American Psychological Association

Journal of Counseling Psychology

0022-0167/18/$12.00

2018, Vol. 65, No. 5, 618–628
http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/cou0000292

Workplace Climate and Satisfaction in Sexual Minority Populations: An Application of Social Cognitive Career Theory

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Workplace sexual identity management has drawn increasing attention in the counseling psychology literature. Disclosing a sexual minority identity at work may lead to greater levels of work satisfaction, but it may also lead to occupational barriers (e.g., lack of advancement opportunities, interpersonal harassment) when disclosing in nonaffirming workplace environments. The present study used social–cognitive career theory (SCCT)'s self-management model with a sample of 214 American sexual minority employees recruited via Facebook to examine the adaptive nature of workplace sexual identity management and its resulting impact on work satisfaction. The present model employed path analysis to hypothesize more affirmative workplace environments lead to greater levels of identity disclosure through the mediating variables of disclosure self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Further, the model posited workplace climate moderates the relationship between sexual identity disclosure and work satisfaction such that work satisfaction increases in the presence of both an affirming workplace climate and employee's decision to self-disclose. Results largely supported all hypotheses and demonstrate continued use of SCCT's self-management model for examining sexual identity management while also highlighting the importance of both an affirming workplace climate and factors that influence an employee's decision to self-disclose. Specifically, the relationship between identity disclosure and work satisfaction was strongest in the presence of more affirming workplace environments. These findings provide support for inclusive workplace policies such as nondiscrimination ordinances in order to maximize sexual minority work satisfaction.

Public Significance Statement
This study examined factors that promote work satisfaction among sexual minority employees. Results suggest there is a positive relationship between disclosing a minority sexual orientation and work satisfaction in affirming work environments, but no relationship between disclosure and work satisfaction in nonaffirming work environments.

Keywords: sexual identity management, SCCT, work satisfaction, workplace climate

Sexual identity management refers to the process of revealing or concealing a minority sexual identity to others. Because of an extensive history of institutionalized occupational discrimination in the United States based on sexual orientation (Cech & Pham, 2017; Human Rights Campaign, 2018; Jin & Park, 2016), sexual identity management in the workplace has been studied extensively (e.g., Button, 2004; Brewster, Velez, DeBlaere, & Moradi, 2012; Lidderdale, Croteau, Anderson, Tovar-Murray, & Davis, 2007; Velez, Moradi, & Brewster, 2013). As of 2018, only 22 states offer workplace protections for sexual minority employees (Human Rights Campaign, 2018), and there presently are no federal laws in place prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation. Additional social consequences exist from disclosing a minority sexual identity at work, such as interpersonal harassment, workplace incivility, and a lack of advancement opportunities (Lidderdale et al., 2007). As a result, sexual minority employees may disengage from work-related tasks in heterosexist environments (Hollis & McCalla, 2013). Further, perceived discrimination has been negatively related to work satisfaction and positively associated with fewer advancement opportunities (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Pope and colleagues (2004) noted that Congress' failure to pass the Employment Nondiscrimination Act (ENDA) has added an additional barrier to disclosing a minority sexual identity in the workplace, which in turn leads to outcomes that affect both individual and corporate productivity. There has recently been a surge of federal court cases addressing sexual orientation-related workplace discrimination (Equal Opportunity Employment Commission, 2018). Unlike social environments, sexual minorities cannot simply change their work environment by associating with individuals who are more affirmative toward a

This article was published Online First June 28, 2018.

The ideas and data appearing in this article are original and have not previously been published or presented at a conference or meeting. I thank Steven Brown, Elizabeth Vera, and Eunju Yoon for their review of earlier versions of this article.

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sexual minority identity. Thus, individuals must weigh the pros and cons of disclosing their sexual identity in work environments.

Workplace sexual identity management has been previously conceptualized from social–cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent & Brown, 2013; Lidderdale et al., 2007). SCCT (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) was developed from Bandura's (1986) social–cognitive theory, which holds that an individual's behavior is a codeterminant 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).

