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The Role of Gender Nonconformity

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Alexander Anglberger BSc

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Univ.-Prof. i.R. Dr. Christian Korunka

Abstract

Lesbian, gay, bisexual or other sexual minority (LGB) people frequently make decisions about concealing or disclosing their stigmatized identity. The degree of how supportive or hostile an LGB employee's workplace climate is, has been shown to be associated with this decision. Gender nonconforming behaviour has been linked with increased disclosure, in part because gender nonconforming people are likely to be "suspected" of being LGB. The present study examined if gender nonconformity moderates the association between workplace climate and disclosure. Concealment is associated with low job satisfaction, in part due to minority stress, the unique stress experienced by having to hide a stigmatised identity. Since gender nonconformity was hypothesised to increase the stressfulness of concealment, the study examined if gender nonconformity moderates the association between concealment and job satisfaction. The study consisted of an online survey, examining in total $n = 228$ German-speaking, LGB adults. To test the main hypotheses, multiple regression with moderation was used. No moderating effects of gender nonconformity were observed. Positive associations between workplace climate and disclosure and negative associations between concealment and limited aspects of job satisfaction were found. Replicative associations were found between disclosure and well-being as well as between workplace climate, job satisfaction and well-being. Gender nonconformity was found to be associated with worse well-being in cisgender men. The study demonstrated that the disclosure decision in the workplace is still not fully understood. Promising directions for further studies were highlighted.

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Zusammenfassung

Personen, die sich als homosexuell, bisexuell oder eine andere sexuelle Minderheit identifizieren (LGB-Personen), stehen häufig vor der Entscheidung, ihre stigmatisierte Identität offenzulegen oder zu verbergen. Wie sehr unterstützend oder hostile das Arbeitsplatzklima für LGB-Mitarbeitende ist, hängt mit dieser Entscheidung zusammen. Geschlechtsnonkonformes Verhalten wird mit erhöhter Offenlegung in Verbindung gebracht, teilweise weil geschlechtsnonkonforme Personen häufiger „verdächtig“ werden, LGB zu sein. Die vorgelegte Studie hat untersucht, ob Geschlechtsnonkonformität die Beziehung zwischen Arbeitsplatzklima und Offenlegung moderiert. Das Verbergen der sexuellen Orientierung ist mit niedriger Arbeitszufriedenheit assoziiert, teilweise aufgrund des Stresses, der durch das Verstecken der stigmatisierten Identität entsteht, dem sogenannten Minderheitenstress. Da angenommen wurde, dass Geschlechtsnonkonformität den Stress durch Verbergen erhöht, untersuchte die Studie, ob Geschlechtsnonkonformität den Zusammenhang zwischen Verbergen und Arbeitszufriedenheit moderiert. Die Studie wurde als Online-Befragung mit insgesamt $n = 228$ deutschsprachigen, erwachsenen LGB-Personen durchgeführt. Zur Überprüfung der Hypothesen wurden moderierte multiple Regressionen verwendet. Es wurden keine moderierenden Effekte von Geschlechtsnonkonformität festgestellt. Zwischen Arbeitsplatzklima und Offenlegung zeigten sich positive Korrelationen, sowie negative Korrelationen zwischen Verbergen und limitierten Aspekten von Arbeitszufriedenheit. Replizierende Assoziationen wurden zwischen Offenlegung und Wohlbefinden, sowie zwischen Arbeitsplatzklima, Arbeitszufriedenheit und Wohlbefinden gefunden. Bei cisgender Männern war Geschlechtsnonkonformität mit geringerem Wohlbefinden assoziiert. Die Studie konnte zeigen, dass die Entscheidung zur Offenlegung von sexueller Orientierung am Arbeitsplatz noch nicht vollständig verstanden wird. Vielversprechende Richtungen für zukünftige Forschung wurden hervorgehoben.

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Theoretical Background

People who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual or as another sexual minority, in the following work referred to as LGB people, are often faced with a choice in the workplace as in many other life domains. To tell other people about their sexual orientation, come “out of the closet”, or to keep it a secret (Lindsey et al., 2020). Several internal and external factors examined in the further paragraphs are associated with this choice.

LGB people are a significant and growing part of the population and workforce. Estimates vary considerably across different surveys. According to surveys including transgender individuals, openly LGBT people make up 2.7% of the adult population of OECD countries. A number which is predicted to rise, as already 8.2% of millennials (born between 1980 and 1999) identify as LGBT (OECD, 2019). More current estimations can be drawn from the EU Loneliness Survey that examined 25646 respondents across all EU member states in 2022. On average 6,1% of EU residents identify as LGB. The proportion of LGB people younger than 30 years was 12,5%. In Austria, on average 8% identify as LGB (Berlingieri & Kovacic, 2025).

Being lesbian, gay, bisexual or any other sexual minority carries a stigma (McCrone, 2018). How to openly or discreetly deal with an LGB identity in regard other people requires careful consideration, in order to avoid facing judgement, being evaluated negatively or being discriminated against (Hoel, et al., 2021). As a result, LGB people regularly have to make decisions, whether to disclose or conceal, to whom, when and how. The different strategies are described in identity management literature (Velez et al., 2013).

Disclosure

One identity management strategy is *disclosure*. Disclosing one’s orientation in the workplace is colloquially known as “coming out of the closet” or simply “coming out”. It can range from actively telling coworkers and supervisors, to just being truthful when asked about ones sexual orientation (Anderson et al., 2001). Some might decide to only disclose to certain colleagues or supervisors and not others, while others may tell everyone (Williamson et al., 2017). It is not an all-or-nothing phenomenon, but rather occurs on a spectrum from full disclosure to complete concealment (Ragins, 2008). Disclosure can often be beneficial, for the person as well as their workplace. It is associated with higher well-being, in the form of high life satisfaction (Lindsey et al., 2020), high self-esteem and low depression (Beals et al., 2009). In the workplace, disclosure is associated with higher job satisfaction (Tatum,

2018; Williamson et al., 2017) less job anxiety (Griffith & Hebl, 2002) and more trust in the work team and commitment (Caylor et al., 2024).

The strategy of disclosing the sexual orientation in the workplace is characterized as *integrating* the sexual minority identity into the workplace by Button (2004). Creating congruence between one's private- and public identity and being authentic to one's true self are described as important motivating factors for disclosure (Luhtanen, 2002). The feeling of high authenticity as a result of disclosing has been shown to be associated with increased well-being and decreased perceived stress (Riggle et al., 2017).

LGB people may use differing strategies across their life domains, e.g. disclose to their family and friends but conceal at work, or vice versa (Lindsey et al., 2020). Previous experiences with disclosure in one life domain can influence other domains. Thuillier et al. (2022) found that negative disclosure experiences with friends can negatively affect the degree of disclosure at work. There is evidence that congruence in the degree of disclosure between different life domains is beneficial. Ragins (2008) proposed that “disclosure disconnects”, different degrees of disclosure across life domains, especially between work and non-work contexts, would lead to negative well-being outcomes. Lindsey et al. (2020) found that individuals who disclosed only at work, but not in private contexts, had lower life satisfaction than those that did not disclose at all. Those that disclosed in all contexts had the highest degree of life satisfaction.

