

Claremont Colleges

Scholarship @ Claremont

CGU Theses & Dissertations

CGU Student Scholarship

Summer 2023

Remodeling the Closet: The Individual and Organizational Correlates of Workplace Sexual Identity Management

David M. Mendelsohn
Claremont Graduate University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarship.claremont.edu/cgu_etd



Part of the [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#), and the [Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Mendelsohn, David M.. (2023). *Remodeling the Closet: The Individual and Organizational Correlates of Workplace Sexual Identity Management*. CGU Theses & Dissertations, 599.
https://scholarship.claremont.edu/cgu_etd/599.

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the CGU Student Scholarship at Scholarship @ Claremont. It has been accepted for inclusion in CGU Theses & Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholarship @ Claremont. For more information, please contact scholarship@claremont.edu.

Remodeling the Closet: The Individual and Organizational
Correlates of Workplace Sexual Identity Management

By

David M. Mendelsohn

Claremont Graduate University

2023

© Copyright David M. Mendelsohn, 2023.

All rights reserved

Approval of the Dissertation Committee

This dissertation has been duly read, reviewed, and critiqued by the Committee listed below, which hereby approves the manuscript of David M. Mendelsohn as fulfilling the scope and quality requirements for meriting the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology.

Allen Omoto, Chair
Pitzer College
Vice President for Academic Affairs and Dean of Faculty

Michelle Bligh
Claremont Graduate University
Executive Vice President and Provost and Professor of Organizational Behavior

Becky Reichard
Claremont Graduate University
Associate Professor of Psychology

Mikki Hebl
Rice University
Martha & Henry Malcolm Lovett Chair of Psychology

Abstract

Remodeling the Closet: The Individual and Organizational

Correlates of Workplace Sexual Identity Management

By

David M. Mendelsohn

Claremont Graduate University: 2023

The strategies by which sexual minority employees manage their sexual identities in the workplace have long been a subject of inquiry. Extant research has long recognized that these employees potentially engage in several different strategies for workplace sexual identity management (e.g., actively concealing their identity vs. disclosing their identity), models of sexual identity management tend to focus only on factors that influence disclosure decisions. The current series of two survey studies explored the broader organizational correlates of three workplace sexual identity management strategies: general outness, concealment, and disclosure, as well as whether differences existed based on gender and sexual identity (i.e., gay- and lesbian-identified vs. bisexual-identified employees). Study 1 used a broad-based survey sample to explore these correlates, and Study 2 used data from a targeted survey that included active-duty LGB service members as respondents. Results from these two studies suggest that there may be differences in the sexual identity strategies that sexual minority employees engage in at their places of work. In addition, sexual identity management strategies associated with workplace characteristics included perceived support for sexual minority employees, supportive policies for sexual minorities, and organizational embeddedness. Perceived workplace support also moderated the relationship between concealing one's sexual identity and organizational

embeddedness, such that those who concealed less also tended to report feeling less embedded within their organizations, but this was only true for those who reported low perceived support for sexual minorities in their workplaces. These findings have implications for models of sexual identity management, future research directions, and organizational practice to support sexual minority employees.

Acknowledgements

It is both exciting and humbling to be at this point in my graduate career. I am indebted to many people who have supported me in this process.

Words cannot express my gratitude to my Committee Chair, Research Advisor, and graduate school mentor, Dr. Allen Omoto, who has provided both academic and professional support, and without whom this project would not exist. I am grateful to my Committee Members, Dr. Michelle Bligh, Dr. Becky Reichard, and Dr. Mikki Hebl, for providing invaluable feedback and support in moving this project forward. I would also like to recognize Dr. Andrew Conway, who reviewed the initial proposal for this project, and Dr. Cynthia Thomsen, who served as co-PI on the PATH Project.

A dissertation project cannot be undertaken without a host of family, friends, and colleagues to support you along the way. Words cannot begin to express the gratitude I feel for the friendship of Shelly Sloper, Karen Tannenbaum, Nicole Gray, Cara Tan, and Megan Mansfield. Special thanks also go to my colleagues on the PATH Project, both at CGU and the Naval Health Research Center. I wish to extend my deepest thanks to the wonderful DBOS staff at CGU, especially Linda Pillow and Sherry Nissen. In addition, to my 2009 M.A. Co-Con cohort and 2011 Ph.D. cohort, we did it!

I would not have been able to complete this project without the tireless support of my mother, Elisabeth Driscoll, my father, Robert Mendelsohn, and my brother, Stephen Mendelsohn over the years. Special thanks also go to my sister-in-law, Christine Rojcewicz.

Finally, to Stephan Bolding, I simply would not be the person I am today without you. There are no words that could express my gratitude to have you as a partner, friend, and conspirator, so I will just say this: “thank you”.

Table of Contents

Chapter I: Introduction	1
Workplace Sexual Identity Management Strategies	4
Correlates of Workplace Sexual Identity Management Strategies.....	7
The Current Studies.....	12
Chapter II. Study 1	15
Method	16
Results	26
Discussion	82
Chapter III. Study 2	88
Method	90
Results	98
Discussion	137
Chapter IV: General Discussion	142
Theoretical Implications.....	142
Practical Implications	146
Limitations & Future Directions	149
Conclusion.....	152
References	154
Appendix A: Recruitment & Procedural Materials	165
Appendix B: Study Measures	171

Chapter I: Introduction

On June 26, 2015, the United States Supreme Court struck down same-sex marriage bans in U.S. states and most territories, effectively legalizing same-sex marriage in the U.S. (*Obergefell v. Hodges*, 2015). This ruling was considered a significant victory regarding the civil rights of sexual minorities, those whose sexual identity or orientation differs from the majority of their surrounding society. Marriage equality is not the only arena in which sexual minority individuals may experience a lack of legal protections against discrimination, however. One central area of concern involves workplace protections for sexual minority individuals. Based on 2000 U.S. census data, 2.5% of the population identifies as sexual minorities, specifically lesbian, gay, or bisexual (LGB). This figure represents roughly five million employees nationwide (Johnston & Malina, 2008). Although sexual minority employees represent a significant proportion of the workforce, they were not historically recognized as a federally protected group for equal opportunity employment (Johnston & Malina, 2008). Indeed, no U.S. federal mandate or statute that explicitly banned employment discrimination (which covers processes including hiring, promotion, job assignment, termination, compensation, etc.) based on sexual orientation existed until June 2020, when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the Civil Rights Act of 1964 covers sexual orientation.

Before the 2020 Supreme Court ruling, policies and legal precedents for banning employment discrimination based on sexual orientation had existed at federal, state, and local levels. For example, in 2014, a U.S. District Court judge ruled in favor of a plaintiff who claimed he was discriminated against after his boss found out he was gay and sought to sue for discrimination (*TerVeer v. Billington*, 2014). There were also twenty-two states (as well as the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Guam) that had enacted statutes protecting against the

discrimination of sexual minorities in both the private and public sectors, and an additional twelve states protected against such discrimination in the public sector only. Finally, numerous private companies have already provided equal rights or benefits to employees regardless of their sexual orientation. Indeed, ninety-two percent of all Fortune 500 companies already included sexual orientation in their non-discrimination policy, and more than half offered domestic partner benefits (Human Rights Campaign, 2019; Davidson & Rouse, 2004). Such legislation and company policy seem to suggest only a patchwork of protections that have been unevenly distributed historically and highlights the multilevel nature of the legal battle for civil rights for sexual minorities.

The legislation described above also appears to correlate with broader societal trends indicating that attitudes toward sexual minorities have become more accepting (Herek, 1994, 1998). Such supportive policies, then, may provide the impression that the organizations which enact them are friendly toward sexual minority individuals. Williams, Giuffre, and Dellinger (2009) define such “gay-friendly” workplaces as “work settings [which] attempt to eradicate homophobia and heterosexism” (p. 29). They note, however, that although the number of gay-friendly workplaces has increased significantly in recent decades, there is still a general lack of research focusing on sexual minority employees in such environments. To that effect, they conducted interviews with sexual minority employees to assess their workplace experiences. Content analyses revealed that, although all of the interviewees reported being out in the workplace (and experienced relief at being accepted in their place of work), many of them also noted experiences of conflict around being “normal” and being visible. Many interviewees equated the idea of being “normal” with “embracing conservative politics, conventional sexual mores, and traditional gender performances” (p.35), ideas often associated with heterosexist

organizations, or those that denigrate or discriminate against sexual minorities. The authors concluded that even in work environments perceived as gay-friendly, sexual minority employees are often still confronted with the heteronormative status quo. As such, it may be that discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation may still occur even in the context of legal and policy protections. Not only that, but a 2023 Supreme Court ruling which granted a small business owner the right to refuse same-sex clients due to religious beliefs (*303 Creative LLC v. Elenis*, 2023) may serve as an initial test of the boundaries of existing legal protections for gender and sexually diverse people. As such, research into the workplace experiences of LGBTQ+ employees remains an important area of inquiry.

The types of discrimination that sexual minority employees may face are highly varied and typically fall under the heading of heterosexism, a system of attitudes, beliefs, bias, and behavior that privilege heterosexual identities and relationships over non-heterosexual identities and relationships (Herek, 1989; Jung & Smith, 1993). Such heterosexist experiences can take the form of microaggressions (e.g., having one's same-sex romantic partner referred to as a "friend," feeling forced to act "straight" in the workplace), or even more severe types of behaviors, both interpersonal (e.g., the use of derogatory language in conversation) and organizational (e.g., being fired). Sexual minority employees who report experiences of workplace heterosexism also tend to report more unsupportive social interactions, more depressive symptoms, and psychological symptoms of work burnout (Smith & Ingram, 2004). Other research has found heterosexism in the workplace to be related to poorer health in general; however, the author distinguishes between two types of heterosexist experiences at work, namely indirect and direct experiences (Waldo, 1999). Indirect experiences of heterosexism are defined as more implicit events that reflect a broader lack of inclusivity in the environment, and direct experiences are

defined as explicit and typically malicious events. Interestingly, this study found that the types of experiences reported correlated inversely with how out the participants were in the workplace. Specifically, participants who were more out at work reported more experiences of direct heterosexism, and participants who were less out at work reported more experiences of indirect heterosexism. Direct heterosexism was found to be positively correlated with the degree of disclosure in this same study.

Such descriptions highlight that there may still be a stigma associated with being a sexual minority and that this stigma could have negative consequences for the workplace relationships and career trajectories of sexual minority employees. However, this stigma is classified as being based on an invisible characteristic, meaning that although there may be a social devaluing of that status, it is not necessarily apparent unless one discloses their sexual orientation (i.e., “comes out”; Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010). In fact, one strategy that sexual minority individuals may use to avoid discrimination is concealing their sexual orientation (Herek, Chopp, & Strohl, 2007). Such strategies can successfully reduce discrimination experiences; however, they also can result in increased stress associated with lying about or hiding their identity. The stress of concealing one’s sexual minority identity can lead to many harmful job- and health-related outcomes, including higher blood pressure, higher reports of burnout, lower performance, and higher turnover intentions (Sabat, Trump, & King, 2014).

Workplace Sexual Identity Management Strategies

Because the stigmatized status of sexual minorities may not be readily apparent, members of this group must decide whether to display (or disclose) this status, and these decisions must be made continually over time. The strategies that sexual minority employees use to manage their sexual identity in the workplace have been identified as one of the critical factors for study among this population (see Croteau et al., 2000). Early work in this area focused on the

qualitative experiences of sexual minority employees and examined only the degree to which these individuals disclosed their sexual identity at work. Researchers typically provided reports in the form of a percentage of people in the workplace that were aware of the individual's sexual identity (e.g., Anderson et al., 2000; Croteau, 1996). Scholars then examined the specific strategies that sexual minority employees used to manage their sexual identities in the workplace, with two models dominating the early literature.

In one model, Griffin (1992) presented four workplace sexual identity management strategies based on qualitative interviews with gay- and lesbian-identified employees. These strategies were aligned on a continuum, ranging from more concealment-oriented (and therefore safety-making) to more revealing-oriented (and risk-taking). On the concealment-oriented end of the spectrum, *passing* involves acting in such a way as to create the impression that one is actually heterosexual and includes more passive potential behaviors, such as not correcting assumptions that one is heterosexual, to more active behaviors, such as creating a false heterosexual façade (e.g., falsifying heterosexual romantic relationships). *Covering*, the other more concealment-oriented strategy, involves acting in such a way as to hide information related to one's sexual minority status and includes omitting information about same-sex relationships, as well as information that may indicate involvement in the LGBTQ+ community. On the revealing-oriented end of the strategy spectrum, *implicit outness* involves being open and honest about information that may reveal one's sexual minority status, but not in a straightforward way. For example, one may openly discuss their same-sex partner at work but not explicitly identify that individual as a romantic partner. Finally, *explicit outness* refers to actively embracing and disclosing one's sexual minority status in the workplace.

In addition to this four-strategy model, Woods (1993) presented a second potential system for categorizing workplace sexual identity management strategies. The first, *counterfeiting*, is similar to the previously-discussed passing strategy (e.g., creating a false heterosexual persona in the workplace). *Avoidance* is also similar to covering, as discussed above, but involves behaviors focused more on building distinct boundaries between one's life at work and outside work (e.g., not attending social events where personal questions may be asked). Finally, *integration* is most similar to explicit outness, including openly discussing one's sexual minority status in the workplace. One limitation of this categorization scheme is that it was only based on qualitative interviews with gay-identified employees.

To move beyond a qualitative understanding of these strategies, Button (2004) developed a quantitative measure of workplace sexual identity management strategies. The original measure included two broad scales: the *passing* scale, which included items related to counterfeiting and avoiding strategies, and the *integrating* scale, which included items related to acknowledging (i.e., implicit outness) and advocating (i.e., explicit outness). The authors conducted factor analyses to determine the underlying factor structure of this measure, comparing a two-factor (i.e., avoiding vs. integrating), three-factor (i.e., counterfeiting, avoiding, and integrating), and four-factor (i.e., all four subscales) structure. The three-factor structure, adapted from Woods' (1993) conceptual framework, provided the best fit for the data, lending quantitative support that sexual minority employees use multiple strategies in managing their sexual identity in the workplace. The authors also noted that these strategies appeared to vary both across individual employees and within employees, suggesting that the same individuals engage in multiple sexual identity management strategies.

One major limitation of this body of research is that the extent to which workplace sexual identity management strategies vary by characteristics such as gender and sexual identity has received scant empirical examination. Although the literature described above notes that it is at least likely that gay-identified men and lesbian-identified women, for example, may utilize different strategies to manage their sexual identity, relatively little research has examined those differences. Not only that, but there is also a lack of empirical research exploring whether bisexual-identified employees engage in different types of sexual identity management strategies than their gay- and lesbian-identified counterparts. Indeed, there is recent survey evidence to suggest that bisexual-identified employees may be less out at work overall, with only 19% of bisexual-identified employees reporting being fully out at work, as compared to 50% of gay- and lesbian-identified employees (Williams Institute, 2022). Similarly, in this survey study, only 36% of bisexual-identified employees reported being out to their supervisors, compared to 75% of gay- and lesbian-identified employees. This difference may be especially strong for bisexual-identified men, who report experiencing more bias than do bisexual-identified women, as well as being less likely to disclose their sexual identity at work (Corrington et al., 2019). To further elucidate these findings, the current studies explored the ways in which sexual identity management strategies, as well as their correlates (described below), differ based on gender and sexual identity.

Correlates of Workplace Sexual Identity Management Strategies

In addition to providing early quantitative support for the existence of multiple workplace sexual identity management strategies, Button (2005) also noted that the strategies in which sexual minority employees engage may have significant consequences for the organizations that employ them. Specifically, counterfeiting or avoiding behaviors may decrease productivity, lower team effectiveness, and increase turnover. As such, “efforts to develop a more affirming

organizational context, and thereby facilitate the use of an integration strategy, may represent an effective business strategy...” (p. 491). Indeed, it may be that an organizational climate that affirms and supports sexual minority employees may promote more positive workplace outcomes or even the use of different types of sexual identity management strategies.

There has been considerable research interest in psychology on the correlates of sexual identity management processes at work. One body of psychological research has focused on the personal and contextual factors which may promote (or inhibit) sexual orientation disclosures at work. For example, in one study, supervisor support was revealed as the most influential factor in mitigating the fear of disclosure, and the presence of other sexual minority coworkers was the most influential factor related to the degree to which employees were out at work (Ragins, Singh, & Cornwell, 2007). Broader beliefs and perceptions about general organizational support for sexual minority employees (Huffman, Watrous-Rodriquez, & King, 2008), as well as the existence of actual organizational antidiscrimination policies (Rostosky & Riggle, 2002), have also been found to be positively correlated with disclosures of sexual orientation in the workplace. It has also been reported that personal and demographic factors may be related to disclosures; specifically, non-White employees are less likely to disclose than White employees (Ragins, Cornwell, & Miller, 2003). In addition, sexual minority employees who hold more negative attitudes about themselves and the broader LGBTQ+ community (i.e., higher self-reports of internalized homophobia) are less likely to disclose in the workplace than those with lower self-reports of internalized homophobia (Rostosky & Riggle, 2002).

In one key study into the correlates of workplace sexual identity disclosures, Griffith and Hebl (2002) reported that outness in other spheres of life (i.e., to friends and family members), as well as supportive workplace policies and general organizational support were associated with

sexual identity disclosures at work. Gay and lesbian participants who reported more disclosure behaviors at work also tended to report higher job satisfaction and lower anxiety around their job than those who disclosed their identity less. Not only that, but this same pattern of association held for employees who perceived their organization to be more supportive of LGBTQ+ employees. As such, perceived organizational support may be a key determinant for employee sexual identity management; specifically, greater perceived support may be linked to more disclosure.

Some research also suggests that person-industry fit may serve as a predictor of workplace discrimination; specifically, research into the inversion model of stereotyping, which purports that gay-identified men tend to be rated as more similar to heterosexual women than heterosexual men and that the reverse is true for lesbian-identified women (Kite & Deaux, 1987). For example, lesbian-identified women in stereotypically feminine industries may be more likely to experience workplace discrimination than those in stereotypically masculine industries (see Horvath & Ryan, 2003; Pichler, Varma, & Bruce, 2011). Comparatively little work has examined the role of person-organization fit in this area. In addition, although only limited support exists for the relationship between the above conceptualization of person-industry fit and the experience of workplace discrimination, the degree to which employees were out has not been considered. It may be that fit promotes feelings of safety, making disclosure more likely, and conversely, that lack of fit would suggest concealing as a strategy.

One helpful model which examines the antecedents and potential consequents of sexual identity disclosure more fully was presented by Ragins (2008). This stigma-based model includes four antecedents that inform the decision to disclose one's sexual identity. The first includes weighing possible social costs (e.g., social isolation, harassment) and benefits (e.g.,

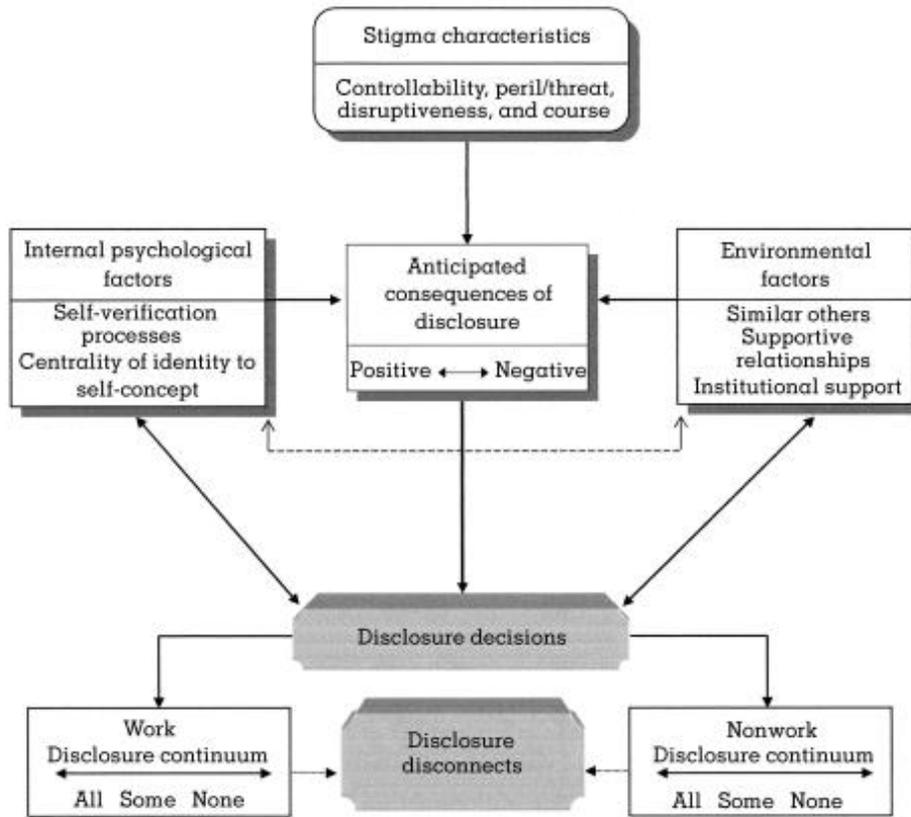
feelings of relief, closer personal relationships) associated with disclosing one's sexual identity across various contexts, including the workplace. The second includes the ways in which stigma toward sexual minority employees is socially constructed within the particular context. For example, she proposed that sexual minority employees are less likely to disclose their sexual identity in workplaces where others are likely to feel threatened by that identity. The third antecedent includes the extent to which a sexual minority employee's sexual identity is central to their sense of self. Lastly, the fourth focuses on the workplace's environmental factors, including supportive others and broader institutional support for sexual minority employees. Ragin's (2008) full model is presented in Figure 1, and the current series of studies focuses on portions of the environmental factors component.

Research into the relationship between workplace sexual management strategies and experiences of heterosexism has generally not considered the potential workplace correlates that may promote or inhibit various strategies. Although a theoretical framework in which both the antecedents and consequences of workplace disclosures have been outlined (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001), its focal point is discrimination rather than sexual identity management strategies. As such, it may be that employees who disclose their sexual minority identity in the workplace are only more likely to report heterosexist experiences in less supportive environments. In other words, it may be that the so-called antecedents of disclosure, namely perceived support and organizational fit, actually serve as moderators of the relationship between the sexual identity management strategies that sexual minority employees use and their workplace experiences.

Notably, studies of sexual identity management tend to focus most on employee behavioral outcomes such as productivity or attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment. For example, one study noted that concealing one's identity at work

Figure 1. Ragin's (2008) stigma-based model of sexual identity disclosure. Reprinted with permission.

Antecedents to Disclosure of Invisible Stigmas Across Life Domains



(including sexual identity) was associated with lower job satisfaction, and higher turnover intentions (Madera et al., 2012). Comparatively little research has looked at the potential social correlates of identity management, of which organizational embeddedness is a key variable of interest. Mitchell and colleagues (2001) initially defined embeddedness as the degree to which employees feel connected to others in the organization. They describe it as “a net or web in which an individual employee can become stuck” (p. 1104). Highly embedded employees have many such connections, which may promote more positive workplace outcomes, including higher job satisfaction, more organizational citizenship behaviors, and lower turnover intentions and behaviors (Lee et al., 2014). In other words, those employees who feel more connected to their organizations are more likely to remain at their current job than those who feel less connected to their organizations. Embeddedness may be an essential factor to consider for populations who may otherwise feel vulnerable at work, including LGBTQ+ employees. As such, the current studies examined the association between different workplace sexual identity management strategies and organizational embeddedness.

The Current Studies

The current two studies of sexual minority employees endeavored to build upon and extend Ragin’s (2008) stigma-based model of sexual identity management in several important ways. Although not serving as an examination of the entire model and only focusing on the workplace (i.e., not home) context, the current studies nevertheless addressed potential limitations by incorporating variables that were not all specified in the original model. Notably, although the model recognizes that different sexual identity management strategies exist, it focuses exclusively on disclosure as a point of interest. The current studies explored general workplace outness, concealment, and disclosure as sexual identity management strategies of interest. In addition, the two studies investigated the correlates of workplace sexual identity

management strategies across several job contexts. Specifically, Study 1 utilized a broad sample representing various job types, levels, and sectors. Study 2 explored these relationships using a sample from one specific employer, the US Armed Forces.

Across these two studies, and building off of the findings reported by Griffith and Hebl (2002), and Ragins (2008), the potential organizational characteristics that promote or inhibit various forms of sexual identity management strategies were explored, including perceived workplace support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Next, the two studies examined the potential relationship between sexual identity management strategies and organizational embeddedness, a key outcome of organizational socialization processes that has largely been overlooked in this stream of research. Lastly, they assessed the extent to which the patterns of relationships differ by gender and sexual identity (i.e., gay- and bisexual-identified men and lesbian- and bisexual-identified women) as an exploratory research question, and especially because of evidence suggesting greater workplace bias for bisexual-identified men compared to bisexual-identified women (Corrington et al., 2019). Each of the two proposed studies will examine three hypotheses and an additional research question (see Figure 2 for conceptual framework) across different organizational contexts, focusing on the following:

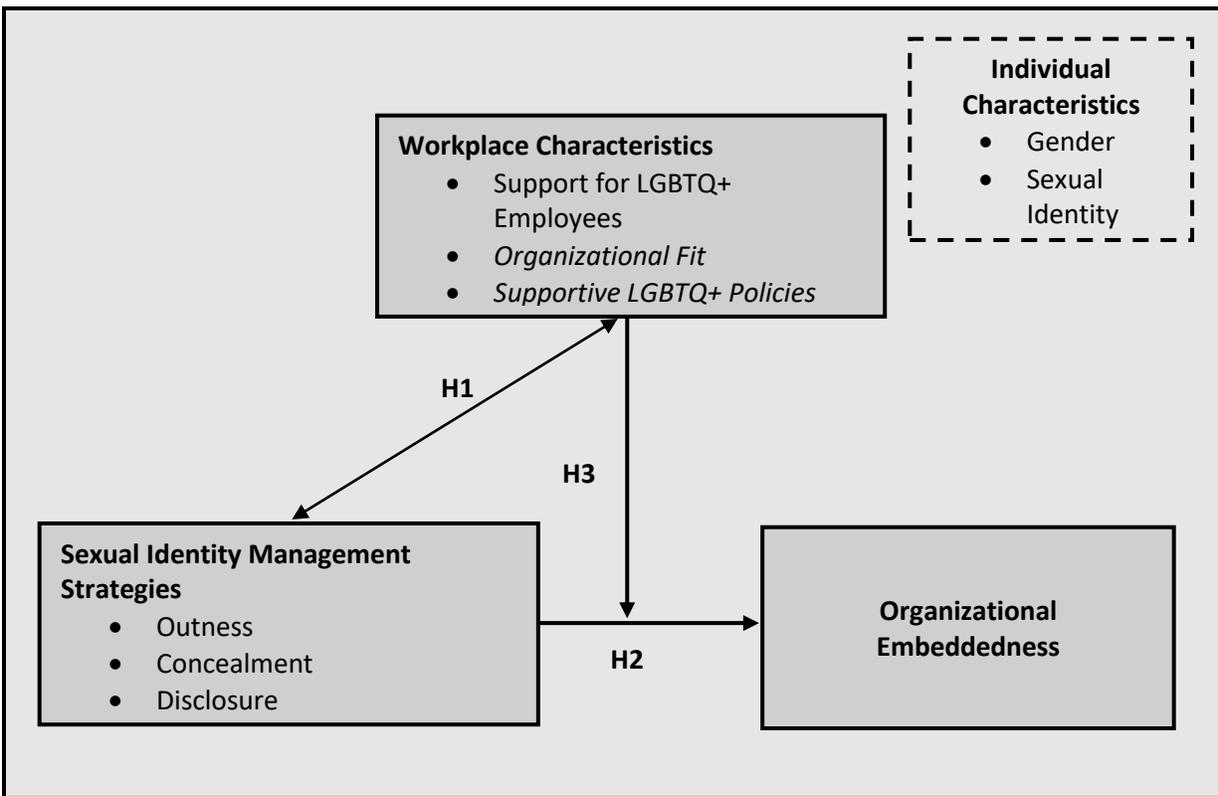
Research Question: How do sexual identity management strategies, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and organizational embeddedness, as well as the correlations among them, vary based on gender and sexual identity?

Hypothesis 1: Greater perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and LGBTQ+ friendly policies will be correlated with greater outness, concealing less, and greater disclosure beyond any effects of gender or sexual identity.

Hypothesis 2: Greater outness, concealing less, and greater disclosure will be associated with greater organizational embeddedness.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies will positively moderate the relationship between workplace sexual identity management strategies and organizational embeddedness, such that the relationships will be stronger in more supportive workplace environments and when there is a better organizational fit.

Figure 2. Conceptual model for Studies 1 and 2.



Note: Italicized variables were only measured in Study 1.

Chapter II. Study 1

Study 1 will serve as a direct test of the planned hypotheses and exploratory research question. Specifically, Study 1 will explore the sexual identity management strategies of LGBTQ+ employees across various job types and contexts, and the correlates of those strategies.

Method

Data for Study 1 were drawn from a broader cross-sectional self-report survey focused on the workplace experiences of LGBTQ+ employees. Data collection took place over two weeks in September 2021. Data were collected online via Qualtrics paneling services and included full-time LGBTQ+ employees who had worked for their employer for at least one year. As such, this sample directly tests the hypotheses of interest.

Participants

A total of $N = 500$ participants completed the study. Participants were allowed to self-identify in terms of both their gender and sexual identity. Most participants identified as either male (32.3%) or female (59.8%) and as lesbian (25.0%), gay (23.5%), or bisexual (43.6%). As only a small number of participants identified outside of these genders and sexual orientations, only those who identified as male or female and who identified as lesbian, gay, or bisexual were included in the final analytic sample. Specifically, in terms of sexual identity, 20 participants identified as pansexual, 7 participants identified as queer, as well as a handful of other sexual identities. Similarly, for gender, 15 participants identified as nonbinary or genderqueer. However, responses from 12 transgender participants were received, and as long as they noted that they identified as either male or female in their day-to-day life (i.e., not non-binary), they were included in the analytic sample. In this way, all but two of the trans participants were included in the final sample. After accounting for and removing these participants, the final analytic sample included $N = 451$ participants.

