Examining Victimization in the lives of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Questioning Youth

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ABSTRACT

Youth violence has garnered the attention of researchers and policy makers alike, because

of the unique risk factors associated with victimization and the poor physical, mental, and

educational outcomes that stem from such experiences. In particular, sexual minority youth—

those who identify as gay, lesbian, or bisexual or who have sexual contact with persons of the

same or both sexes (CDC, 2016)— are among those most at risk for victimization. Research that

highlights and addresses these issues is crucial. This study utilizes the 2013 Youth Risk Behavior

Surveillance System (YRBSS) data in order to investigate different forms of victimization and

their consequences in lesbian, gay, bisexual and questioning (LGBQ) youth. Drawing from a

sample of 12,642 9th-12th grade youth, this study investigates the prevalence of bullying,

homophobic bullying, dating violence and sexual assault, as well their effects on school

avoidance, poor mental health, and substance use outcomes. Results reveal that differences do, in

fact, exist between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, where LGBQ youth experience

higher rates of every type of victimization, and are more likely to report school avoidance,

depression, suicidality, and substance use. Furthermore, this study also investigates the

intersections of sexual orientation and gender, and finds that females who identify as lesbian,

gay, bisexual, or questioning are most at risk for every type of victimization. Findings highlight

the need for recognition of the importance of sexual orientation and gender in youth

victimization, and the need for policy that explicitly outlines protections for sexual minority

youth within the school environment, as well as services extended to victims of IPV.

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GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT

Youth violence is a problem throughout the United States, and is a widely researched topic because of the risk factors linked to victimization. In particular, sexual minority youth—those who identify as gay, lesbian, or bisexual or who have sexual contact with persons of the same or both sexes (CDC, 2016)— are among those most at risk for youth violence. This study used the 2013 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) data in order to investigate different forms of youth violence victimization and their consequences among lesbian, gay, bisexual and questioning (LGBQ) youth. Drawing from a sample of 12,642 9th-12th graders, this study investigates bullying, homophobic bullying, dating violence and sexual assault, as well their effects on school avoidance, poor mental health, and substance use outcomes. Results show that differences do, in fact, exist between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, where LGBQ youth experience higher rates of every type of victimization, and are also more likely to report school avoidance, depression, suicidality, and substance use. Furthermore, this study also investigates sexual orientation and gender, and finds that females who identify as LGBQ are most at risk for every type of victimization. These findings highlight the need for recognition of the important role that sexual orientation and gender plays in youth victimization, as well as the need for school policy that explicitly outlines protections for these youth.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Youth violence is a pervasive issue that plagues young people, and has been identified by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention as a significant public health concern worldwide. Youth violence occurs, "when young people aged 10–24 years intentionally use physical force or power to threaten or harm others" (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014). Such actions include an array of harmful behaviors such as bullying, threats using weapons, physical and sexual assault, gang violence and even homicide (Youth Violence Prevention at CDC, 2015; David-Ferdon & Simon; World Health Organization, 2014). According to the CDC, in 2010, over 738,000 youth ages 10 to 24 sought emergency medical attention for assault related injuries (Youth Violence Prevention at CDC). Youth violence continues to garner the attention of public health officials, because its effects on physical, mental and emotional health are as wide ranging as its typologies. Youth violence has been linked to behavioral disorders, poor educational outcomes, as well as increased involvement in crime and substance use (David-Ferdon & Simon).

Unfortunately, youth violence disproportionately affects certain young people more than others. Thus, understanding why, and among whom, youth violence is occurring is crucial. Research suggests that disparities in types and prevalence of youth violence exist, specifically, among gender, race and ethnicity, and sexual orientation (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014). Sexual minority youth—those who identify as gay, lesbian, or bisexual or who have sexual contact with persons of the same or both sexes (CDC, 2016)—are among those most at risk for victimization (CDC, 2014; Faulkner & Cranston, 1998; Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, & Boesen, 2014).

Statement of the Problem

It is important to note the use of terminology at this point. While the CDC specifically places gay, lesbian, or bisexual individuals, as well as those that engage in same, or both sex

behaviors, within the definitional parameters of *sexual minority,* other studies actually broaden the use of the terminology. For example, Telingator and Woyewodzic, (2011) use *sexual minority* to denote those who simply are not exclusively heterosexual, while others use the term *sexual minority* to capture sexual orientations, or practices that differ from the mainstream surrounding society (Centers for Educational Justice & Community Engagement, 2016; Math & Seshadri, 2013; Sexual Minority Terminology, 2017). Consequently, the term *sexual minority* is employed as an umbrella term, and for the purposes of this study, is used as the broadest form of such. This does not go without acknowledging that, at times, *sexual minority* is taken as a term that does not adequately attend to non-binary gender identities. While transgender and gender non-conforming individuals are considered an important part of the community, measures of sexual orientation alone fail to capture such identities. In fact, only a few studies have included transgender identities in their samples. Thus, there are times when specifically naming the identities being discussed is more appropriate. The acronym $LGBTQ^1$ represents individuals that identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer or questioning. According to The Welcoming Project (2017), the acronym was introduced in the 1990s in order to create a more inclusive space beyond what was typically insinuated by the phrase, "the gay community." Similar to Buist and Lenning's (2016) discussion on terminology, the acronym is used throughout this study in order to reflect the author's population of focus. Finally, the term *queer* is also used in certain places in this study, primarily in the theoretical framework. Within this context, *queer,* is also used as an umbrella term to capture lesbians, gays, bisexuals, transgender individuals, and any one else who falls outside the heteronormative gender binary (Buist and

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[1] Throughout the paper I use the term LGBTQ to refer to the broader community, particularly in the literature review section. When referencing my sample, however, I use the representative

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Lenning). As mentioned later in Chapter 2, use of the word *queer* is both political and practical in its purpose, thus is warranted for the purposes of this study.

Overall, LGBTQ youth report marginally higher levels of physical and emotional violence and injury than heterosexual youth (Committee on Lesbian Gay Bisexual and Transgender Health Issues and Research Gaps and Opportunities, Institute of Medicine, 2011; Kann, Olsen, McManus, Kinchen, Chyen, Harris, & Wechsler, 2011). In particular, LGBTQ youth experience higher levels of violence and threats of violence while at school, are more than three times as likely to report feeling unsafe at school, and are also at increased risk for dating violence and sexual violence (Cianciotto & Cahill, 2012; Dank, Lachman, Zweig & Yahner, 2014; Faulkner & Cranston, 1998; Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin, & Kupper, 2004).

While disparities in the prevalence of youth violence is concerning, its effects are equally alarming. Physical injuries stemming from violence are far outweighed by the negative physical, behavioral, social, cognitive, mental health, sexual and reproductive outcomes that arise from exposure to violence (World Health Organization, 2014). While all types of violence have been linked to an array of negative outcomes, youth violence and violence against women are exceptionally burdensome. According to the World Health organization:

> Victims of child maltreatment and women who have experienced intimate partner and sexual violence have more health problems, incur significantly higher health care costs, make more visits to health providers over their lifetimes and have more hospital stays (and longer duration of hospital stays) than those who have not experienced violence. (pg. 15)

In particular, a number of studies have found that victims of youth violence are at increased risk of a variety of issues, including: substance use, poor academic performance and truancy, obesity,

asthma, depression, and even suicide (Arseneault, Walsh, Trzeniewski, Newcombe & Caspi, 2006; Espelage & Swearer, 2010; Finkelhor, Turner & Ormrod, 2006; Hawker & Boulton, 2000; Menard, 2002; Swahn & Bossarte, 2006).

Victimization carries with it certain health consequences, and LGBTQ youth are at increased risk (Russell, Everett, Rosario & Birkett, 2014). The following study provides a more in depth look at victimization and its consequences for gender and sexual minority youth. Current media and literature on LGBTQ youth, "overwhelmingly focus on violence involving hate crimes and bullying, while ignoring the fact that vulnerable youth also may be at increased risk of violence in their dating relationships" (Dank, Lachman, Zweig & Yahner, 2014, p. 846). Research on dating violence and sexual assault tends to focus less on sexual minority youth, thus ignoring the possible short and long-term effects (Freedner, 2002; Taylor & Chandler, 1995). Consequently, extending and addressing the current literary gap is imperative in attending to the needs of vulnerable LGBTQ youth. With these goals in mind, the current research agenda is guided by the question: Are experiences of victimization and their detriments different for gender and sexual minority youth?

Reflexive Statement

While reflexivity statements, those statements that require researchers to constantly reflect on their own positioning in the research process, are not common in quantitative research, I felt compelled to include one in this dissertation work. As with many researchers in the social sciences, what we choose to devote significant amounts of time and energy to in our studies often times stretches beyond just mere research interest. While some academic spaces deem such processes in violation with assumptions of objectivity, social scientists have the opportunity to embrace the connectivity between themselves and their work as an opportunity to create and

sustain social justice. For me, as a researcher, this work and subsequent future work, is a space to advance such initiatives.

In September 2010, a tragic event captured headlines all over the country, with the news of an 18-year-old Rutgers University student's suicide. Tyler Clementi took his own life by jumping from the George Washington Bridge after Clementi's roommate filmed and tweeted about an encounter he had with another man in his dorm room. As Wikipedia claims, **"**Clementi's death brought national attention to the issue of cyberbullying and the struggles facing LGBT youth." Like many people across the country that began responding to, not only Tyler Clementi's death, but many other youth who took there lives in that year, I began to wonder: Why aren't we doing more to stop these tragedies? What is wrong with our society that people are driven to taking their own lives out of fear and humiliation of their identity? Where are the adults that are supposed to lead, protect and cultivate our youth? These questions are as true to my research, 7 years later, as they were in that moment of impassioned realization for my professional purpose. I hold close the youth who took their own lives in those years. I hope that by illuminating the underlying constructs, consequences, and solutions for violence against youth, and LGBTQ youth in particular, I can somehow shed a light of hope in a recent past filled with inconceivable darkness.

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, suicide is the 3rd leading cause of death for youth, and takes up to 4,600 young lives per year (CDC, 2015). Furthermore, LGBTQ youth are anywhere from 2-6 times more likely to commit suicide (CDC, 2014; The Trevor Project, 2016). Although suicide is considered an extreme consequence of bullying, several others exist, some of which are focused on in this research. The following study examines disparities in different forms of victimization, including: traditional and electronic

bullying, homophobic bullying, dating violence and sexual assault among Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and questioning youth. Furthermore, this study also assesses the effects of such disparities on school avoidance, depression and suicidality, as well as substance use. Regardless of the type or consequences of violence under investigation, however, a consistent question remains at the center of inquiry: "but what about LGBTQ youth?"

Over time, advancing the social justice initiatives of LGBTQ youth has saturated into my teaching, in addition to my research. For example, I teach a variety of classes, but in each one I find a way to spend a significant amount of time teaching about gender, sexual orientation, and youth. Additionally, a key foundation of my pedagogy is ensuring that I create a safe space for students to engage and develop, especially as they come face to face with intersections of their own identities. Overall, I view the following study as the beginning of many that will focus on LGBTQ youth. While it is certainly an important springboard for examining disparities among youth who identify within the queer community, the story cannot end there. Understanding why these types of victimization befall LGBTQ youth contributes to a possible future solution. Thus, I sincerely value and look to use mixed and qualitative research methods in order to explore these questions in the future.

Purpose of Research

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention identifies youth violence as an issue of significant public health concern worldwide, because of its effects on physical, mental and emotional health (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014). Youth violence disproportionately affects sexual minority youth, whereas they are at increased risk for several different types of violence and victimization (Centers for Disease Control & Prevention, 2014; Cianciotto & Cahill, 2012; Committee on Lesbian Gay Bisexual and Transgender Health Issues and Research Gaps and

Opportunities, Institute of Medicine, 2011; Dank, Lachman, Zweig & Yahner, 2014; Faulkner & Cranston, 1998; Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin, & Kupper, 2004; Kann, Olsen, McManus, Kinchen, Chyen, Harris, & Wechsler, 2011; Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, & Boesen, 2014). Thus, the following study examines victimization and negative educational, mental and physical health outcomes among lesbian, gay, bisexual and questioning (LGBQ) youth. Furthermore, this study also looks at these issues intersectionally, by examining the interactions of gender, in addition to sexual orientation.

Conceptual Framework

In this dissertation, I utilize feminist criminology, as well as the emerging framework of queer criminology to expand current conceptualizations of youth violence victimization by: 1) centering the experiences of LGBQ youth, as well as the intersections of sexual orientation with gender identity, and 2) considering the underlying, institutionalized factors that can affect these types of victimization.

Feminism is a social movement that revolves around social, political, and economic equality of sex and gender (Walsh, 2011). Similar to other disciplines, criminology began to see the infusion of feminist thought, beginning in the 1970's, as a product of second wave feminism (Chesney-Lind, 2006). Throughout the decade, female victims and offenders, as well as male rape, battery, and other forms of sexual and familial violence became the object of criminological inquiry (Daly & Chesney-Lind, 1988). This disrupted criminology's traditional focus on low-income male delinquency and street crime, illuminating the gender bias in popular criminological theories that historically overlooked women and girls (Renzetti, 2013). By highlighting this repeated omission and misrepresentation of women in criminological theory, feminists actively challenged the androcentric nature of criminology (Belknap, 2007), providing

a space that centered the experiences of women and opened up the space for future conversations on the complicated social construction of gender.

Just as feminist criminology used gender as a lens in which to view the status quo, queer criminology uses sexual orientation and gender identity as a lens to do the same. Moreover, in the same way that feminist criminology sought to identify the injustices and lack of attention to women in the criminal justice system, queer criminology seeks to highlight these same issues for LGBTQ individuals. According to Buist and Lenning (2016, p.10), "Queer theory developed from a need to recognize that sexual identity mattered…and that the lived experiences of an individual identifying as queer was part of a larger social structure that categorized and labeled that identity". Just as a power differential exists with regard to gender, a power differential exists with regard to sexual identity. As noted by Buist and Lenning, there is similarity in the paths that feminist criminologists and queer criminologists have taken. "They (feminist criminologists) began with the more liberal feminist approach that focused on equality and recognition within society and the discipline, and then moved to the more critical approaches such as socialist, radical, and Black feminist theoretical approaches that focused on several different factors and variables related to inequality beyond legislations such as capitalism, patriarchy, heterosexism, and race…that is where we (queer criminology) are today" (p.12).

Research Questions

This project explores the significance of victimization on the lives of LGBQ youth, specifically in terms of its effects on school avoidance, poor mental health and substance use outcomes. In exploration of these issues, my research agenda pushes several substantive questions:

1. What are the distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?

2. What are the distinctions between females and males, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?

3. What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and forced sexual assault victimizations?

4. How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to school avoidance for sexual minority youth?

   a. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect school avoidance?

   b. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect school avoidance?

5. How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to poor mental health for sexual minority youth?

   a. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect poor mental health?

   b. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect poor mental health?

6. How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to substance use for

sexual minority youth

    a. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect substance use?

    b. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect substance use?

Research Contributions and Possible Implications

Although knowledge about LGBTQ youth is growing, more research is needed (Baumle, 2013; Cianciotto and Cahill, 2012; Committee on Lesbian Gay Bisexaul and Transgender Health Issues and Research Gaps and Opportunities, Institute of Medicine, 2011). Thus, the potential impact of this study is far reaching, and two primary goals emerge when thinking of its directional impact: (1) awareness and (2) policy implications. First, when researchers show that significant disparities occur among specific subgroups of the population, there is great potential to raise awareness about the experiences unique to those individuals. In doing so, initial steps can be taken towards bettering the lives of those affected by specific and intersecting inequalities. Second, policy changes are a necessity when it comes to protecting the lives of young people, specifically within the education system. Establishing safe and healthy learning environments for all youth is imperative to establishing a stronger and healthier society. Studies such as this, enable greater investigations of interactions between LGBTQ identities and other socio-demographic factors, as well as provide a starting point for in-depth discussions of a range of outcomes relating to social determinants of health, such as victimization (Mustanski, Van Wagenen, Birkett, Eyster, & Corliss, 2014). Stemming from this study, awareness and policy implications can be applied in two different areas: school environment and services extended to victims of IPV, both of which need substantial policy overhaul.

Research finds that a positive school environment negates several negative outcomes for youth; it is associated with the lowest levels of depression and suicidality, alcohol and marijuana use, and truancy rates among all children, regardless of gender and sexual orientation (Birkett, Espelage and Koenig, 2009). Policies that contribute to a more positive school environment include anti-harassment initiatives that ensure a safe environment for gender and sexual minorities (Rivers, 2000), as well as support from Gay Straight Alliance (GSA) student organizations (Mustanski, Van Wagenen, Birkett, Eyster and Corliss, 2014). The benefits of anti-harassment policies and GSA's include more favorable school experiences, lower alcohol use and psychological distress, and even lower levels of suicidality (Heck, Flentje and Cochran, 2011). Despite the evidence for the positive effects of school environments that offer protections for LGBTQ youth, there are currently only 20 states with laws specifically addressing harassment and/or bullying of students based on sexual orientation and gender identity, 15 states that have school wide LGBT non-discrimination laws, and 33 states with official GSA networks (GSA Network, 2009; Human Rights Campain, 2016).

Interpersonal violence crosses all boundaries of sexual orientation (Duke & Davidson, 2009), where those who identify as sexual minorities and women experience IPV and sexual violence at disproportionate rates (Walters, Chen and Breiding, 2013). As a result, policy must be geared towards supporting domestic violence and sexual assault agencies in becoming aware of the severity of same-sex dating and sexual violence, and increasing outreach efforts specifically to the LGBTQ population (Freedner, Freed, Yang and Austin, 2002). In order to do so, organizations must establish themselves as diverse and inclusive agencies that train advocates properly regarding the specific needs of LGBTQ individuals, and that begins with including

LGBTQ individuals in national, state, and local violence resaerch (Duke & Davidson; Walters,

Chen and Breiding).

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND PREVIOUS LITERATURE

Understanding intergroup disparities requires a significant amount of theoretical labor, and while several studies have successfully defended their findings using modern versions of criminological theory, traditional theory doesn't map onto disparities among LGBTQ youth as well. In order to begin adequately framing the issue at hand requires a combination of feminist and queer perspectives. Viewing the gendered makeup of criminological research subjects began in feminist criminology and it certainly doesn't end there. Recent scholarship within queer criminology also provides a theoretical space to place sexual identities at the forefront of analysis. Queer research isn't just about studying queer people. It's about queering the way we think. It's about theory and practice. Thus, I believe the purpose of having a study focused specifically on LGBTQ youth is the beginning of just that. First, I am studying and focusing primarily on the disparities of these particular youth in hopes of creating more awareness and policy changes that positively affect their well being. Second, by taking the time to consider the various aspects of gender and sexual socialization processes and how they shape different forms of violence, we can open up more inclusive spaces for theory, practice and even the possibility of queering the very ways we think and talk about these issues.

The Development of Feminist Criminology

The traditional landscape of criminological inquiry has deep patriarchal roots. Criminology was, historically, mapped by men, about men, and for men. For example, women's authorship and empiricism was literally non-existent within criminology until the 1970's, and as Freda Adler points out, no solidified trace of female involvement within the American Society of Criminology can actually be found until the 1960's (Renzetti, 2013). Similarly, the subjects of criminological theory were also primarily male, and if women were the subjects of inquiry, their

criminality was pathologized and, undoubtedly, sexualized. For example, while Cesar Lombrosso (often referred to as the father of modern criminology), places female criminality within biological difference and deviant sexuality, other foundational works, such as: Shaw and McKay's (1942) social disorganization/ecological theories of delinquency, Cohen (1955) and Cloward and Ohlin's (1960) delinquency theories, Sutherland's (1949) theory of differential association, Hirschi's (1969) social control theory, and Merton's (1968) strain theories dealt solely with male subjects. Clear androcentric bias existed within the discipline, and it became the task of feminist criminology to shift its focus directly to women as offenders, as victims and within the broader academe and the criminal justice system.