Discrimination

However, being openly LGB carries the risk of experiencing discrimination. Around one third of LGB people in OECD countries in 2012 reported being discriminated against because of their sexuality. In Austria, around 45% of homosexuals reported experiencing discrimination, among the highest in the OECD, next to Estonia, Greece and Hungary (OECD, 2019).

In the European Union there are extensive legal protections in place against discrimination based on sexual orientation in the workplace. The EU-Directive 2000/78/EC forbids any discrimination based on sexual orientation in employment and occupation (as well as discrimination based on sex, race, colour, ethnic or social origin, genetic features, language, religion or belief, political or any other opinion, membership of a national minority, property, birth, disability and age). The directive bans discrimination in all working

conditions, including recruitment, promotion, termination, training, retraining, salary as well as job postings (Council Directive 2000/78/EC, 2000).

However, even the rather extensive workplace anti-discrimination laws are not able to prevent it altogether. According to a survey by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (2013), 21% of respondents in Austria and Germany felt that in the last 12 months, they were being discriminated against at work or when looking for a job. The EU-average being 20%. LGB people who disclose are less satisfied with their pay (Drydakis, 2012; Ellis & Riggle, 1996) and openly gay and bisexual men earn less than their heterosexual counterparts (Drydakis, 2022a). In a field-experiment by Drydakis (2022b) in Greece, openly gay male applicants were 30,4% less likely to be invited to a job interview, compared to equally qualified heterosexual men. Furthermore, LGB employees are more likely to be bullied in the workplace (Hoel, et al., 2021).

The positive effects of disclosure can be diminished, if discrimination is experienced. LGB people who experience discrimination in the workplace report less job satisfaction (Velez et al., 2013), organisational commitment and higher turnover intentions (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001).

Concealment

Given the potential risks of disclosing, one might prefer to “stay in the closet” and *conceal* one’s sexual orientation. LGB people sometimes use concealment in order to cope with-, or avoid negative consequences (Bowleg et al., 2008; Goh et al., 2019). This identity management strategy is however also associated with unique challenges and disadvantages.

As described by Button (2004), concealing incorporates two distinct identity management strategies, *counterfeiting* and *avoiding*. A person using the strategy of avoiding, may change the topic when dates or relationships come up in conversations, evading the topic of sexuality altogether, and steer the conversation away from themselves. Individuals who counterfeit on the other hand, construct a false heterosexual identity to hide their sexual orientation. This may include talking about a fictional date with someone from the opposite sex, inventing a heterosexual relationship or changing the pronouns when talking of an actual relationship, in order to appear heterosexual (Button, 2004).

On top of missing out on the positive effects of disclosure, there are unique disadvantages associated with concealment. In the workplace, concealing one’s sexual

orientation has been found to be associated with psychological distress and lower job satisfaction (Velez et al., 2013). LGB people who conceal, show reduced feelings of belonging in the workplace, in part because of feelings of inauthenticity (Newheiser & Barreto, 2014). In general, concealment is associated with low well-being, high depressiveness and high perceived stress (Riggle et al., 2017).

While concealment might in some cases be a viable option in order to avoid discrimination (Drydakis, 2022b; Hoel, et al., 2021), the literature points to disclosure being the more stable and healthy identity management strategy in general (Riggle et al., 2017; Velez et al., 2013).

Minority stress

A mechanism to explain the various positive and negative outcomes of disclosure and concealment is *minority stress* theory, first proposed by Meyer (1995). It describes the unique and chronic stressors faced by people with a stigmatised identity that is largely invisible, especially LGB people in a *heterosexist* environment. The four distinct stressors identified by Meyer are experiences of discrimination, expectations of rejection, internalized heterosexism, and concealment of sexual minority identity (Meyer, 2003).

Heterosexism can be defined as an ideology in which heterosexuality is not only the norm but LGB identity and same-sex romantic and sexual behaviour is deprecated. LGB individuals can be subject to hostility such as homophobia, discrimination, prejudice and stereotypes (Hebl et al., 2010). The heterosexist environment can be conceptualised as society as a whole (Meyer, 2003) or as a smaller, specific context, such as the workplace (Velez et al., 2013).

Discriminatory events as conceptualised by Meyer, (2003) might include, but are not limited to experiencing violence, being threatened, called a slur or excluded from activities because of one's sexual orientation. In the workplace, examples for discrimination include getting passed over for a promotion, receiving less mentorship or lower pay because of one's sexuality. The second facet of minority stress, expecting rejection is described as being vigilant about possibly experiencing prejudice and anticipating being rejected for one's sexual orientation. For example, an LGB employee might expect a negative reaction from their coworkers when disclosing their orientation to them. In the third facet, internalized heterosexism, societal prejudices and heterosexist views are internalised and become a negative self-image. Concealment is defined as a unique facet of minority stress. Lying about

one's sexual orientation or avoiding the topic altogether, being vigilant as not to reveal one's true identity are stressful actions, needed in order to hide the stigmatised sexual orientation (Meyer, 2003). While disclosure of sexual orientation carries the risk of becoming the target of more direct discrimination, concealment is uniquely stressful because of the effort of hiding-, and not being true to one's actual identity (Velez et al., 2013).

The first proposed outcome of high minority stress was negative mental health outcomes as a result of the stressful internal and external experiences with heterosexism (Meyer, 2003). Since then, the model has been expanded, and studies have shown a range of negative personal and workplace related outcomes. Minority stress was indeed found to be associated with negative mental health outcomes (Sattler et al., 2016), psychological distress (Velez et al., 2013), and depression (Arbona & Jimenez, 2014). LGB people that face high minority stress have more physical health problems, higher rates of smoking and are lonelier (Berlingieri & Kovacic, 2025). In the workplace, high minority stress is associated with higher turnover intention, high absenteeism (Waldo, 1999) high psychological distress and low job satisfaction (Velez et al., 2013).

LGB people that enjoy a good social support system can avoid some of the negative impact of minority stress. Social support is negatively associated with minority stress and the resulting mental health problems (Sattler et al., 2016).

Workplace climate

A model that encompasses both heterosexist hostility and support for LGB people in the workplace is the *Climate for lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered* [sic!] *employees*, by Liddle et al. (2004). It includes actions from coworkers, superiors or the whole organisation that function to include or exclude LGBT employees from interpersonal connections or professional opportunities. Supportive workplace climates are characterised as environments where LGBT employees are treated with tolerance and equal to their heterosexual counterparts. The focus is not on special or better treatment but having the same opportunities, professionally and socially, as heterosexual coworkers (Liddle et al., 2004). It has been shown that diversity policies promoting equality are more successful at creating a supportive environment, compared to policies that sequester LGBT employees and focus on different treatment, such as LGBT-only spaces (Köllen, 2016). Workplaces with a hostile climate are conceptualised as offering worse career opportunities, little social acceptance and an oppressive atmosphere for LGBT employees (Liddle et al., 2004). Since the model

includes transgender individuals, workplace climate is referred to as *LGBT workplace climate* throughout the paper, while the focus remains on the sexual orientation of individuals, referred to as LGB people, LGB employees or LGB individuals, regardless of gender identity.

