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Internalized Stigmatization and Rejection Sensitivity as Mediators of the Link Between Self-Monitoring and Transgender Identity Concealment

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INTERNALIZED STIGMATIZATION AND REJECTION SENSITVITY AS MEDIATORS OF THE LINK BETWEEN SELF-MONITORING AND TRANSGENDER IDENTITY CONCEALMENT

by

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Abstract

The phenomenon of identity concealment is not well understood for transgender individuals. Additionally, individual differences in identity concealment have not been widely discussed. In the present study, we explored the potential mediating effects of rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization between self-monitoring and identity concealment by transgender individuals. Self-monitoring can be conceptualized as either a univariate (dichotomous) variable or bivariate (continuous) variable with two dimensions: protective and acquisitive. Using Amazon's Mechanical Turk system, we recruited 140 transgender individuals to complete measures of self-monitoring, rejection sensitivity, internalized stigmatization, and identity concealment across five audiences. Mediation was assessed using Hayes' PROCESS model. Univariate and acquisitive self-monitoring had direct effects on identity concealment for coworkers/classmates. Acquisitive self-monitoring had direct effects on identity concealment for strangers. Protective self-monitoring had indirect effects (via rejection sensitivity/internalized stigmatization) on identity concealment for friends/acquaintances, coworkers/classmates, and strangers. Limitations of the current investigation (e.g., nonexperimental design) and future directions (e.g., longitudinal design) for research on identity concealment by transgender individuals are discussed.

Internalized Stigmatization and Rejection Sensitivity as Moderators of the Link Between Self-Monitoring and Transgender Identity Concealment

In order to gain social approval or create a positive impression when interacting with others, individuals may employ various strategies of impression management. These strategies can include censoring language, differing to the group consensus, acting in a consistently positive manner, as well as many others (Krämer & Winter, 2008; McDonnel & King, 2013). However, the degree to which an individual relies on impression management may vary due to differing personality traits. One such personality trait is self-monitoring.

Competing Models of Self-Monitoring

In his original theory of self-monitoring, Snyder (1974) posits a dichotomy of individuals that are either high or low in self-monitoring. High and low self-monitors are believed to differ in their motivations, attention, abilities, use of abilities, and variations in behavior across situations. High self-monitors pay attention to behaviors and feelings of others and, in turn, modify their own behaviors in order to present themselves in a socially acceptable manner (Snyder, 1974). Conversely, low self-monitors pay attention to their own thoughts and feelings in order to behave in a way that promotes self-congruence (Snyder, 1974). High self-monitors utilize social skills in order to alter their behaviors according to the scenario, and low self-monitors utilize introspection to behave according to their personal ideals (Ickes et al., 2006). Additionally, high self-monitors report more variability in their behaviors across situations compared to low self-monitors (Lippa & Donaldson, 1990; Snyder & Monson, 1975). Since the original conceptualization of self-monitoring, researchers have compiled a substantial literature supporting a characterization of high self-monitors as social pragmatists and low self-monitors as

consistency-seekers (For reviews of this literature, see Fuglestad & Snyder, 2009, 2010; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000).

After Snyder's (1974) original theory, researchers have argued that self-monitoring may not exist as a categorical variable but instead as a multidimensional, continuous variable. In recent years, Wilmot and colleagues (2017) found the original conceptualization of self-monitoring inadequate and modified Snyder's theory to suggest that individuals are prone to two different styles of self-presentation: acquisitive and protective (see also Wolfe et al., 1986). In the bivariate approach of self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring is related to the ability to adapt social behaviors to different situations in order to gain social acceptance and social/nonsocial rewards (Wilmot et al., 2016; Wilmot et al., 2017). In contrast to acquisitive self-monitoring, protective self-monitoring is related to the ability alter behavior in order to avoid social rejection and social/nonsocial penalties (Wilmot et al., 2016; Wilmot et al., 2017).

There are differences in the nomological networks of acquisitive self-monitoring and protective self-monitoring. In close relationships, protective self-monitoring is more closely related to an anxious attachment style compared to acquisitive self-monitoring (Fuglestad et al., 2020). Additionally, acquisitive self-monitoring is associated with narcissism, and protective self-monitoring is associated with Machiavellianism as assessed by the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Polak & Prokop, 1989; Rauthmann, 2011; Renner et al. 2004). Acquisitive self-monitoring is positively related to extraversion and openness, and protective self-monitoring is negatively related to emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Wilmot et al., 2016). These relationships with the Big Five personality traits mark a notable difference between the univariate and the bivariate conceptualizations of self-monitoring; self-monitoring as framed

in the univariate model exists independently of other personality characteristics (Snyder, 1974; but see also Kowalski et al., 2018).

Self-Monitoring and Identity

Individual differences in self-monitoring are related to a wide variety of phenomena. One such phenomenon concerns the relationship between self-monitoring and identity. However, most literature regarding self-monitoring and identity focuses primarily on the univariate conceptualization of self-monitoring.

High self-monitors excel at implementing impression management techniques (Elliot, 1979; Turnley & Bolino, 2001) and defer more often to group ideals compared to low self-monitors (Ickes et al., 1986; Prislin & Kovrlija, 1992). In social settings, high self-monitors attend to their public image more than do low self-monitors; low self-monitors attend to their private self-image more than do high self-monitors (DeMarre et al., 2005; Webb et al., 1985; Wheeler et al., 2008).

Additionally, high self-monitors tend to be less affected by stereotype threat compared to low self-monitors when performing tasks in a social setting (Flynn & Ames, 2006; Inzlicht et al. 2006). Stereotype threat is the tendency for a member of a social minority to perform in a stereotypically consistent way when completing a task that increases the salience of relevant stereotypes (Spencer et al., 1999). When exposed to gender-based stereotype threat, Flynn and Ames (2006) found high self-monitors that were female were seen as more competent compared to low-self monitors that were females; this effect was not as a prevalent in men. Additionally, Inzlicht and colleagues (2006) found that in threatening environments, high self-monitors responded to negative stereotypes with better performance and low-self monitors responded with poorer performance.

High self-monitors chose to enter social situations based on how well-defined a situation is and how well they believe they will be able to mold their behavior to fit into a situation (Glick, 1985; Ickes et al., 2006; Snyder & Gangestad, 1982; Snyder & Kendzierski, 1982). In contrast, low self-monitors chose to enter situations based on how well a situation reflects their own disposition and attitudes (Glick, 1985; Ickes et al., 2006; Snyder & Gangestad, 1982; Snyder & Kendzierski, 1982). The relationships between self-monitoring and self-selection can also be seen in the choices that high self-monitors and low self-monitors make concerning cohabitation versus marriage (Leone & Hawkins, 2019).

In terms of identity, high self-monitors root their identities in external sources; low self-monitors root their identities in internal sources (DeMarree et al., 2005; Sampson, 1978). High self-monitors are better at characterizing behaviors of others compared to themselves, but low self-monitors are better at characterizing their own behaviors compared to the behaviors of others (Snyder & Cantor, 1980). High self-monitors tend to attribute their behaviors to situational cues; low self-monitors tend to attribute their behaviors to personal beliefs and internal states (Snyder, 1976; Wolfe et al., 1986). In order to be accepted, high self-monitors may also change their sense of identity to fall more in line with social expectations. For example, high self-monitors are more likely to conform to gender stereotypes compared to low self-monitors (Brown, 2019; Ickes & Barnes, 1977) and to act in ways that seem prejudiced if doing so meets the demands of a situation (Klein et al., 2004).

Though there is a great deal of literature regarding self-monitoring and identity (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2009), there still exists a paucity of research regarding the relationship between self-monitoring and stigmatized identity. One such unexplored area involves identity concealment.

Identity Concealment

In order to be viewed as socially acceptable, individuals may attempt to withhold certain aspects of their identity that may be considered devalued (Quinn, 2006; Quinn & Chaudior, 2009). Identity concealment occurs when individuals fail to disclose some parts of their identity (i.e., race, gender, ethnicity, etc.) in order to present themselves in a more socially congruent way (Pachankis, 2007). Identity concealment is common for those with identities that are not viewed as socially acceptable (i.e., stigmatized identities).

Though meant to prevent a person from experiencing discrimination, identity concealment is often associated with negative consequences. Individuals who conceal parts of their identity report less overall life satisfaction, worse health outcomes, and lower self-esteem compared to those that do not conceal their identity (Cole et al., 1996; Newheiser et al., 2017; Plante et al., 2014). Additionally, individuals who conceal their identity have diminished feelings of belonging compared to those that do disclose their identities (Newheiser & Barreto, 2014). Considering the costs of identity concealment, it is necessary to understand the motivations that drive individuals to conceal parts of their identity.

Internalized Stigmatization

One motivation for concealing identities concerns internalized stigmatization. Internalized stigmatization occurs when individuals accept societal beliefs regarding their own stigmatized identity and integrate that stereotypic knowledge into their own self-concept (Corrigan & Watson, 2002). Though not all stigmatized identities can be concealed (i.e., race, assigned gender, body type, etc.), other identities, such as sexual orientation and gender identity, are more readily concealed than visible traits. Internalized stigmatization is related to depression,

decreased feelings of self-worth, and frequent instances of mental and physical health issues (Herek et al., 2009; Quinn & Earnshaw, 2013).

