



Published in final edited form as:

LGBT Health. 2014 September 1; 1(3): 177–184. doi:10.1089/lgbt.2014.0009.

Transgender Health Disparities: Comparing Full Cohort and Nested Matched-Pair Study Designs in a Community Health Center

Sari L. Reisner, MA, ScD^{1,2}, Jaclyn M. White, MPH², Judith B. Bradford, PhD², and Matthew J. Mimiaga, ScD, MPH^{1,2,3}

Jaclyn M. White: jwhite@fenwayhealth.org; Judith B. Bradford: jbradford@fenwayhealth.org; Matthew J. Mimiaga: mmimiaga@hsph.harvard.edu

¹Department of Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA

²The Fenway Institute at Fenway Health, Boston, MA, USA

³Department of Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School/Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA

Abstract

Purpose—U.S. health surveillance systems infrequently include measures to identify transgender respondents or monitor the health of this underserved and marginalized population.

Methods—From 2001–2002, transgender and non-transgender adults were sampled at a Massachusetts clinic. Health differences were formatively examined by transgender identity using a cross-sectional, clinic-based sample (n=2,653); and a nested matched-pair subsample (n=155).

Results—Both designs produced virtually identical findings: (1) the prevalence of HIV, substance abuse, and smoking did not differ significantly for transgender and non-transgender patients; (2) transgender patients were more likely to endorse a lifetime suicide attempt and ideation compared to non-transgender patients ($p<0.05$); (3) transgender patients disproportionately reported social stressors (violence, discrimination, childhood abuse) relative to non-transgender patients ($p<0.05$).

Conclusion—Findings suggest that a nested design may provide an effective methodology for using clinical data to study transgender health, and underscore the need for routine collection of gender identity in clinical settings.

Corresponding Author: Sari L. Reisner, MA, ScD, Department of Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA, The Fenway Institute, Fenway Health, 1340 Boylston St., Boston, MA 02215, Phone: 617-927-6017, sreisner@hsph.harvard.edu or sreisner@fenwayhealth.org.

The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NICHD or the National Institutes of Health.

DISCLAIMER

None to report.

AUTHOR DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

None to report.

Keywords

Health disparity; transgender; gender identity; methods; study design

INTRODUCTION

Transgender is an umbrella term used to describe people whose assigned sex at birth is not fully aligned or congruent with their current gender identity or expression.¹ Prior research has documented a high prevalence of adverse health outcomes in some transgender communities, including mental health distress and suicidality,²⁻⁴ substance use,⁵ cigarette smoking,⁶ and HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs).^{2, 7-16} Social stressors have also been shown to burden transgender subpopulations throughout development including experiences of verbal, physical, and/or sexual violence and victimization,^{4, 17-19} and discrimination in employment and healthcare.^{20, 21}

In the U.S., health surveillance systems do not routinely include standardized measures with which to identify transgender respondents to monitor the health of the transgender population.^{1, 22} As a consequence, a common methodological weakness of many studies in transgender health, especially those seeking to examine health disparities, is the lack of a cisgender (i.e., non-transgender) comparison group. Therefore, clinic settings such as community-based health centers that offer services to transgender people, represent important locales and potentially rich sources of data with which to study transgender health, particularly in urban areas.²³ Although not representative samples, clinic samples offer the novel opportunity to not only understand more about transgender people engaged in healthcare, but also to compare transgender and cisgender patients in order to document and understand health differences in specific special patient populations. These data can inform delivery of healthcare services at clinic sites, including funding and resource allocation, cultural competency training efforts, and contextualize transgender patient care.²⁴ Data can also be linked to electronic medical record data to obtain provider-documented diagnoses, biomarker information, and health insurance claims documenting healthcare utilization to increase the rigor of information obtained via self-reported surveys.

Despite the recognized potential of clinic-based data systems for transgender health,^{25, 26} there has been little methodological attention explicitly paid to study design issues and sampling of transgender patients in clinic settings for health research. The current study aims to fill this gap. Two research objectives are the focus of this analysis: (1) Feasibility: can a cross-sectional clinic-based sample of patients be used to document health disparities by transgender identity within an urban health clinic? (2) Efficiency: can the same study be designed more efficiently, using substantially less time and resources, and produce the same results? We formatively compare transgender and cisgender patients presenting for care at an urban community health center on key health and social stress indicators using two methods to investigate these research questions. First, we use a cross-sectional clinic-based sample (n=2653 - n=31 transgender; n=2,622 cisgender). Second, we use a nested matched-pair subsample (n=155 - n=31 transgender patients matched 4:1 to n=124 cisgender controls on age (+/-3 years), race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income).

