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Refining Research on the Intersection Between Sexual Orientation, Suicide, and

Religiosity

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Abstract

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33 This study examined the intersection of religion, suicidality, and sexual orientation. Given
34 conflicting findings in this area (Lytle et al., 2015, 2018), the conceptualization of religiosity is
35 refined and its relationship to suicidality and related constructs are examined. Data come from
36 the 2011 University of Texas at Austin's Research Consortium's "Survey of Distress,
37 Suicidality, and Student Coping" ($n = 20,991$). Analyses replicated previous work (Lytle et al.,
38 2018) examining the relationships between importance of religious/spiritual beliefs and
39 suicidality across sexual orientations. Analyses were enhanced with imputation and single
40 regression analysis, and a more refined measure of religiosity was examined for its relationship
41 with suicidality, belongingness, mindfulness, and sense of coherence. The helpfulness of
42 religious/spiritual connections in coping were compared to other resources. Analyses found
43 fewer associations between importance of religious/spiritual beliefs and suicidality for LGBQ
44 (gay, lesbian, bisexual, and questioning) persons than previous work. Religiosity was protective
45 against suicidality for heterosexuals, was positively associated with ideation for lesbians/gays,
46 was unrelated to ideation for bisexual and questioning individuals, and was unrelated to suicide
47 attempts for LGBQ individuals. For LGBQ individuals, when belonging, coherence, and
48 mindfulness were related to religiosity, the association indicated better wellbeing for those who
49 were religious. For LGBQ individuals, a connection with religion/spirituality was either equally
50 or more helpful than connection with a university, mental health professionals, or campus
51 resources. Findings reflect complexity between sexual orientation, suicidality, mental health, and
52 religiosity with religiosity associated with protection and some risk. Future research requires
53 more precise conceptualizations and operationalizations and the avoidance of simplistic
54 narratives.

55 With suicide rates rising in the United States (United States Centers for Disease Control,
56 2019), research is needed to identify risk and protective factors that can be incorporated into
57 interventions. The relationship between suicidality and religiosity has a long history of research,
58 stretching back to Émile Durkheim who examined the relationship between suicide and religion
59 in some of the earliest social science statistical analyses (Durkheim, 1897). Much of the research
60 suggests religion is a protective factor against suicide (Stack & Kposowa, 2016), though this has
61 recently come into question. Some research finds that adhering to a religion may create feelings
62 of being an outsider because the individual does not feel they “fit” in the religion or because they
63 belong to a minority religious tradition within their society (e.g., Lytle et al., 2018; Young et al.,
64 2011). Further, as Lawrence, Oquendo, and Stanley (2016) note, a complicating factor in
65 research on religiosity and suicide is that the operationalization of *religiosity* frequently lacks
66 nuance.

67 The purpose of the current study was to examine how religiosity relates to suicidality
68 within a group for whom religiosity may be a risk factor—those who identify as lesbian, gay,
69 bisexual, or questioning (LGBQ). Although some previous research has examined the question,
70 results are mixed (e.g., Lytle et al., 2015, 2018), likely due to inconsistencies in how “religiosity”
71 is operationalized. The current study replicates and extends earlier work by 1) using a more
72 holistic operational definition of *religiosity*, 2) including additional suicidality related measures,
73 and 3) examining the helpfulness of using religion/spirituality for coping among LGBQ
74 individuals.

75 **Religiosity as a Protective Factor and a Risk Factor**

76 Two systematic reviews of the research on religion and suicide find that, for the most
77 part, religiosity (including affiliation and attendance at worship services) is related to lower

78 suicidality (Lawrence et al., 2016; Stack & Kposowa, 2016). Religion may provide a sense of
79 belonging which is hypothesized as a key protective factor against suicide (Dyer et al., 2020;
80 Joiner, 2005). Religion may also provide a social network one can draw upon during life's
81 challenges (Stack & Kposowa, 2011). Stack (1983) also suggests religious beliefs may reduce
82 suicide because: "One's earthly problems may be more endurable if one believes that God knows
83 about them and cares" (p. 364; see also Rasic et al., 2011). In this same vein, religion may offer a
84 worldview that provides coherence and meaning, both of which are related to lower suicidality
85 (Drum et al., 2017; Stack & Kposowa, 2011).

86 However, in certain circumstances it may be that religion increases suicide risk. Rather
87 than affording a sense of belonging, religious affiliation may increase suicide risk for those in
88 minority religions. For example, one Scottish study of teenagers found when there was a
89 "mismatch" between one's religion and the religion of the school attended (e.g., Non-Catholics
90 attending Catholic schools) suicide attempt rates were higher (Young et al., 2011). A Chinese
91 study found religion a risk factor for suicidality noting that, in China, church attendance and
92 prayer are considered deviant behaviors (Zhang et al., 2011).

93 Other research has examined how religious lesbians, gays, bisexuals, and those
94 questioning their sexual orientation (LGBQ) may encounter difficulties negotiating their sexual
95 identities and their religious beliefs and community (Dehlin et al., 2015; Sherry et al., 2010). The
96 higher rates of mental health problems among LGBQ individuals is frequently conceptualized
97 using minority stress theory which has been used to describe prejudice and discrimination often
98 experienced by LGBQ individuals, including within religion (Meyer, 2003). Indeed, rather than
99 feeling a sense of community, LGBQ individuals may feel like outsiders in religions that have
100 traditionally prohibited homosexual sexual relations (Sherry et al., 2010). Because of these

101 prohibitions, an “antireligion backlash” may exist in some of the LGBQ community (Haldeman,
102 2002). Given this, Haldeman (2002) notes that: “it is easier for some individuals to come out as
103 lesbian or gay men in their communities of faith than it is to come out as spiritually or religiously
104 oriented in the LGB community” (p. 262). Thus, being religious may create feelings of being an
105 “outsider” for LGBQ individuals on multiple levels. Further, conflicts between one’s sexual
106 identity and one’s religious identity may create a sense of confusion rather than coherence
107 (Dehlin et al., 2015; Sherry et al., 2010). Thus, while some aspects of their religion may be
108 protective for LGBQ individuals, other aspects may create risk.