Workplace climate and disclosure

The connection between LGBT workplace climate and LGB employee's rates of disclosure has been subject to several studies, with diverse outcomes. Reed and Leuty (2016) found LGBT workplace climate to be positively associated with disclosure and negatively associated with concealment. They assessed disclosure and concealment as two distinct variables, as opposed to two ends of the same spectrum. Thuillier et al., (2022) found the same positive association between LGBT workplace climate and disclosure, with climate on a continuous scale from hostile to supportive climate.

In a study by Holman et al. (2022), the authors also considered supportive and hostile climate as two distinct categories, rather than two ends on a spectrum. Parts of their findings were in line with the previously mentioned studies, showing a positive association of supportive climates with disclosure. However, they found hostile climates to be also associated with more disclosure, which was the opposite of their hypothesis. Based on the presented theoretical framework, this finding seems counterintuitive, LGB people being more likely to disclose their identity, the more hostile the workplace is to that identity. Since the study is correlative, the reverse interpretation, that workplace climate worsened as a result of disclosure, would be possible. Ragins et al., (2007) found similar, seemingly counterintuitive results. Respondents with increased recalled past discrimination also showed increased disclosure, even though they had worse outcome expectations of said disclosure. Since the discrimination was retrospectively recalled and assessed cross-sectionally, there is not sufficient evidence to assume a causal effect of hostility on disclosure.

A qualitative study by Ueno et al., (2025) examined disclosure and climate longitudinally. The authors conducted interviews with 36 young LGB adults in 2011/2012 and again in 2018. Disclosure was consistently connected to organisational and social workplace structures. Many of the participants attributed their increased disclosure to a more supportive workplace climate. However, some participants disclosed consistently, even in hostile climates.

A meta-analysis by Webster et al. (2018) found a strong positive association between positive LGBT workplace climate and disclosure. Disclosure and concealment were

considered as a single variable. All the 12 included studies found a positive association. Some of the aggregated studies did not use the LGBT Climate Inventory by Liddle et al. (2004), but constructs that are partly contained in the LGBT Climate Inventory or closely related, such as scales of social support (Griffith & Hebl, 2002), measures of organisational policies & practices (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001), or the Organizational Tolerance for Heterosexism Inventory (OTHI) (Waldo, 1999).

The majority of studies show that a supportive LGBT workplace climate is associated with increased disclosure (Webster et al., 2018). In some cases and often unexpectedly, a hostile LGBT workplace climate is associated with increased disclosure (Holman et al., 2022; Ragins et al., 2007).

In addition to its association with disclosure of sexual orientation, LGBT workplace climate affects important organisational and personal outcomes for LGB employees. It has been shown to be positively associated with well-being (Allan et al., 2015) and job satisfaction (Liddle et al., 2004; Tatum, 2018). Before the model of LGBT workplace climate emerged, Griffith and Hebl (2002) found a similar connection between perceived employer LGBT-supportiveness and higher job satisfaction, as well as lower job anxiety. Furthermore, social support, not limited to the workplace but in all life domains, is associated with higher life satisfaction (Beals et al., 2009).

Job Satisfaction

How people evaluate their occupation and workplace is an important metric, both for individuals and organisations. It is related to many other job attitudes and organisational outcomes, such as task performance, absenteeism, turnover intention, counterproductive work behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviour, and organizational profitability (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). There is a broad range of tangible and intangible aspects of workplaces that impact the employees satisfaction, such as compensation, benefits, or the relationship with supervisors and colleagues (Judge et al., 2020). Most of the workplace aspects can be classified as demands or resources, according to the *Job Demands-Resources* model by Bakker and Demerouti (2007). They posit that job aspects that require sustained psychological effort and are demanding and stressful, are associated with certain psychological costs, such as job strain and decreased employee well-being. Job resources on the other hand, are classified as psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job, that help in achieving work goals, reducing job demands or stimulating personal growth.

They are associated with job motivation. Job demands and resources being out of balance can lead to negative organisational and personal outcomes, such as decreased employee well-being or burnout.

Job demands can also be relevant for other life domains, as negative straining experiences at work, can “spill-over” into private life, and even “cross-over” to other family members, leading to decreased well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2019). There is evidence that concealing a sexual orientation might be a unique work demand. Williamson et al., (2017) found that lower levels of disclosure were associated with higher work-family conflict in same-sex couples and lower levels of the partners family satisfaction, demonstrating the spillover and crossover effect with concealment.

Personal Factors

Up to this point, organisational antecedents and outcomes of the decision between identity management strategies have been discussed. In addition, personal factors can also play a role in this decision for LGB people.

Identity centrality

Identity centrality refers to how important or central a certain identity feature is to one’s self-concept. In the context of sexual identity management, it refers to how central one’s sexual orientation is to overall identity (Griffith & Hebl, 2002). Already Meyer (2003) hypothesised that the degree of how prominent the identity is, could affect minority stress processes. Holman et al. (2022) showed that it plays a role in the connection between climate and disclosure. Individuals high in identity centrality were more “sensitive” to climate in regard to their degree of concealment to workplace supervisors. In supportive climates, they were much more likely to disclose to supervisors, compared to those with low identity centrality. As mentioned previously, against the authors hypotheses, hostile workplace climates were associated with increased disclosure. This relationship was significantly stronger for those with high identity centrality. They showed significantly more disclosure in high hostility climates, compared to individuals with low identity centrality (Holman et al., 2022).

Gender nonconformity

An additional personal facet that is associated with identity management is gender nonconformity. It can be defined as someone’s behaviours, appearance or interests not

conforming to societies expectation of their gender identity. Often they consist of characteristics that are usually considered to be part of a different gender identity, for example a man speaking in a high pitched voice, or a woman wearing a suit to a wedding (Thoma et al., 2021). These gender expression roles and what constitutes traditionally masculine or feminine behaviours, appearance or interests are influenced by culture and can be subject to change over time. For example, while wearing a skirt would be considered as gender nonconforming for men in most of the western world, wearing a kilt is considered masculine and a part of the gender role for men in Scotland for formal occasions (Neculăesei, 2015).

The belief that LGB people overwhelmingly behave in a gender nonconforming way is also called the inversion stereotype. LGB men are believed to be more feminine than heterosexual men and LGB women are believed to be more masculine than heterosexual women (Kite & Deaux, 1987). Stereotypes specific to women are attributed to LGB men and those specific to men are attributed to LGB women (Klysing et al., 2021). The inversion theory belief is pervasive, especially in the western world. People believe that they can accurately guess someone's sexuality based on their behaviour (Rees-Turyn et al., 2008). This belief is not only limited to heterosexuals. In a study by Fasoli et al. (2018), the researchers showed that LGB people that rate their own voice to be gender nonconforming, are more likely to believe that they have a "gay-voice" that reveals their sexuality, compared to those with a gender conforming voice. LGB people that believe to have a gay-voice are more likely to anticipate rejection because of it (Fasoli et al., 2021). This anticipation is often not unwarranted, as heterosexist people's negative beliefs and stereotypes about LGB People have been shown to be overwhelmingly about their gender nonconformity (Massey, 2010).

