Workplace Climate and Job Satisfaction: A Test of Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)'s Workplace Self-Management Model with Sexual Minority Employees

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

WORKPLACE CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION: A TEST OF SOCIAL COGNITIVE CAREER THEORY (SCCT)’S WORKPLACE SELF-MANAGEMENT MODEL WITH SEXUAL MINORITY EMPLOYEES

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

BY
ALEXANDER K. TATUM

CHICAGO, IL
AUGUST 2018
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Sexual identity refers to how people conceptualize their romantic or sexual attractions to other persons. Recent polling indicates approximately four percent of Americans (or more than 10 million Americans) hold a minority sexual identity (Gallup, 2017), defined as attraction to same-gender individuals and is often represented with the labels lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB). Identifying as a sexual minority has been characterized as a developmental process that begins with a conscious awareness of same-sex attraction and progresses through a series of stages that sometimes, but not always, culminates in an integration of one’s sexual identity with the rest of the self (Cass, 1979).

Identifying as a sexual minority inherently comes with the conscious act of sexual identity management, which refers to the process of choosing to disclose or withhold a minority sexual identity (e.g., same-sex attraction) from other individuals. The process of “coming out,” or disclosing one’s sexual identity, is associated with minority stress processes (Meyer, 1995; 2003) that include acceptance concerns, motivation to conceal one’s sexual identity in certain environments, and internalized homonegativity directed at one’s sexual minority identity. In terms of psychosocial factors, disclosing a minority sexual identity has been negatively associated with internalized homonegativity (Rosser, Bockting, Ross, Miner, & Coleman, 2008), depressive symptoms (Lewis, Derlega, Berdt, Morris, & Rose, 2001), and avoidant attachment
patterns (Mohr & Fassinger, 2003). Higher levels of disclosure have also been linked with higher psychological adjustment (Miranda & Storms, 1989) and greater well-being among sexual minority men (King & Smith, 2004) and women (Morris, Waldo, & Rothblum, 2001). It is worth noting, however, that disclosure does not always result in positive outcomes, and sexual minority individuals in non-affirming environments may intentionally not disclose their sexual identity as an adaptive response. In particular, sexual identity management in the workplace has been studied extensively (e.g., Lidderdale, Croteau, Anderson, Tovar-Murray, & Davis, 2007) due to the lack of workplace protections offered at the state and federal level, as well as the social consequences of disclosing one’s sexual identity at work (e.g., lack of advancement opportunities, inter-personal harassment, workplace incivility).

**Workplace Sexual Identity Management**

There has been a long history of institutionalized occupational discriminations based on sexual orientation (Biaggio et al., 2003; Griffin, 1992; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001; Woods, 1993). As a result, sexual minority employees may disengage from work-related tasks in heterosexist environments (Hollis & McCalla, 2013), and perceived discrimination is negatively related to job satisfaction and positively associated with fewer advancement opportunities (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Pope et al. (2004) note that Congress’ failure to pass the Employment Nondiscrimination Act (ENDA) has made it difficult for sexual minority employees to disclose their identity in the workplace, which in turn leads to outcomes that affect both individual and corporate productivity. Unlike social environments, sexual minorities cannot simply change their work environment by associating with individuals who are more affirmative toward a sexual minority identity. Thus, individuals must weigh the pros and cons of disclosing their sexual
identity in the workplace, a term that has been referred to as workplace sexual identity management.

The process of workplace sexual identity management can be conceptualized from social cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent & Brown, 2013; Lidderdale, et al., 2007). SCCT (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) was developed from Bandura (1986)’s social cognitive theory, which holds that an individual’s behavior is a co-determinant in the relationship between persons and their environments. SCCT incorporates social cognitive theory by including an individual’s self-efficacy and outcome expectations for performing a particular behavior as determinants of performing such behaviors. SCCT began as a model to explain an individual’s career interest, choice, and performance before expanding to incorporate work satisfaction (Lent & Brown, 2006) and workplace self-management strategies (Lent & Brown, 2013).

Lidderdale et al. (2007) were the first researchers to posit a workplace sexual identity management model by applying SCCT’s career choice model (Lent et al., 1994) to the process of managing a minority sexual identity at work. In doing so, they argued an individual’s demographics, contextual affordances, and group identities inform self-efficacy beliefs for managing sexual identity at work and outcome expectations of engaging in such management strategies. These self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations consequently inform an individual’s process for choosing and implementing sexual identity management strategies, intentions, and behaviors.

Several years later, Lent and Brown (2013) developed a comprehensive SCCT self-management model that may be applied to a wide range of workplace processes individuals encounter throughout the lifespan. For example, in addition to managing a minority sexual
orientation, the SCCT self-management model may also be used to study adaptive behaviors such as developing work readiness skills, coping with job loss, and managing work-family conflict. This self-management model is remarkably similar to the earlier model developed by Lidderdale et al. (2007) in that person inputs and background contextual affordances are hypothesized to predict an individual’s self-efficacy and outcome expectations for performing a particular behavior, and these constructs consequently inform an individual’s goals, actions, and outcomes.

**Workplace Identity Disclosure**

Because sexual minorities represent an “invisible” minority (i.e., there are no outwardly distinguishing traits that reveal a minority sexual orientation), sexual minority employees are tasked with the decision of revealing or hiding their sexual orientation at work. The decision to reveal one’s sexual orientation in the workplace is not dichotomous. Rather, an individual may engage in a range of four behaviors that signify a minority sexual orientation (Griffin, 1992). Griffin (1992) describes *passing* as one end of the continuum and is represented by a sexual minority employee fabricating data to appear heterosexual (e.g., making up an opposite-sex partner). This strategy of *passing* may be viewed as an adaptive response against anticipated discrimination or workplace harassment by co-workers. *Covering* is the next strategy on Griffin (1992)’s disclosure spectrum and involves omitting information that may lead others to assume a minority sexual orientation. Similar to *passing*, fear of negative consequences is the driving factor behind an employee’s choice to cover their sexual orientation. A key difference between the two strategies, however, is that *covering* does not involve fabricating data about a heterosexual partner to blend into a workplace’s heterosexist culture. The third behavioral option
undertaken by a sexual minority employee involves being *implicitly out*. In this stage, the employees are neither censoring their sexual minority status, nor are they actively disclosing information that may lead to suspicion of a sexual minority identity. An employee who engages in *implicitly out* behaviors may provide a sense of safety because one is not outwardly identifying as a sexual minority; at the same time, being *implicitly out* also preserves a sense of integrity because one is not fabricating or censoring data that may indicate a false heterosexual identity. Examples of *implicitly out* strategies involve wearing LGBT pride symbols or speaking out against LGBT discrimination without explicitly identifying oneself as LGBT (Anderson, Croteau, Chung & DiStefano, 2001). Finally, one may choose to be *explicitly out*, which involves using same-gender pronouns to refer to a partner, telling other co-workers about their sexual minority identity, or correcting others who wrongly assume an employee is heterosexual.

With regard to studying sexual identity management, Anderson et al. (2001) developed a workplace sexual identity management measure divided into four subscales corresponding to Griffin (1992)’s disclosure strategies. However, only the Explicitly Out scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha = .91).

In examining workplace outness, Tatum, Formica, and Brown (2017) tested SCCT’s self-management model for sexual identity management in the workplace. The authors observed that employees who displayed greater levels of explicitly “out” behaviors in daily life reported greater self-efficacy for disclosing their sexual orientation in the workplace as well as more positive outcome expectations for revealing their sexual orientation at work. It is important to note, however, that the authors simultaneously examined employees’ perceived workplace climate and observed a positive correlation between a gay-friendly workplace climate and (a) an
individual’s self-efficacy for disclosing their sexual identity, and (b) an individual’s positive outcome expectations for disclosing their sexual identity. They also observed a correlation \((r = .38)\) between perceived gay-friendly workplace climate and actual workplace disclosure. These results signify the importance of examining workplace climate in tandem with sexual identity management. The present study also builds off of the authors’ recommendations for utilizing SCCT’s self-management model to continue to examine sexual identity management, and would provide another look at workplace climate in the context of sexual identity management. In their study, Tatum et al. (2017) observed a suppression effect of workplace climate which may have been a result of a stronger effect the authors observed between individual sexual orientation concealment and sexual orientation disclosure. The present study would therefore seek to clarify the nature of a sexual minority’s perceived workplace climate.

