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Sociocultural Variables Associated with Parental Rejection in Parents of Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual Youth: The Impact on LGB Youth Adjustment

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Parental rejection of LGB youth appears to be common and has been found to negatively affect the adjustment of LGB youth. Factors associated with parental rejection, however, have not been thoroughly examined in the literature thus far. Therefore, the current study investigated if sociocultural variables, specifically homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity, are associated with parental rejection and, furthermore, if parental rejection mediate the relationship between these sociocultural variables and LGB youth adjustment. Participants in the multi-ethnic sample included 93 parents of LGB youth (ages 32-71) and 93 LGB youth (ages 14-25). Parental homonegativity and traditional gender role beliefs, but not disgust sensitivity, were found to be positively associated with parental rejection. Parental rejection was found to be a mediator for some youth adjustment outcomes, specifically internalizing problems and personal adjustment. Implications for future research and clinical work with this population are discussed.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Many LGB (lesbian, gay, and bisexual) youth are indistinguishable from their heterosexual counterparts in terms of their psychosocial and mental health adjustment. However, research has demonstrated that, on average, LGB youth are at heightened risk to experience psychological difficulties (D'Augelli, 2002; Fergusson, Horwood, & Beautrais, 1999; Mustanski, Garofalo, & Emerson, 2010). The mechanisms underlying this increased risk are not yet entirely understood, but one variable that has come under examination is parental rejection. Parental rejection has not only been found to be a common issue in families with LGB youth (D'Augelli, Hershberger, & Pilkington, 1998), but it has also been linked with deleterious outcomes in LGB youth (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; Ryan, Huebner, Diaz, & Sanchez, 2009; Willoughby, Doty, & Malik, 2008; Willoughby, Doty, & Malik, 2010).

While research has established an association between parental rejection and the psychosocial and mental health adjustment of LGB youth, relatively little research has examined why parents might be rejecting of their children in the first place. Indeed, predictors of parental rejection in parents of LGB youth have been given scant attention, which is a regrettable omission especially considering the potential impact parental rejection can have on these youth. The current study aims to contribute to this literature by examining three sociocultural variables that might explain why some parents of LGB youth are rejecting of their children. Specifically, homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity were examined as factors associated with parental rejection. Homonegativity, a term similar to homophobia, refers to negative attitudes towards homosexuality (Hudson & Rickets, 1980). Gender role beliefs refer to expectations of

how men and women ought to behave (Kerr & Holden, 1996). Lastly, disgust sensitivity refers to differences in how prone individuals are to experience feelings of disgust (Tybur, Lieberman, & Griskevicius, 2009). In addition, parental rejection was examined as a mediator between these three sociocultural parental risk variables and youth adjustment. Probing the mechanisms underlying parental rejection by looking at these variables serves to promote the welfare of LGB youth, their parents, and their families and to inform clinicians working with this population.

The Risk for Maladjustment in LGB Youth

The previous three decades have witnessed an increase in the number of studies examining the psychosocial and mental health adjustment of LGB youth. Much of the early work in this area focused on suicidal ideation and suicide attempts, and several studies found LGB youth to be at increased risk for self-harm (Bagley & Tremblay, 1997; D'Augelli & Hershberger, 1993; Faulkner & Cranston, 1998; Hammelman, 1993; Hunter, 1990; Remafedi, French, Story, Resnick, & Blum, 1998). Researchers have replicated findings from these early studies, as more recent studies demonstrate that LGB youth continue to be at elevated risk for suicidal ideation and suicide attempts (Jiang, Perry, & Hesser, 2010; Russell & Joyner, 2001; Silenzio, Pena, Duberstein, Cerel, & Knox, 2007; Zhao, Montro, Igartua, & Thombs, 2010). Today, concern for the well-being of LGB adolescents and young adults exists not only in the research community, but also in the community at large. The media, for example, has recently highlighted several particularly devastating stories of young individuals identified as LGB committing suicide, such as Tyler Clementi at Rutgers University in 2010, and has thus drawn attention to this issue. The disparity in psychosocial and mental health adjustment between LGB youth and their

heterosexual counterparts, however, extends beyond suicide risk to other dimensions of functioning.

Numerous studies have shown LGB youth to have worse outcomes than heterosexual youth on many dimensions of psychosocial and mental health adjustment. For example, LGB youth report higher levels of mental disorders, both internalizing and externalizing, than heterosexual youth (Bos, Sandfort, de Bruyn, & Hakvoort, 2008; Fergusson et al., 1999; Galliher, Rostosky, & Hughes, 2004; Hatzenbuehler, McLaughlin, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2008; Lock & Steiner, 1999; Mustanski et al., 2010; Safren & Heimberg, 1999). Results from Fergusson and colleagues (1999) found LGB youth to be at increased risk for major depression, generalized anxiety disorder, and conduct disorder. Additionally, LGB youth also report higher levels of substance use than heterosexual youth (Corliss et al., 2010; Marshal et al., 2008; Marshal, Friedman, Stall, & Thompson, 2009; Ortiz-Hernández, Tello, & Valdés, 2009; Rosario, Hunter, & Gwadz, 1997; Russell, Driscoll, & Truong, 2002). For example, Marshal and colleagues (2008) concluded that the odds of substance use for sexual minority young people are 190% higher than for sexual majority, or heterosexual, young people. Additional findings include LGB youth self-reporting riskier sexual behavior (Bontempo & D'Augelli, 2002; Coker, Austin, & Schuster, 2010; Garofalo, Wolf, Kessel, Palfrey, & DuRant, 1998), more violence exposure and victimization, (D'Augelli, 2002; Faulkner & Cranston, 1998; Robin et al., 2002), and more homelessness (Coker et al., 2010) than heterosexual youth. These findings illustrate a gap in psychosocial and mental health adjustment between LGB adolescents and young adults and their sexual majority counterparts.

While numerous studies demonstrate that LGB youth are at heightened risk for thinking about and attempting suicide, developing a mental health disorder, or using substances, not all studies have found differences. Austin and colleagues (2004) concluded that LGB youth, especially lesbian and bisexual girls, are not more likely than heterosexual youth to develop an eating disorder. Research on resilience is also emerging, with researchers pointing out that despite differences at a group level, not all LGB youth attempt suicide, have major depression, or binge drink (Savin-Williams, 2001a). Other factors, not just sexuality, are clearly involved. Savin-Williams (2001a) wrote, "To propose that gay youth are at risk for suicide distorts the truth because clearly not all gay youth are at risk; some are and some are not and the important question is to distinguish these two—which sexual-minority youth are at risk?" (p. 7). As yet, however, little is known about which LGB youth are at risk and what accounts for this risk. These are issues that the scientific community is just beginning to explore.

Parental Rejection and the Risk for Maladjustment in LGB Youth

Developing a better understanding of why a disparity exists in the psychosocial and mental health adjustment between LGB youth and their heterosexual peers is a newly emergent area of study. One of the more influential bodies of literature in this area has focused on the families of LGB youth. Reactions of parents to their children's sexual identity vary widely (Merighi & Grimes, 2000; Savin-Williams, 2001b; Valentine, Skelton, & Butler, 2003). Some parents are accepting of their LGB youth (D'Augelli, Grossman, & Starks, 2005; D'Augelli et al., 1998; Savin-Williams & Ream, 2003; Willoughby, Malik, & Lindahl, 2006). However, rejection and negative responses are not uncommon (D'Augelli et al., 1998; D'Augelli, Grossman, & Starks, 2008; Remafedi,

1987; Savin-Williams, 1990). Specifically, parental rejection is not necessarily the opposite of acceptance, but is, rather, a distinct dimension, albeit highly associated with acceptance. It focuses on negative reactions from parents with regard to the sexual minority status of LGB youth (Bregman, Malik, Page, Makynen, & Lindahl, 2013).

A fear of being rejected by their parents is a salient concern for many LGB youth (D'Augelli et al., 1998; D'Augelli et al., 2008). For example, in a group of LGB youth who had not yet disclosed their sexual identity to their parents, D'Augelli and colleagues (1998) found that over one-third anticipated outright rejection from their parents. On the other hand, only about 10% to 14% of these nondisclosed youth anticipated acceptance. Thus, while a small minority of LGB youth appears to anticipate that disclosure of their sexual identity to their parents will be met with open arms, the majority appears to anticipate some level of rejection.

Research has illustrated that many LGB youth have valid concerns about their parents' reactions. While some parents are accepting, numerous studies document that many LGB youth experience some parental rejection (D'Augelli et al., 1998; D'Augelli et al., 2008; Remafedi, 1987; Savin-Williams, 1990). As LGB sexual identity acceptance has proven to be problematic within the broader society, so too it has proven to be problematic for many parents. For example, D'Augelli and colleagues (2008) found that among LGB youth in one-parent families who had disclosed their sexual identity to their parent, 47% of the youth perceived their parents' reactions to their sexual identity to be negative. Furthermore, among LGB youth in two-parent families who had disclosed their sexual identity to both parents, 31% of youth perceived both of their parents' reactions to their sexual identity to be negative, and 34% of youth perceived their parents' reactions

to their sexual identity to be mixed, which indicates at least some negativity in the responses of these parents.

In addition to documenting the prevalence of parental rejection, research has demonstrated that parental rejection does indeed have a deleterious association with the well-being of LGB youth (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; D'Augelli, 2002; Rosario, Schrimshaw, & Hunter, 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan, Russell, Huebner, Diaz, & Sanchez, 2010; Willoughby et al., 2008; Willoughby et al., 2010). For example, in a sample of 111 LGB youth who had disclosed their sexual identity to their parents, D'Amico and Julien (2012) found that past and current parental rejection was associated with current identity difficulties and psychological maladjustment. Ryan and colleagues (2009) arrived at a similar conclusion. They administered a survey assessing parental reactions to sexual identity and health behaviors to a sample of 224 LGB youth and found a clear link between parental rejection and youth negative health behaviors. LGB youth who reported high levels of parental rejection were 8.4 times more likely to report having attempted suicide, 5.9 times more likely to report having high levels of depression, and 3.4 times more likely to report having used illegal drugs when compared to LGB youth who reported no parental rejection or low levels of parental rejection. The relatively worse psychosocial and mental health adjustment of LGB youth when compared to their heterosexual peers, then, may well be in part a function of parental rejection.

Examining Homonegativity, Gender Role Beliefs, and Disgust Sensitivity as Variables Associated with Parental Rejection in Parents of LGB Youth

Research indicates that LGB youth are at risk for experiencing maladjustment and that this risk is in part explained by parental rejection. In light of this latter finding, it is

surprising that relatively little empirical attention has been directed toward understanding factors associated with parental rejection in parents of LGB youth. One of the limitations of this research has been that parents are rarely involved. Parental rejection has been measured almost exclusively by youth report of perceptions of parental reactions. As such, associated factors are difficult to measure empirically. Some research conducted in this area, however, has suggested that negative parental reactions are indicative of underlying homophobic feelings (Little, 2001; Rosenberg, 2003). Other research has shown that certain features of family dynamics, including religiosity, concerns about conformity, and previous parent-child relationship quality, also impact the reactions of parents to the sexual identity of their LGB youth (Collins & Zimmerman, 1983; DeVine, 1984; Saltzburg, 2004). In continuing this line of research, the current study aims to contribute to the understanding of parental rejection in parents of LGB youth, first, by involving parents directly and, second, by examining three sociocultural variables theoretically relevant to parental rejection: homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity.

Two theoretical structures, the social-cognitive-behavioral model of adjustment (Crosbie-Burnett, Foster, Murray, & Bowen., 1996) and the construct of heterosexism, can be used to explain why homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity are relevant to parental rejection in parents of LGB youth. The social-cognitive-behavioral model of adjustment, developed by Crosbie-Burnett et al. (see Figure 1; 1996), is a relatively broad framework that posits that parental reactions and behaviors toward their LGB youth do not exist in isolation from intrapersonal factors, such as cognitions and emotions. At this level of analysis, homonegativity, gender role beliefs,

and disgust sensitivity could certainly be regarded relevant to parental rejection, as they are intrapersonal cognitions and emotions that might be linked with reactions and behaviors. Additionally, these intrapersonal factors and behaviors are positioned within a societal context in this model. The broader societal context, where heterosexism and gender stereotypes are considered normative, further suggests that a link may exist between intrapersonal variables such as homonegativity, gender role beliefs, disgust sensitivity, and parental rejection of their LGB sons and daughters.

The construct of heterosexism can be used to describe the nature of this broader societal context in which parental cognitions, emotions, and behaviors transpire. Herek (2004) defines heterosexism as "the cultural ideology that perpetuates sexual stigma by denying and denigrating any nonheterosexual form of behavior, identity, relationship, or community" (p. 16). Additionally, this ideology is entrenched at the institutional level and likely influences daily thoughts, beliefs, values, and actions of individuals, albeit perhaps unwittingly. Laws prohibiting LGB individuals from marrying or negative language referring to homosexuality, such as "faggot" or "dyke," are two clear examples. Regardless of the means, however, heterosexism ultimately perpetuates a hierarchy wherein heterosexuality is implicitly, and sometimes explicitly, valued over anything homosexual.

Homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity are variables influenced by the cultural value of heterosexism. Additionally, the extent to which an individual endorses such beliefs and feelings may also elucidate the extent to which an individual adheres to the ideology of heterosexism. For example, heterosexism reinforces a strict masculine-feminine gender binary and often devalues deviations from this binary,

with a clear example in the case of same-sex romantic relations. An individual with traditional gender role beliefs, therefore, is likely to see same-sex romantic relations as illicit, threatening, or, at the least, taboo. This ideology also may enlist the rhetoric of disgust to negatively portray LGB individuals. An individual who is exceptionally sensitive to disgust, therefore, may be likely to find LGB individuals or same-sex romantic relations inherently repugnant. Therefore, homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity, when viewed through the theoretical lenses of the social-cognitive-behavioral model of adjustment (Crosbie-Burnett et al., 1996) and heterosexiam (Herek, 2004), are intrapersonal factors postulated to be associated with parental behavior in parents of LGB youth. In addition to these theoretical structures, the research on homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity also suggests the relevance of these variables to parental rejection in parents of LGB youth.

Homonegativity. The term homophobia was formally coined a little over four decades ago by psychologist George Weinberg (Weinberg, 1973). Weinberg's creation of this term simultaneously functioned to depathologize homosexuality and to draw attention to and to problematize the prejudice harbored against LGB individuals. Around this same time, the field of clinical psychology itself officially removed homosexuality as a diagnostic category from the DSM-II. Prejudice against LGB individuals, on the other hand, was not so easily removed and still exists today, although generally less overtly than decades ago.