METHODS

Study population

The present study used de-identified data from The Community Health Center Core Data Project. The Core Data Project was a survey of patients engaged in medical care from 2001–2002 at Fenway Community Health Center (FCHC) in Boston, Massachusetts.²⁷ This project was initially conceived as a quality improvement initiative to inform FCHC's practice and improve patient care. During a 12-month period, all medical patients were invited at intake to voluntarily complete a one-time self-report, paper-pencil one-page anonymous questionnaire to help FCHC improve programming and clinical care. The survey was designed with input from FCHC providers to collect information about experiences and health concerns believed to be important for sexual and gender minorities who make up a large proportion of FCHC patients. The objective of the project was to improve clinical care and not to contribute to generalizable knowledge; thus the project was determined to be a quality improvement activity and not research.^{28, 29} The de-identified data set, as defined by the Privacy Rule,³⁰ did not directly or indirectly contain identifiable information. As such, it was determined to be research not involving human subjects and therefore not requiring Institutional Review Board approval.

Study design

Gender identity was assessed using a single item. Participants were asked to describe their gender with response options “male”, “female”, and “transgender”. The inclusion of this question made this analysis possible. The full cohort sample (design 1) was comprised of 2,653 patients who participated in the Core Data Project and fully completed the survey. The nested matched-pair subsample (design 2) consisted of 155 patients drawn from the full cohort. In a nested case-control study, cases of a disease or condition that occur in a defined cohort are identified and, for each, a specified number of matched controls are selected from among those in the cohort who have not developed the disease.³¹ For the purposes of this study, we used a hybrid approach with a matched-pair design and defined “cases” as transgender patients (n=31). Controls matched 4:1 were selected from cisgender patients to control for confounding and improve statistical efficiency. For each transgender case, two cisgender female controls (n=62) and two cisgender male controls (n=62) were selected, matched on age (+/-3 years), race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income. Matching was implemented to control for confounding and improve statistical efficiency.

Measures

The brief one-page survey was designed to minimize patient burden as much as possible given the survey was administered in the patient waiting area. Brief single-item screening questions were used for all measures. No psychometric information is available for the items, although many of the items were similar to other screening instruments commonly used in clinical settings (for example, other violence screening instruments).^{32–34}

Demographic matching—Demographics matched on were age, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income. Age was a continuous measure and calculated from year of birth to date of survey completion. Race was operationalized as white (non-

Hispanic) and any racial/ethnic minority (Black (non-Hispanic), Latino/Hispanic, other race/ethnicity). Education was coded as lower (high school diploma/GED or less), moderate (some college/Associate's degree), or higher (college degree or post-graduate/professional degree). Anticipating a non-linear association of income and health,³⁵ we first categorized income into quintiles to examine the socioeconomic gradient in health and used generalized additive models^{36–38} to determine the most parsimonious coding specification of income. Based on this analysis, income was operationalized less than \$20,000 versus greater than \$20,000.

Health—Five binary (yes/no) health indicators were operationalized: (1) Lifetime suicidal ideation (“ever thought seriously about killing yourself”); (2) Suicide attempt (“ever made a suicide attempt”); (3) Substance abuse history (“ever felt you had a problem with substance use”); (4) Lifetime smoking (“ever smoked cigarettes”); (5) HIV serostatus (self-reported as “HIV-positive”).

Social stressors—Four dichotomous (yes/no) stressors were asked and parameterized. (1) Childhood abuse age<15 was queried (“ever abused as a child under 15 years-old”), which included any experience of sexual, verbal and/or physical abuse). (2) Intimate partner violence was assessed including victimization (“ever *been* slapped, punched, kicked, beaten up, or otherwise physically or sexually hurt by your spouse (or former spouse), a boyfriend/girlfriend, or some other intimate partner”), and perpetration (“ever slapped, punched, kicked, beaten up, or otherwise physically or sexually hurt your spouse (or former spouse), a boyfriend/girlfriend, or some other intimate partner”). (3) Violence in adulthood (age 18) was assessed using three items for verbal attack, physical attack, and sexual harm. A binary variable of any verbal, physical, and/or sexual violence in adulthood was operationalized. (4) Employment discrimination (“ever discriminated against at work/lost job”) and healthcare discrimination (“ever discriminated against getting healthcare”) were assessed. A dichotomous variable of any discrimination was coded.

Statistical analyses

SAS[®] 9.2 was used to analyze data, where statistical significance was determined at the alpha 0.05 level. The general analytic strategy was to compare transgender patients to cisgender female and male patients (gender-stratified). Transgender patients were also compared to all cisgender patients (not gender-stratified). For the full cohort analysis (design 1), bivariate statistics (t-tests for continuous variables and χ^2 for categorical indicators) were conducted to identify differences in demographics, health, and social stressors by gender identity. Multivariable logistic regression models were then fit regressing health and social stressors on transgender identity and controlled for demographic characteristics (age, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income).