**Workplace Climate**

In the context of sexual identity management, workplace climate refers to how friendly or hostile sexual minority employees perceive their workplace climate. Examples include being able to freely discuss one’s sexual minority status or openly displaying pictures of a same-sex partner in one’s work environment. SCCT’s self-management model posits that an employee’s actions, such as disclosing one’s sexual orientation in the workplace, leads to a specific outcome. Within the sexual minority career literature, there is evidence that disclosing one’s sexual orientation at work leads to greater job satisfaction (Prati & Pietrantoni, 2014). However, an important moderating variable in this relationship is the degree of heterosexism in the workplace. Because sexual minority employees have concealable identities, they may not know exactly how others will react when they reveal their identity and hence will attend to rejecting cues from co-
workers during social interactions to gauge safety (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010). Similarly, sexual minority employees who perceive their work environment to be more hostile toward sexual minorities are less likely to display higher levels of job satisfaction (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001; Velez & Moradi, 2012). Tatum et al. (2017) observed that sexual minorities who perceive their work environment to be less accepting of their identity had lower self-efficacy for disclosing their identity as well as less positive outcome expectations should they choose to disclose their identity. Building off of their study, it is worth investigating the relationship of affirmative work environments on not only disclosure self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and actions, but also on resulting job satisfaction.

The Importance of Job Satisfaction

Because the outcome variable of interest is job satisfaction, it is important to consider the implications of examining this variable. Job satisfaction may be defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences.” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300) In other words, job satisfaction represents the degree to which an individual enjoys his or her job. The term work satisfaction is sometimes used synonymously. In this manuscript, the terms “job satisfaction” and “work satisfaction” are used interchangeably. Past research has identified a plethora of organizational benefits resulting from an employee’s job satisfaction. For example, employees who are more satisfied with their jobs tend to display higher levels of organizational commitment (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Koys, 2001; Tziner et al., 2008), while employees who are more dissatisfied with their jobs may consider working for competing organizations, leading to higher levels of organizational turnover (Tziner, 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In their study examining long-term productivity and work performance,
Westover, Westover, and Westover (2010) identified 17 work domains that are associated with work satisfaction (e.g., employee tardiness, withdrawal cognitions, job involvement). Given the large-scale impact job satisfaction may have on the workplace, it is worth investigating how a sexual minority person’s experience in the workplace may impact their job satisfaction.

In addition to providing a framework for examining self-management strategies, SCCT has also been used to study job satisfaction (Lent & Brown, 2006). Unlike the self-management model, however, the job satisfaction model explicitly posits that subjective well-being and personality traits directly influence job satisfaction. The literature supports inter-correlations between these constructs; Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, and Mansfield (2012) provide a comprehensive discussion of the significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, a cognitive component of subjective well-being. Job satisfaction has also been found to have a significant positive relationship with positive affect (r = .49) and negative relationship with negative affect (r = -.33), both of which are considered affective components of subjective well-being (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000).

Due to the positive influences job satisfaction has on subjective well-being, unique factors associated with sexual minority job satisfaction must be considered. Griffith and Hebl (2002) observed a positive correlation between sexual minority job satisfaction and sexual minority identity acceptance (r = .21) as well as a negative correlation between job satisfaction and job anxiety (r = -.42). Lyons, Brenner, and Fassinger (2005) observed large positive correlations between job satisfaction and perceived person-organization fit among two employed LGB samples (r = .67 - .74). Confirming earlier research that has documented correlations between job satisfaction and subjective well-being, Allan, Tebbe, Duffy, and Autin (2015)
observed a positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction ($r = .58$) among a sexual minority sample.

Tatum et al. (2017) reported significant positive relationships between a sexual minority employee’s disclosure self-efficacy and outcome expectations associated with disclosure actions. The proposed study advances the literature one step further by examining an outcome of disclosing one’s sexual minority status in the workplace (i.e., job satisfaction). Given the significant relationships between job satisfaction and subjective well-being combined with unique processes for sexual minority individuals (Meyer, 1995; 2003), this appears to be the next logical step.

Among the shared constructs between SCCT’s work satisfaction and self-management models, one noticeable difference is the direct influence of anticipated outcomes on the outcome variable in the work satisfaction model. By contrast, the self-management model posits an indirect influence of outcome expectations on the work outcome in question through the mediating actions variable. It is important to note that the work satisfaction model only has one possible outcome variable: work satisfaction. The self-management model, on the other hand, allows for work satisfaction as an outcome variable but also allows for a range of other possible outcome variables (e.g., building professional relationships, pursuing advancement opportunities, pursuing intrinsically meaningful work). Further, previous work examining the work satisfaction model by Duffy and Lent (2009) with a sample of full-time teachers revealed the possibility of a non-significant direct relationship between goal-oriented actions with work satisfaction in the presence of significant direct relationships between both self-efficacy expectations and outcome expectations with work satisfaction. While the present study is utilizing SCCT’s self-
management model to examining workplace sexual identity management, SCCT’s work satisfaction model suggests it is worth examining the direct effect of outcome expectations on work satisfaction when using work satisfaction as the outcome variable for the self-management model.

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The purpose of the present study is to understand how a sexual minority’s workplace climate affects the relationship between an individual’s decision to disclose their sexual minority identity and their resulting job satisfaction. Using SCCT’s self-management model, the following hypotheses have been developed (see Figure 1 for a visual representation of all hypotheses):

1. The self-management model depicted in Figure 1 will provide an excellent fit to the data as evidenced by meeting thresholds defined by previous literature (e.g., Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

2. Workplace environments with more gay-affirmative policies will predict an employee’s self-efficacy for disclosing their sexual minority status at work (Path 1) and will predict more positive outcome expectations of disclosing a sexual minority status at work (Path 2).

3. Congruent with SCCT’s self-management model, an employee’s self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity in the workplace will predict more positive outcome expectations for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work (Path 3).

4. Higher self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work and more positive outcome expectations for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work
will both predict the likelihood that employees disclose their sexual minority identity in the workplace (Paths 4 and 5, respectively).

5. Higher self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work and more positive outcome expectations for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work will both predict greater job satisfaction (Paths 6 and 7, respectively).

6. An employee’s disclosure status will have a direct relationship with work satisfaction (Path 8).

7. More gay-affirmative workplace climates will moderate the relationship between an employee’s disclosure status and job satisfaction (Path 9) such that a sexual minority employee who has disclosed their identity within a more gay-affirmative workplace environment will report greater job satisfaction than a sexual minority employee who has not disclosed their sexual identity within a more gay-affirmative work environment (see Figure 2). There will be no relationship between sexual minority employees who have disclosed their identity within a less affirmative environment and sexual minority employees who have not disclosed their identity within a less affirmative environment.

One goal of this study is to continue to employ SCCT’s self-management model as a framework for studying workplace sexual identity management by studying the relationship between a self-management action and outcome. Doing so provides practical implications for mental health professionals who work with sexual minority individuals. Specifically, if a sexual minority individual wishes to attain greater job satisfaction, the results of this study may provide factors that will promote such a goal from a social cognitive framework.
The moderation effect of workplace climate between disclosure actions and job satisfaction acknowledges that disclosure is not always a beneficial response within a work environment. Specifically, disclosing a sexual minority status in a hostile work environment toward sexual minority employees may actually lower overall job satisfaction. This study will directly address the adaptive nature of workplace sexual identity disclosure by allowing workplace climate to serve as a moderating variable.

Figure 1. Proposed social cognitive self-management model of identity disclosure and work satisfaction
Figure 2. Proposed moderation effect of workplace climate and sexual identity disclosure on work satisfaction.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

The following chapter provides a comprehensive discussion on work satisfaction, including its definition, conceptualization, measurement, and empirical findings. This chapter also examines work satisfaction from social cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000; Lent & Brown, 2006, 2013) and examines sexual minority work satisfaction from minority stress theory (Meyer, 2003), which has previously been used to conceptualize sexual minority mental health and related constructs. This chapter reviews previous research on work satisfaction among sexual minority employees and highlights related constructs to work satisfaction among sexual minority employees. This chapter also provides an in-depth review of the relationships between work satisfaction and other constructs examined in this study in order to solidify the importance of work satisfaction in the present study. Finally, the chapter reviews other constructs examined in this study in isolation in order to provide a comprehensive overview of these constructs.