Feminism is a social movement that revolves around social, political, and economic equality of sex and gender (Walsh, 2011). Similar to other disciplines, criminology began to see the infusion of feminist thought, beginning in the 1970's, as a product of second wave feminism (Chesney-Lind, 2006). Throughout the decade, female victims and offenders, as well as male rape, battery, and other forms of sexual and familial violence became the object of criminological inquiry (Daly & Chesney-Lind, 1988). This disrupted criminology's traditional focus on low-income male delinquency and street crime, illuminating the gender bias in popular criminological theories that historically overlooked women and girls (Renzetti, 2013). By highlighting this repeated omission and misrepresentation of women in criminological theory, feminists actively challenged the androcentric nature of criminology (Belknap, 2007), providing a space that centered the experiences of women and opened up the space for future conversations on the complicated social construction of gender.

Overall, more recent scholarship has looked at how criminality is constructed within the context of "doing gender" (Bernard, Snipes & Gerould, 2010). Theorizing violence then shifts

from, "the question of how masculinity causes violence to the question of how violence causes masculinity" (Anderson, p. 856). West and Zimmerman (1987) are among the first to move away from gender as an inherent role or attribute, and situate it as a routine and recurring accomplishment. Within this framework, masculinity and femininity are an expressional pursuit of the individual, guided by the perceptions, interactions and "micropolitical activities" between themselves and others in their environment. Consequently, gender is a situated accomplishment, in which masculinity and femininity are something that people "do". Furthermore, accountability is when individuals act a certain way in a given situation based on the appraisals and interpretations of others. The goal is to be "read" in ways that lead other to identify individuals as male or female (Renzetti, 2013). This is what upholds the actual situated accomplishment. While feminist criminological perspectives vary, viewing gender as a social construction dramatically broadens the ability of the field to address gender issues in both, offenders and victims, more adequately.

One of the most well known examples of social constructionism within feminist criminology is James Messerschmidt's *structured action theory.* According to Messerschmidt (2012), structured action theory, "emphasizes the construction of sex, gender, and sexuality as situated social, interactional, and embodied accomplishments" (p. 28). According to Messerschmidt, social conditions shape the definition of sex, while "doing gender" corroborates with sex identification through embodied social interaction, and both directly affect the practice of sexuality through [learned] and embodied sexual practices. Across various studies, Messerschmidt highlights how violence and crime can be used to accomplish certain forms of masculinity, femininity, and (hetero)sexuality. Messerschmidt considers sexuality one of the

three social structures most important to understanding gendered society (Belknap, 2007), and his concept of "doing sexuality" is a key consideration for this study.

What is feminist criminology? As outlined by Renzetti (2013), "Feminist criminology is a paradigm that studies and explains criminal offending and victimization, as well as institutional responses to these problems, as fundamentally gendered" (p. 13). In their foundational article *Feminism and Criminology,* Daly and Chesney-Lind (1988) outlined 5 elements of feminist thought that set it apart from other disciplines, and must be considered in criminology:

1) Gender is not a natural fact but a complex social, historical and cultural product; it is related to, but not simply derived from, biological sex difference and reproductive capacities.

2) Gender and gender relations order social life and social institutions in fundamental ways.

3) Gender relations and constructs of masculinity and femininity are not symmetrical but are based on an organizing principle of men's superiority and social- and political economic dominance over women.

4) Systems of knowledge reflect men's views of the natural and social world; the production of knowledge is gendered.

5) Women should be at the center of intellectual inquiry, not peripheral, invisible or appendages to men. (p. 508)

Much like feminist theory, numerous feminist criminological perspectives exist, but they all tend to have one commonality: their opposition to patriarchal culture (Walsh, 2011). Thus, the goal of feminist criminology has been, and continues to be, a rethinking and restructuring of the ways we conceptualize and theorize the gendered subjects of crime, victimization and criminal justice.

In order to do so, feminist criminology emphasizes a few different things: 1) it centers gender as a focal variable of analysis, 2) it is committed to alternative research methodologies, and 3) it tends to be inherently activist research.

Feminist criminology is committed to significant methodological restructuring of objective methods often employed in empirical criminology. For example, Naffine (1996) states that criminology often lacks reflexivity, overlooking the identity of the researcher and how it shapes the nature of the scientific process. In order to overcome this, feminist criminology implicates a variety of ways of colleting data that are sensitive to capturing the lived experiences of individuals, rather than more traditional models that attempt to establish mastery over their subjects of interest (Belknap, 2011; Renzetti, 2013). Resaerch by Jeanne Flavin (2001) outlines several points that feminist criminological research methodology entails. It includes: choice of research topic (i.e., ones that encompasses a "large sphere of inquiry", not just women), choice of research methods and methodologies (i.e., both quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods), reflexivity (i.e., identifying the role the researcher plays in "objective" knowledge production), the relationship between the researcher and subjects of interest (i.e., sensitivity to hierarchical processes), and an inherent commitment to policy change and action.

Finally, coinciding with the fact that feminist criminology deals typically with inequalities involving gender differences in offense rates, victimization, and representation in criminal justice, many studies are inherently applied, and involve problem solving research that targets making tangible changes in society (Belknap, 2011). This is what Joann Miller (2011) calls "purpose-driven science", where the most suitable theory and methods for explaining the problem are employed in order to understand and actions are necessary in order to provoke needed change. According to Renzetti (2013, p. 12), "feminist criminologists strive to acquire

scientific knowledge through the research process that empowers individuals and groups to act to change behaviors and conditions that are harmful or oppressive." For the past 30+ years, feminist criminology has worked with gender inequalities in field, and while there is still much work to be done, the infusion of feminism into criminology has paved the way for understanding inequalities among gender and sexual minorities.

Queer Criminology[2]

For decades, feminist criminology has fought hard to illuminate the gender bias in popular criminological theories that overlooked women and girls (Renzetti, 2013). By highlighting this repeated omission and misrepresentation of women in criminological theory, feminists actively challenged the androcentric nature of criminology (Belknap, 2007). The goal of feminist criminology has been, and continues to be, a rethinking and restructuring of the ways we conceptualize and theorize the gendered subjects of crime, victimization and criminal justice. While feminist criminology opened up conversations on gender categories, roles, and social constructions, the intersections of gender and sexual orientation have been less attended to.

According to Woods (2014b), feminist criminology has engaged with sexual orientation through studies of LGBTQ victimization (MacKinnon, 1979; Messerschmidt, 1993; Stanko, 1990), deconstructions of heterosexist social order, as well as studies about the role of socially constructed gender norms in heterosexual males (Collier, 1998; Messerschmidt). Indeed, one of the most well known examples is James Messerschmidt's structured action theory. According to Messerschmidt (2012), structured action theory, "emphasizes the construction of sex, gender, and sexuality as situated social, interactional, and embodied accomplishments" (p. 28). Across various studies, Messerschmidt highlights how violence and crime can be used to accomplish

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[2] Excerpts from this chapter were originally written by the author, and may also appear in subsequent works.

certain forms of masculinity, femininity, and (hetero)sexuality. Messerschmidt considers sexuality one of the three social structures most important to understanding gendered society (Belknap, 2007), and his concept of "doing sexuality" is a ground breaking concept within feminist criminology. While these engagements are critical to the field, however, they—until recently—focused solely on victimization, or continued to center heterosexuality in some way. As noted by Woods, this does not advance our understanding of how gender norms directly affect LGBTQ people's experiences, or how other additional factors such as race, class and religion may intersect to shape motivations for LGBTQ offending, as well as victimization.

Gender scholars have demonstrated the ways in which gender is accomplished through repeated interactions (West & Zimmerman, 1987), by which categories of "masculine" and "feminine" are then created and solidified (Butler, 1990). Such a framework, however, also acknowledges that gender cannot be understood completely independent of sexuality and vise versa. For example, Butler designates the heterosexual matrix as a grid of cultural intelligibility in which:

> Bodies, genders, and desires are naturalized… that for bodies to cohere and make sense there must be a stable sex expressed through a stable gender (masculine expresses male, feminine expresses female) that is oppositionally and hierarchically defined through the compulsory practice of heterosexuality (p. 208).

Additionally, Richardson (2007) contends that the relationship of gender and sexuality is a multi-layered process, intertwined in socially and historically contextual ways. As Richardson states, "in terms of the metaphor; the strands are in motion, moving closer at some points, sliding away at other points; having firm boundaries at some points of connection and becoming porous,

bleeding into each other, in other contexts" (p.466). Thus, it is imperative to understand and acknowledge the role of sexual orientation, in addition to gender, within criminology.

Just as feminist criminology used gender as a lens in which to view the status quo, queer criminology uses sexuality and gender orientation as a lens to do the same. Moreover, in the same way that feminist criminology sought to identify the injustices and lack of attention to women in the criminal justice system, queer criminology seeks to highlight these same issues for LGBTQ individuals. According to Buist and Lenning (2016, p.10), "Queer theory developed from a need to recognize that sexual identity mattered…and that the lived experiences of an individual identifying as queer was part of a larger social structure that categorized and labeled that identity". Just as a power differential exists with regard to gender, a power differential exists with regard to sexual identity. As noted by Buist and Lenning, there is similarity in the paths that feminist criminologists and queer criminologists have taken. "They (feminist criminologists) began with the more liberal feminist approach that focused on equality and recognition within society and the discipline, and then moved to the more critical approaches such as socialist, radical, and Black feminist theoretical approaches that focused on several different factors and variables related to inequality beyond legislations such as capitalism, patriarchy, heterosexism, and race…that is where we (queer criminology) are today" (p.12).

Queer criminology is a critical framework that highlights the stigmatization, criminalization and rejection of the Queer community, as both victims and offenders, by the academe and the broader criminal legal system (Buist & Lenning, 2016). Queer is often employed as an umbrella term for those who identify within the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) community, but is also used as a powerfully deconstructive tool . The definitional importance—and political positioning—of the term queer is best described

by Halperin (1995), who outlines that "queer" stands in direct opposition to the norm, and in essence, is whatever is at odds with that which is normal. Thus, queer criminology is both theoretical and practical in its purpose as it strives to challenge the ways that LGBTQ people are treated. Queer criminology is not just about sexualized differences between Queer and non-Queer individuals. Queer criminology, rather, consistently analyzes systems of power and shifts the spotlight from the "rule breaker to the rule maker" (Ball, 2014; Woods, 2014).

Queer theorization serves multiple purposes within the field of criminology. According to Ball (2014), there are three primary ways in which queer engagements occur within criminology. First, "queer" as an identity category is used to explore criminological and criminal justice issues within queer communities. Second, using concepts of queer theory to explore and critique institutions, practices, or the lives of gender and sexually diverse people. Third, calls for greater connections between queer theory and criminology, in order to create a truly "queer criminology". Clearly, there are many different ways of doing queer criminology, and as Buist and Lenning (2016) contend, it should be both "identity driven" as well as deconstructionist. In other words, queer criminology may focus on queer populations and their marginalization within victimization, offending, and the criminal justice system, or they may directly challenge the "normative orderings" and methods that perpetuate such a positioning (Ball, Buist & Woods, 2014). As Ball, Buist, and Woods outline, "queer criminology is a diverse array of criminology-related researches, critiques, methodologies, perspectives, and reflections" (p. 2).

Overcoming historic homophobia. Criminology has been slow, and even resistant, in attending to non-heterosexual sexual orientation and gender identities. Homophobia is deeply imbedded within criminology, and directly reflects the ebb and flow of broader societal discussions and theorization of Queer people. As outlined in his article, "Queering

Criminology": Overview of the State of the Field, Jordan Blair Woods highlights three key factors that have historically defined criminology's engagement with sexual orientation and gender identity:

> (1) There has historically—and up until very recently— been a significant lack of data and theorizing on LGBTQ people's experiences of crime. Moreover, of those studies that did engage with LGBTQ populations, they have focused primarily on victimization, specifically, bias crimes, bullying and intimate partner violence (see Peterson & Panfil, 2014).

> (2) Because the majority of criminological engagement with sexual orientation and gender identity transpired prior to the 1980's, their discussions were a direct reflection of how LGBTQ people were theorized within broader fields: as sexual deviants.

> (3) There is a significant lack of theoretical engagement with sexual orientation and gender identity in the four major schools of criminology: biological, psychological, sociological, and critical.

These three factors are what foreground Woods' (2014b; 2015) homosexual deviancy thesis. In his thesis, Woods posits that criminology has historically upheld and, at times, even reinforced misconceptions of LGBTQ people through broader deviance-centered rhetoric and invisibility of LGBTQ populations. Thus, there are two primary components to the homosexual deviancy thesis. The deviance-centered element outlines how, until about the 1970's, criminological theories characterized LGBTQ people in much the same way that the dominant legal, political, and social rhetoric had. The discipline engaged with sexual orientation and gender identity only as far as determining whether LGBTQ identities and behaviors were, in fact, a form of deviance themselves. In turn, the invisibility element refers too criminological

discussions of sexual orientation and gender identity after the 1970's. It contends that (with the exception of studies focused on victimization), discussions of LGBTQ populations virtually disappear from criminological theories. According to Woods, this invisibility directly coincided with the decline in power and popularity of mechanisms of social control. As Woods (2014b, p. 17) notes, "when sodomy laws largely lost force in Western countries… discussions of sexual orientation, gender identity, and LGBTQ populations virtually disappeared from criminological theory and research." The homosexual deviancy thesis is a foothold for understanding how and why criminology has resisted Queer inclusion. As Buist and Lenning (2016) outline, Woods' theory illuminates criminology's historic homophobic roots, while simultaneously drawing attention to the lack of current research conducted on and about Queer people as they pertain to the criminal justice system and criminology as a whole.

Current state of the field. While not discounting the foundational works of authors such as Groombridge (1998) and Tomson (1997), Queer criminology has recently emerged with major volumes and recognition. In their introduction to the Handbook of LGBT Communities, Crime, and Justice, Peterson and Panfil (2014) describe how, in the past, authors focusing on LGBT populations have come up against direct misplacement or misrepresentation of their research at major criminology conferences. As a result, Peterson and Panfil organized their own panel for the 2011 American Society of Criminology (ASC) conference entitled: "The Role of Identity in LGBT Individuals' Responses to Violence." The panel drew the attention of an Editor at Springer Publishing, resulting in the Handbook. Simultaneously, other works emerged including: Queer (In)justice: The Criminalization of LGBT People in the United States (Mogul, Ritchie & Whitlock, 2011), the 2014 special issue of Critical Criminology dedicated to Queer/ing

Criminology, Queer Criminology (Buist & Lenning, 2016), and Queering Criminology (Dwyer, Ball & Crofts, 2016).

The emergence of such discourses signals a landmark time in the history of the academy, while simultaneously creating a place for ongoing deconstruction and growth for criminological theories and practices as they relate to queer lives and positionings. For example, there is a substantial amount of evidence for the latter point that queer can be both, "identity driven" and deconstructionist (Ball, 2014b; Buist & Lenning, 2016; Dwyer, Ball & Crofts, 2016). The special issue of Critical Criminology on Queer/ing Criminology features original papers that emphasize both theoretical pieces (Ball, 2014a; Woods 2014a), as well as identity driven pieces that deal with a variety of issues including: transgender offenders and victims of violence (Buist & Stone, 2014; Perry & Dyck, 2014), Queer youth and young adults (Dwyer, 2014; Fileborn, 2014; Frederick, 2014), the omission of gay perpetrators of violence (Panfil, 2014), as well as mechanisms of power that sustain hate crime discourse and persecution of Queer people by the state (Gledhill, 2014; Meyer, 2014). Additionally, Peterson and Panfil's (2014) edited volume yields queer deconstructionist pieces, as well as a variety of identity based work that deals with an array of themes about "LGBT communities" and crime and victimization, juvenile and criminal justice systems, law and justice, and crime and public health. Finally, Buist and Lenning's (2016) book deals with queer theory within criminology, as well as broader themes of queer criminology as it relates to and within law enforcement, legal systems, and corrections.

In What's Queer About Queer Criminology?, Matthew Ball emphasizes the importance of the diversity within these projects, all the while cautioning criminologists that any work done in the area must also engage with, "broader projects of deconstruction that are an identifying feature of queer theoretical work" (p. 532). Thus, while identity driven approaches do, in fact,

bring queer lives into focus, and are crucial in alleviating injustices, queer as a deconstructive "tool" pushes criminology in an even more inclusive direction. To this end, Ball illuminates examples like: governing sexuality through norms, critiques of essentialized identities, and the roles of heteronormativity, heterosexism and homophobia in crime, in order to show new ways of theorizing queer experiences of injustice.

Queer criminology, however, is not based solely on these two precedents. Rather, opening up the space even more requires acknowledgement of definitional tensions and positional critiques. In terms of definitional tensions, Woods (2014a) warns that taking either approach too far can create a "catch 22". For example, essentialized categories create issues of exclusion for those non-normative sexual orientations and/or gender identities that don't fit within the neat categories of LGBTQ. In contrast, abolishing categories all together and replacing them with even larger umbrella terms runs the risk of weakening theoretical and practical implications for marginalized populations. In terms of positional critiques, Ball (2014b) notes that queer criminology must be careful in its methods of knowledge production, so as to not recreate the same binaries and categories that often erase the fluidity of queer lives. Additionally, Ball also suggests that queer should extend beyond representation of gender and sexuality and take up more inclusive [borderland] positions.

Queer may mean one thing to someone; yet mean something completely different to another (Buist & Lenning, 2016). In essence, queer theory demands that no singular experience of sexuality and/or gender identity exist. Therefore, if queer criminology is going to "produce more discursive spaces for queer people to inhabit and…fundamentally shift the way we think about, talk about, and research these issues" (Ball, 2014b, p. 546), it must do so from an intersectional lens. As the foremother of intersectionality suggests, identity politics often times

conflate or ignore intragroup difference (Crenshaw, 1991). Additionally, Woods (2014a) accentuates how individual experience is shaped by a variety of positions including race, ethnicity, class, gender, sexual orientation, religion, and age among many others. As a result, Woods contends that sexual orientation and gender identity should be seen through a lens of relational difference, a position that does not view these characteristics in isolation, but rather, how they intersect with other positions to shape people's experiences within the criminal-legal system. Thus, even if queer criminological research studies and samples do not include other facets of identity, it is certainly our job, at the very least, to discuss this (beyond a limitations section) in relation to power and governing norms.

Literature Review

Differences in the prevalence of victimization vary by gender and sexual orientation. LGBTQ youth are at increased risk of different types of violent youthful victimization. In particular, studies find differences among the prevalence rates of bullying, bullying based on perceived sexual orientation, as well as dating and sexual violence for gender and sexual minority youth. Bullying differs from other forms of youth violence and harassment, primarily because of the asymmetric power imbalance existing between the bully and victim (Olweus, 1993). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) specifically defines bullying as, "any unwanted aggressive behavior(s) by another youth or group of youths who are not siblings or current dating partners that involves an observed or perceived power imbalance and is repeated multiple times or is highly likely to be repeated" (Bullying Research, 2014). Such behaviors occur through a variety of forms including: physical, verbal, and relational aggression, as well as technological forums, known as cyber bullying (Bjorkqvist, 1994; Wang, Iannotti, & Nansel, 2009; Hinduja & Patchin, 2008). Overall, About 30% of adolescents report being bullied

annually, and as many as 23% report being bullied on a weekly or daily basis (Craig, Harel-Fisch & Fogel-Grinvald et al., 2009; Lumeng, Forrest, Appugliese, Kaciroti, Corwyn & Bradley, 2010; Robers, Zhang & Truman, 2010; O'Moore, Kirkham & Smith, 1997).

While bullying is, perhaps, the most shared experience of youth violence among adolescents, differences emerge when considering gender and sexual orientation. For example, studies have highlighted important gender differences among bullying behaviors, whereas boys are more likely than girls to be involved in bullying activities (Scheithauer, Hayer, Petermann and Jugert, 2006; Viljoen, O'Neill, M. and Sidhu, 2005). While boys are more likely than girls to be involved in physical and verbal direct forms of bullying, girls are more likely to be involved in indirect (or relational) forms of bullying (Carbone-Lopez, Esbensen and Brick, 2010; Scheithauer et al.). Differences also exist among sexual orientation. In comparison to only 9% of their heterosexual counterparts, 50% of sexual minority youth experience some form of violence while at school. Research highlights that about 40 to 42% of sexual minority youth experience bullying, compared to only 21% of their heterosexual peers (Kosciw, Diaz and Greytak, 2007; Massachusetts Department of Education, 2004). One study found that LGB students were significantly more likely to experience physical bullying (39% vs. 25%), and more likely to experience relational bullying (54% vs. 33%) than their heterosexual peers (McGuire, Dixon and Russell, 2009 in Cianciotto and Cahill, 2012).