For the nested sample analysis, bivariate analyses were not estimated given the sample was demographically controlled by the matched design. Two different approaches were used to analyze matched data. First, conditional logistic regression models were estimated using the PROC PHREG procedure in SAS. This procedure is appropriate for analyzing matched data as well as sparse data. The 4:1 matched cases and controls were treated as strata. The match

ID was used as the strata variable.^{39–41} Second, generalized estimating equation (GEE) models were computed using the PROC GENMOD procedure in SAS with a repeated statement by match ID.

RESULTS

Findings from the full cohort sample (design 1; n=2,653) are presented in Table 1, including demographics, health, and social stressors by gender identity. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 70 years, mean age 32.0 years. Overall, 78.6% were White (non-Hispanic); 1.2% identified as transgender. Table 2 shows data from the nested matched-pairs subsample for transgender cases and cisgender controls (design 2; n=155). Participants ranged in age from 19 to 70 years, mean age 39.7 years. Overall, 86.5% were White (non-Hispanic); 20% were transgender by design due to the matching algorithm.

Table 3 presents health indicators and social stressors comparing models estimated for the full cohort to those estimated for the nested matched-pairs subsample using two different analytic techniques. Analyses from both study designs produced virtually identical results (Table 3). First, the prevalence of HIV, substance abuse, and smoking did not significantly differ for transgender and non-transgender patients in either study design 1 (models adjusted for age, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income) or study 2 (nested cohort matched on these same sociodemographic variables). For example, 54.8% of transgender respondents reported ever smoking cigarettes compared to 49.6% of cisgender patients in study 1, and 59.7% of cisgender matched controls in study 2.

Second, transgender patients were significantly more likely to endorse a lifetime suicide attempt and suicidal ideation compared to cisgender patients in both study designs. Overall, 29.0% of transgender patients sampled had ever attempted suicide, compared to 8.5% of cisgender patients in study 1 and 12.9% of cisgender patients in study 2.

Third, transgender patients disproportionately reported social stressors (childhood abuse age < 15, perpetration of intimate partner violence, victimization in adulthood age ≥ 18, and lifetime employment and healthcare discrimination) relative to cisgender patients in both study designs. By way of example, 54.8% of transgender patients reported childhood abuse age < 15 compared to 19.5% of cisgender patients in the full cohort and 25.0% of cisgender matched patients in the nested design.

DISCUSSION

The current study found that data from a cross-sectional, clinic-based sample of transgender and cisgender patients can be used to document health disparities by gender identity. A *health disparity* is a “particular type of difference in health...in which disadvantaged social groups—such as the poor, racial/ethnic minorities, women, or other groups who have persistently experienced social disadvantage or discrimination—systematically experience worse health or greater health risks than more advantaged social groups”.⁴² Reducing health disparities is a core aim of Healthy People 2020.⁴³ Differences in health and social stressors in this study were found by transgender identity in patients engaged in care at an urban health clinic, particularly on mental health, victimization in childhood and adulthood, and

discrimination. These results replicate findings from prior research in clinic and non-clinic based samples.^{2-9, 17-21, 44} We also found that a nested matched-pairs design that utilized <10% of the full cohort sample performed equally as efficiently and, for a fraction of the time and resources, produced virtually identical findings as the full cohort sample with regard to comparing transgender and cisgender adult health. Specifically, even after matching the demographic variables for which a statistically significant difference existed in the entire cohort (age, education level, and income), overall, findings of health indicators did not change in the nested study. Findings suggest that a nested design offers a potentially effective method of using patient data to study transgender health with relatively minor loss in statistical efficiency compared to the full cohort study.

Some transgender health disparities shown to be present in the peer-review literature,^{5, 6, 11, 14} were not evidenced in our sample, likely given the specific composition of the patient population utilized for this analysis. For example, the prevalence of HIV, substance abuse, and smoking did not significantly differ for transgender and cisgender patients. The lack of health disparities in Fenway's patient population by gender identity can likely be attributed to several factors. First, the organization was the largest primary care provider for HIV-infected people in New England during the time of the initial data capture. Additionally, the organization is a LGBT health clinic and it is well-documented that other sexual minority groups have higher rates of HIV, substance use, and smoking compared to the general, non-sexual minority population⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ thus, differences in these conditions may not be seen between transgender and other sexual minority patients sampled. Second, we did not have information on assigned sex at birth or gender identity vector (i.e., transgender men and transgender women). Given the differential distribution of HIV among transgender women relative to transgender men, not stratifying by natal sex/gender status may obfuscate differences that may be present when, for example, comparing transgender women and cisgender women. Third, measures were dichotomously assessed to minimize patient burden. The dichotomous smoking variable is particularly problematic. A lack of disparity in ever smoking may not reflect the nuances of patients' smoking histories (i.e., having smoked a few cigarettes in high school versus being a current daily smoker). Nonetheless, disparities between transgender and cisgender patients were seen with regard to lifetime suicide attempt, suicidal ideation, childhood abuse, intimate partner violence, victimization, and employment and healthcare discrimination, highlighting the need for targeted individual, interpersonal and structural-level interventions that aim to eliminate social stressors and improve the mental health of transgender individuals in clinical settings.