Conceptualization and Measurement of Work Satisfaction

Work satisfaction has previously been defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). In other words, work satisfaction represents enjoyment from one’s job. Work satisfaction has been previously associated with personality traits such as neuroticism, extraversion, and
conscientiousness (Heller, Watson, & Ilies, 2004; Judge et al., 2002) as well as affective traits (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Thoreson et al., 2003).

Work satisfaction is frequently assessed with the Index of Job Satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). In developing this measure, the authors collected data from three large, diverse samples including physicians, college graduates, and Israeli students. Across all of the samples, work satisfaction was positively related to self-esteem and locus of control, and negatively related to neuroticism. The authors also observed that job satisfaction was a significant predictor of life satisfaction for both the physician and college graduate samples, providing evidence of construct validity.

Construct validity of work satisfaction has also held across diverse samples. For example, in considering work satisfaction among Asian employees, Hsu, Huang, and Huang (2015) reported positive relationships between work satisfaction and social support ($r = .58$), life satisfaction ($r = .71$), and a combined measure of physical and mental health ($r = .67$) in a sample of Chinese high school teachers. Similarly, among a sample of 1,026 married employees in Singapore, Sandberg, Yorgason, Miller, and Hill (2012) observed negative correlations for both men and women between work satisfaction and marital distress ($r = -.40 \text{ to } -.55$), depression ($r = -.29 \text{ to } -.36$), and self-reported physical health ($r = -.17 \text{ to } -.21$).

Among a sample of 893 Swedish nurses, regression analyses revealed supervisor support and professional development opportunities both served as predictors of work satisfaction (Gardulf et al., 2008). Similarly, Pillay (2009) observed a positive relationship between work dissatisfaction and lack of advancement opportunities among a sample of 569 South African nurses. Westover et al. (2010) also observed a positive correlation between work satisfaction and
career development opportunities \( (r = .54) \) among a sample of 215 American social workers. Further, among a sample of 1,538 American registered nurses (RNs), Kovner, Brewer, Wu, Cheng, and Suzuki (2006) observed promotional opportunities as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Taken together, there is consistent evidence of career development opportunities and work satisfaction among employees across nations and cultures, at least with regard to helping professions.

In considering other professions, Organ and Greene (1974) reported negative correlations between work satisfaction with an external locus of control \( (r = -.36) \) and role ambiguity \( (r = -.30) \) among a sample of 94 American engineers. Using a sample of 158 Pakistani engineers, Sarwar, Mirza, Ehsan, Khan, and Hanif (2013) reported positive relationships between work satisfaction and promotional opportunities \( (r = .70) \), supervisory support \( (r = .66) \), and fringe benefits \( (r = .63) \). Arvey and Dewhirst (1976) similarly observed positive relationships between work satisfaction and four different goal-setting attributes among a sample of 271 American scientists: goal clarity and planning \( (r = .29) \), subordinate freedom \( (r = .35) \), feedback and evaluation \( (r = .31) \), and goal-setting participation \( (r = .37) \).

**Integrating SCCT to Examine Work Satisfaction**

The original SCCT model of interest, choice, and performance (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) was drawn from Bandura (1986)’s social cognitive theory. Specifically, Lent et al. (1994) hypothesized that an individual’s self-efficacy for performing a career-relevant task (e.g., exploring various occupational fields, declaring a major, performing a specific work-related task) and anticipated outcome expectations of performing such tasks would directly predict an individual’s career interests, goals, and actions taken to undertake these goals. Consequently, the
authors hypothesized an individual’s performance would be the direct result of their actions aimed at achieving their goals.

Given the significance of work satisfaction with numerous constructs, Lent and Brown (2006) adapted SCCT to examine work satisfaction. In this model, they specify that personality traits, affective traits, environmental supports, resources, and obstacles directly influence work satisfaction. Additionally, an individual’s self-efficacy expectations for their job and an individual’s work conditions serve as a mediating variable between environmental supports and work satisfaction. Finally, the model hypothesizes that participation in goal-directed activity will also predict work satisfaction. This model has since been validated in additional studies (e.g., Duffy & Lent, 2009; Lent et al., 2011). For example, Duffy and Lent (2009) reported the SCCT work satisfaction model demonstrated acceptable fit indices among a sample of full time teachers.

In the context of the present study, work satisfaction is applied toward SCCT’s most recent model of self-management. SCCT’s self-management model (Lent & Brown, 2013) differs from previous SCCT models due to its focus on process instead of content. For instance, Tatum et al. (2017) employed the self-management model to examine factors that influenced sexual minority employees to disclose their sexual orientation at work. The present study is unique in that it combines both process and content aspects of SCCT to examine social factors that influence sexual minority employees to disclose their sexual orientation while simultaneously examining the impact on work satisfaction. This process of sexual minorities navigating social factors in the workplace and choosing to disclose their minority orientation is better known as sexual identity management, a concept that has received much attention in the
career literature for sexual minority employees (e.g., Croteau, Anderson, DiStefano, & Kampa-Kokesch, 2000; Croteau, Anderson, & VanderWal, 2008; Lonborg & Phillips, 1996).

**Workplace Climate and Sexual Identity Management**

Sexual minorities face unique contextual challenges that may interfere with work satisfaction. Such challenges are thought to begin around high school, a time when both career exploration and sexual orientation identity commonly overlap (Chen, Stracuzzi, & Ruckdeschel, 2004; Fassinger, 1996; Morrow, 1998). Hetrick and Martin (1987) argued that sexual orientation identity is its own developmental task unique to sexual minorities, and navigating systematic institutionalized heterosexism may lead to internal and external barriers to vocational choice and implementation (Fassinger, 1996). Specific internal barriers include low self-efficacy skills, which relate to career indecision and lower levels of sexual identity disclosure, while external barriers may relate to a lack of sexual minority role models and occupational discrimination. Sexual identity management is also one of the tasks described by SCCT’s self-management model that employees may need to resolve as they move into the establishment phase of their career, thus providing a rationale for applying SCCT’s self-management model to the present study as opposed to SCCT’s work satisfaction model.

There has been a long history of institutionalized occupational discrimination based on sexual orientation (Biaggio et al., 2003; Griffin, 1992; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001; Woods, 1993). As a result, sexual minority employees may be likely to disengage from work-related tasks in heterosexist environments (Hollis & McCalla, 2013), and perceived discrimination relates negatively to job satisfaction (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Pope et al. (2004) note that Congress’ failure to pass the Employment Nondiscrimination Act (ENDA) has made it difficult for sexual
minority employees to disclose their identity in the workplace, which in turn leads to outcomes that affect both individual and corporate productivity. For example, Heintz (2012) documented that receiving negative messages from coworkers regarding lesbian self-disclosure may lead to anxiety and anger in the workplace.

**Sexual Identity Disclosure**

Because sexual identity disclosure serves as a crucial component of sexual identity management, it is worth reviewing the psychological literature on sexual identity disclosure. In this section, the terms “sexual identity disclosure” and “outness” are used synonymously, as outness has previously been defined as the degree to which an individual has disclosed one’s same-sex sexual orientation to others in their environments, such as school, work, and family (Beeler & DiProva, 1999; Cramer & Roach, 1988; Mohr & Fassinger, 2000). “Coming out” is the process of same-sex orientation disclosure with the intention of gaining an increased level of outness. Research studies have examined outness in the context of family systems (Armesto & Weisman, 2001; Elizur & Ziv, 2001; Savin-Williams, 1998; Waldner & Magruder, 1999), educational settings (Chesir-Teran & Hughes, 2009; D’Augelli, Pilkington, & Hershberger, 2002; Elze, 2003), the workplace (Brenner, Lyons, & Fassinger, 2010; Chung, Williams, & Dispenza, 2009; Smith & Ingram, 2004; Waldo, 1999), and sports environments (Anderson, 2011; Gough, 2007). Outness should be viewed on a continuum rather than a dichotomous, fully disclosed or “closeted” perspective. For example, it is possible to be out in the workplace but not out on a sports team. Hence, sexual minority individuals may engage in sexual identity management strategies in order to determine to whom and when they disclose their same-sex sexual orientation. Sexual identity disclosure is also an important component of developing
acceptance of a minority sexual identity (Gold & Stewart, 2011; Grierson & Smith, 2005; Lee, 1977; Weinberg, 1978), which Cass (1979) argues will lead to a synthesized identity characterized by increasingly positive perceptions of oneself. Identity development may be hindered by lack of affirmation from individuals to whom one has disclosed their sexual orientation and a lack of a gay social network (Galatzer-Levy & Cohler, 2002; Grierson & Smith, 2005), and a significant issue sexual minority clients may face in counseling often includes the coming out process, which involves negotiating levels of sexual identity disclosure.