Past literature has also applied broader social–cognitive frameworks for studying sexual identity management strategies as they relate to work satisfaction (Brewster et al., 2012; Button, 2004; Chrobot-Mason, Button, & DiClementi, 2001; Velez et al., 2013), defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Although previous studies did not explicitly test the SCCT-centric constructs of disclosure self-efficacy and outcome expectations, previous workplace sexual identity management studies are unified by the examination of specific self-management strategies outlined by earlier research (Anderson, Croteau, Chung, & DiStefano, 2001; Griffin, 1992). For example, Velez and colleagues (2013) used a minority stress approach to test the mediating and moderating relationship of sexual identity management strategies in relation to sexual minority employees' experience of workplace heterosexist discrimination and work satisfaction.

Prior to the development of SCCT's self-management model, Lidderdale and colleagues (2007) posited 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, background 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 life span. 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 and colleagues (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.

Thus far, two studies have used SCCT approaches to studying workplace sexual identity management. Among a sample of 162 sexual minority employees, Rummell and Tokar (2016) observed that a gay-affirmative workplace climate predicted greater disclosure self-efficacy beliefs and more positive outcome expectations, two central components of SCCT's self-management model. It is worth noting, however, that more affirmative workplace climates were not associated with the authors' measure of disclosure. One potential explanation of this finding could be due to the authors' conceptualization of disclosure as the sum of reverse-scoring Lance, Anderson, and Croteau's (2010) passing and covering strategies added to the raw scores of Lance and colleagues' (2010) implicitly out and explicitly out strategies.

In examining workplace disclosure, Tatum, Formica, and Brown (2017) tested SCCT's self-management model for sexual identity management in the workplace among a sample of 152 sexual minority employees. 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. Similar to Rummell and Tokar (2016), this study also used a questionable method for assessing an employee's disclosure behaviors in that the authors assessed disclosure with a single item asking participants to rate how "out" they are at work on a five-point Likert scale. This method is inherently flawed in that using a single-item measure to assess workplace disclosure cannot measure aspects of various power differentials sexual minority employees experience in their work environment (e.g., work peers, work supervisors, etc.).

Although neither Rummell and Tokar (2016) nor Tatum and colleagues (2017) observed workplace climate as a significant predictor of workplace disclosure, Tatum and colleagues (2017) nevertheless reported a positive correlation, $r = .38$, between the two variables (Rummell and Tokar, 2016, did not report bivariate correlations). Within the sexual minority career literature, there is evidence that disclosing one's sexual orientation at work within a sexual minority affirming work environment leads to greater work satisfaction (Prati & Pietrantoni, 2014; Velez et al., 2013; Waldo, 1999). In considering the relationship between a sexual minority person's experience in the workplace and resulting work satisfaction from an SCCT perspective, it is imperative to examine the nature of an employee's workplace climate. In a sample of 171 sexual minority employees, Allan, Tebbe, Duffy, and Autin (2015) observed an employee working within an affirmative workplace climate significantly predicted work satisfaction. However, this study did not examine mediating variables such as disclosure self-efficacy, outcome expectations, or sexual identity management behaviors.

Given that an employee's workplace environment is likely to influence sexual identity management strategies (Brewster et al., 2012; Waldo, 1999; Velez et al., 2013), workplace climate is best conceptualized as a background contextual affordance from SCCT's self-management model. However, there is evidence to suggest workplace climate may moderate the relationship between a sexual minority employee's disclosure status and work satisfaction (Prati & Pietrantoni, 2014). 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 coworkers 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 work satisfaction (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001; Velez & Moradi, 2012). The process of choosing whether or not to disclose a minority sexual identity in a potentially threatening environment may thus be considered an adaptive response. By not disclosing a sexual minority identity in a nonaffirming work environment, a sexual minority employee may avoid negative feedback from the environment (e.g., verbal or physical harassment, lack of advancement opportunities) to maintain higher levels of work satisfaction.

In addition to positive individual outcomes linked with sexual minority employees' work satisfaction (e.g., Allan et al., 2015; Velez et al., 2013), previous research has identified a plethora of organizational benefits resulting from an employee's work 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, Waismal-Manor, Vardi, & Brodman, 2008), whereas employees who are more dissatisfied with their jobs may consider working for competing organizations, leading to higher levels of organizational turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tziner, 2006). In a sample of 287 sexual minority participants, Waldo (1999) observed a negative relationship between work satisfaction and job withdrawal. Given the large-scale impact work satisfaction may have on the workplace, economic implications exist for investigating how a sexual minority person's experience in the workplace may impact their work satisfaction.