Several limitations warrant consideration. The sample was taken from one of the world's largest LGBT-focused health centers. While generalizability to transgender and non-transgender patients of other health centers is unknown, our findings are consistent with those documented in prior studies using clinic and non-clinic based samples.^{2-9, 17-21, 44} Nested matched-pair data cannot make up for the limitations of the original design which was a cross-sectional sampling of patients who presented for care and who were willing to fill out a survey. No information on the response rate of participation represents a significant limitation and an area for future improvement of rigor in this line of research. An additional limitation is that no data were available on assigned sex at birth or specific gender identity (e.g., male-to-female, female-to-male, genderqueer). The distribution of health concerns

differs within different subsets of the transgender community; therefore, not being able to stratify by natal sex/gender status may conceal some health differences. Also, the childhood abuse screener did not distinguish between emotional, physical, or sexual abuse experiences in childhood. Lastly, data used for this analysis were more than ten years old; however, the focus of this report is on methods and analytic techniques.

Clinic-based samples and patient-related data are under-utilized sources of information about transgender health, particularly in community-based, urban health centers that typically serve a large pool of transgender patients, many of whom come from marginalized communities. Well-designed studies that sample transgender patients, and a subset of matched cisgender patients, can provide rich information on transgender health disparities. Matching can be conceptualized as stratification in the design phase to form strata that are balanced and that provide for an efficient statistical analysis.^{40, 48} It is especially useful with small sample sizes and when a random sample is difficult to obtain, as well as to control for confounding factors that are difficult to measure. A limitation of matching worth consideration is the inability to examine the risk factors associated with the matching variable.⁴⁹

Just as retrospective and prospective chart review studies of clinic populations contribute to science in transgender health by reporting on provider-reported patient medical record data (e.g., biomarkers such as blood work or laboratory-confirmed HIV serostatus or STI diagnoses),^{10, 15, 50, 51} cross-sectional point-of-care convenience samples are also advantageous as they offer the opportunity for clinic patients to self-report on ancillary information that may not be collected in a routine medical encounter (e.g., symptoms of depression, suicidality, history of abuse).^{52, 53} Certainly there are disadvantages to utilizing clinic-based samples, the most obvious being selection bias (i.e., people engaged in clinic care may not be representative of patients who are not in care or patients who are willing to complete a survey in the clinic waiting room may not be representative of those patients who are unwilling to participate).²³ Additionally, self-reported data are also subject to bias, particularly questions that are sensitive or subjective in nature (e.g., ever experienced workplace discrimination). Ultimately, however, clinic based samples, and in particular data gathered outside of a patient-provider encounter (via waiting room/point-of-care surveys), provide clinicians and researchers with the opportunity to supplement patient medical records with additional social and behavioral sciences data which can serve to advance the body of knowledge regarding specific marginalized patient populations as well as improve the quality of patient care.^{52, 53}

Clinic-based settings offer the unique opportunity to investigate health disparities by gender identity by comparing the health and wellbeing of transgender and cisgender patients.²⁶ This study assists in filling a gap identified by The Institute of Medicine's 2011 groundbreaking report in LGBT health which stated: "All aspects of the evidence base for transgender-specific healthcare need to be expanded. *Research methods* that will yield the data needed to inform decisions about transgender-specific health should be developed" (page 298, italics added).¹ Gender identity should be routinely collected as part of patient demographic characteristics in clinical settings and will allow unique opportunities to conduct research in transgender health and build the knowledge-base for transgender clinical care. Multi-site

studies of community-based health centers that pool transgender patient records are needed to replicate findings from this formative study.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank the medical department and healthcare providers at Fenway Community Health Center, and the patients who generously participated in the Core Data Project.

The project described was partially supported by the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) under Award Number R21HD051178.