Sexual identity disclosure has been linked with particular sociodemographic variables, psychological factors, social constructs, and sexual risk behaviors. Younger gay and bisexual men report coming out at an earlier age than their older cohorts (Bogaert & Hafer, 2009; Grov et al., 2006), which may be due to younger generations being exposed to decreased stigmatization and greater social acceptance of non-heterosexual orientations compared to older generations. White and Stephenson (2013) reported higher levels of outness among men who have sex with men (MSM) who reported an educational background of at least some college or a two-year degree compared to MSM with no college experience. Ross et al. (2013) also found that outness among European MSM, as measured by disclosure to family, friends, and colleagues, was associated with higher years of education. Also, participants with lower levels of outness were more likely to report being unemployed (White & Stephenson, 2013) and residing in rural communities (Lee & Quam, 2013). Additionally, it is important to recognize the concept of outness as it applies to people of color. The “down low” identity is frequently associated with decreased outness among Black MSM (McCune, 2008). Black MSM are less likely to identify as gay to non-gay individuals than white MSM (McCune, 2008; White & Stephenson, 2013),
although black MSM with higher levels of education tended to disclose same-sex sexual activity more than black MSM with lower levels of education (Latkin et al., 2012).

In terms of psychosocial factors, disclosure has been negatively related to internalized homonegativity as measured by the Reactions to Homosexuality scale, revised version (Rosser, Bockting, Ross, Miner, & Coleman, 2008), linked with lower levels of avoidant attachment patterns (Mohr & Fassinger, 2003) and related to fewer depressive symptoms (Lewis, Derlega, Berdt, Morris, & Rose 2001; Smith & Ingram, 2004). Higher levels of outness have also been linked with higher psychological adjustment (Miranda & Storms, 1989) and greater well-being (King & Smith, 2004) among gay men. However, waiting until mid-adulthood to come out has been associated with adverse psychosocial outcomes, including interfamily disruption, anxiety, and self-destructive behaviors (Johnston & Jenkins, 2004). There have been mixed results on the association between outness and greater relationship satisfaction (Knoble & Linville, 2012), with some research findings suggesting a positive correlation (Clausell & Roisman, 2009; Elizur & Mintzer, 2003), and other study results suggesting no relationship (Todosijevic, Rothblum, & Solomon, 2005). Sexual identity disclosure in one’s employment setting has been correlated with fewer heterosexist experiences in the workplace (Smith & Ingram, 2004), and youths that reported greater outness to family members tended to view their school more positively (Elze, 2003) and be more active in their school’s gay-straight student alliance (Heck, Lindquist, Stewart, Brennan, & Cochran, 2013). Additionally, higher levels of outness have been associated with a larger social circle in the form of greater numbers of gay friends (Nardi, 1999; Ross et al., 2013).
With regard to sexual risk behaviors, lower levels of disclosure among MSM have been linked with a greater likelihood of not knowing one’s HIV status (Ross et al., 2013) or never having been tested for HIV (White & Stephenson, 2013). Additionally, White and Stephenson (2013) reported that higher levels of outness to friends were associated with lower reports of unprotected anal intercourse during the last sexual encounter as well as lower reports of sex while intoxicated. In their sample of 961 MSM, Schindhelm and Hospers (2004) noted that men who came out before their first same-sex sexual encounter were more likely than men who came out after their first same-sex sexual encounter to have fewer casual partners in the last six months, fewer unprotected anal sex encounters, and were less likely to report having sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Higher levels of outness have also been linked with HIV disclosure to secondary (non-primary) sexual partners (Rosser et al., 2008). Black and Hispanic MSM with lower levels of outness may reject a gay or bisexual identity despite engaging in risky sexual activities (such as unprotected receptive or insertive anal sex) with other men that may lead to HIV transmission (Gonzalez, 2007; McCune, 2008; Robinson & Vidal-Ortiz, 2013).

**Workplace Climate, Disclosure, and Work Satisfaction**

As discussed in previous sections, higher levels of an affirmative workplace climate, sexual identity disclosure, and work satisfaction yield positive mental health implications for sexual minority individuals, and are also associated with greater organizational productivity. Additionally, significant relationships exist between these three constructs. This section will clarify the nature of these relationships by reviewing previous studies examining these constructs.
Allan, Tebbe, Duffy, and Autin (2012) tested a model examining the mediating effect of job satisfaction between a sexual minority employee’s feeling of living a calling through work and overall life satisfaction. In their study, Allan et al. (2012) also observed that workplace climate would predict job satisfaction such that sexual minority employees reported greater work satisfaction if they also perceived their work environment to be affirming toward their sexual identity. In addition to reporting a significant standardized path coefficient of .19 between workplace climate and job satisfaction, the authors also reported a small effect size between their measures of the two constructs, $r = .25$.

In a study examining the relationship between Greek employees’ sexual orientation and job satisfaction, Drydakis (2014) reported lower levels of job satisfaction among gay men and lesbians when compared with their heterosexual counterparts. However, when examining job satisfaction among gay and lesbian employees exclusively, Drydakis (2014) reported greater levels of job satisfaction among gay men and lesbians who disclosed their sexual identity at work than gay men and lesbians who maintained lower levels of disclosure. It is important to note that despite these observations, the author did not assess level of workplace climate among employees. Additionally, because the survey was conducted among Greek employees, the social environment may look much different when examining the relationship between disclosure and work satisfaction among American sexual minority employees.

Perhaps one of the most relevant research studies to the present study consists of Prati and Pietrantoni (2014)’s examination of anticipated discrimination moderating the relationship between workplace outness and job satisfaction. In this study, the authors observed that participants who reported higher levels of anticipated discrimination also reported a negative
relationship between workplace outness and job satisfaction. On the other hand, employees who reported lower levels of anticipated discrimination reported a positive relationship between these two constructs. In examining the correlations between variables, the authors reported a very small, but nonetheless significant positive relationship between workplace outness and job satisfaction, $r = .08$. This small correlation is justified by the nature of the study’s moderating variable, anticipated discrimination. Other correlations in this study were in the anticipated direction. Specifically, job satisfaction and a heterosexist workplace climate correlated negatively ($r = -.20$), as did job satisfaction and anticipated discrimination ($r = -.22$). Anticipated discrimination correlated positively with a heterosexist workplace climate ($r = .42$) and negatively with workplace outness ($r = -.28$). Finally, the authors reported a negative relationship between work outness and a heterosexist workplace climate ($r = -.30$).

**Conclusion**

This chapter has carefully reviewed the construct of work satisfaction, including its conceptualization and measurement. Work satisfaction has been previously associated with greater levels of physical and mental health, as well as organizational benefits. The construct of work satisfaction has served as the primary outcome variable SCCT’s work satisfaction and also serves as a potential outcome variable in SCCT’s self-management model. Because the present study is examining work satisfaction as an outcome variable of the process of managing sexual identity in the workplace among a sample of sexual minority employees, work satisfaction is best conceptualized as an outcome variable of SCCT’s self-management model. This chapter also thoroughly reviewed constructs related to sexual minority work satisfaction, including workplace climate and sexual identity disclosure. While sexual identity disclosure has previously been
associated with higher levels of work satisfaction, the effect size is often small and prone to being moderated by an employee’s perception of the surrounding workplace climate toward sexual minority employees.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

This chapter consists of four sections: qualifying participant characteristics, recruitment procedure and survey execution, instrument selection and psychometric data, and the data analytic procedure employed upon completion of data collection.

Participants

A sexual minority employee is defined as someone who identifies with a sexual orientation other than heterosexual who is presently employed part-time (less than 30 hours per week) or full-time (30 hours or greater per week). Therefore, the inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) the participant identifies as a sexual minority; (2) the participant is presently employed in either part-time or full-time work. In order to reflect the cultural values of the United States, additional inclusion criteria are: (3) the participants reside in the U.S.; (4) the participant is at least 18 years of age or older. Any person who meets the inclusion criteria was be eligible to participate regardless of age, gender, race/ethnicity, education status, or income bracket.