Homophobic bullying is, "behavior or language which makes a young person feel unwelcomed or marginalized because of their actual or perceived sexual orientation" (The Rainbow Project, 2012). Unfortunately high (about 69 percent), of youth report witnessing or experiencing forms of homophobic bullying. In 2005, 90 percent of LGBT youth (vs. 62% of non-LGBT youth) reported verbal and physical harassment or assault during the past year

because of their perceived or actual appearance, gender, sexual orientation, gender expression, race/ethnicity, disability, or religion (Kosciw and Diaz, 2006). Another study by D'Augelli, Grossman, and Starks (2006), found that 78 percent of LGBT youth reported experiencing verbal victimization, and 11 percent reported physical victimization on the basis of sexual orientation. Finally, the most recent study put forth by the Gay, Lesbian and Straight Education Network (GLSEN) found that, among LGBT students, 74.1 percent reported being verbally harassed, 36.2 percent reported being physically harassed, 16.5 percent reported being physically assaulted, and 49.9 percent reported being electronically harassed, because of their perceived sexual orientation.

Bullying is considered a form of violence that occurs outside of dating relationships, however, youth are also susceptible to violence occurring within personal relationships as well. In fact, a nationwide survey found that, among adult victims of rape, physical violence, and stalking by an intimate partner, 22 percent of women and 15 percent of men first experienced this type of violence between the ages of 11 and 17 (Centers for Disease Control, 2006). Intimate partner violence (IPV) is, "abuse that occurs between two people in a close relationship, with the term 'intimate partner' being inclusive of current and former spouses and dating partners" (Gillum and DiFulvio, 2012, p. 725). Dating violence, a particular form of IPV, is defined as sexual, physical, or psychological violence occurring within the context of a dating relationship (Centers for Disease Control). The average prevalence rates for youth dating violence vary anywhere from 10-33 percent in national studies (Eaton, Kann, Kinchen, Ross, Hawkins, Harris, et al., 2006; Eaton, Davis, and Barrios, 2007; Howard, Wang and Yan, 2007) to 19-67 percent in community level studies (Sears, Byers and Price, 2006; West and Rose, 2000).

Research finds that compared to heterosexual youth, gender and sexual minorities are disproportionately at risk for all types of dating violence (Dank, Lachman, Zweig and Yahner,

2014; Porter and Williams, 2011). Research for gender differences in the prevalence of dating violence are less egregious, and somewhat mixed. For example, some studies find the prevalence rates for dating violence to be relatively equal (Henton, Cate, Koval, Lloyd and Christopher, 1983; O'keefe, Brockopp and Chew, 1986). In contrast, Foshee, (1996) found that 36.5 percent of females and 39.4 percent of males reported at least one episode of dating violence, and the most recent YRBS survey found that the prevalence of dating violence was higher among females (13%) than males (7.4%) (Kann et al., 2014). Differences in prevalence rates are more dramatic among sexual minority youth. A study by Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin and Kupper (2004) found that about 24 percent of adolescents in same-sex relationships experienced psychological or physical dating violence in a relationship. In comparison to their heterosexual peers, the Massachusetts Department of Education (2006) found that 35 percent vs. 8 percent of sexual minority youth were more likely to experience dating violence. Additionally, Kann et al.'s (2011) findings point to similar trends where the median prevalence rates for dating violence were 10.2 percent for heterosexual students, compared to 27.5 percent for gay or lesbian students, 23.3 percent for bisexual students, and 19.3 percent for students questioning their sexual orientation.

A few studies have also found interactions between gender, sexual orientation, and the prevalence of dating violence. Freedner, Freed, Yang and Austin's (2002) study of 521 adolescents found that about 57% of bisexual male youth, 45% of gay male youth, 44% of lesbian youth, and 38% of bisexual female youth had experienced dating violence. Additionally, when compared to their heterosexual counterparts, bisexual males had 4 times the odds, and lesbians had over two times the odds of experiencing some type of dating violence. Another study of 117 adolescents from the Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, Halpern, Young,

Waller, Martin and Kupper (2004) found that girls in same-sex relationships were more likely to report dating violence than boys in same-sex relationships, and were at similar risk for violence as girls in opposite-sex relationships.

Dating violence is a type of violence specific to the context of an intimate relationship. Sexual violence, however, can occur either within the context of an intimate relationship or outside of it. Sexual violence refers to sexual activity where consent is not obtained or given freely. This can include penetrative, non-penetrative, and non-contact forms of abuse (Basile, Smith, Breiding, Black, and Mehendra, 2014). According to a most recent Sexual Violence Surveillance report by the CDC, 1 in 5 women and 1 in 59 men have experienced an attempted or completed rape in their lifetime; about 12.5% of women and 5.8% of men reported experiencing sexual coercion in their lifetime; 27.3% of women and about 10.8% men have experienced some form of unwanted sexual contact in their lifetime; and 32.1% of women and 13.3% of men experienced some type of noncontact unwanted sexual experience in their lifetime (Basile, et al.). By the time a child turns 17, the lifetime prevalence of sexual victimization is about 9.8% (Finkelhor, Turner, Ormrod, Hamby and Kracke, 2009). In 2013, 7.3% of students nationwide had been physically forced to have sexual intercourse against their will, and 10.4% of had been kissed, touched, or physically forced to have sexual intercourse with someone their were dating or going out with (Kann et al., 2014).

Certain cultural assumptions regarding heterosexuality and these types of violence typically frame women as recipients of violence, and men as perpetrators (Hassouneh and Glass, 2008; Van Natta, 2005). While the statistics for gender differences in sexually violent victimizations are vibrant, such assumptions often overlook that this is a reality for sexual minorities as well. Recent nationally representative statistics reveal that sexual minorities report

IPV and sexual violence at equal to or higher rates than heterosexuals. Furthermore, bisexual women report the highest rates of sexual violence compared to those who identify as lesbian, gay, or heterosexual (Walters, Chen and Breiding, 2013). Although studies that focus specifically on LGBTQ youth and sexual violence are rare, Freedner, Freed, Yang and Austin (2002) found that bisexual females were twice as likely to report sexual abuse than heterosexual females. According to the CDC, 7.2% of heterosexual students, 23.7% of gay or lesbian students, 22.6% of bisexual students and 19.8% of unsure, or questioning, students reported having been physically forced to have sexual intercourse against their will (Kann et al., 2011).

Relationship between victimization and outcomes. Studies have found a relationship between increased victimization and a variety of negative outcomes. Research confirms that LGBTQ youth are at greater risk for bullying, bullying because of sexual orientation, dating violence and sexual violence. In turn, these types of victimization have been linked to a variety of negative consequences for youth experiencing them. Thus, students more at risk for victimization are also at an increased risk for certain negative outcomes. In particular, studies have found that victims of these types of youth violence are at increased risk of a variety of issues, including those in this study: school avoidance and truancy, substance use, and poor mental health indicators such as, depression and suicidal ideation. According to the 2013 National School Climate Survey, about 30% of LGBT students missed at least one day of school within a 30-day period, because they felt unsafe (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014). Studies also find that substance use is higher among LGBT adolescents (Marshal, Friedman, Stall and Thompson, 2009; Rivers and Noret, 2008), as well as depression (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014) and suicidality (Garofalo, Wolf, Wissow, Woods and Goodman, 1999). While the prevalence of each of these factors is higher among LGBTQ students,

investigating the impact of mechanisms that may cause or influence such outcomes need examined (Marshal et al.).

Several studies have linked bullying victimization to higher rates of school avoidance, substance use and poor mental health. Several studies report that LGBTQ students have higher truancy rates that are, at least in part, moderated by peer victimization (Aragon, Poteat, Espelage, & Koenig, 2014; Birkett, Espelage & Koenig, 2009; Rivers, 2000). Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender students, who experienced higher levels of victimization because of their sexual orientation, were over 3 times as likely to have missed school than those not experiencing it (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer & Boesen, 2014). In an analysis of 12 different studies of sexual minority youth, Goldbach, Tanner-Smith, Bagwell and Dunlap (2014) found that LGB youth indicated that the strongest risk factor for substance use was victimization. Finally, peer victimization has been found to have a significant positive association with psychological distress (Mustanski, Van Wagenen, Birkett, Eyster & Corliss, 2014), as well as suicidal ideation and attempts (Hershberger, Pilkington & D'Augelli, 1997).

Dating Violence has also been linked to increased school avoidance, substance use and poor mental health outcomes for those experiencing it (Taylor, Stein, Woods and Mumford, 2011; Silverman, Raj et al., 2001). However, several studies find that the relationship between dating violence, school avoidance and substance use is not unidirectional. For example, rather than school avoidance being the result of dating violence, one study found that individuals with higher rates of school avoidance were actually more likely to be involved in dating violence (Taylor et al.). Additionally, substance use has been associated with dating violence as both, a predictor and an outcome. While Shorey, Stuart and Cornelius (2011) found that substance use was associated with higher rates of dating violence perpetration and victimization, Silverman,

Raj, Mucci and Hathaway (2001) found that dating violence was associated with increased risk for substance use in adolescent girls. In terms of mental health outcomes, however, research shows that dating violence is associated with several health problems, such as depression and suicidality (Ackard, Neumark-Sztainer and Hannan, 2002; Harned, 2001; Silverman et. al). More research is needed that explores the association of dating violence to school avoidance, substance use and mental health outcomes for youth, especially those identifying as LGBTQ.

Research finds that sexual harassment and violence has adverse effects on numerous health outcomes for those experiencing it (Gruber and Fineran, 2008), including school avoidance, substance use and depression and suicidality. Studies reveal that students who experienced sexual harassment reported difficulties in school performance, as well as increased absenteeism, skipping or dropping classes, tardiness and truancy (American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, 2001; Corbett, Gentry and Pearson, 1993). According to Anderson, Chi, Palmer and Poitra-Chalmer (2005), there is an overwhelming amount of evidence that victims of sexual assault and rape are more likely to use alcohol and drugs as coping mechanisms for their victimization. Sexual violence has also been linked to an array of negative psychosocial effects including depression, low self-esteem and feelings of sadness (Hand and Sanchez, 2000; Lee, Croninger, Linn and Chen, 1996), as well as suicidality (Hershberger, Pilkington and D'Augelli, 1997). Hershberber et al.'s study was one of the few to look at these associations in a sample of LGBTQ youth, thus, it is apparent that more research is needed that specifically focuses on these outcomes for gender and sexual minority youth.

Research demonstrates that certain student characteristics are associated with victimization rates and, in turn, negative outcomes associated with victimization. Student characteristics such as, age, race and ethnicity, geographic location, weight and misbehavior

(Farhat, Iannotti, & Simons-Morton, 2010; Hong & Espelage, 2012; Peguero, 2012; Wang, Iannotti & Luk, 2010) are associated with differences in victimization; therefore, included as control variables in the study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Developed in 1990 by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention, the Youth Risk

Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) is used to monitor health risk behaviors that contribute

to causes of death, disability, and social problems among youth in the United States. Because

these behaviors often begin during childhood and adolescence, the YRBS was designed to:

determine the prevalence of health risk behaviors, assess whether or not such behaviors increase,

decrease, or stay the same over time, examine co-occurrences of health risk behaviors, provide

comparable national, state, territorial, tribal, and local data, provide comparable data among

subpopulations of youth, and monitor progress toward achieving healthy program objectives and

indicators (Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System overview, 2014; 2015).

Sample

In total, the YRBS includes national, state, territorial, tribal government, and local

school-based surveys of representative samples of 9th through 12th grade students. The surveys

are administered every two years. The national survey is conducted, specifically, by the CDC

and provides data representative of 9th through 12th grade students in public and private schools

throughout the United States. In turn, the state, territorial, tribal government, and local surveys

are conducted by departments of health and education. These surveys provide data representative

of mostly public high school students in each jurisdiction (Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance

System overview, 2014). This project utilized data from the 2013 YRBS which, to date, has the

most state, district and territorial participation in asking at least one of two questions pertaining

to sexual orientation.

The sampling frame for the 2013 national YRBS included all 50 states and the District of

Columbia. Data were collected through self-report questionnaires distributed within classrooms,

systematically chosen through equal probability sampling within the 193 schools in the sample

(Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System, 2014). For the purposes of this study, all states that

did not include the sexual orientation question were eliminated. Thus, four states were selected

that adequately included all variables of interest: Connecticut (n= 2,242), Florida (n= 5,743),

Illinois (n= 3,163), and North Carolina (n= 1,494). The total sample for the analysis included

12,642 (1,428 sexual minority and 11,214 heterosexual) public school students.

Measures

Sexual Orientation

According to the Sexual Minority Assessment Research Team [SMART] (2009), sexual

orientation encompasses 3 different conceptual dimensions: 1) self-identification- how one

identifies their own sexual orientation, 2) sexual behavior- the sex of the sex partners, and 3)

sexual attraction- the sex or gender of individuals that someone feels attracted to. In this study,

sexual orientation was used as a measure of self-identification in which respondents were asked,

"which of the following best describes you?" Response items ranged from (1) Heterosexual (or

"straight"); (2) Gay or Lesbian; (3) Bisexual; and (4) Not sure. Sexual minority youth are

considered those who identify as gay, lesbian, or bisexual or who have sexual contact with

persons of the same or both sexes (CDC, 2016), thus, I use *sexual minority* as a categorical

variable that operationalizes self-identified sexual orientations in this study other than

heterosexual (or "straight"). In line with Mustanski, Van Wagenen, Birkett, and Eyster's (2014)

study, responses were then dichotomized as a *sexual minority* (gay or lesbian, bisexual and

questioning youth), or not a sexual minority (heterosexual "or straight") youth.

Furthermore, it is also important to revisit the issue of terminology at this time. Prior to

this point in the study, as well as in the last chapter of this study, *LGBTQ* is used as the inclusive

and appropriate acronym. However, the YRBSS does not include a question about non-binary

gender identity, such as, (t)ransgender, or gender non-conforming. Thus, the results section

shows the use of *sexual minority* as the operationalized variable in the tables, as well as the use

of *LGBQ* in the results and discussion sections in order to indicate the identities disclosed in the

sample.

Gender

Addiationally, Student characteristics, such as gender are found to be associated with

victimization (Espelage, Bosworth, & Simon, 2000; Seals & Young, 2003), thus are also

examined in the study. *Female* was dichotomized as (0) not female and (1) female. *Male* was

dichotomized as (0) not male and (1) male.

Independent Variables

Bullying victimization. In most youth violence research, the predominant method for

assessing involvement in bullying is self-report (Vivolo-Kantor, Martell, Holland, & Westby,

2014). The 2013 YRBS defined bullying as, "…when 1 or more students tease, threaten, spread

rumors about, hit, shove, or hurt another student over and over again. It is not bullying when 2

students of about the same strength or power argue or fight or tease each other in a friendly way"

(Kann et al., 2014). Thus, *Traditional Bullying* was operationalized from the question, "during

the past 12 months, have you ever been bullied on school property?" Response items were

dichotomized as (0) No and (1) Yes. *Electronic Bullying* was operationalized from the question,

"during the past 12 months, have you ever been electronically bullied?" Response items were

dichotomized as (0) No and (1) Yes. *Sexual Orientation Bullying* was operationalized from the

question, "during the past 12 months, have you ever been the victim of teasing or name calling

because someone thought you were gay, lesbian, or bisexual?" Response items were dichotomized as (0) No and (1) Yes.

Dating violence. is defined as sexual, physical, or psychological violence occurring within the context of a dating relationship (Centers for Disease Control). Research finds that gender and sexual minorities are disproportionately at risk for all types of dating violence (Dank, Lachman, Zweig and Yahner, 2014; Porter and Williams, 2011), thus it is used as a variable in the analysis. Dating violence was operationalized from the question, "during the past 12 months, how many times did someone you were dating or going out with physically hurt you on purpose? (Count such things as being hit, slammed into something, or injured with an object or weapon.)" Response items ranged from (A) I did not date or go out with anyone during the past 12 months, (B) 0 times, (C) 1 time, (D) 2 or 3 times, (E) 4 or 5 times, (F) 6 or more times. Responses were then dichotomized as (0) No dating violence (responses a and b) and (1) Yes--dating violence (responses c through f).

Sexual assault. encompasses any type of non-consensual sexual contact or behavior (United States Department of Justice). Some studies find that sexual minority females (in particular) are more likely to report sexual abuse (Freedner, Freed, Yang & Austin, 2002). Thus, *Sexual assault* was operationalized from two different questions, "during the past 12 months, how many times did someone you were dating or going out with force you to do sexual things that you did not want to do? (Count such things as kissing, touching, or being physically forced to have sexual intercourse.)" Responses items ranged from (A) I did not date or go out with anyone during the past 12 months, (B) 0 times, (C) 1 time, (D) 2 or 3 times, (E) 4 or 5 times, (F) 6 or more times. Responses were then dichotomized as (0) No (responses a and b) and (1) Yes (responses c through f). The second question was "have you ever been physically forced to have

sexual intercourse when you did not want to?" Response items were then dichotomized as (0) No sexual assault and (1) Yes.

Dependent Variables

School Avoidance. was operationalized from the question, "during the past 30 days, on how many days did you not go to school because you felt you would be unsafe at school or on your way to or from school?" Response items ranged from (0) 0 days; (1) 1 day; (2) 2-3 days; (3) 4-5 days; (4) 6 or more days. Items were then dichotomized as (0) No school avoidance and (1) Yes.

Poor Mental Health. was operationalized from the following questions, "during the past 12 months, did you ever feel so sad or hopeless almost every day for two weeks or more in a row that you stopped doing some usual activities?" and "during the past 12 months, did you ever seriously consider attempting suicide?" Response items were dichotomized as (0) No and (1) Yes.

Substance Use. was operationalized from the following questions, "During the past 30 days, on how many days did you smoke cigarettes," "During the past 30 days, on how many days did you have at least one drink of alcohol" and "During the past 30 days, how many times did you use marijuana?" Response items ranged from (0) none used and (1) use (any use, any combination of use, or used all three. Studies find that school avoidance has been found to be a consequence of a variety of issues at school (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014), thus is used as a variable in the analysis.

Controls

Research demonstrates that certain student characteristics are associated with victimization. Research has found that a student's age is associated with victimization age

(Espelage & Horne, 2008). Thus, *grade* was operationalized from the following question, "in what grade are you?" Responses ranged from (9) 9th; (10) 10th; (11) 11th; (12) 12th.

Race and ethnicity has also been associated with victimization (Hong & Espelage, 2012), thus is used as a control variable in the study. *White* was dichotomized from the following question, "what is your race?" Responses ranged from (0) not white and (1) white. *Black* was dichotomized from the following question, "what is your race?" Responses ranged from (0) not Black and (1) Black. *Latino* was dichotomized from the following question, "what is your race?" Responses ranged from (0) not Latino and (1) Latino. *Asian or Pacific Islander* was dichotomized from the following question, "what is your race?" Responses ranged from (0) not Asian or Pacific Islander (1) Asian or Pacific Islander. *Other* race/ethnicity was dichotomized from the following question, "what is your race?" Responses ranged from (0) not other and (1) other.

Studies also find that other student characteristics such as, weight (Farhat, Iannotti, & Simons-Morton, 2010; Wang, Iannotti & Luk, 2010), and involvement in misbehavior (Peguero, 2008) are associated with victimization. Thus, *weight* was comprised from the following question, "how do you describe your weight?" Responses ranged from (1) underweight; (2) average weight; (3) overweight. *Misbehavior* was operationalized from the following questions: "during the past 30 days, on how many days did you carry a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on school property?" and "during the past 12 months, how many times were you in a physical fight?" Responses ranged from (0) no/no; (1) either/or; (2) yes/yes.

