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Encountering stereotype threat in the workplace : how lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender employees meet the challenge of negative stereotyping.

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ENCOUNTERING STEREOTYPE THREAT IN THE WORKPLACE: HOW

LESBIAN, GAY, BISEXUAL, AND TRANSGENDER EMPLOYEES MEET THE

CHALLENGE OF NEGATIVE STEREOTYPING

By

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MDiv, Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary, 1984
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A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
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Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology
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Louisville, Kentucky

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A Dissertation Approved on

July 26, 2007

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DEDICATION

To Phillip Michael Miller

My partner

Some dream to know the future's covert way,
As have we in many doubtful moments –
The next footstep, the path ahead, our way
Through; to read the enigmatic portents.
Had we known the future, would we be here?
Would we have taken hold, made it happen?
Or wandering another way from here
Lived divergent destiny, reshapened?
Perhaps we would have been much happier!
A house on a hill, a garden to tend,
Quietude of life, secure and hardier,
No strain of climb; good life, good food, good friends.
Listen to my heart: 'spite many changes –
We are – and that fact endures the ages.

ABSTRACT

ENCOUNTERING STEREOTYPE THREAT IN THE WORKPLACE: HOW

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Gary Michael Collins

July 26, 2007

Employee retention continues to be a major drain on the resources of

organizations, especially in terms of personnel, productivity, and financial resources.

One of the primary motivators of employee turnovers established by research is the issue

of unfairness in the workplace. This study investigated the dimensions of unfairness

related to being a lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender employee. Specifically, the issue

of stereotype threat and its effect on job performance was explored. Using an on-line

survey, members of LGBT labor union caucuses and LGBT employee resource groups

were asked to complete a questionnaire that assessed demographic differences and

responses to issues of self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and self-efficacy as

they related to the employee's experience of stereotype and job performance.

Hierarchical regression analyses and structural equation modeling were used to ascertain

the effect and systemic relationships between the variables. This study documented the

presence of stereotype threat in the workplace. It was also found that self-efficacy

completely mediates the effect of stereotype threat on job performance. Furthermore,

more subtle indirect effects of stereotype threat were found. Additionally, mechanisms that affect how the employee adapts to his/her situation were explored. It was concluded that stereotyping of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender employees can directly and indirectly affect the levels of job performance in the workplace. In short, when an employee feels unfairly treated the likelihood of employee turnovers increases.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Businesses have realized that competing in an increasingly challenging marketplace requires the best workforce available, which is in turn only possible when they maximize their recruitment and retention of all workers — LGBT employees included" (Herrschaft, 2005, p. 36). Employee retention continues to be a major drain on the resources of organizations, especially in terms of personnel, productivity, and financial resources (Clark, 2004; Dorf, 2006). Turnovers (replacing employees; also called "separations") can be *voluntary* separations initiated by the employee (an employee quits). *Involuntary* separations are a second type of turnover and initiated by the employer (layoffs with no intent to rehire, formal layoffs lasting or expected to last more than 7 days, discharges resulting from mergers, downsizing, closings, firing or other discharges for cause, terminations of permanent or short-term employees, and terminations of seasonal employees). A third type of turnover is simply classified as *other* (retirements, transfers to other locations, deaths, and separations due to disability) (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006).

Regardless of who initiates a separation, turnovers involve significant numbers of personnel nationally and within an organization. While monthly change rates in employment tend to be small, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (United States Department of Labor) estimates that during any 12-month period between 2001 and 2004 there were

nearly 50 million hires and 50 million separations nationally (Clark, 2004). This translates into an annual *voluntary* employee turnover rate of 14.3% nationally (Dorf, 2006). Voluntary and overall turnover rates have increased in 2006 (Dorf, 2006). Within an organization, each turnover involves numerous people: the separated employee, the workgroup, supervisor(s), administrative staff, human resources staff, and other persons who take part in the separation process (Pinkovitz, Moskal, & Green, 2004; Saratoga Institute, *2004 Workplace Diagnostic System*, 2004).

Productivity suffers due to the vacancy left by an employee's departure. Co-workers incur increased workloads (often uncompensated) and overtime, stress and tension associated with the reasons for the turnover, and possibly, declining employee morale. Perhaps more telling is the fact that businesses are losing employees during their years of peak productivity. The *2004 Workplace Diagnostic System (WDS) Benchmarking Report* indicates that while there was a decrease in workers leaving during the first year of service, nearly 13% of employees who separated left the job between their third and fifth year of service (the fourth consecutive year in which the WDS showed increases) (Pinkovitz et al., 2004; WDS, 2004).

Separations cost businesses financially (Clark, 2004; Mushrush, 2002; Pinkovitz et al., 2004). Direct costs include the expenses associated with ending employment, recruitment of a replacement employee, selection, and training. Indirect costs – intangible expenses that are more difficult to measure – may be even more costly in terms of increased workloads, overtime or decreased employee morale associated with the separation of co-workers (Mushrush, 2002; Pinkovitz et al., 2004).

Turnover/separations research has highlighted a number of reasons for turnover. Some reasons for turnover such as external conditions (economic or labor market conditions) cannot be controlled. However, many causes of turnover can be managed including inequities in compensation, stress levels, uncomfortable work environments, poor supervision, poor employee/job correspondence, inadequate training, and organizational practices (Menafee & Murphy, 2004; Mushrush, 2002).

One reason for turnovers has bearing on this research. The employee's perception of being treated unfairly is strongly predictive of turnover (De Boer, Bakker, Syroit, & Schaufeli, 2002). De Boer et al. (2002) investigated two types of unfairness at work. *Distributive unfairness* refers to the perception of an employee as to whether the distribution of outcomes or a certain work-related process is fair. Given the same investment of time, effort, and cooperation as coworkers, an employee expects to be compensated proportionately. Unequal pay for equal work is an example of distributive unfairness. *Procedural unfairness* proposes an unfavorable response to the organization (e.g. low trust in supervisors), especially as a response to the way decisions are made. As an employee observes the decision-making processes of the organization, he/she learns the degree to which the organization is capable of acting fairly. Under procedural unfairness the employee is likely to realize that the unfair treatment is located in the structure of the organization. Supervisors, as part of the management structure, are held responsible for organizational unfairness. Additionally, procedural fairness may negatively affect a person's self-worth as the employees infer from unfair practices that they are perceived to be unvalued members of the organization (De Boer et al., 2002).

One contemporary issue that addresses fairness in the workplace is that of diversity. With the workplace becoming more diverse (Zunker, 2002), managing diversity in organizations has become a key and, sometimes, thorny issue. Differing definitions of diversity, varying perceptions of diversity's value, and a multitude of psychological, social, legal, business, and political forces generate a complex debate about diversity and its management. Moreover, the effects of a diversity program are not always clear, positive, or simple (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002; Gottfredson, 1992).

Day and Schoenrade's (1997) study of relationships between communication about sexual orientation and work attitudes suggests that employee satisfaction and a secure work environment are key indicators of diversity awareness in the workplace. As such, satisfaction and work environment also affect turnover. The 2005 Walker Loyalty Report for Loyalty in the Workplace describes the top two "experience-based factors driving employee loyalty" to be the employer's care and concern for employees and fairness at work (Walker Report, 2005). Menafee and Murphy (2004) cite dissatisfaction with management, uncomfortable work environment and conflict with manager/co-workers as three of the top seven reasons employees consider leaving their jobs. When the environment, workgroup, managers, or organizational policies make an issue of an employee's unique personal identity, job satisfaction decreases (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Day & Schoenrade, 1997).