Procedure

Data collection was conducted entirely online and consisted of a demographic questionnaire and instruments assessing the constructs of interest. Recruitment was conducted via Facebook advertisements targeting employed sexual minorities residing in the US. Recruitment messages consisted of the inclusion criteria and directed participants to an online
portal consisting of a demographic questionnaire and psychological instruments used for the present study.

All participants were required to read and agree to the terms set forth in the informed consent before completing the study. The informed consent contained information about the purpose of the study, data collection procedure, potential risks and benefits to participating in the study, participant confidentiality and the nature of their voluntary participation, as well as contact information for the researcher conducting the study and the dissertation chair. In order to incentivize potential participants, a total of five (5) $20.00 Amazon gift cards were randomly raffled to participants who completed the study. Participants entered the raffle by providing their email address, which was stored in a database separate from the participant’s responses to protect participant confidentiality.

**Preliminary Analyses**

**Missing values and variable non-normality.** Two hundred and ninety-nine participants met the eligibility criteria of identifying as an employed sexual minority individual of at least 18 years of age residing in the US. Of these participants, 85 did not complete entire measures and their data were removed from further analysis, yielding a total sample size of 214 participants. Prior to examining the study’s hypotheses, remaining data were checked for missing values. The estimation maximization (EM) method was employed to substitute missing values for estimated values based on a participant’s responses to other items in the same inventory.

**Demographic variables.** Participants’ mean age was 37.2 years (SD = 11.6) with a range of 18–69 years. Gender breakdown for the sample was 60.3% male, 36.0% female, 2.8% other (e.g., genderqueer, non-binary), and 0.9% transgender (female-to-male). Participants reported their sexual orientation as gay/lesbian (76.6%), bisexual (15.9%), and other (7.5%). Common
“other” responses included pansexual and queer. Participants were allowed to select more than one race to identify with, and racial breakdown for the present sample was 87.9% White, 7.9% Hispanic/Latino, 4.7% African American, 3.3% Asian American, 2.3% American Indian, and 1.4% other. Participants reported their highest level of educational attainment by selecting from one of the following categories: less than high school (0.0%), high school diploma or GED (12.6%), some college or an associate’s degree (7.9%), a four-year degree (33.6%), or graduate/professional school (45.8%). Finally, participants were asked to select their annual individual income from one of the following categories: Under $25,000 (13.1%), $25,001–$50,000 (31.3%), $50,001–$75,000 (30.4%), $75,001–$100,000 (14.0%), $100,001–$250,000 (11.2%), and over $250,000 (0.0%).

Instruments

Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was administered to all participants. This questionnaire collected information about a participant’s age, gender, race, sexual orientation, highest level of education attained, income, and state of residence.

Predictor: Workplace climate

Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered Climate Inventory (LGBTCI; Liddle, Luzzo, Hauenstein, & Schuck, 2004). The 20-item Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered Climate Inventory (LGBTCI; Liddle, et al., 2004) assesses the degree to which a sexual minority employee perceives work environment as supportive or hostile. All 20 items within the measure contain the stem “At my workplace…” and sample items include “LGBT people consider it a comfortable place to work,” “Non-LGBT employees are comfortable engaging in gay-friendly humor with LGBT employees (for example, kidding them about a date),” and “The company or
institution as a whole provides a supportive environment for LGBT people.” Participants used a four-point response scale when completing the questionnaire (1 = doesn’t describe at all, 4 = describes extremely well). Six negatively worded items were reverse-scored, and these items were summed together with the remaining 14 items to compute a total score (higher scores reflect a more LGBT-supportive work environment). Past studies have robust Cronbach’s alpha estimates ranging from .95–.96 among samples of LGB and LGBT employees (Huffman et al., 2008; Liddle et al., 2004; Tatum et al., 2017). LGBTCI scores have previously correlated negatively with a measure of LGB workplace discrimination, demonstrating construct validity (Liddle et al., 2004). Cronbach’s alpha for the present sample was .95.

**Mediator: Workplace sexual identity management self-efficacy**

**Workplace Sexual Identity Management Self-Efficacy Scale (WSEIMSES; Tatum, Formica, & Brown, 2017).** The WSIMSES is a 15-item measure developed by Tatum et al. (2016) that assesses self-efficacy for sexual identity management strategies in the workplace. This measure was adapted from two earlier developed sexual identity management measures, and includes (a) eight items that assess “explicitly out” behaviors, drawn from Anderson et al. (2001)’s Workplace Sexual Identity Management scale, and (b) nine items from Button (2001)’s measure assessing perceived organizational discrimination toward sexual minority employees. Two pairs of items from each of these scales contained matching content, and one item was removed from each pair for a final total of 15 items. Participants were asked how confidently they believe they can perform 15 tasks in the workplace using a five-point response scale (1 = no confidence, 5 = very confident). One sample item reads, “answer in an honest and matter-of-fact way whenever I’m asked about being gay, lesbian, or bisexual.” A total score calculated using the sum of all 15 items represented a participant’s sexual identity management self-efficacy
beliefs. Tatum et al. (2016) reported a Cronbach’s alpha for their sample of .96, as well as a negative correlation with concealment motivation (-.51), providing evidence for the construct validity of the WSIMSES. Cronbach’s alpha for the present sample was .96.

**Mediator: Sexual identity management outcome expectations**

**Sexual Identity Management Outcome Expectations Scale (SIMOES; Tatum, Formica, & Brown, 2017).** A 19-item measure constructed by Tatum et al. (2017) was administered to participants. The stem “If I move towards disclosing my sexual identity at work, I would…” preceded all items, and participants rated anticipated outcomes of performing specific behaviors using a five-point response scale (1 = very unlikely, 5 = very likely). Sample items from this measure include “work more effectively with my coworkers,” “be more genuine and open with my coworkers,” and “hurt my chances at receiving a promotion.” Responses were coded in the direction of positive outcome expectations, and all 19 items were summed to compute a total workplace sexual identity management positive outcome expectations score. Tatum et al. (2017) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .75 for their sample, and they also reported a negatively correlation between positive outcome expectations and concealment motivation ($r = - .48$), providing evidence of construct validity. Cronbach’s alpha for the present sample was .94.

**Outcome: Sexual identity disclosure**

**Work Outness Inventory.** An adapted version of the Outness to World subscale of the Outness Inventory (Mohr & Fassinger, 2000) was created to assess a sexual minority employee’s sexual identity disclosure in various domains of the workplace. In order to be sensitive to the various methods individuals may disclose their sexual identity, participants were asked “How “out” at work are you to the following groups of people?” on a 5-point response scale (1 = not at all out, 5 = completely out). The Work Outness Inventory consisted of five items: work peers,
work supervisors, work subordinates, consumers (e.g., customers, clients, students, etc.), and upper managements. Participants were able to select N/A for any item that did not apply to their workplace. Scores on the Work Outness Inventory were calculated by averaging the responses for all items in which participants did not select N/A. Mohr and Fassinger (2000) reported positive correlations of their Out to World subscale with the Out to Family subscale (.42) and Out to Religion subscale (.41) of the Outness Inventory, as well as negative correlations with three dimensions of the Lesbian & Gay Identity Scale: Need for Privacy (-.54), Need for Acceptance (-.28), and Homonegativity (-.34), demonstrating convergent validity. Scores on the Work Outness Inventory also demonstrated convergent validity in the present study (see Table 1). Cronbach’s alpha for the present sample was .85.

**Outcome: Work satisfaction**

**Index of Job Satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998).** Work satisfaction was assessed with a five item-version of the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) Index of Job Satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998). Participants were asked to rate each statement on a seven-point scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Strongly Agree*). Sample items include “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.” Judge et al. (1998) reported an internal consistency of .88 among a sample of university employees. This measure has demonstrated appropriate internal consistency and convergent validity estimates in additional studies examining work satisfaction (Duffy & Lent, 2009; Lent et al., 2011). Cronbach’s alpha for the present sample was .87.
**Data Analysis**

**Path Analysis**

LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) was used to test the first hypothesis in the present study using the Satorra-Benter chi-square value to account for multivariate non-normality (Bryant & Satorra, 2012). Fit indices were used to examine model fit according to Hu and Bentler’s (1999) 2-index criteria (CFI = .97 and SRMR = .05). RMSEA and SRMR was also examined to further assess model fit, and was compared with acceptable thresholds defined by past literature (e.g., Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Specifically, RMSEA and SRMR values below .05 would indicate acceptable model fit. Finally, standardized path coefficients were examined for statistical significance to test the second through sixth hypotheses.