Finally, studies also find that geographic location (Guerra & Williams, 2010) is associated with victimization, therefore, included as control variables in the study. Although the original sampling frame included county, city and state level data, state level data –only-- was

chosen for the sake of congruency. Furthermore, prior to the most recent 2015 YRBSS, the inclusion of sexual orientation in the demographic questions was not a requirement for states implementing the survey. While several states include questions that could have tested other theoretical inquiries, the goal of the current study was to focus on the highest number of students that identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual or questioning, Consequently, all states that did not include the sexual orientation question were eliminated. Thus, four states were selected that adequately included all variables of interest: Connecticut, Florida, Illinois and North Carolina. *Florida* was measured using the state identifier. Responses were dichotomized as (0) not Florida and (1) Florida. *Illinois* was measured using the state identifier. Responses were dichotomized as (0) not Illinois and (1) Illinois. *North Carolina* was measured using the state identifier. Responses were dichotomized as (0) not North Carolina and (1) North Carolina.

Analytic Strategy

Research suggests that bullying occurs more often to those who identify as sexual minorities. This project explores different types of bullying victimization in the lives of sexual minority youth, as well as the interactions between an individual's sexual orientation and gender. Binary logistic regression predicts categorical outcomes based on predictor variables (Field, 2009), thus is utilized to estimate the probability of bullying victimization, as well as school avoidance, poor mental health and substance use based on an individual's sexual orientation and gender. The analyses proceed in several steps.

RQ1. *What are the distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?* In order to analyze the latter variables, Table 1 presents a split sample comparison of descriptive statistics among sexual minority and heterosexual youth.

RQ*2. What are the distinctions between females and males, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?* In order to analyze the latter variables, Table 2 presents a split sample comparison of descriptive statistics among female and male youth.

RQ3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and forced sexual assault victimizations?* Table 3 presents logistic regression results of sexual orientation, gender and victimization types. In Model 1 of Table 3, traditional bullying is regressed on sexual minorities, gender, grade, race and ethnicity, weight, misbehavior, and state location. In order to understand the role of both, gender and sexual orientation on traditional bullying victimization, interactions by gender and sexual orientation are presented in Model 2. Similar analyses are presented for electronic bullying in Model's 3 and 4, sexual orientation in Model's 5 and 6, dating violence in Model's 7 and 8, and sexual assault in Model's 9 and 10 of Table 3.

RQ4. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to school avoidance for sexual minority youth?* Table 4 presents logistic regression results of school avoidance and sexual orientation, gender and victimization. In the baseline model of Table 4, school avoidance is regressed on sexual orientation and gender. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, and victimization, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 2. Finally, in order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, victimization, as well as controls, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 3 of Table 4.

RQ4a. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect school avoidance?* In order to understand the interaction of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in school avoidance, Table 5 presents coefficients, specifically, for females. In the baseline model of Table 5, female school avoidance is regressed on sexual minorities. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization on females, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 5. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, victimization, as well as controls, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 6 of Table 5. Finally, Model 7 is considered the full model, where school avoidance is regressed on sexual orientation, victimization, and victimization of sexual minority females (in particular).

In order to understand the interaction of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in school avoidance, Table 6 presents coefficients, specifically, for males. In the baseline model of Table 6, male school avoidance is regressed on sexual minorities. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization on male school avoidance, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 9. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization, as well as controls, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 10 of Table 6. Finally, Model 11 is considered the full model, where school avoidance is regressed on sexual orientation, victimization, and victimization of sexual minority males (in particular).

RQ5. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to poor mental health for sexual minority youth?* Table 7 presents logistic regression results of poor mental health and sexual orientation, gender and victimization. In the baseline model of Table 7, school avoidance is regressed on sexual orientation and gender. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation,

gender, and victimization, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 13. Finally, in order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, victimization, as well as controls, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 14 of Table 7.

RQ5a. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect poor mental health?* In order to understand the interaction of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in poor mental health, Table 8 presents coefficients, specifically, for females. In the baseline model of Table 8, female poor mental health is regressed on sexual minorities. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization on females, poor mental health is regressed on these variables in Model 16. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, victimization, as well as controls, poor mental health is regressed on these variables in Model 17 of Table 8. Finally, Model 18 is considered the full model, where poor mental health is regressed on sexual orientation, victimization, and victimization of sexual minority females (in particular).

In order to understand the interaction of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in poor mental health, Table 9 presents coefficients, specifically, for males. In the baseline model of Table 9, male poor mental health is regressed on sexual minorities. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization, poor mental health is regressed on these variables in Model 20. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization, as well as controls, poor mental health is regressed on these variables in Model 21 of Table 9. Finally, Model 22 is considered the full model, where poor mental health is regressed on sexual orientation, victimization, and victimization of sexual minority males (in particular).

RQ6. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to substance use for sexual*

minority youth? Table 10 presents logistic regression results of poor mental health and sexual orientation, gender and victimization. In the baseline model of Table 10, school avoidance is regressed on sexual orientation and gender. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, and victimization, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 24. Finally, in order to examine the role of sexual orientation, gender, victimization, as well as controls, school avoidance is regressed on these variables in Model 25 of Table 10.

   RQ6a. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect substance use?* In order to understand the interaction of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in substance use, Table 11 presents coefficients, specifically, for females. In the baseline model of Table 11, female substance use is regressed on sexual minorities. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization on females, substance use is regressed on these variables in Model 27. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation, victimization, and controls, substance use is regressed on these variables in Model 28 of Table 11. Finally, Model 29 is considered the full model, where substance use is regressed on sexual orientation, victimization, and victimization of sexual minority females (in particular).

   In order to understand the interaction of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in substance use, Table 12 presents coefficients, specifically, for males. In the baseline model of Table 12, male substance use is regressed on sexual minorities. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization, substance use is regressed on these variables in Model 31. In order to examine the role of sexual orientation and victimization, as well as controls, substance use is regressed on these variables in Model 32 of Table 12. Finally, Model 33 is considered the full model, where substance use is regressed on sexual orientation, victimization, and victimization of sexual minority males (in particular).

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

RQ 1. *What are the distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?*

As presented in Table 1, the distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual student's experiences with victimization are significant. On average, sexual minority students (μ =.32, *SD*=.466) experience higher rates of traditional bullying than heterosexual students (μ =.16, *SD*=.369). Sexual minority students (μ =.26, *SD*=.421) experience higher rates of electronic bullying than heterosexual students (μ =.12, *SD*=.327). Sexual minority students (μ =.33, *SD*=.470) experience higher rates of sexual orientation bullying than heterosexual students (μ =.06, *SD*=.232). Sexual minority students (μ =.16, *SD*=.369) experience higher rates of dating violence than heterosexual students (μ =.06, *SD*=.228). Finally, sexual minority students (μ =.16, *SD*=.368) experience higher rates of sexual assault than heterosexual students (μ =.07, *SD*=.257).

The distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual student's experiences with school avoidance, poor mental health and substance use are also significant. On average, sexual minority students (μ =.18, *SD*=.380) experience higher rates of school avoidance than heterosexual students (μ =.09, *SD*=.281). Sexual minority students (μ =.32, *SD*=.468) experience higher rates of poor mental health than heterosexual students (μ =.20, *SD*=.400). Finally, sexual minority students (μ =.51, *SD*=.500) experience higher rates of substance use than heterosexual students (μ =.39, *SD*=.488). In terms of controls, there are significant differences in the distribution of sexual orientation as well. Sexual minority students (μ =.67,

SD=.472) are more likely to be female, while heterosexual students (μ=.49, *SD*=.5) have a relatively even distribution of females to males. There are also significant differences in the sexual orientation among students who identify as "other" racial or ethnic identities, where more students identify as a sexual minority (μ=.12, *SD*=.326) than heterosexual (μ=.07, *SD*=.259). Sexual minority students (μ= 2.18, *SD*=.740) are slightly more likely to perceive themselves as overweight then heterosexual students (μ=2.14, *SD*=.644). Fairly larger significant differences exist among school misbehavior. Sexual minority students (μ=.49, *SD*=.606) are significantly more involved in misbehavior than heterosexual students (μ=.30, *SD*=.519). All states are significantly different in their distributions of sexual minority and heterosexual youth. While Illinois has significantly more sexual minority youth (μ=.29, *SD*=.297) than heterosexual youth (μ=.24, *SD*=.326), Florida has more heterosexual youth (μ=.46, *SD*=.498) than sexual minority youth (μ=.43, *SD*=.495), and North Carolina has more heterosexual youth (μ=.12, *SD*=.326) than sexual minority youth (μ=.10, *SD*=.297).

Insert Table 1 Here

RQ 2. *What are the distinctions between females and males, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?*

Table 2 presents gender differences for variables of interest in the study. Distinctions between female and male student's experiences with victimization are also significant. On average, female students (μ=.21, *SD*=.406) experience higher rates of traditional bullying than male students (μ=.15, *SD*=.358). Females (μ=.18, *SD*=.387) experience higher rates of electronic bullying than males (μ=.09, *SD*=.286). Females (μ=.08, *SD*=.268) experience higher rates of dating violence than males (μ=.06, *SD*=.229). Finally, females (μ=.11, *SD*=.311)

experience higher rates of sexual assault than males (μ=.05, *SD*=.222). The distinctions between female and male student's experiences with poor mental health are also significant, where females (μ=.26, *SD*=.437) experience higher rates of poor mental health than males (μ=.17, *SD*=.375).

In terms of controls, there are significant differences in the gender distribution as well. Slightly more females (μ=.19, *SD*=.390) than males (μ=.18, *SD*=.381) identify as Black, while slightly more males (μ=.04, *SD*=.205) identify as Asian or Pacific Islander than females (μ=.04, *SD*=.184). Differences exist in the perceptions of weight among gender, where females (μ= 2.23, *SD*=.740) are more likely to perceive themselves as overweight than males (μ=2.05, *SD*=.659). Larger differences exist among school misbehavior, where males (μ=.45, *SD*=.600) are significantly more involved in misbehavior than females (μ=.20, *SD*=.427). Finally, while Florida and North Carolina have fairly even distributions of female and male students, Illinois has more female students (μ=.26, *SD*=.440) than male students (μ=.24, *SD*=.426).

Insert Table 2 Here

Victimization

RQ 3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of traditional bullying?*

Traditional bullying. Table 3 represents logistic regression models for sexual orientation, gender and victimization type. The baseline model of Table 2 represents the role of sexual orientation in traditional bullying victimization. Sexual minority students (*O.R.*= 2.042, $p \leq$.001) are significantly more likely to experience traditionally bullying than heterosexual students. In terms of controls, gender, grade, race and ethnicity, weight, misbehavior and

geographic location are related to traditional school bullying. Female students ($O.R.= 1.687$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to experience traditional bullying than male students. As student perceptions of weight increase ($O.R.= 1.112$, $p \leq .05$), so does the likelihood of traditional bullying. As involvement in misbehavior increases ($O.R.= 1.921$, $p \leq .001$), so does the likelihood of traditional bullying. In turn, as student's grade level increases ($O.R.= .817$, $p \leq .001$) the likelihood of traditional bullying decreases. Additionally, students who identify as Black ($O.R.= .450$, $p \leq .001$) and Latino ($O.R.= .672$, $p \leq .05$) are less likely than white students to experience traditional bullying, and students living in the state of Florida ($O.R.= .721$, $p \leq .001$) are less likely to experience traditional bullying than students in Connecticut.

Model 2 of Table 3 represents the interaction of sexual orientation and gender in traditional bullying victimization. The interaction of sexual orientation and gender matters, where sexual minority females ($O.R.= 3.201$, $p \leq .001$), heterosexual females ($O.R.= 1.788$, $p \leq .001$), and sexual minority males ($O.R.= 2.647$, $p \leq .05$) are significantly more likely to experience traditional bullying victimization than heterosexual males. In terms of controls, similar directions and strength of relationships remain in Model 2, with the exception of gender, and race and ethnicity. The interaction of gender and sexual orientation was tested as an independent covariate, thus female is eliminated from the controls. Additionally, students who identify as Asian or Pacific Islander ($O.R.= .773$, $p \leq .05$) are now less likely to experience traditional bullying than white students.

Insert Table 3 Here

RQ 3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of electronic bullying?*

Electronic bullying. Table 4 represents the role of sexual orientation in electronic bullying victimization. Sexual minority students (*O.R.*= 2.005, $p \leq .001$) are significantly more likely to experience electronic bullying than heterosexual students. In terms of controls, gender, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior and geographic location are related to electronic school bullying. Female students (*O.R.*= 2.873, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to experience electronic bullying than male students. As involvement in misbehavior increases (*O.R.*= 2.280, $p \leq .001$), so does the likelihood of electronic bullying. In turn, as student's grade level increases, the likelihood of electronic bullying decreases (*O.R.*= .938, $p \leq .05$). Additionally, students who identify as Black (*O.R.*= .420, $p \leq .001$), Latino (*O.R.*= .588, $p \leq .05$), and Asian or Pacific Islander (*O.R.*= .656, $p \leq .05$) are less likely to experience electronic bullying than white students. Finally, the state of Florida (*O.R.*= .703, $p \leq .001$) and North Carolina (*O.R.*= .734, $p \leq .05$) are less likely to experience electronic bullying than students from Connecticut. With the exception of gender, which was dropped from the analysis, similar directions and strength of relationships remain for the controls in Model 4.

Model 4 of Table 4 represents the interaction of gender and sexual orientation in electronic bullying victimization. The interaction of gender and sexual orientation matters, where sexual minority females (*O.R.*= 5.204, $p \leq .001$), heterosexual females (*O.R.*= 3.282, $p \leq .001$), and sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 3.496, $p \leq .05$) are significantly more likely to experience electronic bullying victimization than heterosexual males.

<div align="center">***Insert Table 4 Here***</div>

RQ 3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of sexual orientation bullying?*

Bullying based on sexual orientation. Table 5 represents the role of sexual orientation in sexual orientation bullying victimization. Sexual minority students (*O.R.*= 8.591, *p*≤.001) are significantly more likely to experience sexual orientation bullying than heterosexual students. In terms of controls, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior and geographic location are related to sexual orientation bullying. As student's grade level increases, the likelihood of sexual orientation bullying decreases (*O.R.*= .837, *p*≤.001). Additionally, students who identify as Black (*O.R.*= .486, *p*≤.001), Latino (*O.R.*= .689, *p*≤.001), and Asian or Pacific Islander (*O.R.*= .585, *p*≤.05) are less likely to experience sexual orientation bullying than white students. As involvement in misbehavior increases (*O.R.*= 1.790, *p*≤.001), so does the likelihood of electronic bullying. Finally, students from the state of Illinois (*O.R.*= .535, *p*≤.001) are less likely to experience sexual orientation bullying than students from Connecticut. With the exception of gender, which was dropped from the analysis, similar directions and strength of relationships remain in the controls in Model 6.

Model 6 of Table 5 represents the interaction of sexual orientation and gender in sexual orientation bullying victimization. While sexual minority females (*O.R.*= 7.710, *p*≤.001) and sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 7.586, *p*≤.05) are significantly more likely to experience sexual orientation bullying victimization, heterosexual females (*O.R.*= .822, *p*≤.05) are significantly less likely to experience sexual orientation bullying victimization than heterosexual males.

Insert Table 5 Here

RQ 3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of dating violence?*

Dating violence. Table 6 represents the role of sexual orientation in dating violence victimization. Sexual minority students (*O.R.*= 2.433, *p*≤.001) are significantly more likely to

experience dating violence than heterosexual students. In terms of controls, gender, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior and geographic location are related to dating violence. Overall, females ($O.R.=1.877$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to experience dating violence than males. As student's grade level increases ($O.R.= 1.125$, $p\leq.001$) so does the likelihood of dating violence. Additionally, students who identify as Black ($O.R.= 1.338$, $p\leq.001$), are significantly more likely to experience dating violence than white students. As involvement in misbehavior increases ($O.R.= 3.060$, $p\leq.001$), so does the likelihood of dating violence. Finally, students in the state of Illinois ($O.R.= 1.557$, $p\leq.001$) are significantly more likely to report dating violence than students from the state of Connecticut. With the exception of gender, which was dropped from the analysis, similar directions and strength of relationships remain in the controls in Model 8.

Model 8 of Table 6 represents the interaction of sexual orientation and gender in dating violence victimization. Sexual minority females ($O.R.= 4.364$, $p\leq.001$), heterosexual females ($O.R.= 2.037$, $p\leq.05$), and sexual minority males ($O.R.= 3.134$ $p\leq.05$) are significantly more likely to experience dating violence than heterosexual males.

Insert Table 6 Here

RQ 3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of sexual assault?*

Sexual assault. Table 7 represents the role of sexual orientation in sexual assault victimizations. Sexual minority students ($O.R.= 1.976$, $p\leq.001$) are significantly more likely to experience sexual assault than heterosexual students. In terms of controls, gender, race and ethnicity, misbehavior and geographic location are related to sexual assault. Overall, females ($O.R.=2.398$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to experience sexual assault than males. Additionally, students who identify as Black ($O.R.= .827$, $p\leq.05$) are significantly less likely to experience

sexual assault than white students. As involvement in misbehavior increases (*O.R.*= 1.671, $p \leq .001$) so does the likelihood of sexual assault. Finally, students from the state of Florida (*O.R.*= .722, $p \leq .001$) are significantly less likely to report sexual assault than students from the state of Connecticut. With the exception of gender and race and ethnicity, which were dropped from the analysis, similar directions and strength of relationships remain in the controls in Model 10.

Model 10 of Table 7 represents the interaction of sexual orientation and gender in sexual assault victimizations. Sexual minority females (*O.R.*= 4.581, $p \leq .001$), heterosexual females (*O.R.*= 2.557, $p \leq .05$), and sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 2.586 $p \leq .05$) are significantly more likely to experience sexual assault than heterosexual males.

<div align="center">***Insert Table 7 Here***</div>

School Avoidance

RQ 4. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to school avoidance for sexual minority youth?*

Table 8 presents logistic regression results for school avoidance, sexual orientation, gender, and victimization. The baseline model establishes the role that sexual orientation and gender have with school avoidance. Sexual minority youth (*O.R.*= 2.238, $p \leq .001$) are significantly more likely to report school avoidance than heterosexual youth, while gender is not statistically significant.

Model 12 explores the roles of sexual orientation, gender and victimization with school avoidance. At this point in the analysis, sexual orientation, as well as gender matter. Sexual minority youth (*O.R.*= 1.471, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report school avoidance than

heterosexual youth. Females are less likely to report school avoidance ($O.R.$= .873, $p \leq$.001) than males. Additionally, victimization is also associated with school avoidance. Students who experience traditional bullying ($O.R.$= 1.759., $p \leq$.001), electronic bullying ($O.R.$= 2.022, $p \leq$.001), sexual orientation bullying ($O.R.$= 1.322, $p \leq$.01), dating violence ($O.R.$= 2.619, $p \leq$.001), and sexual assault ($O.R.$= 1.230, $p \leq$.01) are more likely to report school avoidance than students who do not experience victimization.

Model 13 explores the roles of sexual orientation, gender, victimization and controls. While gender is no longer significant, sexual minority youth are more likely to report school avoidance ($O.R.$= 1.271, $p \leq$.01) than heterosexual youth. Students who experienced traditional bullying ($O.R.$= 1.841, $p \leq$.001), electronic bullying ($O.R.$= 2.078, $p \leq$.001), sexual orientation bullying ($O.R.$= 1.377, $p \leq$.001), dating violence ($O.R.$= 2.112, $p \leq$.001), and sexual assault ($O.R.$= 1.243, $p \leq$.05) are more likely to report school avoidance than students who do not experience victimization. Finally, race and ethnicity, weight, misbehavior, and state location are also significant to the analysis. Students who identify as Black ($O.R.$= 2.029, $p \leq$.001), Latino ($O.R.$= 2.217 $p \leq$.001), Asian or pacific islander ($O.R.$= 1.876, $p \leq$.001), and "other" racial or ethnic identities ($O.R.$= 1.484, $p \leq$.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than white students. Additionally, student perceptions of weight are negatively associated with school avoidance ($O.R.$= .858, $p \leq$.001). Students who are involved in misbehavior ($O.R.$= 1.661, $p \leq$.001), are more likely to report school avoidance than those not involved in misbehavior. Lastly, students in the states of Florida ($O.R.$= 1.666, $p \leq$.001) and Illinois ($O.R.$= 1.650, $p \leq$.001) are also significantly more likely to report school avoidance than students in Connecticut.

Insert Table 8 Here

RQ 4a. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect female*

school avoidance?