While the term homophobia served a key purpose in depathologizing homosexuality and articulating the prejudice against homosexuality and LGB individuals, some authors have criticized the use of this term (Freedman, 2008; Hudson & Rickets,

1980; Williamson, 2000). These authors have primarily taken issue with the "phobia" label, as it implies an inherent fear of homosexuality. They argue that such a construct should be more comprehensive. Hudson and Rickets (1980) posit that in addition to fear, negative attitudes toward LGB individuals may also include disgust, anger, discomfort, and aversion. The term homonegativity, having a negative attitude toward LGB individuals, better captures this broader construct by expanding the view of these negative attitudes beyond fear (Hudson & Rickets, 1980).

In the area of LGB psychology, there have been many studies on homonegativity. Much of this research has focused on the association between homonegativity and the psychosocial and mental health adjustment of LGB youth. Some research has examined homonegativity broadly and its association with distress (Diaz, Ayala, Bein, Henne, & Marin, 2001; McDermott, Roen, & Scourfield, 2008; Savin-Williams & Dubé, 1998). For example, Diaz and colleagues (2001) measured homonegativity and distress in interviews with 912 gay and bisexual Latino men. The results revealed high prevalence rates of distress, including suicidal ideation, anxiety, and depression, in these men. Distress was strongly predicted by experiences of social discrimination, including exposure to homonegativity. Similarly, McDermott and colleagues (2008) examined the association between homonegativity and self-destructive behaviors in 27 LGBT (lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender) youth. Qualitative data from interviews and focus groups illustrated a strong link between homonegativity and self-destructive behaviors. With regard to coming out, some studies also suggest that homonegativity in the broader culture may make disclosure of sexuality to parents especially stressful for LGB youth (Savin-Williams & Dubé, 1998). Thus, a significant body of research has identified a link

between homonegativity and the psychosocial and mental health adjustment of LGB youth. Little is known, however, about homonegativity in parents of LGB youth and about how homonegativity in parents might be associated with their rejection of their children's sexuality or with their children's psychosocial and mental health adjustment directly.

Although not yet well studied in parents, several studies demonstrate how homonegativity is associated with the treatment of LGB individuals. Indeed, homonegative attitudes have been found to predict negative behavioral intentions, negative behavior, and aggression toward LGB individuals (Bernat, Calhoun, Adams, & Zeichner, 2001; Morrison & Morrison, 2011; Schope & Eliason, 2000). Morrison and Morrison (2011) collected information on homonegative attitudes and behavioral intentions toward a gay and a straight mayoralty candidate in 196 community participants. They found that homonegativity predicted negative behavioral intentions toward the gay, but not the straight, mayoralty candidate. Similarly, Bernat and colleagues (2001) assessed homonegativity in 52 heterosexual college men. They dichotomized the group into a group of 26 men low in homonegativity and 26 men high in homonegativity. Their findings demonstrated that the men high in homonegativity were significantly more aggressive toward a fictitious homosexual opponent during a reaction time task than were the men low in homonegativity. This research suggests that parents of LGB youth who are homonegative may be at risk to exhibit negative behaviors and possibly even rejection toward their children. To what extent these findings generalize to parents of LGB youth or to parental rejection, however, is unknown, as

these studies did not include parents of LGB youth and did not examine parental rejection.

As previously articulated, little research has directly investigated homonegativity in parents of LGB youth, let alone its connection to parental rejection or youth functioning. The limited research that has been done, however, suggests that homonegativity in parents of LGB youth has an association with various negative outcomes (Darby-Mullins & Murdock, 2007; Floyd, Stein, Harter, Allison, & Nye, 1999; Holtzen & Agresti, 1990). Floyd and colleagues (1999), for example, collected interview and questionnaire data on 72 LGB youth. Variables of interest included relatedness, autonomy, and conflictual independence in relation to mothers and fathers, along with parental attitudes, identity consolidation, and well-being. They found that LGB youth report of parental homonegative attitudes was associated with low levels of relatedness and conflictual independence, which is described as feeling little to no guilt, anger, and resentment toward parents. Additionally, they found that less homonegative parental attitudes was associated with greater well-being in LGB youth, including greater consolidation of sexuality identity. More recently, Darby-Mullins and Murdock (2007) explored the association between homonegative parental attitudes and LGB youth's acceptance of their sexuality and emotional adjustment. From a sample of 102 adolescents, they concluded that youth report of homonegative parental attitudes was significantly related to emotional maladjustment. Despite gaps in the literature, the current study's hypothesis that homonegativity is associated with parental rejection and, ultimately, with poor psychosocial functioning and mental health outcomes in LGB youth is generally supported by the research to date.

Gender role beliefs. Gender role beliefs are an individual's understanding of what role in society men and women ought to take and how men and women ought to behave in those roles (Kerr & Holden, 1996). For example, an individual with traditional gender role beliefs might believe in rigid categories of masculinity and femininity in which men and women have separate, or largely non-overlapping, spheres of emotional expression and behavior. An individual with less rigid gender role beliefs, on the other hand, might believe that masculine and feminine categories should be more fluid.

Gender role beliefs have been extensively explored within the broad context of LGB psychology, especially in terms of attitudes toward LGB individuals. This research has found, consistently, that belief in traditional gender roles is associated with negative attitudes toward LGB individuals and antigay prejudice (Cárdenas, Barrientos, Gómez, & Frías-Navarro, 2012; Cotten-Huston & Waite, 2000; Jewell & Morrison, 2012; Laner & Laner, 1980; Nierman, Thompson, Bryan, & Mahaffey, 2007; Parrott & Gallagher, 2008; Swank & Raiz, 2007). These findings have been replicated across several different populations. Cotten-Huston and Waite (2000), for example, found that traditional gender role attitudes were significantly associated with anti-homosexual attitudes in a sample of 173 American undergraduate students. In a sample of 238 Chilean undergraduate students, Cárdenas and colleagues (2012) found that traditional gender role beliefs were significantly related to negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. Swank and Raiz (2007) obtained similar results in a sample of 748 social work students from 12 different colleges. In this sample, traditional gender role beliefs were significantly associated with discomfort with homosexuals. To a certain extent, therefore, gender role beliefs appear to be associated with the way in which LGB individuals are perceived. Specifically, extant

research suggests that an individual with traditional gender role beliefs is likely to hold negative perceptions of LGB individuals.

Not only has research demonstrated that gender role beliefs are associated with attitudes toward LGB individuals, but studies have also shown that gender role beliefs are associated with behaviors and aggression directed toward LGB individuals (Goodman & Moradi, 2008; Parrott, Peterson, & Bakeman, 2011). Goodman and Moradi (2008), for example, examined the association between traditional gender role attitudes and rejecting and affirming behaviors toward LG (lesbian and gay) individuals in a sample of 255 college women and men. Their results indicated that as belief in traditional gender role increased, LG-rejecting behaviors increased as well, while LG-affirming behaviors decreased. Similarly, Parrott et al. (2011) examined the association between adherence to masculine ideology and aggression toward sexual minorities in a sample of 199 heterosexual men from the community in a large southeastern U.S. city. It was found that adherence to more traditional norms of masculinity, including status, toughness, and antifemininity, was related to aggression toward sexual minorities.

Links between traditional gender role beliefs, homonegativity, and homonegative behaviors are also found in qualitative studies (Jewell & Morrison, 2010, 2012). For example, Jewell and Morrison (2012) interviewed heterosexual men and women about their experiences with gay men and their rationale for homonegative attitudes and behaviors. Results indicated that the participants were uncomfortable with the perception that gay men are effeminate. Jewell and Morrison (2010) also interviewed heterosexual men and women about their antigay discrimination behaviors. They found that a primary motivation for these behaviors was to reinforce traditional male gender roles. Thus, even

in their own accounts, research participants have noted that gender role beliefs are connected with homonegativity and homonegative behaviors.

Gender role beliefs appear to be a key factor in understanding how LGB individuals are perceived and treated. Indeed, research indicates that an individual with traditional gender role beliefs is more likely to demonstrate negative attitudes, prejudice, negative behaviors, and aggression toward LGB individuals than an individual with less traditional gender role beliefs. However, little research has directly examined gender role beliefs in parents of LGB youth. In one of the few studies in this area, Holtzen and Agresti (1990) found traditional gender role beliefs to be associated with homonegativity in a sample of LGB youth. This finding parallels the literature on gender role beliefs in the general population. In another study with parents of LGB youth, Conley (2011) looked at the association between gender identity in parents of LGB youth and parental concerns about societal rejection, loss of loved ones, and youth well-being. Findings indicated that parents who were identified as undifferentiated or androgynous with regard to gender identity exhibited fewer concerns than parents who were identified as feminine. With regard to the current study, this literature suggests that parents of LGB youth who have traditional gender role beliefs may be more rejecting of their youth than parents who have less traditional gender role beliefs.

Disgust sensitivity. Disgust, the remaining sociocultural variable of interest in this study, is distinct from the previously outlined predictors, homonegativity and gender role beliefs, in that it is an emotion, not an attitude or belief system. The recognition of disgust as one of the basic human emotions dates as far back as Darwin (1872/1965), who described disgust as referring to “something revolting, primarily in relation to the sense

of taste, as actually perceived or vividly imagined; and secondarily to anything which causes a similar feeling, through the sense of smell, touch, and even of eyesight" (p. 250). Other researchers have likewise emphasized the function of disgust that protects against the threat of ingesting harmful or unpleasant substances by the sensory facilities (Angyal, 1941; Rozin & Fallon, 1987). These early views of disgust have been considerably expanded upon in more contemporary theories.

Tybur et al. (2009) proposed that disgust has three distinguishable domains: pathogen disgust, sexual disgust, and moral disgust. Pathogen disgust refers to the motivation to avoid infectious microorganisms. Sexual disgust refers to the motivation to avoid sexual partners and behaviors that would threaten long-term reproductive success. Moral disgust refers to the motivation to avoid those individuals who violate social norms. This theory of disgust does not refute the conceptualization of disgust as a mechanism to avoid harmful or unpleasant substances, but rather, through an adaptationist perspective, builds upon this conceptualization and acknowledges that disgust serves other various functions.

While disgust may be one of the basic human emotions that serve certain universal functions, it is also, in part, a cultural product. Haidt, Rozin, McCauley, and Imada (1997) note, "Disgust may have its roots in evolution, but it is also clearly a cultural product. Like language and sexuality, the adult form of disgust varies in accordance with culture, and children must be trained-up in the local rules and meanings" (p. 111). Therefore, what an individual considers to be disgusting is influenced by the culture in which that individual is raised and by the discourse and ideologies embedded within that culture. Regarding sexual practices, Nussbaum (2001) observes that

homosexuality has been a frequent target in the rhetoric of disgust and, further, has been explicitly described as disgusting (Herek, 1993).

There is limited empirical research examining links between disgust and attitudes or behaviors toward LGB individuals. Furthermore, no study could be found that has explored disgust in parents of LGB youth. Research on disgust in the general area of LGB psychology, however, does indicate that there is an association between disgust and negative attitudes toward LGB individuals. Connections between these two variables are found both on the state level of disgust (Cunningham, Forestell, & Dickter, 2013; Dasgupta, DeSteno, Williams, & Hunsinger, 2009; Inbar, Pizarro, & Bloom, 2012) and also on the trait level of disgust (Inbar, Pizarro, Knobe, & Bloom, 2009; Olatunji, 2008; Tapias, Glaser, Keltner, Vasquez, & Wickens, 2007; Terrizzi, Shook, & Ventis, 2010). At the state level, studies have found that inducing disgust leads to negative attitudes toward LGB individuals (Cunningham et al., 2013; Dasgupta et al., 2009; Inbar et al., 2012). Dasgupta et al. (2009), for example, examined disgust and implicit attitudes toward homosexuality. In this study, 130 undergraduate students underwent an experimental manipulation to feel disgust, anger, or no feeling (neutrality). They also completed the Implicit Association Test (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) measuring implicit attitudes toward homosexuality and toward heterosexuality. It was found that participants demonstrated significantly more implicit antigay bias and relative preference for heterosexuals when they felt disgusted, compared with feeling angry or neutral.

In another study on disgust and homosexuality, Inbar et al. (2012), similarly, explored the link between disgust and attitudes toward gay men. Sixty-one heterosexual undergraduate students participated in this study. They were randomized either to a room

with no smell or a room with a disgusting smell. The participants also rated their feelings toward a variety of social groups, including gay men, on a scale from 0, which indicated cold feelings, to 100, which indicated warm feelings. The results revealed an interaction: gay men and heterosexual men were not evaluated differently by participants in the no smell condition, but gay men were evaluated significantly more negatively than heterosexual men in the disgusting smell condition. Though the authors found only a weak effect of disgust on the participants' feelings toward lesbians, the findings of this study echo Dasgupta et al.'s (2009) findings. The current literature, though quite limited in scope, appears to show that attitudes toward LGB individuals seem to deteriorate when disgust is experienced.

Likewise, the body of research on disgust at the trait level has found an association between disgust sensitivity and attitudes toward LGB individuals (Inbar et al., 2009; Olatunji, 2008; Tapias et al., 2007; Terrizzi et al., 2010). These studies indicate that an individual who is more prone to experiencing disgust is also more likely to hold negative attitudes toward LGB individuals. Inbar et al. (2009), for example, conducted two studies in which they looked at disgust sensitivity and implicit attitudes toward LGB individuals. In the first study, the authors found that participants who were more disgust sensitive were more likely to perceive the actions in a vignette in which two gay men kissed as intentional than participants who were less disgust sensitive. This study's paradigm was based upon previous research that demonstrated people are more likely to describe a behavior as intentional when they believe that behavior to be morally wrong (Knobe, 2006). In their second study, the authors used a more common measure, the Implicit Association Test (Greenwald et al., 1998), to examine implicit attitudes toward

LGB individuals. Disgust sensitivity in this study predicted automatic associations, such that participants who were more disgust sensitive showed more unfavorable automatic associations with gay individuals, as compared with participants who were less disgust sensitive. The findings from these two studies demonstrate an association between disgust sensitivity and implicit negative attitudes toward LGB individuals.