The gender and sexual identity breakdown of the sample was relatively even, although there were fewer bisexual men than other categories of participants. Specifically, the final sample included 123 gay-identified men, 55 bisexual-identified men, 127 gay- or lesbian-identified women, and 146 bisexual-identified women (see Table 1). Participants ranged in age from 18 to 70 ($M = 36.57$ years, $SD = 11.47$ years) and had a median household income of \$60,000 - \$79,999. The sample was majority White (73.4%) and educated (14.2% of the sample held a degree from a 2-year institution, 28.7% held a degree from a 4-year institution, and 19.3% held a Master's degree or higher), and was drawn from across all regions of the US, although the Southeast was somewhat overrepresented in the sample (33.7% of participants; see Table 2). Participants also represented several different types of employment and job levels in various sectors. Specifically, 61.4% of participants were paid hourly, while 36.1% were salaried. Most participants were in intermediate/experienced positions (39.9%) or mid-level management (24.8%). The job sectors with the largest number of participants were manufacturing (8.9%), health science (8.9%), human services (8.9%), finance (8.6%), and education and training (8.2%). The median length of employment with the current employer in the sample was 3 – 5 years (see Table 3).

Procedures

Potential participants were invited to take part in a 45-minute survey exploring the workplace experiences of LGBTQ+ employees. Participants were recruited through Qualtrics paneling services. Qualtrics recruited participants from various sources, including website intercept recruitment, member referrals, targeted email lists, gaming sites, customer loyalty web portals, permission-based networks, and social media. Panel members were sent an email invitation or prompted on a survey platform to proceed with the survey (see Appendix A for example recruitment messaging sent by Qualtrics). The invitation provided a hyperlink that

Table 1. Study 1 participants by gender and sexual identity ($N = 451$).

		Sexual Identity n (%)		
		Gay/Lesbian	Bisexual	Total
Gender n (%)	Male	123 (27.3%)	55 (12.2%)	178 (39.5%)
	Female	127 (28.2%)	146 (32.4%)	273 (60.5%)
	Total	250 (55.4%)	201 (44.6%)	451 (100.0%)

Table 2. Study 1 participant demographics ($N = 451$).

Variable	n (%)
Race/Ethnicity	
White	331 (73.4%)
Black	51 (11.3%)
Latinx	24 (5.3%)
Asian	13 (2.9%)
Native American	1 (0.2%)
Multiple Ethnicities	31 (6.9%)
Education Level	
No High School Diploma	3 (0.7%)
High School Diploma	70 (15.5%)
GED/ABE Certificate	7 (1.6%)
Some College	90 (20.0%)
2-year Degree	64 (14.2%)
4-year Degree	130 (28.7%)
Master's Degree	72 (16.0%)
Doctoral Degree	15 (3.3%)
Annual Household Income	
Less than \$20,000	35 (7.8%)
\$20,000 - \$39,999	91 (20.2%)
\$40,000 - \$59,999	92 (20.4%)
\$60,000 - \$79,999	95 (21.1%)
\$80,000 - \$99,999	35 (7.8%)
\$100,000 - \$149,999	71 (15.7%)
\$150,000 - \$249,999	24 (5.3%)
\$250,000 or more	8 (1.7%)
Geographic Region	
Northeast	87 (19.3%)
Southeast	152 (33.7%)
Midwest	80 (17.7%)
Southwest	42 (9.3%)
West	90 (20.0%)

Table 3. Study 1 participant job characteristics ($N = 451$).

Variable	n (%)
Employment Type	
Hourly	277 (61.4%)
Salaried	163 (36.1%)
Commission/Tip	11 (2.4%)
Job Level	
Entry Level	93 (20.6%)
Intermediate/Experienced	180 (39.9%)
First-Level Management	28 (6.2%)
Mid-Level Management	112 (24.8%)
Senior/Executive	38 (8.4%)
Job Industry	
Agriculture, Food, & Natural Resources	30 (6.7%)
Architecture & Construction	17 (3.8%)
Arts, Audio/Visual Technology & Communications	12 (2.7%)
Business Management & Administration	20 (4.4%)
Education & Training	37 (8.2%)
Finance	39 (8.6%)
Government & Public Administration	25 (5.5%)
Health Science	40 (8.9%)
Hospitality & Tourism	34 (7.5%)
Human Services	40 (8.9%)
Information Technology	29 (6.4%)
Law, Public Safety, Corrections & Security	10 (2.2%)
Manufacturing	40 (8.9%)
Marketing	23 (5.1%)
Science, Technology, Engineering & Mathematics	10 (2.2%)
Transportation, Distribution & Logistics	34 (7.5%)
No Response	11 (2.4%)
Tenure with Current Employer	
1 – 2 Years	158 (35.0%)
3 – 5 Years	128 (28.4%)
6 – 10 Years	84 (18.6%)
11 – 20 Years	60 (13.3%)
More than 20 Years	21 (4.7%)

connected potential participants to the survey and mentioned the incentive offered in the form of points that could be exchanged for currency or merchandise on partnering websites. Each participant was compensated differently by Qualtrics, depending on such factors as how long they had been a panel member, how many surveys they had previously completed with quality data, etc.

Once participants linked to the survey website, they were provided with the consent form and a Completely Automated Public Turing Test to Tell Computer and Humans Apart (CAPTCHA) item. Participants were then asked to complete a short screener to confirm their eligibility. Specifically, the screener asked participants to confirm that they were at least 18 years old, identified as LGBTQ+, had a full-time job (i.e., 30+ hours per week or 130+ hours per month), had worked for their current employer for at least one year, and were not self-employed. If they met all of the eligibility criteria, they were asked to provide consent to participate in the study. Those who provided consent were then directed to respond to the survey questions. At the end of the survey, participants were thanked for their time, and Qualtrics provided them with the compensation they agreed upon before entering the survey. Several potential participants ($N = 2101$) were screened out during this process. Most of these potential participants either did not identify as LGBTQ+ ($N = 284$), did not work full-time ($N = 1094$), or did neither ($N = 593$). Only a small number of potential participants qualified for the study but did not provide consent to participate ($N = 21$). Data collection continued until the target of $N = 500$ survey responses were completed.

Measures

The measures used in this study were drawn from a more extensive survey focused on the workplace experiences of LGBTQ+ employees. All measures used in this study are provided in Appendix B, and the full survey is available on request.

Outness. Outness was measured using two items adapted from the disclosure subsection of the Nebraska Outness Scale (NOS-D; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). The original scale uses an 11-point response scale, corresponding to the percent of people (ranging from 0% to 100% in increments of 10%) in a number of groups who respondents believe are aware of their sexual orientation. These groups include members of their immediate family, extended family, people they socialize with, people at their work/school, and strangers. For this study, the work/school item was split into two items with one referring to supervisor(s)/manager(s), and the other referring to coworkers. Specifically, participants were asked, “How many of your supervisor(s)/manager(s) do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?”, and “How many of the people you work with other than your supervisor(s)/manager(s) do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?”. In addition, the response scale was reduced to a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *None* to 5 = *All*), with higher scores indicating more outness with those individuals. There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between outness to supervisors and coworkers, $r=.75, p<.001$. As such, these two items were combined to create a composite variable ($\alpha = .85$).

Sexual Orientation Concealment. Concealment was measured using two items adapted from the concealment subsection of the Nebraska Outness Scale (NOS-C; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). The original scale asks how often respondents avoid talking about topics related to or otherwise indicating their sexual orientation with different groups, including members of their immediate family, extended family, people they socialize with, people at their work/school, and strangers. Responses on the original measure are on an 11-point scale, ranging from “Never” to “Always”. For this study, the work/school item was split into two items with one referring to supervisor(s)/manager(s), and the other referring to coworkers. Specifically, participants were

asked, “How often do you currently try to hide your sexual orientation from your supervisor(s)/manager(s)?”, and “How often do you currently try to hide your sexual orientation from the people you work with other than your supervisor(s)/manager(s)?”. In addition, the response scale was reduced to a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *None* to 5 = *All*), with higher scores indicating more concealment from those individuals. There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between outness to supervisors and coworkers, $r=.86, p<.001$. As such, these two items were combined to create a composite variable ($\alpha = .92$).

Sexual Orientation Disclosure. Disclosure was measured using two items that were developed to provide additional information beyond the items from the disclosure subsection of the Nebraska Outness Scale (NOS-D; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). These two items were only shown to participants who previously reported that their supervisors or other colleagues were aware of their sexual orientation (i.e., their score on the outness scale was greater than one). Specifically, these participants were asked, “Of your supervisor(s)/manager(s) who are aware of your sexual orientation, how many of them know because you told them?”, and “Of the people you work with other than your supervisor(s)/manager(s) who are aware of your sexual orientation, how many of them know because you told them?”. These items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *None* to 5 = *All*), with higher scores indicating more disclosures to those individuals. There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between outness to supervisors and coworkers, $r=.70, p<.001$. As such, these two items were combined to create a composite variable ($\alpha = .82$).

Perceived Workplace Support. Perceived workplace support was measured using nine items from the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Climate Inventory (LGBTICI; Liddle, Luzzo, Hauenstein, & Schuck, 2004). The original measure consists of 20 items with the stem

“At my current workplace...”. Example items include, “LGBTQ+ employees are treated with respect,” “the atmosphere for LGBTQ+ employees is oppressive” (reverse-scored), and “LGBTQ+ employees feel accepted by coworkers.” Responses were collected on a 5-point response scale ranging from 1=“*Strongly disagree*” to 5=“*Strongly agree*.” A composite measure was created from these nine items with higher scores indicating higher perceived workplace support ($\alpha = .91$).

Person-Organization Fit. Person-organization fit was assessed with the 3-item measure developed by Judge and Cable (1997). The items included, “My values, goals, and personality ‘match’ or fit this organization and the current employees in this organization”, “My values and personality prevent me from ‘fitting in’ this organization because they are different from most of the other employees’ values and personalities” (reverse-scored), and “The values and ‘personality’ of this organization reflect my own values and personality”. Items were rated on a 5-point response scale, ranging from 1=“Strongly Disagree” to 5=“Strongly Agree”. These items were averaged to form a composite, with higher scores indicating more person-organization fit. Although the measure demonstrated adequate reliability ($\alpha = .74$), and so they were averaged to create a composite measure of person-organization fit.

LGBTQ+-friendly Policies and Practices. Six items based on those proposed by Ragins and Cornwell (2001) asked participants about organizational policies and practices relevant to LGBTQ+ employees. These items used the stem, “To the best of your knowledge, does your current employer...” and then included, “Have a written nondiscrimination policy that includes sexual orientation?”, “Include sexual orientation in the definition of diversity?”, “Include awareness of LGBTQ+ issues in diversity training?”, “Offer same-sex domestic partner benefits?”, “Offer LGBTQ+ resources or support groups?”, and “Welcome same-sex partners at

company social events?”. Response options for these items were “Yes”, “No”, and “Don’t Know/Unsure”. A composite variable was calculated based on the summed scores ($KR-20 = .80$, and none of the corrected item-total correlations were less than $.30$), where higher scores indicated the presence of more LGBTQ+-friendly policies. It should be noted that the “Don’t Know” option was included so that participants did not feel forced to choose either yes or no. As such, responses of “Don’t Know/Unsure” were counted as a “No” for the purposes of the composite score.

Organizational Embeddedness. Organizational embeddedness was measured with five items from Omoto and Snyder’s (2010) measure of psychological sense of community. Although not a direct measure of organizational embeddedness, the items included in this measure are similar in content to those items in other measures of the construct. Participants rated their agreement with statements including “I have a sense of belonging at my current workplace,” “I feel like an outsider at my current workplace [reverse-scored],” “I am proud to be employed at my current workplace,” “My current job/work is very important to me,” and “My job/work is important to my identity.” These items were rated on a 5-point response scale, ranging from 1 = “Strongly disagree” to 5 = “Strongly agree”. A composite measure was created as an average score across these five items ($\alpha = .83$), with higher scores indicating more organizational embeddedness.

Sexual Identity. Sexual identity was assessed with a single item asking, “Which of the following best represents how you currently think of yourself?”. Possible response options include “Gay”, “Lesbian”, “Bisexual”, and “Not listed (Please specify)”. If “Not listed” was selected, participants were then asked to enter their sexual identity in a response box. An additional option of “Heterosexual/Straight” was also provided as an extra eligibility check. If

any participants had selected this option, they would have been removed from the survey due to ineligibility. However, no participants selected this option.

Gender. Gender was assessed with a single item asking, “Which best describes your current gender identity?”. Possible response options included “Male”, “Female”, “Indigenous or other culture gender minority identity (e.g., two-spirit)”, and “Not listed (e.g., gender fluid, non-binary; please specify)”. If “Not listed” was selected, participants were then asked to enter their current gender identity in a response box, and some of those participants were removed from the analytic sample, as previously described.

Job Characteristics. Participants were asked to report on the characteristics of their current job and work history. Specifically, they provided their job industry, current job level, type of employment (i.e., hourly, salaried, or commission/tip), and length of employment with current employer.

Demographics. Participants provided demographic information, including their age (in years), race, ethnicity, education level, annual household income, and county and state of residence.

Results

The constructs of interest were first examined descriptively in terms of their overall distributions and patterns of correlation. Next, the exploratory research question about gender and sexual identity differences across all constructs of interest was examined. Following that presentation, results of analyses pertaining to the specific hypotheses are provided. For each hypothesis, gender and sexual identity differences are also examined as exploratory follow-up analyses.

Descriptive Information

The constructs of interest were first examined descriptively, including means, standard deviations, skewness/kurtosis, and patterns of zero-order correlations. There were no issues related to skew or kurtosis (i.e., no values for skew exceeded +/- 1.00, and no value for kurtosis exceeded +/- 3.00). In addition, most variables had means located toward the scale's center rather than the extreme ends. However, when examining histograms, some of the distributions did not appear normal, particularly those related to some of the sexual identity management strategies (specifically outness and concealment, although not disclosure), which exhibited somewhat bimodal distributions. Although the means of these variables tended to be in the center of the distribution, there were a large frequency of scores in the extremes of these distributions, so these constructs were explored in more depth. Complete descriptive information for all variables included in the study can be found in Table 4.

Distributions for Sexual Identity Management Strategies. The individual items were examined separately to explore the nature of the bimodal distribution for the outness, concealment, and disclosure variables. Most participants reported being either out to all of their supervisors (34%) or to none of their supervisors (30%), with fewer participants falling somewhere between the extremes. This bimodal distribution may be due at least in part to the fact that a large portion of the sample reported having only one (45%) or two (30%) supervisors, leaving little room for variability in actual degree of outness (i.e., if an employee only has one supervisor, then they can only either be out or not out to that person). The distribution for outness with coworkers was much more evenly distributed, with 24% of participants reporting being out to all their coworkers, and 18% reporting not being out to any of their coworkers.

Table 4. Study 1 variable means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and zero-order correlations ($N = 451^a$).

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Sexual identity	0.45	0.50	-								
2. Gender	0.61	0.49	-	.22***							
3. Outness	3.10	1.47	.85	-.40***	-.10*						
4. Concealment	2.26	1.47	.92	.19***	-.15**	-.53***					
5. Disclosure	3.22	1.40	.82	.05	.01	.40***	-.19***				
6. Support	3.80	0.90	.91	-.01	.09	.25***	-.48***	.15**			
7. Org Fit	3.46	0.88	.64	.01	-.02	.08	-.16***	.08	.55***		
8. LGBTQ policies	3.39	2.04	.80 ^b	-.06	-.05	.21***	-.12*	.15**	.32***	.30***	
9. Embeddedness	3.73	0.91	.83	-.04	-.03	.17***	-.19***	.13*	.57***	.64***	.33***

Note: ^aFor correlations that include disclosure, $N = 374$. ^bReliability assessed with Kuder-Richardson 20. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; $p < .001$.

Sexual identity and gender were measured with single items. All other variables were measured using 5-point scales, with higher scores indicating higher levels of that variable.

The concealment variable was also bimodal, however with a much larger frequency in the negative extreme of the distribution (i.e., a larger number of participants never actively concealing their sexual orientation from supervisors or coworkers). The individual distributions of concealment for both supervisors and coworkers were positively skewed, although not quite to the extent that it caused concern (.85 for supervisors and .71 for coworkers). Half of participants reported that they never actively conceal their sexual orientation from their supervisors or coworkers. On the other hand, 14% reported that they conceal their sexual orientation from their supervisors all the time, and 15% reported that they conceal their sexual orientation from their coworkers all the time, with smaller proportions of participants reporting concealment between the extreme ends of the distribution.

Only participants who reported being out to their supervisors or coworkers ($N = 374$) were asked whether they disclosed their sexual orientation voluntarily. The disclosure composite variable was fairly evenly split, although with a higher proportion of participants (18.2%) at the positive end of the distribution (i.e., disclosing to everyone at work). The distributions for the individual variables were also split in a fairly even way. Specifically, 23% of participants reported that they had disclosed their sexual orientation to all of their supervisors, and 15% reported that they had not disclosed their sexual orientation to any of their supervisors. Similarly, 21% of participants reported that they had disclosed their sexual orientation to all of their coworkers, and 11% reported that they had not disclosed their sexual orientation to any of their coworkers.

This pattern raises the question of whether those participants who were out but had not explicitly disclosed their sexual orientation had been involuntarily outed, or whether they just assumed that their sexual orientation was known. Although the survey did not explicitly ask

about instances of involuntary disclosure of sexual orientation (i.e., being outed), it did ask other questions relevant to perceptions and feelings of outness. Specifically, the survey included questions about whether participants believed that their supervisors and coworkers would guess that they were LGBTQ+ (even if they were not told this information explicitly). Zero-order correlations among these variables were assessed to further understand the nature of sexual orientation disclosures. Interestingly, there was a weak but significant negative correlation between the degree of disclosure and reports that individuals would guess that participants were LGBTQ+, for both supervisors ($r = -.14, p = .02$) and coworkers ($r = -.12, p = .02$). This pattern of correlations suggests that those who reported a lower degree of disclosure may feel that their supervisors and colleagues may just assume that they are LGBTQ+, rather than being involuntarily outed in their workplace.

Correlations between Study Variables. The zero-order correlations were next examined across all of the variables of interest in the study. A number of interesting findings were revealed across these correlations. Specifically, there were many significant correlations among the variables in the study, however, all of these correlations were in hypothesized directions or in directions that made logical sense for those constructs. For example, outness was negatively correlated with concealment ($r = -.53, p < .001$) and positively correlated with disclosure ($r = .40, p < .001$). Disclosure was also negatively correlated with concealment ($r = -.19, p < .001$).

Both organizational support for LGBTQ+ employees and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies were positively correlated with outness ($r = .25, p < .001$, and $r = .21, p < .001$, respectively) and disclosure ($r = .15, p = .005$ for both variables). They were also negatively correlated with concealment ($r = -.48, p < .001$, and $r = -.12, p = .01$, respectively). However, organizational fit was only related to concealment, although the correlation was

negative ($r = -.16, p < .001$). There were also significant positive correlations between perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and organizational fit ($r = .55, p < .001$), perceived support and presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies ($r = .32, p < .001$), and organizational fit and policies ($r = .30, p < .001$). Finally, organizational embeddedness was positively correlated with outness ($r = .17, p < .001$), disclosure ($r = .13, p = .01$), perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees ($r = .57, p < .001$), organizational fit ($r = .64, p < .001$), and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies ($r = .33, p < .001$), and negatively correlated with concealment ($r = -.19, p < .001$).

Notably, although many of the variables display patterns of correlation, none of these correlations are so strong as to suggest that the variables are not theoretically distinct. Indeed, the strongest correlation among these variables was $r = .64$, which, while strong, still leaves room for additional variance to be explained. These results provided evidence that the regression models would not exhibit multicollinearity issues. A further point of interest was that different predictors were more strongly associated with different sexual identity management strategies in some cases. Specifically, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and organizational fit were most strongly correlated with concealment, while the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies was most strongly correlated with outness.

Gender and Sexual Identity Differences

The exploratory research question examined gender and sexual identity differences across all of the variables of interest. Mean differences were first explored across the sexual identity management strategies, namely outness, concealment, and disclosure, as well as differences in the correlations among sexual identity management strategies. Then, differences were explored for the organizational variables, including perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies, as well as the correlations

among those variables. Lastly, mean differences in organizational embeddedness were examined based on gender and sexual identity.

Differences in Workplace Sexual Identity Management Strategies. First, exploratory analyses were conducted in order to explore any potential mean differences in outness, concealment, and disclosure based on gender and sexual identity. All analyses involving outness and concealment include $N=451$ participants. As participants were only asked about disclosures if they indicated they were out to any extent, all analyses involving disclosure include the subset of $N=374$ participants who indicated they were out to at least some extent at work.

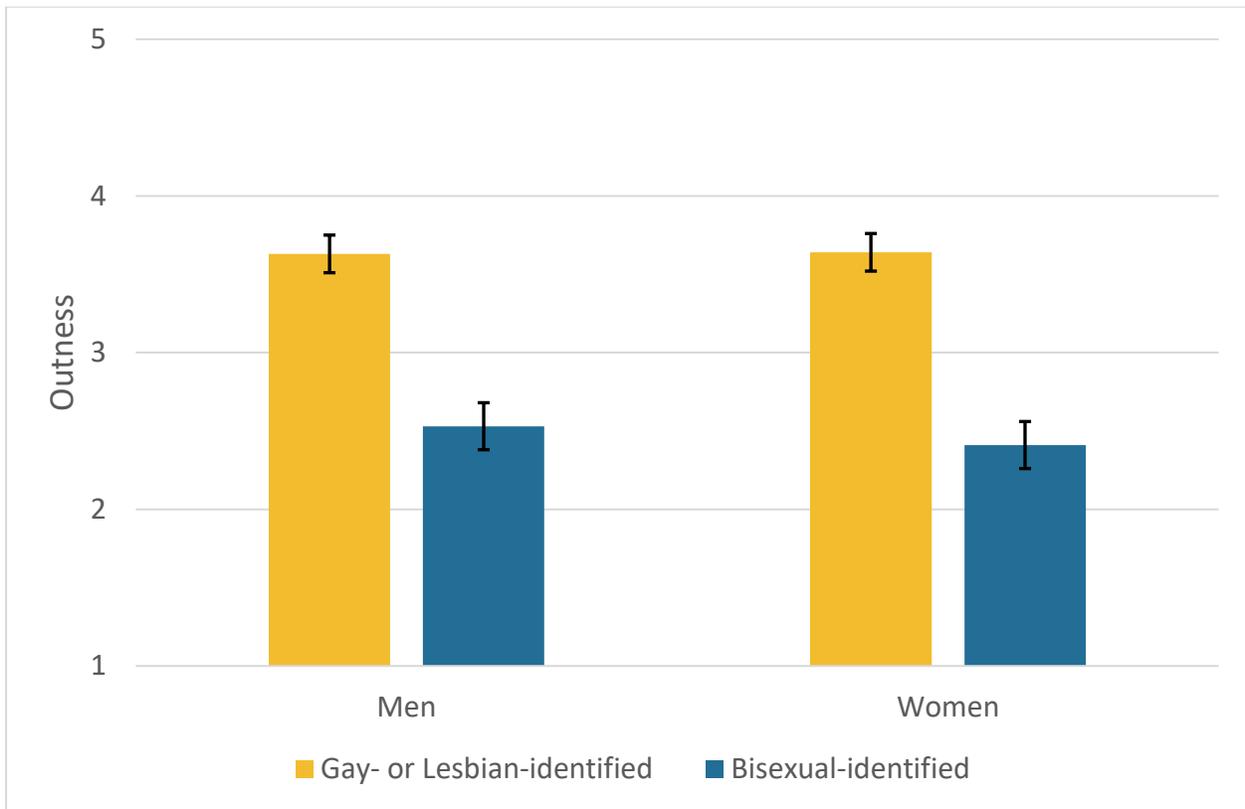
Differences in mean composite outness based on gender and sexual identity were explored with a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. A main effect of sexual identity emerged, such that bisexual-identified participants reported being less out ($M = 2.44, SD = 1.35$) than gay- and lesbian-identified participants ($M = 3.63, SD = 1.34$), $F(1, 447) = 72.73, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .14$. There was neither a main effect of gender identity nor an interaction of gender in sexual identity. Both bisexual-identified men and women report similarly less outness than their gay- and lesbian-identified counterparts (see Table 5 and Figure 3).

As with composite outness, differences in mean composite concealment based on gender and sexual identity were explored with a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. The main effects of both gender and sexual identity emerged in this model. Overall, men reported engaging in concealment more often ($M = 2.53, SD = 1.55$) than women ($M = 2.08, SD = 1.39$), $F(1, 447) = 23.46, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .05$. In addition, bisexual-identified participants reported engaging in concealing more often ($M = 2.56, SD = 1.57$), than gay- and lesbian-identified participants ($M = 2.01, SD = 1.33$), $F(1, 447) = 59.71, p < .001, \eta_p^2 =$

Table 5. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with outness as the criterion ($N=451$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	3630.68	1	3630.68	1996.71	<.001	.82
Sexual Identity	132.24	1	132.24	72.73	<.001	.14
Gender	0.25	1	0.25	0.14	.71	<.001
Sexual Identity * Gender	0.43	1	0.43	0.23	.63	.001
Error	812.80	447	1.82			

Figure 3. Mean differences in outness by sexual identity and gender ($N=451$).



Note: Error bars represent standard error.

.06, which aligns with the prior main effect of sexual identity on outness. These main effects were qualified by a significant interaction of gender and sexual identity, $F(1, 447) = 6.73, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .02$. Follow-up simple effects comparisons using Bonferroni adjustments revealed that for gay- and lesbian-identified participants, there was no significant difference in concealment between women ($M = 1.85, SD = 1.25$) and men ($M = 2.18, SD = 1.40$), $p = .07$; however bisexual-identified men engaged in more concealment ($M = 3.33, SD = 1.58$) than bisexual-identified women ($M = 2.27, SD = 1.47$), $p < .001$. This result suggests that bisexual-identified men are especially likely to report concealing their sexual orientation in the workplace (see Table 6 and Figure 4).

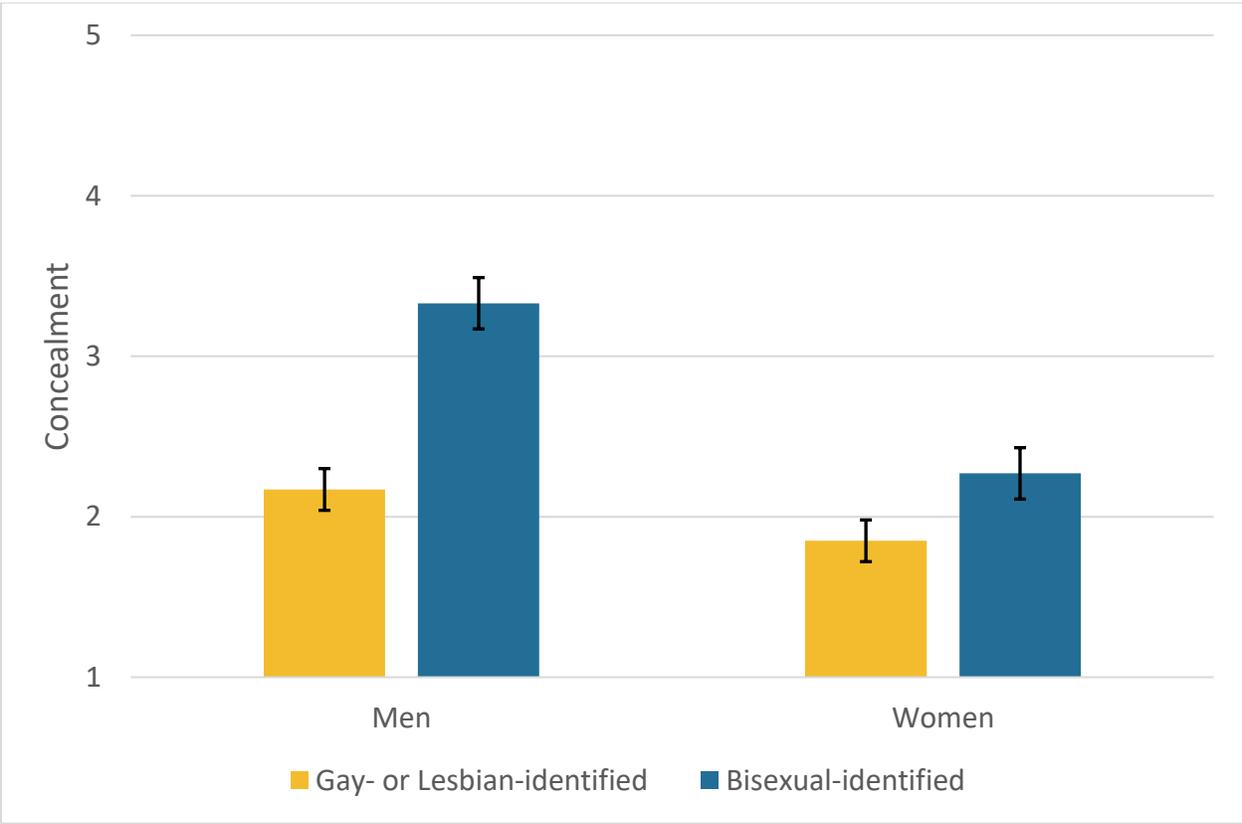
For those participants who had reported being out to some degree, differences in mean composite disclosure based on gender and sexual identity were examined using a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. No significant differences emerged in terms of degree of disclosure based on gender or sexual identity, and there was no interaction present (see Table 7).

The zero-order correlations between the different sexual identity management strategies were also compared based on gender and sexual identity using Fisher transformations (see Table 8). These analyses revealed a significantly stronger positive association between outness and disclosure for bisexual-identified women ($r = .57$) than for lesbian-identified women ($r = .38$). In addition, there was a significantly stronger negative association between concealment and disclosure for bisexual-identified men ($r = -.58$) than gay-identified men ($r = -.21$). Due to existing stigma, bisexual-identified women may need to explicitly disclose their sexual identity in order to actually be out (rather than being assumed to be heterosexual- or lesbian-identified, for example). Similarly, since bisexual-identified men reported concealing their sexual identity

Table 6. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with concealment as the criterion ($N=451$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	2256.90	1	2256.90	1139.62	<.001	.72
Sexual Identity	59.71	1	59.71	30.15	<.001	.06
Gender	46.45	1	45.45	23.46	<.001	.05
Sexual Identity * Gender	13.33	1	13.33	6.73	0.01	.02
Error	885.24	447	1.98			

Figure 4. Mean differences in concealment by sexual identity and gender.