Table 9 explores the interactions of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in relation to female school avoidance. The baseline model of Table 9 establishes the role of sexual orientation in school avoidance for females. Overall, sexual orientation matters, where sexual minority females (*O.R.*= 1.643, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than heterosexual females. Model 15 of Table 12 explores the role of sexual orientation and victimization in female school avoidance. When controlling for victimization, sexual orientation is no longer significant, however, victimization matters. Females who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.694, *p*≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 1.833, *p*≤.001), and dating violence (*O.R.*= 2.062, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than females who do not experience victimization.

The controls are added to Model 16 of Table 9, in addition to sexual orientation and victimization. Overall, sexual orientation is no longer statistically significant when controlling for victimization and other controls. Victimization continues to matter, where females who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.838, *p*≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 2.012, *p*≤.001), and dating violence (*O.R.*= 1.724, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than females who do not experience victimization. Additionally, race and ethnicity, misbehavior, and state location are also significant to the analysis. Females who identify as Black (*O.R.*= 2.155, *p*≤.001) and "other" racial and ethnic identities (*O.R.*= 2.480, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than white students. Females who are involved in misbehavior (*O.R.*= 1.520, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than females not involved in misbehavior. Finally, females from the state of Florida (*O.R.*= 1.719, *p*≤.001) and Illinois (*O.R.*= 1.531,

$p\leq.001$) are more likely to report school avoidance than females from Connecticut. The same strength and direction of relationships continues for the controls in Model 17.

Model 17 of Table 9 is considered the full model, in which sexual orientation, victimization, victimization of sexual minority females (in particular), and controls are explored. Overall, sexual orientation is not statistically significant, while victimization continue to matter when controlling for all other variables. At this point in the analysis, both heterosexual females ($O.R.=1.591$, $p\leq.001$), and sexual minority females ($O.R.=1.844$, $p\leq.05$) who experience traditional bullying are more likely to report school avoidance than females who do not experience this type of victimization. Sexual minority females, however, are affected to a greater extent. Additionally, both heterosexual females ($O.R.=2.379$, $p\leq.001$) and sexual minority females ($O.R.=.478$, $p\leq.01$) who experience electronic bullying are more likely to report school avoidance than females who do not experience this type of victimization. Sexual minority females, however, are affected to a lesser extent. Finally, because there is no statistical difference between groups, both heterosexual females and sexual minority females who experience dating violence ($O.R.=1.580$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to report school avoidance than females who do not experience this type of victimization. Sexual orientation bullying, and sexual assault were not statistically significant for females in this model.

Insert Table 9 Here

RQ 4b. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect male school avoidance?*

Table 10 explores the interactions of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in relation to male school avoidance. The baseline model of Table 10 establishes the role of sexual orientation in school avoidance for males. Overall, sexual orientation matters, where sexual

minority males (*O.R.*= 3.558, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than heterosexual males. Model 19 of Table 10 explores the role of sexual orientation and victimization in male school avoidance. When controlling for victimization, sexual orientation remains significant, where sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 2.061, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than heterosexual males. Additionally, males who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.872, *p*≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 2.326, *p*≤.001), sexual orientation bullying (*O.R.*= 1.381, *p*≤.05), dating violence (*O.R.*= 3.558, *p*≤.001), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.513, *p*≤.01) are more likely to report school avoidance than males who do not experience victimization.

The controls are added to Model 20 of Table 10, in addition to sexual orientation and victimization. Overall, sexual orientation remains significant, where sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 1.862, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than heterosexual males. Victimization continues to matter, where males who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.840, *p*≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 2.211, *p*≤.001), sexual orientation bullying (*O.R.*= 1.456, *p*≤.001), dating violence (*O.R.*= 2.814, *p*≤.001), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.424, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than males who do not experience victimization. Additionally, race and ethnicity, weight, misbehavior, and state location are also significant to the analysis. Males who identify as Black (*O.R.*= 1.895, *p*≤.001), Latino (*O.R.*= 1.891, *p*≤.001) and Asian or Pacific Islander (*O.R.*= 2.179, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than white males. Male perceptions of weight are negatively associated with school avoidance (*O.R.*= .840, *p*≤.001). Males who are involved in misbehavior (*O.R.*= 1.786, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report school avoidance than males not involved in misbehavior. Finally, males from the state of Florida (*O.R.*= 1.615, *p*≤.001) and Illinois (*O.R.*= 1.839, *p*≤.001) are more likely to

report school avoidance than males from Connecticut. The same strength and direction of relationships continues for the controls in Model 21.

Model 21 of Table 10 is considered the full model, in which sexual orientation, victimization, victimization of sexual minority males (in particular), and controls are explored. Overall, sexual orientation remains significant, where sexual minority males ($O.R.$= 2.579, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report school avoidance than heterosexual males. At this point in the analysis, there are no statistically significant differences between groups, thus, both heterosexual and sexual minority males who experience traditional bullying ($O.R.$= 1.943, $p \leq .001$), electronic bullying ($O.R.$= 2.534, $p \leq .001$), sexual orientation bullying ($O.R.$= 1.547, $p \leq .01$), and dating violence ($O.R.$= 2.860, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report school avoidance than males who do not experience these types of victimization. Sexual assault was not statistically significant for males in this model.

Insert Table 10 Here

Poor Mental Health

RQ 5. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to poor mental health for sexual minority youth?*

Table 11 presents logistic regression results for poor mental health, sexual orientation, gender, and victimization. The baseline model establishes the role that sexual orientation and gender have with poor mental health. Both, sexual orientation and gender matter. Sexual minority youth ($O.R.$= 1.778, $p \leq .001$) are significantly more likely to report poor mental health than heterosexual youth. Females ($O.R.$= 1.626, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report poor mental health than males.

Model 23 explores the roles of sexual orientation, gender and victimization with poor mental health. At this point in the analysis, sexual orientation, as well as gender matter. Sexual minority youth ($O.R.= 1.473$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to report poor mental health than heterosexual youth. Females ($O.R.= 1.550$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to report poor mental health than males. Additionally, victimization is also associated with school avoidance. Students who experience traditional bullying ($O.R.= 1.253.$, $p\leq.001$), electronic bullying ($O.R.= 1.474$, $p\leq.001$), sexual orientation bullying ($O.R.= 1.192$, $p\leq.05$), dating violence ($O.R.= 1.287$, $p\leq.01$), and sexual assault ($O.R.= 1.378$, $p\leq.01$) are more likely to report poor mental health than students who do not experience victimization.

Model 24 explores the roles of sexual orientation, gender, victimization and controls. Overall, sexual orientation and gender matter. Sexual minority youth ($O.R.= 1.384$, $p\leq.01$) are more likely to report poor mental health than heterosexual youth. Females ($O.R.= 1.629$, $p\leq.01$) are more likely to report poor mental health than males. Students who experience traditional bullying ($O.R.= 1.271$, $p\leq.001$), electronic bullying ($O.R.= 1.412$, $p\leq.001$), sexual orientation bullying ($O.R.= 1.310$, $p\leq.001$), dating violence ($O.R.= 1.188$, $p\leq.05$), and sexual assault ($O.R.= 1.287$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to report poor mental health than students who do not experience victimization. Finally, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior, and state location are also significant to the analysis. Students' grade level ($O.R.= 1.048$, $p\leq.05$) is positively associated with poor mental health. Additionally, students who identify as Black ($O.R.= 1.529$, $p\leq.001$), Latino ($O.R.= 1.588$ $p\leq.001$), and "other" racial and ethnic identities ($O.R.= 1.313$, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to report poor mental health than white students. Students who are involved in misbehavior ($O.R.= 1.153$, $p\leq.001$), are more likely to report poor mental health than those not

involved in misbehavior. Lastly, students in the state of Florida (*O.R.*= .868, *p*≤.05) are less likely to report poor mental health than students in Connecticut.

<div align="center">***Insert Table 11 Here****</div>

RQ 5a. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect female poor mental health?*

Table 12 explores the interactions of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in relation to female poor mental health. The baseline model of Table 12 establishes the role of sexual orientation in poor mental health for females. Overall, sexual orientation matters, where sexual minority females (*O.R.*= 1.506, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report poor mental health than heterosexual females.

Model 26 of Table 12 explores the role of sexual orientation and victimization in female poor mental health. At this point in the analysis, both sexual orientation and victimization matter. Females who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.193, *p*≤.05), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 1.289, *p*≤.01), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.230, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report poor mental health than females who do not experience victimization.

The controls are added to Model 27 of Table 12, in addition to sexual orientation and victimization. Sexual minority females (*O.R.*= 1.265, *p*≤.001) are more likely to repot poor mental health than heterosexual females. Females who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.233, *p*≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 1.339, *p*≤.001), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.241, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report poor mental health than females who do not experience victimization. Additionally, race and ethnicity and misbehavior are also significant to the analysis. Females who identify as Black (*O.R.*= 1.535, *p*≤.001), Latina (*O.R.*= 1.538, *p*≤.001), and "other" racial and ethnic identities (*O.R.*= 1.394, *p*≤.01) are more likely to report poor

mental health than white females. Finally, females who are involved in misbehavior ($O.R.=$ 1.169, $p\leq.05$) are more likely to report poor mental health than females not involved in misbehavior. The same strength and direction of relationships continues for the controls in Model 28.

Model 28 of Table 12 is considered the full model, in which sexual orientation, victimization, victimization of sexual minority females (in particular), and controls are explored. Overall, sexual orientation and victimization continue to matter when controlling for all other variables. Sexual minority females ($O.R.=$ 1.722, $p\leq.001$) are more likely to report poor mental health than heterosexual females. At this point in the analysis, there is not statically signfiant difference between groups, thus, sexual minority and heterosexual females ($O.R.=$ 1.225, $p\leq.001$) who experience traditional bullying are more likely to report poor mental health than females who do not experience this type of victimization. Additionally, both heterosexual females ($O.R.=$ 1.568, $p\leq.001$) and sexual minority females ($O.R.=$ .453, $p\leq.001$) who experience electronic bullying are more likely to report school avoidance than females who do not experience this type of victimization. Sexual minority females, however, are affected to a lesser extent. Sexual minority females ($O.R.=$ .623, $p\leq.001$) who experience dating violence ($O.R.=$ .623, $p\leq.001$) are less likely to report poor mental health than females who do not experience this type of violence. Finally, because there is no statistical difference between groups, both sexual minority and heterosexual females who experience sexual assault ($O.R.=$ 1.285, $p\leq.05$) are more likely to report poor mental health than females who do not experience this type of victimization. Sexual orientation bullying is not statistically significant for females in this model.

Insert Table 12 Here

RQ 5b. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect male*

poor mental health?

Table 13 explores the interactions of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in

relation to male poor mental health. The baseline model of Table 13 establishes the role of sexual

orientation in poor mental health for males. Overall, sexual orientation matters, where sexual

minority males (*O.R.*= 2.498, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report poor mental health than

heterosexual males. Model 30 of Table 13 explores the role of sexual orientation and

victimization in male poor mental health. At this point in the analysis, both sexual orientation

and victimization matter. Males who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.314, *p*≤.01),

electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 1.598, *p*≤.001), sexual orientation bullying   (*O.R.*= 1.543, *p*≤.001),

dating violence (*O.R.*= 1.500, *p*≤.05), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.533, *p*≤.05) are more likely to

report poor mental health than males who do not experience victimization.

The controls are added to Model 31 of Table 32, in addition to sexual orientation and

victimization. Sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 1.671, *p*≤.001) are more likely to repot poor mental

health than heterosexual males. Males who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.362,

p≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 1.538, *p*≤.001), sexual orientation bullying (O.R.= 1.663,

p≤.001), dating violence (*O.R.*= 1.475, *p*≤.01), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.449, *p*≤.01) are more

likely to report poor mental health than males who do not experience victimization. Additionally,

grade, race and ethnicity and misbehavior are also significant to the analysis. Male students'

grade level (*O.R.*= 1.080, *p*≤.05) is positively associated with poor mental health. Additionally,

males who identify as Black (O.R.= 1.516, *p*≤.001) and Latino (*O.R.*= 1.661, *p*≤.001) are more

likely to report poor mental health than white males. Finally, males who are involved in

misbehavior (*O.R.*= 1.149, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report poor mental health than males not

involved in misbehavior. The same strength and direction of relationships continues for the controls in Model 32.

Model 32 of Table 13 is considered the full model, in which sexual orientation, victimization, victimization of sexual minority males (in particular), and controls are explored. Overall, sexual orientation and victimization continue to matter when controlling for all other variables. Sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 2.297, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report poor mental health than heterosexual males. At this point in the analysis, there is no statistically significant difference between groups, thus, sexual minority and heterosexual males who experience traditional bullying (*O.R.*= 1.463, *p*≤.001), electronic bullying (*O.R.*= 1.719, *p*≤.001), sexual orientation bullying (*O.R.*= 1.693, *p*≤.001), dating violence (*O.R.*= 1.690, *p*≤.001), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.364, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report poor mental health than males who do not experience these types of victimization.

Insert Table 13 Here

Substance Use

Table 14 presents logistic regression results for substance use, sexual orientation, gender, and victimization. The baseline model establishes the role that sexual orientation and gender have with substance use. Sexual minority youth (*O.R.*= 1.631, *p*≤.001) are significantly more likely to report substance use than heterosexual youth. Females (*O.R.*= .917, *p*≤.05) are significantly less likely to report substance use than males.

Model 34 explores the role of sexual orientation, gender and victimization with substance use. Sexual minority youth (*O.R.*= 1.469, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report substance use than heterosexual youth, while females (*O.R.*= .862, *p*≤.001) are significantly less likely to report substance use than males. Additionally, victimization is also associated with substance use.

Students who experience electronic bullying ($O.R.= 1.552$, $p \leq .001$), dating violence ($O.R.= 1.738$, $p \leq .001$), and sexual assault ($O.R.= 1.332$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than students who do not experience these types of victimization.

Model 35 explores the roles of sexual orientation, gender, victimization and controls. At this point in the analysis, sexual orientation matters, where sexual minority youth ($O.R.= 1.321$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use, while gender is no longer statistically significant when controlling for victimization and other controls. Students who experience electronic bullying ($O.R.= 1.463$, $p \leq .001$), dating violence ($O.R.= 1.373$, $p \leq .001$), and sexual assault ($O.R.= 1.269$, $p \leq .05$) are more likely to report substance use than students who do not experience these types of victimization. Finally, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior, and state location are also significant to the analysis. Students' grade level is positively associated with substance use ($O.R.= 1.335$, $p \leq .001$). While students who identify as Black ($O.R.= 1.129$, $p \leq .05$), and Latino ($O.R.= 1.189$ $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than white students, students who identify as Asian or Pacific Islander ($O.R.= .632$ $p \leq .001$) are less likely to report substance use than white students. Students who are involved in misbehavior ($O.R.= 1.868$, $p \leq .001$), are more likely to report substance use than students not involved in misbehavior. Lastly, students in the state of Florida ($O.R.= .868$, $p \leq .05$) are less likely to report substance use, while students in the state of Illinois ($O.R.= 1.237$ $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than students in Connecticut.

Insert Table 14 Here

RQ 6a. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect female substance use?*

Table 15 explores the interactions of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in relation to female substance use. The baseline model of Table 15 establishes the role of sexual orientation in substance use for females. Overall, sexual orientation matters, where sexual minority females ($O.R.= 1.823$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than heterosexual females.

Model 37 of Table 15 explores the role of sexual orientation and victimization in female substance use. At this point in the analysis, both sexual orientation and victimization matter. Sexual minority females ($O.R.= 1.659$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than heterosexual females. Additionally, females who experience electronic bullying ($O.R.= 1.734$, $p \leq .01$), dating violence ($O.R.= 1.817$, $p \leq .01$), and sexual assault ($O.R.= 1.306$, $p \leq .05$) are more likely to report substance use than females who do not experience victimization.

The controls are added to Model 38 of Table 15, in addition to sexual orientation and victimization. Sexual minority females ($O.R.= 1.472$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to repot substance use than heterosexual females. Females who experience electronic bullying ($O.R.= 1.709$, $p \leq .001$), dating violence ($O.R.= 1.471$, $p \leq .01$), and sexual assault ($O.R.= 1.248$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than females who do not experience victimization. Additionally, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior, and state location are also significant to the analysis. Female grade level ($O.R.= 1.326$, $p \leq .01$) is positively associated with substance use. Females who identify as Latina ($O.R.= 1.241$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than white females, while females who identify as Asian or Pacifica Islander ($O.R.= .495$, $p \leq .001$) are less likely to report substance use than white females. Finally, females who are involved in misbehavior ($O.R.= 1.779$, $p \leq .001$) are more likely to report substance use than females not involved in misbehavior. Females from the state of Illinois ($O.R.= 1.323$, $p \leq .01$) are

more likely to report substance use than females from other states. The same strength and direction of relationships continues for the controls in Model 39.

Model 39 of Table 15 is considered the full model, in which sexual orientation, victimization, victimization of sexual minority females (in particular), and controls are explored. Overall, sexual orientation and victimization continue to matter when controlling for all other variables. Sexual minority females ($O.R.$= 1.613, $p \leq$.001) are more likely to report substance use than heterosexual females. At this point in the analysis, there is no significant differences between groups, thus, sexual minority and heterosexual females who experience electronic bullying ($O.R.$= 1.823, $p \leq$.001), dating violence ($O.R.$= 1.635, $p \leq$.001), and sexual assault ($O.R.$= 1.263, $p \leq$.05) are more likely to report substance use than females who do not experience these type of victimization. Traditional bullying and sexual orientation bullying are not statistically significant for females in this model.

<div align="center">***Insert Table 15 Here***</div>

RQ 6b. *How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect male substance use?*

Table 16 explores the interactions of sexual orientation, gender and victimization in relation to male substance use. The baseline model of Table 16 establishes the role of sexual orientation in substance use for males. Overall, sexual orientation matters, where sexual minority males ($O.R.$= 1.329, $p \leq$.001) are more likely to report substance use than heterosexual males.

Model 41 of Table 16 explores the role of sexual orientation and victimization in male substance use. At this point in the analysis, sexual orientation is no longer significant, but victimization matters. Males who experience electronic bullying ($O.R.$= 1.303, $p \leq$.01), dating

violence (*O.R.*= 1.648, *p*≤.001), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.385, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report substance use than males who do not experience victimization.

The controls are added to Model 42 of Table 16, in addition to sexual orientation and victimization. At this point in the analysis, sexual orientation is not statistically significant, while males who experience sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.308, *p*≤.01) are more likely to report substance use than males who do not experience this type of victimization. Additionally, grade, race and ethnicity, misbehavior and state location are also significant to the analysis. Male students' grade level (*O.R.*= 1.350, *p*≤.001) is positively associated with substance use. Additionally, males who identify as Latino (*O.R.*= 1.161, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report substance use than white males. Males who are involved in misbehavior (*O.R.*= 1.930, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report substance use than males not involved in misbehavior. Finally, males from the state of Florida (*O.R.*= .767, *p*≤.05) are less likely to report substance use than males from the state of Connecticut. The same strength and direction of relationships continues for the controls in Model 43.

Model 43 of Table 16 is considered the full model, in which sexual orientation, victimization, victimization of sexual minority males (in particular), and controls are explored. At this point in the analysis, sexual orientation is significant, where sexual minority males (*O.R.*= 1.303, *p*≤.001) are more likely to report substance use than heterosexual males. Victimization also matters, but because there is no significant difference between groups, sexual minority and heterosexual males who experience dating violence (*O.R.*= 1.331, *p*≤.05), and sexual assault (*O.R.*= 1.342, *p*≤.05) are more likely to report substance use than males who do not experience these types of victimization. Traditional bullying, electronic bullying, and sexual orientation bullying are not statistically significant for males in this model.

Insert Table 16 Here

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study examined the intersection of sexual orientation and gender in disparities among bullying, homophobic bullying, dating violence and sexual assault victimization, as well their affects on school avoidance, poor mental health, and substance use outcomes. This study confirms that disparities do, in fact, exist among sexual minority youth. The following section discusses this in 3 primary ways. First, the answers to the dissertation research questions and their relation to the literature are discussed. Second, the theoretical implications of the study and results are discussed. Third, policy implications of the studie's findings are discussed.