There is evidence that gender nonconformity and LGB sexual orientation are related. When rating their femininity or masculinity and their interests, LGB people describe themselves as more gender nonconforming compared to heterosexual people (Lippa, 2005). LGB people are rated to behave more gender nonconforming in old home videos of when they were children, compared to heterosexual people (Rieger et al., 2008). While there is evidence that LGB people are more gender nonconforming on average, it is not as intensely and universally the case as suggested by the inversion stereotype (Rees-Turyn et al., 2008).

Gender nonconformity is associated with less concealment of sexual orientation. Thoma et al. (2021) showed this in a meta-analysis of thirteen studies that examined a

combined total of 8,091 participants. A longitudinal study by Pachankis et al. (2018) investigated the same connection over time, across eight years in the US, examining college age LGB men. Those that were more gender nonconforming, showed quicker reductions in concealment, meaning they disclosed their sexual orientation earlier, compared to gender conforming men.

Current Study

While gender nonconformity is an important factor in identity management, the interplay between workplace climate, disclosure and gender nonconformity has not yet been examined. The current study's primary aim is to accomplish this, in combination with the other related constructs identity centrality, job satisfaction and well-being. Gender nonconformity might serve as an explanation to the apparent phenomenon of hostile climate sometimes being associated with increased disclosure, as described by Thuillier et al. (2022) and found by Holman et al. (2022) and Ragins et al. (2007). The vast majority of research on identity management is conducted in the USA, with English speaking participants. The current study aims to examine established findings in a German speaking sample to increase their generalisability.

Gender nonconforming LGB people are less likely to conceal their sexual orientation compared to gender conforming LGB people (Pachankis et al., 2018; Thoma et al., 2021). They are more readily assumed to be LGB based on their behaviour, appearance or interests (Kite & Deaux, 1987). A gender nonconforming LGB person wanting to conceal successfully, in a workplace environment where the inversion stereotype is pervasive, needs to not only obscure their sexual orientation but a much broader part of their identity and personality (e.g. the way they would naturally speak). Negative stereotypes are an aspect of heterosexist environments (Hebl et al., 2010), so this should be more prominent in workplaces with hostile LGBT climates, compared to supportive LGBT climates.

The needed additional vigilance to conceal a broader part of their identity and personality should lead to increased minority stress (Meyer, 2003), and as a result worse well-being and organisational outcomes (Velez et al., 2013; Waldo, 1999). When considering whether to conceal or disclose, the trade-off of not disclosing to avoid discrimination in a hostile climate, might be less "worth it" for gender nonconforming individuals. Thus, a concealment focused identity management strategy might be less prevalent among gender nonconforming LGB employees, especially in workplaces with hostile climates.

This leads to the first research question. Do people high in gender nonconformity have higher rates of disclosure in negative climates compared to people low in gender nonconformity?

Hypothesis 1

The positive association between workplace climate and disclosure is hypothesised to be decreased with increases in gender nonconformity.

H1: LGBT workplace climate will be positively correlated to the degree of disclosure in the workplace. This association will be moderated by gender nonconformity.

In the presented study by Holman et al. (2022), *identity centrality* moderated the association between LGBT Climate and disclosure in a similar way to the moderation proposed here. If the hypothesised moderation effect of gender nonconformity is found, identity centrality will be added as a moderator to the analysis in a second step, to account for its effects and show the unique contribution of gender nonconformity.

Hypothesis 2

Concealing is associated with high minority stress (Meyer, 2003) and low job satisfaction (Velez et al., 2013). Do gender nonconforming people who conceal experience even more minority stress and lower job satisfaction, as a result of having to conceal their personality in addition to their sexuality?

Concealing LGB people with high rates of gender nonconformity are hypothesised to have increased minority stress, which is associated with worse organisational outcomes, compared to those low in gender nonconformity. The negative association between concealment and job satisfaction is hypothesised to be increased with increased gender nonconformity.

H2: The degree of concealment in the workplace will be negatively correlated to job satisfaction. This association will be moderated by gender nonconformity.

Hypothesis 3

Previous studies conducted in the USA have shown disclosure to be associated with increased well-being (Beals et al., 2009; Lindsey et al., 2020). It is hypothesised that the same association will be found in German-speaking sample.

H3: Disclosure in the workplace will be positively correlated with well-being.

Hypothesis 4

Previous studies conducted in the USA have shown positive workplace climate to be associated with job satisfaction (Liddle et al., 2004) and well-being (Allan et al., 2015). It is hypothesised that the same associations will be found in German-speaking sample.

H4a: LGBT workplace climate will be positively correlated with job satisfaction.

H4b: LGBT workplace climate will be positively correlated with well-being.

Method

To investigate the questions at hand and test the hypotheses, an online study was conducted. The sample consists of German speaking individuals, mainly from Austria, identifying as lesbian, gay, bisexual or any other sexual minority (e.g. queer, pansexual). They had to be at least 18 years old and in employment or working in some capacity. Using g*power (Faul et al., 2009), it was determined that for the intended analyses and effect sizes, there should be at least n=220 participants. To recruit participants, posters advertising the study were put up at several designated places at the University of Vienna. Approximately 200 small flyers were distributed at the Vienna Pride Parade 2024. Several LGBT-activist-organisations supported the recruitment effort and advertised the study to their members and followers via newsletters and social media posts. Also, personal networks (friends, family) were used to recruit participants. The data collection started on 08. June 2024 and was stopped on 20. August 2024, as the required number of participants was reached.

Upon visiting the studies website, participants were first informed about the inclusion and exclusion criteria (18 years old, non-heterosexual, employed or working in some capacity), the contents of the study and how long it would take to participate. They were assured that their participation is voluntary and could be stopped at any time without any consequences and that the study is completely anonymous, as no personal identifiable data was collected.

The informed consent form included that the study was part of a master's thesis at the Institute for Occupational, Economic and Social Psychology at the University of Vienna. In order to take part in the study, participants had to confirm to have read and accepted the terms.

Sample

Overall, 267 individuals participated in the study. Those that did not complete the survey or meet all the sample criteria were excluded. Also, participants that identified as non-binary or similar had to be excluded, as the calculation of a GNC score requires a binary gender system. The study was initially available in English as well as German. Due to insufficient responses for the English version ($n = 12$), they were excluded from the analysis, to avoid confounding results due to translation or language differences, and to enable more precise inferences about the German speaking sample. In total, 39 cases were excluded. This leaves a final $n = 228$ for all analyses.

Describing their gender identity, 121 participants identified as cisgender-female (53,1%), 93 as cisgender-male (40,8%), 4 as transgender female (1,8%) and 10 as transgender male (4,4%). The average age of participants was 34 years old, the youngest being 18, the oldest 63 years old. Regarding sexual orientation, 134 identified as homosexual (58,8%), 44 as bisexual (19,3%), 29 as pansexual (12,7%), 16 as queer (7%), 4 as asexual (1,8%) and 1 as “without label” (0,4%). As their country of residence, 193 participants reported living in Austria (84,6%), 31 in Germany (13,6%) and four in other countries (1,8%).