**Bootstrap analyses**

Upon conducting a path analysis examining the second through sixth hypotheses, a bootstrap analysis using 5,000 bootstrap samples was conducted in order to calculate bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of the parameter estimates. These bootstrap procedures were used to test the hypothesized indirect effects (Mooney & Duval, 1993; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). When analyzing bootstrap results, outcomes are interpreted as significant if the confidence intervals do not include zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

**Moderation analysis**

PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was used to test the moderating effect of workplace climate between sexual identity disclosure and work satisfaction (Hypothesis 9). In order to demonstrate a significant moderation effect in the present model, it is hypothesized that the standardized product term of workplace climate and sexual identity disclosure will lead to a significant
relationship with work satisfaction. Upon further analysis, data were plotted to confirm the
direction of the relationship in line with Hypothesis 9. A median split for both workplace climate
and workplace disclosure was employed to examine directionality.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Means and standard deviations of observed variables, possible range, obtained range, and bivariate correlations among observed variables are reported in Table 1. As expected, all relationships among the observed variables in the present study were significantly and positively associated with each other.

Table 1. Intercorrelations, Descriptive Statistics, and Internal Consistencies of Observed Variables.

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<td>3. Out. Expect.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.78***</td>
<td>.77***</td>
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<td>4. Disclosure status</td>
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<td>.81***</td>
<td>.62***</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Job Satisfaction</td>
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<td>.20**</td>
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<td>SD</td>
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<td>1.20</td>
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<td>Obtained range</td>
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<td>α</td>
<td>.95</td>
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* p < .05; ** p < .01; ***p < .001

Test of SCCT’s Self-Management Model: Path Analysis

LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) was used to test the proposed SCCT self-management model using the Satorra-Benter chi-square value to account for multivariate nonnormality (Bryant & Satorra, 2012). Hypothesis 1 was supported as evidenced by the measurement model providing an excellent fit to the data, $\chi^2(3, N = 214) = 5.24$, $p = .16$, CFI =
1.00, NNFI = .99, RMSEA = .06 (90% CI [.00, .14]), SRMR = .02. Thus, the self-management model demonstrated an excellent fit to the data according to Hu and Bentler’s (1999) two-index criteria (CFI = .97, SRMR = .05). RMSEA provided further evidence of the model fitting to the data given thresholds defined by past literature (e.g., Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

Standardized path coefficients for the model are depicted in Figure 3. More affirmative workplace climates for sexual minority employees predicted an employees’ self-efficacy for disclosing their sexual identity at work, $B = .76, p < .001$, and positive outcome expectations as a result of disclosing, $B = .46, p < .001$, providing support for Hypothesis 2.

The present model also provided support for Hypothesis 3; an employee’s self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity in the workplace predicted more positive outcome expectations for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work, $B = .39, p < .001$. Hypotheses 4 and 5 were only partially supported in the present study. Specifically, an employee’s self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work predicted disclosure, $B = .82, p < .001$, but positive outcome expectations were not significantly associated with workplace disclosure, $B = -.01, p > .05$. Similarly, positive outcome expectations were significantly associated with work satisfaction, $B = .33, p < .001$, but an employee’s self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work did not predict work satisfaction, $B = -.21, p > .05$. Hypothesis 8 was supported in the present study as evidenced by disclosure predicting work satisfaction in the present model, $B = .19, p < .05$. 
Bootstrap Analyses

Bootstrap procedures (5,000 bootstrap samples, bias-corrected percentiles) were used to test the hypothesized indirect effects (Mooney & Duval, 1993; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Outcomes are interpreted as significant if the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of the bias-corrected indirect effects do not include zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). For the present study, values of the mean indirect effects and 95% CIs consist of the unstandardized path coefficients.

Results indicated a significant indirect link between workplace climate and work satisfaction via the mediating role of outcome expectations ($B = .44$, 95% CI [.22, .68]) as well
as a significant indirect link between workplace climate and workplace disclosure via the mediating role of self-efficacy beliefs ($B = 1.30, 95\% CI [1.04, 1.59]$). Examining the indirect effect between self-efficacy beliefs and work satisfaction via the mediating role of outcome expectations also revealed a significant relationship ($B = .21, 95\% CI [.08, .36]$).

**Moderation Effect**

Hayes’ (2013) PROCESS was used to assess the interaction effect of workplace climate and an employee’s sexual minority disclosure on work satisfaction. As seen in Figure 4, a significant interaction effect of workplace climate and disclosure predicted work satisfaction. Investigating the direction of the moderation effect revealed support for Hypothesis 9. As seen in Figure 5, sexual minority employees who reported greater levels of sexual identity disclosure within more affirming work environments also reported the highest levels of work satisfaction.

Figure 4. Interaction effect of workplace climate and sexual identity disclosure on work satisfaction.
Figure 5. Visual representation of the moderation effect of workplace climate and sexual identity disclosure on job satisfaction.
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Results supported the continued use of SCCT’s self-management model for examining sexual identity management in the workplace. As evidenced by strong fit indices, SCCT’s self-management model provided a suitable framework for examining the effect of a sexual minority’s workplace climate on work satisfaction. If a sexual minority person feels supported by their co-workers as a sexual minority person, and has made an intentional effort to disclose their sexual identity, overall work satisfaction may increase.

Additional path analyses run within the model supported previous work (e.g., Rummell & Tokar, 2015; Tatum et al., 2017) highlighting the mediating role of outcome expectations between sexual identity management self-efficacy and resulting outcome variables. While there was no evidence of a direct relationship between self-efficacy and work satisfaction, it is important to note the presence of a significant indirect effect of self-efficacy on work satisfaction through the mediating role of outcome expectations. Additionally, while the direct effect of self-efficacy and work satisfaction was non-significant, the direction of the relationship was negative, contrary to the direction of the bivariate relationship between these constructs (r = .20). The marked difference in directionality is similar to the suppression effect observed by Tatum et al. (2017) in analyzing the influence of workplace climate on disclosure status. In relation to the present study, it is possible the bivariate relationship between self-efficacy and work satisfaction
became negative in the presence of the study’s other predictors (see Gaylord-Harden, Cunningham, Holmbeck, and Grant (2010) for a more detailed explanation of statistical suppression).

One major finding of the present study is the moderation effect of a sexual minority employee’s workplace climate on identity disclosure and work satisfaction. In the present study, results indicated that employees with higher levels of identity disclosure in more affirming environments reported greater levels of work satisfaction. This finding speaks to the adaptive nature of choosing to either disclose or withhold disclosing one’s sexual identity in a workplace based on the perceived response of the environment. Per Griffin (1992), sexual minority employees may choose to engage in passing, which refers to changing information about one’s identity to appear heterosexual. This self-management strategy may be beneficial for a sexual minority employee to directly avoid negative outcomes in a non-affirming work environment, especially if employees are worried about receiving verbal and physical harassment or being denied access to promotions as a result of their disclosure. However, results indicate low levels of disclosure are associated with lower work satisfaction, regardless of workplace climate. It is worth noting that while employees who reported lower levels of disclosure in an affirming environment also reported the lowest levels of work satisfaction, examining standard error of measurements across groups revealed there is no significant difference among sexual minority employees who do not disclose their identity in an affirmative environment when compared with any sexual minority employees working in a non-affirming environment.

The moderation result directly addresses Griffith and Hebl’s (2002) work examining the relationship between disclosure behaviors among self-identified gay men and lesbians. The
authors in this study reported positive correlations among disclosing one’s sexual identity in the workplace and greater job satisfaction. The present study builds off of their results by introducing the moderating effect an individual’s workplace climate has on an individual’s job satisfaction. Similarly, the moderation result corroborates Prati and Pietrantoni (2014)’s findings of anticipated discrimination moderating the relationship between both sexual minority employees’ disclosure and job satisfaction, as well as a non-affirming workplace climate and job satisfaction. However, the present study observed an environmental factor (i.e., workplace climate) as opposed to a minority stressor (i.e., anticipated discrimination) as the moderator, providing support for workplace non-discrimination policies.