RQ 1. *What are the distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?*

Distinctions exist between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, in terms of victimization, outcomes, and controls. First, sexual minority youth experience every type of victimization more than heterosexual youth. For example, 32% of sexual minority youth verses 16% of heterosexual youth experience traditional bullying victimization, 26% of sexual minority youth verses 12% of heterosexual youth experience electronic bullying victimization, 33% of sexual minority youth verses 6% of heterosexual youth experience bullying victimization based on actual or perceived sexual orientation, 16% of sexual minority youth verses 6% of heterosexual youth experience dating violence victimization, and 16% of sexual minority youth verses 7% of heterosexual youth experience sexual assault victimization.

These findings directly align with previous results that LGBT youth are over twice as likely to experience bullying (Kosciw, Diaz and Greytak, 2007; Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, & Boesen, 2014; Massachusetts Department of Education, 2004; McGuire, Dixon & Russell, 2009 as cited in Cianciotto & Cahill, 2012). These findings also reveal similar results to those

outlining that sexual minority youth experience significantly higher rates of dating violence (Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin & Kupper, 2004; Kann et al., 2011; Massachusetts Department of Education, 2006), and sexual assault (Freedner, Freed, Yang and Austin, 2002; Kann et al.) than heterosexual youth.

Results confirm that sexual minority youth are at increased risk of certain consequences, (Russell, Everett, Rosario & Birkett, 2014). For example, 18% of sexual minority youth verses 9% of heterosexual youth reported school avoidance, 32% of sexual minority youth verses 20% of heterosexual youth reported feeling sad or hopeless, or seriously considered suicide, and 51% of sexual minority youth verses 39% heterosexual youth reported substance use. These findings reflect similar prevalence rates as those that outline that sexual minority youth have significantly higher rates of school avoidance, depression (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer & Boesen, 2014), suicidality (Garofalo, Wolf, Wissow, Woods & Goodman, 1999), and substance use (Marshal, Friedman, Stall & Thompson, 2009; Rivers & Noret, 2008).

In terms of controls, more females (67%) than males (49%) identified as a sexual minority, and more sexual minority youth (12%) than heterosexual youth (7%) identified as "other" racial and ethnic identities. Additionally, studies have found that weight (Farhat, Iannotti, & Simons-Morton, 2010; Wang, Iannotti & Luk, 2010), and misbehavior (Peguero, 2008) are associated with victimization, but the current results extend such findings by showing that sexual minorities, in particular, have higher poor perceptions of weight and misbehavior. In order to flush out the findings that geographic location is associated with victimization (Guerra & Williams, 2010), results also show that states are significantly different in their distributions of sexual minority and heterosexual youth. Illinois has significantly more sexual minority youth (29%) than heterosexual youth (24%), while Florida has more heterosexual youth (46%) than

sexual minority youth (43%), and North Carolina also has more heterosexual youth (12%) than sexual minority youth (10%).

RQ 2. *What are the distinctions between females and males, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?*

Distinctions exist between females and males, in terms of victimization, outcomes and controls. While both, female and male students experience bullying based on actual or perceived sexual orientation at equal rates (9%), females experience every other type of victimization more than males. For example, 21% of females verses 15% of males experienced traditional bullying victimization, 18% of females verses 9% of males experienced electronic bullying victimization, 8% of females verses 6% of males experienced dating violence victimization, and 11% of females verses 5% of males experienced sexual assault victimization.

In terms of bullying victimization, these results challenge prior literature, which states that boys are more likely than girls to be perpetrators of bullying activities (Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, Ruan, Simons-Morton, & Scheidt, 2001; Scheithauer, Hayer, Petermann, & Jugert, 2006; Viljoen, O'Neill, & Sidhu, 2005), this study, especially physically and verbally direct forms of bullying. These findings, however, lend additional support to the literature that suggests that females may be higher perpetrators of cyberbullying, because of their propensity for relational forms of violence (Hinduja & Patchin, 2008; Kowalski & Limber, 2007).

Overall, the average prevalence rates for youth dating violence vary anywhere from 10-67% (Eaton, Kann, Kinchen, Ross, Hawkins, Harris, et al., 2006; Eaton, Davis, and Barrios, 2007; Howard, Wang and Yan, 2007; Sears, Byers and Price, 2006; West and Rose, 2000). While this study confirms relatively lower rates of dating violence between the 4 states in the sample, females still experience slightly higher rates than males. While some studies find

prevalence rates for dating violence to be relatively equal (Henton, Cate, Koval, Lloyd & Christopher, 1983; O'keefe, Brockopp & Chew, 1986) this study confirms findings similar to those outlined by the most recent YRBS survey, where dating violence was, in fact, higher among females than males (Basile, Smith, Breiding, Black & Mehendra, 2014).

. In terms of sexual assault, these findings confirm prior results denoting that women experience sexual assault at significantly higher rates than men (Basile, et. al).

Overall, 26% of females, verses 17% of males reported feeling sad or hopeless, or seriously considered suicide. While these results confirm prior research that females are more likely to experience depressive symptomology (Angst, Gamma, Gastpar, Lépine, Mendlewicz & Tylee, 2002), and suicidality (Lewinsohn, Rohde, Seeley & Baldwin, 2001) than males, there are many mitigating factors that can affect this. Thus, this is a significant point of exploration in consecutive models.

In terms of controls, more females (19%) than males (18%) identified as Black, while the percentages are the same, slightly more males (270 students) than females (228 students) identified as Asian or Pacific Islander. Additionally, results show that females (2.23) have higher poor perceptions of weight than males (2.05). This confirms findings similar to those outlined by Taylor (2011) where girl's body fat was more closely monitored, and scrutinized more often than boys. Overall, males (45%) were significantly more likely than females (20%) to be involved in misbehavior. These results confirm those outlined by Peguero, Popp, Latimore, Shekarkhar, and Koo (2011), where gender is a significant factor in involvement in misbehavior. Finally, in order to flush out the findings that geographic location is associated with victimization (Guerra & Williams, 2010), results also show that states are significantly different in their distributions of females and males. Illinois has more females (26%) than males (24%).

RQ 3. *What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and forced sexual assault victimizations?*

Overall, the intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters significantly in terms of victimization. First, when controlling for gender, grade, race and ethnicity, weight, misbehavior and state location, students who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or questioning (LGBQ) are 2 times more likely to experience traditional bullying victimization, electronic bullying victimization, and sexual assault victimization; they are 8.6 times more likely to experience sexual orientation bullying victimization, and 2.4 times more likely to experience dating violence victimzation. While these results reflect similarities to those studies outlined above claiming that sexual minority youth are more likely to be involved in various types of bullying victimization (Kosciw, Diaz and Greytak, 2007; Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, & Boesen, 2014; Massachusetts Department of Education, 2004; McGuire, Dixon & Russell, 2009 as cited in Cianciotto & Cahill, 2012), dating violence (Kann et al., 2011; Massachusetts Department of Education, 2006), and sexual assault (Freedner, Freed, Yang and Austin, 2002; Kann et al.), they provide a more detailed picture in terms of the likelihood of victimization as a result of sexual orientation.

Overall, LGBQ females are most likely to experience each type of victimization, followed by LGBQ males, then heterosexual females. Such results contribute more to the literature, given that studies on bullying victimization typically find disparities for gender and sexual orientation separately, yet few explore these differences intersectionally. Of the few studies, however, that have found interactions between sexual orientation and gender among dating violence, these results confirm those outlined by Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin and Kupper (2004), which found that females in same-sex relationships were more likely to report

dating violence than males in same-sex relationships. In terms of sexual assault, some studies found that bisexual women are most at risk for sexual assault (Freedner, Freed, Yang & Austin, 2002; Walters, Chen & Breiding, 2013), thus it is no surprise that LGBQ females were also most at risk for this sexual assault as well.

In terms of controls, gender is significant in every type of victimization, aside from sexual orientation bullying victimization. For example, females are 1.7 times more likely to experience traditional bullying victimization, 2.8 times more likely to experience electronic bullying victimization, 1.8 times more likely to experience dating violence, and 2.4 times more likely to experience sexual assault than males. Again, these results confirm, and provide a more robust picture, in terms of prior literature that denotes gender differences in the type and prevalence of bullying victimization (Hinduja & Patchin, 2008; Kowalski & Limber, 2007), dating violence and sexual assault (Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin & Kupper, 2004; Basile, Smith, Breiding, Black & Mehendra, 2014). Grade is actually negatively associated with bullying victimization, while positively associated with dating violence. For example, as students get older, they are slightly (6-18%) less likely to experience traditionally, electronic and sexual orientation bullying victimization. In turn, as student get older, they are actually slightly (12.5%) more likely to experience dating violence. This coincides with the literature that grade is associated with decreased levels of bullying victimization (Espelage & Horne, 2008), and contributes to the literature in terms of age in relation to dating violence. In terms of race and ethnicity, these results show that, again, with the exception of dating violence, race and ethnicity actually serve as a protective factor against victimization. Such results add to those outlined by Hong and Espelage (2012). In regards to dating violence, students who identify as Black are 1.3 times more likely to experience dating violence. Additionally, this study confirms that poor

perceptions of weight are associated with bullying victimization (Farhat, Iannotti, & Simons-Morton, 2010; Wang, Iannotti & Luk, 2010), because students with poor perceptions of weight are 1.11 times more likely to experience traditional bullying victimization. This study also confirms similar results to those that find that involvement in misbehavior is positively associated with increased victimization (Peguero, 2008; Peguero, Popp, Latimore, Shekarkhar & Koo, 2011). Overall students involved in misbehavior are 1.7-3.1 times more likely to be involved in traditional, electronic, sexual orientation, dating violence and sexual assault victimization. Finally, results show that geographic location is associated with victimization (Guerra & Williams, 2010). It is, however, associated with decreased likelihood of all types of victimization, except for dating violence, where students from the state of Illinois were actually 1.6 times more likely to report dating violence.

RQ 4. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to school avoidance for sexual minority youth?*

Overall, experiences of victimization are linked to school avoidance for sexual minority youth. First, independent of victimization and controls, LGBQ youth are 2.2 times more likely to report school avoidance, and although it is moderated throughout the analyses, it remains significant. This confirms prior research that school avoidance and truancy are issues for sexual minority youth in particular (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014). In turn, gender is only significant once victimization is added to the analysis, in which case, females are less likely to report school avoidance once victimization is accounted for. Overall, students who experience traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report school avoidance. These results are

similar to those outlining that victimization plays a significant role in school avoidance (Aragon, Poteat, Espelage, and Koenig, 2014; Birkett, Espelage and Koenig, 2009; Kosciw, et. al; Rivers, 2000).

How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect school avoidance?

The intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters in terms of victimization and school avoidance, specifically for females. When tested independent of controls, LGBQ females are 1.6 times more likely to report school avoidance, however, this drops out once victimization and controls are added to the analysis. Thus, sexual orientation, alone, does not affect school avoidance in females. Rather, females who experience traditional bullying, electronic bullying, and dating violence are significantly more likely to report school avoidance. More specifically, in terms of traditional bullying, both LGBQ females and heterosexual females who experience it are more likely to report school avoidance, but LGBQ females are affected by it to a greater extent. These results directly align with those by Birkett, Russell, and Corliss (2014), which state that, among girls, school victimization fully mediated the elevated truancy levels of lesbians, bisexual, and girls with unsure sexual orientation. In turn, while both LGBQ females and heterosexual females who experience electronic bullying are more likely to report school avoidance, heterosexual females are affected by it to a greater extent. Finally, dating violence affects all females, regardless of sexual orientation, the same by increasing the likelihood of school avoidance for all those experiencing it. These findings confirm and extend previous literature that victimization is directly associated with school avoidance (Aragon, Poteat, Espelage, and Koenig, 2014; Birkett, Espelage and Koenig, 2009; Rivers, 2000).

The intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters in terms of victimization and school avoidance, specifically for males as well. When tested independent of controls, LGBQ males are 3.6 times more likely to report school avoidance. Although sexual orientation is moderated by victimization and controls, it remains significant throughout the analysis. Thus, sexual orientation, in and of itself, affects school avoidance in males. This confirms previous literature that LGBTQ youth are more likely to avoid school (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014), however, expands them by considering the intersection of being male. Overall, males who experience traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report school avoidance. More specifically, with the exception of sexual assault, these forms of victimization affect all males, regardless of sexual orientation. Thus, while sexual orientation, gender, and victimization matter independently in terms of school avoidance, LGBQ victimizations, in particular, do not contribute to higher levels of school avoidance in males specifically.

RQ 5. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to poor mental health for sexual minority youth?*

Overall, experiences of victimization are linked to depression and suicidality for sexual minority youth. First, independent of victimization and controls, LGBQ youth are 1.8 times more likely to report depression and suicidality, and although it is moderated by victimization and controls throughout the analyses, it remains significant. This confirms prior research that poor mental health is an issue for sexual minority youth in particular (Garofalo, Wolf, Wissow, Woods and Goodman, 1999). Additionally, females are 1.6 times more likely to report depression and suicidality, and although it is moderated by victimization and controls throughout

the analyses, it also remains significant. This also confirms prior research that denotes that females are more likely to report depressive symptomology and suicidality (Angst, Gamma, Gastpar, Lépine, Mendlewicz & Tylee, 2002; Lewinsohn, Rohde, Seeley & Baldwin, 2001). In terms of victimization, students who experience traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report depression and suicidality. These results align with previous literature that suggests that victimization is significantly associated with psychological distress (Mustanski, B., Van Wagenen, A., Birkett, M., Eyster, S., & Corliss, 2014), as well as suicidal ideation and attempts (Hershberger, S. L., Pilkington, N. W., & D'Augelli, 1997).

How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect poor mental health?

The intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters in terms of victimization and depression and suicidality, specifically for females. When tested independent of controls, LGBQ females are 1.5 times more likely to report depression and suicidality. Although sexual orientation is moderated by victimization and controls, it remains significant throughout the analysis. Thus, sexual orientation, in and of itself, affects depression and suicidlaity in females. These results contribute to those that outline that LGBTQ students (Garofalo, Wolf, Wissow, Woods and Goodman, 1999; Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014) are more likely to report poor mental health. Overall, females who experience traditional bullying, electronic bullying, and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report depression and suicidality. More specifically, when testing for the interaction of sexual orientation and victimization, traditional bullying and sexual assault victimizations affect all females, regardless of sexual orientation, the same. In terms of electronic bullying, however, both LGBQ females

and heterosexual females are more likely to report depression and suicidality, heterosexual females, however, are affected by it to a greater extent. Additionally, LGBQ females who experience dating violence are actually less likely to report depression and suicidality than heterosexual females. These results provide a more robust picture in terms of victimization and poor mental health for LGBQ females in particular.

The intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters in terms of victimization and depression and suicidality, specifically for males. When tested independent of controls, LGBQ males are 2.5 times more likely to report depression and suicidality. Although sexual orientation is moderated by victimization and controls, it remains significant throughout the analysis. Thus, sexual orientation, in and of itself, affects depression and suicidlaity in males. These results also confirm that LGBTQ youth are more likely to experience depression and suicidality (Garofalo, Wolf, Wissow, Woods and Goodman, 1999; Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, and Boesen, 2014). However, because the odds ratios of depression and suicidality are actually higher for LGBQ males than for females, the scenario that females are more likely than males to experience depression and suicidality (Angst, Gamma, Gastpar, Lépine, Mendlewicz & Tylee, 2002; Lewinsohn, Rohde, Seeley & Baldwin, 2001) is not the case once sexual orientation is considered. Overall, males who experience traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report depression and suicidality. These results remain throughout the analysis, even when testing for the interaction of sexual orientation and victimization specifically. Thus, while sexual orientation, gender, and victimization matter independently in terms of depression and suicidality, LGBQ victimizations, in particular, do not contribute to higher levels of depression and suicidality in males.

RQ 6. *How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to substance use for sexual minority youth?*

Overall, experiences of victimization are linked to substance use for sexual minority youth. First, independent of victimization and controls, LGBQ youth are 1.6 times more likely to report substance use, and although it is moderated by victimization and controls throughout the analyses, it remains significant. This confirms prior research that substance use is an issue for sexual minority youth in particular (Marshal, Friedman, Stall & Thompson, 2009; Rivers and Noret, 2008). Additionally, females are slightly (about 8%) less likely to report substance use, and this only remains significant when accounting for victimization. In terms of victimization, students who experience electronic bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report substance use. These results align with previous literature that suggests that victimization is significantly associated with substance use in sexual minority youth (Goldbach, Tanner-Smith, Bagwell & Dunlap, 2014).

How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect substance use?

The intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters in terms of victimization and substance use, specifically for females. When tested independent of controls, LGBQ females are 1.8 times more likely to report substance use. Although sexual orientation is moderated by victimization and controls, it remains significant throughout the analysis. Thus, sexual orientation, in and of itself, affects substance use in females. These results confirm and extend those outlined by Marshal, Friedman, Stall and Thompson (2009) and Rivers and Noret (2008), which find higher substance use in LGBT youth. Overall, females who experience electronic

bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report substance use. Again, this confirms that victimization is associated with increased substance use in LGBTQ youth (Aragon, Poteat, Espelage & Koenig, 2014; Birkett, Espelage & Koenig, 2009; Rivers, 2000). More specifically, when testing for the interaction of sexual orientation and victimization, these types of victimization affect all females, regardless of sexual orientation, the same. Thus, while sexual orientation, gender, and victimization matter independently in terms of substance use, LGBQ victimizations, in particular, do not contribute to higher levels of substance use in females.

The intersection of sexual orientation and gender matters in terms of victimization and substance use, specifically for males. When tested independent of controls, LGBQ males are 1.3 times more likely to report substance use. Although sexual orientation is moderated by victimization and controls, it is important to the analysis. Thus, sexual orientation, in and of itself, affects substance use in males. Overall, males who experience dating violence and sexual assault victimization are significantly more likely to report substance use. By considering the intersection of being male in addition to sexual orientation, these results confirm and extend previous literature stating that dating violence (Silverman, Raj, Mucci & Hathaway, 2001) and sexual assault (Gruber and Fineran, 2008) contribute to increased substance use. When testing for the interaction of sexual orientation and victimization specifically, all males who experience dating violence and sexual assault are more likely to report substance use. Thus, while sexual orientation, gender, and victimization matter independently in terms of substance use, LGBQ victimizations, in particular, do not contribute to higher levels of substance use in males.

Theoretical Application

Queer criminology is a critical framework that centers the lives of LGBTQ people, and is both theoretical and practical in its purpose, as it strives to challenge the ways that LGBTQ individuals are treated. By centering the lives of LGBTQ youth, this study pushes queer criminological agendas forward much like those that have been published in major queer criminological works. For example, two foundational queer criminology pieces: Peterson and Panfil's (2014) *Handbook of LGBT Communities, Crime, and Justice,* as well as Critical Criminology's 2014 special issue on *Queer/ing Criminology*, include studies about bullying of LGBT youth (Warbelow & Cobb, 2014), dating violence and mental health among sexual minority youth (Gillum & DiFulvio, 2014), homelessness, sex work, mental health and substance use in sexual minority young people (Frederick, 2014), how riskiness informs LGBT young people (Dwyer, 2014), unwanted sexual attention among GLBTIQ young adults (Fileborn, 2014), and understanding "deviant" and transgressive behavior in gay men (Frederick, 2014).

As outlined in Chapter 2, queer theory engages with criminology in three primary ways: 1) as an identity category used to explore criminological and criminal justice issues within queer communities; 2) using queer theory to critique institutions, practices and the lives of gender and sexually diverse people; and 3) calls for greater connections between queer theory and criminology, in order to create a truly "queer criminology" (Ball, 2014). Overall, this study engages primarily with parts 1 and 2. First, by centering victimization within the intersections of sexual orientation and gender and second, by considering the underlying, institutionalized factors that can affect such victimization.

Part 1. Overall, victimization affects school avoidance, poor mental health, and substance use, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and questioning (LGBQ) youth are significantly more

at risk.

Insert Figure 1 here

When considering the likelihood of school avoidance, poor mental health, and substance use, as a result of victimization, sexual orientation is moderated by victimization, but continues to matter in all three outcomes (see Tables 8, 11, and 14). In fact, the only time that sexual orientation is fully moderated by victimization, (thus, stating that victimization, regardless of sexual orientation, is what predicts the likelihood of the outcome) is in female school avoidance.