Take, for example, members of the LGBTQ+ community. For sexual minority individuals, internalized homophobia is a prevalent and harmful phenomenon. Like other forms of internalized stigmatization, internalized homophobia is characterized by negative attitudes regarding an individual's own sexuality (Blais et al., 2014; Ross & Rosser, 1996). According to the Minority Stress Model, internalized stigmatization acts as a proximal stressor in tandem with distal stressors, such as everyday discrimination, which contributes to a lower quality of life for sexual and gender minorities (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Meyer, 2003). In addition to a decreased sense of self-worth, internalized homophobia is related to poor quality of interpersonal relationships, negative health outcomes, and rejection anxiety (Frost & Meyer, 2009; Herek et al., 1998; Williamson, 2000). Sexual minorities with high levels of internalized stigma are also more likely to conceal their identity compared to those with low levels of internalized stigma (Quinn & Earnshaw, 2013). By concealing their identities, these individuals are inadvertently limiting their access to social support networks thereby diminishing their resilience to minority stress and decreasing overall life satisfaction (Meyer, 2003).

In recent years, theories of internalized stigma have rarely been applied to transgender and gender-nonconforming individuals (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Meyer, 2015; Mizock & Mueser, 2014). Certain aspects of internalized homophobia and the Minority Stress Model do track onto gender minorities. However, how internalized stigmatization relates to identity concealment for transgender individuals has not been widely documented.

Rejection Sensitivity

Another major motivating factor for concealing identity is the avoidance of social rejection. Rejection sensitivity is defined as how much an individual expects rejection and how strongly reacts to rejection due to personal identity and/or behavior (Downey & Feldman, 1996). Individuals with high rejection sensitivity have expectations of rejection in interpersonal relationships and may overreact to signs of potential rejection (Downey et al., 1998b; Zimmer-Gembeck & Nesdale, 2013). In romantic relationships, rejection sensitivity is related to an insecure attachment style (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Erozkan, 2009; Feldman & Downey, 1994). Individuals with high rejection sensitivity may take drastic, preemptive measures to prevent their partner from ending the relationship (Ayduk et al., 2000; Downey et al., 1998a). However, the expectation of rejection may lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy, such that individuals with high rejection sensitivity may drive their partners away regardless of preemptive measures (Downey et al., 1998a).

As a preemptive measure to prevent rejection, an individual with high rejection sensitivity may choose to conceal parts of their identity. In the Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003), rejection sensitivity acts as a proximal stressor that impacts the wellbeing of sexual minorities. Previous experiences of discrimination can contribute to sexual minority individuals' expectations of future rejection and subsequently increase their level of rejection sensitivity (Dyar et al., 2018; Feinstein et al., 2012). In order to avoid future discrimination, sexual minority individuals with high rejection sensitivity are more prone than those with low rejection sensitivity to conceal their sexual orientation (Dyar et al., 2016; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). However, researchers have shown that identity concealment as a consequence of rejection sensitivity can lead to worse health outcomes and lower life satisfaction (Cole et al., 1996: Cole et al., 1997).

In recent years, rejection sensitivity as a proximal stressor has been identified in transgender and gender nonconforming populations (Hatzenbuehler & Pachankis, 2016; Rood et al., 2017). For example, transgender individuals may like other members of the LGBTQ+ community experience anxiety about disclosing their identity (Rood et al., 2017). However, its effects on identity concealment have not been widely documented.

Current Study

Little is known about the relationship between self-monitoring in any of its forms and impression management as it pertains to those with stigmatized identities (i.e., gender and sexual minorities). In this study, the relationship between self-monitoring and identity concealment for transgender individuals will be explored. Additionally, two potential mediators (i.e., internalize stigmatization, rejection sensitivity) of this possible relationship will be investigated.

Based on previous literature concerning self-monitoring and identity (Snyder, 1974; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), high self-monitors may be more inclined compared to low self-monitors to conceal their stigmatized identity to avoid social rejection. However, low-self monitors may be more prone compared to high self-monitors to internalize negative feelings associated with stigmatized identity (Snyder, 1976; Webb et al., 1989). Additionally, acquisitive self-monitors may weigh the costs/benefits of revealing their stigmatized identity in a particular situation to determine what will provide the most social gain (Wilmot et al., 2016; Wilmot et al., 2017); protective self-monitors may prioritize the anticipated consequences of revealing their stigmatized identity based on social norms/previous experiences of rejection (Wilmot et al., 2016; Wilmot et al., 2017).

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) system to complete a study of "Individual Differences in the Coming Out Experience for Transgender Men/Women." Upon completion of our survey, participants received a monetary reward of $2.00. Participants were required to be at least 18 years of age and identity as transgender to participate in our study.

A total of 140 participants (67 male-to-female, 73 female-to-male) completed our survey. The racial make-up of our sample was 61.4 % *White/Caucasian*, 11.4 % *Black/African American,* 10.7 % *Hispanic/Latino*, 15.7 % *Asian/Pacific Islander*, and 0.7 % *Other*. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 55 years of age (M = 31.6, SD = 7.5).

For all participants, missing data for any variable were replaced with the mean for scores on that variable in this sample. All participants completed an informed consent before participating, and all procedures in our study were conducted according to the APA Ethical Principles for Psychologists and Code of Ethics (American Psychological Association, 2017).

Procedure

Demographic information was collected at the beginning of our questionnaire in order to determine eligibility for participation (i.e., identification as transgender). Participants were asked which of the following options best described them: *heterosexual male, heterosexual female, gay male, lesbian female, bisexual male, bisexual female, transgender male to female, transgender female to male,* or *other*. Participants that did not identify themselves as transgender female to male or transgender male to female were ineligible to complete the remainder of the study. Participants were also asked to disclose their race/ethnicity and age.

Self-Monitoring.

Individual differences in self-monitoring were measured using the 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974). This measure consists of 25 statements either positively worded (e.g., "My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs.") or negatively worded (e.g., "I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people."). Participants answered either *true* or *false* for each statement as it pertained to them. Responses indicating high self-monitoring were assigned a value of 2 and responses indicating low self-monitoring were assigned a value of 1. Total scores were calculated by summing scores for answers to all 25 items. Potential total scores ranged from 25 to 50.

Using subsets of items from the Self-Monitored Scale, we measured participants' acquisitive and protective self-monitoring motivations (Wilmot et al., 2017). The acquisitive subscale consists of 6 items (e.g., "I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.") and the protective subscale consists of 7 items (e.g., "Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time."). Total scores were calculated by summing scores for answers to each subset of items. Scores on the acquisitive subscale ranged from 6 to 12. Scores on the protective subscale ranged from 7 to 14.

Scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale have reliability. Temporal reliability has been indicated in Snyder's (1974) original publication with a test-retest value of .83 across a one-month time period. Scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale were highly correlated across a two-month time period with a value of .73 (Girvan et al., 2010). Internal reliability has been indicated in Snyder's (1974) original publication with a KR20 of .70 for scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale. Zaccaro, Foti, and Kenny (1991) found a Cronbach's alpha of .67 for scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale. Blickle and colleagues (2008) found a Cronbach's alpha of .68. Wilmot and

colleagues (2017) found Cronbach's alphas of .71-.81 for scores on the subscale for acquisitive self-monitoring and Cronbach's alphas of .63-.68 for scores on the subscale for protective self-monitoring. For our study, we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .45 for scores on the 25-item scale, .28 for scores on the acquisitive subscale, and .63 for scores on the protective subscale. One item was removed from the protective subscale to bring the Cronbach's alpha to an acceptable level. Removing items from the 25-item scale and acquisitive subscale would not alter the Cronbach's alpha a significantly, so all items were included.

Scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale have convergent validity. Snyder (1974) found those more inclined to self-monitoring behavior (i.e., professional actors) scored higher on the Self-Monitoring Scale compared to undergraduate students; those less inclined to self-monitoring behavior (i.e., psychiatric patients) scored lower on the Self-Monitoring Scale compared to undergraduate students. Additionally, peer ratings of self-monitoring traits positively correlated with individuals' scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974). Scher and colleagues (2007) found that scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale were related to scores on measures of socially appropriate behavior (see also Snyder & Monson, 1975). Scores on the acquisitive self-monitoring subscale have a positive correlation with scores on measures of Plasticity, and scores on the protective self-monitoring subscale have a positive correlation with scores on measures of Stability (Wilmot et al., 2016).

Scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale have discriminant validity. Snyder (1974) found no significant correlation between scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale and the Performance Style Test (Ring & Wallston, 1968). Snyder (1974) also found scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale were unrelated to scores on measures of Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970) and Inner-Other Directedness (Kassarjian,1962). Graf and Harland (2005) found scores on the Self-

Monitoring Scale were also unrelated to scores on the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Scores on both the acquisitive and protective self-monitoring subscales were unrelated to scores on measures of cognitive ability (Wilmot et al., 2017).

Scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale have "construct validity" (Weiner & Green, 2017). Sampson (1978) found scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale were positively correlated with externally located identity traits. Mill (1984) found those who scored higher on the Self-Monitoring Scale seemed less genuinely empathetic compared to those who scored lower on the Self-Monitoring Scale. Those who scored higher on the Self-Monitoring Scale were also less likely to change self-perceptions following primes compared to those who scored lower on the Self-Monitoring Scale (DeMarre et al., 2005).

Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale.

Internalized stigma regarding gender identity was measured using the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale (Herek et al., 2009). This measure consists of 5 statements related to attitudes toward participants' stigmatized identity (e.g., "I wish I weren't gay/lesbian"). For the purposes of our study, each item was modified to be relevant to gender minorities. All instances of the phrase "sexual orientation" were replaced with "gender identity" and all instances of the word "gay/lesbian" were replaced with "transgender." Participants indicated on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree,* 5 = *strongly agree*) the degree to which they believed each statement applied to them. Total scores were calculated by summing the scores for answers to all five items; potential total scores ranged from 5 to 25. Higher scores represented a higher level of internalized stigma, and lower scores represented a lower level of internalized stigmatization.

Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale have reliability. Temporal reliability has been indicated with a test-retest value of .67 across a one-year time period (Herek

et al., 2009). Internal reliability has also been indicated with a Cronbach's alpha value of .82 (Herek et al., 2009). Straub and colleagues (2018) found a Cronbach's alpha of .88. For our study, we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .87 for scores on the modified scale.

Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale have convergent validity. Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were positively correlated with scores on measures of depressive symptoms and state anxiety and negatively correlated with scores on measures of self-esteem (Herek et al., 2009). Additionally, scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were correlated with scores on measures of psychological distress over time (Herek et al., 2009).

Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale have discriminant validity. Scott (2019) found that scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were not correlated with scores on the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001). Heiden and colleagues (2020) also found that scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were unrelated to scores on measures of college religious conservatism and college acceptance.

Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale have "construct validity" (Weiner & Green, 2017). Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were related to perceptions regarding the costs/benefits of one's sexual orientation; participants that perceived more costs than benefits related to their sexual orientation had higher scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale compared to participants that perceived less costs than benefits (Herek et al., 2009). Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were also negatively correlated with identity disclosure; participants with lower scores were more likely to have disclosed their sexual orientation to family/friends compared to those with higher scores (Herek et al., 2009). Further, Scott (2019) found scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale

were negatively correlated with scores on the Nebraska Outness Scale; higher scores predicted higher levels of identity concealment (Meidlinger & Hope, 2014).

Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale.

Rejection sensitivity was measured using the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale (Pachankis et al., 2008). This measure consists of 14 scenarios regarding reactions of others to a person's sexual orientation. For the purposes of our study, each item was modified to be relevant to gender minorities. All instances of the phrase "sexual orientation" were replaced with "gender identity" and all instances of the word "gay/lesbian" were replaced with "transgender." Participants indicated on a 6-point scale (1 = *very unconcerned,* 6 = *very concerned*) how concerned they would be in each scenario (e.g., "A 3-year old child of a distant relative is crawling on your lap. His mom comes to take him away.") that they were being excluded due to their gender identity. Total scores were calculated by summing the scores for answers to all 14 items.; potential total scores ranged from 14 to 84. Higher scores represented a higher level of rejection sensitivity, and lower scores represented a lower level of rejection sensitivity.

Scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale have reliability. Pachankis and colleagues (2008) found a Cronbach's alpha of .91. Feinstein, Goldfried, and Davila (2012) found a Cronbach's alpha of .90 for scores on the original scale and a Cronbach's alpha of .89 for scores on a revised version. For our study, we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .92 for scores on the modified scale.

Scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale have convergent validity. Pachankis and colleagues (2008) found scores on the Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure (i.e., sensitivity to interpersonal rejection) (Harb et al., 2002) were correlated with scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale. Scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale were

also correlated with scores on the Sexual Minority Women Rejection Sensitivity Scale (Dyar et al., 2016).

Scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale have discriminant validity. Pachankis and colleagues (2008) found scores on theoretically unrelated subscales of the Internalized Homophobia Scale (Ross & Rosser, 1996) and Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure (i.e., Low Self-Esteem, Public Identification as Gay, Moral/Religious Acceptability of Being Gay) were less correlated with scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale compared to theoretically related subscales (i.e., Perception of Gay Stigma, Interpersonal Worry and Dependency). Feinstein and colleagues (2012) found no robust correlation between scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale and scores on the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (Leary, 1983).

Scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale have "construct validity" (Weiner & Green, 2017). Pachankis and colleagues (2008) found scores on the Perceived Gay Discrimination Scale and the Internalized Homophobia Scale were related to scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale. Paternal rejection—as mediated by internalized homophobia—was also related to scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale (Pachankis et al., 2008). Further, scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale were correlated with unassertive behavior in social settings. Feinstein and colleagues (2012) found scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale were positively correlated with experiences of discrimination and depressive symptoms.

Nebraska Outness Scale.

The concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale was used to determine participants' identity concealment (Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). This subscale consists of a series

of questions with a common stem (i.e., “What percent of people in this group do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?”). The stem was revised to replace the phrase “sexual orientation” with “transgender identity.” The question was asked in relation to five separate groups: immediate family, extended family, friends/acquaintances, coworkers/classmates, and strangers. Participants indicated on an 11-point scale (*0%* to *100%*) the percentage of people in each group they felt knew about their gender identity. High percentages indicated low instances of identity concealment.

Scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale have reliability. Meidlinger and Hope (2014) found a Cronbach’s alpha of .80 for scores on the concealment subscale. Abbott and Mollen (2018) found a Cronbach’s alpha of .75 for the concealment subscale. For our study, we did not collapse scores across the five different audiences and did not obtain a Cronbach’s alpha.

Scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale have convergent validity. Scores on the Outness Inventory were correlated with scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale (Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). Scott (2019) found scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale were lower for heterosexual and bisexual female athletes compared to lesbian athletes.

Scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale have discriminant validity. Abbott and Mollen (2018) also found scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale were unrelated to scores on the centrality subscale of the Three-Dimensional Strength of Group Identification Scale (Cameron, 2004).

Scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale have “construct validity” (Weiner & Green, 2017). Brownfield (2018) found scores on the concealment subscale

of the Nebraska Outness Scale were related to lower feelings of authenticity for bisexual individuals. Further, scores on the Gay-Rejection Sensitivity Scale and the Internalized Homophobia Scale were correlated with scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale (Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). Abbott and Mollen (2018) found scores on the concealment subscale of the Nebraska Outness Scale were negatively correlated with scores on their Revised Day-to-Day Discrimination Scale.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Psychometric Properties

Table 1 has the univariate statistics for all variables in the present study. A visual inspection indicated no violation of the assumption of normality. Other than scores on the univariate measure of self-monitoring, all means, standard deviations, and ranges were within expected values, and there were no issues with skewness or kurtosis. For univariate self-monitoring, there was an issue with kurtosis.

Zero Order Correlations

Given the correlational nature of this study, we also calculated and reported zero order correlations between our variables (see Table 2). Scores on the protective self-monitoring subscale were correlated with scores on rejection anxiety and internalized stigmatization. Further, scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale and protective subscale were correlated with scores on the Nebraska Outness Scale for coworkers/classmates and strangers. Consistent with previous research (Pachankis et al., 2008), there was a correlation between scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale and scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale. As expected (Meidlinger & Hope, 2014), scores on the Gay-Related Rejection Sensitivity Scale

were also correlated with scores on the Nebraska Outness scale for all audiences. Scores on the Revised Internalized Homophobia Scale were correlated with scores on the Nebraska Outness Scale only for extended family, coworkers/classmates, and strangers.

Main Analyses

Parallel mediation was assessed using Model 4 of Hayes' PROCESS program (Hayes, 2013). We used 95% confidence intervals based on 10,000 bias-correcting bootstrap samples to determine the reliability of effects. If zero was not included in these intervals, effects were considered reliable. Our predictor variable was univariate self-monitoring. Our mediators were rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization. Our outcome variable was identity concealment by transgender individuals. Regression coefficients, standard errors, and model summary information for our analyses can be found in Table 3.

Direct Effects of Univariate Self-Monitoring on Identity Concealment

Our first research question was whether or not self-monitoring had a direct effect on identity concealment. Results of our analyses indicate a direct effect of self-monitoring on identity concealment for coworkers/classmates (see Figure 1). As self-monitoring increased, identity concealment for this audience also increased (see Table 4, panel 4, row 1). A post-hoc power analysis for this effect was .55. No other direct effects of self-monitoring on identity concealment were observed.

Indirect Effects of Univariate Self-Monitoring on Identity Concealment

Our second research question was whether or not self-monitoring had an indirect effect on identity concealment via rejection sensitivity and/or internalized stigmatization. For all audiences, rejection sensitivity did not mediate the connection between self-monitoring and identify concealment (see all five panels of Figure 1 and the second row in all five panels of

Table 4). Similarly, internalized stigmatization did not mediate the connection between self-monitoring and identify concealment from any of the audiences sampled (see all five panels of Figure 1 and the third row in all five panels of Table 4).