An individual whose demographic attributes, social or personal identity differ from the group norm may not feel able to talk about important aspects of their personal identity. This may initiate [a situation] where they feel inhibited in

making meaningful contributions to the group and in turn to the organization (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003, p. 1395).

Sometimes diversity issues engender conflict that in turn affects the openness or comfort of a work environment for all employees. Ashkanasy et al. (2002) point out that the types of conflict in the workgroup evoked by diversity mediate the effect of diversity on performance.

Historically, diversity policies focused on concerns regarding the place of racial and ethnic minorities and of women in the workplace. More recently, research on diversity in the workplace has been extended to investigate broader conceptions of diversity, stereotypes, and leadership. One overlooked aspect is that of sexual orientation (Ashkanasy et al., 2002). Fletcher and Kaplan (2000, as cited by Ashkanasy et al., 2002) argue that lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (hereafter, LGBT) employees are often ignored because of societal norms. LGBT persons must decide whether to disclose their sexual orientation at work (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Day & Schoenrade, 1997). They cannot always predict the response from their workgroup, resulting in the condition in which LGBT persons "carefully assess the prevailing organizational climate before disclosing" their sexual orientation. Such disclosure can bring positive results such as a more open workplace, but can just as surely be "risky or even dangerous" (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003). This careful assessment of threat has been termed hypervigilance (Allport, 1954) and self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986; Taywaditep, 2001).

Purpose of the Study

This research project proposed to investigate an aspect of the work lives of gay men, lesbian women, bisexual, and transgender persons currently employed, namely, the experience of an employee who is a member of a stigmatized minority in a majority-dominated workplace. The research not only sought to identify and explicate moderators/mediators of the work experience for LGBT persons, but also to provide insights into how LGBT persons adapt to workplace conditions. Stereotype threat[1] was hypothesized to moderate job performance[1]. Additionally, it was proposed that perceived self-efficacy[1] and self-monitoring[1] mediate the effects of stereotype threat on job performance. In short, an employee who experiences high levels of stereotype threat was hypothesized to also experience decrements in job performance. Also, lowered self-efficacy and high self-monitoring were expected to mediate these effects.

Significance of the Study

Americans spend more than twenty-seven percent of their time at work (American Time Use Survey, 2004). The pervasiveness of one's work or career in American

---

[1] Note on capitalization. Lower case letters will be used throughout this document when referring to general constructs of stereotype threat, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness and job performance. These terms will be capitalized when referring to specific scales or subscales, as follows: Stereotype Threat Scale, Self-Efficacy Scale, Self-Monitoring Scale, Concern for Appropriateness Scale, and Job Performance Scale. The terms will also be capitalized when used in Structural Equation Modeling analyses as latent variables (see Chapter IV).

lifestyles led Zunker (2002) to declare that "our careers determine where we live, how we live, and, to a great extent, with whom we associate (p. 6)."

Zunker (2002) predicted that the workplace of the 21st century will become more diverse as working relationships are tested in a continually evolving work environment. He cited a growing trend toward open discussion about the effects of sexual orientation in the workplace. Yet, gay men, lesbian women, bisexuals and transgender persons face a workforce that stereotypes the jobs persons with non-heterosexual orientations hold. Often, the workforce feels fear, hatred, and intolerance toward persons of diverse sexual orientation. Moreover, the workplace exists within a society and workplace biased toward heterosexuality.

Issues of discrimination, identity management, degree of "outness," and level of support complicate the employment experience for many gay men and lesbian women in the workplace (Bosson, Haymovitz, & Pinel, 2004; DeJean, 2004; Herek, 1991; Hetherington, Hillerbrand, & Etringer, 1989). A number of gay men and lesbian women experience mental health decrements as a result. Smith and Ingram (2004) indicated significant correlations of depression with workplace heterosexism, unsupportive social minimizing ("defined as upsetting or hurtful responses from social network members in reaction to a specific stressor"; see Ingram, Betz, Mindes, Schmitt, & Smith, 2001), and physical symptoms, as well as other psychological symptoms.

This exploration of the lives of LGBT individuals at work adds to the knowledge of vocational choice and career development as impacted by exploring the stereotype effects on LGBT persons in the workplace. First, by having assessed the impact of stereotype threat on the LGBT person's job performance, employers learn more about the

dynamics of the workplace and influences that affect hiring, training, and maintaining employees, thereby addressing conditions that might motivate employee turnover. Second, Morrow, Gore, and Campbell (1996) suggest that LGBT persons move through a process of identity development necessitating management of sexual identity in the workplace, as well as facing unique employment risks and difficulties. This study provides insight into the identity management process of an LGBT employee. This identity management process can severely affect the level of involvement in the workgroup should there exist high levels of stereotyping and discrimination (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Bosson et al., 2004). Third, counselors, managers, and scholars are afforded a more complete depiction of the dynamics of working in a hostile workplace, and become better informed on how to counsel LGBT persons about their careers. Finally, LGBT persons will better understand the dynamics of the workplace, and be able to address difficult questions regarding sexual orientation as it is expressed in the workplace.

<center>Statement of the Problem</center>

Croteau and Bieschke (1996) could identify only 28 published scholarly works on the career concerns of lesbian women, gay men, bisexual, and transgender persons (LGBT). Croteau (1996) found no quantitative studies performed in work sites or in simulated vocational situations (no field or analogue studies). Though the vocational lives of LGBT persons has, since that time, been the subject of a growing number of explorations, Adams, Cahill, and Ackerlind (2005) report that very little empirical research has examined the career development issues of lesbian women and gay men (see also, Pope et al., 2004; Pope, Prince, & Mitchell, 2000). The research that has been

conducted focused primarily on issues of work discrimination and sexual identity management (Chung, 2003). Moreover, while there has been an increasing amount of attention paid to the career development issues of this minority group over the past two decades, much of the research has not been theory-based (Lonborg & Phillips, 1996; Adams et al., 2005).