Measures

LGBT Workplace Climate

To measure the participants workplace climate, the *Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered* [sic!] *Climate Inventory* (LGBTCL) was used (Liddle et al., 2004). It includes 20 items that measure the support or hostility towards LGBT-employees, for example “At my workplace, lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) employees are treated with respect.” In accordance with the source, a 4-point Likert response scale was used to rate the items, ranging from 1 (“doesn’t describe at all”) to 4 (“describes extremely well”). As “transgendered” is considered to be an outdated term (Merriam Webster, n.d.), it was changed to “transgender” in the questionnaire.

The measure showed an excellent internal consistency of $\alpha = .94$ and all items demonstrated appropriate discriminatory power, with corrected item-total correlations > 0.3 . The Inventories construct validity has been demonstrated, as it correlated negatively with a different measure of LGBT Workplace Discrimination (Liddle et al., 2004). An average score over all items was calculated to get a mean LGBT workplace climate score, with higher

values signifying a better, more supportive climate, and lower values a more hostile, heterosexist climate.

Job Satisfaction

To assess job satisfaction, the *Index of Job Satisfaction* was used (Judge et al., 1998). It includes five items, such as “I find real enjoyment in my work” and “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job”. Participants were instructed to rate each item on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). The measure showed a good internal consistency with $\alpha = .88$, and all items demonstrated appropriate discriminatory power, with corrected item-total correlations > 0.3 . The responses to the five items were averaged to calculate an overall job satisfaction score, with higher values signifying higher job satisfaction.

Well-being

To measure well-being, the German translation (Schumacher et al., 2003) of the *Satisfaction with Life Scale* by Diener et al. (1985) was used. Five items were rated on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). Example items include “I am satisfied with my life” and “In most ways my life is close to my ideal.”

Convergent validity with related constructs was demonstrated in previous research, with negative correlations with a measure of depressiveness (PHQ-9) and positive correlations with a measure of social support (Oslo Social Support Scale) (Glaesmer et al., 2011). The satisfaction with life scale demonstrated a good internal consistency with $\alpha = .87$, and all items demonstrated appropriate discriminatory power, with corrected item-total correlations > 0.3 . An average well-being score was computed, with higher values meaning higher well-being.

Gender nonconformity

The participants gender expression was assessed with the *M/F Scale* by Sandfort et al. (2016) and the *Socially Assigned Gender* measure by Wylie et al. (2010). The M/F Scale asks the participants to rate their masculinity or femininity, compared to others of their gender identity (e.g. “Do you see yourself as more masculine or more feminine than most other men?”), and how they think others would rate them. The five-point response scale ranged from 1 (“much more feminine”) to 5 (“much more masculine”). The measure showed a good

internal consistency with $\alpha = .8$, and all items demonstrated appropriate discriminatory power, with corrected item-total correlations > 0.3 .

The Socially Assigned Gender measure consists of two items on how masculine or feminine the participants think others perceive their appearance and mannerisms (e.g. “A person’s appearance, style, or dress may affect the way people think of them. On average, how do you think people would describe your appearance, style, or dress?”). The seven-point response scale ranged from 1 (“very feminine”) to 7 (“very masculine”). It showed a good internal consistency with $\alpha = .83$, and all items demonstrated appropriate discriminatory power, with corrected item-total correlations > 0.3 .

Contrasting the stated gender identity, with the socially assigned gender scores, a Socially Assigned Gender nonconformity score was computed for each participant. Men (cisgender and transgender) with high femininity scores and women (cisgender and transgender) with high masculinity scores received a high Socially Assigned Gender nonconformity score. The M/F Scale and the Socially Assigned Gender nonconformity measure were combined after z-transformation by computing a mean gender nonconformity score, with higher values being more gender nonconforming.

Disclosure and concealment

The level of disclosure or concealment of the participant’s sexual orientation across different work domains was assessed using the *Work Outness Inventory* (Tatum, 2018). The Items asked how “out” the participants were to their supervisors, subordinates, work peers and consumers (e.g. students, clients, customers). The 5-point scale ranged from 1 (“not at all out”) to 5 (“completely out”). For each item there was a “not applicable” option, for participants that might not have a certain group of people in their workplace, for example someone not having any subordinates. The Work Outness Inventory demonstrated convergent validity correlating with other related constructs (Tatum, 2018).

In the present study, the measure showed an excellent internal consistency of $\alpha = .9$, and all items demonstrated appropriate discriminatory power, with corrected item-total correlations > 0.3 . All answered items were averaged to get a mean disclosure score, with higher values meaning more disclosure, being more “out” in the workplace. For analyses involving the degree of concealment, the items were reverse scored and averaged to get a mean concealment score.

Identity centrality

Identity centrality was measured with one item adopted from Holman et al. (2022), “How important or central is your sexual orientation to you?” The five-point response scale ranged from 1 (“not at all important”) to 5 (“extremely important”).

Demographics

In addition to the mentioned inventories, several demographic items were assessed. The participants age, gender identity, sexual orientation, weekly work hours, size of the organisation’s workforce, country of residence and highest degree of formal education were determined. Age and sexual orientation were filter questions as participants had to be at least 18 years of age and non - heterosexual, so participants that stated to be under the age of 18 or heterosexual were stopped from completing the questionnaire further and excluded from the analysis. The questionnaires were translated using a *translation-back translation* method (Harkness et al., 2003), with the exception of the Satisfaction with Life scale by Diener et al. (1985), where an established and validated German translation was used (Schumacher et al., 2003). The original English items were translated into German, using DeepL (DeepL, 2017), and translated back to English to check if the semantic context was accurately translated. Wherever necessary the translated wording of the items was adjusted and the process repeated.

Analyses and Results

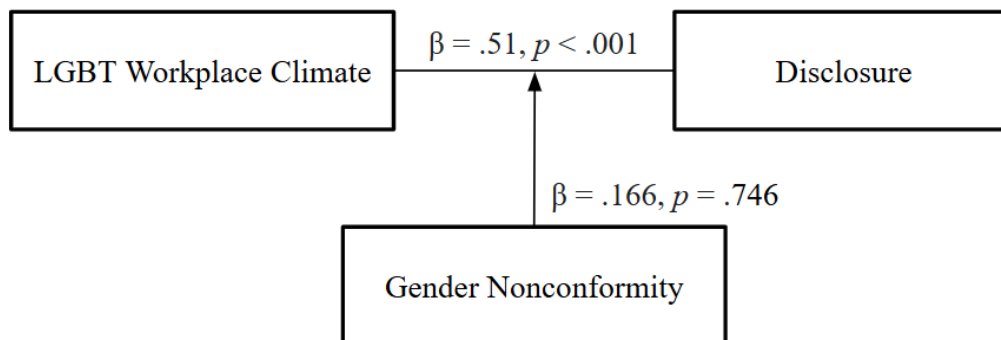
Hypotheses testing

IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 29) was used to calculate all statistical tests. To test hypothesis H1, a moderated regression analysis was carried out using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2022). First, the necessary requirements were tested. A linear relationship between the variables was assessed visually, using scatterplots. Cook’s distance was used to determine if there were potential outliers, but none were found. Absence of multicollinearity was assessed with the variance inflation factor, which was sufficiently low. A scatterplot of the residuals points to heteroskedasticity. This was rectified by using heteroskedastic-consistent inference HC3, contained in the PROCESS macro. Furthermore bootstrapping with 5000 iterations was used with the PROCESS macro, resulting in more robust results (Hayes, 2022). The residuals were determined to be in a normal distribution. This was assessed visually with a histogram and a P-P-plot. The first analysis was run to determine whether gender