Furthermore, while LGBQ youth are more at risk for all types of victimization, as well as school avoidance, poor mental health and substance use outcomes, these experiences are compounded when considering the intersection of sexual orientation and gender. First, while LGBQ females, LGBQ males, and heterosexual females are more likely to experience each type of victimization than heterosexual males, LGBQ females are most likely to experience each type of victimization.

Insert Figure 2 here

Overall, sexual orientation and victimization matter in terms of all three outcomes, albeit separately. The only time that the specific interaction of sexual orientation and victimization matters is for female school avoidance and poor mental health. In these cases, LGBQ females were affected by electronic bullying victimization, although to a lesser extent than their female heterosexual counterparts (see Tables 9 and 12). Moreover, the only time that the interaction of sexual orientation and victimization was worse for sexual minority youth, specifically, is traditional bullying victimization in LGBQ female school avoidance.

Part 2. Abuse is not about violence it's about control," said Beth Leventhal, the executive director of The Network la Red, a survivor-organized group against partner abuse. If

then, LGBTQ youth experience dramatic disparities in levels of abuse, exploring why these individuals are being controlled warrants our attention.

Bullying and homophobic bullying. While it's hard to say which comes first, heteronormativity is the belief that heterosexuality is the only normal (or default) expression of sexuality, while heterosexism is, "an ideological system that denies, denigrates, and stigmatizes any non-heterosexual form of behavior, identity, relationship, or community," (Herek, 1990, p. 316). Herek goes on to outline that heterosexism is the underlying reason for anti-gay violence, and that it is so discrete and embedded within society, that it is often unnoticeable. Additionally, homophobia, or the fear of homosexuality, materializes from the foundations of heterosexism and heteronormativity. Each of these concepts underpins heterosexuality as the norm, and reinforces reward or punishment for individuals for either conforming or deviating from it (Foucault, 1990). These concepts matter when considering bullying and homophobic bullying. For example, Chesney-Lind and Jones (2010) challenge the notion that girl's use of violence is a product of becoming "more masculine", while Messerschmidt (2012) emphasizes the importance of congruence between heteromasculinity/femininity, sex appearance and gender/sexual behavior when it comes to bullying and other forms of youth violence. Studies have also found that homophobia is a direct underlying mechanism policing youth via physical, verbal and relational forms of bullying (Meyer, 2003; Rivers, 2011). Furthermore, Pascoe (2007) gives direct examples of gender policing of masculinity through her notion of "fag discourse," which serves as a form of gendered boundary maintenance.

Intimate partner violence: Dating and sexual assault. Although heterosexism, heteronormativty and (more often than not internalized) homophobia also underlie dating and sexual violence, intimate partner violence involves recognizing other gendered mechanisms of

power and control, far beyond the enactment of masculinity, femininity, and boundary maintenance. For example, The Network la Red found that same-sex partner abuse is not necessarily about physical size, or who is more "butch" or trying to be masculine, rather it's about control of a partner (LGBTQ Partner Abuse, 2010). Renzetti (1992) found that, within the context of lesbian relationships, abuse was enacted as a result of dependency, jealousy and power imbalance between partners. Power differentials and control are a huge piece to intimate partner violence, as outlined by Domestic violence and Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender relationships, (2016). According to the National coalition against domestic violence, same-sex partner abuse uses similar tactics of power and control as opposite sex relationships, accept that these factors are compounded by issues like, heterosexism, homophobia, biphobia, and transphobia. In turn, these issues create additional tactics that increase victimization rates and prevent individuals from seeking help. Such tactics include: threats of outing, threats that "no one will help, threats that the individual "isn't really gay," monopolization of support sources, and portraying the violence as mutual.

As noted above, and consistent with feminist and queer literature, these types of violence are deeply rooted in power differences. The latter examples are ways in which gender and sexuality are intertwined in ways that directly affect and perpetuate these types of violence. Thus, it is impossible for feminist criminology to not adequately consider sexuality, and queer criminology to not adequately consider gender, when talking about violence within this context. Thus, in reference to Daly and Chesney-Lind's (1988) outline of the 5 elements of feminist criminology, I want to extend this model to include the elements outlined above:

1) Gender is not a natural fact but a complex social, historical and cultural product that is intertwined with sexuality and is a source of heteronormative power.

2) Gender and sexuality order social life and becomes institutionalized in fundamental ways that create and reproduce matrices heterosexual of power.

3) Gender relations and constructs of masculinity and femininity are not symmetrical but are based on an organizing principle of heterosexual men's superiority and social, political and economic dominance over homosexual men and women.

4) Systems of knowledge reflect men's views of the natural and social world; the production of knowledge is gendered and sexualized, and was perpetuated during the 'masculinity turn' within feminist criminology.

5) Women, non-gender conforming, and homosexual individuals should be at the center of intellectual inquiry, not peripheral, invisible or appendages to heteronormative men.

Adequately theorizing victimization among LGBTQ youth requires a combination of feminist and queer perspectives that consider the intimate ties of gender and sexuality. If improving school environments for youth requires anti-bullying policies, shouldn't research understand the gendered and sexualized elements of why this behavior might be occurring? In that same light, if services extended to victims of dating and sexual violence want to be inclusive of LGBTQ youth, shouldn't research understand both, the overlapping and unique gender and sexualized elements of these types of violence? Interpersonal violence crosses all boundaries of gender and sexual orientation (Duke & Davidson, 2009). As a result, theory must start considering the complicated gendered and sexualized elements of these types of violence, and policy must be accountable to their existence and the justice that all youth deserve.

Policy Implications

This study's findings provide additional evidence of the need for school policies that protect sexual minority youth. Explicit policy is a necessity when it comes to protecting the lives of marginalized young people within the education system. This study confirms that egregious disparities exist across different types of victimization. Therefore, these elements should not and cannot be ignored in school policy development. School policies must specifically address the existence of violence against sexual minority youth within the school environment. For example, only half of students in the 2013 National School Climate Survey reported that their school had a Gay Straight Alliance (GSA) or similar club, while a slim 18.5% were taught positive representations about LGBT people, history, or events. In fact, 55.5% of LGBT youth in the survey reported personally experiencing anti-LGBT related discriminatory policies or practices (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, & Boesen, 2014). Finally, within the United States, only 18 have passed enumerated anti-bullying laws that protect students based on sexual orientation and/or gender identity. School programming, policies, and support systems (such as GSA's) must be a standard in schools in order to account for the justice that all youth deserve, regardless of their sexual and gender orientation.

Given the severity of these types of victimization, addressing policy needs must also extend beyond the school environment. Specific implications for LGBTQ people must also be included in services extend to victims of intimate partner violence. According to the National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs, a variety of prevention, response, barrier reduction, and research measures must be taken in order to ensure healthier lives for LGBTQ people. In terms of prevention, policy must be specifically aimed at LGBTQ and HIV-affected anti-violence organizations, curriculum, and intervention and prevention programming. In terms of responses,

policymakers and funders should increase funding for LGBTQ and HIV-affected anti-violence programming, as well as prioritize training that is LGBTQ inclusive, and institute non-discrimination provisions. In terms of reducing barriers, policymakers and funders should fund empowerment programs that target and ban discrimination against LGBTQ and HIV-affected communities, specifically their intersections among race, class, gender and national origin. Finally, in terms of research, policymakers and funders must increase research that acknowledges and focuses on LGBTQ and HIV-affected intimate partner violence. Overall, policymakers, researchers and advocates must ensure that LGBTQ individuals are included in prevention assessments and responses. (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, And HIV-Affected Intimate Partner Violence, 2017)

Limitations and Future Research

Although this study contributes to the body of literature regarding victimization in sexual minority youth, it does not exist without certain limitations. First, the 2013 YRBS does not include transgender youth, thus, is significantly limiting the scope of the study in terms of inclusivity and investigation of true intersections of sexual orientation and gender identity. While transgender students are most certainly present in these samples, only asking questions that cater to sexual orientation and not non-gender binary identities is insufficient. Including the "T" in representative studies is crucial, especially when transgender and gender non-conforming individuals are among those most likely at risk for victimization from both, the family unit as well as broader societal institutions. Overall, this is another example as to how the fight for inclusion of the LGBTQ community is a failure if non-essentializing gender categories are not included. Future research cannot overlook populations of trans and gender non-conforming students.

Second, the cross-sectional analysis limited the ability to establish a causal relationship between sexual orientation, gender and youth violence at school. Ideally, future research would utilize longitudinal data to develop a causal model that links sexual orientation and gender to school bullying victimization and perpetration. Additionally, qualitative research could better illuminate researchers understanding of the factors that influence school bullying victimization from the perspective of both, the victim and perpetrator. In order to tap the sexualized and gendered elements of why this violence may be occurring, supplementing quantitative data with in depth interviews may be extremely valuable.

Third, this study utilized data that measured victimization rates rather than perpetration rates. Thus, while assuming the status of the perpetrator of these types of youth violence is common, it cannot go without significant limitations. For example, this study presents unique data in terms of female victimization rates, particularly among bullying, which –aside from relational bullying—is seen as a typically male thing to be involved in. In this case, knowing the gender of the perpetrator is important to delineating between opposite sex teasing and "mean girl" bullying behavior. Additionally, research also finds that there is significant overlap between the victim/offender relationship, particularly within youth violence. Thus, exploring that overlap cannot be ignored by future research.

Overall, the current limitations and the overall field lead to additional future research questions. First, future research must include better consideration of the intersections of race/ethnicity, class in addition to gender and sexual orientation. Thus, the future must explore topics like: gender, education and criminology 9especially within the confines of non-gender binary identities). Additionally, future research must also explore the institutionalized elements to these types of violence, as well as their negative outcomes.

Conclusion

Queer criminology is a space of multiplicity. It respects difference, while simultaneously challenging the constructs that create such difference. It is a fluid space that respects differences in the meaning of language, the role of intersecting identities, and the inherent theoretical contentions between identity driven and deconstructive positions. There are many different ways of doing queer criminology in terms of methods, theory, and practice, but what lies at the heart of it all is the idea that, "to queer something is, therefore, to do something" (Ball, 2014b, pg. 534).

Youth violence is a pervasive public health issue worldwide. It has continued to gather the attention of researchers for over two decades, because of the severe and persistent physical, behavioral, and psychological consequences that emerge from victimization. Unfortunately some of the most targeted individuals of youth violence are sexual minority youth. Overall, this study confirms prior results that outline the disparities in victimization among LGBTQ youth, while extending such findings by considering the impact of the intersection of sexual orientation and gender. In an attempt to overcome the overwhelmingly dark experiences that many LGBTQ youth have had as a result of victimization, this research centers LGBTQ youth, and attempts to add additional reasoning, within a queer criminological framework, as to why such victimization occurs and how society can overcome it.

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RQ 1. What are the distinctions between sexual minority and heterosexual youth, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Minority and Heterosexual Youth

	Sexual Minority			Heterosexual			
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	
Victimization							
Traditional Bullying	1,428	0.32	0.466	11,214	0.16	0.369	*
Electronic Bullying	1,428	0.26	0.421	11,214	0.12	0.327	*
Sexual Orientation Bullying	1,428	0.33	0.470	11,214	0.06	0.232	*
Dating Violence	1,428	0.16	0.369	11,214	0.06	0.228	*
Sexual Assault	1,428	0.16	0.368	11,214	0.07	0.257	*
School Avoidance	1,428	0.18	0.380	11,214	0.09	0.281	*
Mental Health	1,428	0.32	0.468	11,214	0.20	0.400	*
Substance Use	1,428	0.51	0.500	11,214	0.39	0.488	*
Female	951	0.67	0.472	5543	0.49	0.500	*
Grade	1,428	10.36	1.090	11,214	10.4	1.090	
Black	279	0.20	0.397	2,018	0.18	0.384	
Latino	402	0.28	0.450	2,953	0.26	0.440	
Asian or Pacific Islander	63	0.04	0.205	435	0.04	0.193	
Other	173	0.12	0.326	811	0.07	0.259	*
Weight	1,428	2.18	0.740	11,214	2.14	0.644	*
Misbehavior	1,428	0.49	0.606	11,214	0.30	0.519	*
Florida	612	0.43	0.495	5,131	0.46	0.498	*
Illinois	416	0.29	0.297	2,747	0.24	0.326	*
North Carolina	140	0.10	0.297	1,354	0.12	0.326	*

*P< .001

RQ 2. What are the distinctions between females and males, in terms of victimization, school avoidance, mental health, substance use, and controls?

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Female and Male Students

	Sexual Minority			Heterosexual			
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	
Victimization							
Traditional Bullying	6,494	0.21	0.406	6,148	0.15	0.358	*
Electronic Bullying	6,494	0.18	0.387	6,148	0.09	0.286	*
Sexual Orientation Bullying	6,494	0.09	0.282	6,148	0.09	0.284	
Dating Violence	6,494	0.08	0.268	6,148	0.06	0.229	*
Forced Sexual Assault	6,494	0.11	0.311	6,148	0.05	0.222	*
School Avoidance	6,494	0.10	0.300	6,148	0.09	0.291	
Mental Health	6,494	0.26	0.437	6,148	0.17	0.375	*
Substance Use	6,494	0.40	0.460	6,148	0.41	0.450	
Female	--	--	--	--	--	--	
Grade	6,494	10.38	1.091	6,148	10.41	1.095	
Black	1,217	0.19	0.390	1,080	0.18	0.381	*
Latino	1,726	0.27	0.442	1,629	0.26	0.441	
Asian or Pacific Islander	228	0.04	0.184	270	0.04	0.205	*
Other	510	0.08	0.269	474	0.08	0.267	
Weight	6,494	2.23	0.640	6,148	2.05	0.659	*
Misbehavior	6,494	0.20	0.427	6,148	0.45	0.600	*
Florida	2,943	0.45	0.498	2,800	0.46	0.498	
Illinois	1,699	0.26	0.440	1,464	0.24	0.426	*
North Carolina	745	0.11	0.319	749	0.12	0.327	

*$p \leq .001$
Note: Levene's Test for equality of variances indicates differences between the variances in sexual minority and heterosexual youth

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RQ 3. What are the intersections of sexual orientation and gender, in terms of the likelihood of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and forced sexual assault victimizations?

Table 3. Sexual Orientation, Gender and Victimization

	Traditional Bullying					
	Model 1			**Model 2**		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.714	2.042***	0.066	--	--	--
Sexual Minority Females	--	--	--	1.164	3.201***	0.083
Heterosexual Females	--	--	--	0.581	1.788***	0.055
Sexual Minority Males	--	--	--	0.973	2.647***	0.111
Female	0.523	1.687***	0.052	--	--	--
Grade	-0.202	0.817***	0.022	-0.204	0.816***	0.022
Black	-0.798	0.450***	0.076	-0.794	0.452***	0.076
Latino	-0.397	0.672***	0.06	-0.397	0.672***	0.06
Asian or Pacific Islander	-0.242	0.785	0.128	-0.257	0.773*	0.128
Other	-0.157	0.855	0.087	-0.159	0.853	0.087
Weight	0.106	1.112**	0.037	0.108	1.115**	0.037
Misbehavior	0.668	1.950***	0.042	0.671	1.956**	0.043
Florida	-0.327	0.721***	0.066	-0.325	0.722**	0.066
Illinois	-0.069	0.933	0.072	-0.070	0.933	0.072
North Carolina	-0.020	0.980	0.086	-0.019	0.981	0.086
Chi-sauare		743.288			751.429	
Log liklihood		11185.851			11177.71	
Nagelkerke R		0.093			0.094	
Constant	0.114	1.121	0.251	0.09	1.095	0.251

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Table 4. Sexual Orientation, Gender and Victimization

		Electronic Bullying				
	Model 3			**Model 4**		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.696	2.005***	0.071	--	--	--
Sexual Minority Females	--	--	--	1.649	5.204***	0.093
Heterosexual Females	--	--	--	1.188	3.282***	0.067
Sexual Minority Males	--	--	--	1.252	3.496***	0.123
Female	1.056	2.873***	0.061	--	--	--
Grade	-0.064	0.938**	0.025	-0.067	0.935**	0.025
Black	-0.868	0.42***	0.087	-0.860	0.423***	0.087
Latino	-0.53	0.588***	0.069	-0.532	0.587***	0.069
Asian or Pacific Islander	-0.422	0.656**	0.151	-0.454	0.635**	0.151
Other	-0.161	0.851	0.097	-0.167	0.847	0.097
Weight	-0.006	0.994	0.041	-0.001	0.999	0.041
Misbehavior	0.824	2.28***	0.047	0.83	2.294***	0.047
Florida	-0.352	0.703***	0.073	-0.348	0.706***	0.073
Illinois	-0.074	0.928	0.08	-0.075	0.928	0.08
North Carolina	-0.310	0.734**	0.101	-0.308	0.735**	0.101
Chi-sauare		848.506				
Log liklihood		9285.189			875.881	
Nagelkerke R		0.118			9257.814	
Constant	-1.705	0.182***	0.282		0.121	

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Table 5. Sexual Orientation, Gender and Victimization

	Sexual Orientation Bullying					
	Model 5			**Model 6**		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	2.151	8.591***	0.075	--	--	--
Sexual Minority Females	--	--	--	2.042	7.710***	0.092
Heterosexual Females	--	--	--	-0.197	0.822*	0.086
Sexual Minority Males	--	--	--	2.026	7.586***	0.116
Female	-0.13	0.878	0.072	--	--	--
Grade	-0.178	0.837***	0.032	-0.177	0.838***	0.032
Black	-0.722	0.486***	0.107	-0.725	0.484***	0.107
Latino	-0.373	0.689***	0.085	-0.372	0.689***	0.085
Asian or Pacific Islander	-0.535	0.585**	0.193	-0.52	0.595**	0.193
Other	-0.155	0.856	0.117	-0.154	0.858	0.117
Weight	0.048	1.050	0.05	0.047	1.048	0.05
Misbehavior	0.582	1.790***	0.054	0.579	1.784***	0.054
Florida	-0.076	0.927	0.091	-0.078	0.925	0.091
Illinois	-0.625	0.535***	0.111	-0.624	0.536***	0.111
North Carolina	0.214	1.239	0.117	0.214	1.238	0.117
Chi-sauare		1118.271			1120.292	
Log liklihood		6411.158			6409.137	
Nagelkerke R		0.189			0.189	
Constant	-0.891	0.410	0.354	-0.871	0.419*	0.354

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Table 6. Sexual Orientation, Gender and Victimization

		Dating Violence				
		Model 7			**Model 8**	
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.889	2.433***	0.088	--	--	--
Sexual Minority Females	--	--	--	1.473	4.364***	0.113
Heterosexual Females	--	--	--	0.711	2.037***	0.09
Sexual Minority Males	--	--	--	1.142	3.134***	0.147
Female	0.629	1.877***	0.081	--	--	--
Grade	0.118	1.125***	0.034	0.116	1.123***	0.034
Black	0.291	1.338**	0.100	0.294	1.342**	0.100
Latino	0.057	1.059	0.094	0.056	1.057	0.094
Asian or Pacific Islander	-0.356	0.700	0.242	-0.378	0.685	0.242
Other	0.24	1.271	0.131	0.236	1.266	0.132
Weight	0.067	1.069	0.056	0.07	1.072	0.056
Misbehavior	1.118	3.060***	0.058	1.121	3.069***	0.058
Florida	0.155	1.167	0.115	0.159	1.172	0.115
Illinois	0.443	1.557***	0.123	0.444	1.559***	0.123
North Carolina	0.217	1.242	0.15	0.221	1.248	0.150
Chi-sauare		580.51			584.819	
Log liklihood		5644.976			5640.668	
Nagelkerke R		0.115			0.116	
Constant	-5.334	0.005***	0.398	-5.368	0.005***	0.399

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Table 7. Sexual Orientation, Gender and Victimization

| | Sexual Assault | | | | | |
| | Model 9 | | | Model 10 | | |
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.681	1.976***	0.084	--	--	--
Sexual Minority Females	--	--	--	1.522	4.581***	0.108
Heterosexual Females	--	--	--	0.939	2.557***	0.082
Sexual Minority Males	--	--	--	0.95	2.586***	0.155
Female	0.875	2.398***	0.075	--	--	--
Grade	0.000	1.000	0.031	-0.001	0.999	0.031
Black	-0.190	0.827*	0.097	-0.187	0.83	0.097
Latino	-0.035	0.966	0.083	-0.035	0.965	0.083
Asian or Pacific Islander	-0.226	0.798	0.194	-0.241	0.786	0.194
Other	0.086	1.09	0.12	0.084	1.088	0.12
Weight	0.073	1.076	0.051	0.075	1.078	0.051
Misbehavior	0.513	1.671***	0.059	0.514	1.673***	0.059
Florida	-0.328	0.721***	0.094	-0.325	0.722***	0.094
Illinois	0.063	1.065	0.1	0.063	1.065	0.1
North Carolina	0.096	1.100	0.119	0.097	1.102	0.119
Chi-sauare		330.823			334.765	
Log liklihood		6798.567			6794.625	
Nagelkerke R		0.060			0.061	
Constant	-3.247	0.039***	0.350	-3.281	0.038***	0.351

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

RQ 4. How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to school avoidance for sexual minority youth?