The combined effect of four phenomena on job performance was explored in this current study based on the following research: 1) *Stereotype threat.* Bosson et al. (2004) defined stereotype threat as "the realization that one's performance on a particular task might confirm a negative stereotype about one's group" (p. 247). Bosson et al. (2004) stated that prior to their research " . . . no previous research has explored whether or how gay men experience stereotype threat, despite the numerous negative stereotypes associated with this group" (p.253). 2) *Self-efficacy.* John Dunkle (1996) proposed that future research in the careers of gay men and lesbian women investigate self-esteem and self-efficacy on the job. Bong and Skaalvik (2003) defined self-efficacy as "what individuals believe they can do with whatever skills and abilities they possess . . . represents individual expectations and convictions of what they can accomplish" (p.5). Dunkle (1996) recommended that self-esteem and self-efficacy should be examined in relation to the degree of personal openness "related to self-efficacy on the job and the successful or unsuccessful completions of vocational tasks" (p. 158). Brown, Lent, Ryan, and McPartland (1996) found that self-efficacy mediates between a person's experiences and subsequent levels of productivity (see also Betz, 1986). Thus, one might logically assume that self-efficacy would mediate an LGBT individual's experiences of stereotype threat in relation to his/her job performance. But to what degree do the psychological and

social effects of stereotype threat and minority stress impact the employee's self-efficacy? 3) *Hypervigilance*. Dunkle (1996) also encouraged research into the "distractions from one's career because of the internal and external stressors related to gay and lesbian identity development [that] might be evident with decreases in work activity and disengagement from co-workers" (p.154). In the same vein, Ashkanasy et al. (2002) recommended research on "when and how people adapt to work context when they are a member of less favored groups" (p. 315). As will be shown, internal and external stressors including internalized homophobia, stigma-based attacks (verbal, nonverbal and/or physical), and psychological phenomena (such as self-monitoring) mediate the ability of a person to feel efficacious about his/her job and to perform job duties, and to adapt to the work context. Snyder's (1974) theory of self-monitoring can conceptually be linked to hypervigilance (Taywaditep, 2001). When applied to the workplace, self-monitoring describes the means by which employees cope with internal and external stressors, that is, how they adapt to the pressures of the workplace. Thus self-monitoring refers to how "people differ in the extent to which they *monitor* (observe, regulate, and control) the public appearances of *self* that they display in social settings and interpersonal relationships" (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002, p. 390). Furthermore, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) identified four factors from the Self-Monitoring Scale that reveal a multi-dimensional monitoring phenomenon. Two of the factors were combined by Lennox and Wolfe into a revised Self-Monitoring Scale. The remaining two factors were combined into a new Concern for Appropriateness[1] Scale that purportedly captured the social anxiety component of self-monitoring. Assessing all four

factors in the experience of LGBT persons is predicted to depict a complex relationship between the employee and the workplace environment.

These constructs – stereotype threat, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness – will be used to predict moderating/mediating influences on job performance. Specifically, the effects of stereotype threat on an employee's job performance will be analyzed. The influence of self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness as a response to and reaction to stereotyping will provide insight into adaptation processes. Additionally, the role of self-efficacy will be analyzed for its possible effect on job performance. Ultimately, a hypothesized model of the effects of stereotype threat, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and job performance will be tested to assess the goodness-of-fit of the model with the data. Taken together, this research will provide a unique look at the experience of LGBT persons in an increasingly diverse workplace.

Research Questions

The purpose of this research is to examine the effects of stereotype threat on the well-being of LGBT persons in the workplace as specifically related to self-efficacy, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and job performance. The benefits of this research are a further description of the threat of stereotypes on job outcomes, the adaptation of LGBT persons in the workplace, and the impact on diversity and fairness issues that strongly affect employment stability.

The research questions that guided the hypotheses of this study were:

1. Can stereotype threat be confirmed in the employment experience of LGBT persons in 2006? Croteau (1996) and Waldo (1999) have previously reported

the impact of stereotyping in the workplace, but stereotype threat of LGBT persons in the workplace previously has not been documented.

2. Does stereotype threat decrease self-efficacy and job performance, and if so, how? Does self-efficacy mediate the effect of stereotype threat on job performance?

3. What relationship exists between self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and stereotype threat, and how does that relationship affect self-efficacy and job performance? Can these relationships increase our understanding of how LGBT persons adapt to the work environment?

The first research question produced findings specific to the current manifestation of stereotyping of LGBT employees in the workforce. Since Waldo's (1999) study, dramatic social and political shifts have taken place in the United States, including much public attention to issues important to LGBT persons. While progress is being made toward equality in all aspects of LGBT life, paradoxically "none of our recent gains is secure and continued progress is not assured (Coles, 2005, ¶ 4)." Though an overall trend suggests more societal acceptance of LGBT persons, discrimination based on sexual orientation continues (Coles, 2005; Pope et al., 2004). What can be learned in 2006 about stereotype threat experienced by LGBT persons in the workplace?

The second research question will provide a closer examination of the effect of stereotype threat, especially as the threat interacts with hypervigilant responses, self-efficacy effects, and job performance. An example is found in the literature regarding self-efficacy and performance in the workplace. Brown et al. (1996) found that self-

efficacy mediates between a person's experiences and subsequent levels of productivity. The effects of self-efficacy expectations on performance can refer to such situations as

performance on tests . . . or the requirements of a job training program. . . low

efficacy expectations may be accompanied by negative self-talk or anxiety

responses, which interfere with focus on the task at hand and thus impair

performance. Low self-efficacy may be, in effect, a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Finally, the effects of self-efficacy on persistence are essential for long-term

pursuit of one's goals in the face of obstacles, occasional failures, and dissuading

messages from the environment, for example, gender or race-based discrimination

or harassment (Betz, 2004, p. 340).

Betz's statement traces the logic of this research, namely, low-self efficacy and anxiety

impair performance. Specifically, low self-efficacy reduces the ability of the worker to

persist in the face of discrimination and harassment – in this case, anti-gay harassment

This would suggest that self-efficacy beliefs of LGBT persons substantially affect their

ability to function in their occupational environment.

Adding to these aforementioned self-efficacy effects, Meyer (2003) documented

how stigma threat relates to internal processes that can impair social and academic

functioning of stigmatized persons by affecting their performance. Croteau (1996) found

that fear of discrimination and concealment of sexual orientation is prevalent among LGB

workers resulting in adverse psychological, health and job-related outcomes. Waldo

(1999) found that in a workplace that condemns and stigmatizes homosexuality, gay men

and lesbian women experience an increase of depression and psychological distress, thus

reducing the employee's job performance.

The experience of threat can result in hypervigilance. Hypervigilance has been repeatedly identified as a symptom of threat assessment and social anxiety (Bögels & Mansell, 2004), and as a variable of personalities at work (Day et al., 2002; Day & Schleicher, 2006), leadership (Dobosh, 2005), and intergroup processes (Klein, Snyder, & Livingston, 2004; Vorauer & Turpie, 2004). Hypervigilance has been identified as a function of impression management, or self-monitoring (Allport, 1954; Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986; Taywaditep, 2001). Yet, no studies have been found that examine the interaction of self-monitoring and stereotyping, nor of self-monitoring and LGBT persons. Additionally, aspects of self-monitoring, including concern for appropriateness provided insight into how LGBT individuals adapt to the work environment by impression management.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses are proposed for testing in order to answer the research questions.

> H1   Stereotype threat has a direct, negative effect on one's perception of his/her job performance and perceived self-efficacy, and a positive direct effect on self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness.
>
>> H1a: It is predicted that as stereotype threat increases, perceived self-efficacy and perceived job performance decrease while self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness increase.

H2   Perceived self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness mediate the effects of stereotype threat on job performance.

    H2a: It is predicted that indirect effects of stereotype threat on job performance can be traced by the analysis.

Theoretical Framework

As noted earlier by Lonborg and Phillips (1996) and Adams et al. (2003), while an increasing amount of attention has been paid to the career development issues of LGBT persons over the past two decades, much of the research has not been theory-based. This research will use three career theories to contextualize the experiences of LGBT persons in the workplace. These theories describe the dynamics of employment in general, but when applied to the work life of LGBT persons, demonstrate the challenges persons of non-heterosexual orientation face over and above ordinary tasks at work.