nonconformity moderates the association between LGBT workplace climate and disclosure. The overall model was significant, $F(3, 224) = 22.53$, $MSE=1.28$, $p < .001$, predicting 25.98% of the variance. The analysis did not find a moderation effect, $\Delta R^2 = 0.01\%$, $F(1, 224) = 0.1$, $p = .746$, 95% CI [-0.343, 0.445]. The simple effects showed a significant positive association between LGBT workplace climate and disclosure, $B = 1.16$, $p < .001$, but no association between gender nonconformity and disclosure, $B = 0.1$, $p = .29$.

Figure 1

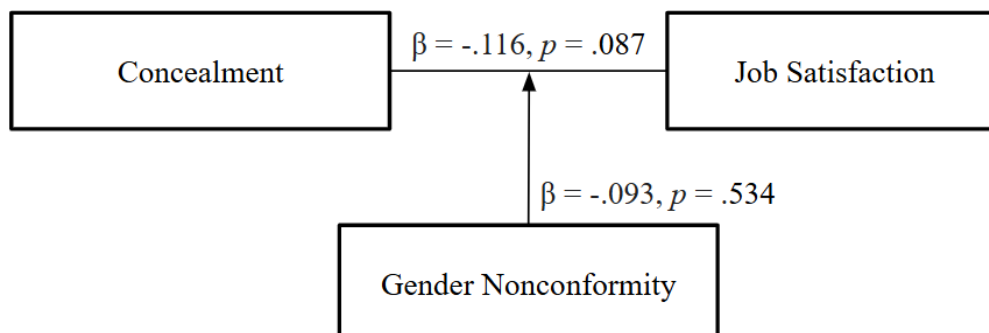
Moderation model of H1 with standardised coefficients



To test hypothesis H2, a second moderated regression analysis was carried out to determine whether gender nonconformity moderates the association between concealment and job satisfaction. All requirements as in the first analysis were assessed to be met. The analysis also used bootstrapping with 5000 iterations, heteroskedastic-consistent inference HC3, and mean centered variables. The overall model was not significant, $F(3, 224) = 1.13$, $MSE=1.19$, $p = .335$, predicting 1.46% of the variance. The analysis did not find a moderation effect, $\Delta R^2 = 0.002\%$, $F(1, 224) = 0.388$, $p = .534$, 95% CI [-0.163, 0.079]. The simple effects showed no significant association between concealment and job satisfaction, $B = -0.1$, $p = .087$, and no association between gender nonconformity and job satisfaction, $B = -0.009$, $p = .918$.

Figure 2

Moderation model of H2 with standardised coefficients



To test hypothesis H3, H4a and H4b, bivariate correlation analyses were carried out. For the third hypothesis, the analysis showed that disclosure correlates significantly positively with well-being, $r = .199, p = .003$. For the fourth hypothesis, the analysis showed that LGBT workplace climate is significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction, $r = .338, p < .001$, and significantly positively correlated with well-being, $r = .273, p < .001$.

Exploratory analyses

When including identity centrality in the first analysis of H1, its moderation effect on the association between LGBT workplace climate and disclosure is not significant, with $\Delta R^2 = 0.0003\%$, $F(5, 222) = 0.03, p = .857$, 95% CI [-0.310, 0.419]. The simple effects show no significant association between identity centrality and disclosure, $B = 0.18, p = .068$. When removing the moderation terms, the association between identity centrality and disclosure is significant, $B = 0.185, p = .013$.

In testing the second hypothesis, concealment was not significantly associated with job satisfaction. When examining bivariate correlations of the items that make up the job satisfaction measure, concealment is negatively associated with only two of the five items “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work”, $r = -.143, p = .031$, and “I find real enjoyment in my work”, $r = -.145, p = .029$. The second moderation analysis was repeated with a mean score of those two items standing in as job satisfaction. However, gender nonconformity did still not moderate the association.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Workplace climate	—					
2. Disclosure	.504**	—				
3. Job satisfaction	.338**	.113	—			
4. Well-being	.273**	.199**	.513**	—		
5. Gender nonconformity	.003	.068	-.001	-.026	—	
6. Identity centrality	-.074	.109	-.076	.053	.075	—
M (SD)	3.26 (0.57)	3.45 (1.31)	5.38 (1.09)	5.04 (1.11)	.01 (0.9)	3.66 (1.01)

n = 226, ** $p < .01$

To explore additional associations post-hoc, the main variables, age, weekly working hours, education, sexual orientation and gender identity were examined in a correlation matrix. Gender was dichotomised into a female = 0, male = 1 variable as well as identity

variable with cisgender = 0, transgender = 1. Sexual orientation was dichotomised as bisexual, pansexual and others = 0, homosexual = 1.

Gender nonconformity did not correlate with any of the main variables in this study. It did negatively correlate with gender, $r = -.163, p = .014$, which in this case means that women (cisgender and transgender) rated themselves more gender nonconforming. To further explore this relationship between gender identity and gender nonconformity, a t-test was used to compare the mean values of gender nonconformity in cisgender women and cisgender men. The two other groups, transgender women ($n = 4$) and transgender men ($n = 10$) were judged to be too small to be explored on their own. All requirements of the t-test (normal distribution, no outliers, homoscedasticity) were met. Cisgender women ($n = 121$) showed higher rates of gender nonconformity ($M = 0.15, SD = 0.95$), compared to cisgender men ($n = 93, M = -0.18, SD = 0.79$). The difference was significant, with $t(212) = 2.63, p = .009$. When only selecting cis-males and looking at the sub-scales of gender nonconformity, a significant negative correlation of $r = -.237, p = .019$ between the Socially Assigned Gender Nonconformity sub-scale and well-being was found. For the other gender identities there was no such association.

Continuing with the post-hoc correlation matrix across all participants, weekly working hours were positively correlated with disclosure $r = .182, p = .006$, job satisfaction $r = .156, p = .018$, and well-being $r = .138, p = .037$, and gender, $r = .143, p = .031$. Formal education was positively associated with LGBT workplace climate $r = .208, p = .002$, well-being $r = .163, p = .014$ and negatively associated with gender $r = -.216, p = .001$. Age was positively associated with well-being $r = .181, p = .006$, job satisfaction $r = .144, p = .03$ and disclosure $r = .274, p < .001$.

Homosexuality, compared to other non-heterosexual orientations, was positively associated with disclosure $r = .325, p < .001$, job satisfaction, $r = .166, p = .012$, well-being, $r = .144, p = .03$, LGBT workplace climate $r = .141, p = .033$, identity centrality $r = .17, p = .01$, and age $r = .245, p < .001$.