References

1. Institute of Medicine (IOM). *The Health of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender People: Building a Foundation for Better Understanding*. Institute of Medicine; Washington, DC: 2011.
2. Clements-Nolle K, Marx R, Guzman R, Katz M. HIV prevalence, risk behaviors, health care use, and mental health status of transgender persons: implications for public health intervention. *Am J Public Health*. 2001; 91(6):915–21. [PubMed: 11392934]
3. Clements-Nolle K, Marx R, Katz M. Attempted suicide among transgender persons: The influence of gender-based discrimination and victimization. *J Homosex*. 2006; 51(3):53–69. [PubMed: 17135115]
4. Kenagy GP. Transgender health: Findings from two needs assessment studies in Philadelphia. *Health Soc Work*. 2005; 30(1):19–26. [PubMed: 15847234]
5. Hotton AL, Garofalo R, Kuhns LM, Johnson AK. Substance Use as a Mediator of the Relationship Between Life Stress and Sexual Risk Among Young Transgender Women. *AIDS Educ Prev*. 2013; 25(1):62–71. [PubMed: 23387952]
6. Conron KJ, Scott G, Stowell GS, Landers SJ. Transgender health in Massachusetts: results from a household probability sample of adults. *Journal Information*. 2012; 102(1)
7. Brennan J, Kuhns LM, Johnson AK, Belzer M, Wilson EC, Garofalo R. the Adolescent Medicine Trials Network for HIVAI. Syndemic Theory and HIV-Related Risk Among Young Transgender Women: The Role of Multiple, Co-Occurring Health Problems and Social Marginalization. *Am J Public Health*. 2012 Sep; 102(9):1751–7. [PubMed: 22873480]
8. Garofalo R, Deleon J, Osmer E, Doll M, Harper GW. Overlooked, misunderstood and at-risk: Exploring the lives and HIV risk of ethnic minority male-to-female transgender youth. *J Adolesc Health*. 2006; 38(3):230–6. [PubMed: 16488820]
9. Herbst JH, Jacobs ED, Finlayson TJ, McKleroy VS, Neumann MS, Crepaz N. Estimating HIV prevalence and risk behaviors of transgender persons in the United States: a systematic review. *AIDS Behav*. 2008 Jan; 12(1):1–17. [PubMed: 17694429]
10. Kellogg TA, Clements-Nolle K, Dilley J, Katz MH, McFarland W. Incidence of human immunodeficiency virus among male-to-female transgendered persons in San Francisco. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2001 Dec 1; 28(4):380–4. [PubMed: 11707676]
11. Kenagy G. HIV among transgender people. *AIDS Care*. 2002; 14(1):127–34. [PubMed: 11798412]
12. McGowan, C. *Transgender needs assessment (for the HIV Prevention Planning Unit)*. New York: New York City Department of Health; 1999.
13. Nemoto T, Luke D, Mamo L, Ching A, Patria J. HIV risk behaviours among male-to-female transgenders in comparison with homosexual or bisexual males and heterosexual females. *AIDS Care*. 1999 Jun 01; 11(3):297–312. [PubMed: 10474629]
14. Simon P, Reback C, Bemis C. HIV prevalence and incidence among male- to-female transsexuals receiving HIV prevention services in Los Angeles County. *AIDS [Letter]*. 2000; 14:2953–5.
15. Stephens SC, Bernstein KT, Philip SS. Male to female and female to male transgender persons have different sexual risk behaviors yet similar rates of STDs and HIV. *AIDS Behav*. 2011 Apr; 15(3):683–6. [PubMed: 20694509]
16. Xavier, J.; Simmons, R. *The Washington transgender needs assessment survey*. Washington, DC: The Administration for HIV and AIDS of the District of Columbia Government; 2000.