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is derived from Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Learning Theory. Social Cognitive Career Theory proposes a bidirectional interaction of three dynamic models: personal attributes (Interest Development Model), external environmental factors (Career Choice Model), and overt behavior (Performance Model). In regards to personal attributes, the theory conceptualizes three "personal determinants." These three – self-efficacy, outcome expectations and personal goals – interact to provide the worker with competence. Contextual influences and opportunity structures influence career choice. The quality of accomplishment and the persistence of a person's behavior focus theory at the performance level (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002).

Of particular interest to this study, the Performance model emphasizes the "interplay" between ability and three sets of beliefs: self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals in determining performance outcomes. Self-efficacy beliefs are concerned with the employee's perception of his/her capabilities. Outcome expectations concern the consequences of performance behaviors. Goals reflect the intention to engage or effect a future outcome
(Lent et al., 2002).

The role of self-efficacy in job performance is substantial. People tend toward more positive expectations of the outcome of activities about which they feel greater self-efficacy. Brown et al.'s (1996) study of men and women in training environments found that self-efficacy mediates between a person's experiences and subsequent levels of productivity (see also, Betz, 1986). Individuals who view themselves as inefficacious experience much stress and anxiety. Studies have shown that low self-efficacy is a strong predictor of anxiety and depression (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p.13).

Dawis and Lofquist (1984; see also Dawis, 2002, 2005) derived *Person-Environment-Correspondence Career Theory (PEC)* from the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA). The theory seeks to describe the *process* by which person (P) and environment (E) interact. The theory proposes that individual employees bring unique abilities to any work environment, and the work environment has, in turn, certain needs that it requires for the employee to be successful in that setting. The majority of workplace problems result when the person and the environment experience "discorrespondences." Thus, PEC provides a basis for understanding the critical nature of the environment in the work experience of LGBT individuals.

Lyons, Brenner, and Fassinger (2005) report that no empirical studies prior to theirs had utilized TWA theory to investigate the work experiences of LGB persons. Lyons et al. (2005) concluded that LGB employees who experience high levels of informal heterosexism may report low levels of job satisfaction because they experience low levels of fit with their organization. They also suggest that person-organization fit may take on particular significance because of LGBT person's stigmatized status. Based on their study of 795 lesbian, gay and bisexual men and women, it appears that almost one half of LGB employees' job satisfaction is explained by how well they perceive they fit in their current work environment.

Linda Gottfredson's *Theory of Circumscription and Compromise* emphasizes the "process by which people unnecessarily circumscribe and compromise their career options, often sacrificing fulfillment of their 'internal unique selves' in order to meet expectations for job prestige and sextype" (Gottfredson, 2002, p. 86). Gottfredson theorizes that occupations that conflict with core elements of self-concept will be most strongly rejected. Career choice also impacts the individual's perception "of where he or she fits into society . . . the sort of person he or she would like to be or is willing to be in the eyes of family, peers, and wider society" (Gottfredson, 1981, p. 548).

Circumscription in Gottfredson's theory refers to the developmental task of comparing one's self-image with images of occupations and judging the degree of match between the two. This delineation of one's self-concept and associated social space (the zone of acceptable alternatives) proceeds through four stages: 1) orientation to size and power (ages three to five); 2) orientation to sex roles (ages six to eight); 3) orientation to social valuation (ages nine to thirteen); 4) orientation to the integral, unique self (ages

fourteen and above). The first three stages are devoted to rejecting unacceptable

alternatives. The fourth stage is devoted to identifying which of the acceptable choices

are most preferred and most accessible (Gottfredson, 2002).

Circumscription leads to concrete results. Compromise is the choice strategy used

in the circumscription process (Blanchard & Lichtenberg, 2003). Individuals may

abandon their most-preferred alternatives adjusting their aspirations to accommodate the

external reality of social norms and acceptability. Compromise (giving up what one most

prefers) must be distinguished from simple "changing one's mind about what is most

desirable" (Gottfredson & Lapan, 1997, p. 430). Gottfredson emphasizes that for many

individuals it is more important to craft a "good enough" public self (i.e. *settling* for

"good enough"), than to choose the occupation that best fits the unique interests and

abilities of the individual.

Thus, for LGBT persons whose core identity includes a stigmatized feature,

choices about which job or career in which to invest time, energy and resources may

become critical. The circumscription and compromise processes may be more likely than

not affected by the experience of stereotyping throughout the development of careers.

With this background, five socio-psychological theories will be utilized in this

study. The theories of stereotype threat, job performance, self-efficacy, self-monitoring,

and concern for appropriateness will be used to create a model of structural relations

among these five variables for LGBT employees.

At the core of this research, stereotype effects will be assessed for LGBT

employees. Stereotypes concretize experience into ideological positions that are used as

arguments to support strategies for engagement (such as employment policies or

interactions on the job) (Scollon & Scollon, 2001). Because these ideological positions have been concretized, they are often institutionalized into organizational policies or experienced through the stereotyping behavior of co-workers and managers.

Stereotype threat posits the existence of a socio-psychological phenomenon in which a member of a stigmatized group fears that his/her actions will confirm a negative stereotype. Implicit in this concern is the desire to present oneself and one's group in a positive light, and to avoid negative repercussions from prejudiced individuals or entities. Research has routinely shown stereotype effects on performance in laboratory settings, but rarely in applied settings. The process of stereotype threat remains the focus of discussion among many scholars. Particularly cogent to this construct is the evidence that stereotype threat affects an individual's performance on the task in which she/he is involved. To date, research studies suggest that although everyone is susceptible to stereotype threat, individual differences and social support resources may serve to overcome the negative effects. When coping strategies fail to overcome stereotype threat, then emotional and mental well-being as well as performance decreases.

While stereotype research indicates that stereotype effects can be overcome, stereotype threat remains salient for LGBT workers. Inzlicht, Aronson, Good, and McKay (2006) observed that

> stereotype threat does not require being stereotyped or being treated badly by
>
> others. Simply holding a negative meta-stereotype about future treatment
>
> (Vorauer, Main, & O'Connell, 1998), or *expecting* (emphasis in the original) to be
>
> stereotyped is sufficient to create disruptive levels of arousal (p. 325).

Stereotyping continues to be a threat because, as research indicates, even when people can cognitively choose not to apply a stereotype, the activation of the stereotype is nearly automatic. LGBT persons and other minorities continue to be vulnerable to the effects (even when unintentional) of stereotype threat (Gilbert & Hixson, 1991; Kunda & Sinclair, 1999; Sinclair & Kunda, 1999).

Job performance as conceptualized in this research follows the research and theory of Borman and Motowidlo (1993) who propose two constructs by which to understand job performance: task performance and contextual performance. Their research and research conducted by others have shown the validity of this bi-sectional approach. They define task performance as that prescribed by the job role and that contributes to the manufacture and delivery of the product produced by the company. Contextual performance is primarily discretionary by the employee and is defined as behaviors such as volunteering to perform a non-assigned task, cooperating in a team project, or supporting the company in ways that go beyond required tasks. These actions are seen to improve the quality of the workplace environment. Both types of performance affect the welfare of the organization.