Terrizzi et al. (2010) also examined disgust sensitivity and attitudes toward homosexuals. Instead of measuring implicit attitudes toward homosexuals, however, these researchers measured participants' explicit attitudes. In this study, 146 undergraduate psychology students filled out scales measuring disgust sensitivity and attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. The results revealed that disgust sensitivity was significantly associated with attitudes toward homosexuals. Participants who were more disgust sensitive held more negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. Findings in the literature to date, then, appear to suggest that as disgust sensitivity increases, attitudes toward LGB individuals grow more negative.

Overall, the research on disgust indicates that there is an association between disgust, at both the state and trait level, and attitudes toward LGB individuals. At the state level, inducing disgust is associated with worsening attitudes toward LGB individuals (Cunningham et al., 2013; Dasgupta et al., 2009; Inbar et al., 2012). At the trait level, greater disgust sensitivity is associated with more negative attitudes, both implicit and explicit, toward LGB individuals (Inbar et al., 2009; Olatunji, 2008; Tapias et al., 2007; Terrizzi et al., 2010). The vast majority of participants in these studies, however, have been undergraduate students. Disgust sensitivity in parents of LGB youth has yet to be explored. Moreover, the above studies examine the association between disgust and

attitudes toward LGB individuals. The association between disgust and parental rejection, especially in a sample of parents of LGB youth, also has yet to be explored. Based upon the extant research, however, it is likely that parents who are more disgust sensitive are also more likely to be rejecting of their LGB youth.

The Current Study

The current study seeks to better understand associations between sociocultural attitudes, beliefs, and emotions such as homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity and parental rejection in parents of LGB youth. In addition, this study also attempts to examine the role of parental rejection in the psychosocial functioning and mental health adjustment of LGB youth. To this end, the current study has three principal aims.

Aim #1. The first aim of this study is to describe the degree of homonegativity, belief in traditional gender roles, and disgust sensitivity in parents of LGB youth. As these sociocultural parental variables have been rarely studied in this population, providing descriptive statistics and making comparisons across demographic variables, specifically parental gender and race/ethnicity as well as youth gender, will be a first step in better understanding risk factors for parental rejection.

Aim #2. The second aim of this study is to understand the association between the sociocultural parental variables and parental rejection in parents of LGB youth. It is hypothesized that parents exhibiting greater homonegativity, belief in traditional gender roles, and disgust sensitivity also will exhibit greater parental rejection.

Aim #3. The third aim of the study is to understand the overall association among the sociocultural parental variables, parental rejection, and LGB youth adjustment. It is

hypothesized that homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity will be related to LGB youth adjustment through parental rejection (see Figure 2). In other words, parental rejection will mediate these associations.

Chapter 2: Methods

Participants

The current sample consisted of 93 parent-youth dyads (N = 186 respondents).

Parents. Of the parents, 82% were female, and 18% were male. The parents ranged in age from 32 to 71, with a mean age of 48.14 (SD = 6.92). Regarding race/ethnicity, 43% identified as Non-Hispanic White, 31% identified as Hispanic/Latino, and 19% identified as Black. The remaining 7% (n = 6) identified either with another racial/ethnic group or as having multiple racial/ethnic identities. Regarding the association between race/ethnicity and age, a one-way ANOVA found a main effect of parental race/ethnicity on parental age ($F(3, 89) = 6.76$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.19$). Post-hoc comparisons using a Bonferroni correction indicated that Non-Hispanic White parents (M = 51.18, SD = 6.49) were significantly older than Hispanic/Latino parents (M = 45.83, SD = 5.58), $p < 0.01$. Non-Hispanic White parents were also found to be significantly older than Black parents (M = 44.33, SD = 6.89), $p < 0.01$. No other significant group differences were found.

Youth. Of the youth, 44% identified as gay male, 34% identified as lesbian, 22% identified as bisexual (70% female and 30% male). The youth ranged in age from 14 to 25, with a mean age of 19.41 (SD = 2.85). Regarding race/ethnicity, 39% identified as Non-Hispanic White, 37% identified as Hispanic/Latino, and 20% identified as Black. The remaining 4% (n = 4) identified either with another racial/ethnic group or as having multiple racial/ethnic identities. All of the LGB youth in the current study had disclosed their sexual identity to at least one parent prior to participating. The average time since

sexual identity disclosure to the parent participating in the current study was 3.34 years (*SD* = 2.88).

Procedures

Before data collection commenced, the study received approval from the Institutional Review Board. Participants in the current study were then recruited as part of a larger longitudinal study examining family relationships of LGB youth. To encourage these youth to participate, fliers were distributed throughout the community. Participants were also recruited through various community organizations that serve LGB youth, such as high school and university gay-straight alliances, as well as through high school counselors and peer recruitment. The youth were required to have disclosed their sexual identity to at least one parent in order to participate. Written informed consent was obtained from participants over the age of 18. For participants under the age of 18, written assents were collected in addition to parent permission. The entire data collection process occurred over a two year time period. Data was collected at four time points, once every six months, during this time. The current study, however, only used data from the first time point at which parents participated. Parents completed a series of questionnaires to assess demographic information, homonegativity, gender role beliefs, disgust sensitivity, parental rejection, and their child's psychosocial functioning and mental health. Youth completed a series of questionnaires to assess demographic information, sexual-minority status, and their own psychosocial functioning and mental health. These forms were completed over various mediums, including in person in a laboratory setting at the University of Miami or at remote data collection sites, by mail, or online. Participants were compensated with $50 for study participation.

Measures

Demographic information (Appendices A and B). Parents and youth both completed a background questionnaire surveying demographic information including age, gender, and race/ethnicity. Youth sexual orientation was also assessed on this questionnaire. Participants indicated their sexual identity as "gay," "lesbian," "bisexual," or "other."

The Homophobia Scale (Appendix C). Parents completed the Homophobia Scale, which was used to assess parental homonegativity (HS; Wright, Adams, & Bernat, 1999). The HS is a 25-item scale measuring a given individual's level of homonegativity. To this end, the HS produces a global score of homonegativity. Additionally, the HS breaks down homonegativity into three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. These components and their corresponding subscales are associated, respectively, with beliefs, feelings, and actions toward LGB individuals. Sample items on these subscales include, respectively, "Homosexuality is immoral," "Gay people make me nervous," and "I have damaged property of gay persons, such as 'keying' their cars." For the purposes of the current study, however, only the global score was used to assess parental homonegativity. Participants are asked to rate their level of agreement with each item on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = "Strongly Disagree," 2 = "Disagree," 3 = "Neither Agree nor Disagree," 4 = "Agree," and 5 = "Strongly Agree." The global score as well as the scores for each subscale are calculated, respectively, by summing all of the items or all of the items on the subscale. Global scores can range from 25 to 125. Higher scores on the HS indicate greater homonegativity. The HS was found to have high internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .94$), based on a sample of 145 male and female undergraduate students

(Wright et al., 1999). Wright and colleagues (1999) also found the scale had excellent 1-week test-retest reliability ($r = 0.96$, $p < 0.01$). Concurrent validity was established through correlations with another measure of homonegativity, the Index of Homophobia ($r = 0.66$, $p < 0.01$; Wright et al., 1999).

The Machismo Measure (Appendix D). Parents completed the Traditional Machismo (TM) subscale of the Machismo Measure (MM), which was used to assess parental gender role beliefs (Arciniega, Anderson, Tovar-Blank, & Tracey, 2008). This 10-item subscale taps traits typically associated with machismo, such as hypermasculinity, emotional restrictedness, chauvinism, and aggression. Sample items on the TM subscale include "A man should be in control of his wife" and "It is necessary to fight when challenged." Participants are asked to rate their level of agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale: 1 = "Very Strongly Disagree" and 7 = "Very Strongly Agree." The score for the TM subscale is obtained by summing all of the items on the subscale. Scores can range from 10 to 70. Higher scores on the TM indicate greater belief in traditional gender roles. The TM subscale was developed based on a sample of 154 Latino and Mexican American men and has demonstrated good ($\alpha = 0.84$) internal consistency reliability (Arciniega et al., 2008). Arciniega and colleagues (2008) also established discriminant validity and convergent validity for the TM subscale through correlations with measures for aggression, life satisfaction, emotional connection, and affiliation.

The Three Domains of Disgust Scale (Appendix E). Parents completed the Three Domains of Disgust Scale, which was used to measure parental disgust sensitivity (TDDS; Tybur et al., 2009). The TDDS is a 21-item scale assessing a general composite

of disgust sensitivity, as well as disgust sensitivity across three specific domains, pathogen (7 items), sexual (7 items), and moral (7 items). Sample items across these domains include, respectively, "Stepping on dog poop," "Performing oral sex," and "Deceiving a friend." Participants are asked to rate their level of agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale: 1 = "Not disgusting at all," 4 = "Moderately disgusting," and 7 = "Extremely disgusting." The global score as well as the scores for each subscale are calculated, respectively, by summing all of the items or all of the items on the subscale. Global scores can range from 21 to 147. Higher scores on the TDDS indicate greater disgust sensitivity. The TDDS was found to have good internal consistency reliability on each of its three subscales, including pathogen ($\alpha = 0.81$), sexual ($\alpha = 0.86$), and moral ($\alpha = 0.91$; Olatunji et al., 2012). Pond and colleagues (2012) also found the global score to have good internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = 0.85$) based on a sample of 92 undergraduate students. Discriminant and convergent validity have been established for this measure through correlations with measures of primary psychopathy, perceived vulnerability to disease, and the Big Five personality traits (Tybur et al., 2009).

The Perceived Parental Reactions Scale (Appendices F and G). Parents and youth both completed the Perceived Parental Reactions Scale, which was used to measure parental rejection (PPRS; Willoughby et al., 2006). The PPRS is a 32-item measure assessing parental reactions to LGB youth sexual identity from both the parents' and youths' perspectives. Sample items include "Supports me (or my child)," "Withholds financial support," and "Yells and/or screams." Parents are asked to think about how they feel about their child's sexuality and then rate their level of agreement with each item on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = "Strongly Disagree," 2 = "Disagree," 3 = "Neither Agree nor

Disagree," 4 = "Agree," and 5 = "Strongly Agree." Youth are asked to think about how their parents feel about their sexuality and then to rate their level of agreement with each item on the same 5-point Likert scale. On both forms, a global score is calculated by summing all items. Scores can range from 32 to 160. Higher scores on the PPRS indicate more negative parental reactions. The PPRS was found to have good internal consistency reliability, based on a sample of 70 mothers and 45 fathers ($\alpha = 0.97$ for mothers; $\alpha = 0.97$ for fathers; Willoughby et al., 2006). This measure was also found to have good test-retest reliability after a two-week interval, based on a sample of 19 mothers and 12 fathers ($r = 0.97$ for mothers; $r = 0.95$ for fathers; Willoughby et al., 2006).

The Behavior Assessment for Children, Second Edition (Appendices H and I). Parents and youth both completed the Behavior Assessment for Children, Second Edition, which was used to assess youth adjustment (BASC-2; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004). Specifically, parents completed the Parent Rating Scales-Adolescent version (PRS-A), and youth completed the Self-Report of Personality-Adolescent version (SRP-A). In the current study, the BASC-2 PRS-A and BASC-2 SRP-A were composed of, respectively, 68 items and 103 items. Both versions assess the psychological and behavior health of adolescents aged 12 to 21.

Regarding the BASC-2 PRS-A, the Externalizing Problems composite and the Internalizing Problems composite were used to provide, respectively, an index of disruptive-behavior problems such as aggression, hyperactivity, and delinquency as well as an index of distress for clinical problems and internalizing problems. The Externalizing Problems composite on the BASC-2 PRS-A consists of 32 items and includes three scales: the Aggression scale (10 items), the Conduct Problems scale (14

items), and the Hyperactivity scale (8 items). Sample items include “Annoys others on purpose,” “Breaks the rules just to see what will happen,” and “Acts out of control.” The Internalizing Problems composite on the BASC-2 PRS-A consists of 35 items and includes three scales: the Anxiety scale (11 items), the Depression scale (13 items), and the Somatization scale (11 items). Sample items include “Cries easily,” “Is easily upset,” and “Seems lonely.”

Regarding the BASC-2 SRP-A, the Internalizing Problems composite and the Personal Adjustment composite were used to provide, respectively, an index of distress for clinical problems and internalizing problems as well as an index of the strength of one’s support system and coping skills. The Internalizing Problems composite on the BASC-2 SRP-A consists of 70 items and includes seven scales: the Atypicality scale (9 items), the Locus of Control scale (9 items), the Social Stress scale (10 items), the Anxiety scale (13 items), the Depression scale (12 items), the Sense of Inadequacy scale (10 items), and the Somatization scale (7 items). Sample items include “I worry a lot of the time,” “Other children are happier than I am,” and “Nothing about me is right.” The Personal Adjustment composite on the BASC-2 SRP-A consists of 33 items and includes four scales: Interpersonal Relations scale (7 items), Relations with Parents scale (10 items), Self-Esteem scale (8 items), and Self-Reliance scale (8 items). Sample items include “My classmates don’t like me,” “If I have a problem, I can usually work it out,” and “I want to do better, but I can’t.”

Parents are asked to rate the degree to which the items pertain to their children on a 4-point Likert scale: 0 = “Never,” 1 = “Sometimes,” 2 = “Often,” and 3 = “Almost Always.” Youth are asked to rate the degree to which the items pertains to them. In

addition to rating some items on the same 4-point Likert scale as parents, youth also rate other items true (0) or false (2). On both forms, raw scores for each scale are calculated by summing the number of points earned for each item in the scale. These scores are then converted into T-Scores ($M = 50$, $SD = 15$). Higher T-Scores indicate a greater level of difficulty, except for scales on the Personal Adjustment composite in which lower T-Scores indicate a greater level of difficulty. The scores for the composites are calculated by summing the T-Scores for each scale in the composite and then converting the sum into a new T-Score. Higher scores, again, indicate a greater level of difficulty, except for the Personal Adjustment composite in which lower T-Scores indicate a greater level of difficulty. Normative data from 1,900 youth and 1,800 parents are used to generate these T-Scores (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004). The BASC-2 was found to have good internal reliability consistency across age groups ($\alpha = 0.90$ - 0.93 for PRS-A; $\alpha = 0.95$ - 0.96 for SRP-A). The BASC-2 was also found to have good test-retest reliability after several weeks ($r = 0.92$ for PRS-A *;* $r = 0.81$ for SRP-A).