Note: Error bars represent standard error.

Table 7. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with disclosure as the criterion ($N=374$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	3074.00	1	3074.00	1576.66	<.001	.81
Sexual Identity	3.37	1	3.37	1.73	.19	.05
Gender	0.47	1	0.47	0.42	.62	.001
Sexual Identity * Gender	3.01	1	3.01	1.54	.22	.004
Error	721.39	370	1.95			

Table 8. Comparison of zero-order correlations between outness, concealment, and disclosure based on gender and sexual identity ($N = 451^a$).

Correlation	Gay Men	Bi Men	Lesbian Women	Bi Women
Outness & Concealment	-.62***	-.59***	-.49***	-.46***
Outness & Disclosure	.39***	.45**	.38*** ^c	.57*** ^c
Concealment & Disclosure	-.21* ^b	-.58*** ^b	-.15	-.16

Note: ^aFor correlations that include disclosure, $N = 374$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Correlation coefficients with the same superscript are significantly different.

more often than other groups (as reported previously), concealment and disclosure may be more diametrically opposed for bisexual-identified men as well.

Based on these analyses, some evidence suggests that certain sexual identity management strategies (i.e., outness and concealment) differ based on sexual identity and gender. Notably, bisexual-identified individuals were less out, and concealed more, than those who were gay- or lesbian-identified. Men also tended to conceal their sexual identity more than women, and bisexual-identified men were especially likely to engage in concealment practices as a sexual identity management strategy. Not only that, but the patterns of correlations between the different sexual identity management strategies were inconsistent based on gender and sexual identity, and specifically in terms of the strength of association (although not in regard to direction). For example, while all groups demonstrated significant negative correlations between outness and concealment, the correlations for men were generally stronger than those for women. However, when considering the positive correlations between outness and disclosure, the association was especially strong for bisexual-identified women. Finally, although all correlations between concealment and disclosure were negative, the association was especially strong for bisexual-identified men, and the correlations were nonsignificant for both lesbian-identified and bisexual-identified women. Taken together, these patterns of findings may suggest that the practices associated with different sexual identity management strategies are less connected than even current conceptualizations may suggest, and that the psychological or social processes associated with these strategies may be somewhat distinct for different individuals.

Differences in Organizational Variables. Next, exploratory analyses were conducted to explore any potential mean differences in perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees,

organizational fit, and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies based on gender and sexual identity, as well as differences in the patterns of association among those variables.

To examine whether there were differences in mean composite perceived workplace support for LGBTQ+ employees, a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA was performed. A main effect of gender emerged here, such that women reported higher perceptions of workplace support ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.90$) than men ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.90$), $F(1, 447) = 5.27$, $p = .02$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. There was no main effect of sexual identity. However, it is worth noting that bisexual-identified men reported the lowest perceived support ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 0.89$) compared to other groups, although this difference was not statistically significant, $F(1, 447) = 3.55$, $p = .06$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$ (see Table 9 and Figure 5).

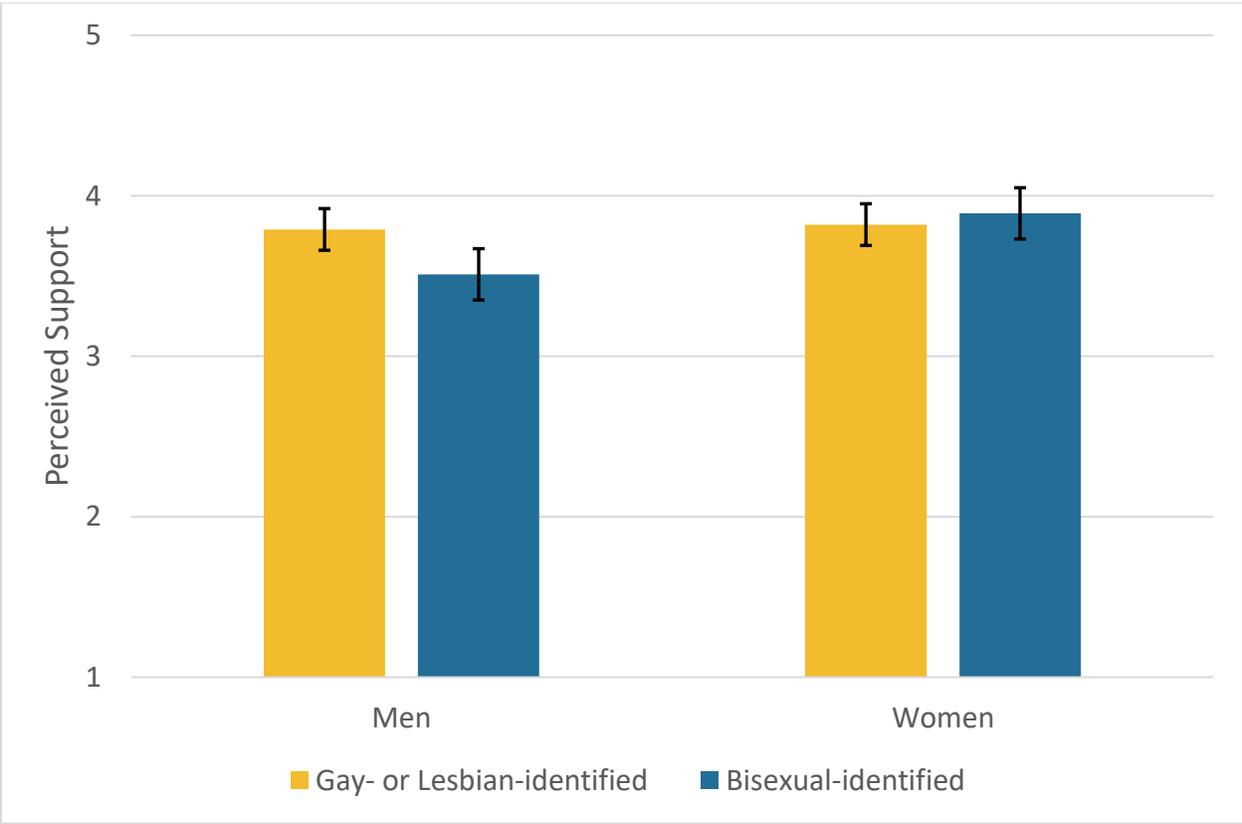
To examine whether there were differences in mean composite perceived organizational fit, a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA was performed. No significant differences emerged in this model based on gender or sexual identity, or the interaction (see Table 10). Indeed, the mean composite scores for organizational fit displayed very little difference across groups (means ranged from 3.42 for lesbian-identified women to 3.48 for gay-identified men).

Reports of the specific types of LGBTQ+ friendly policies included in the survey were next examined descriptively. The reports appeared similar across all of the included policies. Specifically, 69% of participants reported that their employer had a written nondiscrimination policy that includes sexual orientation, 65% reported that sexual orientation is included in their employer's definition of diversity, 63% reported that same-sex partners are officially welcomed at company social events, 55% reported that diversity training included awareness of LGBTQ+

Table 9. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with perceived workplace support as the criterion ($N=451$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	5489.10	1	5489.10	6832.44	<.001	.94
Sexual Identity	1.12	1	1.12	1.40	.24	.003
Gender	4.24	1	4.24	5.27	.02	.01
Sexual Identity * Gender	2.86	1	2.86	3.55	.06	.008
Error	359.12	447	0.80			

Figure 5. Mean differences in perceived workplace support by sexual identity and gender.



Note: Error bars represent standard error.

Table 10. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with organizational fit as the criterion ($N=451$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	4616.18	1	4616.18	5941.96	<.001	.93
Sexual Identity	0.03	1	0.03	0.04	.85	<.001
Gender	0.09	1	0.09	0.11	.74	<.001
Sexual Identity * Gender	0.04	1	0.04	0.05	.82	<.001
Error	344.16	447	0.78			

issues, 46% reported that their employer offered same-sex domestic partner benefits, and 41% reported that LGBTQ+ resources or support groups were available to employees.

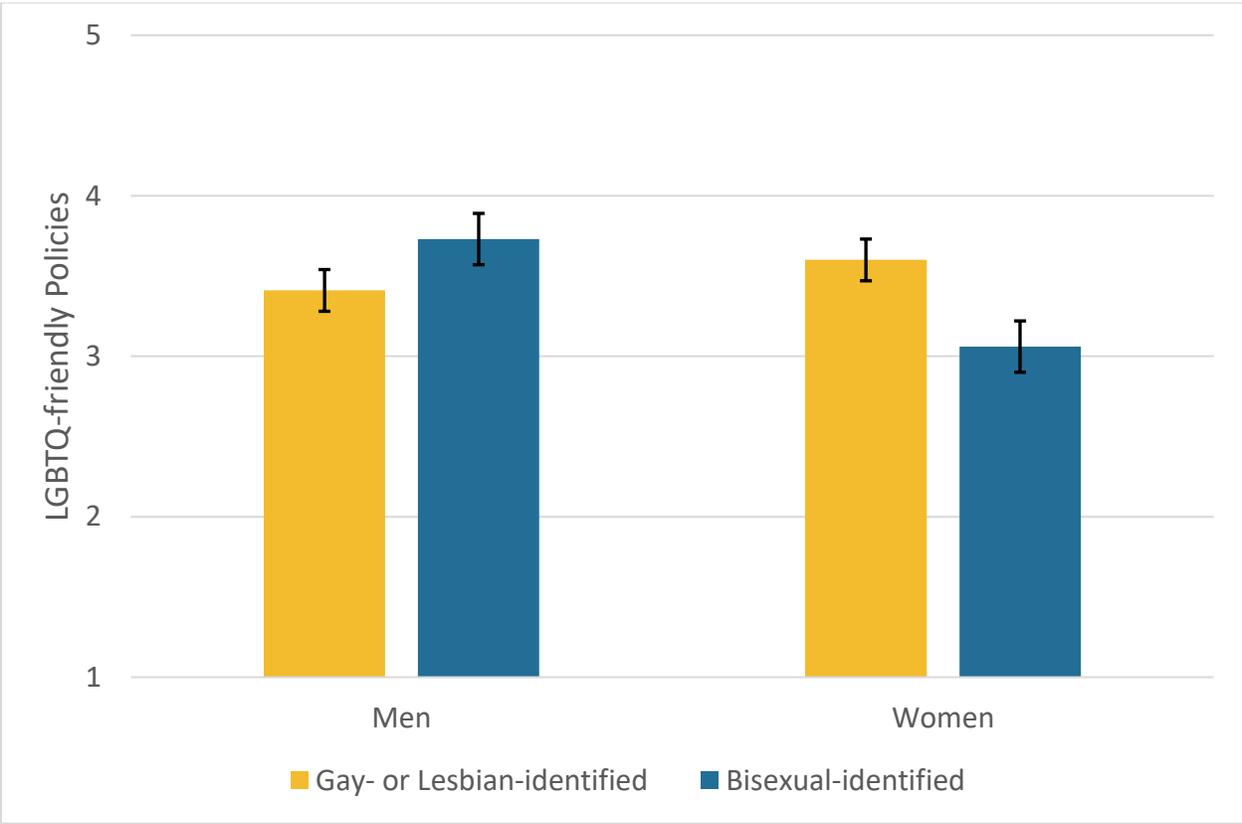
To examine whether there were group differences in mean composite supportive LGBTQ+ policies, a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA was performed. A significant interaction of gender and sexual identity emerged, $F(1, 447)=4.21, p=.04, \eta_p^2=.01$. Simple effects comparisons using Bonferroni adjustments revealed that bisexual-identified women reported significantly fewer supportive LGBTQ+ policies ($M=3.06, SD=2.02$) than lesbian-identified women ($M=3.60, SD=2.02$), $p = .03$. At the same time, there was no significant difference in such reports between bisexual-identified men ($M=3.73, SD=1.95$) and gay-identified men ($M=3.41, SD=2.11$), $p = .34$ (see Table 11 and Figure 6). To explore this difference further, chi-square tests of independence were run on each specific type of supportive LGBTQ+ policy, comparing frequencies for lesbian-identified and bisexual-identified women. These analyses revealed that lesbian-identified women reported that their organizations offered same-sex domestic partner benefits at significantly higher rates (50.4%) than bisexual-identified women (33.6%), $\chi^2(1) = 7.93, p = .005, V = .17$. Similarly, lesbian-identified women reported that their organizations offered LGBTQ+ resources or support groups to employees at significantly higher rates (46.8%) than bisexual-identified women (32.9%), $\chi^2(1) = 5.51, p = .02, V = .14$. It may be that lesbian-identified women are more attracted to organizations that offer domestic partner benefits or explicit LGBTQ+ resources than bisexual-identified women.

The zero-order correlations between the different organizational variables were also compared based on gender and sexual identity using Fisher transformations (see Table 12). Nearly all of the correlations examined were statistically significant, except for one

Table 11. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with LGBTQ-friendly policies as the criterion ($N=451$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	4559.74	1	4559.74	1099.71	<.001	.72
Sexual Identity	1.16	1	1.16	0.28	.60	.001
Gender	5.38	1	5.38	1.30	.26	.003
Sexual Identity * Gender	17.45	1	17.45	4.21	.04	.01
Error	1803.65	447	4.15			

Figure 6. Mean differences in LGBTQ-friendly policies by sexual identity and gender.



Note: Error bars represent standard error.

Table 12. Comparison of zero-order correlations between perceived support, organizational fit, and supportive policies based on gender and sexual identity ($N = 451$).

Correlation	Gay Men	Bi Men	Lesbian Women	Bi Women
Support & Fit	.58***	.58***	.66*** ^a	.41*** ^a
Support & Policies	.24*	.30*	.39***	.40***
Fit & Policies	.25**	.21	.39***	.29***

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Correlation coefficients with the same superscript are significantly different.

nonsignificant correlation between organizational fit and supportive LGBTQ+ policies for bisexual-identified men. In addition, the association between perceived support and policies was weaker for both gay- and bisexual-identified men. These differences in correlation may suggest that for some groups, simply working for an organization with supportive LGBTQ+ does not necessarily imply that the environment will be perceived as more supportive for LGBTQ+ employees, or that it is a better fit for them. However, only one significant difference emerged between the correlations. Specifically, the positive association between perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and organizational fit was significantly stronger for lesbian-identified women ($r = .66$) than for bisexual-identified women ($r = .41$), $p = .002$.

Finally, differences in mean composite embeddedness were assessed using a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. No significant differences emerged in this model based on gender or sexual identity, or the interaction (see Table 13). These findings suggest that there may be some key differences in the relationships between organizational factors for different groups of employees. Specifically, bisexual-identified individuals tended to report less perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and bisexual-identified women reported that their organizations had fewer supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Although there were no overall differences in embeddedness reported between groups, there may still be differences in the predictive strength of sexual identity management strategies for embeddedness, as well as the extent to which other factors promote various sexual identity management strategies. As such, all direct tests of the planned hypotheses also examined whether those correlation coefficients differed by gender and sexual identity as additional exploratory analyses.

Table 13. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with embeddedness as the criterion ($N=451$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	5394.30	1	5394.30	6522.20	<.001	.94
Sexual Identity	0.81	1	0.81	0.98	.32	.002
Gender	0.03	1	0.03	0.03	.85	<.001
Sexual Identity * Gender	1.43	1	1.43	1.73	.19	.004
Error	369.70	447	0.83			

Organizational Characteristics and Sexual Identity Management

Overall, Hypothesis 1 predicted that greater perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies would be associated with greater outness, less concealment, and greater disclosure. In addition, it was predicted that this association would exist even after controlling for any effects of gender and sexual identity. As such, this hypothesis was assessed using hierarchical linear regression. Separate models were created for each sexual identity management strategy (i.e., outness, concealment, and disclosure), with each model controlling for gender, sexual identity, and the two-way gender x sexual identity interaction term. In addition, each workplace sexual identity management strategy was regressed on each variable individually, as well as in a combined model. The results of these analyses will be discussed separately for each sexual identity management strategy. For each model, the primary statistics of interest for the hypothesis were the partial correlations; however, regression weights are also provided in all presented results.

Correlates of Workplace Outness. Hypothesis 1 predicted that perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies would be associated with more outness. This hypothesis was tested over a series of models, the first set of which regressed composite outness on each variable of interest individually (see Table 14). Using hierarchical linear regression, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction of gender x sexual identity were entered in the first step of the model, the single organizational variable of interest (i.e., perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, or presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies) was entered in step two, and the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and the organizational characteristic variable was entered in step three, resulting in three separate models (only step one was the same in each model). Step one of the

Table 14. Hierarchical linear regression models with outness regressed on sexual identity, gender, perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and LGBTQ-friendly policies ($N=451$).

Variable	At Entry/Single Variable				Final Model (Multiple Variables)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.17	<.001
Sexual Identity	-1.14	0.22	-.38	<.001	-1.03	0.21	-.35	<.001		
Gender	0.01	0.17	.004	.95	-0.03	0.17	-.01	.86		
Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.11	0.28	-.03	.71	-0.19	0.27	-.06	.47		
Step 2									.09	<.001
Perceived workplace support	0.42	0.07	.26	<.001	0.45	0.09	.28	<.001		
Organizational fit	0.13	0.07	.08	.07	-0.18	0.09	-.11	.03		
LGTBQ-friendly policies	0.14	0.03	.19	<.001	0.10	0.03	.13	.004		
Step 3										
Support*Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.20	0.15	-.26	.17						
Fit*Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.20	0.16	-.23	.21						
Policies* Sexual Identity*Gender	0.06	0.07	.07	.40						

Note: For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. For step 2 variables, values represent statistics when variable entered individually and in combined variable model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) were not included in the final model, as they were not significant. Reported change statistics are included for the final model with all variables entered.

regression model was significant overall, accounting for 16% of the variance in composite outness reports, $F(3, 447) = 29.09, p < .001$. In this model, and in line with prior findings, only sexual identity emerged as a significant correlate of outness, $r = -.23, B = -1.14, SE(B) = 0.22, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.53, -0.67], \beta = -.38, p < .001$.

When perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals was added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite outness, $R^2 = .22, F(4, 446) = 32.93, p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by perceived support in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .07, F(1, 446) = 37.37, p < .001$. As such, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees was a significant correlate of outness, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, employees who reported more perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees also tended to report being more out, on average, $r = .28, B = 0.42, SE(B) = 0.07, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.55], \beta = .26, p < .001$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and perceived support. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in composite outness, $R^2 = .22, F(5, 445) = 26.78, p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .003, F(1, 445) = 1.92, p = .17$. As such, the association between perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and outness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $r = -.07, B = -0.20, SE(B) = 0.15, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.49, 0.09], \beta = -.26, p = .17$. In other words, perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals appears important for promoting outness. It may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

A separate hierarchical linear regression model was run to assess the association of organization fit and composite outness. Again gender, sexual identity, and the two-way

interaction term were entered at step one (see above). When organizational fit was entered at step two of this model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite outness, $R^2 = .16$, $F(4, 446) = 22.91$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by organizational fit was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(1, 446) = 3.40$, $p = .07$. As such, although individuals who reported higher organizational fit also tended to report being more out, on average, this association was not statistically significant, $r = -.09$, $B = 0.13$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.01, 0.28], $\beta = .08$, $p = .07$. The three-way interaction of gender, sexual identity, and organizational fit was entered in step three of the model. Again, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite outness, $R^2 = .17$, $F(5, 445) = 18.68$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(1, 445) = 1.60$, $p = .21$. That is, the association between organizational fit and outness did not differ based on gender and sexual identity, $r = -.06$, $B = -0.20$, $SE(B) = 0.16$, 95% CI [-0.51, 0.11], $\beta = -.23$, $p = .21$. These results suggest that organizational fit may not specifically promote being out in the workplace in a meaningful way and that its relationship with outness is not especially strong (or weak) across gender and sexual identity groups.

The next model assessed the association between supportive LGBTQ+ policies and composite outness. When the summed composite score for LGBTQ+ policies was entered into step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in outness, $R^2 = .19$, $F(4, 446) = 27.20$, $p < .001$. In addition, the additional variance accounted for by supportive LGBTQ+ policies was also significant, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(1, 446) = 18.93$, $p < .001$. Specifically, those who reported that their organizations had more supportive LGBTQ+ policies also tended to report being more out, on average, $r = .20$, $B = 0.14$, $SE(B) = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.07, 0.20], $\beta = .19$, $p < .001$, and even after accounting for gender and sexual identity (and their

interaction). Once again, the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and LGBTQ+ policies was entered at step three. Here again, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in outness, $R^2 = .17$, $F(5, 445) = 21.89$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance in outness accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $F(1, 445) = 0.71$, $p = .40$. As such, the association between supportive LGBTQ+ policies and outness did not vary by gender or sexual identity, $r = .04$, $B = 0.06$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.19], $\beta = .07$, $p = .40$. In other words, more supportive LGBTQ+ policies promote outness in those employees and may have equal importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

To further tease out whether any particular form of supportive LGBTQ+ policies had an especially strong association with composite outness, an exploratory linear regression model was created. In this model, composite outness was regressed on the six individual supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Each of these binary variables was entered into a single step in the model (as the three-way interaction was not significant in the previous model, gender and sexual identity were ignored in this analysis). The overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in outness, $R^2 = .06$, $F(6, 444) = 5.90$, $p < .001$. Interestingly, however, the only policy to emerge as a significant correlate was whether same-sex partners were officially welcomed at company social events. Specifically, those who reported that same-sex partners were officially welcomed at company social events tended to be more out, on average, $r = .19$, $B = 0.55$, $SE(B) = 0.16$, 95% CI [0.23, 0.86], $\beta = .18$, $p < .001$. This finding is notable because this type of policy tends to be more informal or social than some of the other more formal policies assessed (e.g., a diversity statement that explicitly includes sexual orientation).

Finally, to determine each variable's relative strength in promoting outness, a final model was run, regressing composite outness on all the variables in one hierarchical linear regression

model (see Table 14). Once again, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one of the model. In step two, perceived support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were entered. It is important to note that, as none of the prior three-way interaction terms were significant, and to maintain parsimony in the model, the variables were only entered as main effects (i.e., no interactions among the variables or with gender or sexual identity). In the second step, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in outness, $R^2 = .25$, $F(6, 444) = 24.49$, $p < .001$. In addition, the three additional variables accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in outness, $\Delta R^2 = .09$, $F(3, 444) = 16.85$, $p < .001$. In this model, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees emerged as the strongest correlate of outness, $r = .25$, $B = 0.45$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95% CI [0.29, 0.62], $\beta = .28$, $p < .001$. Taken together, all of these models suggest that both perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies may promote outness, although the former may be especially important in this regard. As such, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Correlates of Workplace Concealment. Hypothesis 1 also predicted that perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies would be associated with less concealment. This hypothesis was tested over a series of models, the first set of which regressed composite concealment of each variable of interest individually (see Table 15). Using hierarchical linear regression, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction of gender x sexual identity were entered in the first step of the model, the single organizational variable of interest (i.e., perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, or presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies) was entered in step two, and the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and the individual, organizational variable was entered in step

Table 15. Hierarchical linear regression models with concealment regressed on sexual identity, gender, perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and LGBTQ-friendly policies ($N=451$).

Variable	At Entry/Single Variable				Final Model (Multiple Variables)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.09	<.001
Sexual Identity	1.21	0.23	.41	<.001	0.94	0.21	.32	<.001		
Gender	-0.32	0.18	-.10	.08	-0.28	0.16	-.09	.08		
Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.77	0.29	-.24	.008	-0.44	0.26	-.14	.09		
Step 2									.21	<.001
Perceived workplace support	-0.74	0.07	-.45	<.001	-0.84	0.08	-.51	<.001		
Organizational fit	-0.28	0.08	-.17	<.001	0.20	0.08	.12	.02		
LGTBQ-friendly policies	-0.09	0.03	-.13	.005	0.01	0.03	.01	.90		
Step 3										
Support*Sexual Identity*Gender	0.11	0.14	.15	.42						
Fit*Sexual Identity*Gender	0.09	0.15	.10	.61						
Policies* Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.03	0.07	-.04	.69						

Note: For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. For step 2 variables, values represent statistics when variable entered individually and in combined variable model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) were not included in the final model, as they were not significant. Reported change statistics are included for the final model with all variables entered.

three, resulting in three separate models (only step one was the same in each model). Step one of the regression model was significant overall, accounting for 8% of the variance in reported composite concealment, $F(3, 447) = 14.21, p < .001$. In this model, and in line with previously-reported findings, sexual identity emerged as a significant correlate of concealment, $r = .23, B = 1.15, SE(B) = 0.23, 95\% CI [0.70, 1.60], \beta = .39, p < .001$, as did the interaction of gender and sexual identity, $r = -.12, B = -0.74, SE(B) = 0.29, 95\% CI [-1.30, -0.18], \beta = -.24, p = .01$.

When perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals was added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite concealment, $R^2 = .28, F(4, 446) = 45.10, p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by perceived support in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .20, F(1, 446) = 125.84, p < .001$. As such, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees was a significant correlate of concealment, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, employees who reported more perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees also tended to report concealing their sexual identity less, on average, $r = -.47, B = -0.74, SE(B) = 0.07, 95\% CI [-0.87, -0.61], \beta = -.45, p < .001$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and perceived support. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in composite concealment, $R^2 = .28, F(5, 445) = 36.18, p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .001, F(1, 445) = 0.65, p = .42$. As such, the association between perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and concealment did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $r = .04, B = 0.11, SE(B) = 0.14, 95\% CI [-0.16, 0.39], \beta = .15, p = .42$. In other words, perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals appears important for inhibiting concealment. It may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

A separate hierarchical linear regression model was run to assess the association of organization fit and composite concealment. Again gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one (see above). When organizational fit was entered at step two of this model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite concealment, $R^2 = .11$, $F(4, 446) = 14.99$, $p < .001$. In addition, the additional variance accounted for by organizational fit was also significant, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 446) = 14.03$, $p < .001$. As such, individuals who reported higher organizational fit also tended to report concealing their sexual identity less, on average, $r = -.18$, $B = -0.28$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.43, -0.13], $\beta = -.17$, $p = .001$, even after accounting for gender and sexual identity (and the two-way interaction). The three-way interaction of gender, sexual identity, and organizational fit was entered in step three of the model. Again, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite concealment, $R^2 = .11$, $F(5, 445) = 23.13$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $F(1, 445) = 0.27$, $p = .61$. That is, the association between organizational fit and concealment did not differ based on gender and sexual identity, $r = .03$, $B = 0.09$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.51, 0.11], $\beta = .10$, $p = .61$. These results suggest that although organizational fit may reduce the extent to which employees conceal their sexual identity in the workplace, its relationship with concealment is not especially strong for any particular group based on gender or sexual identity.

The next model assessed the association between supportive LGBTQ+ policies and composite concealment. When the summed composite score for LGBTQ+ policies was entered into step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in concealment, $R^2 = .10$, $F(4, 446) = 12.73$, $p < .001$. In addition, the additional

variance accounted for by supportive LGBTQ+ policies was also significant, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 446) = 7.79$, $p = .005$. Specifically, those who reported that their organizations had more supportive LGBTQ+ policies also tended to report concealing their sexual identity less, on average, $r = -.13$, $B = -0.09$, $SE(B) = 0.03$, 95% CI [-0.16, -0.03], $\beta = -.13$, $p = .005$, even after accounting for gender and sexual identity (and their interaction). Once again, the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and LGBTQ+ policies was entered at step three. Here again, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in concealment, $R^2 = .10$, $F(5, 445) = 20.19$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance in concealment accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 445) = 0.16$, $p = .69$. As such, the association between supportive LGBTQ+ policies and concealment did not vary by gender or sexual identity, $r = -.02$, $B = -0.03$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.17, 0.11], $\beta = -.04$, $p = .69$. In other words, more supportive LGBTQ+ policies may reduce the desire to conceal in those employees and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

Again, and to further tease out whether any particular form of supportive LGBTQ+ policies had an especially strong association with composite concealment, an exploratory linear regression model was created. In this model, composite concealment was regressed on the six individual supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Each of these binary variables was entered into a single step in the model (as the three-way interaction was not significant in the previous model, gender and sexual identity were ignored in this analysis). The overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in concealment, $R^2 = .03$, $F(6, 444) = 3.19$, $p = .005$. Once again, however, the only policy to emerge as a significant correlate was whether same-sex partners were officially welcomed at company social events. Specifically, those who reported that same-sex partners were officially welcomed at company social events tended to conceal their sexual

identity less, on average, $r = -.14$, $B = -0.51$, $SE(B) = 0.16$, 95% CI [-0.83, -0.19], $\beta = -.17$, $p = .002$. This result aligns with the prior finding that this specific policy also promoted outness, indicating that welcoming same-sex partners at events is a particularly strong source of organizational support.

Finally, and in order to determine the relative strength of each variable in their association with concealment, a final model was run, regressing composite concealment on all the variables in one hierarchical linear regression model (see Table 15). Once again, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one of the model. In step two, perceived support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were entered. It is important to note that, as none of the prior three-way interaction terms were significant, and in order to maintain parsimony in the model, the variables were only entered as main effects (i.e., no interactions among the variables, or with gender or sexual identity). At the second step, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in concealment, $R^2 = .30$, $F(6, 444) = 30.32$, $p < .001$. In addition, the three additional variables accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in concealment, $\Delta R^2 = .21$, $F(3, 444) = 41.65$, $p < .001$. In this model, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees again emerged as the strongest correlate of concealment, $r = -.44$, $B = -0.84$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-1.01, -0.68], $\beta = -.51$, $p < .001$. Taken together, all of these models suggest that perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies may reduce concealment as a sexual identity management strategy, although perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees may be especially important in this regard. As such, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Correlates of Workplace Disclosure. Hypothesis 1 also predicted that perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies would be

associated with more sexual identity disclosures in the workplace. This hypothesis was tested over a series of models, the first set of which regressed composite disclosure of each variable of interest individually (see Table 16). Only the subset of $N = 374$ participants who reported being at least somewhat out at their workplaces were included in these analyses. Using hierarchical linear regression, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction of gender and sexual identity were entered in the first step of the model, the single organizational variable of interest (i.e., perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, or presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies) was entered in step two, and the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and the individual organizational variable was entered in step three, resulting in three separate models (only step one was the same in each model). Step one of the regression model was not significant overall, accounting for less than 1% of the variance in reported composite disclosure, $F(3, 370) = 0.81, p = .49$. In this model, and in line with previously-reported findings, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction were not significant correlates of sexual identity disclosure.

When perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals was added in step two of the model, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite disclosure, $R^2 = .17, F(4, 369) = 2.86, p = .02$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by perceived support in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .02, F(1, 369) = 8.96, p = .003$. As such, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees was a significant correlate of disclosure, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, employees who reported more perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees also tended to disclose their sexual identity more, on average, $r = .15, B = 0.24, SE(B) = 0.08, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.08, 0.40], \beta = .16, p = .003$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity,

Table 16. Hierarchical linear regression models with disclosure regressed on sexual identity, gender, perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and LGBTQ-friendly policies ($N=374$).

Variable	At Entry/Single Variable				Final Model (Multiple Variables)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.01	.50
Sexual Identity	0.43	0.28	.15	.13	0.47	0.28	.16	.09		
Gender	0.14	0.19	.05	.46	0.14	0.19	.05	.47		
Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.41	0.34	-.13	.22	-0.44	0.34	-.14	.19		
Step 2									.04	.004
Perceived workplace support	0.24	0.08	.16	.003	0.21	0.10	.14	.04		
Organizational fit	0.13	0.08	.08	.12	-0.05	0.10	-.03	.64		
LGTBQ-friendly policies	0.10	0.04	.15	.005	0.09	0.04	.12	.05		
Step 3										
Support*Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.01	0.18	-.01	.97						
Fit*Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.06	0.19	-.07	.77						
Policies* Sexual Identity*Gender	0.08	0.08	.10	.34						

Note: For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. For step 2 variables, values represent statistics when variable entered individually and in combined variable model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) were not included in the final model, as they were not significant. Reported change statistics are included for the final model with all variables entered.

and perceived support. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in composite disclosure, $R^2 = .02$, $F(5, 368) = 2.28$, $p = .05$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 368) = 0.01$, $p = .97$. As such, the association between perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and disclosure did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $r = -.01$, $B = -0.01$, $SE(B) = 0.18$, 95% CI [-0.36, 0.35], $\beta = -.01$, $p = .97$. In other words, perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals appears important for promoting sexual identity disclosures in the workplace, and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

A separate hierarchical linear regression model was run to assess the association of organization fit and composite outness. Again gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one (see above). When organizational fit was entered at step two of this model, the overall model still did not account for a significant proportion of variance in composite disclosure, $R^2 < .001$, $F(4, 369) = 1.21$, $p = .31$. In addition, the additional variance accounted for by organizational fit was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 369) = 2.38$, $p = .12$. As such, organizational fit was not associated with sexual identity disclosure, on average, $r = .08$, $B = 0.13$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.03, 0.29], $\beta = .08$, $p = .12$. The three-way interaction of gender, sexual identity, and organizational fit was entered in step three of the model. Again, the overall model did not account for a significant proportion of variance in composite disclosure, $R^2 < .001$, $F(5, 368) = 0.98$, $p = .43$. Again, the additional variance accounted for by the interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 368) = 0.09$, $p = .77$. That is, the association between organizational fit and outness did not differ based on gender and sexual identity, $r = -.02$, $B = -0.06$, $SE(B) = 0.19$, 95% CI [-0.44, 0.32], $\beta = -.07$, $p = .77$. These results suggest that organizational fit may not specifically promote disclosing one's sexual identity in the workplace

in a meaningful way, and that its relationship with outness is not especially strong (or weak) across gender and sexual identity groups.

The next model assessed the association between supportive LGBTQ+ policies and composite disclosure. When the summed composite score for LGBTQ+ policies was entered into step two of the model, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in sexual identity disclosure, $R^2 = .02$, $F(4, 369) = 2.58$, $p = .04$. In addition, the additional variance accounted for by supportive LGBTQ+ policies was also significant, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 369) = 7.93$, $p = .005$. Specifically, those who reported that their organizations had more supportive LGBTQ+ policies also tended to report disclosing their sexual identity more, on average, $r = .15$, $B = 0.10$, $SE(B) = 0.04$, 95% CI [0.03, 0.17], $\beta = .15$, $p = .005$, even after accounting for gender and sexual identity (and their interaction). Once again, the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and LGBTQ+ policies was entered at step three. Here again, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in disclosure, $R^2 = .02$, $F(5, 368) = 2.25$, $p = .05$. However, the additional variance in outness accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .002$, $F(1, 368) = 0.92$, $p = .34$. As such, the association between supportive LGBTQ+ policies and disclosure did not vary by gender or sexual identity, $r = .05$, $B = 0.08$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.23], $\beta = .10$, $p = .34$. In other words, more supportive LGBTQ+ policies promote sexual identity disclosures in those employees and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

To further tease out whether any particular form of supportive LGBTQ+ policies had an especially strong association with composite disclosure, an exploratory linear regression model was created. In this model, composite disclosure was regressed on the six individual supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Each of these binary variables was again entered into a single step in the

model (as the three-way interaction was not significant in the previous model, gender and sexual identity were ignored in this analysis). When examined in this way, the overall model did not account for a significant proportion of variance in disclosure, $R^2 = .01$, $F(6, 367) = 1.54$, $p = .16$. Not only that, but none of the individual policies emerged as significant correlates of sexual identity disclosure in this model. These results suggest that the particular types of supportive LGBTQ+ policies may not be as important for workplace sexual identity disclosure as the mere presence of such policies, and specifically the presence of more supportive policies.

Finally, and to determine the relative strength of each variable in promoting outness, a final model was run, regressing composite disclosure on all the variables in one hierarchical linear regression model (see Table 16). Once again, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one of the model. In step two, perceived support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were entered. Again, as none of the prior three-way interaction terms were significant, and to maintain parsimony in the model, the variables were only entered as main effects (i.e., no interactions among the variables or with gender or sexual identity). In the second step, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in outness, $R^2 = .03$, $F(6, 367) = 2.66$, $p = .02$. In addition, the three additional variables accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in disclosure, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(3, 367) = 4.49$, $p = .004$. In this model, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees once again emerged as the strongest correlate of outness, $r = .11$, $B = 0.21$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.42], $\beta = .14$, $p = .04$. Taken together, these models suggest that both perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees and the presence of supportive LGBTQ+ policies may promote outness. However, the former may be especially important in this regard. As such, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Sexual Identity Management Strategies as Predictors of Embeddedness

Hypothesis 2 predicted that greater outness, concealing less, and greater disclosure would be associated with greater embeddedness. This hypothesis was examined using hierarchical linear regression models, with embeddedness regressed on each workplace sexual identity management strategy individually and in a combined model (see Table 17). In addition, all models controlled for gender and sexual identity, as well as their two-way interaction. Using hierarchical linear regression, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction of gender and sexual identity were entered in the first step of the model, the single sexual identity management strategy of interest (i.e., outness, concealment, or disclosure) was entered in step two, and the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and the individual strategy was entered in step three, resulting in three separate models (so step one was the same in both the models including outness concealment, which are discussed here; the disclosure model will be discussed separately). Step one of the regression model was not significant overall, accounting for less than 1% of the variance in reported composite embeddedness, $F(3, 447) = 0.85, p = .47$. In this model, and in line with prior findings, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction were not significant predictors of organizational embeddedness.

When composite outness was added in step two of the model, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .03, F(4, 446) = 4.14, p = .003$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by outness in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .03, F(1, 446) = 13.91, p < .001$. As such, outness was a significant predictor of organizational embeddedness, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, employees who reported being more out at work also tended to report higher feelings of embeddedness, on average, $B = 0.12, SE(B) = 0.03, 95\%$

Table 17. Hierarchical linear regression models with embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, sexual identity management strategies, and perceived workplace support ($N=451^*$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.02	.10
Sexual Identity	-0.39	0.17	-.22	.02	-0.27	0.14	-.15	.05		
Gender	-0.14	0.12	-.08	.21	-0.14	0.09	-.08	.13		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.51	0.21	.27	.01	0.31	0.16	.16	.06		
Step 2 ^a									.06	<.001
Outness	0.12	0.03	.19	<.001	0.01	0.05	.01	.97		
Concealment	-0.12	0.03	-.20	<.001	-0.15	0.04	-.21	<.001		
Disclosure	0.09	0.03	.14	.006	0.06	0.04	.10	.08		
Step 2 ^b									.04	<.001
Outness					0.07	0.04	.11	.06		
Concealment					-0.09	0.04	-.14	.01		
Step 3										
Outness*Gender*Sexual Identity	0.02	0.07	.03	.26						
Concealment*Gender*Sexual Identity	0.01	0.06	.02	.18						
Disclosure*Gender*Sexual Identity	0.09	0.07	.16	.23						

Note: *For analyses including disclosure (including final model), $N=374$. ^aStep 2 presents the final model when all three sexual identity management strategies were entered into the model (described in the narrative). Values represent statistics when predictor entered individually and in combined predictor model ^bStep 2 presents the final model including only outness and concealment. For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) were not included in the final model, as they were not significant. Reported change statistics are included for the final model with all predictors entered.

CI [0.06, 0.18], $\beta = .26$, $p < .001$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and outness. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .03$, $F(5, 445) = 3.32$, $p = .006$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 445) = 0.07$, $p = .79$. As such, the association between outness at work and organizational embeddedness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.02$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95%CI [-0.12, 0.15], $\beta = -.03$, $p = .79$. In other words, being more out seems to promote feelings of being embedded within an organization and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

A separate hierarchical linear regression model was run to assess the association of composite concealment and organizational embeddedness. Again gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one (see above). When composite concealment was added in step two of the model, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 446) = 4.80$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by concealment in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 446) = 16.54$, $p < .001$. As such, concealment was a significant predictor of organizational embeddedness, even after controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, employees who reported concealing their identity more at work also tended to report lower feelings of embeddedness, on average, $B = -0.12$, $SE(B) = 0.03$, 95% CI [-0.18, -0.06], $\beta = -.20$, $p < .001$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and concealment. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .03$, $F(5, 445) = 3.84$, $p = .002$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not

significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 445) = 0.03$, $p = .86$. As such, the association between concealment at work and organizational embeddedness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.01$, $SE(B) = 0.06$, 95% CI [-0.11, 0.14], $\beta = -.02$, $p = .86$. In other words, concealing one's sexual identity more in the workplace seems to inhibit feelings of being embedded within an organization, and the strength of the effect may be similar regardless of gender or sexual identity.

The next model assessed the association between composite disclosure and organizational embeddedness and only included those participants who indicated that they were at least somewhat out at work ($N = 374$). In this model again, gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction were entered in step one. Similar to the prior models, these variables only accounted for 1% of the variance in reported composite embeddedness, $F(3, 370) = 2.12$, $p = .10$. Once again gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction were not significant predictors of organizational embeddedness. When composite disclosure was added in step two of the model, the overall model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 369) = 3.51$, $p = .008$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by disclosure in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 369) = 7.57$, $p = .006$. As such, disclosure was a significant predictor of organizational embeddedness, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, employees who reported disclosing their sexual identity more at work also tended to report higher feelings of embeddedness, on average, $B = 0.09$, $SE(B) = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.03, 0.15], $\beta = .14$, $p = .006$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and disclosure. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .03$, $F(5, 368) = 3.10$, $p = .009$. However, the additional variance accounted

for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .004$, $F(1, 368) = 1.44$, $p = .23$. As such, the association between disclosure at work and organizational embeddedness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.09$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.06, 0.23], $\beta = .16$, $p = .23$. In other words, disclosing one's sexual identity at work seems to promote feelings of being embedded within an organization, and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

In order to assess the relative contribution of the different sexual identity management strategies in predicting organizational embeddedness, a final model was created regressing organizational embeddedness on the three strategies at the same time. Gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one, and the sexual identity management strategies were entered at step two. As only a subset of participants were included in any analyses that included disclosure, two separate analyses were actually conducted: one with all three sexual identity management strategies as predictors, and another with only outness and concealment. In both sets of models, the pattern of results was the same. As such, only the model which included all three sexual identity management studies is described in text here, however the full results for both models can be found in Table 17. The second step of the model, which added all three sexual identity management strategies, accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .06$, $F(6, 367) = 5.13$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional predictors accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in embeddedness, beyond gender, sexual identity, and the interaction term, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $F(3, 367) = 8.02$, $p < .001$. When examining the unique contribution of each individual sexual identity management strategy in this model, concealment emerged as the strongest predictor of organizational embeddedness, $B = -0.15$, $SE(B) = 0.04$, 95% CI [-0.23, -0.07], $\beta = -.21$, $p < .001$.

Taken together, these results suggest that different sexual identity management strategies may be associated with feelings of organizational embeddedness, but that the act of concealing one's sexual identity at work may be especially deleterious in inhibiting the ability to feel like an embedded member of an organization. As such, Hypothesis 2 was supported overall.

Moderators of Sexual Identity Management Strategies and Embeddedness

Hypothesis 3 predicted that perceived support for LGBTQ+ individuals, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies would moderate the relationship between sexual identity management strategies and organizational embeddedness, expecting that the positive associations would be especially strong in more supportive environments, and the negative associations would be especially strong in less supportive environments. A series of hierarchical linear regression models were created to test this hypothesis. Specifically, three separate models were created, with embeddedness regressed on perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, supportive LGBTQ+ policies, and one of the three sexual identity management strategies (outness, concealment, disclosure). Each model controlled for gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction term in step 1, entered the individual predictors in step 2, and the two-way interactions of the sexual identity management strategy with each other predictor were entered in step 3. As such, step one was the same in both the models including outness and concealment, which are discussed here; the disclosure model will be discussed separately. Step one of the regression model was not significant overall, accounting for less than 1% of the variance in reported composite embeddedness, $F(3, 447) = 1.13, p = .34$. In this model, and in line with previously reported findings, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction were not significant predictors of organizational embeddedness.

The potential moderators of the relationship between outness and organizational embeddedness were examined first. Outness, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were all entered at step two of this model (thus controlling for gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction, as described above, see Table 18). This model accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .48$, $F(7, 443) = 59.05$, $p < .001$. In addition, the new predictors added at this step accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .48$, $F(4, 443) = 101.70$, $p < .001$. Interestingly in this model, outness was no longer a significant predictor of embeddedness once in the context of the other variables. Each of the other variables served as significant predictors of embeddedness, however. Specifically, more perceived support was associated with more embeddedness, $B = 0.29$, $SE(B) = 0.05$, 95%CI [0.20, 0.38], $\beta = .28$, $p < .001$, as was higher organizational fit, $B = 0.47$, $SE(B) = 0.04$, 95% CI [0.38, 0.55], $\beta = .45$, $p < .001$, and more supportive LGBTQ+ policies, $B = 0.04$, $SE(B) = 0.02$, 95%CI [0.01, 0.08], $\beta = .10$, $p = .01$. This pattern of results suggests that, across these predictors, outness may serve as the weakest predictor of organizational embeddedness (even though it was significant when examined on its own). However, it was still necessary to examine whether the relationship between outness and embeddedness changed depending on the other predictors in the model.

The third step of this model added three separate two-way interaction terms between outness and each other predictor (support, organizational fit, and policies). This model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .50$, $F(10, 440) = 43.58$, $p < .001$. In addition, the interaction terms accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in organizational embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(3, 440) = 4.30$, $p = .005$.

Table 18. Hierarchical linear regression models with embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, outness, perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies ($N=451$).

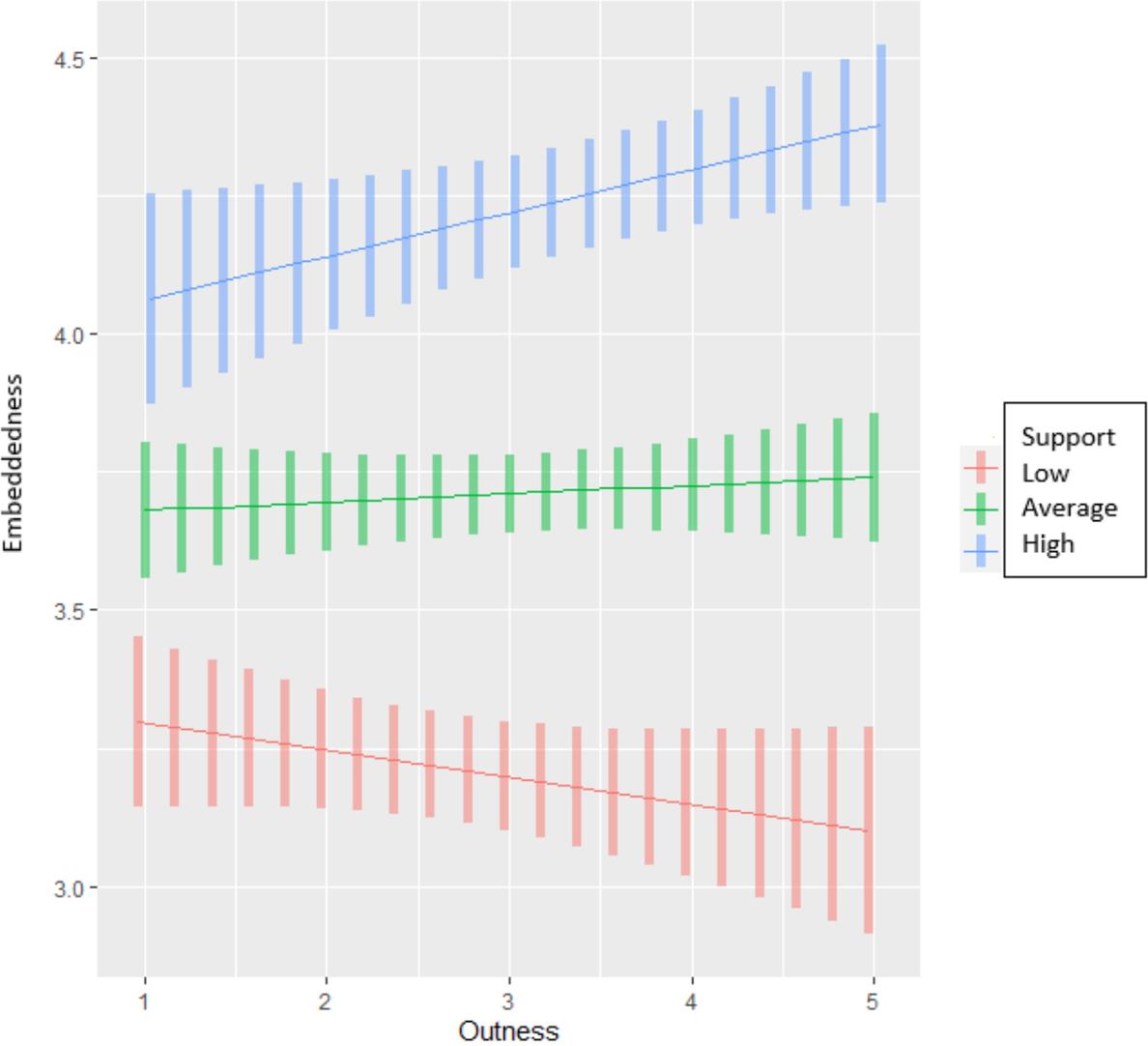
Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.01	.34
Sexual Identity	-0.25	0.15	-.14	.10	-0.13	0.11	-.07	.24		
Gender	-0.16	0.12	-.09	.18	-0.12	0.08	-.06	.16		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.26	0.19	.13	.16	0.19	0.14	.10	.18		
Step 2									.48	<.001
Outness	0.02	0.03	.04	.38	-0.08	0.11	-.12	.47		
Perceived workplace support	0.29	0.05	.28	<.001	-0.01	0.10	-.01	.89		
Organizational fit	0.47	0.04	.45	<.001	0.66	0.10	.63	<.001		
Supportive LGBTQ+ policies	0.04	0.02	.10	.01	0.11	0.04	.24	.009		
Step 3									.02	.005
Outness*Support					0.10	0.03	.76	.001		
Outness*Fit					-0.07	0.03	-.45	.05		
Outness*Policies					-0.02	0.01	-.18	.12		

Note: For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. For step 2 variables, values represent statistics when predictor entered individually and in combined predictor model. Step 3 variables (i.e., two-way interaction terms) were only included in the final model so their information is only reported in the final model with all predictors entered.

Within this model, the interaction of outness and perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees was a significant predictor of organizational embeddedness, $B = 0.10$, $SE(B) = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.04, 0.16], $\beta = .76$, $p = .001$. This interaction appeared to occur such that for those with low perceived workplace support, being more out was associated with lower reported embeddedness; however for those with high perceived workplace support, being more out was associated with higher embeddedness. Simple slopes analyses revealed that the trend line was significant for those with high levels of support ($B=0.08$, $SE=0.03$, 95% CI[0.01, 0.15]), but not for those with average ($B=0.02$, $SE=0.02$, 95% CI[-0.03, 0.06]) or low ($B=-0.05$, $SE=0.04$, 95% CI[-0.11, 0.02]) perceived support (see Figure 7). In other words, being out at work may indeed promote greater feelings of embeddedness within the organization, but that is only true for organizations that are viewed as supportive of LGBTQ+ employees. For organizations that are not viewed as highly supportive of LGBTQ+ employees, being more out is not associated with greater feelings of embeddedness.

The potential moderators of the relationship between concealment and organizational embeddedness were next examined. Concealment, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were all entered at step two of this model (thus controlling for gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction, as described above, see Table 19). This model accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .49$, $F(7, 443) = 59.56$, $p < .001$. In addition, the new predictors added at this step accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .49$, $F(4, 443) = 102.57$, $p < .001$. As with the outness model, concealment was no longer a significant predictor of embeddedness once in the context of the other variables. Each of the other variables served as significant predictors of embeddedness, however. Specifically, more

Figure 7. Interaction of outness and perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees on organizational embeddedness.



Note: Bars represent 95% confidence intervals across various levels of outness.

Table 19. Hierarchical linear regression models with embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, concealment, perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies ($N=451$).

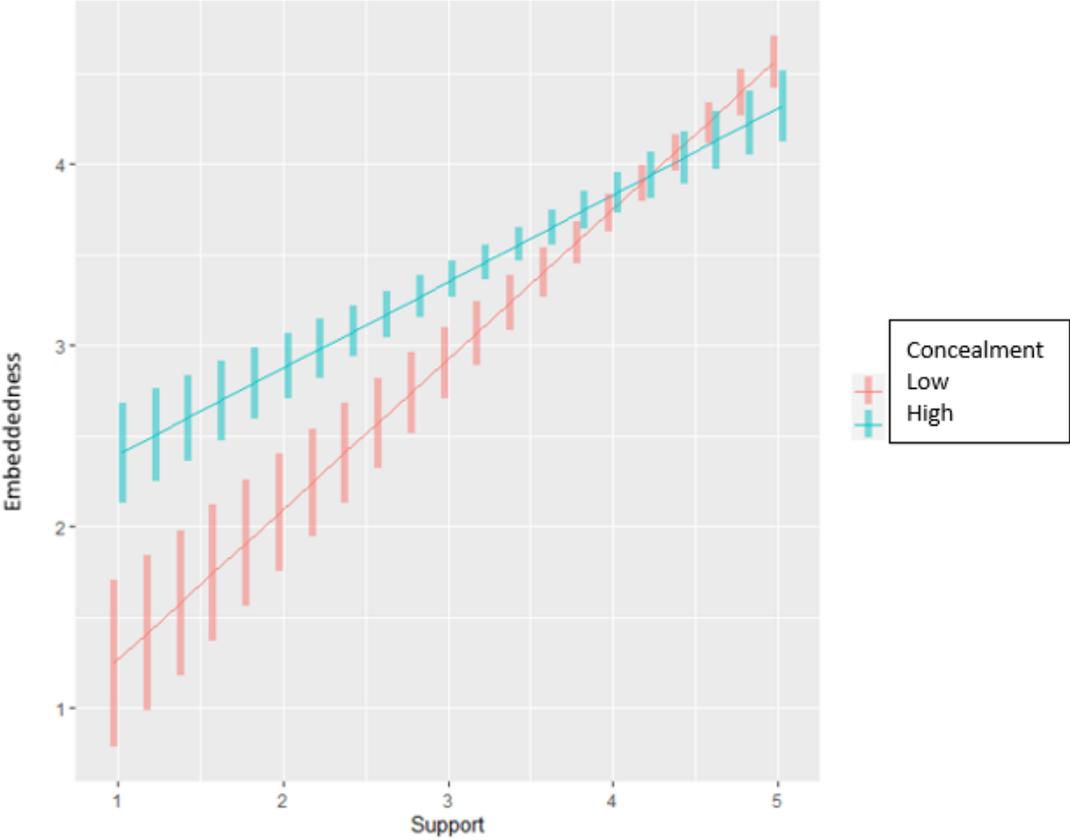
Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.001	.34
Sexual Identity	-0.25	0.15	-.14	.10	-0.19	0.11	-.10	.09		
Gender	-0.16	0.12	-.09	.18	-.016	0.12	-.09	.18		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.26	0.19	.13	.16	0.26	0.19	.13	.16		
Step 2									.49	<.001
Concealment	0.04	0.03	.07	.11	0.26	0.10	.42	.01		
Perceived workplace support	0.33	0.05	.33	<.001	0.58	0.09	.57	<.001		
Organizational fit	0.46	0.04	.44	<.001	0.37	0.08	.35	<.001		
Supportive LGBTQ+ policies	0.05	0.02	.10	.006	0.02	0.03	.05	.44		
Step 3									.01	.01
Concealment*Support					-0.10	.03	-.52	.001		
Concealment*Fit					0.03	0.03	.18	.27		
Concealment*Policies					0.01	0.01	.08	.36		

Note: For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. For step 2 variables, values represent statistics when predictor entered individually and in combined predictor model. Step 3 variables (i.e., two-way interaction terms) were only included in the final model so their information is only reported in the final model with all predictors entered.

perceived support was associated with more embeddedness, $B = 0.33$, $SE(B) = 0.05$, 95%CI [0.24, 0.43], $\beta = .33$, $p < .001$, as was higher organizational fit, $B = 0.46$, $SE(B) = 0.04$, 95%CI [0.37, 0.54], $\beta = .44$, $p < .001$, and more supportive LGBTQ+ policies, $B = 0.05$, $SE(B) = 0.02$, 95%CI [0.01, 0.08], $\beta = .10$, $p = .006$. This pattern of results again suggests that, across all of these predictors, concealment may actually serve as the weakest predictor of organizational embeddedness (even though it was significant when examined on its own). However, it was still necessary to examine whether the relationship between concealment and embeddedness changed depending on the other predictors in the model.

The third step of this model added three separate two-way interaction terms between concealment and each other predictor (support, organizational fit, and policies). This model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .50$, $F(10, 440) = 43.53$, $p < .001$. In addition, the interaction terms accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in organizational embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 440) = 3.59$, $p = .01$. Again in this model, the interaction of concealment and perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees was a significant predictor of organizational embeddedness, $B = -0.10$, $SE(B) = 0.03$, 95%CI [-0.16, -0.04], $\beta = -.52$, $p = .001$. This interaction appeared to occur such that for those with low perceived workplace support, concealing their sexual identity less was associated with lower reported embeddedness than for those who concealed their sexual identity more. Simple slopes analyses revealed that the trend line was significant for those with low levels of perceived support ($B=0.55$, $SE=0.13$, 95%CI[0.29, 0.80]) but not for those with high perceived support ($B=-0.11$, $SE=0.03$, 95%CI[-0.05, 0.27]; see Figure 8). In other words, not concealing one's sexual identity at work may actually inhibit feelings of embeddedness within the organization, but that is only true for organizations that are viewed as less supportive of LGBTQ+ employees.

Figure 8. Interaction of concealment and perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees on organizational embeddedness ($N = 451$).



Note: Bars represent 95% confidence intervals across various levels of perceived support.

For organizations that viewed more supportive of LGBTQ+ employees, concealing one's sexual identity at work does not appear to inhibit organizational embeddedness.

The final model assessed whether the relationship between disclosure and organizational embeddedness was moderated by perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, or supportive LGBTQ+ policies. This analysis used only the subset of $N = 374$ participants who reported being at least somewhat out at work. Gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction were entered in step one of this model (see Table 20). Step one of the regression model was not significant overall, accounting for less than 1% of the variance in reported composite embeddedness, $R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 370) = 2.49$, $p = .06$. In addition, and in line with previous findings, none of the variables emerged as significant predictors of organizational embeddedness.

The potential moderators of the relationship between disclosure and organizational embeddedness were next examined. Disclosure, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were all entered at step two of this model (thus controlling for gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction, as described above). This model accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .51$, $F(7, 366) = 55.12$, $p < .001$. In addition, the new predictors added at this step accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .50$, $F(4, 366) = 92.67$, $p < .001$. Similar to prior findings, disclosure was not a significant predictor of embeddedness in the context of the other variables. Each of the other variables served as significant predictors of embeddedness, however. Specifically, more perceived support was associated with more embeddedness, $B = 0.36$, $SE(B) = 0.05$, 95% CI [0.27, 0.45], $\beta = .36$, $p < .001$, as was higher organizational fit, $B = 0.40$, $SE(B) = 0.05$, 95% CI [0.31, 0.49], $\beta = .40$, $p <$

Table 20. Hierarchical linear regression models with embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, disclosure, perceived workplace support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies ($N=374$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.01	.06
Sexual Identity	-0.45	0.18	-.25	.01	-0.24	0.13	-.14	.05		
Gender	-0.17	0.12	-.09	.15	-0.13	0.08	-.07	.12		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.56	0.21	.29	.01	0.34	0.15	.17	.03		
Step 2									.50	<.001
Disclosure	0.03	0.02	.04	.28	0.04	0.11	.06	.74		
Perceived workplace support	0.36	0.05	.36	<.001	0.30	0.11	.30	.01		
Organizational fit	0.40	0.05	.40	<.001	0.45	0.12	.45	<.001		
Supportive LGBTQ+ policies	0.04	0.02	.08	.04	0.06	0.05	.13	.21		
Step 3									.001	.89
Disclosure*Support					0.02	0.03	.14	.59		
Disclosure*Fit					-0.02	0.03	-.12	.61		
Disclosure*Policies					-0.01	0.01	-.07	.60		

Note: For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. For step 2 variables, values represent statistics when predictor entered individually and in combined predictor model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) were not included in the final model, as they were not significant. Reported change statistics are included for the final model with all predictors entered.