Although not related to our self-monitoring hypotheses, there were connections between identity concealment and (a) rejection sensitivity and (b) internalized stigmatization. Rejection sensitivity was positively related to identity concealment for friends/acquaintances (see Table 4, panel 3, row 2), coworkers/classmates (see Table 4, panel 4, row 2), and strangers (see Table 4, panel 5, row 2). Additionally, internalized stigmatization was positively related to identity concealment for coworkers/classmates (see Table 4, panel 4, row 3) and strangers (see Table 4, panel 5, row 3). Neither internalized stigmatization nor rejection sensitivity was related to self-monitoring for any audience (see Table 3, panels 1-5, row 1).

Exploratory Analyses

Very little information exists regarding the correlates of the acquisitive and protective dimensions of self-monitoring. Further, almost no information exists regarding how acquisitive and protective self-monitoring relate to identity concealment. Therefore, we conducted further exploratory analyses to observe the direct and/or indirect effects of protective and acquisitive self-monitoring on identity concealment by transgender individuals.

Acquisitive Self-Monitoring

Parallel mediation was again assessed using Model 4 of Hayes' PROCESS program (Hayes, 2013). We also used 95% confidence intervals based on 10,000 bias-correcting bootstrap samples to determine the reliability of effects. Regression coefficients, standard errors, and model summary information for our analyses can be found in Table 5.

Results of our analyses indicate a direct effect of acquisitive self-monitoring on identity

concealment for coworkers/classmates and strangers (see Figure 2). As acquisitive self-monitoring increased, identity concealment for these audiences also increased (see Table 6, panels 4 and 5, row 1). Post-hoc power analyses for these effects were .55 and .59 respectively. No other direct effects of acquisitive self-monitoring on identity concealment were observed.

For all audiences, rejection sensitivity did not mediate the relationship between acquisitive self-monitoring and identity concealment (see Table 6, panels 1-5, row 2). Similarly, internalized stigmatization did not mediate the relationship between acquisitive self-monitoring and identity concealment for all audiences (see Table 6, panels 1-5, row 3). However, there were connections between identity concealment and (a) rejection sensitivity and (b) internalized stigmatization. Rejection sensitivity was positively related to identity concealment for friends/acquaintances (see Table 5, panel 3, row 2), coworkers/classmates (see Table 5, panel 4, row 2), and strangers (see Table 5, panel 5, row 2). Additionally, internalized stigmatization was positively related to identity concealment for extended family (see Table 5, panel 2, row 3), coworkers/classmates (see Table 5, panel 4, row 3), and strangers (see Table 5, panel 5, row 3). Neither internalized stigmatization nor rejection sensitivity was related to acquisitive self-monitoring for all audiences (see Table 5, panels 1-5, row 1).

Protective Self-Monitoring

Parallel mediation was again assessed using Model 4 of Hayes' PROCESS program (Hayes, 2013). We also used 95% confidence intervals based on 10,000 bias-correcting bootstrap samples to determine the reliability of effects. Regression coefficients, standard errors, and model summary information for our analyses can be found in Table 7.

Results of our analyses indicate that there were no direct effects of protective self-monitoring on identity concealment for any audience (see Table 8, panels 1-5, row 1). However,

several indirect effects were observed.

For friends and acquaintances, rejection sensitivity mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and identity concealment. As protective self-monitoring increased, rejection sensitivity also increased; as rejection sensitivity increased, identity concealment also increased (see Table 8, panel 3, row 2). A post-hoc power analysis for this effect was .78. For coworkers/classmates, both rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and identity concealment. As protective self-monitoring increased, both rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization also increased; as rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization increased, identity concealment also increased (see Table 8, panel 4, rows 2 and 3). Post-hoc power analyses for these effects were .61 and .75 respectively. Last, for strangers, internalized stigmatization mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and identity concealment. As protective self-monitoring increased, internalized stigmatization also increased; as internalized stigmatization increased, identity concealment also increased (see Table 8, panel 5, row 3). A post-hoc power analysis for this effect was .98.

Discussion

Summary and Interpretation of the Results

The goal of the current study was to assess whether or not self-monitoring was directly and/or indirectly related to identity concealment by transgender individuals across five different audiences. Additionally, we conducted exploratory research to observe the potential differences between univariate, acquisitive, and protective forms of self-monitoring as they relate directly and indirectly to identity concealment by transgender individuals.

Our first research question was whether or not self-monitoring was directly related to identity concealment. In our sample, self-monitoring had a direct effect on identity concealment only for coworkers/classmates. There are several possible explanations for these findings.

Researchers have concluded that high self-monitors are interested in seeking social status in the workplace (Day et al., 2015) which may explain why as self-monitoring increased concealment of transgender identity also increased for this audience. That is, status in the workplace may be considered more valuable than status in social settings (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). This would explain why self-monitoring was only related to identity concealment for coworkers/classmates compared to other audiences. Seeking to maintain professional relationships with colleagues and gain favor with superiors, high self-monitors may choose to conceal their transgender identity within the workplace. When interacting with friends/family members or strangers, however, the pressure to conceal transgender identity may lessen in the absence of a perceived social hierarchy (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000).

Note that we observed internal consistency coefficients of less than .55 for univariate and bivariate self-monitoring in our sample. One potential explanation could be how transgender individuals view their overall identity. Transgender individuals that are in the earlier stages of their transition may experience confusion regarding other aspects of their identity such as sexual orientation (Bockting, 2009; Daskalos, 1998). These individuals may also experience confusion regarding personality traits such as self-monitoring. Therefore, the transgender participants in our sample may have confusion regarding their self-monitoring status leading to the low internal consistency found for univariate and bivariate indices of self-monitoring.

Our second research question was whether or not self-monitoring was indirectly related to identity concealment via rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization. In our sample,

neither rejection sensitivity nor internalized stigmatization mediated the relationship between self-monitoring and identity concealment across any audience. Supporting previous literature (Dyar et al., 2016; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014; Quinn & Earnshaw, 2013), we found that rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization were related to identity concealment for certain audiences. However, in the current study, rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization were not related to self-monitoring for any audience.

A potential explanation for these results could be that univariate self-monitoring contains aspects of both "getting ahead" and "getting along" in social settings (Wolfe et al., 1986). Though high self-monitors may be more aware than low self-monitors of potential rejection (Ickes et al., 2006), researchers also suggest that high self-monitors are more likely than low self-monitors to take social risks in order to achieve status (Bell et al., 2000). Additionally, though high self-monitors are less affected than low self-monitors by internal states (DeMarree et al., 2005; Sampson, 1978), knowledge about one's own stigmatized identity may be especially valuable to high self-monitors when navigating social situations (Ickes et al., 2006; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). These conflicting motivations within self-monitoring may explain why univariate self-monitoring and rejection sensitivity/internalized stigmatization were unrelated in our sample.

Last, we conducted exploratory research to observe the potential differences between univariate, acquisitive, and protective forms of self-monitoring. Like univariate self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring had a direct effect on identity concealment for coworkers/classmates. Unlike univariate self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring also had a direct effect on identity concealment for strangers. Acquisitive self-monitors are interested in gaining social status (Wilmot et al., 2017). Transgender individuals sometimes conceal their identity in the workplace

to receive the same privileges retained by cisgender individuals (Newheiser et al., 2017), and those high in acquisitive self-monitoring may be especially likely to do so in order to advance in an organization. Additionally, transgender individuals sometimes conceal their identity upon meeting someone for the first time (Rood et al., 2017), and those high in acquisitive self-monitoring may also be likely to do so to gain social favor.

Unlike both univariate and acquisitive self-monitoring, protective self-monitoring had no direct effects on identity concealment for any audience. However, protective self-monitoring did have indirect effects on identity concealment via both rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization. For friends/acquaintance, only rejection sensitivity mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and identity concealment. For coworkers/classmates, both rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and identity concealment. For strangers, only internalized stigmatization mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and identity concealment. Additionally, both rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization were related to protective self-monitoring across each audience.

Researchers suggest that both internalized stigmatization and rejection sensitivity are related to identity concealment for sexual minority individuals (Dyar et al., 2016; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014; Quinn & Earnshaw, 2013). Further, protective self-monitors are interested in avoiding social rejection (Wilmot et al., 2017). Perhaps, those high in protective self-monitoring may be more sensitive to potential rejection and be more aware of social stigma surrounding their own minority identity. If so, then as protective self-monitoring influences rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization, identity concealment may also increase in certain social situations.