Being transgender, compared to cisgender, was associated negatively with well-being, $r = -.211, p = .001$. However, this association is to be interpreted with reservations as only 14 participants were transgender. When including all non-cisgender individuals ($n = 41$), such as non-binary participants that were previously excluded, the negative association with well-being persisted, $r = -.175, p = .005$.

Discussion

The primary aim of this study is to examine if gender nonconformity plays a role in moderating the association between LGBT workplace climate and disclosure, as well as the association between concealment and job satisfaction. The analyses showed a clear and significant positive association between LGBT workplace climate and disclosure. This is consistent with most studies in this field (Reed & Leuty, 2016; Webster et al., 2018). The association however is not, as hypothesised, moderated by gender nonconformity. Identity centrality also did not moderate the association as it did in Holman et al., (2022), but was positively associated with disclosure.

This study did unexpectedly not find a significant association between concealment and job satisfaction, in contrast to Velez et al., (2013). There is however some partial evidence that the variables might still be related, as two of the five items of the job satisfaction measure correlated negatively with concealment. This association is not, as hypothesised, moderated by gender nonconformity.

A positive relationship between disclosure in the workplace and well-being was found, which is in line with previous research that examined disclosure across multiple life domains (Beals et al., 2009; Lindsey et al., 2020). The present study found that LGBT workplace climate is significantly positively associated with job satisfaction and well-being, which is also consistent with previous research (Allan et al., 2015; Liddle et al., 2004).

Valuable insights were gained by the exploratory post-hoc correlation analyses, that included all examined variables. It gave evidence that for people with an LGB sexual orientation, older age was associated with increased disclosure, higher job satisfaction and well-being. LGB women showed higher education levels and less weekly working hours than LGB men. While women rated themselves as significantly more gender nonconforming than men, only cisgender men showed significantly worse well-being associated with gender nonconformity. This is consistent with findings from Thoma et al. (2021) that indicated that gender nonconformity was more associated with minority stress in LGB men, compared to LGB women.

Non-cisgender people, such as transgender or non-binary people showed decreased well-being, compared to cisgender people. Weekly working hours were positively associated with disclosure, job satisfaction and well-being. Formal education was positively associated with LGBT workplace climate and well-being. People identifying as homosexual, compared

to other non-heterosexual people, were more likely to also be older, and showed higher rates of disclosure, job satisfaction, well-being, LGBT workplace climate and identity centrality.

Implications

The present study contributes to the growing body of research on sexual orientation identity management, by showing that gender nonconformity does not have universal associations across all LGB people. It showed that men have uniquely negative well-being outcomes associated with being gender nonconforming. Finding that overall, gender nonconformity does not appear to moderate the associations between LGBT workplace climate, disclosure and well-being, is an important building block in understanding the complex interplay between these factors. The result that disclosure was only partially associated with job satisfaction, showed that this connection should not be taken for granted and examined further in future studies.

Studies on identity management are often centered around the USA and an English cultural environment. By examining and finding the associations between LGBT workplace climate, disclosure, job satisfaction and well-being in a German speaking sample, based in a German speaking cultural environment, they gained more generalisability. The present study underscored the importance of the assessment of LGBT workplace climate for identity management research as well as organisational evaluations.

The present study's findings show that workplaces have to recognize individual gender expression in their employees, in addition to sexual orientation, gender identity and other diversity categories, in order to successfully manage diversity in their workforce.

The study's findings serve as an indication that LGB people need supportive work environments to be able to be happily open about their sexual orientation and to be satisfied with their job. Any organisation might stand to benefit from fostering a supportive workplace climate, where employees are treated equally, regardless of their orientation, gender identity or gender expression. Such an environment is not only associated with LGB employees that are more satisfied with their job, but also happier in their life.

Limitations

The generalizability of the results is limited, because of how the sample was acquired. A lot of the participants were initially recruited by the study being distributed to people following or participating in LGBT advocacy groups. Further distribution was by word of

mouth, and participants for example sending it to their coworkers. As a result, the sample is skewed in the direction of more disclosing people, in rather positive LGBT workplace climates. People who are not known or assumed to be LGB will have been much less likely to receive an invitation for the study.

If there was a moderating effect of gender nonconformity only for cisgender men, the present study would likely not have enough power to find it. The effect would have to be at least of medium size of about $R^2 = .1$, with $n = 93$ cisgender men in the sample. Thoma et al. (2021) reported effect sizes of the association between gender nonconformity and disclosure to range from $r = .14$ to $r = .16$, which can be considered small.

The gender nonconformity score was calculated using a binary gender system. However, many people do not identify their gender as belonging to either of two categories of male or female but identify as non-binary or similarly. Even though these individuals might appear gender nonconforming and be subject to the accompanying stereotypes, such as the inversion theory, it is hard to measure and quantify their gender nonconformity. Common measures of gender nonconformity compare the individual's femininity or masculinity to their stated gender identity. People identifying as female are expected to be feminine and those identifying as male are expected to be masculine. The more individuals go against the expectation, men being more feminine, women being more masculine, the more gender nonconforming they are. However, with non-binary individuals, there is no expectation of either masculinity or femininity, so no gender nonconformity can be calculated in this way.

The analysis of the moderation hypotheses assumes a directional relationship of climate influencing disclosure. However, it is also just as likely that disclosure might influence the workplace climate, or the perception of it. Coworkers, knowing of someone's sexuality might refrain from discriminating remarks in their presence, which they would otherwise say when no LGB coworkers are around. Similarly, if an LGB employee is the only LGB person in their workplace, they might not know how the experience would be for an open LGB employee, until they disclose themselves. The same issue of correlation and causation is relevant for the second hypothesis. Further longitudinal studies could give insight into the actual direction of the associations.

Disclosure and concealment were assessed by measuring the result of them, meaning how "out" the participants are at work. While this is an economical measure and not unusual within identity management studies, used for example in Holman et al. (2022) and Tatum

(2018), it does not necessarily contain all identity management decisions. For example, someone unwillingly “being outed” by a coworker would have a high degree of disclosure without ever deciding to disclose themselves. Furthermore, the measure only covers concealment as non-disclosure. Active concealment can actually go much further, for example actively faking a heterosexual relationship. The reduced capabilities of this measure of accurately measuring concealment might be an explanation why the expected association with job satisfaction in the second hypothesis was not found. Further studies should assess and quantify actual disclosure and concealment decisions and actions.

It was hypothesized that high gender nonconformity would be associated with more disclosure as concealment would be more “costly”, being more associated with minority stress. However disclosing both the sexual orientation and being openly gender nonconforming, might result in intersectional discrimination, which is being discriminated for multiple identities at once, which can lead to increased stress (Shramko et al., 2018) and worse mental health outcomes (Garnett et al., 2014). In this case, neither disclosure nor concealment would be more beneficial in hostile climates, possibly explaining no effect of gender nonconformity. Further studies examining actual discrimination experiences could investigate this connection.

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Appendix

Informed consent text

Liebe Teilnehmende!