.001, and more supportive LGBTQ+ policies, $B = 0.04$, $SE(B) = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.07], $\beta = .08$, $p = .04$. This pattern of results again suggests that, across all of these predictors, disclosure may actually serve as the weakest predictor of organizational embeddedness (even though it was significant when examined on its own). However, it was still necessary to examine whether the relationship between disclosure and embeddedness changed depending on the other predictors in the model.

The third step of this model added three separate two-way interaction terms between disclosure and each other predictor (support, organizational fit, and policies). This model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .51$, $F(10, 363) = 38.39$, $p < .001$. However, the interaction terms did not account for a significant proportion of additional variance in organizational embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $F(3, 363) = 0.21$, $p = .89$. Indeed, none of the interaction terms in this model emerged as significant predictors of organizational embeddedness. As such, it does not appear that the association between disclosing one's sexual identity at work and organizational embeddedness differs based on perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, or supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Taken together, these analyses suggest that only organizational support may play a role in impacting the relationship between both outness and embeddedness, as well as concealment and embeddedness, lending partial support for Hypothesis 3.

Discussion

Study 1 explored several correlates of sexual identity management strategies that sexual minority employees may engage in at their places of work. Specifically, strategies related to outness, sexual identity concealment, and disclosure, were examined in terms of their patterns of association with a number of workplace characteristics, including perceived support for

LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, supportive LGBTQ+ policies, and organizational embeddedness. The data for this study were drawn from a broad-based sample representing a diverse set of job types, levels, and sectors. Although the sample was not representative, it provided an opportunity to examine how these relationships may play out across various workplace settings and contexts. Several interesting findings and patterns emerged across these analyses, and these findings have theoretical and methodological implications for future research in this area, as well as practical implications which may benefit organizational practice.

First, and in line with prior research findings, different sexual identity management strategies appear to be correlated yet remain theoretically and statistically distinct (i.e., the correlations are significant but not perfect). This finding supports existing qualitative and quantitative research demonstrating that sexual minority employees tend to engage in multiple sexual identity management strategies (see Button, 2007). As such, although employees who tend to conceal their sexual identity more may also tend to disclose less, these are not orthogonal practices. Sexual identity management strategies are not monolithic, suggesting that the choice of strategy may depend on several personal, interpersonal, and broader organizational characteristics and may vary across different individuals within an organization. Specifically, sexual minority employees may have closer confidants at work to whom they reveal more personal information, including their sexual identity, and others with whom they do not reveal such information. The data in Study 1 may bear this out; for example, the correlation between being out with supervisors and being out with other coworkers was strong enough to average them together; however, these items were still not perfectly correlated. Research has continuously demonstrated that workplace sexual identity management is an ongoing process across numerous social interactions, and the data from this study support that perspective.

Previous research has also consistently postulated that different sexual identity management strategies might vary across different sexual minority groups. One significant contribution of this study to the literature is the exploratory research question which compared sexual identity management strategies based on gender and sexual identity. Although only men and women were included in analyses, as well as only those who were gay-, lesbian, or bisexual-identified, a number of important differences were revealed across these analyses. Bisexual-identified employees in the sample were less out than gay- or lesbian-identified participants, and tended to conceal their sexual identity more at work. Also, bisexual-identified men were especially likely to conceal their sexual identity at work, which may suggest that the stigma associated with bisexuality is especially strong for men, and these findings are in line with prior work (Madera et al., 2012). In addition to these mean differences, analyses also revealed that the patterns of correlations between some sexual identity management strategies were stronger for bisexual-identified employees than their gay- or lesbian- counterparts. As noted above, there is evidence to suggest that different sexual identity management strategies may be engaged depending on the situation. However, bisexual-identified employees may be more consistent in their use of sexual identity management strategies than gay- or lesbian-identified employees. For example, bisexual-identified men who conceal their identity more also tend to disclose less than gay-identified men. As more stigma may be associated with bisexuality in the workplace, these employees may feel a stronger need to be consistent in their sexual identity management strategies.

When examining the relationships between sexual identity management strategies and organizational characteristics, interesting and generally consistent patterns of findings emerged. Of note, perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees emerged as having the most consistent and

strongest pattern of association with all of the sexual identity management strategies examined. Specifically, employees who reported greater support for LGBTQ+ employees in their places of work also tended to be more out, conceal their sexual identity less, and disclose more at work. This pattern of association existed beyond any effect of gender or sexual identity, as well as remaining strong even when organizational fit and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were taken into account. That is, although organizational fit was also associated with concealment, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were associated with outness and disclosure, only perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees retained a significant association with any sexual identity management strategy when all three variables were considered together. These findings both support and extend some prior work in the area (Griffith & Hebl, 2002), and suggest that the general climate for LGBTQ+ employees may be the most critical factor for those employees when engaging in sexual identity management strategies.

Another major contribution of this study to the literature is the examination of organizational embeddedness based on sexual identity management strategies, as well as the potential moderating effects of perceived support, organizational fit, and supportive LGBTQ+ policies. Interestingly, each examined sexual identity management strategy was associated with embeddedness in the hypothesized direction (i.e., more outness, less concealment, and more disclosure). However, when examined together, only concealment remained a significant predictor of embeddedness, suggesting that the act of actively hiding one's sexual identity may inhibit the ability to feel like a true member of one's organization in a way that goes beyond someone just opting not to disclose information about their sexual identity. Prior work has demonstrated that concealing one's identity may have deleterious effects on organizational outcomes (Madera et al., 2012), however these results suggest that the relationship between

concealment and embeddedness may be especially strong. Once again, analyses demonstrated that different sexual identity management strategies might have different implications for key organizational processes and socialization outcomes such as embeddedness.

When other organizational characteristics were examined as moderators of these relationships, perceived organizational support for LGBTQ+ employees once again emerged as important. Analyses revealed that employees who were more out also tended to report feeling more embedded within their organizations, but this was only true for those who reported high perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees. Similarly, employees who tended to conceal their sexual identity less at work reported feeling less embedded in their organizations, but this was only true for those who perceived low support for LGBTQ+ employees. Taken together, these findings suggest that sexual identity management strategies have a crucial impact on the ability of employees to feel like embedded members of their organizations, but especially the fact that feeling support from their organizations aids in this process. Indeed, in the context of perceived support, the association between sexual identity management strategies and organizational embeddedness was no longer statistically significant, suggesting that perceived support may be the single most crucial factor in fostering feelings of embeddedness in sexual minority employees.

All of this information sheds light on the complex nature of sexual identity management in the workplace. Indeed “coming out” is not a one-time event but an ongoing process that must be continually navigated over one’s lifespan and career. The results from Study 1 suggest that sexual identity management strategies may also have key implications for socialization processes related to organizational embeddedness, and that contextual characteristics of the workplace, especially perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees, may play a critical role in fostering such

feelings. Indeed, when examining specific types of supportive LGBTQ+ policies that may promote feelings of embeddedness, it is essential to note that the single strongest correlation was based on the degree to which same-sex partners were encouraged to attend company events. Interestingly, this pattern of results corroborates findings originally reported by Ragins and Cornwell (2001). It may be that formal policies such as nondiscrimination policies or the inclusion of sexual orientation in the definition of diversity matter but may not actually do much to promote feelings of embeddedness if they are only viewed as performative. Organizations that actually take care to ensure that their sexual minority employees feel supported and valued, regardless of whether they choose to disclose or conceal their sexual identity (or some combination of those strategies), may be more likely to foster feelings of embeddedness in their employees and reap potential benefits from such outcomes, including better performance and less turnover.

Chapter III. Study 2

Study 1 examined the relationships between workplace sexual identity management strategies, workplace characteristics, and organizational embeddedness using a broad-based set of respondents representing a variety of jobs and sectors. However, it may also be important to examine what these patterns of relationships look like for employees who all work for the same organization. One organization where issues of gender and sexual identity may be particularly relevant is the US Armed Forces, which represents approximately 1.3 million active-duty service members (Ilic-Godfrey & Lawhord, 2018). The US Armed Forces has been consistently reported to be a hypermasculine workplace environment (Neilson et al., 2020; Schaefer et al., 2021). Sexual minority service members have historically reported being victims of a number of types of workplace harassment in the military, including bullying, hazing, and even sexual assault (Office of the Inspector General, 2000). Such experiences of harassment and victimization may arise based on several combined factors, including potential stigma against sexual minorities, conservative beliefs about gender roles, and prejudiced attitudes toward sexual minorities (Burks, 2011). Furthermore, sexual minorities have historically been prohibited from serving in the military, or from revealing their sexual identity while active duty based on “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell” (DADT; see Burrelli, 2010). Even since the repeal of DADT in September of 2011, sexual minority service members may be at greater risk for deleterious outcomes compared to their heterosexual counterparts, including unwanted sexual contact, binge drinking, post-traumatic stress disorder, and attempted suicide (Jeffery et al., 2021).

Given the unique and potentially extreme climate of the US Armed Forces, this job context represents an interesting and important avenue for testing whether the patterns of association revealed in Study 1 would vary within this context. In addition, Study 2 will also

serve to test whether the patterns of association in Study 1 are robust to variations in measurement and instrumentation. As such, Study 2 seeks to address similar hypotheses (and the exploratory research question) as in Study 1, but within a specific organizational context, and with somewhat different measurement instruments. Specifically, Study 2 follows the same broader conceptual model as Study 1, but with more precise hypothesized directions for the moderation effect in Hypothesis 3. Notably, organizational fit and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were not examined in Study 2, and so hypotheses were updated to reflect only perceived support for sexual minority service members. Study 2 also used LGB-specific language (rather than sexual minority or LGBTQ+), so that is how these service members will be referred to going forward.

Exploratory Research Question: How do sexual identity management strategies, perceived support for LGB service members, and military embeddedness, as well as the correlations among them, vary based on gender and sexual identity?

Hypothesis 1: Greater perceived support for LGB service members will be associated with greater outness in the military, less sexual identity concealment, and greater disclosure, above and beyond any effects of gender and sexual identity.

Hypothesis 2: Greater outness in the military, less sexual identity concealment, and greater disclosure will be associated with greater feelings of military embeddedness, above and beyond any effects of gender.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived support for LGB service members will moderate the relationship between sexual identity management strategies and feelings of military embeddedness, such that greater outness will be associated with greater feelings of embeddedness for those who report

high perceived support, and less concealment will be associated with lower feelings of embeddedness for those who report low perceived support.

Method

Data for Study 2 were drawn a broader study of military experiences, the Personal Adjustment, Transitions, and Health (or PATH) project, undertaken by Claremont Graduate University and the Naval Health Research Center. The PATH project was a federally funded study of the social experiences of active-duty military personnel that explored the interpersonal experiences, military experiences, and psychological and social well-being of active-duty service members. This data collection was also novel in that it explicitly included a subsample of lesbian-, gay-, and bisexual-identified (LGB) service members, and data from those LGB-identified service members were used for this study. Data for Study 2 were collected between May of 2018 and November of 2019.

Participants

Data for Study 2 were drawn from a broader cross-sectional survey of $N = 997$ active-duty service members as part of the PATH project. The survey demographic questions, as well as measures of different types of military experiences, and mental and physical health. Based on the full set of responses, the quality of data was examined across a number of indices, including results of attention checks embedded in the survey, identifying straight-lining patterns of response, and nonsensical patterns of response. Based on indices, 93 participants were removed from the sample, resulting in a final analytic sample of 904 active-duty service members for the broader study. These participants were diverse in terms of military branch, rank, gender, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation.

Study 2 included only the subset of survey participants who identified as lesbian, gay, or bisexual, for a total of 197 active-duty service members. These participants were diverse in terms of military branch and rank, with most participants serving in the army (68%), followed by the navy (18%), air force (11%), and finally marine corps (3%). In addition, most of the sample indicated being of middle enlisted rank (E4 – E6, 41%), followed by junior enlisted (E1 – E3, 37%), senior enlisted (E7 – E9, 18%), and finally officer rank (O1 – O3, 5%). Length of service in the armed forces ranged from one year to eight years ($M = 4.55$ years, $SD = 1.71$ years). Compared to the sample in Study 1, participants in Study 2 were younger, on average (with a median age of 25-27 years old). This difference in age was unsurprising given the military context. The gender and sexual identity breakdown of the sample was relatively even, although there were fewer bisexual men than other categories of participants. Specifically, the final sample included 67 gay-identified men, 15 bisexual-identified men, 80 gay- or lesbian-identified women, and 35 bisexual-identified women (see Table 21). In addition, participants were also highly educated, with 36% having some college experience and 24% of participants holding a degree from a 4-year institution. Compared to the Study 1 sample, participants in Study 2 were also more diverse in terms of race and ethnicity, with about half of the sample identifying as White, about 30% identifying as Black, and 10% identifying as Latinx (see Table 22).

Procedures

Participants in the PATH project were recruited from a variety of sources and using different convenience sampling methods, including with advertisements posted on various social media outlets (i.e., Facebook, Instagram, and YouTube), and print media distributed in locations known to be frequented by military personnel (e.g., coffee shops, gyms, etc.). Flyers and palm cards were also placed in clubs, coffee shops, restaurants, gyms, and other in-person locations

Table 21. Study 2 participants by gender and sexual identity ($N = 197$).

		Sexual Identity n (%)		
		Gay/Lesbian	Bisexual	Total
Gender n (%)	Male	67 (34.0%)	15 (7.6%)	82 (41.6%)
	Female	80 (40.6%)	35 (17.8%)	115 (58.4%)
	Total	147 (74.6%)	50 (25.4%)	197 (100.0%)

Table 22. Study 2 participant demographics ($N = 197$).

Variable	n (%)
Branch	
Army	135 (68.5%)
Navy	36 (18.3%)
Air Force	21 (10.7%)
Marine Corps	5 (2.5%)
Rank	
Junior Enlisted (E1 – E4)	72 (36.5%)
Middle Enlisted (E5 – E6)	80 (40.6%)
Senior Enlisted (E7 – E9)	36 (18.3%)
Officer (O1 – O3)	9 (4.6%)
Race/Ethnicity	
White	97 (49.2%)
Black	19 (9.6%)
Latinx	59 (29.9%)
Asian	4 (2.0%)
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	3 (1.5%)
Multiple Selected	15 (7.6%)
Education Level	
High School Diploma	26 (13.2%)
GED/ABE Certificate	3 (1.5%)
Some College	72 (36.5%)
2-year Degree	44 (22.3%)
4-year Degree	46 (23.4%)
Graduate School/Degree	5 (2.5%)
No Response	1 (0.5%)

frequented by LGB individuals near local military bases. Study personnel also reserved vendor tables at local community events (e.g., Gay Pride events). At these events, interested participants provided their email address to later receive specific study information and recruitment materials. In addition to these convenience sampling strategies, some participants were recruited through Qualtrics paneling services. Qualtrics paneling services recruited participants from several different sources, including email listservs, websites, social media, and other web-based recruiting strategies. Participants who were recruited by Qualtrics received redeemable points for completing questionnaires, with the precise number of points varying based on a variety of factors, including how long participants had been panel members and the number of surveys they had previously completed. All advertisements were for an anonymous 45-minute questionnaire focused on the experiences of active-duty service members, including their personal characteristics, military background, and experiences in the military (see Appendix A for recruitment materials).

Regardless of the source, all recruitment announcements directed interested potential participants to visit a project website where further information regarding the study could be found. On the website, potential participants were provided with more detailed information about the study purpose and methods, and an opportunity to sign up for the study (see Appendix A for screenshots of the study website). To ensure eligibility, participants were first required to complete an eligibility screening. Interested participants had to be at least 18 years old, joined the military after September 2011 (after the repeal of “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell” directive), been in the service for at least one year, and had at least one deployment or permanent change of station (PCS). After providing consent and completing a Completely Automated Public Turing test to tell Computers and Humans Apart (CAPTCHA), participants entered general demographic

information and created a unique participant ID code. As an additional security measure, participants completed a set of three multiple choice screener questions, which required basic branch-specific knowledge of insignias and uniforms. Participants who did not answer all three questions correctly, or who were earlier deemed to be ineligible for the study, were blocked from completing the survey and removed from the study.

The survey included items about participants' personal and military characteristics, experiences regarding military transitions (i.e., PCS or deployment), expectations about future transitions, experiences of stressors and social support within and outside the military, characteristics of their social networks, and health, health behaviors, and psychological functioning. Participants were informed that they could skip any question they chose and leave the questionnaire at any time should they choose to do so. All participants recruited through convenience sampling methods received an electronic \$40 Amazon gift card code. Participants recruited through Qualtrics received compensation equal to a previously agreed-upon number of points which could be exchanged for items of their choosing. To protect their confidentiality, participants were provided with instructions for obtaining a new email address to use for the purpose of this study (i.e., receiving their gift card, and to learn about other research participation opportunities).

Measures

All measures for this study were drawn from a larger battery of measures included in the full survey. Only measures that will be included in the analyses are described here (the full survey is available upon request). Many of the measures included in Study 2 are similar to those in Study 1. Any overlap with Study 1 measures will be noted, and notable differences will also be described. It should be noted that organizational fit and supportive LGBTQ+ policies were not

included in the Study 2 survey; as such, only perceived support for LGB service members was assessed. However, since this variable appeared to be the strongest predictor across all analyses in Study 1, the hypotheses were updated to be more precise around perceived support.

Outness. Outness was measured using the same two items as Study 1, adapted from the Nebraska Outness Scale (NOS; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014), and modified to fit the military context. Participants were asked, “How many of your military superiors do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?”, and “How many of these military personnel do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?”, and responded using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Never* to 5 = *All the Time*). There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between these two items, $r = .72, p < .001$, so they were averaged to create a composite ($\alpha = .84$), with higher scores indicating a higher degree of outness.

Sexual Orientation Concealment. Concealment was measured using the same two items as Study 1, adapted from the concealment subsection of the Nebraska Outness Scale (NOS-C; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014), and modified to fit the military context. Participants were asked, “How often do you currently try to hide your sexual orientation from your military superiors?”, and, “How often do you currently try to hide your sexual orientation from military personnel other than your superiors?”, and responded using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Never* to 5 = *All the Time*). There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between these two items, $r = .84, p < .001$, so they were averaged to create a composite ($\alpha = .91$), with higher scores indicating a higher degree of concealment.

Sexual Orientation Disclosure. Disclosure was measured using the same two items as Study 1, adapted from the disclosure subsection of the Nebraska Outness Scale (NOS-D; Meidlinger & Hope, 2014), and modified to fit the military context. Only the $N = 166$

participants who previously reported that their superiors or other military personnel were aware of their sexual orientation (i.e., responses were greater than “None” on the outness items) were provided these items. These participants were asked, “Of your military superiors who are aware of your sexual orientation, how many of them know because you told them?”, and “Of these military personnel who are aware of your sexual orientation, how many of them know because you told them?”, and responded using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *None* to 5 = *All*). There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between these two items, $r = .69, p < .001$, so they were averaged to create a composite ($\alpha = .81$), with higher scores indicating a higher degree of disclosure.

Perceived Workplace Support for LGB Service Members. Perceived support was measured using one item developed for the study. Participants rated the item, “I feel supported as an LGB service member” on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*).

Perceived Superior Support for LGB Service Members. Perceived supervisor support was measured using one item developed for the study. Participants rated the item, “My immediate superior takes steps to ensure that LGB service members are accepted” on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*).

Lack of Embeddedness. Military embeddedness, and specifically the lack of military embeddedness, was assessed using a single item from Omoto and Snyder’s (2010) measure of psychological sense of community. Participants rated the item, “I feel like an outsider in the military” on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*). Although the same five items that were used in Study 1 from this measure were included in the survey, most of the items were found to behave differently in the military context. Specifically, the distributions

for four of the five items were negatively skewed. For example, service members strongly endorsed items such as “I identify with the military” and “I am proud to be a member of the military”. Only the “I feel like an outsider in the military” item was normally distributed. Given that this item behaved differently than the other items in this measure, it was used to represent a lack of military embeddedness.

Sexual Identity. Sexual identity was assessed with a single item asking, “Which of the following best represents how you currently think of yourself?”. Possible response options included, “Gay/Lesbian”, “Heterosexual/Straight”, “Bisexual”, and “Not listed (Please specify)”. If “Not listed” was selected, participants were able to enter their sexual identity in a response box. As in Study 1, only participants who identified as gay, lesbian, or bisexual were included in the analytic sample.

Gender Identity. Gender identity will be assessed with a single item asking, “What is your gender?”. Possible response options include “Male”, “Female”, and “Not listed (please specify)”. If “Not listed” was selected, participants were able to enter their current gender identity in a response box. As in Study 1, only participants who identified as male or female were included in the analytic sample.

Demographics. Participants provided demographic information, including their military branch, rank, length of service, age, ethnicity, and education level.

Results

The constructs of interest were first examined descriptively in terms of their overall distributions and patterns of correlation. Next, the exploratory research question about gender and sexual identity differences across all constructs of interest was examined. Following that presentation, results of analyses pertaining to the specific hypotheses are provided. For each

hypothesis, gender and sexual identity differences are also examined as exploratory follow-up analyses.

Descriptive Information

The constructs of interest were first examined descriptively, including means, standard deviations, skewness/kurtosis, and patterns of zero-order correlations. There were no issues related to skew or kurtosis (i.e., no values for skew exceeded +/- 1.00, and no value for kurtosis exceeded +/- 3.00). In addition, most variables had means that were located toward the center of the scale, rather than the extreme ends. In addition, the distributions for all variables appeared to be approximately normal. The only deviations from normal was the distribution for composite concealment, which had a large number of individuals at the negative end of the scale (i.e., never concealing their sexual identity). However, this did not skew the distribution, as there were also a large number of scores around the mean for composite concealment. Complete descriptive information for all variables included in the study can be found in Table 23.

Only participants who reported being at least somewhat out to their supervisors or coworkers ($N=178$) were asked about whether they disclosed their sexual orientation voluntarily. The distributions for these variables were relatively normal in appearance. Specifically, most service members reported that they had disclosed their sexual identity to some (34.5% for military superiors and 26.4% for other military personnel) or a few (21.8% for military superiors and 34.5% for other military personnel) of those that they work with. Relatively few participants had disclosed their sexual identity to everyone (10.2% for military superiors and 11.7% for other military personnel) or to no one (6.6% for military superiors and 3.6% for other military personnel).

Table 23. Study 2 variable means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations ($N = 197^a$).

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Sexual identity	0.25	0.44	-							
2. Gender	0.58	0.49	-	.14						
3. Outness	2.84	1.08	.84	-.29***	.12					
4. Concealment	2.86	1.24	.91	-.04	-.29***	-.62***				
5. Disclosure	2.93	1.04	.81	.04	.10	.51***	-.39**			
6. General Support	3.34	1.01	-	-.03	-.20**	.21**	-.30***	.14		
7. Superior Support	3.59	0.98	-	-.11	-.02	-.01	-.01	.01	-.14	
8. Lack of Embeddedness	2.98	1.42	-	-.19**	.09	-.10	.31***	-.19*	-.29***	.07

Note: ^aFor correlations that include disclosure, $N = 178$. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; $p < .001$. Sexual identity and gender were measured with single items. All other variables were measured using 5-point scales, with higher scores indicating higher levels of that variable.

Correlations between Study Variables

The zero-order correlations were next examined across all of the variables of interest in the study. A number of interesting findings were revealed across these correlations. Specifically, there were many significant correlations among the variables in the study, however all of these correlations were in hypothesized directions, or in directions that made logical and theoretical sense for those constructs. For example, outness was negatively correlated with concealment ($r = -.62, p < .001$), and positively correlated with disclosure ($r = .51, p < .001$). Disclosure was also negatively correlated with concealment ($r = -.39, p < .001$).

Although perceived general support was positively correlated with outness ($r = .21, p = .005$) and negatively with concealment ($r = -.30, p < .001$ for both variables), there was no significant correlation with concealment ($r = .14, p = .06$). Not only that, but perceived superior support was not correlated with outness ($r = -.01, p = .99$), concealment ($r = -.01, p = .92$), or disclosure ($r = .01, p = .94$). This may represent a very different pattern of results than what was found in Study 1. In particular, although general perceived support as an LGB service member was correlated with at least some of the identity management strategies that participants engaged in, there appeared to be essentially no relationship between the extent to which their immediate superior supports LGB service members and the identity management strategies they utilize a military context. It may be that the general climate toward LGB service members in their particular unit (or duty station, etc.) is a stronger indicator of psychological safety for being out in a military context than an immediate superior's support for LGB service members. Lack of embeddedness (i.e., feeling like an outsider in the military) was also positively correlated with concealment ($r = .31, p < .001$), and negatively correlated with disclosure ($r = -.19, p = .01$) and general perceived support ($r = -.29, p < .001$).

Notably, and similar to patterns of correlation in Study 1, none of the correlation coefficients were so strong as to suggest that the variables are not theoretically distinct. Indeed, the strongest correlation among these variables was $r = -.62$, which while strong, still leaves room for additional variance to be explained. These results again provided evidence that the regression models would not exhibit issues of multicollinearity.

Gender and Sexual Identity Differences

The exploratory research question examined gender and sexual identity differences across all of the variables of interest. Mean differences were first explored across the sexual identity management strategies, namely outness, concealment, and disclosure, as well as differences in the correlations among sexual identity management strategies. Then, differences were explored for perceived general support for LGB service members, and perceived superior support, as well as the correlations among those variables. Lastly, mean differences in lack of military embeddedness were examined based on gender and sexual identity.

Differences in Workplace Sexual Identity Management Strategies

First, exploratory analyses were conducted in order to explore any potential mean differences in outness, concealment, and disclosure based on gender and sexual identity. All analyses involving outness and concealment include the full sample of $N=197$ participants. As in Study 1, participants were only asked about disclosures if they indicated they were out to any extent, so all analyses involving disclosure include the subset of $N=178$ participants who indicated they were out to at least some extent in the military.

Differences in mean composite outness based on gender and sexual identity were explored with a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. Similar to Study 1, a main effect of sexual identity emerged, such that bisexual-

identified participants reported being less out ($M = 2.31, SD = 1.06$) than gay- and lesbian-identified participants ($M = 3.01, SD = 1.03$), $F(1, 193) = 12.47, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .06$. However unlike in Study 1, the main effect of sexual identity was qualified by a significant interaction of gender and sexual identity, $F(1, 193) = 5.33, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .03$. Simple effects comparisons using Bonferroni adjustments revealed that this interaction occurred such that bisexual-identified women were significantly less out ($M = 2.23, SD = 0.93$) than lesbian-identified women ($M = 3.26, SD = 0.97$), $p = .001$, however there was no significant difference in outness between gay-identified and bisexual-identified men, $p = .46$. This pattern of effects suggests that lesbian-identified service members are especially likely to be out in the military (see Table 24 and Figure 9).

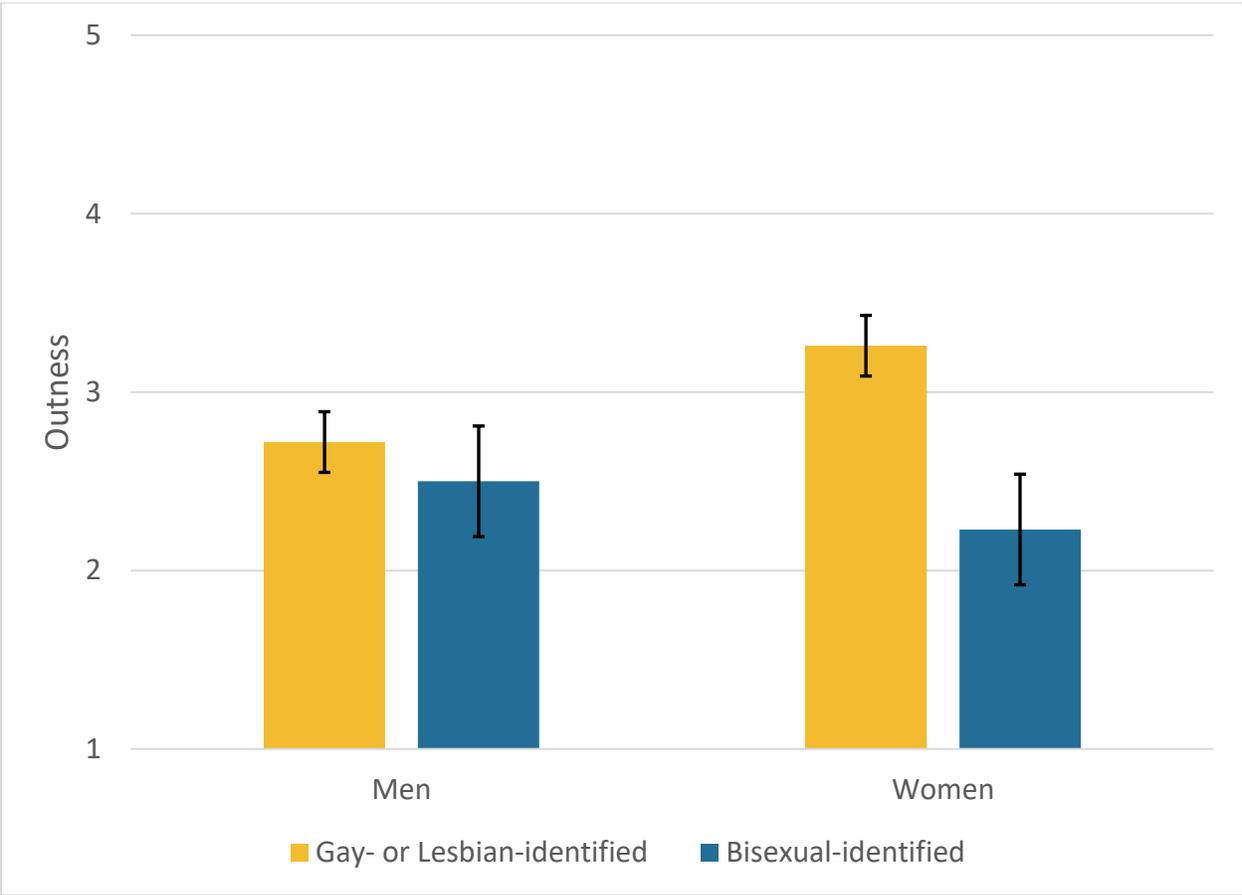
As with composite outness, differences in mean composite concealment based on gender and sexual identity were explored with a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. Similar to Study 1, a main effect of gender emerged, such that men reported engaging in concealment more often ($M = 3.29, SD = 1.20$) than women ($M = 2.56, SD = 1.17$), $F(1, 193) = 13.12, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .06$. However, and unlike the findings in Study 1, there was neither a main effect of sexual identity, $F(1, 193) = 0.01, p = .97, \eta_p^2 < .001$, nor an interaction of gender and sexual identity, $F(1, 193) = 0.05, p = .82, \eta_p^2 < .001$. Compared to the broader-based sample in Study 1 in which bisexual-identified men were especially likely to conceal their sexual identity at work, it appears that men, regardless of their sexual identity, conceal more in a military setting (see Table 25 and Figure 10).