Applications and Implications

Self-Monitoring

The current findings serve to extend the literature regarding the debate between univariate and bivariate models of self-monitoring. There has been debate regarding whether self-monitoring exists as a dichotomous personality trait (univariate) or if it exists as a continuous personality trait (bivariate) (Snyder, 1974; Wilmot et al., 2017). The findings in our study serve to support the idea that self-monitoring exists as a continuous personality trait with two separate dimensions. In our exploratory analyses, different patterns of results emerged between acquisitive and protective self-monitoring. Acquisitive self-monitoring only had direct effects on identity concealment, whereas protective self-monitoring only had indirect effects on identity concealment. Further, protective self-monitoring was related to theoretically relevant constructs (i.e., internalized stigmatization and rejection sensitivity), whereas acquisitive self-monitoring was not. Therefore, these patterns of results support the idea of acquisitive and protective self-monitoring existing as two distinct dimensions with differing nomological networks. For example, protective self-monitoring is associated with an insecure attachment style (Fuglestad et al., 2020). Rejection sensitivity is also associated with an insecure attachment style (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Erozkan, 2009; Feldman & Downey, 1994). Therefore, the relationship between protective self-monitoring and rejection sensitivity in our sample serves to strengthen the idea that protective self-monitoring has a nomological network distinct from the nomological network for acquisitive self-monitoring.

The current findings also study serve to extend the literature regarding self-monitoring as it applies to social settings. Specifically, the observed direct and indirect effects of self-monitoring on identity concealment may imply that self-monitoring is related to how often

transgender individuals disclose their identity to a variety of significant others. One implication of these findings is mental health professionals should consider self-monitoring status when counseling transgender individuals experiencing minority stress due to rejection sensitivity, internalized stigmatization, and identity concealment (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Meyer, 2015; Mizock & Mueser, 2014; Rood et al., 2017). Considering self-monitoring status, mental health professionals may be able to more effectively identify potential causes of distress within patients and apply treatment the that best suits each individual.

Identity Concealment

In our findings, self-monitoring was only directly/indirectly related to identity concealment for three different audiences: friends/acquaintances, coworkers/classmates, and strangers. This pattern of results may have implications for when transgender individuals will and will not conceal their identity. It seems that identity concealment for more proximally related audiences (i.e., immediate family and extended family) may not be as influenced by personality traits compared to more distally related audiences (i.e., friends/acquaintances, coworkers/classmates, and strangers).

Because we found both direct and indirect effects of self-monitoring on identity concealment, the literature regarding the potential predictors of identity concealment by minority individuals is also extended. Researchers suggest that, along with rejection sensitivity and internalized stigmatization, identity concealment may be a source of minority stress for members of the LGBTQ+ community (Feinstein et al., 2013; Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Meyer, 2003). However, little research exists observing how stable individual differences may contribute to identity concealment for minority individuals. As such, knowledge about what personality traits may predict identity concealment is potentially considered valuable. In our findings, self-

monitoring had both direct and indirect effects on identity concealment by transgender individuals. One implication of these findings is personality traits (e.g., self-monitoring) may make individuals more likely to conceal their identity which, in turn, could lead to the negative consequences of doing so such as lower quality of life (Cole et al., 1996; Ullrich et al., 2003).

Limitations

This study was a non-experimental (i.e., correlational) design. Given that all variables in this study were measured and not manipulated, issues of temporal precedence and third variables should be addressed (Shaddish et al., 2005).

Temporal precedence cannot be established because all data were collected at one point in time. Without being able to establish temporal precedence, we cannot make causal claims about the relationship between self-monitoring and identity concealment. That is, we cannot say that an increase in self-monitoring causes an increase in identity concealment by transgender individuals or vice versa. Individuals that are concealing aspects of their identity may become more aware of their own behavior for fear of being "found out" (Ragins et al., 2007). As such, these individuals may consciously monitor their behavior (Frable et al., 1990) which in turn may cause them to perceive themselves as high self-monitors.

This study also lacked experimental control, and observed relationships could be the product of third variables. One potential third variable could be self-consciousness. Self-conscious has been shown to be related to self-monitoring (Fenigstein et al., 1975; Nystedt & Ljungberg, 2002; Turner et al., 1978) and identity concealment by minority individuals (Pachankis & Bernstein, 2012; Panchankis & Goldfried, 2006). High self-monitors tend to have more public self-consciousness compared to low self-monitors (Nystedt & Ljungberg, 2002). This public self-consciousness gives them the ability to behave in a socially acceptable way.

Additionally, minority individuals are often more self-conscious compared to non-minority individuals as a result of previous discrimination and societal norms (Safren & Pantalone, 2006). As such, transgender individuals that are highly self-conscious may choose to conceal their identities in order to prevent discrimination (Panchanki & Goldfried, 2006). Therefore, though we found a relationship between self-monitoring and identity concealment by transgender individuals, the results may have been influenced by levels of self-consciousness in our participants.

Future Directions

Future research on the effects of self-monitoring on identity concealment would benefit from a longitudinal design (Jose, 2016; Shadish et al., 2005). By measuring self-monitoring, rejection sensitivity, internalized stigmatization, and identity concealment over time, we could establish temporal precedence. By establishing temporal precedence, we would be able to make causal inferences regarding the relationship between self-monitoring and identity concealment by transgender individuals. Additionally, the use of a longitudinal design would allow us to observe differences in identity formation at different stages of transition for transgender individuals; higher clarity of self-concept for personality traits (i.e., self-monitoring) may be found for transgender individuals that are further along in their transition.

Even with the use of a longitudinal design, control over third variables would still be required. One third variable that should be controlled for in future research is self-consciousness. As mentioned previously, self-consciousness is related to both self-monitoring (Fenigstein et al., 1975; Nystedt & Ljungberg, 2002; Turner et al., 1978) and identity concealment (Pachankis & Bernstein, 2012; Panchankis & Goldfried, 2006). Another third variable that should be controlled for in future research is neuroticism. Protective self-monitoring has been correlated with

neuroticism (Wilmot et al., 2016). Additionally, individuals high in neuroticism also tend to be high in rejection sensitivity (Butler et al., 2007; Downey & Feldmen, 1996) which, in turn, could lead to identity concealment. Controlling for these variables would then allow us to more confidently attribute observed effects on identity concealment to self-monitoring.

The use of an online survey via MTurk does not allow us to verify whether or not our participants actually identified as transgender. Further, self-report measures in general tend to be at risk for biased or dishonest information (Chandler et al., 2020). A potential solution is to include better screening measures, such as the use of a pre-screening survey, to prevent non-transgender individuals from participating (Goodman et al., 2013; Hauser et al., 2018). Additionally, implementing snowball sampling may allow us to collect more participants from a rare demographic. Snowball sampling refers to a participant recruitment strategy wherein research participants are asked to recruit other individuals from the desired demographic to participate in the study as well (Browne, 2005; Goodman, 1961). Given the fact that transgender individuals only make up a small portion of the population (Herman et al., 2017), this technique may be useful to acquire an adequate number of transgender participants in future research.

In the current study, the measures of rejection sensitivity, internalized stigmatization, and identity concealment for transgender individuals were all adapted from previously constructed measures intended for gay/lesbian individuals (Herek et al., 2009; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014; Pachankis et al., 2008). Though we obtained acceptable internal consistency for these adapted measures, future research may benefit from the use of transgender-specific scales. However, considering the lack of research regarding the experiences of transgender individuals, such specific measures may not be available. Future research may also consider the creation and

validation of a novel scale that measures rejection sensitivity, internalized stigmatization, or identity concealment specifically for transgender individuals.

Conclusions

The goal of the current study was to observe the relationships between self-monitoring, rejection sensitivity, internalized stigmatization, and identity concealment. However, the results of the current study also provide further research to the growing literature regarding the experiences of transgender individuals. Almost no other research has observed how self-monitoring relates to identity concealment for transgender individuals. Further, most literature that observes internalized stigmatization and rejection sensitivity as sources of minority stress focus primarily on gay/lesbian individuals (Blais et al., 2014; Feinstein et al., 2012; Meyer, 2003; Ross & Rosser, 1996). Despite the lack of research, transgender individuals are routinely exposed to discrimination (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Rood et al., 2017) and are just as likely as other members of the LGBTQ+ community to suffer from the negative consequences of identity concealment (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Mizock & Mueser, 2014).

In order to improve the quality of life for transgender individuals, it is important to consider how personality traits such as self-monitoring may factor into mental health counseling and intervention strategies. Transgender individuals that are struggling with disclosing their identities may lack social support, a key factor in resilience against minority stress (Bruce et al., 2015; Shilo et al., 2015). However, levels of distress surrounding the act of disclosing such an identity may vary depending on personality. Therefore, intervention programs should consider personality traits when equipping transgender individuals with the resources necessary to overcome identity concealment. Additionally, mental health professionals should consider whether or not identity disclosure may lead to even greater distress in transgender patients

depending on their personalities. Overall, personality traits are a vital component of the self that should always be considered when dealing with matters of personal identity. Only through such consideration can people such as transgender individuals have the chance to thrive.