Self-efficacy is considered to be a set of beliefs a person holds about his/her capabilities to perform the task(s) at hand. Implied in these convictions about potential accomplishment are co-existing beliefs about how much and how well individuals can control their level of performance, about how the individual may persist over a period of time, and about how he/she may cope with environmental and personal situations. These elements inform the individual's perception of self (Adams et al., 2005; Bandura, 1977, 1994; Klassen, 2004; Pajares, 2005).

However, self-efficacy is contextually sensitive. A person's self-efficacy beliefs are impacted by their sense of other's perception of them. Additionally, personal factors such as health, or environmental factors such as discrimination have been shown to affect a person's self-efficacy (Bong & Clark, 1999; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Morrow et al., 1996).

Inzlicht et al. (2006) found that self-monitoring moderated the effects of performance, minority status, and stereotype activation. Self-monitoring was defined by Snyder (1974) as "the desire and ability to control one's self-expressions in order to cultivate a desired public image" (Inzlicht et al., 2006, p.325). Furthermore, self-monitoring mediated the responses to stereotype threat revealing that high self-monitors react differently to stereotype threat than do low self-monitors. As previously identified, self-monitoring has been identified with the hypervigilance that accompanies anxiety. As Lennox and Wolfe (1984) noted, the items of the Self-Monitoring Scale used to create the Concern for Appropriateness Scale directly measure constructs associated with social anxiety: cross-situational variability and social comparison.

Limitations

This research has several limitations. The first limitation has to do with the *research design.* The proposed research design is a correlational, cross-sectional, predictive design. The current study did not use random sampling due to the quantity of subjects required (this issue will be addressed more fully in the methodology section). It sought to establish relationships between the five variables of stereotype threat, job performance, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness. Simple correlations cannot establish a causal relationship between the variables. However, to

address this limitation a structural equation model (*SEM*) was created and tested. Though *SEM* models do not conclusively indicate causality, the procedures provide path coefficients that estimate direct and indirect effects and directionality of effect. As suggested in *SEM* literature (Kline, 2005), alternative models will be analyzed to determine the best fit of the data. Still, the limitation that the effects may be arrived at through other models or hypotheses cannot be ruled out. Additionally, this research was a one-time survey that produced a profile of the characteristics of the gay and lesbian persons in the workforce. This type of cross-sectional design precluded any conclusions about change in the workplace or personal characteristics over time.

A second limitation will be the *self-identifying aspect of sexual orientation.* The subjects will be asked to self-identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender. The disclosure of sexual orientation and gender identity leads to two possible limitations. One limitation arises from the attempts to precisely define sexual orientation. Much controversy exists over which criteria best describes sexual orientation. The literature suggests using a multi-dimensional evaluation to determine the sexual orientation of the subjects (Aidala, Lee, Garbers, & Chiasson, 2006; Alderson, 2003; Horowitz & Newcomb, 2002; Lonborg & Phillips, 1996; Sell, 1997). The researcher, however, will choose to assess sexual orientation and gender identity using one question to ask the subject to self-identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or other. This method seems reasonable since the distinction between heterosexual and non-heterosexual orientation is not a focus of this study, and the population sampled will be recruited from LGBT organizations and contacts. A second related limitation arises from the fear inherent in self-disclosure. Many who are gay or lesbian are reluctant to self-identify due

to fear of discovery, job loss, and/or loss of family and friends. To the extent that a person chooses not to participate in research for fear of being discovered, self-disclosure remains a limitation. To address this limitation, Lonborg and Phillips (1996) and Cho and LaRose (1999) recommend that researchers work to ensure both the confidentiality of research participants, and their anonymity (Riggle, Rostosky, and Reedy (2005) address these concerns regarding the use of Internet surveys). Though confidentiality guarantees discretion in the use of personal information gathered from a participant, anonymity promises inability to connect the participant with his/her responses. The respondent is likely to be more open in his/her responses if it is believed personal information is protected. Since the current research sought to involve persons who may not have publicly disclosed their orientation, it was important that anonymity, as well as, confidentiality be a condition of this study.

A third limitation is the use of a *self-report questionnaire*. Information of self-report nature, depending on the subject areas being queried, may be prone to some inaccuracy as a result of less than accurate recall, lack of information or discomfort with self-disclosure. Given that the researcher could not control the conditions under which the subjects completed the survey, concerns arise about the effects of the context in which the surveys are completed and collection of incomplete questionnaires. The tendency of a respondent to distort answers may also be a legitimate concern with this study since two areas of import are being assessed. Inquiring about sexual orientation could be seen as intimidating or uncomfortable. In addition, should the individual perceive that his/her responses might endanger their employment status, he/she may answer in a socially desirable manner (Neuman, 1997).

A fourth limitation is that the respondents will be self-selected. Recruiting samples through websites, labor groups, and other avenues risks introducing bias into the results because the data gathered may only represent those motivated to respond, or who have stronger feelings about the issues in question.

Delimitations

This research was naturally bounded by the constructs of sexual orientation and gender identity. The study will not assess the effect of stereotype threat on the lives of heterosexual persons. Additionally, other minorities (for example ethnicity, gender, disability) will not be the focus of this study. However, demographic information will be gathered that will allow for comparison between demographic groups on different variables should sufficient numbers of representatives from that group respond to the survey.

This study was constricted to the exploration of only five variables – stereotype threat, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and job performance. It was assumed that these variables do not constitute the full experience of any employee, regardless of sexual orientation, in the workplace. Other factors, possibly equally important, will not be investigated. Only the impact of stereotype threat on two internal employee processes and on job performance will be explored.

Assumptions

This study was based on principal assumptions. First, this study assumed that a significant proportion of LGBT persons experience stereotype threat on a regular basis, including in their workplaces. Research indicates that minority persons experience a variety of detrimental effects (Boatwright, Gilbert, Forrest, & Ketzenberger, 1996;

Carroll & Gilroy, 2002; D'Augelli & Grossman, 2001; Diaz, Ayala, Bein, Henne, & Marin, 2001; Herek, Cogan, & Gillis, 2002; Herek, Gillis, & Cogan, 1999; Meyer, 1995; Smith & Ingram, 2004; Waldo, 1999). Societal movements suggest that there is on the one hand, a growing acknowledgement of LGBT persons in society (2005 Workplace Fairness Survey). On the other hand, there are a number of debates in the political, religious, and social arenas that can appear threatening to the welfare of this minority group (Christensen, 2006; Curtis, 2004; Musbach, 2005; Yetter, 2006). Secondly, this study assumed that stereotype threat affects job performance. Should an employee feel threatened in the environment in which he/she works, it logically follows that the level of job performance would decrease. Alternatively, it may be that job performance increases in a threatening situation as the employee strives to prove his/her worth to the organization. Implicit in this reasoning is the reality of individual differences that affect the employee's ability to cope with a threatening situation. Two psychological phenomena that have been both associated with job performance and affected by stereotype threat, therefore, was assessed simultaneously in a structural model.

Definitions of Terminology

The following definitions are provided to add context and meaning. The definitions are taken primarily from the research literature.

Contextual Job Performance:

Behavior that "contribute(s) to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100).