Perhaps one of the most relevant research studies examining nonaffirming work environments in relation to work satisfaction consists of Prati and Pietrantoni's (2014) examination of anticipated discrimination moderating the relationship between workplace outness and work satisfaction among Italian sexual minority employees. In this study, the authors observed that participants who reported higher levels of anticipated discrimination also reported a negative relationship between workplace outness and work 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 work satisfaction, $r = .08$. This small correlation is justified by the nature of the study's moderating variable, anticipated discrimination. Given the proximal nature of an employee's perception of anticipated discrimination, it is worth investigating how a broader contextual variable (i.e., workplace climate) moderates the relationship between a sexual minority employee's decision to disclose their identity and resulting work satisfaction.

The Present Study

The purpose of the present study is to understand how a sexual minority's workplace climate, conceptualized as a background contextual affordance from SCCT's self-management model, affects the relationship between an individual's decision to disclose their sexual minority identity and their resulting work satisfaction, while simultaneously accounting for factors that precipitate the decision to disclose a minority sexual identity (i.e., self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations). Using SCCT's self-management model (Lent & Brown, 2013), the following hypotheses have been developed (see Figure 1 for a visual representation of all hypotheses):

1. Workplace environments perceived as more affirming of sexual minority identities 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).

2. 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).

3. 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).

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 greater work satisfaction (Paths 6 and 7, respectively).

5. Consistent with past sexual identity management literature (e.g., Velez et al., 2013; Waldo, 1999), an employee's disclosure status will have a direct relationship with work satisfaction (Path 8).

6. In line with results reported by Prati and Pietrantoni (2014), more affirming workplace climates will moderate the relationship between an employee's disclosure status and work satisfaction (Path 9) such that a sexual minority employee who has disclosed their identity within a more affirming workplace environment will report greater work satisfaction than a sexual minority employee who has not disclosed their sexual identity within a more affirming workplace environment (see Figure 2).

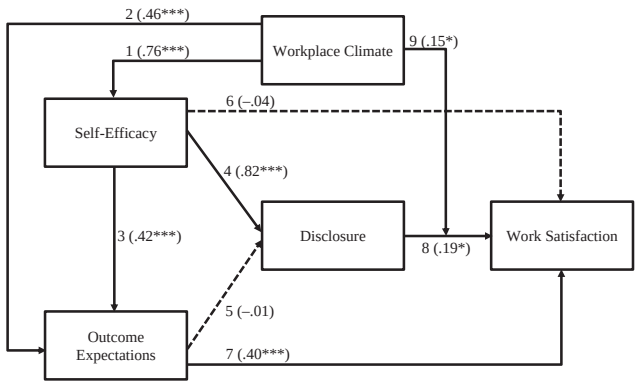

Figure 1. Social cognitive self-management model of identity disclosure and work satisfaction with standardized path coefficients. * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$.

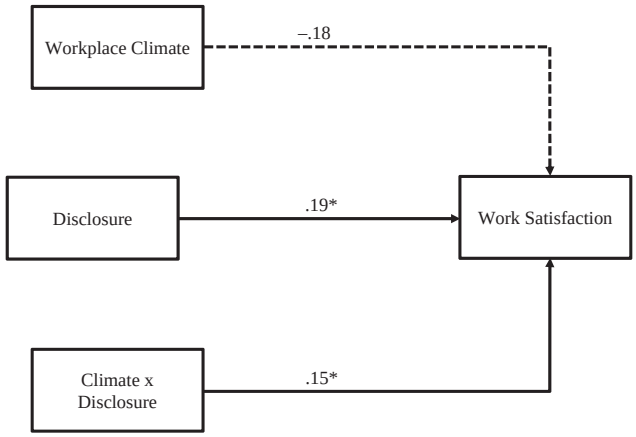

Figure 2. Moderation effect of workplace climate and sexual identity disclosure on work satisfaction with standardized path coefficients. * $p < .05$.

Method

Participants

In the present study, a *sexual minority employee* is defined as someone who identifies with a sexual orientation other than heterosexual who is presently used part-time (less than 30 hr per week) or full-time (30 hr or greater per week). Therefore, the inclusion criteria were as follows: (a) the participant identifies as a sexual minority and (b) the participant is presently used in either part-time or full-time work. To reflect the cultural values of the United States, additional inclusion criteria are (c) the participant resides in the United States and (d) 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.