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Table 1

Univariate Statistics for Predictors, Mediators, and Outcome Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skew	Range
Univariate Self-Monitoring	37.51	3.14	3.81	-0.46	25.00
Acquisitive Self-Monitoring	8.94	1.32	0.12	0.005	6.00
Protective Self-Monitoring	9.88	1.70	-0.82	-0.37	6.00
Rejection Sensitivity	56.74	13.68	0.26	-0.42	70.00
Internalized Stigmatization	15.76	5.64	-0.75	-0.44	20.00
Identity Concealment – Immediate Family	8.12	2.42	0.49	-0.99	10.00
Identity Concealment – Extended Family	7.71	2.59	0.38	-0.94	10.00
Identity Concealment – Friends/Acquaintances	7.74	2.24	0.31	-0.87	10.00
Identity Concealment – Coworkers/Classmates	7.30	2.77	-0.14	-0.79	10.00
Identity Concealment – Strangers	6.72	3.14	-0.80	-0.67	10.00

Table 2

Zero Order Correlations

	USM	ASM	PSM	RS	IS	IC-F	IC-EF	IC-FA	IC-CC
USM	(.45)								
ASM	+.62***	(.28)							
PSM	+.59***	+.16	(.63)						
RS	-.03	-.07	+.30***	(.92)					
IS	+.05	-.07	+.35***	+.38***	(.87)				
IC-F	+.03	+.01	+.00	+.17*	+.15				
IC-EF	+.12	+.06	+.09	+.21*	+.23**	+.59***			
IC-FA	+.06	+.02	+.11	+.26**	+.07	+.46***	+.57***		
IC-CC	+.17*	+.13	+.21*	+.31***	+.34***	+.44***	+.70***	+.70***	
IC-S	+.16	+.12	+.32***	+.33***	+.47***	+.30**	+.59***	+.56***	+.70***

Note. USM = Univariate Self-Monitoring, ASM = Acquisitive Self-Monitoring, PSM = Protective Self-Monitoring, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization, IC-F= Identity Concealment for Immediate Family, IC-EF = Identity Concealment for Extended Family, IC-FA = Identity Concealment for Friends/Acquaintances, IC-CC = Identity Concealment for Coworkers/Classmates, IC-S = Identity Concealment for Strangers. Cronbach's Alpha's presented on the diagonal in parenthesis.

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .00

Table 3

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Model Depicted in Figure 1

Univariate Self-Monitoring

Audience	Consequent								
Immediate Family									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
SMS	-.12	.37	-0.85,+.62	+0.10	0.15	-.21,+.40	+.02	.07	-.11,+.15
RS							+.02	.02	-.01,+.06
IS							+.04	.04	-.04,+.12
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .00			R^2 = .04		
	$F(1,138) = .10$, $p = .754$			$F(1,138) = .39$, $p = .533$			$F(3,136) = 1.84$, $p = .143$		
Extended Family									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
SMS	-.12	.37	-0.85,+.62	+.10	0.15	-.21,+.40	+.09	.07	-.04,+.24
RS							+.03	.02	-.01,+.06
IS							+.08	.04	-.00,+.16
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .00			R^2 = .08		
	$F(1,138) = .10$, $p = .754$			$F(1,138) = .39$, $p = .533$			$F(3,136) = 4.12$, $p = .008$		
Friends/Acquaintances									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
SMS	-.12	.37	-0.85,+.62	+0.10	0.15	-.21,+.40	+.05	.06	-.07,+.16
RS							+.05	.01	+.02,+.08
IS							-.02	.04	-.09,+.05
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .00			R^2 = .08		
	$F(1,138) = .10$, $p = .754$			$F(1,138) = .39$, $p = .533$			$F(3,136) = 3.71$, $p = .013$		
Coworkers/Classmates									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
SMS	-.12	.37	-0.85,+.62	+0.10	0.15	-.21,+.40	+.14	.07	+.01,+.28
RS							+.04	.02	+.01,+.08
IS							+.12	.04	+.04,+.20
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .00			R^2 = .18		
	$F(1,138) = .10$, $p = .754$			$F(1,138) = .39$, $p = .533$			$F(3,136) = 9.90$, $p < .001$		

Table 3 Continued

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Model Depicted in Figure 1

Univariate Self-Monitoring

Audience	Consequent								
Strangers									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
SMS	-.12	.37	-.85,+.62	+.10	.15	-.21,+.40	+.14	.07	-.00,+.29
RS							+.04	.02	+.01,+.08
IS							+.22	.04	+.13,+.31
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .00			R^2 = .27		
	$F(1,138) = .10$, $p = .754$			$F(1,138) = .39$, $p = .533$			$F(3,136) = 16.86$, $p < .001$		

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization.

Table 4

Direct and Indirect Effects of Univariate Self-Monitoring on Identity Concealment as a Function of Audience

Audience	*b*	SE	95% CI
Immediate Family			
Direct	+.02	.07	-.11,+.15
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.00	.01	-.04,+.01
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.00	.01	-.01,+.05
Extended Family			
Direct	+.09	.07	-.04,+.24
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.00	.01	-.04,+.01
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.01	.02	-.02,+.06
Friends/Acquaintances			
Direct	+.05	.06	-.07,+.16
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.01	.02	-.05,+.03
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.00	.01	-.03,+.01
Coworkers/Classmates			
Direct	+.14	.07	+.01,+.28
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.01	.02	-.05,+.03
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.01	.03	-.03,+.07
Strangers			
Direct	+.14	.07	-.00,+.29
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.00	.02	-.05,+.02
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.02	.04	-.06,+.11

Table 5

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Model Depicted in Figure 2

Acquisitive Self-Monitoring

Audience	Consequent								
Immediate Family									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
ASMS	-.73	.88	-2.47,+1.02	-0.32	0.36	-1.04,+.40	+.05	.16	-.26,+.36
RS							+.02	.02	-.01,+.06
IS							+.04	.04	-.04,+.12
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .01			R^2 = .04		
	$F(1,138) = .67$, $p = .413$			$F(1,138) = .78$, p=.380			$F(3,136) = 1.83$, $p = .145$		
Extended Family									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
ASMS	-.73	.88	-2.47,+1.02	+.32	0.36	-1.04,+.40	+.16	.16	-.17,+.48
RS							+.03	.02	-.01,+.06
IS							+.09	.04	+.00,+.16
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .01			R^2 = .08		
	$F(1,138) = .67$, $p = .413$			$F(1,138) = .78$, p=.380			$F(3,136) = 3.77$, $p = .012$		
Friends/Acquaintances									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
ASMS	-.73	.88	-2.47,+1.02	-0.32	0.36	-1.04,+.40	+.07	.14	-.21,+.34
RS							+.05	.01	+.02,+.08
IS							-.02	.04	-.09,+.05
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .01			R^2 = .07		
	$F(1,138) = .67$, $p = .413$			$F(1,138) = .78$, p=.380			$F(3,136) = 3.56$, $p = .016$		
Coworkers/Classmates									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
ASMS	-.73	.88	-2.47,+1.02	-0.32	0.36	-1.04,+.40	+.34	.16	+.02,+.67
RS							+.04	.02	+.01,+.08
IS							+.12	.04	+.05,+.21
	R^2 = .00			R^2 = .01			R^2 = .18		
	$F(1,138) = .67$, $p = .413$			$F(1,138) = .78$, p=.380			$F(3,136) = 9.91$, $p < .001$		

Table 5 Continued

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Model Depicted in Figure 2

Acquisitive Self-Monitoring

Audience	Consequent								
Strangers									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
ASMS	-.73	.88	-2.47,+1.02	-0.32	0.36	-1.04,+.40	+.38	.18	+.03,+.73
RS							+.04	.02	+.01,+.08
IS							+.22	.04	+.15,+.32
	$R^2 = .00$			$R^2 = .01$			$R^2 = .28$		
	$F(1,138) = .67$, $p = .413$			$F(1,138) = .78$, $p = .380$			$F(3,136) = 17.26$, $p < .001$		

Note. SMS = Acquisitive Self-Monitoring Status, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization.

Table 6

Direct and Indirect Effects of Acquisitive Self-Monitoring on Identity Concealment as a Function of Audience

Audience	*b*	SE	95% CI
Immediate Family			
Direct	+.05	.16	-.26,+.36
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.02	.03	-.13,+.02
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.01	.03	-.12,+.02
Extended Family			
Direct	+.16	.16	-.17,+.48
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.02	.03	-.13,+.02
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.03	.04	-.15,+.03
Friends/Acquaintances			
Direct	+.07	.14	-.21,+.34
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.03	.05	-.14,+.04
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.00	.02	-.02,+.08
Coworkers/Classmates			
Direct	+.34	.16	+.02,+.67
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.03	.05	-.17,+.03
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.04	.06	-.19,+.06
Strangers			
Direct	+.38	.18	+.03,+.73
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	-.03	.04	-.15,+.03
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.07	.10	-.28,+.12