109 **Research on Sexual Orientation, Religion, and Suicide**

110 A recent meta-analysis on sexual orientation, religion, and mental health found, on
111 average, religiosity related to better mental health for LGBQ individuals (Lefevor et al., 2021).
112 However, it was noted that several studies found religiosity related to poorer mental health for
113 LGBQ individuals. Research specifically examining suicidality, sexual orientation, and religion
114 is sparse and contains contradictory findings. For instance, an Austrian study found religious
115 affiliation negatively related to suicidality for LGB individuals (Kralovec et al., 2014) with
116 another study finding LGBT individuals who left their religion at greater risk for suicidality than
117 those who stayed (Gibbs & Goldbach, 2015). In contrast, one study found that among suicidal
118 same-sex attracted adolescents, high religiosity was associated with more suicide attempts
119 (Shearer et al., 2018). Similarly, a 2018 study by Lytle and colleagues (Lytle et al., 2018) found
120 instances where sexual minorities who felt religion or spirituality was important to their identity
121 were at increased risk for suicidality.

122 The same authors of the Lytle et al. 2018 study which found religiosity to be a risk factor,
123 published a 2015 study finding religiosity to be a protective factor: LGB individuals not

124 religiously affiliated reporting higher suicidality than Christian LGB individuals (Lytle et al.,
125 2015). The seemingly contradictory findings between the 2015 and 2018 articles by the same
126 authors are interesting given both used data from the University of Texas at Austin’s Research
127 Consortium (Consortium), though the data were collected at different times—the earlier article
128 using data from 2006 and the later article using data from 2011.

129 One possible reason for the disparate findings is the different ways constructs were
130 operationalized. In the 2015 study (Lytle et al., 2015), religion was measured as simply
131 affiliation, and in the 2018 study (Lytle et al., 2018) “religiosity” was operationalized with the
132 item: “How important are your religious or spiritual beliefs to your personal identity?”

133 Unfortunately, either definition likely obscures variability in individuals’ connection to
134 religion. Indeed, in much of the research on suicide and religiosity, the religiosity variables are
135 often narrow, lacking nuance (see Lawrence et al., 2016). A single item question about affiliation
136 does not capture activity within the religion nor does it capture strength of belief. Similarly, a
137 single item question on the importance of religious/spiritual beliefs does not capture the depth of
138 connection to a religious community or activity in that community. It also confounds religion
139 and spirituality which are often conceptualized as separate, though related constructs (see
140 Baumsteiger & Chenneville, 2015). Thus, each of these single item measures may mask
141 important differences and lead to differing results across studies.

142 To more fully address the relationship between religiosity and suicidality, more complete
143 conceptualizations and operationalizations of religiosity are needed. For instance, King, Ramos,
144 and Clardy define religiosity as “the extent to which an individual has a relationship with a
145 particular institutionalized doctrine about ultimate reality. This relationship occurs through
146 affiliation with an organized religion, participation in its prescribed rituals and practices, and

147 assent to its espoused beliefs” (2013, p. 515). This definition of religiosity provides a more
148 holistic view of religiosity by including aspects of affiliation, participation, and belief. When
149 only one of these dimensions is measured, an incomplete view is presented. For instance, from
150 the Lytle et al. 2018 research, when responding to the question about religious/spiritual beliefs,
151 individuals may select the highest value (“very important”) yet have no connection to religion.
152 Unfortunately, such single item measures are not uncommon in the literature (Kralovec et al.,
153 2014; Lytle et al., 2015, 2018; Shearer et al., 2018).

154 **Current Study**

155 The current study expands on previous work by Lytle et al. 2018 by analyzing the data
156 used in that study while employing a more holistic operationalization of religiosity. This
157 operationalization includes affiliation (found negatively associated with suicidality for LGB
158 individuals; Lytle et al., 2015) and importance of religious/spiritual beliefs (found positively
159 associated with suicidality for LGBQ individuals; Lytle et al., 2018). In addition, an indicator of
160 participation within the religion is included. Thus, the current study includes three aspects of
161 religiosity as outlined by King and colleagues (2013). Given rationale and evidence for both a
162 negative and positive relationship between suicidality and religiosity for LGBQ individuals, no
163 specific hypotheses are made.

164 In addition to these indicators of religiosity, the current study also examines the degree to
165 which religion is seen as helpful to LGBQ individuals’ coping with life’s challenges. Given their
166 findings, Lytle et al. (2018) suggested that mental health faith-based organizations (FBOs) “may
167 not be appropriate for LGBQ individuals in distress” (p. 649). Because Consortium data contain
168 reported helpfulness of various resources (including religion), the possibility that faith based
169 services are unhelpful is explored. If FBO’s are unhelpful to LGBQ individuals, it was expected

170 that connection to religion/spirituality would be less helpful than connections to organizations
171 such as university services or mental health professionals.

172 **Suicide-Related Constructs: Belongingness, Coherence, and Mindfulness**

173 The current study also expands previous work by including other suicide-related
174 constructs. Unfortunately, large scale studies often contain measures of suicidality limited to a
175 few binary items, such was the case in the 2011 Consortium data. Although these binary
176 measures are useful, they obscure variability in suicidality which is captured more
177 comprehensively with other well validated measures (see Batterham et al., 2015). The current
178 study therefore also includes suicide-related constructs within the Consortium data that are more
179 precisely measured than single binary items. These constructs include belongingness, coherence,
180 and mindfulness.