The sample consisted of 214 participants who completed an online survey. 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, nonbinary), 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: high school diploma or GED (12.6%), some college or an associate's degree (7.9%), a 4-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%), and $100,001–250,000 (11.2%). Participants reported residing in 32 of the 50 United States, plus the District of Columbia. Most participants resided in Illinois (38%), Virginia (17%), Nebraska (7%), California (4%), and Georgia (4%).

Procedure

This study was approved by the Loyola University Chicago Institutional Review Board. 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 used sexual minorities residing in the United States. 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. To incentivize potential participants, a total of five $20.00 Amazon gift cards were randomly raffled to participants who completed the study. Participants entered the raffle by providing their e-mail address, which was stored in a database separate from the participant's responses to protect participant confidentiality. All instruments administered in the current study were presented in the order listed below.

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, annual income, and state of residence. Participants were also asked to provide qualitative data indicating their present occupation.

Index of Job Satisfaction. Work satisfaction was assessed with a five item-version of the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) Index of Job Satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Participants were asked to rate each statement on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job" and "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work." Scores on the Index of Job Satisfaction were calculated by averaging the responses for all items. Judge and colleagues (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). Among a sample of 171 sexual minority employees, Allan et al. (2015) reported strong internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .90) in addition to evidence of convergent validity with an affirmative workplace climate ($r = .35$) and life satisfaction ($r = .58$). Cronbach's alpha for the present sample was .87.

Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered Climate Inventory. The 20-item Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered Climate Inventory (LGBTCI; Liddle, Luzzo, Hauenstein, & Schuck, 2004) assesses the degree to which a sexual minority employee perceives their 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, kid-

ding them about a date)," and "The company or institution as a whole provides a supportive environment for LGBT people." Participants used a 4-point response scale when completing the questionnaire, ranging from 1 (*doesn't describe at all*) to 4 (*describes extremely well*). Six negatively worded items were reverse-scored, and these items were averaged together with the remaining 14 items to compute a total score (higher scores reflect a more affirming work environment toward sexual minority employees). Past studies have robust Cronbach's alpha estimates ranging from .95–.96 among samples of LGB and LGBT employees (Huffman, Watrous-Rodriguez, & King, 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.

Work Outness Inventory. Similar to Prati and Pietrantoni's (2014) previous approach using two items of Mohr and Fassinger's (2000) Outness Inventory to assess workplace disclosure (i.e., disclosure to work peers, disclosure to work supervisors), 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. 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 ranging from 1 (*not at all out*) to 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 management. 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 ($r = .42$) and Out to Religion subscale ($r = .41$) of the Outness Inventory, as well as negative correlations with three dimensions of the Lesbian & Gay Identity Scale: Need for Privacy ($r = –.54$), Need for Acceptance ($r = –.28$), and Homonegativity ($r = –.34$), 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.

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

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Workplace climate					
2. Self-efficacy	.76***				
3. Outcome expectations	.78***	.77***			
4. Disclosure status	.58***	.81***	.62***		
5. Work satisfaction	.14*	.20**	.29***	.23**	
M	3.23	4.13	4.02	3.90	3.81
SD	.62	.95	.71	1.20	.79
Possible range	1–4	1–5	1–5	1–5	1–5
Obtained range	1.10–4	1–5	1.21–5	1–5	1.40–5
α	.95	.96	.94	.85	.87

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

Workplace Sexual Identity Management Self-Efficacy Scale. The Workplace Sexual Identity Management Self-Efficacy Scale (WSIMSES; Tatum et al., 2017) is a 15-item measure 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 15 items drawn from Anderson and colleagues' (2001) Workplace Sexual Identity Management scale, and Button's (2001) measure assessing perceived organizational discrimination toward sexual minority employees. Participants were asked how confidently they believe they can perform 15 tasks in the workplace using a 5-point response scale, ranging from 1 (*no confidence*) to 5 (*very confident*). Sample items include, "correct others when they imply I am straight," and "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 average of all 15 items represented a participant's sexual identity management self-efficacy beliefs. Tatum et al. (2017) reported a Cronbach's alpha for their sample of .96, as well as a negative correlation with concealment motivation ($r = –.51$), providing evidence for the construct validity of the WSIMSES. Cronbach's alpha for the present sample was .96.