17. Factor RJ, Rothblum ED. A study of transgender adults and their non-transgender siblings on demographic characteristics, social support, and experiences of violence. *J LGBT Health Res.* 2008; 3(3):11–30. [PubMed: 19042902]
18. Lombardi EL, Wilchins RA, Priesing D, Malouf D. Gender violence: Transgender experiences with violence and discrimination. *J Homosex.* 2002; 42(1):89–101. [PubMed: 11991568]
19. Nuttbrock L, Hwahng S, Bockting W, Rosenblum A, Mason M, Macri M, Becker J. Psychiatric impact of gender-related abuse across the life course of male-to-female transgender persons. *J Sex Res.* 2010; 47(1):12–23. [PubMed: 19568976]
20. Bradford J, Reisner S, Honnold J, Xavier J. Experiences of transgender-related discrimination and implications for health: Results from the Virginia Transgender Health Initiative Study. *Am J Public Health.* 2012; 0:e1–e10.
21. Grant, JM.; Mottet, LA.; Tanis, J. National Transgender Discrimination Survey Report on health and health care. Vol. 3. National Center for Transgender Equality and the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force; 2010. Retrieved November
22. Conron KJ, Landers SJ, Reisner SL, Sell SL. Sex and gender in the U.S. health surveillance system: A call to action. *Am J Public Health.* in press.
23. Overhage JM, Overhage LM. Sensible use of observational clinical data. *Stat Methods Med Res.* 2013; 22(1):7–13. [PubMed: 21828172]
24. National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL). Health Reform. [cited 2013 30 Jul]; Available from: <http://www.ncsl.org/documents/health/HDandACA.pdf>
25. Cahill S, Makadon H. Sexual orientation and gender identity collection in clinical settings and in Electron Health Records: A key to ending LGBT health disparities. *LGBT Health.* In Press.
26. Deutsch MB, Green J, Keatley J, Mayer G, Hastings J, Hall AM. Electronic medical records and the transgender patient: Recommendations from the World Professional Association for Transgender Health EMR Working Group. *J Am Inform Assoc.* In Press.
27. Mayer, KH.; Mimiaga, M.; VanDerwarker, R.; Goldhammer, H.; Bradford, J. Fenway Community Health's model of integrated community based LGBT care, education and research. In: Meyer, I.; Northridge, M., editors. *The health of sexual minorities - public health perspectives on lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender populations.* Springer; 2007.
28. Department of Health Education and Welfare. The Belmont Report: Ethical principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects of research. 1979. Available from: <http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/belmont.html#xbound>
29. National Bioethics Advisory Commission. Ethical and Policy Issues in Research Involving Human Participants. Volume I: Report and Recommendations of the National Bioethics Advisory Commission. 2001. Available from: <http://bioethics.georgetown.edu/nbac/human/overvoll1.pdf>
30. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Privacy Rule of the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPAA), 45 CFR Part 160 and Subparts A and E of Part 164. 2002.
31. Ernster VL. Nested case-control studies. *Prev Med.* 1994; 23(5):587–90. [PubMed: 7845919]
32. Basile, K.; Hertz, M.; Back, S. Intimate partner violence and sexual violence victimization assessment instruments for use in healthcare settings: Version 1. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control; Atlanta (GA): 2007.
33. McFarlane J, Parker B, Soeken K, Bullock L. Assessing for abuse during pregnancy. *JAMA: the journal of the American Medical Association.* 1992; 267(23):3176–8.
34. Rabin RF, Jennings JM, Campbell JC, Bair-Merritt MH. Intimate partner violence screening tools. *Am J Prev Med.* 2009; 36(5):439. [PubMed: 19362697]
35. Kawachi, I. Income Inequality and Health. In: Berkman, L., editor. *Social Epidemiology.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 2000. p. 76-94.
36. Hastie, TJ.; Tibshirani, RJ. Generalized additive models. CRC Press; 1990.
37. Hastie TJ, Tibshirani RJ. Generalized additive models. *Statistical Science.* 1986; 3:297–318.
38. Cai, W. Fitting Generalized Additive Models with the GAM Procedure in SAS 9.2. SAS Institute Inc; Cary NC (USA): 2008.
39. Clayton, D.; Hills, M. Statistical models in epidemiology. Oxford University Press; 1993.

40. Rothman, KJ.; Greenland, S.; Lash, TL. Modern epidemiology. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2008.
41. Stephansson O, Dickman PW, Johansson A, Cnattingius S. Maternal hemoglobin concentration during pregnancy and risk of stillbirth. *JAMA: the journal of the American Medical Association*. 2000; 284(20):2611–7.
42. Braveman P. Health disparities and health equity: concepts and measurement. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 2006; 27:167–94. [PubMed: 16533114]
43. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (U.S. DHHS). Health Disparities. 2010. [cited 2012 December 12]; Available from: <http://www.healthypeople.gov/2020/about/disparitiesAbout.aspx>
44. Bockting W, Huang C-Y, Ding H, Robinson BB, Rosser BRS. Are Transgender Persons at Higher Risk for HIV Than Other Sexual Minorities? A Comparison of HIV Prevalence and Risks. *International Journal of Transgenderism*. 2005 Oct 11; 8(2–3):123–31.
45. Lee JG, Griffin GK, Melvin CL. Tobacco use among sexual minorities in the USA, 1987 to May 2007: a systematic review. *Tob Control*. 2009; 18(4):275–82. [PubMed: 19208668]
46. Mayer KH, Bradford JB, Makadon HJ, Stall R, Goldhammer H, Landers S. Sexual and gender minority health: what we know and what needs to be done. *Am J Public Health*. 2008; 98(6):989–95. [PubMed: 18445789]
47. Wolitski, RJ.; Stall, R.; Valdiserri, RO. Unequal opportunity: health disparities affecting gay and bisexual men in the United States. Oxford University Press; 2008.
48. Rose, S.; van der Laan, MJ. Why match? Investigating matched case-control study designs with causal effect estimation. 2008.
49. Breslow N. Design and analysis of case-control studies. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 1982; 3(1):29–54. [PubMed: 6756431]
50. Mimiaga MJ, Helms DJ, Reisner SL, Grasso C, Bertrand T, Mosure DJ, Weinstock H, McLean C, Mayer KH. Gonococcal, chlamydia, and syphilis infection positivity among MSM attending a large primary care clinic, Boston, 2003 to 2004. *Sex Transm Dis*. 2009; 36(8):507–11. [PubMed: 19455081]
51. Reisner SL, Mimiaga M, Case P, Grasso C, O'Brien CT, Harigopal P, Skeer M, Mayer KH. Sexually transmitted disease (STD) diagnoses and mental health disparities among women who have sex with women screened at an urban community health center, Boston, Massachusetts, 2007. *Sex Transm Dis*. 2010; 37(1):5. [PubMed: 20118673]
52. Kitahata MM, Rodriguez B, Haubrich R, Boswell S, Mathews WC, Lederman MM, Lober WB, Van Rompaey SE, Crane HM, Moore RD, Bertram M, Kahn JO, Saag MS. Cohort profile: the Centers for AIDS Research Network of Integrated Clinical Systems. *Int J Epidemiol* 2008. Oct 1; 2008 37(5):948–55.
53. Lawrence ST, Willig JH, Crane HM, Ye J, Aban I, Lober W, Nevin CR, Batey DS, Mugavero MJ, McCullumsmith C, Wright C, Kitahata M, Raper JL, Saag MS, Schumacher JE. Routine, Self-Administered, Touch-Screen, Computer- Based Suicidal Ideation Assessment Linked to Automated Response Team Notification in an HIV Primary Care Setting. *Clin Infect Dis* 2010. Apr 15; 2010 50(8):1165–73.