181 Regarding belongingness, the Interpersonal Theory of Suicide conceptualizes thwarted
182 belongingness as a proximal and sufficient cause of passive suicidal ideation, particularly when it
183 is enduring (Chu et al., 2017). This borrows from Durkheim's theory of social integration
184 (Durkheim, 1897; Stark et al., 1983) and Baumeister and Leary's (1995) conceptualization of
185 "belonging" as a fundamental human need, without which, individuals may experience
186 substantial distress that can lead to the desire to die.

187 Regarding coherence, a strong sense of coherence is defined as "a way of seeing the
188 world which facilitated successful coping with the innumerable, complex stressors confronting
189 us" (Antonovsky, 1993, p. 725). When an individual has a strong sense of coherence they sense
190 they are able to obtain the resources to overcome the challenges of life and have a sense that life
191 is comprehensible and worthwhile. These capacities are hypothesized to lower suicidality with
192 several studies finding such an association (Drum et al., 2017; Ristkari et al., 2005; Sjöström et

193 al., 2012).

194 Finally, mindfulness has been conceptualized as “paying attention in a particular way: on
195 purpose, moment-by-moment, and nonjudgmentally” (Kabat-Zinn, 2009). This awareness is
196 hypothesized to help individuals whose minds are dominated with suicidal cognitions by
197 promoting a relationship with those cognitions such that individuals can evaluate and distance
198 themselves from them (Chesin et al., 2015; Lamis & Dvorak, 2014; Williams et al., 2006).

199 As with suicide, it may be religiosity is both positively and negatively related to
200 belonging, coherence, and mindfulness. While religiosity may enhance these, given minority
201 stress theory (Meyer, 2003), it is also possible that for LGBQ individuals religiosity is related to
202 feeling marginalized rather than belonging, feeling a sense of incoherence rather than coherence
203 (e.g., “Does my religion’s theology capture my experience?”), and feeling mentally agitated and
204 clouded rather than mindful.

205 Method

206 Sample

207 This study draws on data used in Lytle et al.’s (2018) study: the 2011 Consortium’s
208 “Survey of Distress, Suicidality, and Student Coping” ($n = 26,292$). Data came from 74 higher
209 education institutions and was an online, self-administered questionnaire (further details are
210 published elsewhere; Drum et al., 2017). As with Lytle et al. (2018), the sample used is restricted
211 to those less than 30 years-old and with sexual orientation data ($n = 20,991$). So as to preserve
212 more information, no other observations are dropped due to missing data. The sample was 37.0%
213 ($n = 7,757$) male, 63.1% (13,234) female, with an average age of 22.5 years ($SD = 3.3$; range 18-
214 30). Regarding suicide, 4.2% ($n = 875$) of the sample had considered suicide in the last 12 month
215 and 1.0% ($n = 216$) of the sample had attempted suicide in the last 12 months. 5.8% ($n = 1,220$)

216 of the sample had attempted suicide and some point in their life. The sample was 70.2% ($n =$
217 14,745) White, 10.7% ($n = 2,236$) Asian, 5.5% ($n = 1,159$) Latino/a, 3.7% ($n = 775$) Black, and
218 9.9% ($n = 2,076$) “other.” The largest single religious affiliation was Catholic (20.3%, $n = 4,246$),
219 followed by Protestant (16.9%, $n = 3,529$), a generic “Christian” designation (14.9%, $n = 3,110$),
220 then no religion (14.8%, $n = 3,106$), and Atheist/Agnostic (13.6%, $n = 2,844$) with other
221 religions making up the rest of the sample. Overall, 71.6% ($n = 14,989$) of the sample indicated
222 some religious affiliation.

223 **Measures**

224 **Suicidality.** Suicidality measures and the coding of those measures used here are
225 identical to Lytle et al. (2018): recent suicide ideation (*During the past 12 months, have you*
226 *seriously considered attempting suicide?*; 1=considered suicide, 0=not considered suicide),
227 lifetime suicide ideation (if suicide consideration was reported, participants were asked: *How*
228 *many times in your life have you attempted suicide?*, 0=never attempted, 1=one or more lifetime
229 attempts), and recent suicide attempts (if lifetime attempts were reported, participants were
230 asked: *How many of those attempts occurred in the past 12 months?*, 1=at least one attempt in
231 the last 12 months, 0=no attempts in the last 12 months.).

232 **Sexual orientation.** Participants were asked: *How would you describe your sexual*
233 *orientation?* Responses included: *bisexual, gay or lesbian, heterosexual, questioning, and other.*
234 Following Lytle et al. (2018), those who indicated “straight” or “heterosexual” in the *other*
235 category were recoded as heterosexual (125) and one individual who responded “homosexual”
236 was categorized *gay or lesbian*. Sample sizes were: heterosexual $n = 19,577$; lesbian/gay $n = 485$;
237 bisexual $n = 696$; and questioning $n = 233$. Sample sizes match Lytle et al. (2018) except the
238 current study has one additional heterosexual (it is unclear why).

239 **Religiosity.** Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to generate the religiosity
240 variable (see Brown, 2015). Within factor analysis, a set of items are used as “indicators,” their
241 common variance identified, and a variable is generated representing their overlap. This method
242 is preferred over mean scores as the nonoverlapping variance (i.e., the “error”) is removed.
243 Factor analytic advances allow for indicators of various distributions including continuous,
244 ordinal, and multinomial (i.e., unordered categories).

245 Religiosity indicators were: religious/spiritual preference (an indication of
246 denomination), religious activity, and importance of religious/spiritual beliefs. For
247 religious/spiritual preference, participants were also asked: *What is your religious or spiritual*
248 *preference* with 14 possible responses including: *Buddhist, Christian, Hindu, Jewish, None,*
249 *Agnostic, Atheist,* etc. For this study, responses were coded 1=religious preference selected,
250 2=None, and 3=Atheist or Agnostic. That is, those who had a religious preference were grouped
251 together and compared with those who had no religious preference (i.e., none) and those who
252 identified as atheist or agnostic. Although comparing across more religious preferences is an
253 important area of research (e.g., the differences between Christians and Hindus), such nuances
254 are outside the scope of the current study.