For those participants who had reported being out to at least some degree, differences in mean composite disclosure based on gender and sexual identity were also examined using a 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA. As in Study

Table 24. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with outness as the criterion ($N=197$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	934.67	1	967.67	914.44	<.001	.13
Sexual Identity	12.75	1	12.75	12.47	<.001	.06
Gender	0.62	1	0.62	0.60	.44	.003
Sexual Identity * Gender	5.45	1	5.45	5.33	.02	.03
Error	197.27	193	1.02			

Figure 9. Mean differences in outness by sexual identity and gender.

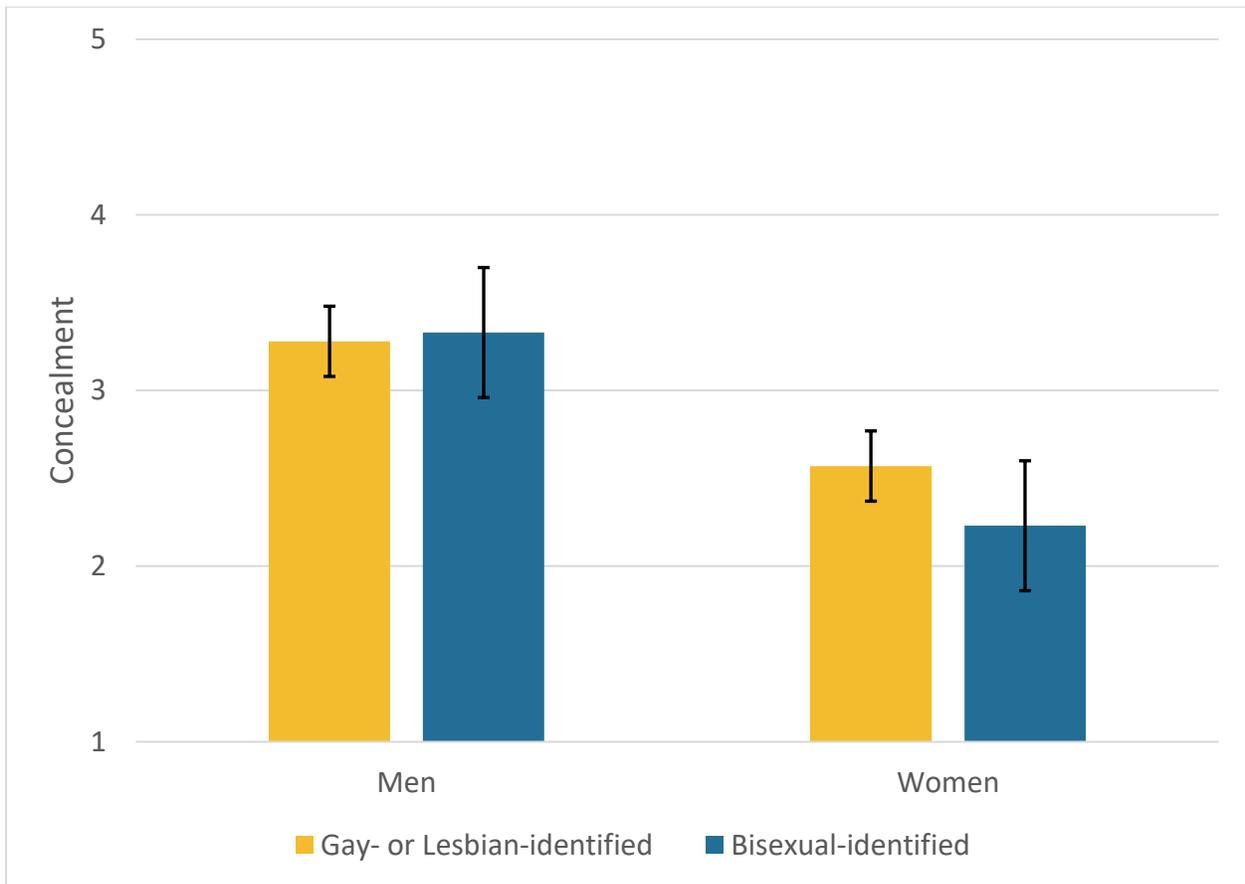


Note: Error bars represent standard error.

Table 25. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with concealment as the criterion ($N=197$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	1117.27	1	1117.27	786.07	<.001	.80
Sexual Identity	0.01	1	0.01	0.01	.97	<.001
Gender	18.64	1	18.64	13.12	<.001	.06
Sexual Identity * Gender	0.08	1	0.08	0.05	.82	<.001
Error	274.32	193	1.42			

Figure 10. Mean differences in concealment by sexual identity and gender.



Note: Error bars represent standard error.

1, no significant differences emerged in terms of degree of disclosure based on gender or sexual identity, and there was no interaction present (see Table 26). One interesting finding (although not statistically significant) was that bisexual-identified women reported the highest mean level of disclosure ($M=3.15$, $SD=1.02$), while bisexual-identified men reported the lowest mean level of disclosure ($M=2.68$, $SD=1.49$). It is possible that bisexual-identified women in the military may explicitly need to disclose their identity in order to not be assumed to be lesbian- or heterosexual-identified. At the same time, bisexual-identified men may be especially concerned about potential stigma associated with their sexual identity.

Sexual Identity & Gender Differences in Perceived Support & Embeddedness

Differences in perceived general support for LGB service members, as well as perceived superior support, were next examined. Two separate 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVAs were performed (for general support and immediate superior support) in order to assess these differences. No significant differences emerged in terms of perceived support based on gender or sexual identity, and there were no interactions present in either model (see Tables 27 and 28). Lastly, differences in reports of lack of embeddedness (i.e., feeling like an outsider) in the military were examined based on gender and sexual identity. A 2 (gender identity: male, female) x 2 (sexual identity: gay/lesbian, bisexual) ANOVA was again performed to assess these differences. Unlike in Study 1, a main effect of gender was revealed, such that women in the sample reported feeling less embedded in the military (i.e., higher reports of lack of embeddedness; $M = 3.10$, $SD = 1.41$) than men ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.42$), $F(1, 193) = 5.99$, $p = .02$, $\eta_p^2 < .03$. In addition, a main effect of sexual identity emerged in this model, such that gay- and lesbian-identified service members reported feeling less embedded in the military ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.38$) than bisexual-identified service members

Table 26. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with disclosure as the criterion ($N=178$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	861.89	1	861.89	793.76	<.001	.82
Sexual Identity	0.01	1	0.01	0.01	.95	<.001
Gender	2.40	1	2.40	2.21	.14	.01
Sexual Identity * Gender	0.65	1	0.65	0.60	.44	.003
Error	188.94	174	1.09			

Table 27. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with perceived general support as the criterion ($N=197$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	1451.27	1	1451.27	1486.39	<.001	.89
Sexual Identity	0.21	1	0.21	0.22	.64	.001
Gender	2.72	1	2.72	2.79	.10	.01
Sexual Identity * Gender	1.48	1	1.48	1.51	.22	.008
Error	188.44	193	0.98			

Table 28. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with perceived superior support as the criterion ($N=197$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	1764.61	1	1764.61	1844.60	<.001	.91
Sexual Identity	2.77	1	2.77	2.89	.09	.02
Gender	0.55	1	0.55	0.57	.45	.01
Sexual Identity * Gender	0.26	1	0.26	0.27	.60	.001
Error	184.63	193	0.96			

($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.43$), $F(1, 193) = 11.60$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 < .06$. These effects were not qualified by an interaction of gender and sexual identity (see Table 29 and Figure 11).

Taken together, these analyses suggest that, although perceptions of support for LGB service members in the military may not vary by gender or sexual identity, there may be key differences in feelings of military embeddedness (or specifically, a lack of embeddedness in the military). Of particular interest was the finding that bisexual-identified service members reported feeling more military embeddedness than gay- and lesbian-identified service members, and especially because they also reported being less out on average. It may be that, in the military context, being out actually inhibits one's ability to feel like an embedded service member. An examination of the explicit hypotheses may serve to shed light on these interesting patterns.

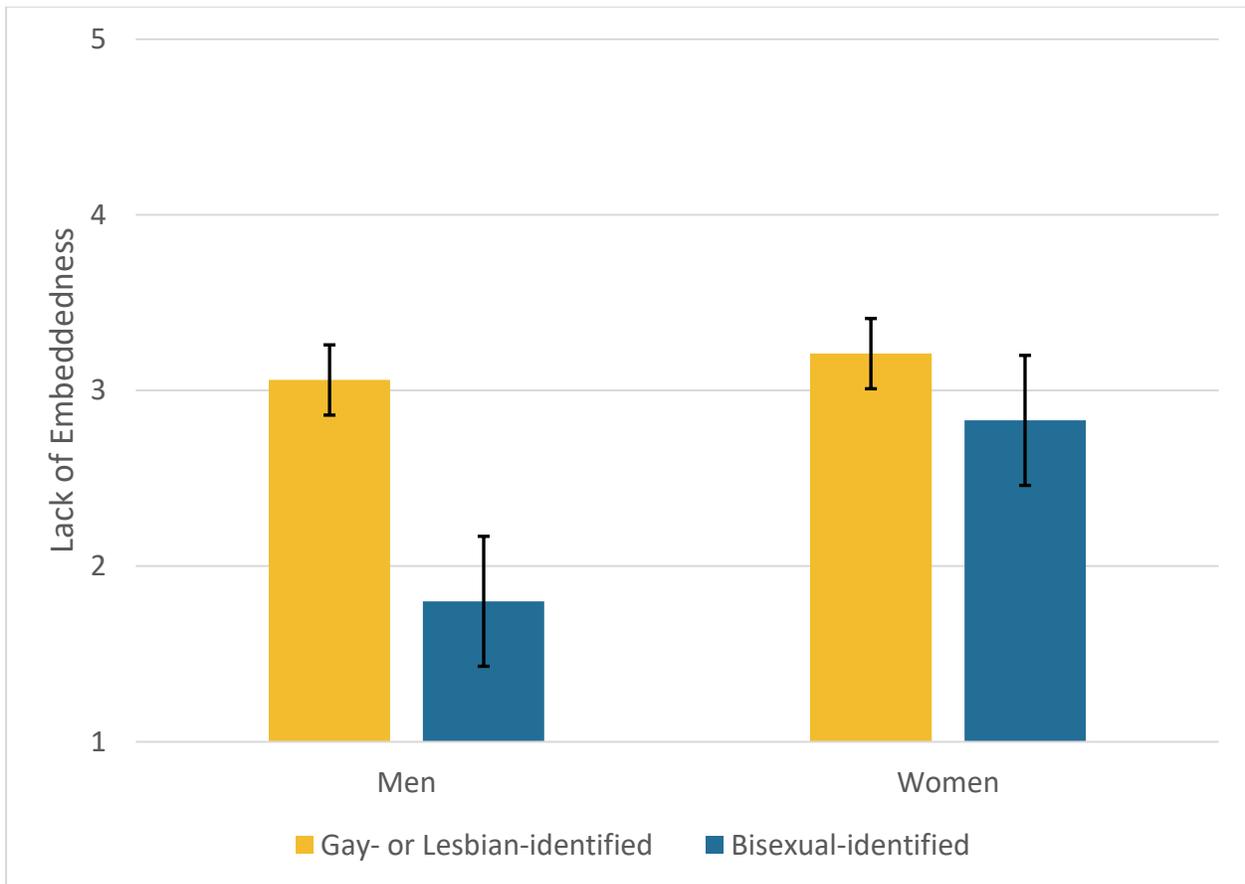
Perceived Support and Sexual Identity Management Strategies

Hypothesis 1 predicted that greater perceived support, both in terms of feeling supported as an LGB service member and support from an immediate superior, would be associated with greater outness, less concealment, and greater disclosure. In addition, it was predicted that this association would exist even after controlling for any effects of gender and sexual identity. As such, this hypothesis was assessed using hierarchical linear regression. Separate models were created for each sexual identity management strategy (i.e., outness, concealment, and disclosure), with each model controlling for gender, sexual identity, and the two-way gender x sexual identity interaction term in step one of the model. The two perceived support variables were then entered in step two of each model. Finally, and in line with the exploratory research question, the interaction terms for perceived general or superior support, sexual identity, and gender were entered into step three of each model. The results for these analyses will be discussed separately for each sexual identity management strategy. For each model, the primary statistics of interest

Table 29. Sexual identity and gender fixed-effects ANOVA with lack of embeddedness as the criterion ($N=197$).

Predictor	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
(Intercept)	968.72	1	968.72	510.10	<.001	.73
Sexual Identity	22.02	1	22.02	11.60	<.001	.06
Gender	11.38	1	11.38	5.99	.02	.03
Sexual Identity * Gender	6.25	1	6.25	3.29	.07	.02
Error	366.52	193	1.90			

Figure 11. Mean differences in lack of embeddedness by sexual identity and gender.



Note: Error bars represent standard error.

for the hypothesis were the partial correlations, however regression weights are also provided. A breakdown of all models in these analyses can be found in Tables 30 – 32.

It was first hypothesized that greater perceived support would be associated with more outness. Step one of the regression model, which included gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction term, was significant overall, accounting for 12% of the variance in composite outness reports, $F(3, 193) = 9.82, p < .001$ (see Table 30). In this model, and in line with previously-reported findings, gender was associated with composite outness, $r = .07, B = 1.36, SE(B) = 0.46, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.12, 0.21], \beta = .63, p = .003$, as was the interaction of gender and sexual identity, $r = -.16, B = -0.82, SE(B) = 0.35, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.52, -0.12], \beta = -.78, p = .02$. As reported previously, women reported being more out than men, on average, and lesbian-identified service members were especially likely to be out in the military.

When the two perceived support variables were added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite outness, $R^2 = .17, F(5, 191) = 9.25, p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by perceived support in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .06, F(2, 191) = 7.41, p < .001$. However, when each variable was examined, only general perceived support was significantly correlated with composite outness, $r = .27, B = 0.28, SE(B) = 0.07, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.13, 0.42], \beta = .26, p < .001$, suggesting that service members who reported feeling more supported as LGB also tended to be more out, on average. However, perceived support from immediate superior was not correlated with outness, $r = -.01, B = -0.01, SE(B) = 0.07, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.14, 0.14], \beta = -.06, p = .95$. Finally, the two three-way interaction terms of gender, sexual identity, and perceived support (both general and superior support) were entered in the model at step three. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in composite outness, $R^2 = .17, F(7, 189) =$

Table 30. Hierarchical linear regression models with outness regressed on sexual identity, gender, and perceived workplace support (N=197).

Variable	At Entry				Final Model				ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
	B	SE(B)	β	<i>p</i>	B	SE(B)	β	<i>p</i>		
Step 1									.12	<.001
Sexual Identity	0.60	0.61	.24	.33	0.82	0.60	.33	.18		
Gender	1.36	0.46	.63	.003	1.64	0.46	.75	<.001		
Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.82	0.35	-.78	.02	-0.98	0.78	-.93	.04		
Step 2									.06	<.001
Perceived general support	0.28	0.07	.26	<.001	0.31	0.16	.28	.06		
Perceived superior support	-0.01	0.07	-.01	.95	-0.01	0.07	-.04	.78		
Step 3									<.001	.95
General Support*Sexual Identity*Gender					-.01	0.07	-.05	.84		
Superior Support*Sexual Identity*Gender					.02	.08	.09	.78		

Note: For step 1 and 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry step and in final model (i.e., Step 3).

6.56, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction terms was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(2, 189) = 0.05$, $p = .95$. As such, the association between perceived support and outness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, either for perceived general support, $r = -.02$, $B = -0.01$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.15, 0.13], $\beta = -.05$, $p = .84$, or perceived superior support, $r = .02$, $B = 0.02$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.13, 0.17], $\beta = .09$, $p = .78$. In other words, the relationship between perceived support for LGB service members and outness was similarly strong regardless of gender or sexual identity.

It was also hypothesized that greater perceived support would be associated with less concealment. Step one of the regression model, which included gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction term, was significant overall, accounting for 7% of the variance in composite concealment reports, $F(3, 193) = 6.00$, $p < .001$ (see Table 31). In this model, and in line with previously-reported findings, only gender was significantly correlated with concealment, $r = -.08$, $B = -0.61$, $SE(B) = 0.34$, 95% CI [-1.27, -0.06], $\beta = -.24$, $p = .03$. As such, and as reported previously, women tended to conceal their sexual identity less than men, on average.

When the two perceived support variables were added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in composite concealment, $R^2 = .20$, $F(5, 191) = 10.86$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by the perceived support variables in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .14$, $F(2, 191) = 16.68$, $p < .001$. However, and similar to the results for outness, only general perceived support was significantly correlated with composite concealment, $r = -.39$, $B = -0.47$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.63, -0.31], $\beta = -.38$, $p < .001$, suggesting that service members who reported feeling more supported as LGB also tended to conceal their sexual identity less, on average. However, perceived

Table 31. Hierarchical linear regression models with concealment regressed on sexual identity, gender, and perceived workplace support ($N=197$).

Variable	At Entry				Final Model				ΔR^2	p
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p		
Step 1									.07	<.001
Sexual Identity	0.16	0.72	.06	.83	-0.10	0.68	-.04	.89		
Gender	-0.61	0.34	-.24	.03	-0.94	0.51	-.37	.07		
Sexual Identity*Gender	-0.10	0.42	-.08	.82	0.09	0.54	.07	.87		
Step 2									.20	<.001
Perceived general support	-0.47	0.08	-.38	<.001	-0.24	0.18	-.19	.20		
Perceived superior support	0.05	0.08	.04	.55	-0.12	0.18	-.10	.49		
Step 3									.01	.26
General Support*Sexual Identity*Gender					-0.11	0.08	-.36	.16		
Superior Support*Sexual Identity*Gender					0.09	0.09	.32	.29		

Note: For step 1 and 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry step and in final model (i.e., Step 3).

support from immediate superior was not correlated with outness, $r = .04$, $B = 0.05$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.11, 0.21], $\beta = .04$, $p = .55$. Finally, the two three-way interaction terms of gender, sexual identity, and perceived support (both general and superior support) were entered in the model at step three. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in composite concealment, $R^2 = .20$, $F(7, 189) = 8.18$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction terms was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(2, 189) = 1.37$, $p = .26$. As such, the association between perceived support and concealment did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, either for perceived general support, $r = -.10$, $B = -0.11$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.27, 0.04], $\beta = -.36$, $p = .16$, or perceived superior support, $r = .08$, $B = 0.09$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.26], $\beta = .32$, $p = .29$. In other words, the relationship between perceived support for LGB service members and concealment was similarly strong regardless of gender or sexual identity.

Lastly, it was hypothesized that greater perceived support would be associated with more disclosure. This analysis included only the $N = 178$ service members who reported that they were at least somewhat out in the military. Step one of the regression model, which included gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction term, was not significant overall, accounting for less than 1% of the variance in composite disclosure reports, $F(3, 174) = 0.85$, $p = .47$ (see Table 32). In this model, and in line with previously-reported findings, gender and sexual identity, as well as their interaction, were not significantly correlated with disclosure.

When the two perceived support variables were added in step two of the model, the overall model still did not account for a significant proportion of variance in composite disclosure, $R^2 = .01$, $F(5, 172) = 1.46$, $p = .21$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by perceived support in the model was also not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(2, 172) =$

Table 32. Hierarchical linear regression models with disclosure regressed on sexual identity, gender, and perceived workplace support (N=178).

Variable	At Entry				Final Model				ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
	B	SE(B)	β	<i>p</i>	B	SE(B)	β	<i>p</i>		
Step 1									<.001	.47
Sexual Identity	-0.47	0.72	-.18	.52	-0.17	0.72	-.07	.81		
Gender	-0.17	0.52	-.08	.74	0.17	0.52	0.08	.75		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.32	0.41	.30	.44	0.04	0.63	.04	.95		
Step 2									.01	.10
Perceived general support	0.18	0.08	.17	.03	0.41	0.18	.40	.03		
Perceived superior support	-0.01	0.08	-.01	.90	-0.25	0.19	-.23	.19		
Step 3									.02	.15
General Support*Sexual Identity*Gender					-0.12	0.08	-.44	.16		
Superior Support*Sexual Identity*Gender					0.13	0.09	.54	.17		

Note: For step 1 and 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry step and in final model (i.e., Step 3).

2.37, $p = .10$. However, when each variable was examined, general perceived support was significantly correlated with composite disclosure, $r = .16$, $B = 0.18$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.02, 0.33], $\beta = .17$, $p = .03$, suggesting that service members who reported feeling more supported as LGB also tended to disclose their sexual identity more, on average. However, perceived support from immediate superior was not correlated with disclosure, $r = -.01$, $B = -0.01$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.17, 0.15], $\beta = -.01$, $p = .90$. Finally, the two three-way interaction terms of gender, sexual identity, and perceived support (both general and superior support) were entered in the model at step three. The overall model still did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in composite disclosure, $R^2 = .02$, $F(7, 170) = 1.61$, $p = .14$. In addition, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction terms was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(2, 170) = 1.95$, $p = .15$. As such, the association between perceived support and outness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, either for perceived general support, $r = -.11$, $B = -0.12$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.28, 0.05], $\beta = -.44$, $p = .16$, or perceived superior support, $r = .11$, $B = 0.13$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95% CI [-0.06, 0.31], $\beta = .54$, $p = .17$. Once again, the relationship between perceived support for LGB service members and disclosure was similarly strong regardless of gender or sexual identity. Across all of these models, reported feelings of being supported as an LGB service member were associated with sexual identity management strategies, including outness, concealment, and disclosure. Not only that, but these correlations were present even after accounting for any effects of gender and sexual identity. It appears, however, that only general perceived support was associated with sexual identity management strategies; perceived superior support did not appear to be associated with any form of sexual identity management strategy. As such, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Sexual Identity Management Strategies as Predictors of Embeddedness

Hypothesis 2 predicted that greater outness, concealing less, and greater disclosure would be associated with greater military embeddedness (specifically, lower reports of feeling like an outsider in the military). This hypothesis was examined using hierarchical linear regression models, with embeddedness regressed on each workplace sexual identity management strategy individually, as well as in a combined model (see Table 33). In addition, all models controlled for gender and sexual identity, as well as their two-way interaction. Using hierarchical linear regression, gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction of gender and sexual identity were entered in the first step of the model, and the single sexual identity management strategy of interest (i.e., outness, concealment, or disclosure) was entered in step two. In order to address the exploratory research question about whether these relationships differed based on gender and sexual identity, the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and the individual strategy was entered in step three, resulting in three separate models.

The association between outness and embeddedness was first examined. Step one of the regression model, which included gender and sexual identity (as well as the two-way interaction term) was significant overall, accounting for 5% of the variance in reported lack of embeddedness, $F(3, 193) = 4.64, p = .004$. In this model, and in line with previous findings, sexual identity emerged as a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness, $B = -2.14, SE(B) = 0.84, 95\% \text{ CI} [-3.78, -0.49], \beta = -.66, p = .01$, such that bisexual-identified service members reported feeling less like outsiders in the military than gay- or lesbian-identified service members. Gender was not a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness in this model, $B = -0.72, SE(B) = 0.62, 95\% \text{ CI} [-1.16, 0.25], \beta = -.25, p = .25$, nor was the interaction of gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.88, SE(B) = 0.48, 95\% \text{ CI} [-0.08, 1.83], \beta = .64, p = .07$.

Table 33. Hierarchical linear regression models with embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, and sexual identity management strategies ($N=197^*$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.05	.01
Sexual Identity	-2.14	0.84	-.66	.01	-2.52	0.96	-.73	.009		
Gender	-0.14	0.12	-.08	.21	-1.01	0.69	-.34	.14		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.51	0.21	.27	.01	1.09	0.55	.74	.06		
Step 2 ^a									.19	<.001
Outness	-0.24	0.10	-.18	.02	0.02	0.15	.01	.92		
Concealment	0.42	0.08	0.37	<.001	0.54	0.11	.44	<.001		
Disclosure	-0.28	0.10	-.20	.006	-0.06	0.11	-.05	.57		
Step 2 ^b									.13	<.001
Outness					0.17	0.12	.13	.18		
Concealment					0.52	0.10	.45	<.001		
Step 3										
Outness*Gender*Sexual Identity	0.02	0.10	.04	.88						
Concealment*Gender*Sexual Identity	0.06	0.07	.17	.36						
Disclosure*Gender*Sexual Identity	-0.05	0.11	-.13	.66						

Note: *For analyses including disclosure (including final model), $N=178$. ^aStep 2 presents the final model when all three sexual identity management strategies were entered into the model (described in the narrative). Values represent statistics when predictor entered individually and in combined predictor model ^bStep 2 presents the final model including only outness and concealment. For step 1 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) were not included in the final model, as they were not significant. Reported change statistics are included for the final model with all predictors entered.

When composite outness was added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .08$, $F(4, 192) = 5.05$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by outness in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 192) = 5.91$, $p = .02$. As such, outness was a significant predictor of military embeddedness, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, service members who reported being more out also tended to report feeling less like an outsider in the military, on average, $B = -0.24$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.43, -0.04], $\beta = -.18$, $p = .02$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and outness. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in military embeddedness, $R^2 = .08$, $F(5, 191) = 4.02$, $p = .002$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 191) = 0.03$, $p = .88$. As such, the association between outness and military embeddedness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.02$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.18, 0.21], $\beta = .04$, $p = .88$. In other words, being more out seems to promote feelings like less of an outsider in the military, and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

A second hierarchical linear regression model was run to assess the association of composite concealment and organizational embeddedness. Again gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one (see above for reporting on this model). When composite concealment was added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in lack of embeddedness, $R^2 = .18$, $F(4, 192) = 11.40$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by concealment in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .13$, $F(1, 192) = 29.61$, $p < .001$. As such, concealment was a significant

predictor of military embeddedness, even after controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, service members who reported concealing their identity more in the military also tended to report feeling more like outsiders in the military, on average, $B = 0.42$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [0.27, 0.58], $\beta = .37$, $p < .001$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and concealment. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in military embeddedness, $R^2 = .17$, $F(5, 191) = 9.28$, $p < .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(1, 191) = 0.83$, $p = .36$. As such, the association between sexual identity concealment in the military and lack of embeddedness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.06$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.20], $\beta = .17$, $p = .91$. In other words, concealing one's sexual identity more in the military seems to foster feelings of being an outsider in the military, and the strength of the effect may be similar regardless of gender or sexual identity.

The next model assessed the association between composite disclosure and military embeddedness, and so only included those participants who indicated that they were at least somewhat out at work ($N = 178$). In this model again, gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction were entered in step one. Similar to the prior models, these variables accounted for 5% of the variance in reported lack of military embeddedness, $F(3, 174) = 4.07$, $p = .01$. Once again sexual identity emerged as a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness, $B = -2.52$, $SE(B) = 0.96$, 95% CI [-4.42, -0.63], $\beta = -.73$, $p = .01$, such that bisexual-identified service members tended to report feeling less like outsiders in the military than gay- or lesbian-identified service members. Again, gender was not a significant predictor of lack of military embeddedness, $B = -1.01$, $SE(B) = 0.69$, 95% CI [-2.36, 0.35], $\beta = .35$, $p = .14$, nor was the

interaction term of gender and sexual identity, $B = 1.09$, $SE(B) = 0.55$, 95% CI [-0.01, 2.17], $\beta = -0.74$, $p = .06$.

When composite disclosure was added in step two of the model, the overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .09$, $F(4, 173) = 5.12$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional variance accounted for by disclosure in the model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(1, 173) = 7.80$, $p = .006$. As such, disclosure was a significant predictor of lack of military embeddedness, even controlling for the effects of gender and sexual identity (and the interaction term). Specifically, service members who reported disclosing their sexual identity more also tended to report feeling less like outsiders in the military, on average, $B = -0.28$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.47, -0.08], $\beta = -.20$, $p = .006$. Next, step three added the three-way interaction term of gender, sexual identity, and disclosure. The overall model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .08$, $F(5, 172) = 4.12$, $p = .001$. However, the additional variance accounted for by the three-way interaction term was not significant, $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $F(1, 172) = 0.19$, $p = .66$. As such, the association between sexual identity disclosure in the military and lack of embeddedness did not appear to vary based on gender and sexual identity, $B = -0.05$, $SE(B) = 0.11$, 95% CI [-0.26, 0.16], $\beta = -.13$, $p = .66$. In other words, disclosing one's sexual identity in the military seems to promote feeling less like an outsider overall, and may have similar importance regardless of gender or sexual identity.