Workplace Sexual Identity Management Outcome Expectations. The Workplace Sexual Identity Management Outcome Expectations Scale (WSIMOES; Tatum et al., 2017), a 19-item measure constructed by Tatum and colleagues (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 5-point response scale, ranging from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 5 (*very likely*). Sample items 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 averaged to compute a total workplace sexual identity management positive outcome expectations score. Tatum and colleagues (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.

Data Analysis Plan

Model fit and path analysis. LISREL 9.2 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) using maximum likelihood estimation was used to test the proposed SCCT self-management model. Fit indices chosen to evaluate the model included the Satorra-Benter chi-square test to adjust for multivariate nonnormality (Bryant & Satorra, 2012), Hu and Bentler's (1999) two-index criteria consisting of the confirmatory fit index (CFI) and standardized root-mean-residual (SRMR), the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and nonnormed fit index (NNFI). All fit indices were compared with acceptable thresholds defined by past literature (e.g., Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Weston & Gore, 2006). Specifically, RMSEA and SRMR values below .05, a CFI value above .97, and an NNFI value above .95 would indicate acceptable model fit. Finally, standardized path coefficients were examined for statistical significance to test all hypotheses in the present study.

Bootstrap analyses. Because all of the hypotheses examine direct effects among observed variables, exploratory analyses were conducted to examine potentially mediating indirect effects. Fourteen mediation models were examined using 5,000 bootstrap samples. Because of the large number of analyses conducted, bias-corrected 99% confidence intervals (CIs) of the parameter estimates were used to assess significance of indirect effects (as opposed to 95%). When analyzing bootstrap results, outcomes are interpreted as significant if the confidence intervals do not include zero (Mooney & Duval, 1993; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to examining the study's hypotheses, remaining data were checked for missing values. Two hundred and 99 participants began taking the survey, but 85 of these participants were missing more than 20% of item-level data as a result of closing the survey window before finishing the study and therefore removed from analysis. Only four individual survey items among the remaining 214 participants were left blank, and Little's missing completely at random test revealed there was no pattern to these missing items, $\chi^2(252, N = 214) = 268.01$, $p = .23$. Following recommendations by Schlomer, Bauman, and Card (2010), the estimation maximization method was used to substitute missing values for estimated values based on a participant's responses to other items in the same inventory. Chi-square tests of skewness and kurtosis were conducted for all observed variables to assess whether the data met assumptions for univariate and multivariate normality underlying the maximum estimation likelihood method. Significant results for each test of univariate normality indicated univariate nonnormality, $\chi^2(2, N = 214) = 25.93–44.72$, $p < .001$, thereby also suggesting multivariate nonnormality as a result of each univariate test failing to return a nonsignificant result (Kline, 2012). The sample size of 214 participants exceeded the minimum suggested sample size of 100 participants, assuming 10 cases per unique path (i.e., nine paths depicted in Figure 1, plus one additional unique path depicted in Figure 2; Quintana & Maxwell, 1999).

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.

Model Fit and Path Analysis

The present moderated mediation model demonstrated a strong fit to the data, $\chi^2(4, N = 214) = 2.41$, $p = .52$, RMSEA = .03 (90% CI [.00, .11]), SRMR = .01, CFI = 1.00, NNFI = 1.00. This model accounted for 57% of the variance in disclosure self-efficacy, 68% of the variance in outcome expectations, 66% of the variance in disclosure, and 12% of the variance in work satisfaction. 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 1. The present model supported Hypothesis 2; 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, $B = .42$, $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 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, $B = .40$, $p < .001$, but an employee's self-efficacy for disclosing a minority sexual identity at work did not predict work satisfaction, $B = –.04$, $p > .05$. Hypothesis 5 was supported in the present study as evidenced by disclosure predicting work satisfaction in the present model, $B = .19$, $p < .05$.

To test Hypothesis 6, a mean-centered product term of workplace climate and disclosure was created. The workplace climate by disclosure interaction variable was significantly related to work satisfaction, $B = .15$, $p < .05$, indicating moderation. The positive coefficient suggests that as levels of affirmative workplace climate rise, the positive relationship between disclosure and work satisfaction becomes even stronger. This finding provides support for Hypothesis 6. Further, as part of the requirement for moderation testing, a direct path from workplace climate to work satisfaction was examined (see Figure 2). This path was nonsignificant, $B = –.18$, $p > .05$, providing evidence of full mediation.