Chapter 3: Results

Preliminary Analyses

Missing data analysis. The amount of missing data was minimal. A total of 3% of parents (n = 3) and 10% of youth (n = 9) were missing data on one measure. To examine if there was any identifiable pattern to the missingness, Little's MCAR test was performed. The result was not significant ($\chi^2(231) = 28.57$, $p = 1.00$), indicating that the missing data occurred completely at random. Therefore, as the amount of missing data was minimal to begin with, data were excluded on a listwise basis in subsequent analyses.

Descriptive statistics. Observed variable means, standard deviations, and ranges are presented in Table 1. The parents in the current sample were found to exhibit relatively low levels of rejection overall toward their children. The average total score on parent report of rejection was 60.08 (SD = 26.68); the average total score on youth report of rejection was 61.19 (SD = 28.26); and the average scores per item were, respectively, 1.88 and 1.91. These averages indicate that parents and youths generally rated each rejecting item such as "Pray to God, asking him to turn my child straight" between 1 and 2 on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree" and 5 is "Strongly Agree." Average T-Scores from both parent and youth report for youth externalizing problems, internalizing problems, and personal adjustment all fell within the average range, indicating that the sample in the current study has concerns in these areas similar to those concerns in the general population.

Correlations between observed variables are presented in Table 2. The observed variables were generally found to be significantly associated to one another in the expected direction. Homonegativity and belief in traditional gender roles were positively

related to parental rejection. Additionally, parental rejection was associated with worse youth adjustment. Notably, disgust sensitivity was not significantly related to any of the observed variables.

Correlations between observed variables including the specific domains of disgust from the Three Domains of Disgust Scale (TDDS; Tybur et al., 2009) are presented in Table 3. Similar to the global score of disgust sensitivity, pathogen disgust was unrelated to parental rejection. However, sexual disgust was positively associated with parent report or parental rejection, and moral disgust was inversely related to parent and youth report of parental rejection.

A series of MANOVAs was conducted to examine possible differences in the dependent variables (parental rejection and youth adjustment) across youth gender, sexual orientation, and race/ethnicity. Relatively few differences were found. Regarding youth gender, no differences were found with measures of parental rejection ($F(2, 84) = 1.48$, $p = 0.23$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.03$), but differences with measures of youth adjustment were found ($F(4, 86) = 2.49$, $p < 0.05$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.10$). Follow-up independent-samples t-tests indicated that parents of young men reported higher levels of externalizing problems ($M = 48.21$, $SD = 10.42$) than did parents of young women ($M = 43.13$, $SD = 5.21$). No significant differences in the dependent variables were found for youth sexual orientation ($ps > 0.20$). Regarding youth race/ethnicity, no significant differences were found with measures of youth adjustment ($F(12, 258) = 1.16$, $p = 0.31$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.05$), but differences with measures of parental rejection were found ($F(6, 166) = 4.50$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta 2 = 0.14$). Follow-up ANOVAs found significant differences on parent report of parental rejection ($F(3, 83) = 6.38$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.19$), as well as youth report of

parental rejection ($F(3, 83) = 3.44$, $p = 0.02$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.11$). Regarding parent report of parental rejection, post-hoc comparisons using a Bonferroni correction indicated that parents of Black ($M = 74.11$, $SD = 34.21$) and Hispanic/Latino youth ($M = 67.25$, $SD = 24.02$) reported more parental rejection than parents of Non-Hispanic White youth ($M = 46.52$, $SD = 18.18$). Regarding youth report of parental rejection, post-hoc comparisons using a Bonferroni correction indicated Hispanic/Latino youth ($M = 67.50$, $SD = 29.84$) reported more parental rejection than Non-Hispanic White youth ($M = 49.03$, $SD = 19.88$).

Bivariate Pearson's r correlations between youth age, family socioeconomic status, and the dependent variables also were calculated. Age was inversely related to youth self-report of internalizing problems ($r = -0.22$, $p = 0.03$) such that older participants reported fewer internalizing symptoms, such as anxiety or depression. It also was found that family socioeconomic status was inversely related to parent report of parental rejection ($r = -0.22$, $p = 0.03$). As other studies have found, more economically advantaged parents were less rejecting of their LGB children. No other significant correlations were found.

Demographic variables significantly related to the dependent variables were controlled for in subsequent analyses. Specifically, youth race/ethnicity was controlled for in analyses with parent and youth report of parental rejection; family socioeconomic status was controlled for in analyses with parent report of parental rejection; youth gender was controlled for in analyses with parent report of youth externalizing problems; and youth age was controlled for in analyses with youth self-report of internalizing problems.

Hypothesis Testing

Aim #1: To describe the degree of homonegativity, belief in traditional gender roles, and disgust sensitivity in parents of LGB youth. To address this aim, descriptive statistics are reported for each of the sociocultural variables and group differences based on gender and race/ethnicity of parent, as well as gender of youth, are examined.

The 93 parents who completed the Homophobia Scale (HS) had a range of scores from 25 to 97. The average total score was 45.25 (*SD* = 16.53); the average score per item was 1.81. This average indicates that on homonegative items such as "Gay people make me nervous," parents generally responded between 1 and 2 on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree" and 5 is "Strongly Agree."

The 92 parents who completed the Traditional Machismo (TM) subscale of the Machismo Measure (MM) had a range of scores from 10 to 70. The average total score was 21.52 (*SD* = 10.92); the average score per item was 2.15. This average indicates that on traditional gender role items such as "Men are superior to women," parents generally responded between 2 and 3 on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 is "Very Strongly Disagree" and 7 is "Very Strongly Agree."

The 93 parents who completed the Three Domains of Disgust Scale (TDDS) had a range of scores from 40 to 146. The average total score was 102.68 (SD = 21.97); the average score per item was 4.89. This average indicates that on disgusting items such as "Shoplifting a candy bar from a convenience store," parents generally responded between 4 and 5 on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 is "Not disgusting at all," 4 is "Moderately disgusting," and 7 is "Extremely Disgusting."

Associations between sociocultural parental variables and parental gender. A MANOVA was conducted to examine possible differences in the sociocultural parental variables across parental gender. A significant difference was found ($F(3, 88) = 8.54$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.23$). Follow-up independent-samples t-tests found significant differences with parental gender role beliefs ($t(90) = 2.73$, $p = 0.01$) and parental disgust sensitivity ($t(91) = -3.34$, $p < 0.01$), but not parental homonegativity ($t(91) = 1.52$, $p = 0.13$). Regarding parental gender role beliefs, fathers ($M = 27.82$, $SD = 11.74$) reported themselves to have significantly greater belief in traditional gender roles than mothers ($M = 20.09$, $SD = 10.27$). Regarding parental disgust sensitivity, mothers ($M = 106.09$, $SD = 21.15$) reported themselves to have greater disgust sensitivity than fathers ($M = 87.41$, $SD = 19.35$).

Associations between sociocultural parental variables and parental race/ethnicity. A MANCOVA was conducted to examine possible differences in the sociocultural parental variables across parental race/ethnicity. Parental age was controlled for in this analysis and follow-up analyses, as it was found in previous analyses that parental age was significantly related to parental race/ethnicity. A significant difference was found ($F(9, 261) = 2.73$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.09$). Follow-up ANCOVAs revealed significant differences with parental homonegativity ($F(3, 88) = 4.96$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.15$) and parental gender role beliefs ($F(3, 87) = 5.28$, $p < 0.01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.15$), but not parental disgust sensitivity ($F(3, 88) = 2.42$, $p = 0.07$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.08$). Regarding parental homonegativity, post-hoc comparisons using a Bonferroni correction indicated Black ($M = 53.83$, $SE = 3.62$) and Hispanic/Latino parents ($M = 49.36$, $SE = 2.81$) reported themselves to be more homonegative than Non-Hispanic White parents ($M =$

38.03, *SE* = 2.36). No other significant differences were found. Regarding parental gender role beliefs, Black parents (*M* = 29.52, *SE* = 2.42) reported themselves to have greater belief in traditional gender roles than Non-Hispanic White (*M* = 18.31, *SE* = 1.64) and Hispanic/Latino parents (*M* = 20.18, *SE* = 1.91). No other significant differences were found.

Associations between sociocultural parental variables and youth gender. A MANOVA was conducted to examine for possible differences in the sociocultural parental variables across youth gender. No significant group difference was found ($F(3, 88) = 1.02$, $p = 0.39$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.03$). Youth gender was not significantly related to parental homonegativity, gender role beliefs, or disgust sensitivity.

Aim #2: To understand the associations between parental homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity and parental rejection. It was hypothesized that parents exhibiting greater homonegativity, belief in traditional gender roles, and disgust sensitivity would exhibit greater parental rejection. Hierarchical multiple linear regressions were conducted to examine possible associations. Specifically, two regression equations were computed, one with parent report of rejection as the dependent variable and one with youth report of rejection as the dependent variable. To control for the effects of youth race/ethnicity, this variable was dummy coded and entered in step 1. In addition, for parent report only, family socioeconomic status was controlled for and entered in step 1.

Regression results for parent report of rejection are presented in Table 4. The overall model accounted for significant variance in rejection. Parents who reported themselves to be more homonegative and to have more traditional gender role beliefs

reported themselves to be more rejecting. Parental disgust sensitivity was not significantly associated with parent report of parental rejection. Regression results for youth report of rejection are presented in Table 5. The overall model accounted for significant variance in parental rejection. Only parental homonegativity was found to be significantly and positively associated with youth report of parental rejection.

Of note, the global score of disgust sensitivity was unrelated to parental rejection in these analyses. However, it was previously found that sexual disgust was positively correlated with parent report of parental rejection. Thus, the hierarchical multiple linear regressions already conducted in this area were repeated, but sexual disgust sensitivity was substituted for the global score of disgust sensitivity. Regression results for parent report of rejection are presented in Table 6, and regression results for youth report of rejection are presented in Table 7. Similar to the global score of disgust sensitivity, sexual disgust in these analyses was found to be unrelated to parental rejection. Moral disgust was not included in these analyses because, although correlations suggested a significant inverse association with parental rejection, prior research indicates sexual disgust is likely a more critical variable in predicting attitudes toward LGB individuals (Cunningham et al., 2013).

It should additionally be noted that youth race/ethnicity, specifically the dummy codes for Black and Hispanic/Latino youth, was significantly associated with parental rejection in step 1 of these analyses, but not in step 2. As indicated by Baron and Kenny (1986), this finding suggests that the relationship between youth race/ethnicity and parental rejection may itself be mediated. As previous analyses conducted in Aim #1 found differences in homonegativity across parents of different races/ethnicities, one

mediator appears to be homonegativity. Specifically, Black and Hispanic/Latino parents tended to report greater levels of homonegativity and, in turn, also tended to have greater levels of parental rejection.

Aim #3: To understand the associations among sociocultural parental variables, parental rejection, and youth adjustment. It was hypothesized that parental rejection would mediate the association among the sociocultural parental variables and youth adjustment. First, hierarchical multiple linear regressions were conducted to examine if parental rejection, when added to models with the sociocultural parental variables, was significantly associated with youth adjustment. Second, indirect effects were examined using a bootstrap estimation approach (Hayes, 2013; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). These analyses were separated by informant, such that one set of analyses was conducted for parent report (mediator = parent report of parental rejection; dependent variable = parent report of youth adjustment) and another set was run for youth report (mediator = youth report of parental rejection; dependent variable = youth self-report of adjustment).

Associations between sociocultural parental variables, parental rejection, and youth adjustment. Hierarchical regression was used to examine associations between the sociocultural parental variables and parental rejection with youth adjustment. Results from these analyses are presented below, organized by dependent variable.

Parent report of youth externalizing problems as the dependent variable. Regression results for the parent report of youth externalizing problems are presented in Table 8. To control for the effects of youth gender, this variable was dummy coded and entered in step 1. The overall model accounted for significant variance in youth

externalizing problems, though only youth gender, accounting for 9.9% of the variance in youth externalizing problems, was significant.

Parent report of youth internalizing problems as the dependent variable. Regression results for parent report of youth internalizing symptoms are presented in Table 9. The overall model accounted for significant variance in youth internalizing problems. Parental rejection was significantly associated with youth internalizing problems. Parents who reported themselves to be more rejecting reported their youth to have greater internalizing problems. Further, parents who reported themselves to have more traditional gender role beliefs reported their youth to have greater internalizing problems. Parental homonegativity and disgust sensitivity were not significantly associated with youth internalizing problems.

Youth self-report of internalizing problems as the dependent variable. Regression results for youth self-report of internalizing problems are reported in Table 10. To control for the effects of youth age, this variable was entered in step 1. The overall model accounted for significant variance in youth internalizing problems. Parental rejection was found to be significantly and positively associated with youth internalizing problems. Parental homonegativity and gender role beliefs were also significantly associated with youth internalizing problems, though in opposite directions. Parental homonegativity was inversely related to youth internalizing problems, while parental belief in traditional gender roles was positively related to youth internalizing problems.

Parental disgust sensitivity was not found to be significantly associated with youth internalizing problems.

Youth self-report of personal adjustment as the dependent variable. Regression results for youth self-report of personal adjustment are presented in Table 11. The overall model accounted for significant variance in youth personal adjustment. Parental rejection was found to be significantly and inversely associated with youth personal adjustment. Youth who reported their parents to be more rejecting also reported themselves to have greater personal adjustment difficulty. Parental homonegativity also was found to be significantly and positively associated with youth personal adjustment. Parental gender role beliefs and disgust sensitivity were not found to be significantly associated with youth personal adjustment.

Indirect effects of sociocultural parental variables on youth adjustment through parental rejection. It was hypothesized that parental rejection would mediate the pathway between the sociocultural parental variables (homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity) and youth adjustment. Indirect effects, standard errors, and 95% confidence intervals were computed using a bootstrapping estimation approach with 5,000 samples on the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). Results for parents are presented first, followed by results for youth.

Analyses for parents. To summarize, previous regression analyses found parental homonegativity and gender role beliefs to be significantly associated with parent report of parental rejection; parental rejection was also found to be significantly associated with parent report of internalizing problems. Therefore, only these variables were included when testing for indirect effects. With the Bootstrapping procedure, one indirect pathway can be tested at a time; thus, separate analyses were run for parental homonegativity and gender role beliefs.

Parental rejection was found to significantly mediate the association between parental homonegativity and youth internalizing problems. The 95% confidence interval (0.0039 to 0.5671) for the indirect coefficient (b = 0.24, SE = 0.15) did not contain zero. Greater parental homonegativity was associated with greater youth internalizing problems as mediated by parental rejection.

