

Mizock, L., Mueser, K. (2014). Employment, mental health, internalized stigma, and coping with

transphobia among transgender individuals. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, *1(2),* 146-158. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/sgd0000029

National Coalition of Anti-violence Programs (2014). *Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer and HIV-Affected Hate Violence in 2013*. Retrieved from http://www.avp.org/storage/documents/2013\_ncavp\_hvreport\_final.pdf

Nuttbrock, L., Hwahng, S., Bockting, W., Rosenblum, A., Mason, M., Macri, M., & Becker, J. (2010). Psychiatric impact of gender-related abuse across the life course of male-to-female transgender persons. *Journal of Sex Research, 47*, 12–23.

Pflum, S., Testa, R., Balsam, K., Goldblum, P. & Bongar, B. (2015). Social support, trans community connectedness, and mental health symptoms among transgender and gender nonconforming adults. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity, 2*(3), 281–286.

Riggle, E. D. B. Rostosky, S. S., McCants, L. E., & Pascale-Hague, D. (2011). The positive aspects of transgender self-identification. *Psychology and Sexuality, 2*(2), 147-158.

Rosenberg, M. (1986). *Conceiving the self*. Malabar, Fl: Krieger.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenberg, M. (1989). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Revised edition. Middletown, CT:

Wesleyan University Press.

Sa´nchez, F. & Vilain, E. (2009) Collective self-esteem as a coping resource for male-to-female

transsexuals. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 56*(1), 202–209

Shidlo, A. (1994) Internalized homophobia: conceptual and empirical issues in measurement. In

Greene, B. and Herek, G. (eds), *Lesbian and Gay Psychology: Theory*, *Research and*

*Clinical Applications*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 176–205.

Singh, A. A. (2013). Transgender youth of color and resilience: Negotiating oppression and finding support. *Sex Roles, 68*, 690–702. doi.org/10.1007/s11199-012-0149-z

Singh, A. A., Hays, D. G., & Watson, L. S. (2011). Strength in the face of adversity: Resilience strategies of transgender individuals. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 89*, 20–27. dx.doi.org/10.1002/ j.1556-6678.2011.tb00057.x

Singh, A. A. & McKleroy, V. S. (2011). ‘Just getting out of bed is a revolutionary act’. *Traumatology, 17*(2), 34-44.

Smith, L. C., Shin, R. Q. & Officer, L. M. (2012). Moving counseling forward on LGB and transgender issues: Speaking queerly on microaggressions and discourses. *The Counseling Psychologist, 40*(3), 385-408.

Spicer, S. S. (2010). Healthcare needs of the transgender homeless population. Journal of Gay & Lesbian Mental Health, 14, 320–339. doi.org/10.1080/19359705.2010.505844

Strain, J. & Shuff, M. (2010). Psychological well-being and level of outness in a population of male-to-female transsexual women attending a national transgender conference. *International Journal of Transgenderism,* *12(4),* 230–240. doi:10.1080/15532739.2010.544231

Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A. M. B., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: Implications for clinical practice. *American Psychologist, 62*, 271–286. doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.62.4.271

Szymanski, D., Owens, G. (2009). Group level coping as a moderator between heterosexism and

sexism and psychological distress in sexual minority women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 33(2),* 197-205. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2009.01489.x

Teasdale, B. & Bradley-Engen, M. S. (2010). Adolescent same-sex attraction and mental health: The role of stress and support. *Journal of Homosexuality*, *57*(2), 287– 309.

Testa, R., Jimenez, C. & Rankin, S. (2014). Risk and resilience during transgender identity development: the effects of awareness and engagement with other transgender people on affect. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Mental Health,* 18, 31–46. doi:10.1080/19359705.2013.805177.

Ulrich, O., Robins, R., Trzesniewski, K., Maes, J., & Schmitt, M. (2009). Low self-esteem is a risk factor for depressive symptoms from young adulthood to old age. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 118*(3) 472– 478.

Vogel, D., Bitman, R., Hammer, J. & Wade, N. (2013). Is stigma internalizes? The longitudinal

impact of public stigma on self-stigma. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 60(2),* 311-316. doi: 10.1037/a0031889

Wolfradt, U., & Neumann, K. (2001). Depersonalization, self-esteem and body image in male-to-female transsexuals compared to male and female controls. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 30*, 301–310.