Table 7

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Model Depicted in Figure 3

Protective Self-Monitoring

Audience	Consequent								
Immediate Family									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
PSMS	+2.37	.65	+1.08,+3.67	+1.15	0.26	+.63,+1.67	-.12	.13	-.37,+.14
RS							+.03	.02	-.01,+.06
IS							+.05	.04	-.03,+.13
	R^2 = .09			R^2 = .12			R^2 = .04		
	$F(1,138) = 13.19$, $p < .001$			$F(1,138) = 18.86$, $p < .001$			$F(3,136) = 2.08$, $p = .106$		
Extended Family									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
PSMS	+2.37	.65	+1.08,+3.67	+1.15	0.26	+.63,+1.67	-.02	.14	-.29,+.25
RS							+.03	.02	-.01,+.06
IS							+.08	.04	-.00,+.17
	R^2 = .09			R^2 = .12			R^2 = .07		
	$F(1,138) = 13.19$, $p < .001$			$F(1,138) = 18.86$, $p < .001$			$F(3,136) = 3.44$, $p = .019$		
Friends/Acquaintances									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
PSMS	+2.37	.65	+1.08,+3.67	+1.15	0.26	+.63,+1.67	+.06	.12	-.18,+.29
RS							+.04	.01	+.01,+.07
IS							-.02	.04	-.52,+.05
	R^2 = .09			R^2 = .12			R^2 = .07		
	$F(1,138) = 13.19$, $p < .001$			$F(1,138) = 18.86$, $p < .001$			$F(3,136) = 3.56$, $p = .016$		
Coworkers/Classmates									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
PSMS	+2.37	.65	+1.08,+3.67	+1.15	0.26	+.63,+1.67	+.12	.14	-.16,+.39
RS							+.04	.02	+.01,+.07
IS							+.12	.04	+.03,+.20
	R^2 = .09			R^2 = .12			R^2 = .16		
	$F(1,138) = 13.19$, $p < .001$			$F(1,138) = 18.86$, $p < .001$			$F(3,136) = 8.46$, $p < .001$		

Table 7 Continued

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Model Depicted in Figure 3

Protective Self-Monitoring

Audience	Consequent								
Strangers									
	Rejection Sensitivity			Internalized Stigmatization			Identity Concealment		
Antecedent	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI	*b*	SE	95% CI
PSMS	+2.37	.65	+1.08,+3.67	+1.15	0.26	+.63,+1.67	+.28	.15	-.01,+.57
RS							+.03	.02	-.00,+.07
IS							+.20	.05	+.11,+.30
	$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .12$			$R^2 = .27$		
	$F(1,138) = 13.19$, $p < .001$			$F(1,138) = 18.86$, $p < .001$			$F(3,136) = 16.78$, $p < .001$		

Note. SMS = Protective Self-Monitoring Status, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization.

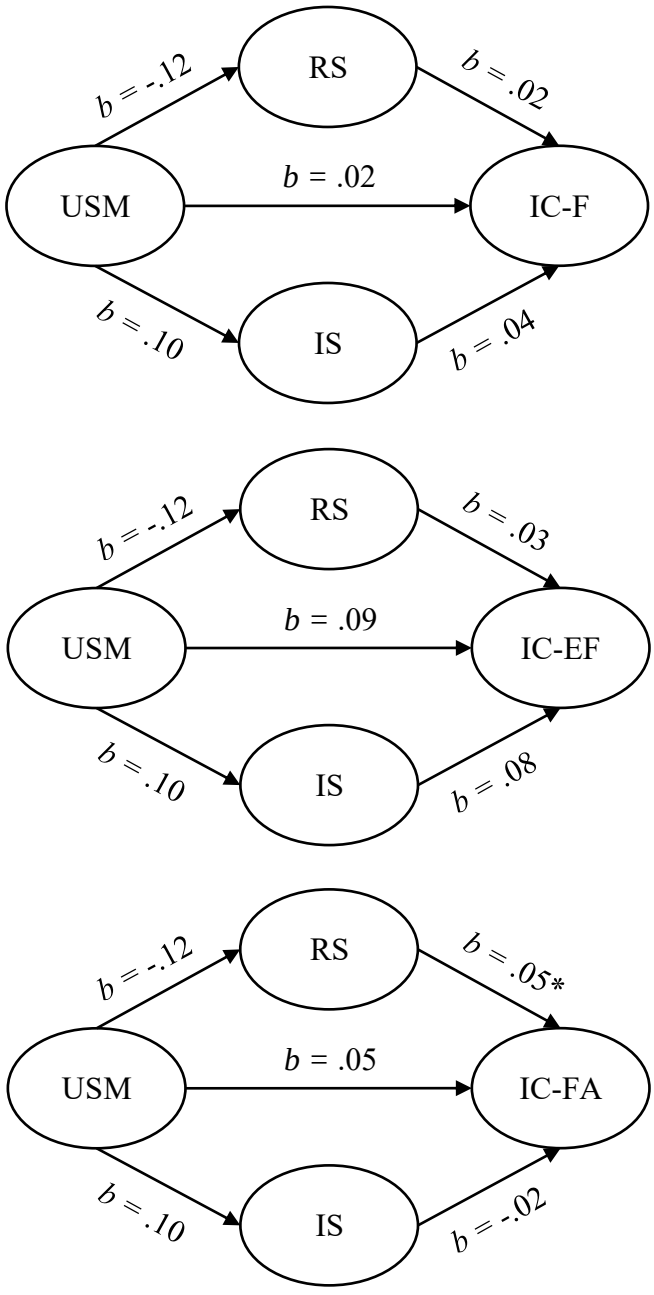
Table 8

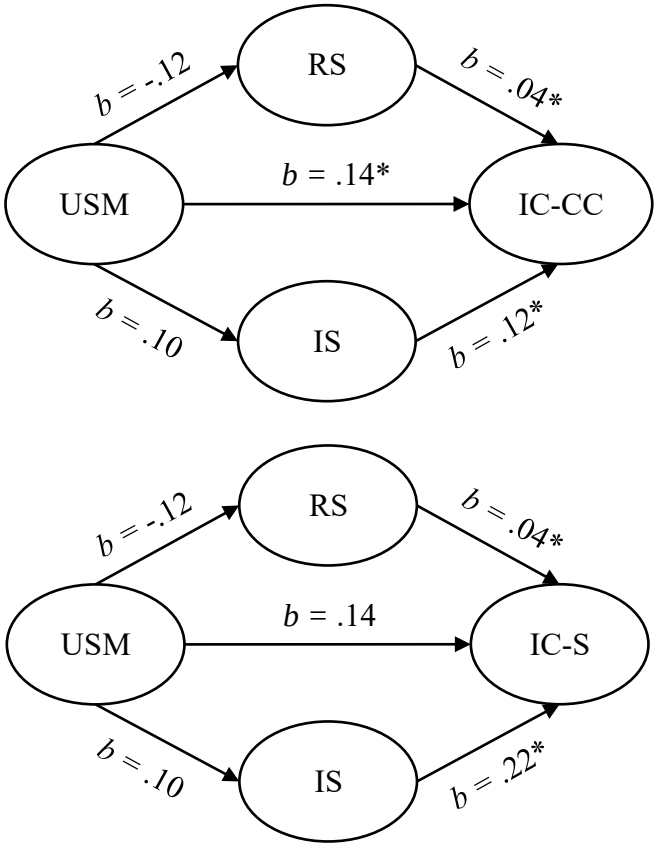
Direct and Indirect Effects of Protective Self-Monitoring on Identity Concealment as a Function of Audience

Audience	*b*	SE	95% CI
Immediate Family			
Direct	-.12	.13	-.37,+.14
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	+.06	.05	-.02,+.19
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.06	.06	-.03,+.20
Extended Family			
Direct	-.02	.14	-.29,+.25
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	+.06	.05	-.02,+.20
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.10	.07	-.01,+.26
Friends/Acquaintances			
Direct	+.06	.12	-.18,+.29
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	+.11	.05	+.03,+.24
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	-.02	.05	-.13,+.06
Coworkers/Classmates			
Direct	+.12	.14	-.16,+.39
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	+.10	.06	+.01,+.23
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.13	.07	+.02,+.31
Strangers			
Direct	+.28	.15	-.01,+.57
Indirect – Rejection Sensitivity	+.08	.05	-.01,+.21
Indirect – Internalized Stigmatization	+.24	.09	+.09,+.45

Figure 1

Parallel Mediation Model for Univariate Self-Monitoring as a Function of Audience