Bootstrap Analyses

Bootstrap procedures (5,000 bootstrap samples, bias-corrected percentiles) were used to test 14 indirect effects (Mooney & Duval, 1993; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Because of the large number of analyses, outcomes are interpreted as significant if the 99% 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 99% CIs consist of the unstandardized path coefficients.

As seen in Table 2, there were five significant indirect effects within the broader model (βs = .17–1.28, bs = .17–1.27). Disclosure self-efficacy mediated the relationship between workplace climate and disclosure, as well as between workplace climate and outcome expectations. Similarly, outcome expectations mediated the relationship between workplace climate and work satisfaction, as well as between disclosure self-efficacy and works satisfaction. Both disclosure self-efficacy and outcome expectations served as multiple mediators in the relationship between workplace climate and work satisfaction.

Post Hoc Moderation Analysis

Hayes' (2013) PROCESS was used to assess the relationship between an employee's disclosure and work satisfaction at varying levels of workplace climate using a simple slopes analysis with mean-centered terms. PROCESS divided participants into three groups based on the value of the moderating variable workplace climate. For participants used in a nonaffirming workplace climate (i.e., the value of workplace climate was no greater than one standard deviation below the mean), there was no relationship between an employee's level of disclosure and work satisfaction, $t(210) = 1.44$, $p > .05$. Among participants with a workplace

Table 2
Bootstrap Analysis of Magnitude and Statistical Significance of Indirect Effects

Indirect effect	β (standardized path coefficient and product)	Mean indirect effect (*b*)	*SE* of mean	99% CI of bootstrap correction for mean indirect effect
1. Climate → Self Eff. → Out. Exp. → Disclosure → Work satisfaction	1.17 × .31 × .06 × .11 = .00	.00	.01	–.011, .031
2. Climate → Self Eff. → Disclosure → Work satisfaction	1.17 × 1.09 × .11 = .14	.14	.10	−.099, .441
3. Climate → Self Eff. → Work satisfaction	1.17 × –.09 = –.11	–.11	.15	−.517, .269
4. Climate → Out. Exp. → Disclosure → Work satisfaction	.53 × .06 × .11 = .00	.00	.01	–.015, .049
5. Climate → Out. Exp. → Work satisfaction	**.53 × .47 = .25**	**.25**	**.08**	**.072, .497***
6. Climate → Self Eff. → Out. Exp. → Work satisfaction	**1.17 × .31 × .47 = .17**	**.17**	**.07**	**.040, .388***
7. Climate → Self Eff. → Out. Exp. → Disclosure	1.17 × .31 × .06 = .02	.02	.05	−.107, .159
8. Climate → Self Eff. → Disclosure	**1.17 × 1.09 = 1.28**	**1.27**	**.15**	**.893, 1.693***
9. Climate → Out. Exp. → Disclosure	.53 × .06 = .03	.03	.07	−.125, .227
10. Climate → Self Eff. → Out. Exp.	**1.17 × .31 = .36**	**.36**	**.07**	**.182, .571***
11. Self Eff. → Out. Exp. → Disclosure → Work satisfaction	.57 × –.02 × .12 = .00	.00	.01	−.042, .021
12. Self Eff. → Out. Exp. → Work satisfaction	**.57 × .37 = .21**	**.21**	**.07**	**.036, .401***
13. Self Eff. → Disclosure → Work satisfaction	1.04 × .12 = .12	.13	.08	−.054, .368
14. Out. Exp. → Disclosure → Work satisfaction	1.05 × .05 = .05	.05	.06	−.120, .221

Note. $N = 214$. CI = confidence interval; Self Eff. = disclosure self-efficacy; Out. Exp. = disclosure outcome expectations. Bold type indicates that indirect effects were significant.
* $p < .01$.

climate within one standard deviation of the mean in either direction, each full point increase in disclosure yielded an increase in work satisfaction by .18 points, $t(210) = 2.57$, $p = .01$. Similarly, participants working in an affirmative climate (i.e., at least one standard deviation above the mean) reported a positive relationship between disclosure status and work satisfaction such that each full point increase in disclosure yielded an increase in work satisfaction by .26 points, $t(210) = 2.60$, $p = .01$.