255 To obtain the salience of religious/spiritual beliefs, participants were asked: *How*
256 *important are your religious or spiritual beliefs to your personal identity?* Responses ranged
257 from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*very important*). For religious activity the question was asked:
258 *Of the following activities, in which do you actively participate as either a member or in a*
259 *leadership role?* with *Religious organizations* as an option. This variable was coded 1=*Member*
260 *or Leadership* or 0=*Not involved*.

261 A CFA in Mplus 8.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) was fit with these three variables as

262 indicators. Religious preference was specified as a multinomial indicator (i.e., an unordered
263 categorical variable) and importance of religious/spiritual beliefs and activity were specified as
264 ordinal. See Table 2 for measurement properties. With multinomial indicators, model fit such as
265 CFI and RMSEA are not available. Evidence of good fit were high standardized estimates for
266 religious/spiritual beliefs and activity. For religious preference, analyses found religious
267 preference overlapped with 60% of the variance in the religiosity factor score, indicating a
268 substantial amount of the religious preference variable was contained with the factor score. The
269 factor score of “religiosity” based on these three indicators was exported for analyses and
270 standardized for interpretability. Combining information from all three items is an important
271 extension of previous religiosity work using these data.

272 **Belonging, mindfulness, and coherence.** Belonging, mindfulness, and coherence were
273 self-reported and, to remove measurement error, CFAs in Mplus were specified and factor scores
274 exported. For CFA, “maximal reliability” (MR) is the appropriate reliability index rather than
275 Cronbach’s alpha (Raykov, 2012). Belonging was measured with a five-item scale with items
276 including: *How cared for by others do you feel?* (Becker et al., 2018). Mindfulness was
277 measured with the 10-item Cognitive and Affective Mindfulness Scale-Revised (Feldman et al.,
278 2006). Items included: *It is easy for me to concentrate on what I am doing* and *I am able to*
279 *accept the thoughts and feelings I have.* The sense of coherence scale measured the degree to
280 which life is comprehensible, manageable and meaningful (Antonovsky, 1993). Questions
281 included: *When approaching the challenges of daily life: How critical are you of yourself?* MR
282 was excellent for belonging (.90), mindfulness (.91), and coherence (.96).

283 **Coping resources.** In order to determine how helpful various forms of assistance were in
284 coping with stress, participants were asked: *From the list below, please indicate how the*

285 *following impacted your ability to cope during the most stressful time?* Responses ranged from 1
286 *(Considerably reduced my ability to cope)* to 5 *(Considerably improved my ability to cope)*.
287 Analyses compare the helpfulness of: a) *connection to religion, spirituality or a higher power*; b)
288 *connection with your college or university*; c) *connection with a mental health professional*; d)
289 *involvement in extracurricular groups, activities, or communities*; and e) *resources available on*
290 *campus (e.g., student services, health center, counseling center, career center)*.

291 **Controls.** Controls included age, race (1=white, 0=nonwhite), income, participant's
292 relationship status (1=in a relationship, 0=single), and whether the participant was international
293 (1=international, 0=not international).

294 **Missing Data**

295 Missing data were imputed with Stata's ICE command (Royston, 2005) which uses
296 stochastic regression. This is the preferred single imputation method as studies suggest it
297 produces parameter estimates similar to maximum likelihood and multiple imputation (Enders,
298 2010). Imputing data avoids a fluctuating sample across analyses. For instance, Lytle et al.
299 (2018) report 233 questioning individuals but analytic samples ranged from 177 to 229, a more
300 than 20% change. A larger and consistent sample is used here providing additional power and
301 uses all available data. Sexual orientation was not imputed with those missing this datum
302 dropped ($n = 256$). Like Lytle et al. (2018), those over 30-years-old or with age missing were
303 dropped. For variables used in the analyses, missing data within the analytic sample ranged from
304 0% to 4% and were imputed.

305 **Statistical Analysis**

306 Lytle et al.'s (2018) analyses of the relationship between religious/spiritual beliefs and
307 suicidality were replicated, providing a base from which to add two enhancements. The first

308 enhancement is that imputation was used. The second enhancement is that rather than conducting
309 separate regressions for each sexual orientation, a single regression was used with sexual
310 orientation included as an unordered categorical variable and an interaction between it and
311 importance of religious/spiritual beliefs was included. Because regression parameters in a
312 logistic regression (e.g., odds-ratio) depend on the mean of all the independent variables, for
313 comparisons it is important to hold independent variables to the same mean across groups when
314 comparing regression parameters (Long & Freese, 2014). This can be accomplished most
315 directly with a single regression (code available upon request).

316 These same analyses were again conducted but with the factor score measuring religiosity
317 as the primary independent variable rather than the single item of importance of
318 religion/spirituality. Regression analyses were then conducted separately for the outcomes of
319 belongingness, mindfulness, and coherence with the religiosity factor score as the primary
320 independent variable.

321 Finally, the degree to which LGBQ individuals indicated: “Connection to religion,
322 spirituality or a higher power” helped them cope was examined. This was compared to the
323 helpfulness of other resources. A MANOVA was used with resources as dependent variables and
324 sexual orientation as a predictor. Marginal means for the resources across sexual orientation are
325 calculated and statistically compared.