Parental rejection was also found to significantly mediate the association between parental gender role beliefs and youth internalizing problems. The 95% confidence interval (0.0119 to 0.2483) for the indirect coefficient (b = 0.10, SE = 0.06) did not contain zero. Greater belief in traditional gender roles was associated with greater youth internalizing problems as mediated by parental rejection.

Analyses for youth. Previous regression analyses found parental homonegativity to be the only sociocultural variable to be significantly associated with youth report of parental rejection. Using the Bootstrapping procedure, separate analyses were run for internalizing symptoms and personal adjustment.

Parental rejection was found to significantly mediate the association between parental homonegativity and youth internalizing problems. The 95% confidence interval (0.0999 to 0.5033) for the indirect coefficient (b = 0.27, SE = 0.10) did not contain zero. Greater parental homonegativity was associated with greater youth internalizing problems as mediated by parental rejection.

Parental rejection was also found to significantly mediate the association between parental homonegativity and youth personal adjustment as the 95% confidence interval (-0.4728 to -0.1682) for the indirect coefficient (b = -0.29, SE = 0.08) did not contain zero.

Greater parental homonegativity was associated with greater youth personal adjustment difficulty as mediated by parental rejection.

Chapter 4: Discussion

Research suggests that, relative to their heterosexual peers, LGB youth are at elevated risk to experience psychosocial and mental health adjustment difficulties (D'Augelli, 2002; Fergusson et al., 1999; Mustanski et al., 2010). The degree of rejection received from parents appears to be an especially salient variable in predicting such outcomes. First, research on parental rejection has demonstrated that many LGB youth experience some level of parental rejection (D'Augelli et al., 2008; D'Augelli et al., 1998; Remafedi, 1987; Savin-Williams, 1990). Second, greater rejection from parents has been found to be associated with greater maladjustment in LGB youth (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; D'Augelli, 2002; Rosario et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010; Willoughby et al., 2008; Willoughby et al., 2010). However, the research in this area is still in its relative infancy, with a notable limitation being little data coming directly from parents. Furthermore, one significant question yet to be adequately addressed is why some parents of LGB youth are more rejecting than others. The current study is among the first to gather data from both parents and youth in examining variables associated with parental rejection. The current study is also among the first to measure homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity in parents of LGB youth using validated, multi-item, self-report measures completed by parents.

Descriptive Findings

The first aim of the current study was to describe the degree of homonegativity, belief in traditional gender roles, and disgust sensitivity in parents of LGB youth. As these variables rarely have been studied in this population, providing descriptive information and making comparisons across demographic variables, specifically gender

and race/ethnicity of parent as well as gender of youth, is a first step in better understanding risk factors for parental rejection. Several notable findings emerged from this aim of the study.

The current sample of parents of LGB youth had an average total score on the Homophobia Scale (HS) of 45.25 (*SD* = 16.53). Thus, to homonegative items such as "Gay people make me nervous," parents generally responded between 1 and 2 on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree" and 5 is "Strongly Agree." No previous study could be located that had administered the HS to parents of LGB youth, so a direct comparison between this sample and another sample of parents of LGB youth is not possible. However, a recent study on reducing homonegativity provides some context (Rogers, McRee, & Arntz, 2009). In that study, the HS was administered to 65 undergraduate students enrolled in a human sexuality course, as well as to 63 students not enrolled in this course. At the end of the semester, the average total score on the HS for students enrolled in the course was 40.94 (*SD* = 13.72), whereas the average total score for students not enrolled in the course was 57.57 (*SD* = 20.00).

The average total score on the Traditional Machismo (TM) subscale of the Machismo Measure (MM) was 21.52 (*SD* = 10.92). Thus, to traditional gender role items such as "Men are superior to women," parents generally responded between 2 and 3 on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 is "Very Strongly Disagree" and 7 is "Very Strongly Agree." No previous study could be located that had administered the TM subscale of the MM to parents of LGB youth, so a direct comparison between this sample and another sample of parents of LGB youth is not possible. However, a recent study on machismo and attitudes toward lesbians and gay men provides some context (Hirai, Winkel, & Popan, 2014). In

this study, 330 Latino undergraduate students were administered the TM subscale of the MM. The 277 female students in this sample were found to have an average total score of 21.6 (*SD* = 5.49), and the 53 male students were found to have an average total score of 25.3 (*SD* = 6.54).

Overall, therefore, the parents of LGB youth in the current sample appear to have reported relatively low levels of homonegativity and belief in traditional gender roles. Levels of homonegativity and belief in traditional gender roles were also similar to levels found in other studies (Hirai et al., 2014; Rogers et al., 2009). Notably, however, parents in the current study were aware of their children's sexual identity. Specifically, the youth had been out to their parents with regard to their sexual identity for an average of 3.34 years (*SD* = 2.88). To what extent these attitudes and beliefs in parents might have changed over time is not known, but it is possible that the parents' perspectives and attitudes toward LGB individuals, as well as gender role beliefs, have shifted in the time since their children disclosed their sexual identity to them.

Regarding disgust sensitivity, the current sample was found to report relatively high levels of disgust sensitivity when compared to data from other studies (Olatunji et al., 2012). The average total score on the Three Domains of Disgust Scale (TDDS) was 102.68 (*SD* = 21.97). To disgusting items such as "Shoplifting a candy bar from a convenience store", parents generally responded between 4 and 5 on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 is "Not disgusting at all," 4 is "Moderately disgusting," and 7 is "Extremely Disgusting." No previous study was located that had administered the TDDS to parents of LGB youth, so a direct comparison between this sample and another sample of parents of LGB youth is not possible. However, a recent study on the factor structure

and psychometric properties of the TDDS provides some context (Olatunji et al., 2012). In this study, 206 undergraduate students were administered the TDDS. The students were found to have an average total score on the TDDS of 74.31 (*SD* = 17.19). It is unclear why the current sample appears to be more sensitive to disgust than the general population. One possibility is that the current sample is composed primarily of mothers. Research has consistently found women to report greater levels of disgust sensitivity than men (Arrindell, Mulkens, Kok, & Wollenbroek, 1999; Haidt, McCauley, & Rozin, 1994; Olatunji, Sawchuk, Arrindell, & Lohr, 2005). It may also be the case, however, that attitudes and beliefs, such as homonegativity and gender role beliefs, are flexible and amenable to change, whereas disgust sensitivity, a trait-level factor, may not be as easily changed, even if individuals are motivated to alter their attitudes and beliefs in order to have more positive responses to aspects of their children's lives.

Several notable differences, as well as similarities, were found in parental homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity across demographic variables. First, regarding parental gender, it is important to note that fewer fathers participated in the current study than mothers. However, the limited data from the current study do indicate that fathers had greater traditional gender role beliefs than mothers. Additionally, mothers were found to be more sensitive to disgust than fathers. These findings generally parallel the research to date. In one of the few studies to actually measure attitudes in parents of LGB youth, Holtzen and Agresti (1990) reported no gender differences in gender role beliefs in parents. A substantial body of research, however, has found men in the general population to report more traditional gender role beliefs than women (Berkel, 2004; Crompton, Brockmann, & Lyonette, 2005; Locke & Richman, 1999; Tang & Dion,

1999; Valentova, 2013). One possible explanation for this gender difference is that women have more to gain than men in embracing more traditional gender role beliefs (Beere, King, Beere, & King, 1984). Regarding disgust sensitivity, a substantial body of literature has found women in the general population to report greater disgust sensitivity than men (Arrindell et al., 1999; Haidt et al., 1994; Olatunji et al., 2005). Thus, the parents of LGB youth in the current study appear to be similar to others in the extent to which parent gender is a significant determinant in the degree of belief in traditional gender roles and disgust sensitivity.

Parental gender was not associated with parental homonegativity in the current study. However, a substantial body of research has found men in the general population to report more homonegativity than women (Cullen, Wright, & Allesandri, 2002; Sakalli, 2002; Schope & Eliason, 2004). Fathers in the current study did report themselves to be more homonegative (M = 50.71, SD = 18.36) than mothers (M = 44.03, SD = 15.97), but the difference between groups was not significant. This null finding may be due to the relatively small number of fathers in the current study (n = 17) compared to mothers (n = 76) and not necessarily that fathers are in fact just as homonegative as mothers.

Second, regarding parental race/ethnicity, even controlling for parental age, Black and Hispanic/Latino parents were found to be more homonegative than Non-Hispanic White parents. Additionally, Black parents were found to report more traditional beliefs than Hispanic/Latino and Non-Hispanic White parents. In the limited literature on the relationship between race/ethnicity and homonegativity, one repeated finding is that Black individuals are more homonegative than Non-Hispanic White individuals (Bonilla & Porter, 1990; Daboin, Peterson, & Parrott 2015; Glick & Golden, 2010; Waldner,

Sikka, & Baig, 1999). However, to what extent Hispanic/Latino individuals are similar to or dissimilar from other ethnic groups is unclear. In one study, Black individuals were found to be more homonegative than Hispanic/Latino individuals (Bonilla & Porter, 1990), though another study failed to find that these groups differed (Waldner et al., 1999). The literature on racial/ethnic differences with regard to gender role beliefs also is quite mixed (Kane, 2000). Some research suggests that Hispanic/Latino individuals have more traditional gender role beliefs than Non-Hispanic White and Black individuals (Harris & Firestone, 1998; Wilkie, 1993). In a more recent study, however, Black and Hispanic/Latino individuals were similar to each other, but were found to hold more traditional gender role beliefs than Non-Hispanic White individuals (Anderson, Kanner, & Elsayegh, 2009). No study could be located that compared parents of LGB youth on these variables across racial/ethnic groups. Results from the current study, however, suggest that racial/ethnic differences among parents of LGB youth are similar to those found in other studies, with Black parents reporting higher levels of homonegativity and traditional gender role beliefs than Non-Hispanic White parents. One possible explanation for these racial/ethnic differences is that, as Rosario, Schrimshaw, and Hunter (2004) note, racial/ethnic minorities may have "stronger cultural pressures in their ethnic/racial communities favoring heterosexuality and discouraging or punishing homosexuality" (p. 216). Such pressures may contribute to racial/ethnic minorities developing greater homonegative attitudes, as well as more traditional gender role beliefs, than Non-Hispanic White individuals. However, more research is needed to understand the underpinnings of racial/ethnic differences in this area, particularly in Hispanic/Latino parents.

Sociocultural Variables Associated with Parental Rejection

The second aim of the current study was to understand the association between the sociocultural parental variables and parental rejection in parents of LGB youth. It was hypothesized that greater parental homonegativity, belief in traditional gender roles, and disgust sensitivity would be associated with greater parental rejection. Results demonstrated some support for this hypothesis. First, parental homonegativity was indicated as a key variable related to parental rejection. Parental homonegativity was found to be significantly associated with both parent and youth report of parental rejection. Parental gender role beliefs also were indicated to be related to parental rejection. Unlike parental homonegativity, however, parental gender role beliefs were found to be significantly associated only with parent report of parental rejection and not with youth report. Lastly, both parental global disgust sensitivity and sexual disgust sensitivity were not indicated to be related to parental rejection. They were associated neither with parent nor youth report of parental rejection.

The association between parental homonegativity and parental rejection perhaps seems obvious. A parent harboring negative attitudes toward homosexuality indeed seems likely to be at risk for having difficulty accepting their child's sexual minority status, as these attitudes may generalize from LGB individuals to their own child. On the other hand, the association between traditional gender role beliefs and parental rejection may be less intuitive. However, parents with more traditional gender role beliefs tend to think men and women ought to occupy mostly distinct roles, and having a lesbian, gay, or bisexual child may disrupt these traditional belief systems. Specifically, having a child who violates perceived cultural norms for gender-related behavior or dress may cause

discomfort and misunderstanding. Conley (2011) notes, “Parents who have eschewed society’s prescriptive gender roles may be more understanding of their children’s deviation from society’s sexual norms” (p. 1035). Indeed, one common prescription of traditional, rigid gender roles is for men and women to have romantic relations with individuals of the opposite gender. When parents of LGB youth adopt such a stereotyped prescription, as Conley (2011) suggests, it is likely they will be less understanding of their children’s perceived gender incongruous feelings and behaviors. Subsequently, such parents may be less accepting of departures from those gender roles, especially a departure such as having romantic relations with individuals of the same gender.

An alternative, albeit related, explanation is that parents of LGB youth with traditional gender roles may be unsettled with their child’s sexual identity because this sexual identity could be perceived to call their gender identity into question. Saltzburg (2004) notes, “Uppermost in all of the parents' thoughts was whether their child's essential gender identity might shift as a result of claiming a gay identity” (p. 115). Especially in reference to parents of LGB children sharing their own gender, Saltzburg (2004) continues, “Feeling outside the sphere of experience of these adolescents further exacerbates the parents’ sense of detachment” (p. 116). Here, Saltzburg (2004) not only describes that parents of LGB youth may be concerned about and question the gender identity of their children, but also that such parents may have an affectively laden negative response of “detachment” and, more simply, discomfort to their LGB youth because of issues surrounding gender identity. Parents of LGB youth with more traditional gender role beliefs seem especially predisposed to such negative reactions because such beliefs allow for less sexual fluidity.

The social-cognitive-behavioral model of adjustment proposed by Crosbie-Burnett and colleagues (1996) emphasizes that there is a relationship between parental intrapersonal factors and parental behaviors. It also positions these intrapersonal factors and behaviors within a societal context, in which heterosexism and gender stereotypes are considered normative. According to this model, then, parents who are more homonegative and have greater belief in traditional gender roles are also more likely to be rejecting of their LGB children. Furthermore, Holtzen and Agresti (1990) note, "Parents - upon learning of their child's sexuality - likely must deal with the potential conflicts among their love for their child, possible issues of self-esteem, their thoughts and feelings about what they consider to be appropriate sex roles, as well as thoughts and feelings about gay and lesbian persons" (p. 396). The current study's findings suggest that homonegativity and gender role beliefs do indeed conflict with a parent's ability to be accepting of their LGB youth's sexuality.

Notably, this study is among the first to examine parental variables associated with parental rejection. As parental rejection has been associated with LGB youth maladjustment (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; D'Augelli, 2002; Rosario et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010; Willoughby et al., 2008; Willoughby et al., 2010), it is important to understand why some parents of LGB youth are more likely to be rejecting than others. In identifying parental homonegativity and gender role beliefs as important correlates of parental rejection, the current study can hopefully provide some directions for issues in need of being addressed in interventions designed to help parents work through misgivings they have in order to be more accepting of their LGB children.