In order to assess the relative contribution of the different sexual identity management strategies in predicting lack of embeddedness in the military, a final model was created regressing lack of embeddedness on the three strategies at the same time. Gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered at step one, and the sexual identity

management strategies were entered at step two. As only a subset of participants were included in any analyses that included disclosure, two separate analyses were actually conducted: one with all three sexual identity management strategies as predictors, and another with only outness and concealment. In both sets of models, the pattern of results was the same. As such, only the model which included all three sexual identity management studies is described in text here, however the full results for both models can be found in Table 33 above. The second step of the model, which added all three sexual identity management strategies, accounted for a significant proportion of variance in organizational embeddedness, $R^2 = .23$, $F(6, 171) = 9.75$, $p < .001$. Not only that, but the additional predictors accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in lack of embeddedness, beyond gender, sexual identity, and the interaction term, $\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(3, 171) = 14.48$, $p < .001$. When examining the unique contribution of each individual sexual identity management strategy in this model, and similar to the model in Study 1, concealment emerged as the strongest predictor of lack of military embeddedness, $B = 0.54$, $SE(B) = 0.11$, 95% CI [0.33, 0.76], $\beta = .44$, $p < .001$. Taken together, these results suggest that different sexual identity management strategies may be associated with feelings of lack of embeddedness in the military, but that the act of concealing one's sexual identity at work may be especially deleterious in inhibiting the ability to feel like an embedded service member in the military. As such, Hypothesis 2 was supported overall.

Support as a Moderator of Sexual Identity Management Strategies and Embeddedness

Hypothesis 3 predicted that perceived military support for LGB service members (both feeling of general personal support and immediate superior support) would moderate the relationship between sexual identity management strategies and lack of embeddedness, expecting that the positive associations would be especially strong in more supportive environments, and

the negative associations would be especially strong in less supportive environments. A series of hierarchical linear regression models were created in order to test this hypothesis. Specifically, three separate models were created, with lack of embeddedness regressed on both perceived support variables and one of the three sexual identity management strategies (outness, concealment, disclosure). Each model controlled for gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction term in step 1, entered the individual predictors in step 2, and the two-way interactions of the sexual identity management strategy with each other predictor were entered in step 3. As such, step one was the same in both the models including outness and concealment, which are discussed here; the disclosure model will be discussed separately. Step one of the regression model was significant overall, accounting for 4% of the variance in reported lack of embeddedness, $F(3, 193) = 4.64, p = .004$. In this model, and in line with previously reported findings, sexual identity was a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness, $B = -2.14, SE(B) = 1.05, 95\% \text{ CI } [-3.78, -0.49], \beta = -.66, p = .01$, such that bisexual-identified service members reported feeling less like outsiders in the military than gay- or lesbian-identified service members. In this model, gender was not a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness in the military, $B = -0.72, SE(B) = 0.62, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.95, 0.51], \beta = -.25, p = .25$, nor was the interaction of gender and sexual identity, $B = 0.88, SE(B) = 0.78, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.08, 1.83], \beta = .64, p = .07$ (see Table 34).

The potential moderators of the relationship between outness and lack of embeddedness in the military were examined first. Composite outness and the two support variables were entered at step two of this model (thus controlling for gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction, as described above). This model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in lack of embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .15, F(6, 190) = 6.89, p < .001$. In addition, the

Table 34. Hierarchical linear regression models with lack of embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, outness, and perceived support ($N=197$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.05	.004
Sexual Identity	-2.14	0.84	-.66	.01	-2.56	0.82	-.79	.002		
Gender	-0.72	0.62	-.25	.25	-1.03	0.63	-.36	.11		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.88	0.48	.64	.07	1.03	0.48	.75	.03		
Step 2									.11	<.001
Perceived general support	-0.41	0.10	-.29	<.001	-0.28	0.26	-.20	.29		
Perceived superior support	0.21	0.10	.15	.03	0.35	0.26	.24	.19		
Outness	-0.14	0.10	-.10	.16	0.19	0.37	.14	.62		
Step 4									.004	.67
Outness*General Support					-0.04	0.08	-.17	.60		
Outness*Superior Support					-0.05	0.09	-.16	.58		

Note: For step 1 and step 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) are only reported in the final model, as that is the step at which they were entered.

new predictors added at this step accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in lack of embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .11$, $F(3, 190) = 8.59$, $p < .001$. In this model, and similar to findings in Study 1, outness was no longer a significant predictor of embeddedness once in the context of the support variables, $B = -0.14$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.33, 0.05], $\beta = -.10$, $p = .16$. Each of the support variables served as significant predictors of embeddedness, however. Specifically, more perceived general support was associated with less feeling like an outsider, $B = -0.41$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.60, -0.21], $\beta = -.29$, $p < .001$. However, higher perceived superior support was associated with more lack of embeddedness, $B = 0.21$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [0.02, 0.40], $\beta = .15$, $p = .03$. This pattern of results suggests that, across these predictors, outness may actually serve as the weakest predictor of organizational embeddedness (even though it was significant when examined on its own). However, it was still necessary to examine whether the relationship between outness and embeddedness changed depending on the other predictors in the model. In addition, feeling supported as an LGB service member was the strongest predictor in the model. The reversed direction for immediate superior support is also interesting, but it is important to consider that it is still controlling for all other variables in the model. For example, it may be that for service members who do not feel generally supported as LGB service members, experiencing support from their superiors may promote feelings of lack of embeddedness that extend beyond themselves (that is, they may feel more like outsiders in the military but also view their superiors as outsiders).

The third step of this model added two separate two-way interaction terms between outness and each support variable. This model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in lack of embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .15$, $F(8, 188) = 5.24$, $p < .001$. However, the interaction terms did not account for a significant proportion of additional variance in lack

embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .004$, $F(2, 188) = 0.40$, $p = .67$. Within this model, the interaction of outness and perceived general support was not a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness in the military, $B = -0.04$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [-0.21, 0.12], $\beta = -.16$, $p = .60$, nor was the interaction of outness and perceived superior support, $B = -0.05$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95% CI [-0.23, 0.13], $\beta = -.16$, $p = .58$. As such, the relationship between outness and lack of embeddedness in the military did not appear to be moderated by either feeling generally supported as an LGB service member or feeling supported by an immediate superior.

A second model was created to explore whether perceived support moderated the relationship between concealment and lack of embeddedness in the military. Gender, sexual identity, and the two-way interaction term were entered into the first step of the model (which was the same as step one of the reported model above; see Table 35). Composite concealment and the two support variables were entered at step two of this model. This model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in lack of embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .21$, $F(6, 190) = 9.80$, $p < .001$. In addition, the new predictors added at this step accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in lack of embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .17$, $F(3, 190) = 14.01$, $p < .001$. In this model, and unlike the findings in Study 1, concealment remained a significant predictor of embeddedness even in the context of the support variables. Specifically, those who reported concealing their sexual identity more also tended to report feeling more like outsiders in the military, $B = 0.33$, $SE(B) = 0.08$, 95% CI [0.17, 0.50], $\beta = .29$, $p < .001$. Each of the support variables also served as significant predictors of lack of embeddedness in this model as well. Specifically, and similar to the previous model for outness, more perceived general support was associated with less feeling like an outsider, $B = -0.29$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.49, -0.09], $\beta = -.20$, $p = .005$. Once again, however, higher perceived superior support was associated with more

Table 35. Hierarchical linear regression models with lack of embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, concealment, and perceived support ($N=197$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.05	.004
Sexual Identity	-2.14	0.84	-.66	.01	-2.60	0.78	-.80	<.001		
Gender	-0.72	0.62	-.25	.25	-0.93	0.59	-.32	.12		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.88	0.48	.64	.07	1.16	0.45	.84	.01		
Step 2									.17	<.001
Perceived general support	-0.29	0.10	-.20	.005	-0.59	0.22	-.42	.01		
Perceived superior support	0.20	0.09	.13	.04	-.01	0.24	-.003	.98		
Concealment	0.33	0.08	.29	<.001	-0.27	0.30	-.24	.37		
Step 4									.02	.11
Concealment*General Support					0.12	0.07	.36	.12		
Concealment*Superior Support					0.06	0.07	.24	.39		

Note: For step 1 and step 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) are only reported in the final model, as that is the step at which they were entered.

lack of embeddedness, $B = 0.20$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.38], $\beta = .13$, $p = .04$. This pattern of results suggests that both concealing one's sexual identity and perceptions of support may uniquely predict feelings of embeddedness within the military.

The third step of this model again added the two separate two-way interaction terms between concealment and each support variable. This model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in lack of embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .22$, $F(8, 188) = 8.00$, $p < .001$. However, the interaction terms did not account for a significant proportion of additional variance in lack of embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(2, 188) = 2.25$, $p = .11$. Within this model, the interaction of concealment and perceived general support was not a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness in the military, $B = 0.12$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.03, 0.26], $\beta = .36$, $p = .12$, nor was the interaction of concealment and perceived superior support, $B = 0.06$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.21], $\beta = .24$, $p = .39$. As such, the relationship between concealment and lack of embeddedness in the military did not appear to be moderated by either feeling generally supported as an LGB service member or feeling supported by an immediate superior.

The third hierarchical linear regression model examined whether the perceived support variables moderated the relationship between disclosure and lack of embeddedness. Once again, only service members who indicated that they were at least somewhat out in the military were asked about disclosures, and so these analyses only included this subset of $N = 178$ service members. Step one of the regression model, which once again included gender, sexual identity, and their two-way interaction term, was significant overall, accounting for 5% of the variance in reported lack of embeddedness, $F(3, 174) = 4.07$, $p = .01$. In this model again, sexual identity was a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness, $B = -2.52$, $SE(B) = 0.96$, 95% CI [-4.42, -0.63], $\beta = -.73$, $p = .01$, such that bisexual-identified service members reported feeling less like

outsiders in the military than gay- or lesbian-identified service members. In this model again, gender was not a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness in the military, $B = -1.01$, $SE(B) = 0.69$, 95% CI [-2.36, 0.35], $\beta = -.35$, $p = .14$, nor was the interaction of gender and sexual identity, $B = 1.09$, $SE(B) = 0.55$, 95% CI [-0.01, 2.17], $\beta = .74$, $p = .06$ (see Table 36).

Composite disclosure and the two support variables were entered at step two of this model. This model still accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in lack of embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .17$, $F(6, 171) = 6.82$, $p < .001$. In addition, the new predictors added at this step accounted for a significant proportion of additional variance in lack of embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .13$, $F(3, 171) = 9.01$, $p < .001$. In this model, and unlike the findings in Study 1, disclosure remained a significant predictor of embeddedness even in the context of the support variables. Specifically, those who reported concealing their sexual identity more also tended to report feeling less like outsiders in the military, $B = -0.21$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.40, -0.02], $\beta = -.16$, $p = .03$. In addition, and unlike the prior models for outness and concealment, only perceived general support was a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness. Specifically, more perceived general support was associated with less feeling like an outsider, $B = -0.42$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.62, -0.22], $\beta = -.29$, $p < .001$. Perceived superior support was not associated with lack of embeddedness in this model, $B = 0.17$, $SE(B) = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.03, 0.38], $\beta = .12$, $p = .10$. This pattern of results suggests that both disclosing one's sexual identity and perceptions of support may uniquely predict feelings of embeddedness within the military.

The third step of this model once again added the two separate two-way interaction terms between concealment and each support variable. This model still accounted for a significant proportion of variance in lack of embeddedness overall, $R^2 = .17$, $F(8, 169) = 5.17$, $p < .001$. However, the interaction terms did not account for a significant proportion of additional

Table 36. Hierarchical linear regression models with lack of embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, disclosure, and perceived support ($N=178$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.05	.004
Sexual Identity	-2.14	0.84	-.66	.01	-2.60	0.78	-.80	<.001		
Gender	-0.72	0.62	-.25	.25	-0.93	0.59	-.32	.12		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.88	0.48	.64	.07	1.16	0.45	.84	.01		
Step 2									.17	<.001
Perceived general support	-0.29	0.10	-.20	.005	-0.59	0.22	-.42	.01		
Perceived superior support	0.20	0.09	.13	.04	-.01	0.24	-.003	.98		
Disclosure	0.33	0.08	.29	<.001	-0.27	0.30	-.24	.37		
Step 4									.02	.11
Disclosure*General Support					0.12	0.07	.36	.12		
Disclosure*Superior Support					0.06	0.07	.24	.39		

Note: For step 1 and step 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) are only reported in the final model, as that is the step at which they were entered.

variance in lack embeddedness, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(2, 169) = 0.35$, $p = .71$. Within this model, the interaction of disclosure and perceived general support was not a significant predictor of lack of embeddedness in the military, $B = -0.04$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95%CI [-0.12, 0.15], $\beta = -.15$, $p = .67$, nor was the interaction of disclosure and perceived superior support, $B = -0.05$, $SE(B) = 0.09$, 95%CI [-0.23, 0.13], $\beta = -.17$, $p = .57$. As such, the relationship between disclosure and lack of embeddedness in the military did not appear to be moderated by either feeling generally supported as an LGB service member or feeling supported by an immediate superior.

Due to the reversed direction of the relationship between perceived superior support and lack of embeddedness in some of the models, and given the fact that it did not emerge as a significant predictor across all models, a final series of analyses was conducted. These analyses replicated the prior models, except that they included only perceived general support and its interaction term (i.e., perceived superior support was not included). The interaction of perceived general support and sexual identity management strategy was examined in these analyses. Results revealed that there was a significant interaction of perceived general support and concealment in predicting embeddedness, $B = 0.14$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, 95%CI [0.01, 0.28], $\beta = .44$, $p = .04$. Simple slopes analyses revealed that the trend line was significant for those with low ($B = -0.48$, $SE = 0.13$, 95%CI [-0.73, -0.23]), and average levels of concealment ($B = -0.27$, $SE = 0.10$, 95%CI [-0.47, -0.08]) but not for those with high levels on concealment ($B = -0.07$, $SE = 0.14$, 95%CI [-0.35, 0.20]). In other words, those who reported feeling more supported as LGB service members also tended to report feeling less like outsiders in the military, but this was only true for those who concealed their sexual identity less often (at average or low levels of concealment). For those who concealed their sexual identity more often, feeling supported as LGB service

members did not promote feeling less like an outsider in the military (see Table 37 and Figure 12 for complete details of this model).

Discussion

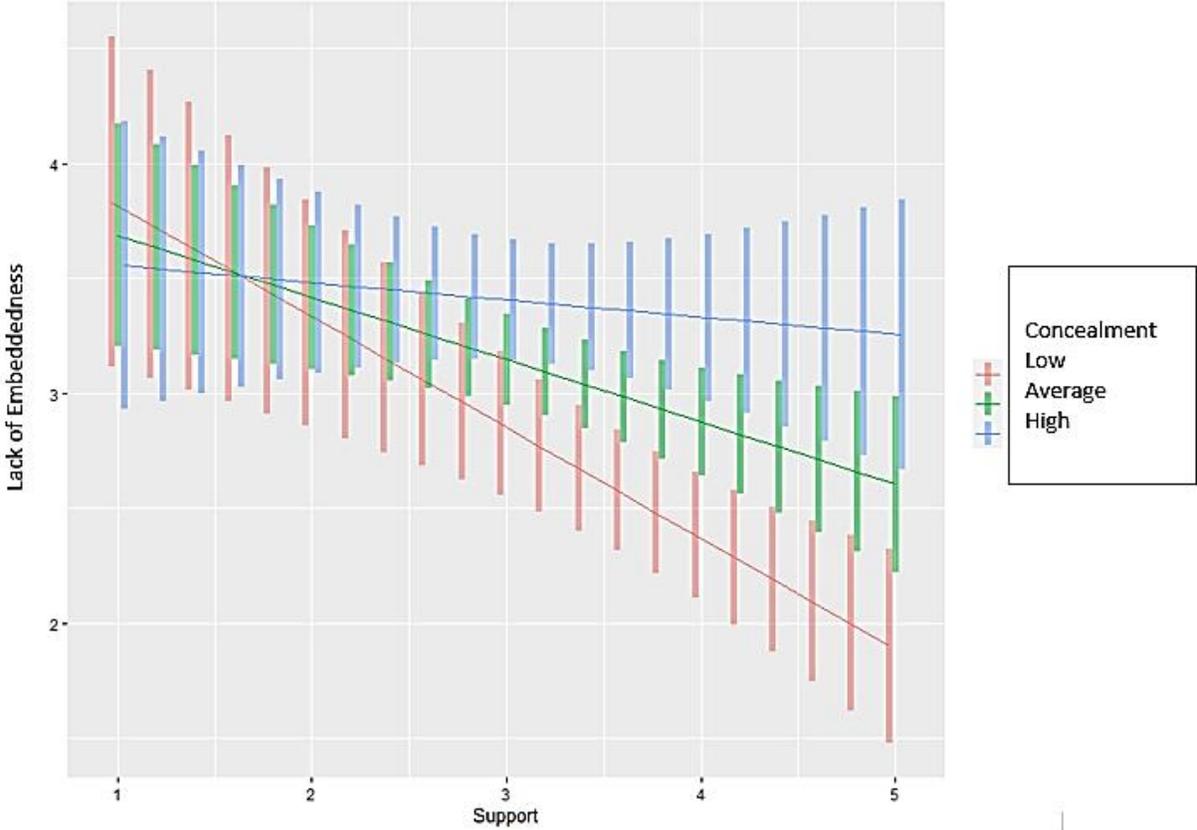
Study 2 examined the patterns of association between sexual identity management strategies, perceived support, and embeddedness within the context of the US Armed Forces. A number of interesting findings emerged from these analyses. The exploratory research question, which examined differences in the variables of interest based on gender and sexual identity, revealed an interesting pattern for bisexual-identified service members. Specifically, bisexual-identified service members tended to be less out (especially women), but also tended to disclose their sexual identity more, than their gay- or lesbian-identified counterparts. It may be that service members who are gay- or lesbian-identified are “easier” to recognize, or that there may be assumptions around their sexual identity that do not require an explicit disclosure. Bisexuality, on the other hand, may be a less “visible” sexual identity, thus bisexual-identified service members could be simultaneously less out overall, while also needing to disclose their sexual identity more than gay- or lesbian-identified service members in order to be visible. In addition, bisexual-identified service members also reported greater embeddedness within the military (i.e., they reported feeling less like outsiders) compared to gay- and lesbian-identified service members. It may be that bisexual-identified service members have an easier time ascribing to the hypermasculine and heteronormative environment of the military, and so are less likely to feel like outsiders within that environment. All told, however, these results suggest that further research into the military experiences of bisexual-identified service members may serve to illuminate psychological processes that may differ between them and their gay- and lesbian-identified counterparts.

Table 37. Hierarchical linear regression models with lack of embeddedness regressed on sexual identity, gender, concealment, and perceived general support ($N=197$).

Predictor	At Entry/Single Predictor				Final Model (Multiple Predictors)					
	B	SE(B)	β	p	B	SE(B)	β	p	ΔR^2	p
Step 1									.05	.004
Sexual Identity	-2.14	0.84	-.66	.01	-2.36	0.77	-.73	.002		
Gender	-0.72	0.62	-.25	.25	-0.79	0.58	-.28	.18		
Sexual Identity*Gender	0.88	0.48	.64	.07	1.04	0.44	.76	.02		
Step 2									.15	<.001
Perceived general support	-0.26	0.10	-.18	.01	-0.64	0.21	-.45	.003		
Concealment	0.34	0.08	.30	<.001	-0.14	0.25	-.12	.59		
Step 4									.02	.04
Concealment*General Support					0.14	0.07	.44	.04		

Note: For step 1 and step 2 variables, values represent statistics at entry and in final model. Step 3 variables (i.e., three-way interaction terms) are only reported in the final model, as that is the step at which they were entered.

Figure 12. Organizational lack of embeddedness regressed on perceived support and concealment.



Note: error bars represent standard error.

In line with expectations, perceived support was found to be positively associated with outness and disclosure, and negatively associated with concealment. In addition, perceived support was positively associated with embeddedness, above and beyond any effects of gender and sexual identity. Interestingly, however, only perceived general support (i.e., feeling supported as an LGB service member) exhibited this pattern of correlations. However, when examining perceived support as a predictor of embeddedness, it did not appear to function in the same way. Indeed, when placed in context together, the opposite pattern of correlations was found between perceived superior support and embeddedness. It may be, for example, that service members who do not feel supported in general, but have a superior that they feel is supportive, may not actually experience high levels of military embeddedness. Perhaps instead, they simply view their immediate superior as more of an outsider in the military. Future research should explore these potential effects, focusing on different sources of support that may occur at various levels within the military context (e.g., unit, duty station, etc.).

Sexual identity management strategies were also found to be associated with military embeddedness (i.e., not feeling like an outsider in the military). Specifically, service members who were more out, who concealed their sexual identity less, and who disclosed more tended to also report greater military embeddedness. Concealment, however, appeared to be the strongest predictor, and when examined together, was the only predictor that remained significant. It may be that concealing one's sexual identity may be particularly deleterious to key socialization processes that foster feelings of embeddedness for service members, in a way that not being out or not disclosing do. Not only that, but the moderating effect of support on embeddedness was only present for those service members who did not exhibit high concealment. Future research should explore not only what different sexual identity management strategies LGB service

members may employ, but also what cognitive processes are involved with each, and the psychological effects each strategy may result in.

Study 2 presented data from one of the first federally funded studies which explored the experiences of active duty LGB service members. Although the data were collected cross-sectionally, they present an interesting and suggestive pattern of results, providing a number of potential future research questions to address. Even though LGB service members are a difficult population to reach as a target for research, their experiences have been understudied historically, and so there is a wealth of information to tap into regarding their experiences in the military, including how they approach managing their sexual identity within the military context.

Chapter IV: General Discussion

The current series of two studies revealed several interesting findings which have theoretical and methodological implications for future research in this area, as well as practical implications for sexual minority employees and the organizations they work for. The two studies examined the strategies that sexual minority employees use at work to manage their sexual identity, specifically general outness, concealment, and disclosure, as well as the correlates of those strategies. Study 1 used a broad-based sample of sexual minority employees from a variety of jobs, levels, and sectors, to examine how workplace sexual identity management strategies are associated with perceived workplace support for LGBTQ+ employees, organizational fit, supportive LGBTQ+ policies, and organizational embeddedness. Study 2 examined these patterns of association for sexual minority employees who all worked for the same employer, namely the US Armed Forces.

Theoretical Implications

Taken together, these studies provide insight and extend existing frameworks of workplace sexual identity management, namely Ragin's (2008) stigma-based model of sexual identity management, and related research (i.e., Griffith & Hebl, 2002) in a number of key ways. First, these studies looked beyond disclosure as a focal point to explore other potential strategies of sexual identity management at work. Second, they examined how the use of sexual identity management strategies (as well as their patterns of association) differ based on gender and sexual identity. Third, they investigated organizational embeddedness, a key workplace socialization outcome which has often been overlooked in this stream of literature. Across these two studies, the pattern of findings yielded results which have implications for future theory development in this area of research.

Although Ragins (2008) did note that differences in workplace disclosures likely exist based on gender and sexual identity, there is no clear delineation or proposed direction of difference in the existing framework. Other studies have noted that there may be differences in the extent to which gay-identified men and lesbian-identified women engage in sexual identity management (Griffin, 1992), however much of this work is qualitative in nature. More recently, there has been evidence that bisexual-identified employees may be less out at work (Williams Institute, 2022), and especially bisexual-identified men (Corrington et al., 2019), however these reports do not provide specific insight into how bisexual-identified employees may navigate whether and how often to disclose their sexual identity at work. Data from the current studies suggest that, indeed, bisexual-identified employees tend to be less out and explicitly conceal their sexual identity more at work than their gay- and lesbian-identified counterparts.

Research suggests that bisexual-identified individuals experience specific forms of stigma that gay- and lesbian-identified individuals do not, and this stigma can take the form of such attitudes as bisexuality “not being real”, or that those who identify as bisexual are just confused (Carey, 2005). These and other sources of stigma may promote concealment as a safer strategy for workplace sexual identity management for bisexual-identified employees. In fact, there is increasing evidence to support that bisexual-identified women report more mental health problems, including depression rates, than either their heterosexual- or lesbian-identified counterparts (Bostwick, 2012). Future research should seek to explore whether and how the underlying reasons bisexual-identified employees engage in sexual identity management in the workplace may differ from gay- and lesbian-identified employees. As a specific example, there may be factors beyond those identified in Ragin’s (2008) model or in the current studies that may

influence concealment or disclosure among bisexual-identified employees (e.g., the characteristics of bisexual-specific phobia within an organization).

The current studies also provide evidence that a number of organizational characteristics are associated with sexual identity management strategies. Perceived workplace support for sexual minority (i.e., LGBTQ+) employees, was found to be associated with more outness, less concealment, and more disclosure, even after controlling for gender and sexual identity, and across both studies. In addition, Study 1 found the same pattern of correlations (i.e., greater outness, less concealment, and greater disclosure) with the presence of more supportive LGBTQ+ policies, as well as a negative association between organizational fit and concealment. Together, these findings suggest that the specific types of sexual identity management strategies that sexual minority employees engage in are indeed associated with characteristics of the organizations that these individuals work for, and are in line with expectations outlined in Ragin's (2008) stigma-based model. Notably in Study 1, when all of the organizational characteristics were combined into one model, only the association with perceived support remained significant, and this was true regardless of sexual identity management strategy. Indeed, even the presence of such factors as non-discrimination policies or diversity statements which explicitly cover sexual identity were not as strongly associated with sexual identity management strategies as perceived support. Study 2 generally corroborated this finding, such that general perceived military support for LGB service members had a stronger correlation with what? than perceived superior support.

Another major contribution of these studies is the explicit focus on organizational embeddedness as a correlate of sexual identity management strategies. Specifically, outness (in Study 1) and concealment (in both Studies 1 and 2) were found to be associated with

embeddedness, and in the hypothesized directions (positive and negative, respectively). These findings suggest that the sexual identity management strategies that sexual minority employees engage in may impact their feelings of connection to their workplace organizations. It must be noted that embeddedness is typically construed as a key organizational outcome of interest in much of the literature. As the data in both of these studies were cross-sectional, it cannot necessarily be presumed that concealing one's sexual identity at work leads to less embeddedness at a later time point. That being said, embeddedness is often construed in the literature as a desirable outcome of organizational socialization tactics (e.g., recruitment, selection, and onboarding procedures; training and development, etc.), and so may inherently be something that only develops over time. It would be interesting to explore how the relationship between sexual identity management strategies and embeddedness develops over the course of the socialization period. For example, it may be that an increased number of instances of identity concealment is more strongly associated with feeling less embedded in one's organization.

The current studies also found that perceived organizational support moderated the relationship between sexual identity concealment and organizational embeddedness. Specifically, while sexual minority employees who were more out or concealed their sexual identity less tended to also report feeling less embedded within their organizations, this was only true for employees who perceived low organizational support for LGBTQ+ employees. For employees who perceived higher support for LGBTQ+ employees within their organizations, there were no differences in reported embeddedness based on outness or concealment. In other words, sexual minority employees who are more out about their sexual identity may find it more difficult to feel like true, valued, and embedded members of their organizations when they perceive less support for LGBTQ+ employees from that organization.

Practical Implications

One important implication that the results from these studies suggest is that, while perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees is important, not all support may be perceived in the same way. For example, in the military sample, it was general military support, rather than immediate superior support, that promoted feelings of embeddedness. When employees perceive different types or levels of support from different sources, it may be that a hybrid or ambivalent climate is created, which can distort or even negatively impact workplace outcomes (Lyons et al., 2017). A particular manager may promote support for their LGBTQ+ employees, however this in and of itself may not be enough to promote positive outcomes such as organizational embeddedness if that support is not perceived more broadly within the organization as a whole. Consequently, any interventions that are undertaken to increase support for sexual and gender diverse employees may be more effective if they are targeted at the broader organizational climate, rather than focusing on the individual level and specific actions of supervisors and co-workers.

Similarly, the results of the current studies demonstrated that while support overall was associated with higher reports of embeddedness, the association was especially strong for more informal practices. Specifically, the welcoming of same-sex partners at company events was found to be the strongest predictor of embeddedness, even more than formal policies such as explicitly banning discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation. This finding may actually serve as an indicator of something broader, such that formal written antidiscrimination statements may not be enough to foster feelings of embeddedness in a workforce. That is not to say that such policies are not important; indeed, they may be the most fundamental form of legal protection that marginalized and minoritized employees have. However, the fostering of

embeddedness may rely more on creating a supportive organizational climate through social and day-to-day informal interactions and behaviors than necessarily through formal written documents.

Consistent with the present findings, existing literature suggests that general workplace climate may indeed be related to certain types of identity management strategies (e.g., concealment; see Holman, et al., 2022). One potential avenue for future work in this area could explore whether specific forms of support tend to promote or inhibit specific identity management strategies. For example, harassment training which specifically includes examples of bullying and harassment that sexual minority employees may face may promote awareness of these issues within a workplace context, and serve to reduce the potential stigma associated with being a sexual minority. In addition, providing safe spaces in which employees with similar identities (including sexual and gender diverse employees), known as employee resource groups, may be a useful way for organizations to demonstrate support for these employees. As such, there are a variety of different practices, both formal and informal, that organizations can employ in order to signal support for sexual and gender diverse employees.

Although not measured in these studies, another important way in which sexual and gender diverse employees may perceive enhanced support from their employers is by seeing others like them in visible positions within their organizations. Embeddedness may be fostered when these employees see others like them in positions of authority, or just being visible more broadly, within their organizations. Managers should take the time to consider where and how these employees can be positioned within the organization in order to have potential impact on broader organizational climate. If necessary, the talent pipeline (e.g., hiring and promotion) should be considered when making such decisions that may impact visibility. Not only that, but

champions of support for marginalized and minoritized groups should be identified and also encouraged to take on key roles, or mentored or encouraged into such positions, within an organization in order to ensure that discrimination (both formal and informal) is not tolerated, and that it does not solely fall on members from those groups to call out such negative experiences. In the end, it may be useful to take a multi-pronged approach to fostering a climate of organizational support (Hebl et al., 2020), but doing so will also likely require managers to be thoughtful, and to listen to members of marginalized and minoritized groups (included sexual and gender diverse employees).