326 One set of Lytle et al.’s (2018) analyses included stratifying by gender and importance of
327 religion/spirituality. These analyses were attempted but not included here. For these analyses,
328 excepting for heterosexuals, cell sizes were small and parameter instability became a serious
329 concern. Lytle et al. (2018) recognized estimates produced in these analyses were unstable. In
330 several instances, Lytle et al. (2018) found large odds-ratio 95% confidence intervals (one

331 ranging from 5.62 to 787.12). Despite the instability, Lytle et al. conclude that “results suggested
332 the strongest effects among the group for whom religion was very important” (p. 648). However,
333 no statistical comparisons were made. Given the substantial issues conducting such analyses with
334 small cell sizes, they are not replicated here.

335 Lytle et al. (2018) also considered $p < .10$ statistically significant. Of the seven
336 parameters they indicated significant for LGBTQ individuals (see Lytle et al., 2018 Table 2), only
337 three were significant at $p < .05$. Parameters here will be considered significant at the more
338 conventional standard of $p < .05$.

339 All analyses controlled for the same variables as Lytle et al. (2018): race, age, gender,
340 partnership status, and international status.

341 In sum, analyses proceeded in the following steps:

- 342 1) Replicated Lytle et al. (2018) analyses using identical methods to verify results.
- 343 2) Replicated Lytle et al. (2018) analyses with the following enhancements: a) single
344 regression for appropriate comparisons across groups and b) imputing missing values.
- 345 3) Replicated Lytle et al. (2018) analyses with the enhancements from Step 2 but using
346 the factor score of religiosity (i.e., more holistic measure of religiosity) rather than the
347 more narrow measure used in Lytle et al. (2018).
- 348 4) Examined the relationship between the religiosity factor score and belonging,
349 mindfulness, and coherence.
- 350 5) Compared how helpful various resources were in coping with life difficulties (e.g.,
351 compared connection to religion/spirituality to mental health services and university
352 services).

353 The question of how to include transgender individuals in the analyses was also

354 considered. Analyses were fit twice, once with transgender individuals in the sample and again
355 with transgender individuals not in the sample. With one exception (noted below), results were
356 substantively identical in both sets of analyses, and transgender individuals were retained in
357 models reported here.

358 **Results**

359 See Table 1 for sample descriptives and correlations. The correlation between the
360 religiosity factor score and the variable of religious/spiritual beliefs was .88, indicating
361 substantial overlap between the two. Though, the religiosity factor score significantly correlated
362 with age and race; whereas the variable of religious/spiritual beliefs did not. Further, the
363 religiosity factor score was more strongly correlated with ideation than was the single item of
364 religious/spiritual beliefs. Thus, although slight, it appears the religiosity factor score displays
365 more predictive validity than does the religious/spiritual beliefs item. In concert with research
366 cited above, belonging, mindfulness, and coherence were all significantly correlated with the
367 three suicide indicators ($p < .001$ in all instances). Correlations with lifetime attempts were:
368 belonging: -.17, mindfulness: -.09, and coherence: -.13. Correlations with recent attempt were:
369 belonging: -.12, mindfulness: -.09, and coherence: -.09. Correlations with suicide ideation were:
370 belonging: -.23, mindfulness: -.17, and coherence: -.18.

371 **Step 1 and 2: Importance of Religious/Spiritual Beliefs**

372 Analyses from Lytle et al. (2018) Table 2 (importance of religion/spiritual beliefs
373 predicting suicidality) were undertaken, and results were replicated, confirming findings. As an
374 enhancement, a single regression with imputed data was fit with an interaction between sexual
375 orientation and importance of religions/spiritual beliefs (see Table 3). Marginal effects were
376 calculated (see Long & Freese, 2014) to determine the relationship between religious/spiritual

377 beliefs and suicidality for each sexual orientation. For recent suicide ideation, the relationship
378 was significant for heterosexuals ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = -.30$, 95% CI = $-.48, -.12$) and questioning
379 ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = 4.38$, CI = $.86, 7.90$). These estimates are interpreted as: “For heterosexuals, for
380 every one-unit increase in importance of religious/spiritual beliefs, the probability of recent
381 suicide ideation decreases by .30%” and “For questioning persons, for every one-unit increase in
382 importance of religious/spiritual beliefs, the probability of recent suicide ideation increases by
383 4.38%.” For heterosexuals, the relationships between religious/spiritual beliefs and recent suicide
384 attempts ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = -.15$, 95% CI = $-.22, -.08$) and lifetime attempts ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = -.40$,
385 95% CI = $-.60, -.19$) were significant. Importance of religions/spiritual beliefs were not
386 significantly related to recent or lifetime attempts for LGBTQ individuals.

387 **Step 3: Religiosity Factor Score**

388 The religiosity factor score was interacted with sexual orientation to predict suicidality
389 (see Table 3). The relationship between religiosity and suicide ideation was negative and
390 significant for heterosexuals ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = -.53$, 95% CI = $-.79, -.28$) and positive and
391 significant for lesbians/gays ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = 3.48$, 95% CI = $.57, 6.39$). These should be
392 interpreted as: “For heterosexuals, for every standard deviation increased in religiosity, there is a
393 .53% decrease in the probability of recent suicide ideation” and “For lesbians/gays, for every
394 standard deviation increased in religiosity, there is a 3.48% increase in the probability of recent
395 suicide ideation.” For heterosexuals there was a negative significant relationship between
396 religiosity and recent suicide attempt ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = -.17$, 95% CI = $-.28, -.07$) and lifetime
397 suicide attempt ($\text{Pr}(\text{suicidality}) = -.41$, 95% CI = $-.71, -.11$). No significant relationship was found
398 between religiosity and attempts for other sexual orientation groups.