Parental Rejection as a Mediator of the Associations between Sociocultural Parental Variables and Youth Adjustment

The third aim of the current study was to understand the overall association among the sociocultural parental variables, parental rejection, and LGB youth adjustment. It was hypothesized that homonegativity, gender role beliefs, and disgust sensitivity would be related to youth adjustment through parental rejection. In other words, parental rejection would mediate these associations.

Notably, no evidence was found for parental rejection as a mediator of the relationships between the sociocultural parental variables and parent report of youth externalizing problems. Research in the general population has found parental rejection to be a key correlate of externalizing behavior problems (Nishikawa, Sundbom, & Hägglöf, 2010; Roelofs, Meesters, Ter Huurne, Bamelis, & Muris, 2006; Rohner & Britner, 2002). Furthermore, bivariate correlations in the current study of parent and youth report of parental rejection with parent report of externalizing problems were significant and positive. However, while research has found that LGB youth have greater externalizing behavior problems than their heterosexual peers (Fergusson et al., 1999; Mustanski et al., 2010), little research to date, if any, has implicated parental rejection in this disparity. Parental rejection of LGB youth has indeed been associated with deleterious outcomes in this population, but these outcomes appear to be primarily of an internalizing nature, including depression, suicidal ideation and behaviors, and identity and psychological maladjustment (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010; Willoughby et al., 2010). Substance abuse also appears to be related to parental rejection (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; Rosario et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010). It is

possible, then, that this null finding accurately represents reality in that parental rejection and externalizing behavior problems are not related in LGB youth. However, it is also possible that, after controlling for gender in analyses as well as including the sociocultural parental variables in the model, too little variance in parent report of youth externalizing problems remained for parental rejection to explain above and beyond these other variables.

Another unexpected finding is that, when entered in the model with the other sociocultural parental variables and youth report of parental rejection, parental homonegativity was found to be significantly and negatively associated with youth self-report of internalizing problems and personal adjustment. Specifically, parents who reported greater homonegativity had youth who reported fewer internalizing problems and less personal adjustment difficulty. These findings are counter-intuitive and not in line with the hypotheses of the study. They are also at odds with the correlational relationships that suggested parental homonegativity was unrelated with youth self-report of adjustment. One possible explanation is that the model is missing a mediator. Greater parental homonegativity may be associated with more favorable youth adjustment through a mediating variable, such as youth involvement in the LGB community. An alternative explanation is that the mediation model may be moderated. It is possible that at different levels of a moderator, such as youth gender, parental homonegativity is differently related to youth adjustment.

Despite these unexpected results, some evidence was found in support of the hypothesized associations. First, parent report of parental rejection was found to mediate the relationship between parental homonegativity and parent report of youth internalizing

problems as well as the relationship between parental gender role beliefs and parent report of youth internalizing problems. Second, youth report of parental rejection was found to mediate the relationship between parental homonegativity and youth self-report of internalizing problems as well as the relationship between parental homonegativity and youth self-report of personal adjustment difficulty.

These findings support the growing literature that suggests parental rejection is a key variable related to psychosocial and mental health adjustment difficulties in LGB youth (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; D'Augelli, 2002; Rosario et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010; Willoughby et al., 2008; Willoughby et al., 2010). In explaining this relationship, theory from the broader psychological literature proposes that unconditional positive regard is crucial in promoting children's mental health parental (Dwairy, 2010). When parents reject an aspect of their child and thus breach this unconditional positive regard, internal representations of the self, significant others, and the world are damaged, which subsequently damages psychological and behavioral health (Rohner, 2004). More specific to LGB youth, positive reactions from parents may allow for LGB youth to identify and normalize their experience, in addition to providing emotional support (D'Augelli et al., 2005; Elizur & Ziv, 2001; Goldfried & Goldfried, 2001; Savin-Williams, 2001b). Negative reactions, conversely, may cause LGB youth to feel isolated without familial support and may reinforce a negative self-image (Rosario et al., 2009). Whatever the specific mechanisms may be, in adding to the research in this area, the current study ultimately and simply suggests that in accounting for the psychosocial and mental health adjustment of LGB youth, parental rejection should be regarded as a key variable.

Limitations

The current study has several limitations. Most notably, it is likely that the current sample is not representative of the true population of parents of LGB youth. Bhugra (1997) notes that this "problem of ascertainment" is common to studies on the LGB community (p. 550). One specific aspect of the current study that makes true representation unlikely is that in order to participate in the study, LGB youth were required to have disclosed their sexual identity to at least one parent. As has been noted, however, studying LGB youth who are in the early stages of disclosing their sexual identity is difficult (Cass, 1984; Troiden, 1989). To recruit parents of these youth would be even more difficult and would likely raise serious ethical concerns. For the current study, it may be the case that parents of LGB youth who are more homonegative, have more traditional gender role beliefs, are more disgust sensitive, and are more rejecting are also less likely to be willing to participate in this research study or are even unable to because their children have not disclosed their identity to them yet. Therefore, the current sample may be composed of fewer parents with high levels of these sociocultural variables and of parental rejection than what might be found in the more general population.

A similar limitation of the current study is that relatively few fathers participated. Only 17 fathers participated in the current study, compared to 76 mothers. As such, power to look at parental gender in analyses was limited. However, the literature to date suggests that this variable may be key in families with LGB youth. For example, some research has found LGB youth to disclose their sexual identities to their mothers previous to their fathers (D'Augelli, 2002; D'Augelli et al.; Savin-Williams & Ream, 2003).

Furthermore, D'Amico and Julien (2012) found that LGB youth gender moderated the association between perceived parental rejection from fathers and identity and psychological maladjustment. Specifically, perceived parental rejection from fathers was associated with identity and psychological maladjustment for young gay and bisexual men but not for young lesbian and bisexual women. Overall, these findings suggest the importance of parental gender, as well as its interaction with youth gender, in such a study as the current one. Future research might attempt to incorporate more fathers in an effort to better examine gender differences regarding parental homongeativity, gender role beliefs, disgust sensitivity, and rejection.

Another notable limitation of the current study is its lack of longitudinal design. Data in the current study was obtained from one time point at which parents and youth completed measures assessing their present attitudes, beliefs, emotions, and functioning. As such, causality or mediation in the model cannot be definitively concluded. Kazdin (2007) notes that, in order to truly establish mediation, change in the outcome variable must occur after change in the predictor variable. Thus, results should be interpreted with caution until future research can more definitively establish parental rejection as a mediator between parental sociocultural variables, especially homonegativity and gender role beliefs, and youth adjustment.

Lastly, youth report of youth adjustment was measured using the Behavior Assessment System For Children, Second Edition, Self-Report of Personality-Adolescent version (BASC-2 SRP-A). However, the BASC-2 SRP-A did not include young adults older than 21 in its normative groups. Therefore, T-Scores for youth older than 21 in the current study were calculated using the 19-21 normative group. As such, the internalizing

problems and personal adjustment of these youth in the current study may not have been accurately captured. While this measurement error is most likely minimal, it would be prudent for future research examining youth older than 21 to use measures designed for this population.

Implications and Future Directions

The current study has several implications for researchers studying LGB youth and their families as well as for clinicians working with this population. First, research on parental rejection has begun to demonstrate this variable's association with adverse outcomes in LGB youth (D'Amico & Julien, 2012; D'Augelli, 2002; Rosario et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010; Willoughby et al., 2008; Willoughby et al., 2010). As this area of research is relatively recent, the current study emphasizes the need to document what outcomes are related to parental rejection and what outcomes are not related to parental rejection. For example, the current study suggests parental rejection may be associated with internalizing problems, but not externalizing problems. Secondly and perhaps more importantly, the current study also emphasizes the need to consider why parents of LGB youth may be rejecting. While it is indeed important to understand the consequences parental rejection has on the health and well-being of LGB youth, it is also important to understand what causes these parents to be rejecting in the first place. As such, future researchers may consider examining parental homonegativity and gender role beliefs, as these variables were found to be important variables related to parental rejection in the current study. Other variables, however, such as religious beliefs, may also be important to consider.

For clinicians working with LGB youth and their parents, it is helpful to know that parental rejection puts LGB youth at higher risk for internalizing problems and personal adjustment difficulty, as previous research and the current study suggest. This finding and similar findings in the research to date make the importance of this variable clear. As such, the current study emphasizes the need for clinicians to be aware of parental rejection when working with this population.

Moreover, the findings in the current study are particularly helpful to clinicians because they offer an explanation, albeit preliminary and partial, as to why parents of LGB youth may be rejecting of children. In attempting to work through and process parental rejection, therefore, clinicians may be mindful of these factors in the families they are working with. They might, for example, address issues related to homonegativity and gender role beliefs explicitly as they appear to be significant barriers to parental acceptance.

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Table 1. *Sample Size, Means, Standard Deviations, and Minimum/Maximum of Study Observed Variables*

Observed Variable	*n*	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum - Maximum
PH	93	45.25	16.53	25 – 97
PGRB	92	21.52	10.92	10 – 70
PDS	93	102.68	21.97	40 – 146
PR (P)	92	60.08	26.68	32 – 135
PR (Y)	88	61.19	28.26	32 – 129
YEP (P)	93	45.70	8.61	36 – 79
YIP (P)	93	46.28	9.71	32 – 83
YIP (Y)	93	48.77	11.54	32 – 91
YPA (Y)	91	53.56	10.30	21 – 70

Note. PH = Parental Homonegativity. PGRB = Parental Gender Role Beliefs. PDS = Parental Disgust Sensitivity. PR (P) = Parent Report of Parental Rejection. PR (Y) = Youth Report of Parental Rejection. YEP (P) = Parent Report of Youth Externalizing Problems . YIP (P) = Parent Report of Youth Internalizing Problems. YIP (Y) = Youth Report of Youth Internalizing Problems. YPA (Y) = Youth Report of Youth Personal Adjustment Problems

Table 2. *Correlations between Study Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. HS	--								
2. MM	0.50**	--							
3. TDDS	-0.04	0.14	--						
4. PPRS (P)	0.83**	0.52**	-0.02	--					
5. PPRS (Y)	0.65**	0.34**	-0.02	0.72**	--				
6. Ext. (P)	0.42&&	0.23*	-0.02	0.39**	0.37**	--			
7. Int. (P)	0.28**	0.44*	0.15	0.42**	0.32**	0.59**	--		
8. Int. (Y)	0.07	0.24*	0.16	0.27*	0.38**	0.24*	0.42**	--	
9. Adj. (Y)	-0.04	-0.11	0.06	-0.19	-0.43**	-0.27**	-0.31**	-0.75**	--

Note. HS = Homophobia Scale. MM = Machismo Measure. TDDS = Three Domains of Disgust Scale. PPRS (P) = Parent Report of Perceived Parental Rejection Scale. PPRS (Y) = Youth Report of Perceived Parental Rejection Scale. BASC-2 Ext. (P) = Parent Report of the Behavior Asssessment System for Children, Second Edition (BASC-2) Externalizing Problems Composite. BASC-2 Int. (P) = Parent Report of the BASC-2 Internalizing Problems Composite. BASC-2 Int. (Y) = Youth Report of the BASC-2 Internalizing Problems Composite. BASC-2 Adj. (Y) = Youth Report of the BASC-2 Personal Adjustment Composite.
*p ≤ .05. **p ≤.01.

Table 2. *Correlations between Study Variables (Including the Three Specific Domains from the Three Domains of Disgust Scale)*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. HS	--										
2. MM	0.50**	--									
3. SD	0.22*	0.23*	--								
4. PD	0.04	0.15	0.60**	--							
5. MD	-0.39**	-0.08	0.28**	0.37**	--						
4. PPRS (P)	0.83**	0.52**	0.25*	0.00	-0.34**	--					
5. PPRS (Y)	0.65**	0.34**	0.21	0.04	-0.32**	0.72**	--				
6. Ext. (P)	0.42**	0.23*	0.13	0.02	-0.23*	0.39**	0.37**	--			
7. Int. (P)	0.28**	0.44**	0.25*	0.10	-0.03	0.42**	0.32**	0.59**	--		
8. Int. (Y)	0.07	0.24*	0.18	0.11	0.07	0.27*	0.38**	0.24*	0.42**	--	
9. Adj. (Y)	-0.04	-0.11	0.02	0.02	0.11	-0.19	-0.43**	-0.27**	-0.31**	-0.75**	--

Note. HS = Homophobia Scale. MM = Machismo Measure. SD = Sexual Disgust. PD = Pathogen Disgust. MD = Moral Disgust. PPRS (P) = Parent Report of Perceived Parental Rejection Scale. PPRS (Y) = Youth Report of Perceived Parental Rejection Scale. BASC-2 Ext. (P) = Parent Report of the Behavior Asssessment System for Children, Second Edition (BASC-2) Externalizing Problems Composite. BASC-2 Int. (P) = Parent Report of the BASC-2 Internalizing Problems Composite. BASC-2 Int. (Y) = Youth Report of the BASC-2 Internalizing Problems Composite. BASC-2 Adj. (Y) = Youth Report of the BASC-2 Personal Adjustment Composite.
*p ≤ .05. **p ≤.01.