Lastly, although there were similarities in the general patterns of results across this series of two studies, there were also some key differences in the use of sexual identity management strategies between the broad-based sample in Study 1 and the military-specific sample in Study 2. For example, men were more likely to conceal their sexual identity in the military sample, however this was not true in the broad-based sample. In addition, although perceived support was associated with both outness and concealment in both studies, it only moderated the relationship between concealment and embeddedness in the military sample. In the broad-based sample, however, perceived support moderated the relationship between both outness and concealment, and embeddedness. These differences point to the importance of accounting for context in research, which is not surprising in the social sciences. Just as one cannot necessarily generalize from a particular context to a broader population, it should also not be assumed that general trends will play out in exactly the same way in specific contexts, or for specific employers or organizations. As such, any interventions that are considered in a particular workplace context must be tailored to meet the needs of the specific of the organization and its employees.

Limitations & Future Directions

Even though these studies provide a number of contributions to the literature and applications to organizational practice, they are not without limitations. Notably, both studies utilized cross-sectional self-report data. It is important to note that, as a strength, the data were collected from difficult-to-reach populations. However, future research should seek to incorporate other types of methodologies that do not rely solely on self-report information. For example, it would be useful to explore more objective measures as correlates of sexual identity management strategies, perhaps using archival Human Resources records (e.g., attendance records, performance evaluation data, turnover records, salary and promotion, etc.). If the pattern of results was replicated with these additional outcomes, then confidence in the findings would be strengthened. At the very least, using a combination of measures would permit a more holistic picture of identity management strategies and their correlates. When using such records, researchers could even include heterosexual-identified employees as a comparison group.

Also given the cross-sectional nature of the data, an important issue is that sexual identity management is, at its core, not a one-time event, but a continual process of assessment and reassessment, filled with numerous individual and repeating decision points. The extent to which the results from cross-sectional studies such as these are generalizable, and especially over time, is limited. This limitation is certainly not unique to the current studies, but it does highlight the need for more longitudinal work in this area. For example, experience sampling methodology (ESM; see Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983; 2014) may be of particular use in this domain, where sexual minority employees could be assessed at random points over a period of time in order to gain insight into the moment-to-moment ways in which they manage their identity while at work, and the psychological meaning ascribed to those daily patterns of behavior.

One sexual identity management framework which incorporates such a longitudinal perspective takes a more socio-cognitive approach, examining the phenomenon through the lens of vocational development (Lidderdale et al., 2007). This framework seeks to understand how specific use of different sexual identity management strategies can create feedback and learning loops, which can then influence the use of similar or different strategies in future interactions. There is some recent evidence demonstrating that at least portions of this model play out in expected ways among LGBTQ+ employees (Rummell & Tokar, 2016). Specifically, and in line with the findings from these studies, employees who had higher intentions to engage in specific disclosure strategies resulted in actual disclosure more often when perceived workplace support was high than when perceived support was low. These findings suggest that perceived support is correlated not only with actual strategy use, but also with the cognitive calculus that goes into weighing the consequences associated with using different strategies. As such, it is imperative that future research in this area expand to include longitudinal approaches to framing sexual identity management strategies, as well as research methodology and data collection.

These studies also used measures which, although based on and adapted from existing validated scales, were not complete, or that included only a small number of items. This is a notable limitation of the study of workplace sexual identity management more broadly (e.g., Croteau et al., 2008), and also applies here. Future research in this area should seek to incorporate existing validated measures of sexual identity management, or to develop instrumentation that more clearly captures the various strategies that LGBTQ+ employees engage in to manage their sexual identities at work. In addition, and as many of the measures included in these analyses were correlated to begin with, it may be useful to engage in discriminant validity analyses in order to ensure that there is adequate differentiation between

each of the constructs measured. This type of analysis would go a long way toward validating the results reported here.

The results presented here were also correlational in nature. There are existing models of workplace sexual identity management, and future research should seek to test those models more directly, by engaging in path analysis or structural equation modeling, for example. The analyses presented in these studies could be used to develop an a priori model which could then be tested directly via path modeling. In addition, it should be noted that embeddedness is often considered to be a short-term organizational outcome. However, it is also known to predict job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, turnover intentions, and actual turnover (Lee et al., 2014). It would be interesting to explore whether embeddedness functions as a mediator between workplace sexual identity management strategies and these more long-term organizational outcomes, and whether perceived support continues to function as a moderator of these relationships. There are a number of interesting directions for future research regarding this area of analytic work, as well as model development and testing.

These analyses also did not consider other demographic factors which may relate to the experiences of sexual and gender diverse individuals, especially race and socioeconomic status, which may also have an impact on the relationships described here. For example, employees who are LGBTQ+ and Black may have very different workplace experiences than those who are LGBTQ+ and White. Future research should also consider other key demographic factors which may moderate the relationships described here. More broadly, there is a need for an increased emphasis on intersectional approaches to research, which go beyond simply including factors such as race in analyses (see Hebl et al., 2020, for example). Future work in this area should

build intersectionality into their frameworks and methodologies, in order to better highlight the lived experiences of diverse employees in the workforce.

Lastly, although bisexual-identified employees were examined in comparison to those who are gay- or lesbian-identified in these studies, the full spectrum of gender and sexual diversity was certainly not captured. Notably, and due to power limitations, the experiences of transgender employees were not explicitly examined in these studies. Research with transgender employees demonstrates that perceived workplace support is also associated with higher disclosure of one's transgender identity, and that the positive reaction of coworkers serves as a mediator of this relationship (Law et al., 2011). Indeed, some work suggests that a positive reaction of coworkers to disclosure may be the strongest predictor of perceived discrimination for transgender employees (Ruggs et al., 2015). These results demonstrate that the nature of workplace sexual identity management is not exactly the same for those with different sexual identities. A potential fruitful avenue for future research is to explore the experiences and identity management strategies of transgender employees, as well as those who identify as nonbinary or genderqueer. Such work could serve to further highlight the full spectrum of workplace experiences for sexual and gender diverse employees.

Conclusion

The findings from these two studies suggest that perceived support for LGBTQ+ employees may be the cornerstone of sexual identity management at work, and also have implications for outcomes such as organizational embeddedness. Given that perceived support tended to have the strongest pattern of association with organizational embeddedness, these findings suggest that perhaps a shift in focus may need to occur. Specifically, it may be that research should shift away from identifying factors which promote disclosing one's sexual

identity in the workplace, and instead focus on processes which promote sexual and gender diverse employees feeling supported within their organizations, regardless of whether they choose to disclose or conceal their sexual identity. Indeed, it may be that decisions to disclose or conceal may themselves impact the broader organizational climate for sexual minorities (Creed & Scully, 2000). For example, a positive reaction to a sexual minority employee's disclosure may have the potential to create shifts that may reduce stigma associated with that sexual identity over time. On the contrary, concealing behaviors may limit the opportunity for such shifts in climate to occur (Bernstein, 1997), with downstream negative implications for employee feelings of embeddedness within organizations. All told, and as Button (2004) expressed, "efforts to develop a more affirming organizational context, and thereby facilitate the use on an integrating strategy, may represent an effective business strategy and enhance organizational long-term viability" (p. 491). It may be time to shift focus away from the act of coming out of the proverbial workplace closet, and instead attend to the dismantling of structures that serve to build and reinforce it in the first place.

References

- 303 Creative LLC v. Elenis S. Ct. 21-476 (2023).
- Anderson, M. Z., Croteau, J. M., Chung, Y. B., & DiStefano, T. M. (2001). Developing an assessment of sexual identity management for lesbian and gay workers. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 9(3), 243–260. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1177/106907270100900303>
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Behavior theory and the models of man (1974). In J. M. Notterman (Ed.), *The evolution of psychology: Fifty years of the American Psychologist*. (pp. 154–172). American Psychological Association. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/10254-011>
- Bernstein, M. (1997). Celebration and suppression: The strategic uses of identity by the lesbian and gay movement. *American Journal of Sociology*, 103(3), 531–565. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1086/231250>
- Bostwick, W. (2012). Assessing bisexual stigma and mental health status: A brief report. *Journal of Bisexuality*, 12(2), 214–222. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/15299716.2012.674860>
- Burks, D. J. (2011). Lesbian, gay, and bisexual victimization in the military: An unintended consequence of “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell”? *American Psychologist*, 66(7), 604–613. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/a0024609>

- Button, S. B. (2004). Identity management strategies utilized by lesbian and gay employees: A quantitative investigation. *Group & Organization Management*, 29(4), 470–494.
<https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1177/1059601103257417>
- Chaudoir SR Fisher JD (2010). The disclosure processes model: Understanding disclosure decision-making and post-disclosure outcomes among people living with a concealable stigmatized identity. *Psychological Bulletin*, 136, 236-256. doi:10.1037/a0018193.
- Corrington, A., Nittrouer, C. L., Trump-Steele, R. C. E., & Hebl, M. (2019). Letting him B: A study on the intersection of gender and sexual orientation in the workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 113, 129–142. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.10.005>
- Crossley, C. D., Bennett, R. J., Jex, S. M., & Burnfield, J. L. (2007). Development of a global measure of job embeddedness and integration into a traditional model of voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1031–1042. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1031>
- Croteau, J. M. (1996). Research on the work experiences of lesbian, gay, and bisexual people: An integrative review of methodology and findings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 48(2), 195–209. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1006/jvbe.1996.0018>
- Croteau, J. M., Anderson, M. Z., Distefano, T. M., & Kampa-Kokesch, S. (2000). Lesbian, gay, and bisexual vocational psychology: Reviewing foundations and planning construction. In R. M. Perez, K. A. DeBord, & K. J. Bieschke (Eds.), *Handbook of counseling and psychotherapy with lesbian, gay, and bisexual clients*. (pp. 383–408). American Psychological Association. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/10339-016>

- Croteau, J. M., Anderson, M. Z., & VanderWal, B. L. (2008). Models of workplace sexual identity disclosure and management: Reviewing and extending concepts. *Group & Organization Management*, 33, 532-565. doi: 10.1177/1059601108321828
- Davidson, E. L., & Rouse, J. (2009). Exploring domestic partnership benefits policies in corporate America. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 48, 21-44. doi: 10.1300/J082v48n02_02
- Day, N. E., & Schoenrade, P. (1997). Staying in the closet versus coming out: Relationships between communication about sexual orientation and work attitudes. *Personnel Psychology*, 50(1), 147–163. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1997.tb00904.x>
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised. *Work & Stress*, 23, 24-44. doi: 10.1080/02678370902815673
- Embrick, D. G., Walther, C. S., & Wickens, C. M. (2007). Working class masculinity: Keeping gay men and lesbians out of the workplace. *Sex Roles*, 56, 757-766.
- Fritz, M. S., & Mackinnon, D. P. (2007). Required sample size to detect the mediated effect. *Psychological science*, 18(3), 233–239. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2007.01882.x>
- Goffman, E. (1964). *Stigma: Notes on the management of spoiled identity*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall.
- Griffin, P. (1992). From hiding out to coming out: empowering lesbian and gay educators. *Journal of homosexuality*, 22 3-4, 167-96.

- Griffith, K. H., & Hebl, M. R. (2002). The disclosure dilemma for gay men and lesbians: “Coming out” at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(6), 1191–1199. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.6.1191>
- Hayes, A. F. (2018). Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis (Ed. 2). Guilford Press.
- Hebl, M., Cheng, S. K., & Ng, L. C. (2020). Modern discrimination in organizations. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 7, 257–282. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012119-044948>
- Herek, G. M. (1989). Hate crimes against lesbians and gay men. *American Psychologist*, 44, 948-955.
- Herek, G. M. (1994). Assessing heterosexuals’ attitudes toward lesbians and gay men: A review of empirical research with the ATLG scale. In B. Greene & G. M. Herek (Eds.), *Lesbian and gay psychology: Theory, research, and clinical applications*. (pp. 206–228). Sage Publications, Inc. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.4135/9781483326757.n11>
- Herek, G. M. (1998). *Stigma and sexual orientation: Understanding prejudice against lesbians, gay men, and bisexuals* (G. M. Herek (Ed.)). Sage Publications, Inc.
- Herek, G., Chopp, R., & Strohl, D. (2007). Sexual stigma: Putting sexual minority health issues in context. In I. Meyer & M. Northridge (Eds.), *The health of sexual minorities: Public Health perspectives on lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender populations* (pp. 171–208). New York, NY: Springer. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-31334-4_8
- Holman, E. G., Ogolsky, B. G., & Oswald, R. F. (2022). Concealment of a sexual minority identity in the workplace: The role of workplace climate and identity centrality. *Journal*

of Homosexuality, 69(9), 1467–1484. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/00918369.2021.1917219>

- Horvath, M., & Ryan, A. M. (2003). Antecedents and potential moderators of the relationship between attitudes and hiring discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation. *Sex Roles*, 48, 115-130.
- Huebner, D. M., & Davis, M. C. (2005). Gay and bisexual men who disclose their sexual orientations in the workplace have higher workday levels of salivary cortisol and negative affect. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, 30, 260-267.
- Huffman, A. H., Watrous-Rodriguez, K. M., & King, E. B. (2008). Supporting a diverse workforce: What type of support is most meaningful for lesbian and gay employees? *Human Resource Management*, 47, 237-253. doi: 10.1002/hrm.20210
- Human Rights Campaign (2020). Corporate equality index 2019: Rating workplaces on lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer equality. [Retrieved from <https://assets2.hrc.org/files/assets/resources/CEI-2020.pdf>]
- Ilic-Godfrey, S., & Lawhorn, W. (2018). Military and civilian work: Comparing personnel shares by occupation field. *Career Outlook*, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. [Retrieved from <https://www.bls.gov/careeroutlook/2018/data-on-display/military-civilian-compare.htm>]
- James, K., Lovato, C., & Cropanzano, R. (1994). Correlational and known-group comparison validation of a workplace prejudice/discrimination inventory. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24(17), 1573–1592. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1994.tb01563.x>
- Jeffery, D. D., Beymer, M. R., Mattiko, M. J., & Shell, D. (2021). Health behavior differences between male and female US Military personnel by sexual orientation: The importance of

- disaggregating lesbian, gay, and bisexual groups. *Military Medicine*, 186(5–6), 556–564.
<https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1093/milmed/usaa539>
- Johnston, D., & Malina, M. A. (2008). Managing sexual orientation diversity: The impact on firm value. *Group & Organization Management*, 33, 602-625. doi: 10.1177/1059601108321833
- Judge, T. A., & Cable, D. M. (1997). Applicant personality, organizational culture, and organization attraction. *Personnel Psychology*, 50, 359-394.
<http://dx.doi.org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1997.tb00912.x>
- Jung, Patricia Beattie. & Smith, Ralph F. (1993). *Heterosexism : an ethical challenge*. Albany : State University of New York Press
- Kite, M. E., & Deaux, K. (1987). Gender belief systems: Homosexuality and the implicit inversion theory. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 11, 83-96.
- Larson, R., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1983). The Experience Sampling Method. *New Directions for Methodology of Social & Behavioral Science*, 15, 41–56.
- Larson, R., Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014). The Experience Sampling Method. In: *Flow and the Foundations of Positive Psychology*. Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9088-8_2
- Law, C. L., Martinez, L. R., Ruggs, E. N., Hebl, M. R., & Akers, E. (2011). Trans-parency in the workplace: How the experiences of transsexual employees can be improved. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(3), 710–723. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.03.018>
- Lee, T. W., Burch, T. C., & Mitchell, T. R. (2014). The story of why we stay: A review of job embeddedness. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational*

Behavior, 1, 199–216. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091244>

Lent, R. W. (2005). A Social Cognitive View of Career Development and Counseling. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work*. (pp. 101–127). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Lidderdale M. A., Croteau J. M., Anderson M. Z., Tovar-Murray D., Davis J. M. (2007).

Building LGB vocational psychology: A theoretical model of workplace sexual identity management. In Bieschke K., Perez R., DeBord K. (Eds.), *Handbook of counseling and psychotherapy with lesbian, gay, and bisexual clients* (2nd ed., pp. 245–270).

Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Liddle, B. J., Luzzo, D. A., Hauenstein, A. L., & Schuck, K. (2004). Construction and Validation of the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered Climate Inventory. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 12(1), 33–50. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1177/1069072703257722>

Lyons, B. J., Zatzick, C. D., Thompson, T., & Bushe, G. R. (2017). Stigma identity concealment in hybrid organizational cultures. *Journal of Social Issues*, 73(2), 255–272. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/josi.12215>

Madera, J. M., King, E. B., & Hebl, M. R. (2012). Bringing social identity to work: The influence of manifestation and suppression on perceived discrimination, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 18(2), 165–170. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/a0027724>

Meidlinger, P. C., & Hope, D. A. (2014). Differentiating disclosure and concealment in measurement of outness for sexual minorities: The Nebraska Outness Scale. *Psychology*

- of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity, 1(4), 489–497. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/sgd0000080>
- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1102–1121. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3069391>
- Mohr, J., & Fassinger, R. (2000). Measuring dimensions of lesbian and gay male experience. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 33(2), 66–90.
- Neilson, E. C., Singh, R. S., Harper, K. L., & Teng, E. J. (2020). Traditional masculinity ideology, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptom severity, and treatment in service members and veterans: A systematic review. *Psychology of Men & Masculinities*, 21(4), 578–592. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/men0000257>
- Obergefell v. Hodges 135 S. Ct. 2584 (2015).
- Omoto, A. M., & Snyder, M. (2010). Influences of psychological sense of community on voluntary helping and prosocial action. In S. Stürmer & M. Snyder (Eds.), *The psychology of prosocial behavior: Group processes, intergroup relations, and helping*. (pp. 224–243). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Pichler, S., Varma, A., & Bruce, T. (2010). Heterosexism in employment decisions: The role of job misfit. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 2010, 2527-2555.
- Ragins, B. R. (2004). Sexual orientation in the workplace: The unique work and career experiences of gay, lesbian and bisexual workers. In J. J. Martocchio (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management*, Vol 23. (pp. 35–129). Elsevier Science/JAI Press. [https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1016/S0742-7301\(04\)23002-X](https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(04)23002-X)

- Ragins, B. R. (2008). Disclosure disconnects: Antecedents and consequences of disclosing invisible stigmas across life domains. *Academy of Management Review*, 33, 194-215.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cornwell, J. M. (2001). Pink triangles: Antecedents and consequences of perceived workplace discrimination against gay and lesbian employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 1244-1261. doi: 10.1037//0021-9010.86.6.1244
- Ragins, B. R., Cornwell, J. M., & Miller, J. S. (2003). Heterosexism in the workplace: Do race and gender matter? *Group & Organization Management*, 28, 45-74. doi: 10.1177/105960110220018
- Ragins, B. R., Singh, R., & Cornwell, J. M. (2007). Making the invisible visible: Fear and disclosure of sexual orientation at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1103-1118. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1103
- Resnick, C. A., & Galupo, M. P. (2019). Assessing experiences with LGBT microaggressions in the workplace: Development and validation of the Microaggression Experiences at Work Scale. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 66(10), 1380–1403. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/00918369.2018.1542207>
- Rosen, L. N., Knudson, K. H., & Fancher, P. (2003). Cohesion and the Culture of Hypermasculinity in U.S. Army Units. *Armed Forces & Society*, 29(3), 325–351. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095327X0302900302>
- Rostosky, S. S., & Riggle, D. B. (2002). “Out” at work: The relation of actor and partner workplace policy and internalized homophobia to disclosure status. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 49, 411-419. doi: 10.1037//0022-0167.49.4.411
- Ruggs, E. N., Martinez, L. R., Hebl, M. R., & Law, C. L. (2015). Workplace 'trans'-actions: How organizations, coworkers, and individual openness influence perceived gender

- identity discrimination. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, 2(4), 404–412. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/sgd0000112>
- Rummell, C. M., & Tokar, D. M. (2016). Testing an empirical model of workplace sexual identity management. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, 3(1), 49–62. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/sgd0000144>
- Sabat, I. E., Lindsey, A. P., & King, E. B. (2014). Antecedents, outcomes, prevention, and coping strategies for lesbian, gay, and bisexual workplace stress. In P. L. Perrewe, J. Halbesleben, & C. C. Rosen (Eds.), *The role of demographics in occupational stress and well-being (Research in occupational stress and well-being)* (Vol. 12, pp. 173–198). United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Sabat, I., Trump, R., & King, E. (2014). Individual, interpersonal, and contextual factors relating to disclosure decisions of lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, 1(4), 431–440. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/sgd0000061>
- Schaefer, H. S., Cotting, D. I., Proctor, E. S., Ryan, D. M., & Lerner, R. M. (2021). The military hypermasculine mystique: Sex, status, and emotional control at the United States Military Academy. *Psychology of Men & Masculinities*, 22(4), 611–626. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/men0000365.supp> (Supplemental)
- Skidmore, P. (2004). A legal perspective on sexuality and organization: A lesbian and gay case study. *Gender, Work, and Organization*, 11, 229–253.
- Smith, N. G., & Ingram, K. M. (2004). Workplace heterosexism and adjustment among lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals: The role of unsupportive social interactions. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 51, 57–67. doi: 10.1037/0022-0167.51.1.57

- Tabachnick, B.G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). Using multivariate statistics (Ed. 6). Pearson.
- TerVeer v. Billington 34 F. Supp. 3d 100 (D.D.C., 2014).
- Trau, R. N., & Hartel, C. E. (2007). Contextual factors affecting quality of work life and career attitudes of gay men. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 19, 207-219. doi: 10.1007/s10672-007-9046-y
- Waldo, C. R. (1999). Working in a majority context: A structural model of heterosexism as minority stress in the workplace. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 46, 218-232.
- Weatherill, R. P., Vogt, D. S., Taft, C. T., King, L. A., King, D. W., & Shipherd, J. C. (2011). Training experiences as mediators of the association between gender-role egalitarianism and women's adjustment to Marine recruit training. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 64(5–6), 348–359. <https://doi-org.ccl.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/s11199-010-9921-0>
- Williams, C. L., Giuffre, P. A., & Dellinger, K. (2009). The gay-friendly closet. *Sexuality Research & Social Policy*, 6, 29-45.
- Williams Institute (2009). Best practices for asking questions about sexual orientation on surveys. Los Angeles, CA: UCLA. [Retrieved from williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/wp-content/uploads/SMART-FINAL-Nov-2009.pdf]
- Williams Institute (2022). The role of sexual orientation and gender in workplace experiences of cisgender LGB employees. Los Angeles, CA: Mallory, C., Sears, B., & Flores, A. R. [Retrieved from <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/so-gender-discrimination-work/>]
- Woods, J. D. (1993). *The corporate closet: The professional lives of gay men in America*. New York: Free Press.

Appendix A: Recruitment & Procedural Materials

Qualtrics Sample Email Invitation

WHAT DOES A TYPICAL EMAIL INVITATION TO A SURVEY LOOK LIKE?

A New Survey is Available

Hi Katy,

Someone wants to know what you think...



145

Award
Value

25 min

Time to
Complete

This survey won't be available for long. Act now if you're interested.

[Take Your Survey](#)

Can't open the link? You can copy the link below into your browser

After successfully completing this survey, it may take up to 5 business days to receive in your account

If you cannot participate in this survey we would appreciate it if you could decline participation in this survey by clicking on the following link*: [Decline survey](#)

PATH Recruitment Email

I am the principal investigator of a new research project titled “Personal Adjustment, Transitions, and Health” (PATH), and we are writing to ask for your assistance. Specifically, we ask for your help in publicizing this project by posting/distributing the attached flyer.

This project is supported by funding from the Department of Defense, and is being conducted by Claremont Graduate University (CGU), located in southern California. The project involves conducting phone interviews with active duty military personnel to learn about their relationships, social interactions, and interpersonal supports and challenges both inside and outside of the military. A unique and important aspect of the project is that we are deliberately attempting to interview a diverse range of service members, including men and women of all ethnic backgrounds, sexual orientations, and branches of service.

More information is available on the project website, www.path-research.com. The project has been approved by the Institutional Review Boards (IRB) at CGU. The IRB is charged with protecting the rights, privacy, and welfare of all research participants. A copy of the approved IRB protocol is also available upon request.

Karen Tannenbaum, the PATH Project Coordinator, can answer any questions you have about this project. You can contact Karen directly at Karen.tannenbaum@cgu.edu or by calling (949) 922-9734.

Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Allen M. Omoto, Ph.D.
Claremont Graduate University

 Claremont Graduate University

Allen.omoto@cgu.edu

PATH Social Media Recruitment

For social media group admins:

Hello/good afternoon/good morning/hi!

My name is _____ and I'm a PhD student at Claremont Graduate University working with the Naval Health Research Center on project exploring the lives and experiences of active duty service members *(for lgbt specific groups—add “LGB” before “active duty service members”).* We are in the process of recruiting participants for a confidential 45-minute anonymous questionnaire (during off-duty time), and we are providing a \$40 Amazon gift card as compensation. I see that you are an administrator for _____ Facebook [or Reddit, etc.] group. With your permission, may I please post to your group with some details about the questionnaire and a website link for anyone wants to learn more about the project? I am also happy to answer any questions that you might have before making your decision. Please feel free to check out our project website: www.path-research.com. Thank you very much for your consideration!

PATH Recruitment Letter



26 March 2018

Dear Colleague:

We are the principal investigators of a mixed method research project funded by the Department of Defense that seeks to learn about the relationships, social interactions, and interpersonal supports and challenges of active duty military. This project, titled "Personal Adjustment, Transitions, and Health" (PATH), is being conducted at the Naval Health Research Center and the Claremont Graduate University, and has been approved by the Institutional Review Boards (IRBs) at both institutions.

We write to you today to ask for your assistance in publicizing this project to your networks, including by posting/distributing the attached flyer or passing on the project website: www.path-research.com. We are currently recruiting active duty military personnel to complete a 45-minute phone interview, for which they will receive a \$25 Amazon gift card as a "thank you." We plan to interview a diverse range of service members, including men and women of all ethnic backgrounds, sexual orientations, and branches of service. In addition, we expect to launch a large-scale anonymous online questionnaire study within the next 2 months, for which we also plan to recruit diverse service members.

We greatly appreciate any assistance you can provide in getting the word out about this research. More information, including recruitment criteria and resource materials, is available on the project website. In addition, please feel free to contact either of us with any questions or suggestions. Karen Tannenbaum, the PATH Project Coordinator, can also answer any questions you have about this project. Karen can be reached at karen.tannenbaum.ctr@mail.mil, or by calling (619) 553-8414.

Many thanks, in advance, for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Handwritten signature of Allen M. Omoto in blue ink.

Allen M. Omoto, Ph.D.
Claremont Graduate University
Allen.omoto@cgu.edu

Handwritten signature of Cynthia J. Thomsen in blue ink.

Cynthia J. Thomsen, Ph.D.
Naval Health Research Center
Cynthia.j.thomsen.civ@mail.mil



**ARE YOU
ACTIVE DUTY?**

PARTICIPATE IN PATH

Personal Adjustment, Transitions, and Health

Your participation will help us impact policy and practice to improve the experiences and quality of life of all service members.

Help us learn about your military experiences
by completing an **anonymous 30-45 minute online survey**
during your off-duty time and receive a **\$25 GIFT CARD.**

Volunteers of all sexes, ethnicities, and ranks are needed.
If you are an active duty service member, you may be eligible.

For more information, visit
PATH-Research.com
Email: info@PATH-Research.com



PATH-Research is funded by the U.S. Department of Defense and conducted by the Naval Health Research Center and Claremont Graduate University.

PATH Branding Logo



Appendix B: Study Measures

Note: All items are measured using a 1-5 Likert scale unless otherwise noted. All items are included in both studies unless noted otherwise.

Outness

1. How many of your supervisor(s)/manager(s) do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?
2. How many of your coworkers do you think are aware of your sexual orientation?

Concealment

1. How often do you currently try to hide your sexual orientation from your supervisor(s)/manager(s)?
2. How often do you currently try to hide your sexual orientation from your coworkers?

Disclosure

1. Of your supervisor(s)/manager(s) who are aware of your sexual orientation, how many of them know because you told them?
2. Of your coworkers who are aware of your sexual orientation, how many of them know because you told them?

Perceived Workplace Support

At my current workplace...

1. LGBTQ+ employees are treated with respect.
2. LGBTQ+ employees must be secretive. (Reverse scored)
3. LGBTQ+ people consider it a comfortable place to work.
4. The atmosphere for LGBTQ+ employees is oppressive. (Reverse scored)
5. LGBTQ+ employees feel accepted by coworkers.
6. Employees are expected to not act "too gay". (Reverse scored)
7. LGBTQ+ employees fear job loss because of their sexual orientation. (Reverse scored)
8. LGBTQ+ employees are comfortable talking about their personal lives with coworkers.
9. LGBTQ+ employees feel free to display pictures of a same-sex partner.

Embeddedness

How much do you agree with the following statements?

1. I have a sense of belonging at my current workplace.
2. I feel like an outsider at my current workplace. (Reversed)
3. I am proud to be employed at my current workplace.
4. My job/work is important to my identity.
5. My current job/work is very important to me.

Note: Only item 2 was used in Study 2.

Person-Organization Fit (STUDY 1 ONLY)

1. To what degree do your values, goals, and personality ‘match’ or fit this organization and the current employees in this organization?
2. To what degree do your values and personality prevent you from ‘fitting in’ this organization because they are different from most of the other employees’ values and personality in this organization?
3. To what extent do you think the values and ‘personality’ of this organization reflect your own values and personality?

LGBTQ+ Policies & Practices (STUDY 1 ONLY)

To the best of your knowledge, does your current employer...

1. Have a written nondiscrimination policy that includes sexual orientation?
2. Include sexual orientation in its definition of diversity?
3. Include awareness of LGBTQ+ issues in diversity training?
4. Offer same-sex domestic partner benefits?
5. Offer LGBTQ+ resources or support groups to employees?
6. Officially welcome same-sex partners at company social events?

Note: Items responses are “Yes”, “No”, and “Don’t Know/Unsure”. Responses of “Don’t Know/Unsure” were coded as equivalent to “No” for analytic purposes.