399 **Step 4: Belonging, Mindfulness, and Coherence**

400 See Table 4 for results. For heterosexuals, religiosity was significantly and positively
401 associated with mindfulness ($b(\text{religiosity})=.07$, 95% CI=.06,.08; $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.13$),
402 belongingness ($b(\text{religiosity})=.06$, 95% CI=.06,.07; $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.12$), and coherence
403 ($b(\text{religiosity})=.02$, 95% CI=.02,.03; $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.05$). For lesbians/gays, religiosity was
404 positively associated with belongingness ($b(\text{religiosity})=.07$, 95% CI=.02,.12;
405 $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.13$). For bisexuals, religiosity was positively associated with mindfulness
406 ($b(\text{religiosity})=.08$, 95% CI=.03,.13; $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.14$), belongingness ($b(\text{religiosity})=.06$, 95%
407 CI=.02,.11; $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.11$), and coherence ($b(\text{religiosity})=.04$, 95% CI=.01,.08;
408 $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.11$). And for questioning individuals, religiosity was positively associated with
409 mindfulness ($b(\text{religiosity})=.12$, 95% CI=.04,.20; $b^*(\text{religiosity})=.21$). Standardized results for
410 each of these (i.e., b^*) indicated a relatively small effect size of religiosity.

411 **Step 5: Coping Resources**

412 Table 5 contains marginal means from MANOVA analyses. All means were adjusted for
413 controls, and pairwise tests of means were undertaken. Only significant differences between
414 connection with religion/spirituality and the other resources are reported. For heterosexuals,
415 connection with religion improved their ability to cope more than all other coping mechanisms
416 tested. For lesbians/gays, religion was more helpful than connection with the university and less
417 helpful than involvement with extracurricular activities. For bisexuals, connection to
418 religion/spirituality was more helpful than connection with a university, mental health
419 professionals, and campus resources (e.g., health and counseling centers). Religion was less
420 helpful than extracurricular groups. For questioning individuals, religion/spirituality was more
421 helpful than connection with a university. When these analyses were run without those who were
422 transgender, for lesbian/gays, religious/spirituality was no longer significantly higher than

423 connection with the university (the p -value became .058 rather than .046).

424 **Discussion**

425 The current study extended earlier work by Lytle et al. (2015) who found religiosity a
426 *protective* factor for LGBQ individuals and Lytle et al. (2018) who found religiosity a *risk* factor
427 for LGBQ individuals. As with much of the research in this area, the Lytle et al. 2015 and 2018
428 studies used narrow definitions of religiosity (i.e., “affiliation” in 2015 and “importance of
429 religion and spirituality” in 2018). Further, in these studies, suicidality was measured with simple
430 binary variables. Using the same data and identical measures, the current study was able to
431 replicate Lytle et al. (2018) findings, noting that many findings they reported were not significant
432 at $p < .05$ and several of their parameter estimates were unstable (something the authors noted
433 but accepted and interpreted despite the limitations).

434 When methodological advances (i.e., imputation and single regression) were used to
435 replicate Lytle et al.’s (2018) analyses, only one significant finding emerged for LGBQ
436 individuals: a significant positive relationship between ideation and importance of
437 religious/spiritual beliefs for questioning individuals. It is interesting that only one significant
438 relationship was found despite the increased power of the analyses due to the larger sample. This
439 speaks to the need for increased attention to missing data and treating missingness appropriately.
440 Interestingly, (as more fully addressed below) positive associations between religiosity and well-
441 being for LGBQ individuals were found for outcomes that were better measured than suicidality
442 (i.e., belongingness, mindfulness, and coherence).

443 Further, the current study also analyzed the data used by Lytle et al. (2018), but employed
444 a more holistic measure of religiosity which included affiliation, active participation in religion,
445 and importance of religion/spirituality. This study also examined the interaction between sexual

446 orientation and religiosity as they predicted other constructs found related to (and far better
447 measured than) suicidality (i.e., belonging, mindfulness, and coherence).

448 Using the more holistic measure of religiosity, results were somewhat reflective of both
449 Lytle et al.'s 2015 and 2018 pieces, finding religiosity associated with both more and less risk
450 depending on the outcome variable. This may be because the measure of religiosity includes
451 aspects of both studies (with the addition of religious activity). For lesbians/gays, the religiosity
452 factor score (the more holistic measure of religiosity) was positively associated with both
453 ideation (risk) and belonging (protection). When religiosity was significantly associated with
454 measures of well-being for bisexuals and questioning individuals, it was indicative of better well-
455 being. Religiosity was not associated with lifetime or recent suicide attempts for LGBQ
456 individuals. However, across all six outcomes in this study (the three suicidality measures and
457 belongingness, mindfulness, and coherence) religiosity was associated with better mental well-
458 being for heterosexuals.

459 The final analyses examined how helpful various resources were in coping with life
460 difficulties. Findings from these analyses suggest religion/spirituality may be more helpful to
461 LGBQ individuals than indicated by Lytle et al. (2018) who suggested religious based services
462 may not benefit LGBQ individuals. In contrast, analyses here found LGBQ individuals rated
463 religious/spiritual resources higher than a university connection and equally with mental health
464 professionals and campus resources (bisexuals rated religious/spiritual connection higher than
465 mental health professionals). Given this, to suggest religious/spiritual resources are unhelpful
466 may discourage connections with coping strategies that are at least as helpful, if not more
467 helpful, than university and mental health resources.

468 In all, findings suggest a much more nuanced view of how religiosity and sexual

469 orientation interact in predicting suicidality and other related correlates. One reason for
470 conflicting findings in previous research is likely poor measurement of both religiosity and
471 suicidality across studies. In studies with single item religiosity measures, substantial variation in
472 religiosity is obscured and, with such measures, one is unable to tie into most theoretical models
473 of religiosity which have more fine-tuned definitions of religiosity. Indeed, regarding religiosity,
474 much more conceptual clarity is needed in studies. Research should also move beyond single
475 item dichotomous measures of suicidality or also include other related, better measured
476 constructs.