The presence of moderation also directly addresses the ambiguous results reported by Tatum et al. (2017) documenting a positive correlation (.38) between workplace climate and disclosure status, and a negative coefficient when conducting a path analysis between workplace climate and disclosure status as the result of a potential suppression effect. In addition to documenting a stronger correlation (.58) between workplace climate and disclosure status, perhaps as the result of employing a more psychometrically sound measure of assessing workplace disclosure in the present study, more intricate analyses in this study revealed the conditional role an individual’s workplace climate may play in the relationship between disclosing a sexual minority status and work satisfaction. While sexual minority employees may be more hesitant to reveal their sexual identity if they perceive a hostile work environment, other research has demonstrated that sexual minority employees who perceive their colleagues to be supportive of sexual minority identities were more likely to disclose their identity to their colleagues (Ragins et al., 2007). These workplace climate findings demonstrate the importance
of studying inclusive workplace policies that promote sexual minority satisfaction. In essence, a gay-affirmative work environment may be viewed as a source of support for sexual minority individuals to be open about their identity without having to monitor cognitive processes that may lead to an inadvertent sexual minority status disclosure.

Results from the present study make at least two contributions to the workplace sexual identity management literature. First, Lent and Brown (2013)’s SCCT self-management model served as a framework for examining unique psychosocial processes that facilitate career development. The present study provides continued support for employing SCCT’s self-management model to investigate the adaptive nature of workplace sexual identity management, building off previous similar efforts (e.g., Rummell & Tokar, 2015; Tatum et al., 2017). Second, the present study provides evidence of workplace climate as a moderating variable between sexual identity disclosure and work satisfaction. Given past work examining the adaptive nature of workplace sexual identity management (e.g., Anderson et al., 2001; Griffin, 1992; Woods, 1994), this finding demonstrates the importance that an individual’s work climate may have on a critical work-related construct – work satisfaction – that has previously been implicated in both individual-level outcomes described previously and organizational-level outcomes such as worker productivity and organizational commitment (e.g., Chen & Francesco, 2003; Koys, 2001; Tziner, Manor, Vardl, & Brodman, 2008; Westover et al., 2010).

Limitations and Future Directions

This study’s contributions are not without limitations. First, over 60% of participants were male, and 87% of participants identified as White. While results of the study may be more generalizable to White sexual minority employees, further research is needed with more diverse
populations to increase the external validity of the study to more marginalized subgroups. The
gender and racial breakdown of the sample may thus be viewed as a limitation because within-
group differences may not be properly represented in the present results. However, quantitative
investigations of workplace sexual identity management have not received much attention in the
literature, and to date there have been no studies examining workplace sexual identity
management among sexual minority persons of color. Next, some of the measures employed in
this study demonstrated range restriction, which may decrease the internal consistency of scores
and in turn minimize observed effect sizes (Bobko, Roth, & Bobko, 2001; Hunter & Schmidt,
1990). Future studies may consider confirming the magnitude of the effect sizes observed in this
sample by obtaining data that spans the entire range of possible scores across all measures.
Finally, the means of data collection poses another limitation. While recruiting participants
through social media provides researchers a streamlined tool to locate specific populations, usage
of these platforms remains restricted to individuals with the socioeconomic means to integrate
these technologies into daily life (e.g., White & Selwyn, 2013). This may partially explain why
45% of the present sample reported a graduate degree, and an additional third of the sample
reported an undergraduate degree. Future studies may consider employing other forms of data
collection (e.g., in-person collaboration with community resources).

Limitations notwithstanding, the present study opens a multitude of opportunities for
future research. In keeping with SCCT’s self-management model, future studies may consider
examining the influence of workplace sexual identity management on organizational factors such
as employee turnover, organizational commitment, and withdrawal cognitions. Such research
would extend the earlier work of scholars (e.g., Tziner, 2006; Westover et al., 2010) by
examining the organizational impact of workplaces whose culture and work policies do not foster strong levels of workplace sexual identity management among their sexual minority employees. Next, it is worth investigating individual differences among sexual minority employees. While previous research by Reed and Leuty (2016) reported no relationship between personality traits and sexual identity management strategies, the authors suggested factors such as resilience or hardiness might lead to different management strategies. This suggestion is in line with Meyer (2003)’s minority stress model, which postulates distal minority stress events such as discrimination and prejudice may affect an individual’s resilience and coping mechanisms. Thus, sexual minority employees who have previously experienced distal minority stressors in the workplace may have developed alternative identity management strategies in order to achieve work satisfaction. Finally, due to the cross-sectional design of the present study, longitudinal studies examining outness in the workplace may address gaps in the literature by drawing causal inferences between sexual identity management strategies.

**Implications for Counseling**

Results suggest at least two implications applicable to mental health professionals working with sexual minority clients. First, at the microlevel, mental health professionals should continue to assess for social support with their sexual minority clients, although social support may become even more salient for sexual minority clients reporting low work satisfaction due to factors related to their identity. Per the results of this study, the social support may come from either inside the workplace (i.e., other LGBTQ employees or allies), or from an individual’s broader LGBTQ community outside of work. By doing so, sexual minority clients may be able to offset some of the processes hindering work satisfaction. Alternatively, for clients who are
able to switch workplaces, career counselors may consider assessing clients’ motivation for locating new jobs that may be perceived as having more affirmative workplace policies for their sexual minority employees.

Second, at the macrolevel, mental health professionals should continue to advocate for workplace policies that minimize stressors for sexual minority employees. Such advocacy efforts may in turn benefit sexual minority employees by minimizing barriers to work satisfaction, allowing employees to function more efficiently in the workplace to benefit the organization. Advocacy efforts may be focused at organizational policies or broader local, state, or federal policies that would explicitly prohibit discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity. Such advocacy could be highly beneficial for sexual minority individuals living in any of the thirty states that currently do not prohibit workplace discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity (Human Rights Campaign, 2017). The moderation result in this study suggests that disclosing a sexual minority status in the workplace may lead to greater work satisfaction, but only if the employee perceives their workplace climate as affirming toward their identity.

**Conclusion**

This study provides implications for both future researchers investigating workplace sexual identity management and mental health professionals working with sexual minority populations. The relationship between workplace climate and a sexual minority’s work satisfaction should be considered when conducting further vocational outcome research with this underserved population. Psychologists working with sexual minority clients should consider assessing an individual’s workplace climate and work satisfaction during the intake and case
conceptualization process. This may include recognizing non-affirmative workplaces and providing empathic support for clients who perceive their work environment as hostile toward their sexual identity. Additionally, career counselors and vocational psychologists should consider assessing a client’s perceived workplace climate, self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity, and outcome expectations of disclosing a minority sexual identity in order to facilitate greater levels of work satisfaction.
APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT ANNOUNCEMENT
Hello,

I am currently recruiting participants for my dissertation examining workplace satisfaction among sexual minority individuals. We would like to extend an invitation to anyone who meets the required criteria. We are looking for participants who:

1. Are a U.S. citizen
2. Are age 18 or older
3. Are currently employed
4. Identify as non-heterosexual (e.g., lesbian, gay, bisexual, queer, pansexual, etc.)

If you agree to participate, you will be asked questions about your experiences at your current workplace, your social relationships with others, and your beliefs about your sexual identity. You may choose not to answer some questions, and you may also choose to stop participating at any time once you have begun. Your responses will not be linked to identifying information such as your IP address.

Completing this study should take no longer than 20 minutes. You will be entered into a raffle to win one of five $20 Amazon gift cards for your voluntary participation.

If you meet the criteria above and are interested in participating in this study, the survey may be accessed at https://surveys.luc.edu/opinio6/s?s=66552.

Please do not hesitate to send an email with any questions you may have. I can be reached at atatum1@luc.edu.

Best,

Alexander Tatum, MS
APPENDIX B

APPROVED CONSENT FORM
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Project Title: Examining Workplace Climate and Community Connectedness on Sexual Minority Workplace Satisfaction
Researchers: Alexander Tatum, MS
Faculty Sponsor: Steven Brown, PhD

Introduction:
You are being asked to take part in a research study being conducted by Alexander Tatum, MS, under the supervision of Steven Brown, PhD, in the Department of Counseling Psychology at Loyola University of Chicago.

You are being asked to participate because you have indicated you identify as a sexual minority (e.g. lesbian, gay, or bisexual), are currently employed, are age 18 or older, and are a US citizen. Approximately 250 persons will participate in the study.

Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have via email using the links below before deciding whether to participate in the study.

Purpose:
The purpose of this study is to better understand workplace satisfaction among sexual minority individuals.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to answer a series of questions as accurately as possible as described in the instructions. These questions will focus on your experiences at work, your social relationships with others, and your beliefs about your sexual identity. Completing the study should take no more than 20 minutes.

Risks/Benefits:
There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. If you encounter distress at any point in answering these questions, please contact the National Suicide Prevention & Crisis Hotline at 1.800.273.TALK to be connected with a crisis counselor.

There are no direct benefits to participating in this study, but the results will be used to better understand how workplace satisfaction may be facilitated for the benefit of sexual minority individuals. By doing so, psychologists will be able to utilize this knowledge in their work with clients and consultation with human resource departments.

Compensation:
For participating in this study, you will receive one entry into a lottery for a chance to win one (1) of five (5) $20 Amazon gift cards. You may only participate in this study once, and completing these questions more than once will not result in duplicate entries into the lottery.
Your email address will be collected as part of the study for entry into the lottery. Once data collection has been completed, five email addresses will be selected at random to receive the gift card from the study. The participants will be notified via the email address provided, and the gift card will be sent electronically to the participant’s email address. All collected email addresses will be destroyed after the gift cards have been emailed to the winners.

**Confidentiality:**
Information gathered from this study will be coded so that you are represented with a unique identification number that does not reveal any identifying information such as your IP address. This data will be deleted within two years of collection.

**Voluntary Participation:**
Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in this study, you do not have to participate. Even if you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

**Contacts and Questions:**
If you have questions about this research study, please feel free to contact Alexander Tatum at atatum1@luc.edu or the faculty sponsor Steven Brown at sbrown@luc.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

**Statement of Consent:**
By selecting “I consent to participating in this study” below, your indicate that you have read the information provided above, have had an opportunity to ask questions, and agree to participate in this research study.

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**Please select an option:**

- I consent to participating in this study.
- I do not consent to participating in this study.
APPENDIX C

SURVEY PACKAGE
Section I: Demographics

Please answer the following questions as they describe you:

Current age: free response

Gender:
  Male
  Female
  Male-to-Female Transgender
  Female-to-Male Transgender
  Other
If other, please specify: free response

Sexual Orientation:
  Gay/Lesbian
  Bisexual
  Heterosexual
  Other
If other, please specify: free response

Ethnicity (select as many that apply):
  African American/Black
  American Indian/Alaska Natives
  Asian American/Pacific Islanders
  Hispanic American/Latino/a
  White/Caucasian
  Other (please specify)
If other, please specify: free response

Highest level of education completed:
  Less than high school
  High school/GED
  two-year degree
  four-year degree
  graduate/professional school

Employment status:
  Full-time
  Part-time
  Other (please specify)
If other, please specify: free response
Approximate annual income:
- Under $25,000
- $25,001 to $50,000
- $50,001 to $75,000
- $75,001 to $100,000
- $100,001 to $250,000
- Over $250,000

Relationship status:
- Single
- Dating, not living together
- Dating, living together
- Married
- Divorced

If you are in a relationship, length of current relationship: _____ years _____ months

If you are in a relationship, is it closed (exclusive/monogamous) or open (nonmonogamous)?
- Monogamous, closed (exclusive)
- Monogamous, open
- Nonmonogamous, closed
- Nonmonogamous, open
- N/A
- Other

If other, please specify: free response

U.S. state of residence: choose from drop down list of all 50 states and DC

Zip code: free response

OUTNESS INVENTORY
How “out” are you to the following groups of people?

1. Work Peers
   a. 1 = Not at all out
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5 = Completely out
   f. N/A

2. Work Supervisors
   a. 1 = Not at all out
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
LGBT CLIMATE INVENTORY

Please rate the following items according to how well they describe the atmosphere for lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) employees in your workplace, using the following scale:

1 = Doesn’t Describe at All
2 = Describes Somewhat or a Little
3 = Describes Pretty Well
4 = Describes Extremely Well

At my workplace…

1. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) employees are treated with respect.

2. LGBT employees must be secretive.

3. Coworkers are as likely to ask nice, interested questions about a same-sex relationship as they are about a heterosexual relationship.

4. LGBT people consider it a comfortable place to work.
5. Non-LGBT employees are comfortable engaging in gay-friendly humor with LGBT employees (for example, kidding them about a date).

6. The atmosphere for LGBT employees is oppressive.

7. LGBT employees feel accepted by coworkers.

8. Coworkers make comments that seem to indicate a lack of awareness of LGBT issues.

9. Employees are expected to not act “too gay”.

10. LGBT employees fear job loss because of sexual orientation.

11. My immediate work group is supportive of LGBT coworkers.

12. LGBT employees are comfortable talking about their personal lives with coworkers.

13. There is pressure for LGBT employees to stay closeted (to conceal their sexual orientation or gender identity/expression).

14. Employee LGBT identity does not seem to be an issue.

15. LGBT employees are met with thinly veiled hostility (for example, scornful looks or icy tone of voice).

16. The company or institution as a whole provides a supportive environment for LGBT people.

17. LGBT employees are free to be themselves.

18. LGBT people are less likely to be mentored.

19. LGBT employees feel free to display pictures of a same-sex partner.

20. The atmosphere for LGBT employees is improving.

**WORKPLACE SEXUAL IDENTITY MANAGEMENT SELF-EFFICACY SCALE**

Disclaimer: You may prefer to use labels other than ‘gay, lesbian, and bisexual’ to describe your sexual orientation (e.g., ‘queer’, ‘pansexual’, ‘questioning’). We use the term ‘gay, lesbian, and bisexual’ in this survey as a convenience, and we ask for your understanding if the term does not completely capture your sexual identity.

How confident are you that you can do each of the following tasks?

1 = no confidence
2 = little confidence
3 = some confidence
4 = mostly confident
5 = very confident

1. Bring someone of the same gender to a work-related social function.
2. Introduce someone of the same gender that person as my date or partner.
3. Tell coworkers when I’m going to a gay or lesbian identified social activity.
4. Wear or display commonly known gay and lesbian symbols (e.g., buttons, jewelry, T-shirts, bumper stickers).
5. Refer to someone of the same gender when I talk about romantic relationships and dating at work.
6. Correct others when they imply I am straight.
7. Obtain equal benefits for me at my workplace.
8. Acknowledge my sexual identity at work.
9. Tell most of my co-workers that I am gay, lesbian, or bisexual.
10. Answer in an honest and matter-of-fact way whenever I’m asked about being gay, lesbian, or bisexual.
11. Allow my gay and lesbian friends to call me at work.
12. Inform my co-workers of my interest in gay and lesbian issues.
13. Tell people what I think when a policy or law is discriminatory against sexual minorities.
14. Let my co-workers know that I’m proud to be gay, lesbian, or bisexual.
15. Confront others when I hear a homophobic remark or joke.

WORKPLACE SEXUAL IDENTITY MANAGEMENT OUTCOME EXPECTATIONS SCALE

If I move towards disclosing my sexual identity at work, I would…
INDEX OF JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

DIRECTIONS: The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the last month. In each case, please indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way.

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree or Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

1. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
3. Each day of work seems like it will never end.

4. I find real enjoyment in my work.

5. I consider my job rather unpleasant.

**EMAIL**

If you encountered distress at any point from answering these questions and would like to speak with a crisis counselor, please contact the National Suicide Prevention & Crisis Hotline at 1.800.273.TALK.

Thank you for participating in this survey! We sincerely appreciate your time and value your responses. Please enter your email for an entry into the lottery for a $20 Amazon gift card. The winners will be contacted via this email address once the study has been completed.

Email address: *free response*
REFERENCES


VITA

Alexander (Alex) Tatum is from Charlottesville, VA, where he attended the University of Virginia and earned a Bachelor of Arts in Computer Science. He then attended Georgia State University and earned a Master of Science in Mental Health Counseling. He is presently attending Loyola University Chicago and finishing his Doctor of Philosophy in Counseling Psychology.

After completing two therapy externships in the Chicagoland area, Tatum is set to begin his APA-accredited doctoral internship at the University of St. Thomas’ Counseling and Psychological Services (CAPS) in St. Paul, MN. He hopes to secure a tenure-track faculty appointment upon completion of his Ph.D. program.