Table 1
Demographics, Health Indicators, and Social Stressors in the Full Cohort Sample (Design 1) by Gender Identity (n=2,653).

	Transgender n=31		Cisgender n=2,622		Bivariate Comparisons ⁺	Total Sample n=2,653	
	n	%	n	%	t-test/χ ²	p-value	n
Demographics							
Age in Years - Mean (SD)	37.3 (12.6)		31.9 (10.3)		8.16	0.004	32.0 (10.3)
Range	19-70		18-70				18-70
Race/Ethnicity							
White/Caucasian	27	87.1	2057	78.5	1.36	0.244	2084
Racial/Ethnic Minority	4	12.9	565	21.5			569
Educational Attainment							
High School Diploma or Less	12	38.7	309	11.8	20.97	<0.0001	321
Some College/Associate's Degree	6	19.4	818	31.2			824
College Degree or Higher	13	41.9	1495	57.0			1508
Family Income							
Income <\$20,000	21	67.7	538	20.5	41.08	<0.0001	559
Income >\$20,000	10	32.3	2084	79.5			2094
Health Indicators							
Suicidal Ideation Ever	18	58.1	541	20.6	28.81	<0.0001	559
Attempted Suicide Ever	9	29.0	222	8.5	16.30	<0.0001	231
Substance Abuse History	10	32.3	443	16.9	5.11	0.024	453
Smoking	17	54.8	1301	49.6	0.33	0.563	1318
HIV Positive	4	12.9	288	11.0	0.12	0.734	292
Social Stressors							
Childhood Abuse Age <15	17	54.8	511	19.5	24.02	<0.0001	528
Experienced Intimate Partner Violence	8	25.8	334	12.7	4.66	0.031	342
Perpetrated Intimate Partner Violence	8	25.8	143	5.5	23.64	<0.0001	151
Any Victimization as Adult Age 18	23	74.2	1021	38.9	23.64	<0.0001	1044
Verbally Attacked	23	74.2	856	32.7	23.87	<0.0001	879
Physically Attacked	7	22.6	255	9.7	12.74	0.0004	264
Sexually Harmed	7	22.6	339	12.9	2.52	0.113	346

	Transgender n=31	Cisgender n=2,622	Bivariate Comparisons [†]	Total Sample n=2,653
Any Discrimination Ever	51.6	9.8	58.02	10.3
Employment Discrimination	41.9	8.5	41.99	8.9
Healthcare Discrimination	19.4	2.6	32.31	2.8

[†]Transgender vs cisgender (i.e., non-transgender) patients were compared in bivariate analyses.

Note: Among the 2,622 cisgender patients, 33.4% were female (n=876) and 66.6% were male (n=1,746). No data were available on assigned sex at birth or specific gender identity (e.g. male-to-female or female-to-male) of transgender patients.

Table 2

Demographics, Health Indicators, and Social Stressors in the Nested Matched-Pairs Subsample (Design 2) by Gender Identity (n=155).