477 **Limitations**

478 Given the data are cross-sectional, it is not possible to examine causal pathways. It may
479 be, for instance, that LGBQ individuals disaffiliate with religion at a higher rate than non-LGBQ
480 individuals due to difficult experiences within the religion. As religious disaffiliation is
481 predictive of poorer mental health (Gibbs & Goldbach, 2015), it may be that the effect of
482 religiosity on suicide is underestimated here. Further, data are self-reported: independent
483 observations will be important to confirm findings.

484 Although this study moved past a single item measure of religiosity, the religiosity
485 measure used remains limited. Basic scales such as strength of religious faith (for instance using
486 the Santa Clara strength of religious faith questionnaire; Plante & Boccaccini, 1997) and
487 frequency of attendance at worship services (an indicator of integration into the religious
488 community) are not included because they were not asked in the Consortium study.

489 Data also do not contain information about whether the religion was supportive of
490 homosexuality. This is a major limitation carried through much of the research in this area. Thus,
491 although this study does improve upon past research and provides direction for future research,

492 better measures of religiosity are sorely needed. For LGBTQ individuals there is likely an issue of
493 “goodness-of-fit” between their sexual identity and their religious identity. It would be expected
494 that the better the fit, the more protective religiosity would be. As Dean et al. (in press) have
495 shown, this goodness-of fit may not necessarily be affirming of homosexuality, but rather it may
496 be the religion affirms their various other beliefs.

497 Further, the Consortium question regarding religious affiliation contained some
498 confounds. For example, an individual could have selected *Christian* if they did not belong to
499 any particular denomination but identified with that tradition. Or, they could have selected
500 *Christian* if they belonged to a Christian denomination not listed in the survey. Although the
501 current study did include an item regarding activity in a religion (lessening this concern), future
502 research will need to examine denominational differences. Still, even with this ambiguity,
503 separating out those who had a religious preference from those who identified as “none” or
504 Atheist/Agnostic is an important distinction made in the current analyses. Similarly, it is likely
505 there are differences between religious groups. Combining Christians with all others likely
506 obscures some important variance. However, differences between Atheists and Agnostics and
507 differences between religious groups were not made in the previous work by Lytle et al. (2018).
508 However, for comparisons sake, this work used methods as close to Lytle et al. (2018) in which
509 these distinctions were also not made. Though these distinctions should be made in future work.

510 **Conclusion**

511 Results are consistent with hypotheses that LGBTQ individuals may not derive the same
512 protection from religion as heterosexuals regarding suicidality. However, results also suggest
513 LGBTQ individuals may derive benefits from religion in other areas of well-being (see Table 4).
514 Further, LGBTQ individuals rate connection with religion/spirituality relatively high in helping

515 them cope with stressful circumstances. Although religiosity was related to suicide ideation for
516 lesbians/gays, the risk was less prominent than reported by Lytle et al. (2018).

517 In order for this research area to progress, far more conceptual clarity and methodological
518 rigor is required. For instance, researchers must carefully justify operationalizations and indicate
519 why the construct they chose theoretically connects to suicidality. Comparisons should then be
520 made to studies with similar constructs, being careful not to confound affiliation, religiosity, and
521 spirituality with one another. By incorporating such rigor, this research area will continue to
522 illuminate risk factors for the most vulnerable and provide implications for desperately needed
523 interventions.

524

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Table 1
Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Analytic Sample. n = 20,991

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1.Ideation	--																			
2.Recent Attempt	.39*	--																		
3.Life Attempt	.23*	.41*	--																	
4.Religiosity	-.03*	-.03*	-.03*	--																
5.Relig./Spirit Blf. ^a	-.02*	-.03*	-.03*	.88*	--															
6.Heterosexual	-.09*	-.08*	-.13*	.11*	.09*	--														
7.Lesbian/Gay	.02*	.02*	.05*	-.07*	-.07*	-.57*	--													
8.Bisexual	.07*	.07*	.11*	-.07*	-.05*	-.69*	-.03*	--												
9.Questioning	.07*	.05*	.05*	-.02*	-.03*	-.39*	-.02*	-.02*	--											
10.Male	-.02*	-.02*	-.05*	-.07*	-.05*	-.01	.08*	-.05*	-.01	--										
11.Age	-.04*	-.03*	.00	-.02*	-.01	.00	.02*	.00	-.04*	.06*	--									
12.White	-.01*	-.04*	-.05*	.05*	.01	.03*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.03*	--								
13.Single	.04*	.03*	.00	.02*	.03*	-.03*	.02*	-.01	.06*	.06*	-.23*	-.10*	--							
14.International	-.02*	.02*	.00	-.12*	-.08*	-.03*	-.01*	.04*	.02*	.09*	.20*	-.40*	.05*	--						
15.Cope Religion	-.04*	-.04*	-.04*	.60*	.60*	.09*	-.06*	-.06*	-.03*	-.07*	.02*	-.00	.02*	-.05*	--					
16.Cope University	-.07*	-.05*	-.05*	.03*	.03*	.01*	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.00	.02*	.03*	.24*	--				
17.Cope Mental H ^b	.07*	.02*	.04*	-.01	-.00	-.04*	.02*	.02*	.03*	-.07*	.07*	.05*	-.01	-.04*	.20*	.34*	--			
18.Cope Extra Curr ^c	-.03*	-.03*	-.03*	.07*	.06*	.01*	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.06*	.02*	.02*	-.02*	.23*	.37*	.29*	--		
19.Cope Campus ^d	.01*	-.00	-.00	-.01	.00	-.03*	.02*	.01*	.02*	-.04*	.02*	-.01*	.01	.01	.20*	.44*	.70*	.37*	--	
Mean	.04	.01	.06	.00	3.11	.93	.02	.03	.01	.37	22.53	.70	.37	.09	3.43	2.93	2.88	3.21	2.90	
SD	.20	.10	.23	1	1.42	.25	.15	.18	.10	.48	3.27	.28	.48	.29	1.06	.92	.89	.97	.87	

^a Importance of Religious/Spiritual Beliefs, ^b Connection with Mental Health Services impacted ability to cope. ^c Involvement in extracurricular groups impacted ability to cope. ^d Campus resources impacted ability to cope.