Vielen Dank für Ihre Bereitschaft, an dieser Studie teilzunehmen. Der folgende Fragebogen befasst sich mit dem Arbeitsumfeld von LGBTQ-Personen und wie sie im Beruf mit ihrer Sexualität umgehen. Die Dauer ist ca. 5 Minuten. Teilnehmen können alle berufstätigen, nicht-heterosexuellen (z.B. homo-, bi-, oder pansexuelle) Personen, die mindestens 18 Jahre alt sind.

Die Teilnahme ist vollständig anonym. Es kann nicht zurückverfolgt werden, wer diesen Fragebogen ausfüllt. Die Daten werden streng vertraulich behandelt und dienen nur wissenschaftlichen Zwecken.

Die Teilnahme ist freiwillig. Sie können die Teilnahme an dieser Untersuchung zu jedem Zeitpunkt, ohne Angabe von Gründen abbrechen.

Die Studie ist Teil einer Masterarbeit am Institut für Arbeits-, Wirtschafts- und Sozialpsychologie, an der Universität Wien.

Bei Fragen können Sie sich per e-mail an [redacted for data security] wenden:
[redacted for data security]

Recruitment poster



Studienteilnehmer*innen gesucht

Wir untersuchen die Arbeitsbedingungen von LGBTQ+ Personen

Wer kann teilnehmen?
Alle Personen die..

- berufstätig sind
- homosexuell, bisexuell oder anderweitig nicht-heterosexuell sind
- mindestens 18 Jahre alt sind

Ablauf
Mit dem Link oder dem QR-Code gelangen Sie zur komplett anonymen Online-Studie. Die Bearbeitung dauert ca. 5 Minuten.

Mit der Teilnahme können Sie einen wertvollen Beitrag zur Wissenschaft leisten!



<https://sosci.univie.ac.at/LGBTQ-Work/>



Translated Measures

LGBT Workplace climate (Liddle et al., 2004)

1-4 („Beschreibt es überhaupt nicht“ - „Beschreibt es sehr gut“)

An meinem Arbeitsplatz...

1. werden lesbische, schwule, bisexuelle und transgender (LGBT) Mitarbeitende mit Respekt behandelt.
2. müssen LGBT-Angestellte verschwiegen sein.
3. ist es genauso wahrscheinlich, dass Kollegen nette und interessierte Fragen zu einer gleichgeschlechtlichen Beziehung stellen wie zu einer heterosexuellen Beziehung.
4. finden LGBT-Personen es eine angenehme Arbeitsstelle.
5. fühlen sich nicht-LGBT Mitarbeitende wohl dabei, mit LGBT-Mitarbeitenden schwulenfreundlichen Humor zu treiben (z. B. Witze über ein Date machen).
6. ist die Atmosphäre für LGBT-Mitarbeitende bedrückend.
7. fühlen sich LGBT-Mitarbeitende von ihren Kollegen akzeptiert.
8. machen Kollegen Kommentare, die auf ein mangelndes Bewusstsein für LGBT-Themen hinzuweisen scheinen.
9. wird von den Mitarbeitenden erwartet, dass sie sich nicht „zu schwul“ verhalten.
10. befürchten LGBT-Mitarbeitende wegen ihrer sexuellen Orientierung den Beruf zu verlieren.
11. unterstützt meine engere Arbeitsgruppe LGBT-Kollegen.
12. fühlen sich LGBT-Mitarbeitende wohl dabei, mit Kollegen über ihr Privatleben zu sprechen.
13. wird Druck auf LGBT-Mitarbeitende ausgeübt, ihre sexuelle Orientierung zu verbergen.
14. scheint die LGBT-Identität der Mitarbeitenden kein Thema zu sein.
15. werden LGBT-Mitarbeitende mit Feindseligkeit (z. B. mit verächtlichen Blicken oder eisigem Tonfall) begegnet.

16. bietet das Unternehmen oder die Institution als Ganzes ein unterstützendes Umfeld für LGBT-Menschen.

17. können LGBT-Mitarbeitende sie selbst sein.

18. ist es für LGBT-Personen unwahrscheinlicher, von einem Mentor betreut zu werden.

19. steht es LGBT-Mitarbeitenden frei, Bilder von gleichgeschlechtlichen Partnern zu zeigen.

20. verbessert sich die Atmosphäre für LGBT-Mitarbeitende.

Degree of Disclosure (Tatum, 2018)

Wie „geoutet“ sind Sie in der Arbeit, bei den folgenden Personengruppen? (Wie umfangreich haben Sie ihre Sexualität mitgeteilt), 1-5 („gar nicht geoutet“ - „komplett geoutet“) - „nicht zutreffend“

1. Arbeitskollegen

2. Vorgesetzten

3. Beschäftigten (Mitarbeitende deren Vorgesetzte oder Vorgesetzter Sie sind)

4. Konsumenten (z.B. Kunden, Klienten, Schüler)

Job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998)

1-7 („stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ – „stimme sehr zu“)

1. Ich bin mit meinem jetzigen Beruf ziemlich zufrieden.

2. An den meisten Tagen bin ich begeistert von meiner Arbeit.

3. Jeder Arbeitstag scheint nie enden zu wollen.

4. Meine Arbeit macht mir wirklich Spaß.

5. Ich finde meine Arbeit eher unangenehm.

Satisfaction with life scale (Diener et al., 1985) translated by (Schumacher et al., 2003)

1-7 („stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ - „stimme völlig zu“)

1. In den meisten Bereichen entspricht mein Leben meinen Idealvorstellungen.

2. Meine Lebensbedingungen sind ausgezeichnet

3. Ich bin mit meinem Leben zufrieden.

4. Bisher habe ich die wesentlichen Dinge erreicht, die ich mir für mein Leben wünsche.
5. Wenn ich mein Leben noch einmal leben könnte, würde ich kaum etwas ändern.

Socially Assigned Gender Nonconformity (Wylie et al., 2010)

1-7 („sehr feminin“ - „sehr maskulin“)

1. Das Aussehen, der Stil oder die Kleidung einer Person können die Art und Weise beeinflussen, wie andere Leute über sie denken. Was glauben Sie, wie würden andere Leute Ihr Aussehen, Ihren Stil oder Ihre Kleidung im Durchschnitt beschreiben?"

2. Das Verhalten einer Person (z. B. wie sie geht oder spricht) kann die Art und Weise beeinflussen, wie andere Leute über sie denken. Was glauben Sie, wie würden Leute im Durchschnitt Ihr Verhalten beschreiben?"

Masculinity/Femininity Scale (Sandfort et al., 2016)

1-5 („viel weiblicher“ - „viel männlicher“)

1a. Sehen Sie sich selbst als männlicher oder weiblicher als die meisten anderen Männer?

2a. Glauben Sie, dass andere Menschen Sie als männlicher oder weiblicher als die meisten anderen Männer sehen?

1b. Sehen Sie sich selbst als weiblicher oder männlicher als die meisten anderen Frauen?

2b. Glauben Sie, dass andere Menschen Sie als weiblicher oder männlicher als die meisten anderen Frauen sehen?

Identity centrality (Holman et al., 2022)

1- 5 („gar nicht wichtig“ - „sehr wichtig“)

Wie wichtig oder zentral ist Ihre sexuelle Orientierung für Sie?