Employee turnover:

Voluntary or involuntary separation of an employee from his/her current job. Turnover includes the expenditure of effort and resources to administer documents and processes related to the termination of employment, the recruitment, hiring and training of the new employee, and the impact of the separation on co-workers and production.

Gender Identity:

"Ones internal, personal sense of being a man or a woman . . . for transgender people, their birth-assigned sex and their own internal sense of gender identity do not match." (GLAAD, *Transgender Glossary*, 2002).

Gender Expression:

"External manifestation of one's gender identity, usually expressed through "masculine," "feminine," or gender variant behavior, clothing, haircut, voice or body characteristics. Typically, transgender people seeks to make their gender expressions match their gender identity rather than their birth-assigned sex." (GLAAD, *Transgender Glossary*, 2002).

Hypervigilance:

A chronic mode of operation associated with anxiety "in which the anxious person scans the environment for threatening stimuli" (Mogg & Bradley, 1998, p. 812). As Seibt and Forster (2004) found, active, negative self-stereotypes foster a "risk-averse, vigilant processing style" in which the targets of prejudice come to expect rejections, discrimination and violence.

Job Performance:

The "total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time" (Motowidlo, 2003, p. 39). In this research it will be operationalized following Borman and Motowidlo (1997) to consist of two types of performance: task performance and contextual performance.

Moderator:

"A moderator is a qualitative (e.g. sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relations between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986)."

Mediator:

"A given variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion (Baron & Kenny, 1986)."

Self-efficacy:

Personal beliefs about "what individuals believe they can do with whatever skills and abilities they possess . . . represents individual expectations and convictions of what they can accomplish" (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p. 5). Self-efficacy beliefs also include beliefs about how much control the individual has over their performance and environment and how long an employee persists in the face of obstacles.

Self-monitoring:

The monitoring behaviors, observation, regulation, and control of the public appearances of *self* displayed in social settings and interpersonal relationships. Linked to the psychological process called hypervigilance.

Sex

"The classification of people as male or female. At birth, infants are assigned a sex based on a combination of bodily characteristics including : chromosomes, hormones, internal reproductive organs, and genitals." (GLAAD, *Transgender Glossary*, 2007)

Sexual orientation:

"A person's erotic and emotional orientation toward members of his or her own gender or members of the other gender" (Hyde & DeLamater, 2006, Chap.15 Glossary). "Describes a person's enduring physical, romantic, emotional and/or spiritual attraction to another persons. Gender identity and sexual orientation are not the same. Transgender people may be heterosexual, lesbian, gay, or bisexual. For example a man who becomes a woman and is attracted to other women would be identified as a lesbian." (GLAAD, *Transgender Glossary*, 2007).

Stereotype:

"A stereotype is a mental image that attributes a common set of characteristics to members of a particular group or social category (Sandstrom, Martin, & Fine, 2003, p. 48)."

Stereotype Threat:

The fear of confirming a negative stereotype of oneself or one's group based on one's behavior, dress, or personal attributes.

Structural Equation Modeling:

A statistical methodology that takes a hypothesis-testing, confirmatory approach to the analysis of a structural (regression equations) theory bearing on some phenomenon. It typically represents "causal" processes that generate observations on multiple

variables. The model can be tested statistically in a simultaneous analysis of the entire system of variables to determine the extent to which the hypothesized model is consistent with the data. If the goodness-of-fit is adequate, an argument can be made that the postulated relations between variables is plausible (adapted from Byrne, 2001, p. 3).

Task-specific Job Performance:

The "effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute directly to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 99).

Transgender

"An umbrella term for people whose gender identity and/or gender expression differs from the sex they were assigned at birth. . . Transgender people may or may not choose to alter their bodies hormonally and/or surgically." (GLAAD, *Transgender Glossary*, 2007).

Summary

In summary, businesses and organizations expend enormous amounts of energy, money, and resources in managing the comings and goings of employees. Turnover in the workplace not only affects the employee who separates from his/her job and those responsible for finding a replacement, but also co-workers, administrative staff, and sometimes, the production of services. While some causes of employee turnover cannot be controlled, many situations shown to motivate turnover decisions can be managed. One of the primary reasons identified by employees is unfairness in the workplace.

Diversity policies speak directly to the existence of unfairness in the workplace for those who are of non-heterosexual orientation. Studies have consistently documented the effects of discrimination based on sexual orientation. However, few studies have examined the effect of stereotyping based on sexual orientation on job performance. An anxious hypervigilant mode of behavior has been shown to be implicit in the understanding of the experience of being stereotyped. Similarly, self-efficacy beliefs have been shown to moderate job performance. However, the interaction and relationships of these variables have not been investigated.

This research proposed to investigate the relationships between stereotype threat, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, self-efficacy, and job performance. The current research involved collecting data from LGBT persons who are employed, and by using statistical analyses including, Structural Equation Modeling techniques, data was analyzed for the relationships and direction of influence among the variables. It was predicted that this research would demonstrate the detrimental effects of stereotype threat on job performance, directly and/or indirectly. The current study also examined two processes that impact on an employee's ability to adapt to the workplace and remain employed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

One's perceptions of him/herself internally and in the context of others form the

bases for individual self-concept and behavior (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). For persons who

are members of minority groups, these self-perceptions are molded by experiences of

stereotypes, stigma, and discrimination (Becker, 1963; Goffman, 1963). These

experiences cover the range of life events including career choices and development,

behavior on the job, and relationships with co-workers and superiors. Indeed, career and

personal identities are so intricately interwoven that when one aspect is ignored, the other

aspect suffers (Croteau & Thiel, 1993; Fassinger, 1996). For the "invisible minority"

(Croteau, Talbot, Lance, & Edwards, 2002; Fassinger, 1996; Herek, 2006) of persons

with non-heterosexual orientation, being lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender lies at the

heart of their self-concept. Thus, issues of self-perception, others' perceptions, personal

identities and career entwine for lesbian women, gay men, bisexuals, and transgender

persons (hereafter referred to as LGBT).

This study seeks to examine the nature of the system or network that is the

experience of LGBT in the workplace, especially in light of explicit and implicit

stereotypes on the job. In the following text a brief retrospective of work discrimination

and LGBT employees will set the context for theory and research. Next, the explications

of five theories – stereotype threat, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, job

performance, and self-efficacy – will foreground the issues to be addressed in the current

research. Finally, an integration of the relationships between history, theory and the current research will be presented.

Background: Workplace Discrimination

Ragins and Cornwell (2001) list a number of macro and micro factors which contribute to LGBT employees' experience of workplace discrimination. They list five factors: 1) Whether the employee works in a state or a municipality covered by legislation that prohibits workplace discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation; 2) Whether the organization has policies and practices that reflect a culture supportive of LGBT employees; 3) The employee's immediate work environment; 4) The sexual orientation of the employee's manager or work group members; and 5) Disclosure of one's sexual orientation in the workplace.

The macro dimensions derive from the institutionalization of employment discrimination against LGBT persons that occurred in the middle of the twentieth century. A pandemic of fear swept across the United States which was still reeling from two world wars, the detonation of the first atomic bombs, and the rise of the Soviet Union as a world power. Emerging from this anxiety, Joseph R. McCarthy, the senior Senator from Wisconsin, became chairman of the Senate Permanent Subcommittee on Investigations. This provided the platform he needed to conduct wide-ranging investigations into alleged Communist influence in government (McCarthy, 2006, ¶3).