	Transgender Cases n=31		Matched Controls n=124		Bivariate Comparisons [^]		Total Sample n=155	
	%	n	%	n	χ^2	p-value	%	n
Demographics								
Age in Years – Mean (SD)		37.3 (12.6)		40.3 (12.5)	1.46	0.227		39.7 (12.6)
Range		19–70		19–70				19–70
Race/Ethnicity								
White/Caucasian	87.1	27	86.3	107	0.01	0.91	86.5	134
Racial/Ethnic Minority	12.9	4	13.7	17			13.5	21
Educational Attainment								
High School Diploma or Less	38.7	12	36.3	45	0.06	0.970	36.8	57
Some College/Associate's Degree	19.4	6	21.2	25			20.0	31
College Degree or Higher	41.9	13	43.5	54			43.2	67
Income								
Income <\$20,000	67.7	21	66.1	42	0.03	0.865	66.5	103
Income >\$20,000	32.3	10	33.9	82			33.1	52
Health Indicators								
Suicidal Ideation Ever	58.1	18	29.8	37	7.68	0.006	35.5	55
Attempted Suicide Ever	29.0	9	12.9	16	4.52	0.033	16.1	25
Substance Abuse History	32.3	10	33.9	42	0.03	0.856	33.6	52
Smoker	54.8	17	59.7	74	0.25	0.620	58.7	91
HIV Positive	12.9	4	18.6	23	0.50	0.478	17.4	27
Social Stressors								
Childhood Abuse Age <15	54.8	17	25.0	31	9.10	0.003	31.0	48
Experienced Intimate Partner Violence	25.8	8	25.0	31	0.09	0.926	25.2	39
Perpetrated Intimate Partner Violence	25.8	8	8.9	11	5.40	0.020	12.3	19
Any Victimization as Adult Age 18	74.2	23	41.9	52	10.43	0.001	48.4	75
Verbally Attacked	74.2	23	29.8	37	17.54	<0.0001	38.7	60
Physically Attacked	29.0	9	16.9	21	2.53	0.112	19.4	30

	Transgender Cases n=31	Matched Controls n=124	Bivariate Comparisons [^]	Total Sample n=155
Sexually Harmed	22.6	22.6	0.00	22.6
Any Discrimination Ever	51.6	12.9	16.96	20.7
Employment Discrimination	41.9	11.3	12.84	17.4
Healthcare Discrimination	19.4	4.0	6.87	7.1

+Transgender cases were compared to cisgender controls in bivariate analyses appropriately adjusted for matching.

[^] Bivariate statistical comparisons were estimated using conditional logistic regression models (PROC PHREG).

Table 3

Health Indicators and Social Stressors by Gender Identity for the Full Cohort Sample (n=2,653) and the Nested Matched-Pair Subsample (n=155).

	Study Design 1 Full Cohort Sample n=2,653 ⁺		Study Design 2 Nested Matched-Pair Subsample n=155 [^]	
	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	p-value	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Health				
Suicidal Ideation Ever	3.75 (1.76, 7.96)	0.0006	3.19 (1.40, 7.24)	3.26 (1.49, 7.10)
Attempted Suicide Ever	2.64 (1.15, 6.08)	0.022	2.92 (1.09, 7.85)	2.76 (1.01, 7.54)
Substance Abuse	1.18 (0.51, 2.70)	0.705	0.92 (0.38, 2.25)	0.93 (0.41, 2.10)
Smoking	0.97 (0.47, 2.02)	0.941	0.82 (0.36, 1.83)	0.82 (0.38, 1.77)
HIV-Positive	0.40 (0.13, 1.26)	0.118	0.67 (0.22, 2.03)	0.65 (0.20, 2.10)
Social Stressors				
Childhood Abuse Age <15	3.33 (1.58, 7.04)	0.002	3.70 (1.58, 8.64)	3.64 (1.62, 8.19)
Experienced Intimate Partner Violence	1.32 (0.55, 3.13)	0.535	1.04 (0.43, 2.56)	1.04 (0.41, 2.66)
Perpetrated Intimate Partner Violence	4.14 (1.71, 10.01)	0.002	3.03 (1.19, 7.73)	3.57 (1.22, 10.47)
Any Victimization as Adult Age 18	3.90 (1.67, 9.12)	0.002	4.54 (1.81, 11.39)	3.98 (1.68, 9.41)
Verbally Attacked	5.84 (2.49, 13.73)	<0.0001	8.75 (3.17, 24.16)	6.76 (2.86, 15.99)
Physically Attacked	2.16 (0.90, 5.16)	0.085	2.23 (0.83, 5.97)	2.01 (0.83, 4.86)
Sexually Harmed	1.15 (0.47, 2.80)	0.754	1.00 (0.40, 2.50)	1.00 (0.36, 2.76)
Any Discrimination Ever	7.50 (3.45, 16.33)	<0.0001	7.56 (2.89, 19.79)	7.20 (2.59, 20.04)
Employment Discrimination	5.69 (2.58, 12.59)	<0.0001	5.60 (2.18, 14.35)	5.67 (2.17, 14.82)
Healthcare Discrimination	5.78 (2.13, 15.70)	0.0006	5.51 (1.54, 19.72)	5.71 (1.32, 24.73)

⁺ Design 1: Full Cohort Sample. Logistic regression models were adjusted for age, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income.

[^] Design 2: Nested Matched-Pair Subsample. Transgender patients matched 4:1 with cisgender female and cisgender male controls on age, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, and income. Statistical analyses accounted for the matched case-control design. Analysis 1: Conditional logistic regression models (PROC PHREG in SAS). Analysis 2: Generalized estimating equations (GEEs) (PROC GENMOD in SAS). 95% CI=95% Confidence Interval. 95% CI=95% Confidence Limit.