Table 4. *Linear Regression Predicting Parent Report of Parental Rejection*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Black Youth (D1)*	26.07	7.07	0.40	< 0.01
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	20.33	6.12	0.36	< 0.01
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	-2.73	13.21	-0.02	0.84
	Socioeconomic Status	-0.81	1.31	-0.07	0.54
Step 2	*Black Youth (D1)*	3.75	4.66	0.06	0.42
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	6.33	3.93	0.11	0.11
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	-6.43	8.04	-0.05	0.43
	Socioeconomic Status	0.40	0.85	0.03	0.64
	Parental Homonegativity	1.22	0.12	0.71	< 0.01
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.44	0.18	0.18	0.02
	Parental Disgust Sensitivity	-0.06	0.08	-0.05	0.41

Final Model $F(7, 82) = 30.40$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.72$

Table 5. *Linear Regression Predicting Youth Report of Parental Rejection*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Black Youth (D1)*	18.08	7.69	0.27	0.02
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	18.06	6.62	0.32	< 0.01
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	27.30	16.20	0.18	0.09
Step 2	*Black Youth (D1)*	0.12	6.70	0.00	0.99
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	4.70	5.62	0.08	0.41
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	34.05	12.85	0.23	0.01
	Parental Homonegativity	1.06	0.17	0.63	< 0.01
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.13	0.25	0.05	0.59
	Parental Disgust Sensitivity	0.03	0.11	0.03	0.75

Final Model $F(6, 80) = 11.23$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.46$

Table 6. *Linear Regression Predicting Parent Report of Parental Rejection (Including Sexual Disgust)*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Black Youth (D1)*	26.07	7.07	0.40	< 0.01
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	20.33	6.12	0.36	< 0.01
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	-2.73	13.21	-0.02	0.84
	Socioeconomic Status	-0.81	1.31	-0.07	0.54
Step 2	*Black Youth (D1)*	4.00	4.67	0.06	0.39
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	6.15	3.98	0.11	0.13
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	-6.26	8.09	-0.05	0.44
	Socioeconomic Status	0.59	0.84	0.05	0.48
	Parental Homonegativity	1.22	0.13	0.71	< 0.01
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.41	0.18	0.17	0.02
	Parental Sexual Disgust Sensitivity	0.04	0.16	0.02	0.79

Final Model $F(7, 82) = 30.09$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.72$

Table 7. *Linear Regression Predicting Youth Report of Parental Rejection (Including Sexual Disgust)*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Black Youth (D1)*	18.08	7.69	0.27	0.02
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	18.06	6.62	0.32	< 0.01
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	27.30	16.20	0.18	0.09
Step 2	*Black Youth (D1)*	-0.19	6.66	0.00	0.98
	Hispanic/Latino Youth (D2)	3.68	5.67	0.06	0.52
	Mixed/Other Youth (D3)	34.66	12.77	0.23	0.01
	Parental Homonegativity	1.04	0.17	0.62	< 0.01
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.10	0.25	0.04	0.68
	Parental Sexual Disgust Sensitivity	0.25	0.23	0.10	0.28

Final Model $F(6, 80) = 11.56$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.46$

Table 8. *Linear Regression Predicting Parent Report of Youth Externalizing Problems*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Female Youth (D1)*	-5.35	1.71	-0.31	< 0.01
Step 2	*Female Youth (D1)*	-5.04	1.69	-0.30	< 0.01
	Parental Homonegativity	0.15	0.10	0.27	0.13
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.47
	Parental Disgust Sensitivity	-0.01	0.04	-0.02	0.84
	Parental Rejection (Parent Report)	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.67

Final Model $F(5, 85) = 5.48$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.24$

Table 9. *Linear Regression Predicting Parent Report of Youth Internalizing Problems*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Parental Homonegativity*	-0.12	0.11	-0.19	0.27
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.28	0.10	0.31	0.01
	Parental Disgust Sensitivity	0.05	0.04	0.12	0.20
	Parental Rejection (Parent Report)	0.15	0.06	0.40	0.02

Final Model $F(4, 86) = 7.76$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.27$

Table 10. *Linear Regression Predicting Youth Self-Report of Internalizing Problems*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Youth Age*	-0.73	0.43	-0.18	0.09
Step 2	*Youth Age*	-0.63	0.38	-0.16	0.10
	Parental Homonegativity	-0.29	0.09	-0.42	< 0.01
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	0.28	0.11	0.27	0.01
	Parental Disgust Sensitivity	0.06	0.05	0.11	0.23
	Parental Rejection (Youth Report)	0.22	0.05	0.54	< 0.01

Final Model $F(5, 81) = 7.02$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.30$

Table 11. *Linear Regression Predicting Youth Self-Report of Personal Adjustment*

	Variables	*B*	SE *B*	β	*p*
Step 1	*Parental Homonegativity*	0.31	0.08	0.50	< 0.01
	Parental Gender Role Beliefs	-0.13	0.10	-0.14	0.21
	Parental Disgust Sensitivity	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.45
	Parental Rejection (Youth Report)	-0.25	0.05	-0.69	< 0.01

Final Model $F(4, 80) = 8.63$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.30$

Figure 1. The social-cognitive-behavioral model of adjustment (Crosbie-Burnett et al., 1996).

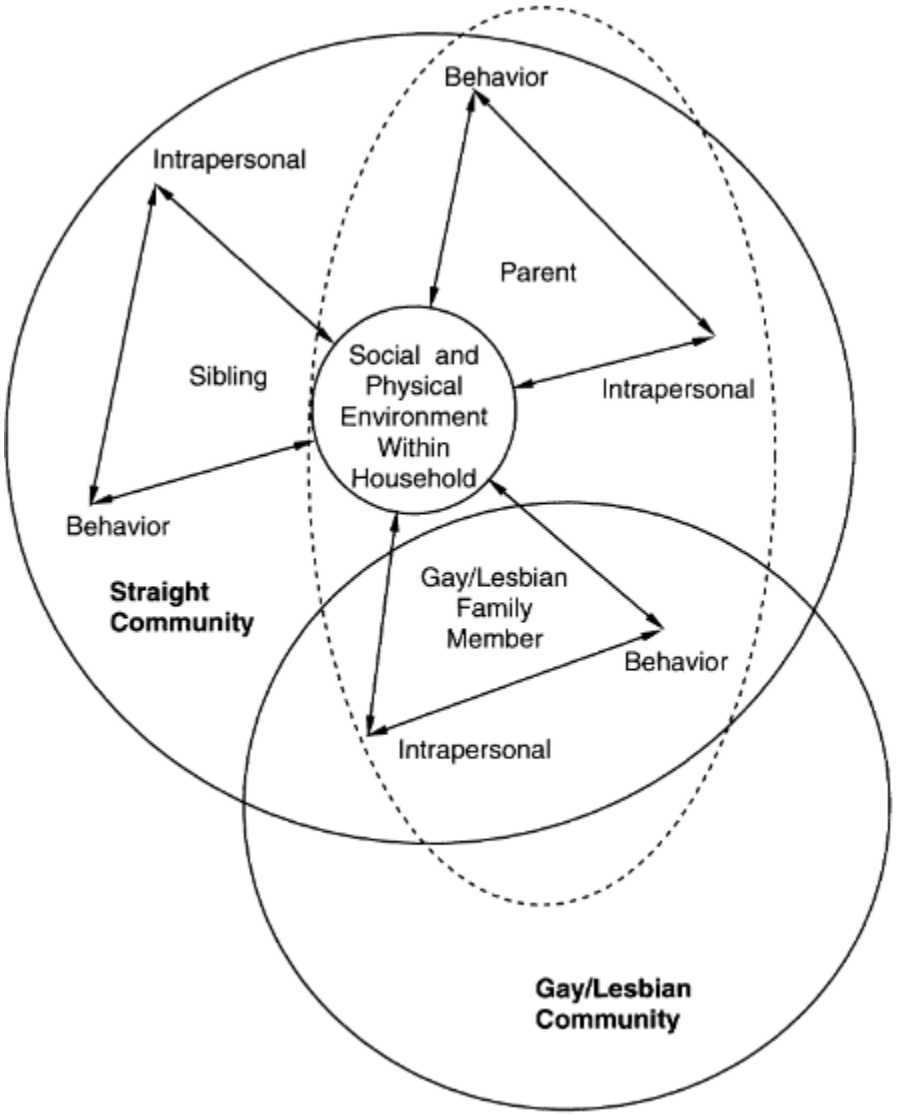
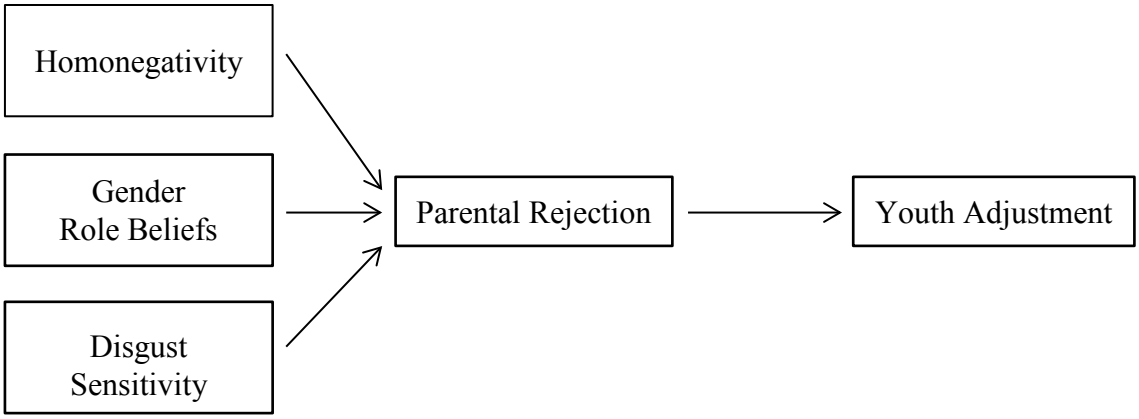


Figure 2. Proposed mediation model. All variables will be measured at Time 1.



Appendix A

Parent Background Questionnaire

Instructions: These questions ask about your background.

1. What is your gender ?

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Please indicate your ethnicity (check all that apply)

☐ Asian or Pacific Islander
☐ Black (African American; non-Hispanic)
☐ Haitian or other Caribbean
☐ White (Caucasian; non-Hispanic)
☐ Hispanic/Latino
  ☐ Cuban
  ☐ Mexican
  ☐ Latin-American
☐ Native American or American Indian
☐ Other (please indicate) _____

3. What is your age?

_____ years

4. How would you describe your sexual orientation?

☐ Heterosexual
☐ Gay
☐ Lesbian
☐ Bisexual

4a. If heterosexual, gay, lesbian, or bisexual do not adequately describe your sexuality, please write your own description in the box below:

Appendix B

Youth Background Questionnaire

Instructions: These questions ask about your background.

1. What is your gender ?

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Please indicate your ethnicity (check all that apply)

☐ Asian or Pacific Islander
☐ Black (African American; non-Hispanic)
☐ Haitian or other Caribbean
☐ White (Caucasian; non-Hispanic)
☐ Hispanic/Latino
  ☐ Cuban
  ☐ Mexican
  ☐ Latin-American
☐ Native American or American Indian
☐ Other (please indicate) _____

3. What is your age?

_____ years

4. How would you describe your sexual orientation?

☐ Gay
☐ Lesbian
☐ Bisexual

4a. If these do not adequately describe your sexuality, please write your own description in the box below:

Appendix C

The Homophobia Scale
(Wright et al., 1999)

Instructions: This questionnaire is designed to measure your thoughts, feelings, and behaviors with regard to homosexuality. It is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Answer each item by circling the number after each question as follows:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Gay people make me nervous.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Gay people deserve what they get.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Homosexuality is acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. If I discovered a friend was gay I would end the friendship.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think homosexual people should not work with children.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I make derogatory remarks about gay people.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I enjoy the company of gay people.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Marriage between homosexual individuals is acceptable.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I make derogatory remarks like "faggot" or "queer" to people I suspect are gay.	1	2	3	4	5
10. It does not matter to me whether my friends are gay or straight.	1	2	3	4	5
11. It would not upset me if I learned that a close friend was homosexual.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Homosexuality is immoral.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. I tease and make jokes about gay people.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel that you cannot trust a person who is homosexual.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I fear homosexual persons will make sexual advances towards me.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Organizations which promote gay rights are necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I have damaged property of gay persons, such as "keying" their cars.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I would feel comfortable having a gay rommate.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I would hit a homosexual for coming on to me.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Homosexual behavior should not be against the law.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I avoid gay individuals.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It does not bother me to see two homosexual people together in public.	1	2	3	4	5
23. When I see a gay person I think, "What a waste."	1	2	3	4	5
24. When I meet someone I try to find out if he/she is gay.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I have rocky relationships with people that I suspect are gay.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

The Machismo Measure
(Arciniega et al., 2008)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree					**Very Strongly Agree**	

_____ 1. Men are superior to women.

_____ 2. In a family, a father's wish is law.

_____ 3. The birth of a male child is more important than a female child.

_____ 4. It is important not to be the weakest man in a group.

_____ 5. Real men never let down their guard.

_____ 6. It would be shameful for a man to cry in front of his children.

_____ 7. A man should be control of his wife.

_____ 8. It is necessary to fight when challenged.

_____ 9. It is important for women to be beautiful.

_____ 10. The bills (electric, phone, etc.) should be in the man's name.

_____ 11. Men must display good manners in public.

_____ 12. Men should be affectionate with their children.

_____ 13. Men should respect their elders.

_____ 14. A woman is expected to be loyal to her husband.

_____ 15. Men must exhibit fairness in all situations.

_____ 16. Men should be willing to fight to defend their family.

_____ 17. The family is more important than the individual.

_____ 18. Men hold their mothers in high regard.

_____ 19. A real man does not brag about sex.

_____ 20. Men want their children to have better lives than themselves.

Appendix E

The Three Domains of Disgust Scale
(Tybur et al., 2009)

Instructions. The following items describe a variety of concepts. Please rate how *disgusting* you find the concepts described in the items, where 1 means that you do not find the concept disgusting at all, and 7 means that you find the concept extremely disgusting.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not disgusting at all			**Moderately disgusting**			**Extremely disgusting**

_____ 1. Shoplifting a candy bar from a convenience store

_____ 2. Hearing two strangers having sex

_____ 3. Stepping on dog poop

_____ 4. Stealing from a neighbor

_____ 5. Performing oral sex

_____ 6. Sitting next to someone who has red sores on their arm

_____ 7. A student cheating to get good grades

_____ 8. Watching a pornographic video

_____ 9. Shaking hands with a stranger who has sweaty palms

_____ 10. Deceiving a friend

_____ 11. Finding out that someone you don't like has sexual fantasies about you

_____ 12. Seeing some mold on old leftovers in your refrigerator

_____ 13. Forging someone's signature on a legal document

_____ 14. Bringing someone you just met back to your room to have sex

_____ 15. Standing close to a person who has body odor

_____ 16. Cutting to the front of a line to purchase the last few tickets to a show

_____ 17. A stranger of the opposite sex intentionally rubbing your thigh in an elevator

_____ 18. Seeing a cockroach run across the floor

_____ 19. Intentionally lying during a business transaction

_____ 20. Having anal sex with someone of the opposite sex

_____ 21. Accidentally touching a person's bloody cut

Appendix F

Perceived Parent Reactions Scale – Parent Version
(Willoughby et al., 2006)

INSTRUCTIONS: Think about how you **currently** feel about your child's sexual orientation as you respond to the following questions. Read the following statements and indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement. Remember, there are no correct or incorrect answers. These are your opinions.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

When thinking about how I currently feel about my child's sexuality, I:

1. support my child	1 2 3 4 5
2. am worried about what my friends and other parents will think of me	1 2 3 4 5
3. have the attitude that homosexual people should not work with children	1 2 3 4 5
4. am concerned about what my family might think of me	1 2 3 4 5
5. am proud of my child	1 2 3 4 5
6. believe that marriage between homosexual individuals is unacceptable	1 2 3 4 5
7. am concerned about the potential that I wouldn't get grandchildren from my child	1 2 3 4 5
8. realize my child is still 'him/herself', even though they are gay/lesbian/bisexual	1 2 3 4 5
9. believe that homosexuality is immoral	1 2 3 4 5
10. think it is great	1 2 3 4 5
11. have a problem seeing two homosexual people together in public	1 2 3 4 5
12. am concerned about having to answer other peoples' questions about my child's sexuality	1 2 3 4 5
13. have currently kicked my child out of the house	1 2 3 4 5
14. don't believe my child	1 2 3 4 5
15. yell and/or scream	1 2 3 4 5

	Strongly Disagree **1**	Disagree **2**	Neutral **3**	Agree **4**	Strongly Agree **5**
16. pray to God, asking him to turn my child straight					1 2 3 4 5
17. blame myself					1 2 3 4 5
18. call my child derogatory names, like ‘faggot’ or ‘queer’					1 2 3 4 5
19. pretend that my child isn’t gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
20. am angry at the fact my child is gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
21. want my child not to tell anyone else					1 2 3 4 5
22. cry tears of sadness					1 2 3 4 5
23. say he/she is no longer my son/daughter					1 2 3 4 5
24. tell my child it is just a phase					1 2 3 4 5
25. am mad at someone I think has turned my child gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
26. want my child to see a psychologist who can make him/her straight					1 2 3 4 5
27. am afraid of being judged by relatives and friends					1 2 3 4 5
28. withhold financial support					1 2 3 4 5
29. bring up evidence to show that my child must not be gay/lesbian/bisexual, such as “You had a girlfriend/boyfriend, you can’t be gay/lesbian/bisexual.”					1 2 3 4 5
30. am mad at my child for doing this to me					1 2 3 4 5
31. want my child not to be gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
32. am ashamed of my child’s homosexuality					1 2 3 4 5

Appendix G

Perceived Parent Reactions Scale – Youth Version
(Willoughby et al., 2006)

INSTRUCTIONS: Think about how **your parent CURRENTLY feels about your sexuality** as you respond to the following questions. Read the following statements and indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling a number. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers. These are your opinions.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

When thinking about how my parent currently feels about my sexuality, he/she:

1. supports me	1 2 3 4 5
2. is worried about what his/her friends and other parents think of him/her	1 2 3 4 5
3. has the attitude that homosexual people should not work with children	1 2 3 4 5
4. is concerned about what the family thinks of him/her	1 2 3 4 5
5. is proud of me	1 2 3 4 5
6. believes that marriage between homosexual individuals is unacceptable	1 2 3 4 5
7. is concerned about the potential that he/she won't get grandchildren from me	1 2 3 4 5
8. realizes that I am still 'me', even though I am gay/lesbian/bisexual	1 2 3 4 5
9. believes that homosexuality is immoral	1 2 3 4 5
10. thinks it is great	1 2 3 4 5
11. has problems seeing two homosexual people together in public	1 2 3 4 5
12. is concerned about having to answer other peoples' questions about my sexuality	1 2 3 4 5
13. has currently kicked me out of the house	1 2 3 4 5
14. doesn't believe me	1 2 3 4 5

	Strongly Disagree **1**	Disagree **2**	Neutral **3**	Agree **4**	Strongly Agree **5**
15. yells and/or screams					1 2 3 4 5
16. prays to God, asking Him to turn me straight					1 2 3 4 5
17. blames himself/herself					1 2 3 4 5
18. calls me derogatory names, like ‘faggot’ or ‘queer’					1 2 3 4 5
19. pretends that I am not gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
20. is angry at the fact I am gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
21. wants me not to tell anyone else					1 2 3 4 5
22. cries tears of sadness					1 2 3 4 5
23. says I am no longer his/her child					1 2 3 4 5
24. tells me it is just a phase					1 2 3 4 5
25. is mad at someone he/she thought has ‘turned me gay/lesbian/bisexual’					1 2 3 4 5
26. wants me to see a psychologist who can ‘make me straight’					1 2 3 4 5
27. is afraid of being judged by relatives and friends					1 2 3 4 5
28. withholds financial support					1 2 3 4 5
29. brings up evidence to show that I must not be gay/lesbian/bisexual, such as “You had a girlfriend/boyfriend, you can’t be gay/lesbian/bisexual”					1 2 3 4 5
30. is mad at me for doing this to him/her					1 2 3 4 5
31. wants me not to be gay/lesbian/bisexual					1 2 3 4 5
32. is ashamed of my homosexuality/bisexuality					1 2 3 4 5

Appendix H

Selected Composites from
the Behavior Assessment for Children, Second Edition –
Parent Rating Scales-Adolescent version
(Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004)

Instructions:

On the pages that follow are phrases that describe how children may act. Please read each phrase, and mark the response that describes how this child has behaved recently (in the last several months).

Circle **N** if the behavior **never** occurs.

Circle **S** if the behavior **sometimes** occurs.

Circle **O** if the behavior **often** occurs.

Circle **A** if the behavior **almost always** occurs.

Please mark every item. If you don't know or are unsure of your response to an item, give your best estimate.

How to Mark Your Responses

Be certain to **circle** completely the letter you choose, like this:

N (S) O A

If you wish to change a response, mark an X through it, and circle your new choice, like this:

N (X) (O) A

Remember: N = Never S = Sometimes O = Often A = Almost Always

1. Calls other adolescents names.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
2. Cries easily.	N	S	O	A
3. Complains of being sick when nothing is wrong.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
4. Annoys others on purpose.	N	S	O	A
5. Worries about making mistakes.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
6. Uses foul language.	N	S	O	A
7. Cannot wait to take turn.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
8. Has stomach problems.	N	S	O	A
9. Steals.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
10. Acts without thinking.	N	S	O	A
11. Complains about being teased.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
12. Is nervous.	N	S	O	A
13. Says, "I'm not very good at this."	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
14. Drinks alcoholic beverages.	N	S	O	A
15. Says, "Nobody understands me."	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
16. Teases others.	N	S	O	A
17. Is negative about things.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
18. Complains of shortness of breath.	N	S	O	A
19. Threatens to hurt others.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
20. Worries about what teachers think.	N	S	O	A
21. Sneaks around.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
22. Has poor self-control.	N	S	O	A

23. Says, "I think I'm sick."	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**

Remember: N = Neve S = Sometimes O = Often A = Almost Always

24. Smokes or chews tobacco.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
25. Interrupts parents while they are talking on the phone.	N	S	O	A
26. Says, "I hate myself".	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
27. Tries too hard to please others.	N	S	O	A
28. Has headaches.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
29. Says, "I get nervous during tests" or "Tests make me nervous."	N	S	O	A
30. Is in trouble with the police.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
31. Says, "I want to kill myself".	N	S	O	A
32. Argues when denied own way.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
33. Changes moods quickly.	N	S	O	A
34. Complains about health.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
35. Hits other adolescents.	N	S	O	A
36. Worries about things that cannot be changed.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
37. Breaks the rules.	N	S	O	A
38. Acts out of control.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
39. Lies.	N	S	O	A
40. Interrupts others while they are speaking.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
41. Is easily upset.	N	S	O	A
42. Worries about what other adolescents think.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
43. Complains about chest pain.	N	S	O	A
44. Gets into trouble.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**

45.	Says, “I want to die” or “I wish I were dead”. - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A

Remember: N = Never S = Sometimes O = Often A = Almost Always

46.	**Bullies others. -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
47.	Seems lonely. -	N	S	O	A
48.	**Complains of pain. -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
49.	Loses temper too easily. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
50.	**Is fearful. -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
51.	Uses illegal drugs. -	N	S	O	A
52.	**Fiddles with things while at meals. - - - - - - - - - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
53.	Breaks the rules just to see what will happen. - - - -	N	S	O	A
54.	**Says, “Nobody likes me”. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
55.	Worries. -	N	S	O	A
56.	**Gets sick. -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
57.	Deceives others. -	N	S	O	A
58.	**Seeks revenge on others.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
59.	Says, “I don’t have any friends”. - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
60.	**Is afraid of getting sick. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
61.	Is cruel to others. -	N	S	O	A
62.	**Attends to issues of personal safety. - - - - - - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
63.	Disrupts other adolescents’ activities. - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
64.	**Lies to get out of trouble. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
65.	Is sad. -	N	S	O	A
66.	**Says, “I’m afraid I will make a mistake”. - -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**

67.	Expresses fear of getting sick. - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
68.	**Disobeys -**	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**

Appendix I

Selected Composites from
the Behavior Assessment for Children, Second Edition –
Self-Report of Personality-Adolescent version
(Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004)

Directions:

This booklet contains sentences that young people may use to describe how they think or feel or act. Read each sentence carefully. For the first group of sentences, you will have two answer choices: **T** or **F.**

Circle **T** for **True** if you agree with a sentence.

Circle **F** for **False** if you do not agree with a sentence.

Here is an example:

1. I like parties. (T) F

For the second group of sentences, you will have four answer choices: **N, S, O,** and **A.**

Circle **N** if the sentence **never** describes you or how you feel.

Circle **S** if the sentence **sometimes** describes you or how you feel

Circle **O** if the sentence **often** describes you or how you feel.

Circle **A** if the sentence **almost always** describes you or how you feel.

Here is an example:

2. I enjoy doing homework. N (S) O A

If you wish to change an answer, mark an X through it, and circle your new choice, like this:

2. I enjoy doing homework. N (S) (O) A

Give the best response for you for each sentence, even if it is hard to make up your mind. There are no right or wrong answers. Please do your best, tell the truth, and respond to every sentence.

Mark: T = True F = False

1. I like who I am.	**T**	**F**
2. Nothing goes my way.	T	F
3. My muscles get sore a lot.	**T**	**F**
4. Things go wrong for me, even when I try hard.	T	F
5. I used to be happier.	**T**	**F**
6. I often have headaches.	T	F
7. I can never seem to relax.	**T**	**F**
8. My classmates don't like me.	T	F
9. If I have a problem, I can usually work it out.	**T**	**F**
10. What I want never seems to matter.	T	F
11. I worry about little things.	**T**	**F**
12. Nothing is fun anymore.	T	F
13. I never seem to get anything right.	**T**	**F**
14. My friends have more fun than I do.	T	F
15. I cover up my work when the teacher walks by.	**T**	**F**
16. I wish I were different.	T	F
17. Nobody ever listens to me.	**T**	**F**
18. Often I feel sick in my stomach.	T	F
19. My parents have too much control over my life.	**T**	**F**
20. I just don't care anymore.	T	F
21. Sometimes my ears hurt for no reason.	**T**	**F**
22. I worry a lot of the time.	T	F

23. I get along well with my parents. - T F

Mark: T = True F = False

24. Other children don't like to be with me.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - T F

25. I wish I were someone else - T F

26. I can handle most things on my own - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - T F

27. My parents are always telling me what to do. - - - - - - - - - - - - - T F

28. I often worry about something bad happening to me. - - - - - - T F

29. I don't seem to do anything right. - T F

30. Most things are harder for me than for others. - - - - - - - - - - T F

31. Other children are happier than I am- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - T F

32. I never quite reach my goal. - T F

33. I feel good about myself - T F

34. Sometimes, when alone, I hear my name. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - T F

35. Nothing ever goes right for me.- T F

36. I get sick more than others. - T F

37. My parents blame too many of their problems on me. - - - - - - - T F

38. Nothing about me is right. - T F

39. My stomach gets upset more than most people's. - - - - - - - - - - - T F

Remember: N = Never S = Sometimes O = Often A = Almost Always

40. I get so nervous I can't breathe. - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
41. I am proud of my parents. - - - - - - - - - -- - - - - -	N	S	O	A
42. Other kids hate to be with me. - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
43. I like the way I look. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
44. People say bad things about me. - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
45. I am dependable. -	N	S	O	A
46. I get blamed for things I can't help. - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
47. I worry when I go to bed at night. - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
48. I feel like my life is getting worse and worse. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
49. Even when I try hard, I fail. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
50. People act as if they don't hear me. - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
51. I am disappointed with my grades. - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
52. I get upset about my looks. - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
53. I feel like people are out to get me. - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
54. I feel depressed. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
55. No one understands me. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
56. I feel dizzy. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
57. Someone wants to hurt me. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
58. I feel guilty about things. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
59. I like going places with my parents. - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
60. I feel like nobody likes me. - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
61. I am good at things. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A

62. I am lonely. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
Remember: N = Never S = Sometimes O = Often A = Almost Always				
63. I can solve difficult problems by myself. - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
64. I get nervous. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
65. My parents expect too much from me. - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
66. I worry but I don't know why. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
67. I feel sad. -	N	S	O	A
68. When I take tests, I can't think - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
69. I am left out of things. -	N	S	O	A
70. Even when alone, I feel like someone is watching m	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
71. I want to do better, but I can't. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
72. I hear voices in my head that no one else can hear.	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
73. My looks bother me. -	N	S	O	A
74. I am good at making decisions. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
75. My parents are easy to talk to. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
76. I see weird things. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
77. I get nervous when things do not go the right way for me. - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
78. My mother and father like my friends. - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
79. People think I am fun to be with. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
80. Other people find things wrong with me. - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
81. I like to make decision on my own. - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
82. Little things bother me. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
83. I am blamed for things I don't do. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A

84. I worry about what is going to happen. - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
85. My mother and father help me if I ask them to. - - - - -	N	S	O	A

Remember: N = Never S = Sometimes O = Often A = Almost Always

86. I fail at things. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
87. I feel out of place around people. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
88. Someone else controls my thoughts. - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
89. I quit easily. -	N	S	O	A
90. I am slow to make new friends. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
91. I do things over and over and can't stop. - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
92. My friends come to me for help. - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
93. My parents listen to what I say. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
94. I like to be close to my parents. - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
95. I hear things that others cannot hear. - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A
96. I am liked by others. -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
97. I feel that others do not like the way I do things. - - - -	N	S	O	A
98. I am someone you can rely on. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
99. People get mad at me, even when I don't do anything wrong.	N	S	O	A
100. I am afraid of a lot of things. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
101. My parents trust me. -	N	S	O	A
102. My parents are proud of me. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	**N**	**S**	**O**	**A**
103. Other people are against me. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	N	S	O	A