Table 8. Victimization and School Avoidance

	Model 11			Model 12			Model 13		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.806	2.238***	0.078	0.386	1.471***	0.088	0.240	1.271**	0.090
Females	0.002	1.002	0.061	-0.136	0.873*	0.064	0.061	1.062	0.068
Traditional Bullying				0.565	1.759***	0.078	0.610	1.841***	0.081
Electronic Bullying				0.704	2.022***	0.083	0.731	2.078***	0.086
Sexual Orientation Bullying				0.279	1.322**	0.096	0.320	1.377***	0.099
Dating Violence				0.963	2.619***	0.091	0.747	2.112***	0.095
Sexual Assault				0.207	1.230**	0.097	0.217	1.243*	0.099
Grade							0.019	1.020	0.029
Black							0.707	2.029***	0.091
Latino							0.796	2.217***	0.080
Asian or Pacific Islander							0.629	1.876***	0.164
Other							0.395	1.484***	0.123
Weight							-0.153	0.858***	0.047
Misbehavior							0.508	1.661***	0.054
Florida							0.51	1.666***	0.102
Illinois							0.501	1.650***	0.110
North Carolina							0.069	1.072	0.141
Chi-sauare		96.522			551.557			839.479	
Log liklihood		7931.378			7476.343			7188.421	
Nagelkerke R		0.016			0.091			0.137	
Constant	-2.357	0.095***	0.045	-2.665	0.07***	0.05	-3.661	0.026***	0.339

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

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RQ 4a. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect school avoidance?

Table 9. Victimization and Female School Avoidance

	Model 14			Model 15			Model 16			Model 17		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.497	1.643***	0.104	0.182	1.199	0.117	0.016	1.016	0.12	-0.039	0.962	0.173
Traditional Bullying				0.527	1.694***	0.105	0.608	1.838***	0.109	0.464	1.591***	0.125
Sexual Minorities										0.612	1.844*	0.259
Electronic Bullying				0.606	1.833***	0.107	0.699	2.012***	0.112	0.867	2.379***	0.126
Sexual Minorities										-0.737	0.478**	0.267
Sexual Orientation Bullying				0.208	1.231	0.136	0.271	1.311	0.141	0.233	1.262	0.189
Sexual Minorities										0.056	1.057	0.286
Dating Violence				0.724	2.062***	0.124	0.545	1.724***	0.13	0.457	1.580**	0.158
Sexual Minorities										0.321	1.378	0.278
Sexual Assault				0.106	1.112	0.123	0.152	1.165	0.125	0.193	1.213	0.146
Sexual Minorities										-0.105	0.900	0.284
Grade							0.019	1.020	0.04	0.020	1.020	0.04
Black							0.768	2.155***	0.125	0.769	2.158***	0.126
Latina							0.908	2.480***	0.109	0.915	2.496***	0.110
Asian or Pacific Islander							0.356	1.428	0.259	0.363	1.438	0.260
Other							0.476	1.609**	0.169	0.481	1.618**	0.169
Weight							-0.125	0.883	0.065	-0.118	0.888	0.065
Misbehavior							0.419	1.520***	0.087	0.422	1.525***	0.087
Florida							0.542	1.719***	0.141	0.551	1.735***	0.141
Illinois							0.426	1.531**	0.152	0.441	1.554**	0.152
North Carolina							0.043	1.044	0.195	0.060	1.062	0.195
Chi-sauare		21.327			203.212			354.579			364.951	
Log liklihood		4190.294			4008.409			3857.043			3846.67	
Nagelkerke R		0.007			0.065			0.111			0.115	
Constant	-2.287	0.102***	0.046	-2.647	0.071***	0.058	-3.569	0.028***	0.463	-3.596	0.027***	0.464

*** $p \le .001$; ** $p \le .01$; * $p \le .05$

RQ 4b. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect school avoidance?

Table 10. Victimization and Male School Avoidance

	Model 18			Model 19			Model 20			Model 21		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	1.269	3.558***	0.118	0.723	2.061***	0.134	0.622	1.862***	0.138	0.947	2.579***	0.189
Traditional Bullying				0.627	1.872***	0.118	0.610	1.840***	0.121	0.664	1.943***	0.134
Sexual Minorities										-0.355	0.701	0.305
Electronic Bullying				0.844	2.326***	0.131	0.793	2.211***	0.135	0.930	2.534***	0.151
Sexual Minorities										-0.627	0.534	0.324
Sexual Orientation Bullying				0.323	1.381*	0.137	0.375	1.456**	0.142	0.437	1.547**	0.166
Sexual Minorities										-0.204	0.816	0.305
Dating Violence				1.269	3.558***	0.138	1.034	2.814***	0.143	1.051	2.860***	0.163
Sexual Minorities										-0.034	0.967	0.328
Sexual Assault				0.414	1.513**	0.162	0.354	1.424*	0.163	0.249	1.283	0.192
Sexual Minorities										0.441	1.555	0.369
Grade							-0.005	0.995	0.044	-0.008	0.992	0.044
Black							0.639	1.895***	0.135	0.654	1.924***	0.136
Latino							0.637	1.891***	0.119	0.662	1.940***	0.119
Asian or Pacific Islander							0.779	2.179***	0.216	0.780	2.182***	0.216
Other							0.252	1.287	0.182	0.270	1.310	0.182
Weight							-0.174	0.840*	0.068	-0.168	0.846*	0.068
Misbehavior							0.580	1.786***	0.072	0.577	1.781***	0.072
Florida							0.479	1.615***	0.151	0.480	1.616***	0.150
Illinois							0.609	1.839***	0.162	0.611	1.841***	0.162
North Carolina							0.134	1.143	0.205	0.130	1.139	0.205
Chi-sauare		97.658			388.559			528.006			539.193	
Log liklihood		3717.199			3426.298			3286.851			3275.664	
Nagelkerke R		0.034			0.132			0.178			0.182	
Constant	-2.427	0.088***	0.049	-2.824	0.059***	0.06	-3.487	0.031***	0.499	-3.517	0.03***	0.5

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

RQ 5. How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to poor mental health for sexual minority youth?

Table 11. Victimization and Poor Mental Health

	Model 22			Model 23			Model 24		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.575	1.778***	0.062	0.388	1.473***	0.067	0.325	1.384***	0.067
Females	0.486	1.626***	0.045	0.438	1.550***	0.046	0.488	1.629***	0.048
Traditional Bullying				0.226	1.253***	0.061	0.24	1.271***	0.062
Electronic Bullying				0.388	1.474***	0.066	0.345	1.412***	0.067
Sexual Orientation Bullying				0.175	1.192*	0.077	0.27	1.310***	0.079
Dating Violence				0.252	1.287**	0.082	0.172	1.188*	0.084
Sexual Assault				0.320	1.378***	0.074	0.253	1.287***	0.075
Grade							0.047	1.048*	0.02
Black							0.425	1.529***	0.063
Latino							0.463	1.588***	0.056
Asian or Pacific Islander							0.228	1.256	0.119
Other							0.273	1.313***	0.085
Weight							-0.03	0.970	0.034
Misbehavior							0.143	1.153***	0.044
Florida							-0.142	0.868*	0.064
Illinois							-0.047	0.954	0.070
North Carolina							0.016	1.016	0.084
Chi-sauare		226.114			360.914			466.285	
Log liklihood		12890.124			12755.324			12649.953	
Nagelkerke R		0.027			0.044			0.056	
Constant	-1.647	0.193***	0.035	-1.757	0.173***	0.037	-2.418	0.089***	0.235

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

RQ 5a. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect poor mental health?

Table 12. Victimization and Female Poor Mental Health

	Model 25			Model 26			Model 27			Model 28		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.41	1.506***	**0.076**	0.318	1.375***	0.082	0.235	1.265**	0.084	0.544	1.722***	0.106
Traditional Bullying				0.177	1.193*	0.078	0.209	1.233**	0.080	0.203	1.225*	0.089
Sexual Minorities										-0.036	0.965	0.195
Electronic Bullying				0.254	1.289**	0.081	0.292	1.339***	0.083	0.450	1.568***	0.092
Sexual Minorities										-0.792	0.453***	0.209
Sexual Orientation Bullying				0.034	1.035	0.106	0.071	1.073	0.108	0.169	1.185	0.144
Sexual Minorities										-0.058	0.944	0.217
Dating Violence				0.144	1.155	0.104	0.062	1.064	0.108	0.220	1.246	0.125
Sexual Minorities										-0.473	0.623*	0.240
Sexual Assault				0.207	1.230*	0.089	0.216	1.241*	0.090	0.251	1.285*	0.103
Sexual Minorities										-0.22	0.802	0.213
Grade							0.018	1.018	0.027	0.014	1.014	0.027
Black							0.428	1.535***	0.082	0.426	1.531***	0.083
Latino							0.430	1.538***	0.073	0.439	1.551***	0.073
Asian or Pacific Islander							0.140	1.150	0.167	0.171	1.186	0.168
Other							0.332	1.394**	0.111	0.328	1.388**	0.112
Weight							0.003	1.003	0.045	0.007	1.007	0.045
Misbehavior							0.156	1.169*	0.069	0.153	1.165*	0.069
Florida							-0.104	0.901	0.084	-0.088	0.915	0.084
Illinois							-0.079	0.924	0.092	-0.065	0.937	0.092
North Carolina							0.001	1.001	0.111	0.026	1.026	0.112
Chi-sauare		28.174			72.309			125.464			157.372	
Log liklihood		7360.95			7316.816			7190.576			7158.668	
Nagelkerke R		0.006			0.016			0.028			0.036	
Constant	-1.131	0.323***	0.031	-1.246	0.288***	0.036	0.028	0.194***	0.306	-1.678	0.187***	0.307

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

RQ 5b. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect poor mental health?

Table 13. Victimization and Male Poor Mental Health

	Model 29			Model 30			Model 31			Model 32		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.916	2.498***	0.105	0.581	1.788***	0.113	0.513	1.671***	0.116	0.831	2.297***	0.151
Traditional Bullying				0.273	1.314**	0.098	0.309	1.362**	0.100	0.38	1.463***	0.109
Sexual Minorities										-0.47	0.625	0.274
Electronic Bullying				0.469	1.598***	0.115	0.431	1.538***	0.118	0.542	1.719***	0.129
Sexual Minorities										-0.513	0.599	0.299
Sexual Orientation Bullying				0.434	1.543***	0.115	0.509	1.663***	0.117	0.526	1.693***	0.135
Sexual Minorities										-0.06	0.942	0.262
Dating Violence				0.406	1.500**	0.133	0.389	1.475**	0.137	0.525	1.690***	0.152
Sexual Minorities										-0.531	0.588	0.323
Sexual Assault				0.427	1.533**	0.136	0.371	1.449**	0.139	0.311	1.364*	0.157
Sexual Minorities										0.344	1.411	0.339
Grade							0.077	1.080*	0.032	0.076	1.079*	0.032
Black							0.416	1.516***	0.101	0.427	1.533***	0.101
Latino							0.507	1.661***	0.088	0.526	1.692***	0.088
Asian or Pacific Islander							0.260	1.297	0.175	0.263	1.301	0.176
Other							0.134	1.144	0.141	0.15	1.161	0.141
Weight							-0.066	0.936	0.053	-0.062	0.940	0.053
Misbehavior							0.139	1.149*	0.059	0.136	1.146*	0.060
Florida							-0.191	0.826	0.101	-0.187	0.830	0.101
Illinois							0.011	1.011	0.110	0.012	1.012	0.110
North Carolina							0.050	1.051	0.130	0.052	1.053	0.130
Chi-sauare		68.611			182.18			236.192			252.716	
Log liklihood		5514.201			5400.631			5257.897			5241.373	
Nagelkerke R		0.019			0.049			0.064			0.068	
Constant	-1.685	0.185***	0.037	-1.857	0.156***	0.042	-2.763	0.063***	0.367	-2.804	0.061	0.368

*** p ≤.001; ** p ≤.01; * p ≤.05

RQ 6. How are experiences of traditional bullying, electronic bullying, sexual orientation bullying, dating violence, and sexual assault victimization linked to substance use for sexual minority youth?

Table 14. Victimization and Substance Use

	Model 33			Model 34			Model 35		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.489	1.631***	0.057	0.385	1.469***	0.061	0.279	1.321***	0.063
Females	-0.087	0.917*	0.037	-0.149	0.862***	0.037	0.022	1.022	0.04
Traditional Bullying				-0.045	0.956	0.054	-0.041	0.960	0.056
Electronic Bullying				0.44	1.552***	0.06	0.38	1.463***	0.062
Sexual Orientation Bullying				-0.065	0.937	0.071	-0.025	0.976	0.073
Dating Violence				0.553	1.738***	0.075	0.317	1.373***	0.078
Sexual Assault				0.287	1.332***	0.068	0.238	1.269***	0.07
Grade							0.289	1.335***	0.018
Black							0.121	1.129*	0.054
Latino							0.173	1.189***	0.047
Asian or Pacific Islander							-0.459	0.632***	0.107
Other							0.14	1.151	0.073
Weight							0.019	1.019	0.029
Misbehavior							0.625	1.868***	0.038
Florida							-0.197	0.821***	0.054
Illinois							0.213	1.237***	0.059
North Carolina							-0.018	0.983	0.072
Chi-sauare		75.954			247.157			910.392	
Log liklihood		16969.397			16798.194			16134.959	
Nagelkerke R		0.008			0.026			0.094	
Constant	-0.406	0.666***	0.026	-0.472	0.624***	0.028	-3.81	0.022***	0.201

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

RQ 6a. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect substance use?

Table 15. Victimization and Female Substance Use

	Model 36			Model 37			Model 38			Model 39		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.6	1.823***	0.071	0.506	1.659***	0.076	0.386	1.472***	0.079	0.478	1.613***	0.101
Traditional Bullying				-0.112	0.894	0.073	-0.084	0.919	0.075	-0.083	0.921	0.085
Sexual Minorities										-0.035	0.965	0.185
Electronic Bullying				0.55	1.734***	0.075	0.536	1.709***	0.078	0.601	1.823***	0.087
Sexual Minorities										-0.319	0.727	0.195
Sexual Orientation Bullying				-0.064	0.938	0.1	0.02	1.020	0.103	-0.063	0.939	0.14
Sexual Minorities										0.252	1.287	0.209
Dating Violence				0.597	1.817***	0.098	0.386	1.471***	0.101	0.492	1.635***	0.119
Sexual Minorities										-0.363	0.695	0.223
Sexual Assault				0.267	1.306***	0.083	0.222	1.248**	0.085	0.233	1.263*	0.097
Sexual Minorities										-0.086	0.917	0.203
Grade							0.282	1.326***	0.025	0.28	1.323***	0.025
Black							0.112	1.119	0.075	0.112	1.119	0.076
Latino							0.216	1.241***	0.066	0.224	1.251***	0.067
Asian or Pacific Islander							-0.704	0.495***	0.171	-0.689	0.502***	0.171
Other							0.174	1.190	0.102	0.169	1.184	0.102
Weight							0.024	1.024	0.041	0.026	1.026	0.041
Misbehavior							0.576	1.779***	0.065	0.577	1.780***	0.065
Florida							-0.136	0.873	0.077	-0.133	0.876	0.077
Illinois							0.28	1.323***	0.083	0.287	1.332***	0.084
North Carolina							-0.008	0.992	0.103	0.004	1.004	0.103
Chi-sauare		72.183			204.754			500.784			508.755	
Log liklihood		8651.914			8519.344			8223.314			8215.343	
Nagelkerke R		0.015			0.042			0.1			0.102	
Constant	-0.51	0.601***	0.028	-0.648	0.523***	0.032	-3.816	0.022***	0.284	-3.82	0.022***	0.285

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

RQ 6b. How does the intersection of sexual orientation, gender and victimization affect substance use?
Figure 1. Prevalence Rates in Sexual Minority and Heterosexual Youth

Table 16. Victimization and Male Substance Use

	Model 40			Model 41			Model 42			Model 43		
	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE	β	EXP(B)	SE
Sexual Minorities	0.285	1.329**	0.096	0.171	1.187	0.101	0.074	1.076	0.105	0.265	1.303***	0.135
Traditional Bullying				0.035	1.035	0.081	0.009	1.009	0.084	0.038	1.038	0.09
Sexual Minorities										-0.258	0.772	0.255
Electronic Bullying				0.265	1.303**	0.1	0.118	1.125	0.104	0.108	1.114	0.114
Sexual Minorities										0.115	1.122	0.284
Sexual Orientation Bullying				-0.06	0.942	0.101	-0.044	0.957	0.105	0.041	1.041	0.120
Sexual Minorities										-0.343	0.710	0.248
Dating Violence				0.500	1.648***	0.117	0.235	1.265	0.122	0.286	1.331*	0.136
Sexual Minorities										-0.245	0.783	0.306
Sexual Assault				0.326	1.385**	0.118	0.269	1.308*	0.122	0.294	1.342*	0.134
Sexual Minorities										-0.138	0.871	0.326
Grade							0.300	1.350***	0.025	0.301	1.351***	0.025
Black							0.146	1.158	0.077	0.147	1.158	0.077
Latino							0.149	1.161*	0.068	0.151	1.163*	0.068
Asian or Pacific Islander							-0.262	0.769	0.14	-0.274	0.760	0.141
Other							0.123	1.131	0.105	0.122	1.129	0.105
Weight							0.010	1.010	0.041	0.014	1.014	0.041
Misbehavior							0.658	1.930***	0.047	0.656	1.927***	0.047
Florida							-0.265	0.767***	0.077	-0.261	0.770***	0.077
Illinois							0.141	1.152	0.084	0.141	1.151	0.084
North Carolina							-0.036	0.964	0.100	-0.036	0.965	0.100
Chi-sauare		8.808			55.423			437.899			443.498	
Log liklihood		8310.424			8263.809			7881.332			7875.734	
Nagelkerke R		0.002			0.012			0.093			0.094	
Constant	-0.39	0.677***	0.027	-0.451	0.637***	0.03	-3.843	0.021***	0.285	-3.873	0.021***	0.286

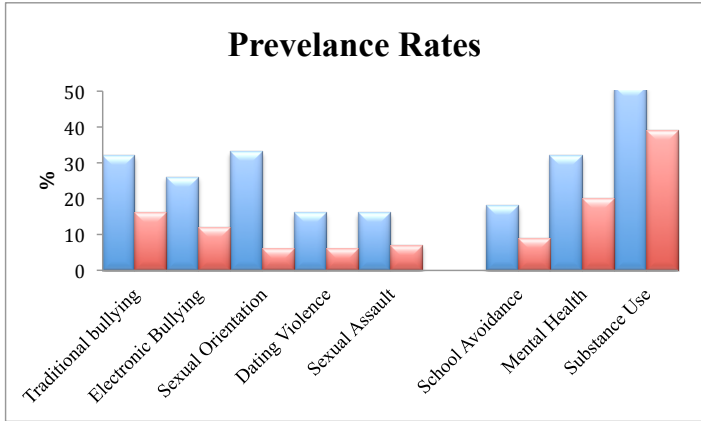*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Figure 2. Likelihood of Victimization by Sexual Orientation and Gender