McCarthy began singling out "subversives" within government agencies who allegedly gave away state secrets, thereby undermining the US government. At McCarthy's prodding, beginning in 1950, homosexuals were added to the list of "subversives" working within the United States government and accused of giving away

secrets and undermining our nation. Government agencies, fearful of being charged with protecting subversives, increased efforts to rid their departments of homosexuals. Between 1940 and the spring of 1950, the dismissal of homosexuals averaged about five per month in civilian government jobs. Between April and December 1950, the average was over sixty per month (Jennings, 1994).

By December 1950, McCarthy's subcommittee released a report that concluded that homosexuals were, by their very nature, traitorous. By 1953, President Eisenhower, in office less than a month, signed Executive Order 10450 which made "sexual perversion" grounds for firing any person working for the government and barring federal hiring of any LGBT man or woman. The new rules spread throughout all levels of federal, state, and local governments, and to private businesses and organizations such as the American Red Cross. Being LGBT now meant automatic dismissal from your job. It was not until 1975 that the regulations banning homosexuals from federal civil jobs were repealed. Yet, discriminatory practices have continued. Even more perilous, the stereotypes and innuendos promulgated by McCarthy and his associates have become embedded in the American consciousness (Jennings, 1994; Committee on Expenditures, 1950).

The macro dimensions interact with the micro, more personal dimensions. The *2005 Workplace Fairness Survey* conducted by the Lambda Legal Defense and Education Fund[1] is the largest survey of LGBT people on workplace issues. The key findings demonstrate that employment discrimination is still a reality for lesbians and gay men (the sample did not include a sufficient number of bisexual or transgendered persons).

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[1] The Lambda Legal Defense and Education Fund is the nation's oldest and largest legal organization serving lesbians, gay men, and people with HIV and AIDS.

While a May 2005 Gallup poll reported that 87% of respondents believe that LGBT employees should not be discriminated against due to their sexual orientation, the Lambda Legal report revealed that "39% of their respondents reported experiencing some form of discrimination or harassment in the workplace because of their sexual orientation during the past five years." Nineteen percent reported "that they faced barriers in promotion because of their sexual orientation. These problems appear to be notably worse for those who have lower incomes and those who live in certain parts of the country that are generally thought of as more conservative (pp. 2-3)."

Chung (2001) defined work discrimination as "the unfair and negative treatment of workers or job applicants based on personal attributes that are irrelevant to job performance" (p. 34.). Chung conceptualized work discrimination for LGBT men, lesbian women and bisexual individuals along three axes. The first dimension suggested two forms of work discrimination: *formal* (institutional policies in hiring, firing, promotion, salary decisions, and job assignments, exclusion of same-sex partner benefits (see also Croteau, 1996) and *informal* (interpersonal dynamics and work atmosphere, including verbal harassment, such as gossip, taunts, and ridicule, and nonverbal harassment, such as hard stares, ostracism, damages to personal belongings, lack of respect, loss of credibility or acceptance, hostility and physical harassment, prejudice and even violence (see also, Croteau, 1996). A second dimension of work discrimination involves *potential* and *encountered* discrimination. Potential discrimination describes the possible discrimination as a result of disclosing one's sexual orientation. Encountered discrimination refers to the actual discrimination experienced as a result of self-disclosure. A final dimension of discrimination is based on the concepts of opportunity

structures as ideal, real, and perceived. *Ideal occupational structures* provide equal access and opportunity to all people. *Real occupational structures* refer to the current structure that is far from ideal, but harbors various kinds of discrimination. *Perceived occupational structures* refer to a person's subjective experience that may be different from the reality of the situation resulting in either an overly optimistic or pessimistic attitude (Chung, 2001).

Discrimination in Earnings

Badgett (1995) found that LGBT men earned 38% less than heterosexual men and lesbians earned 35% less than heterosexual women (although only the result for men was statistically significant). Badgett also discovered that gay men and lesbian women earn less than their heterosexual counterparts despite having higher levels of education (Badgett, 1995; Fassinger, 1996). Black, Makar, Sanders, and Taylor (2003) replicated and updated Badgett's findings. They found that the "negative effect of being a gay/bisexual man persists (-0.16 and statistically significant)," while lesbian/bisexual orientation "appears to *raise* earnings of women by about 20%, a result that is both economically and statistically significant" (p. 463, emphasis in the original). In summarizing their findings, the authors report that "typical (unmarried) gay men earn substantially less than married men and the point estimate suggests that gay men also earn less than single heterosexual men . . . Lesbian women earn more than other women, both married and unmarried" (p. 463).

Discrimination in securing and maintaining employment and housing

In many businesses, state and federal government agencies, discrimination in housing and employment based on sexual orientation remains legal (Herek, 1989). As

recently as February 2004 "the head of the OSC [U.S. Office of Special Counsel], Scott Bloch, removed language from the agency's literature and Web site which said federal gay and lesbian employees could not be discriminated against on the basis of their sexual orientation (Curtis, 2004)." Bloch remained undeterred, still refusing before a Senate committee to enforce a policy that protects federal employees from discrimination based on sexual orientation (Musbach, 2005). In January 2006, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services removed information about LGBT health from its website at the urging of anti-LGBT religious groups (Christensen, 2006).

One example of the currency of discrimination on the state level can be seen in the proclamation of Governor Ernie Fletcher of Kentucky on April 11, 2006. He replaced a 2003 employment policy for state workers that included a ban on employment discrimination based on sexual orientation. The new policy omitted sexual orientation from protections on employment discrimination (Yetter, 2006).

In sum, while there appears to be a growing acknowledgement of the place of LGBT persons in society, there is both an historical establishment of discrimination against LGBT persons, and a current trend to deny equivalent rights in matters of employment, housing, and employee benefits.

Theoretical Framework

The current research emerges from five theoretical explorations that will be shown to merge into a systemic sphere of influence on the work lives of LGBT men and women. Stereotype threat theory conceptualizes the (often menacing) stereotyping that occurs in the workplace related to a person's sexual orientation. Self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness theories suggest that a major mode of coping with stereotype

threat is by employing a hypervigilant caution that interrupts or impedes job performance. Job performance theory as conceived by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) regards performance as a two-dimensional construct: task performance and contextual performance will provide empirically supported areas with which to measure job performance. Self-efficacy theory provides a mechanism to consider self-competency beliefs of the employee. Finally, insights from three eminent career theories will be shown to interconnect the five previous theories.

Stereotype Threat Theory

Stereotype threat theory brings together insights from the study of minority stress and labeling processes that describe the threat associated with stigmatization. The theory was first described in a 1995 research project that examined the impact of stereotypes on the performance of African-Americans on tests of intelligence (Steele & Aronson, 1995). Steele and Aronson (1995) described stereotype threat as a

> social-psychological predicament that can arise from widely-known negative stereotypes about one's group. . . the existence of such a stereotype means that anything one does or any of one's features that conform to it make the stereotype more plausible as a self-characterization in the eyes of others, and perhaps even in one's own eyes . . . [it is] essentially, a self-evaluative threat. . . . When the allegations of the stereotype are importantly negative, this predicament may be self-threatening enough to have disruptive effects of its own (p. 797).