Discussion

Results support 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 relationship between a sexual minority's workplace climate and work satisfaction. If a sexual minority person feels supported by their coworkers 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 (Rummell & Tokar, 2016; Tatum et al., 2017) highlighting the mediating role of outcome expectations between sexual identity management self-efficacy and resulting outcome variables. Although 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. An examination of the five significant indirect effects provides further support for SCCT's self-management model as evidenced by disclosure self-efficacy and outcome expectations serving as significant mediators between the study's background contextual affordance (i.e., workplace climate) and outcome variables (i.e., disclosure and work satisfaction).

In testing workplace climate as a moderator, the direct effect of workplace climate on work satisfaction was nonsignificant. Similar to the implications of the significant indirect effects, this finding provides additional support for SCCT's constructs of self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations fully mediating the relationship between background contextual affordances and outcome variables. In addition, although the direct effect of workplace climate on work satisfaction was nonsignificant, the direction of the relationship was negative, contrary to the direction of the bivariate relationship between these constructs ($r = .14$). The marked difference in directionality is similar to the suppression effect observed by Tatum and colleagues (2017) in analyzing the influence of workplace climate on disclosure status. In relation to the present study, it is possible the bivariate relationship between workplace climate 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 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 nonaffirming 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, bivariate results indicate low levels of disclosure are associated with lower work satisfaction, regardless of workplace climate. Further, the positive relationship between an

employee's disclosure and work satisfaction becomes even stronger in the presence of more affirming work environments.

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 work satisfaction. The present study builds off of their results by introducing the moderation of an individual's workplace climate between an employee's sexual minority disclosure and work satisfaction. The moderation result corroborates Prati and Pietrantoni's (2014) findings of anticipated discrimination moderating the relationship between both sexual minority employees' disclosure and work satisfaction, and a nonaffirming workplace climate and work satisfaction. However, unlike Prati and Pietrantoni's (2014) study, the present study observed a background contextual affordance (i.e., workplace climate) as opposed to a proximal minority stressor (i.e., anticipated discrimination) as the moderator, providing support for workplace nondiscrimination policies.

The presence of moderation also directly addresses the ambiguous results reported by Tatum and colleagues (2017) documenting a positive correlation ($r = .38$) 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 ($r = .58$) between workplace climate and disclosure status, perhaps as the result of using 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. Although 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, Singh, & Cornwell, 2007). These workplace climate findings demonstrate the importance of studying inclusive workplace policies that promote sexual minority satisfaction. In essence, a more affirming 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's (2013) SCCT self-management model served as a framework for examining unique psychosocial processes that facilitate career development. The present study provides continued support for using SCCT's self-management model to investigate the adaptive nature of workplace sexual identity management, building off of similar previous efforts (Rummell & Tokar, 2016; 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 et al., 2008; Westover, Westover, & Westover, 2010).

Limitations and Future Directions

This study's contributions are not without limitations. First, over 60% of participants were male, 87% of participants identified as White, and the sample was not nationally representative of the general population. Although 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 used 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). The lack of validity check items in the present study may have also suppressed effect sizes. 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.

The method of data collection poses another limitation. Although 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 using other forms of data collection (e.g., in-person collaboration with community resources). In addition, because some of the instruments used in this study were either developed fairly recently (i.e., WSIMSES, WSIMOES) or were adapted from a previous measure (i.e., Outness Inventory), future studies conducting factor analyses with much larger samples hold the potential for advancing the psychological measurement of workplace sexual identity management. Finally, because of the cross-sectional design of the present study, longitudinal studies examining workplace disclosure may address gaps in the literature by drawing causal inferences between sexual identity management strategies. Such longitudinal research may also filter out significant indirect effects observed in this study as a result of shared variance among cross-sectional data.

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. Although 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's (2003) 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 to achieve work satisfaction.

Implications for Counseling

Results suggest both microlevel and macrolevel 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. For example, such advocacy could be highly beneficial for sexual minority individuals living in any of the U.S. states that currently do not prohibit workplace discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity (Human Rights Campaign, 2018). 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 nonaffirmative workplaces and providing empathic support for clients who perceive their work environment as hostile toward their sexual identity. In addition, 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.

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Received September 18, 2017
Revision received February 2, 2018
Accepted February 5, 2018 ■