* < p .05

Table 2
Religiosity Factor Score Parameters

Loadings(se)	
<i>Items</i>	
Active in Religion	1.00(.00)
Religious/Spiritual Beliefs	.65(.03)
<i>Religious Preference</i> (base: indicated a religious preference)	
None	-1.07(.05)
Atheist/Agnostic	-.72(.04)
Intercepts(se)	
<i>Religious Preference</i> (base: indicated a religious preference)	
None	-3.74(.12)
Atheist/Agnostic	-2.39(.06)
Thresholds(se)	
Active in Religion	2.53(.09)
<i>Religious/Spiritual Beliefs</i> (base: very important)	
1 Not important	-2.79(.05)
2	-1.25(.03)
3 Moderately Important	.95(.03)
4	2.17(.04)

Note. All estimates significant at $p < .001$

Table 3

Importance of Religion/Spirituality and Religiosity Predicting Suicidality by Sexual Orientation with Imputation and Single Regression. n = 20,991

	Heterosexual	Lesbian\Gay	Bisexual	Questioning
	Pr(suicidality)(ci)	Pr(suicidality)(ci)	Pr(suicidality)(ci)	Pr(suicidality)(ci)
<i>Importance of Religious/Spiritual Beliefs</i>				
Recent Suicide Ideation	-.03** (-.48, -.12)	1.77 (-.20, 3.74)	.36 (-1.36, 2.09)	4.38* (.86, 7.90)
Recent Suicide Attempt	-.15*** (-.22,-.08)	.14 (-1.01, .73)	-.01 (-1.00, .81)	1.53 (-.12, 3.18)
Lifetime Suicide Attempt	-.40*** (-.61,-.20)	.39 (-2.16, 2.94)	1.27 (-0.86, 3.40)	2.90 (-0.79, 6.59)
<i>Religiosity Factor Score</i>				
Recent Suicide Ideation	-.53** (-.79, -.28)	3.48* (.57, 6.39)	.34 (-2.44, 3.13)	3.93 (-1.38, 9.23)
Recent Suicide Attempt	-.17*** (-.28,-.07)	.14 (-1.17, 1.45)	-.23 (-1.68, 1.23)	1.76 (-.91, 4.44)
Lifetime Suicide Attempt	-.41** (-.71,-.11)	2.78 (-.92, 6.48)	1.01 (-2.29, 4.50)	2.29 (-3.26, 7.84)

* p < .05. **p < .01. *** p < .001

Parameters in percentage change in likelihood of suicidality for a one unit increase in *Importance of Religion/Spirituality* or the religiosity factor score.

Example interpretation: "For every one unit increase in the religiosity factor score, the predicted recent suicide ideation decreases by .53 for heterosexuals."

Table 4

Religiosity Factor Score Associations with Mindfulness, Belongingness, and Coherence Stratified by Sexual Orientation. n = 20,991

	Heterosexual		Lesbian\Gay		Bisexual		Questioning	
	b(religiosity)(ci)		b(religiosity)(ci)		b(religiosity)(ci)		b(religiosity) (ci)	
<i>Mental Health</i>								
Mindfulness	.07***	(.06, .08)	.02	(-.03, .08)	.08***	(.03, .13)	.12**	(.04, .20)
Belongingness	.06***	(.06, .07)	.07*	(.02, .12)	.06**	(.02, .11)	.04	(-.04, .11)
Coherence	.02***	(.02, .03)	.01	(-.02, .05)	.04*	(.01, .08)	-.01	(-.06, .04)

* p < .05. **p < .01. *** p < .001

Example interpretation: “For every one unit increase in the religiosity factor score, the average mindfulness score is .07 higher for heterosexuals.”

Table 5

MANOVA Post-hoc Comparisons Within Sexual Orientation of Impact of Coping Resources. n = 20,991

<i>Resource</i>	Heterosexual		Lesbian\Gay		Bisexual		Questioning	
	Mean	(ci)	Mean	(ci)	Mean	(ci)	Mean	(ci)
Connection with Religion/Spirituality	3.46 ^{UMEC}	(3.45, 3.48)	3.05 ^{UE}	(2.95, 3.14)	3.07 ^{UMC}	(2.99, 3.15)	3.13 ^U	(2.99, 3.26)
Connection with University	2.94 ^R	(2.93, 2.95)	2.93 ^R	(2.85, 3.02)	2.87 ^R	(2.81, 2.94)	2.81 ^R	(2.69, 2.93)
Connection with Mental Health Professional	2.87 ^R	(2.85, 2.88)	3.03	(2.95, 3.11)	2.97 ^R	(2.91, 3.04)	3.15	(3.03, 3.26)
Involvement with Extracurricular Groups	3.22 ^R	(3.20, 3.23)	3.21 ^R	(3.12, 3.30)	3.16	(3.09, 3.23)	3.07	(2.95, 3.20)
Campus Resources (e.g., health center, counseling center)	2.89 ^R	(2.88, 2.91)	3.01	(2.93, 3.09)	2.96 ^R	(2.89, 3.02)	3.09	(2.97, 3.20)

^USignificantly different from Connection with University, ^MSignificantly different from connection with mental health professional, ^ESignificantly different from Involvement with extracurricular groups, ^CSignificantly different from campus resources.

Significant differences are at $p < .05$ or lower.

All comparisons are made within sexual orientation, not across and only report comparisons to “Connection with Religion/Spirituality.”