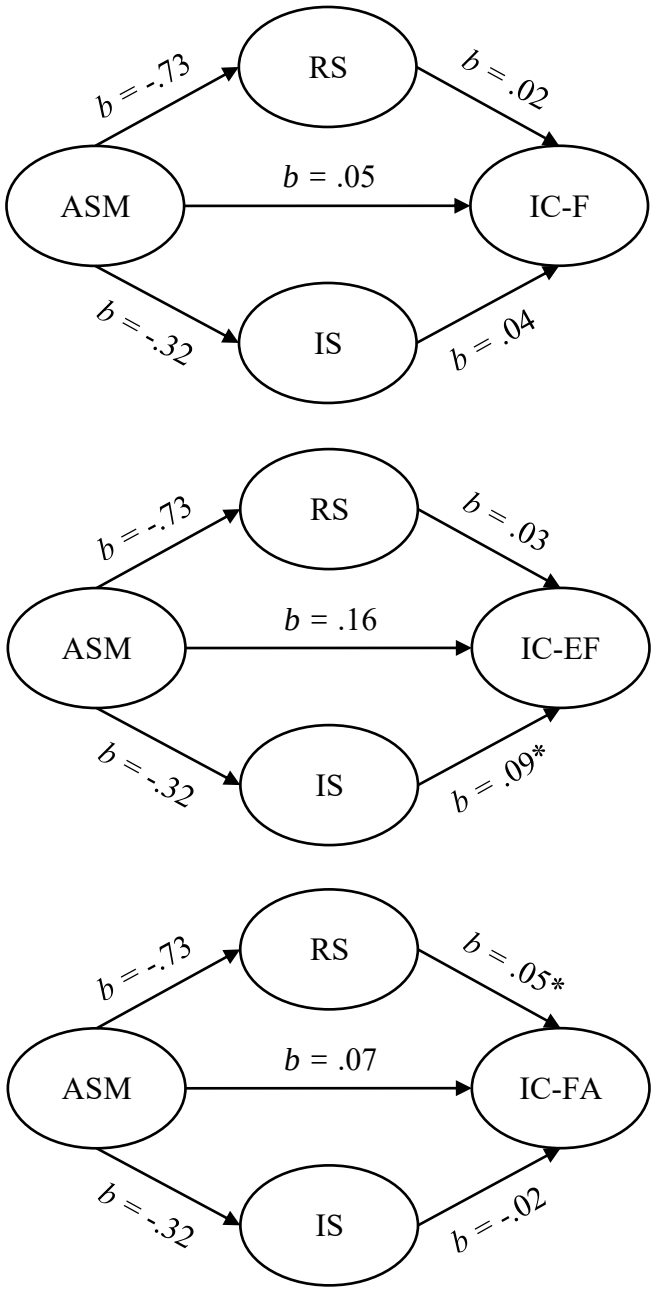


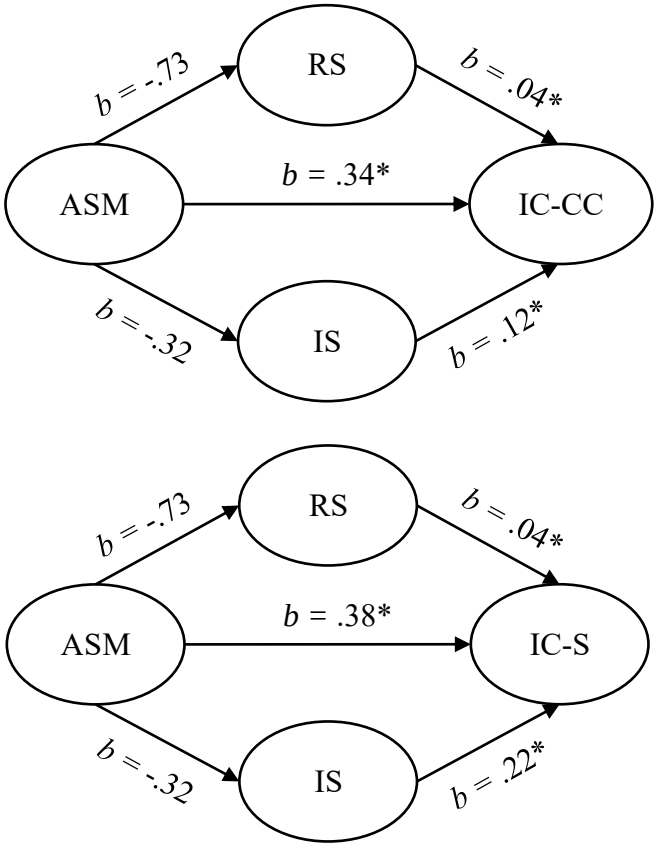


Note. b = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. USM = Univariate Self-Monitoring, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization, IC-F= Identity Concealment for Immediate Family, IC-EF = Identity Concealment for Extended Family, IC-FA = Identity Concealment for Friends/Acquaintances, IC-CC = Identity Concealment for Coworkers/Classmates, IC-S = Identity Concealment for Strangers.

Figure 2

Parallel Mediation Model for Acquisitive Self-Monitoring as a Function of Audience

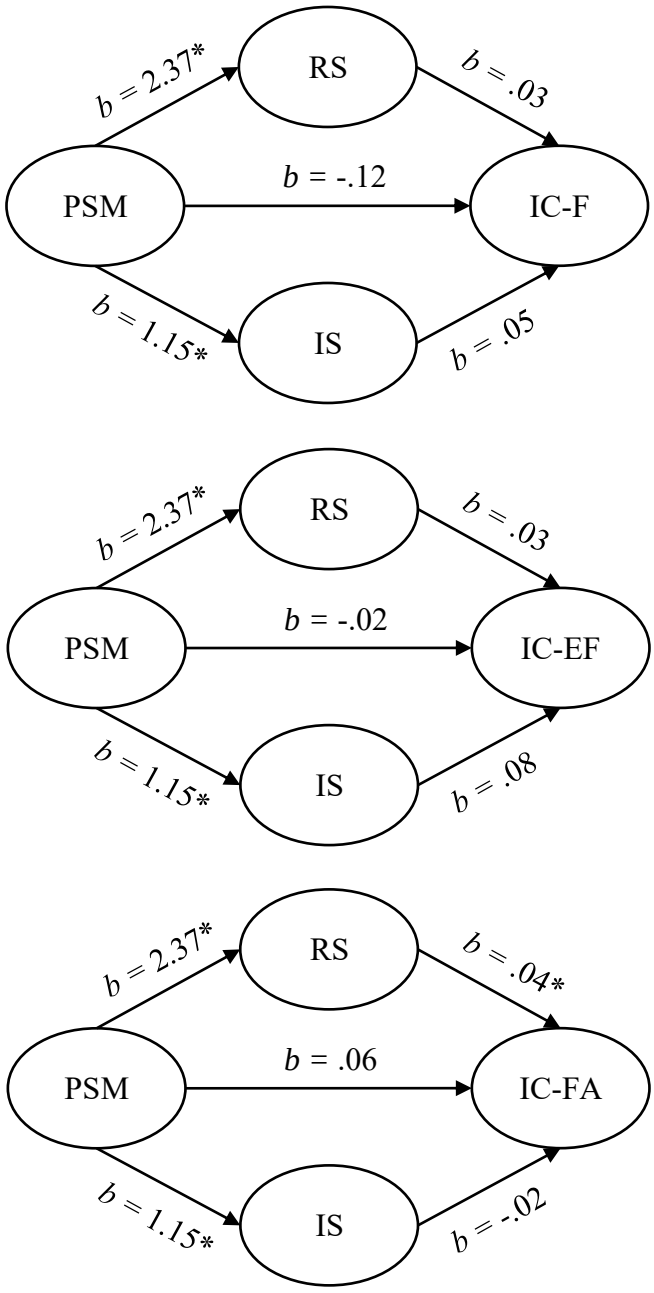


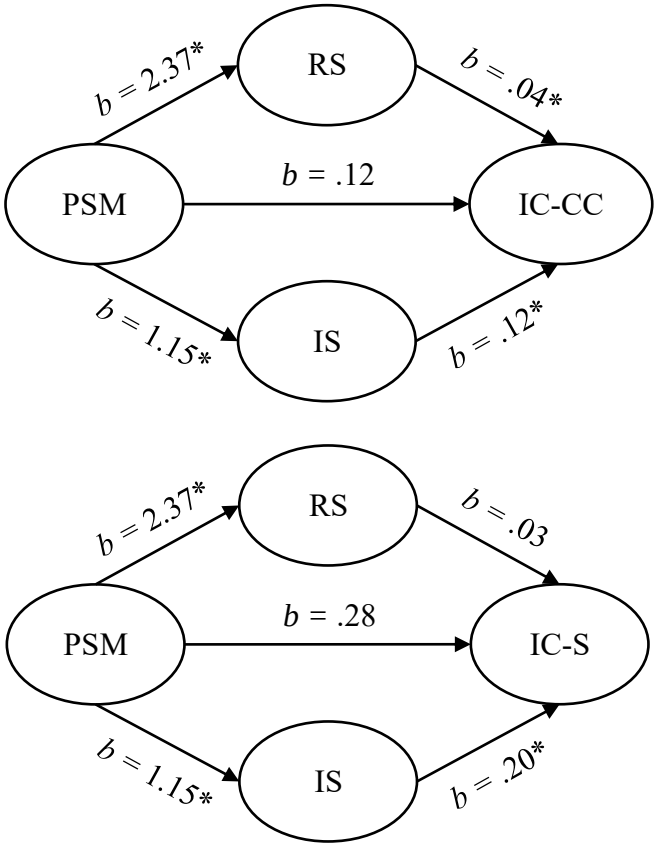


Note. b = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. ASM = Acquisitive Self-Monitoring, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization, IC-F= Identity Concealment for Immediate Family, IC-EF = Identity Concealment for Extended Family, IC-FA = Identity Concealment for Friends/Acquaintances, IC-CC = Identity Concealment for Coworkers/Classmates, IC-S = Identity Concealment for Strangers.

Figure 3

Parallel Mediation Model for Protective Self-Monitoring as a Function of Audience





Note. b = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. PSM = Protective Self-Monitoring, RS = Rejection Sensitivity, IS = Internalized Stigmatization, IC-F= Identity Concealment for Immediate Family, IC-EF = Identity Concealment for Extended Family, IC-FA = Identity Concealment for Friends/Acquaintances, IC-CC = Identity Concealment for Coworkers/Classmates, IC-S = Identity Concealment for Strangers.