Key in this description is the effect of stereotype threat on performance: "the realization that one's performance on a particular task might confirm a negative stereotype about one's group" (Bosson, et al., 2003, p. 247). Indeed, the power of expecting to be

stereotyped or being expected to act in stereotypical manners by others often "channel(s) the course of social interaction" (Seta, Seta, & Goodman, 1998, p. 290). In a feedback style interaction, both the stereotyped and the stereotyper elicit stereotypical behavior that tends to confirm the stereotype.

Three aspects of these descriptions prominently figure in this study: 1) stereotype threat identifies the target as a member of a stigmatized group; 2) the stereotype can be activated in both the perpetrator's and the target's (self-evaluative) consciousness; 3) the stereotype can be activated in regards to behavior and/or physical features.

Membership in a stigmatized group wields great influence on identity formation, coping resources, and personal self-evaluations, perhaps even more than widely accepted social norms, As a member of a stigmatized group, group membership for a LGBT person may become a liability – the group and the individuals that comprise it become targets of prejudice. Additionally, group membership increases the risk of internalizing negative stereotypes and susceptibility to poorer emotional health (Katz, Joiner, & Kwon, 2002). On the other hand, when a person who is prejudiced towards stigmatized groups finds him/herself in a group that holds the same prejudicial belief, he/she finds support to more frequently and loudly express prejudicial beliefs. Ironically, should an LGBT individual value membership in a group opposed to homosexuality, he/she may be more influenced in major life decisions by the values of the group, rather than by his/her sexual orientation (Katz et al., 2002; Masser & Phillips, 2003; McCarn & Fassinger. 1996).

Self-evaluative consciousness utilizes both social comparison and internal comparison in judging self-concept. In comparing the self to others, persons might judge themselves as less capable in an environment where others are seen as more capable.

Internal comparison can be just as critical. "Reflected appraisals from significant others provide useful information for molding one's self-concept" (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p. 15).

While behavior represents the observable activities and responses of any given person or group and is generally amenable to change, a person has few opportunities to change the essential features of one's physical being. Thus, negative stereotyping based on physical and/or innate features creates a particularly poignant and injurious impact on a person's self-concept.

Research on stereotype threat has both confirmed the existence of the phenomenon (at least, in laboratory settings) and expanded the concept. Steele and Aronson (1995) originally theorized that stereotype threat might be a result of inefficient cognitive processing similar to that experienced in other evaluative situations. As the individual's confidence about his performance falls, subsequent performance and motivation is undermined. Brown and Josephs (1999) posit that anyone is susceptible to stereotype threat under the right circumstances, even as a member of a positively stereotyped group. When any group's performance is judged according to stereotype, evaluative apprehension develops and performance likely drops. Stone, Lynch, Sjomeling, and Darley (1999) found that stereotype threat processes may not be localized to one context, but may affect persons from one context to another. They also found that stereotype threat could be so contextually sensitive that even subtle indicators of a disapproving environment might stimulate the experience of threat (see also, Bosson et al., 2003).

Aronson, Fried, and Good (2002) state that in order to experience stereotype threat the target must be aware of the stereotype, care enough about performing well in the specific domain, and want to disprove the stereotype's implications. Ben-Zeev, Fein, and Inzlicht (2005) found that stereotype effects typically occur when individuals are attempting to perform difficult tasks that challenge the individual's knowledge and abilities. They posit that stereotype threat could be the additive effects of stereotype activation and low performance expectations.

Several researchers have examined the effects of stereotype threat. Kray, Thompson, and Galinsky (2001) found that stereotype threat negatively affects key abilities women needed to negotiate the workplace. Women were found to overcompensate for the negative effect of stereotype threat in order to stay on equal footing with their male counterparts. Aronson et al. (2002) confirmed that stereotype threat impairs performance by inducing anxiety, and undermines achievement by inducing one to minimize the importance of the specific domain under question, and the devaluing of the importance of that domain to the self-concept of the stereotyped person.

Nguyen, O'Neal, and Ryan (2003) explored stereotype threat effects on the racial gap via a simulated personnel selection test. In their testing of undergraduate students, they found no overall stereotype threat effects on test performance. However, they did find that stereotype threat effects significantly moderated the relationship between performance and test-taking skill, and between performance and test-taking attentional processes.

Several responses to stereotype threat have been explored. Aronson et al. (2002) investigated methods designed to help college students resist the effects of stereotype

threat. They reported that the methods were successful in supporting resistance to stereotype threats, but that an individual's direct perception of stereotype threat did not change. In other words, the stereotype threat continued to be activated in the individual, but the target's *responses* to stereotype threat were modified.

Miller and Malloy (2003) also investigated methods to overcome stereotype threat, but in gay men. They found that some gay men displayed higher levels of positive verbal and nonverbal behavior in an effort to compensate for the threat in the environment. Disturbingly, they found that the gay men who engaged in the highest levels of positive behavior also indicated the most negative personal experiences. This dissonance with their group or orientation fueled a strong dual identity that was difficult to manage

Seibt and Forster (2004) found that active, negative self-stereotypes foster a "risk-averse, vigilant processing style," while positive self-stereotypes foster a more explorative processing style. This means that as a target of stereotype focuses on performing a task, if the stereotype activated triggers a negative self-stereotype, then the person's approach to performing the task is modified to become less creative, and more intent on simply getting the job done correctly.

Considerable efforts have been exerted to research mediating variables of stereotype threat. Though many mechanisms have been proposed and studied, Smith (2004) reports that no *single* mediator has been identified. For example, Steele and Aronson (1995) proposed self-doubt or low self-efficacy expectations as mediating factors. Stone et al. (1999) furthered this idea by proposing that stereotype threat increases anxiety setting into motion the processes that inhibit performance. Katz et al.

(2002) reported that anxiety might be better predicted in situations that are perceived as threatening, especially when they involve discriminatory attitudes and behaviors. Leyens, Désert, Croizet, and Darcis (2000) found that stereotype threat effects are due to the environment, not an intrinsic vulnerability within the target. Roberson, Deitch, Brief, and Block (2003) also found that perceptions of stereotype threat are influenced by contextual variables. In particular, being the sole representative of a stigmatized group (solo status) enhanced perceptions of stereotype threat within the employee. Organizational perspectives toward diversity also affect vulnerability to stereotype threat. Even when diversity tolerance is being promoted, the stigmatized person may be singled out and the salience of social stereotypes may be increased.

Chen (2004) proposed stigma consciousness – the "perceived probability of being stereotyped (Pinel, 1999, p. 118)" – as a mediator of stereotype threat. Ben-Zeev et al. (2005) suggested that stereotype threat may interfere with performance by heightening physical arousal in stereotype threat conditions. Anxiety has been positively associated with physical arousal that facilitates performance on easy tasks, but impairs performance on difficult tasks. A second possibility suggests that stereotype threat diverts one's attention from the task, thereby lowering performance. Vohs, Baumeister, and Ciarocco (2005) support this distraction theory. Vohs and colleagues examined self-regulatory processes and found that if a person attempts to engage in several demanding self-regulatory tasks simultaneously, the chance of success at any of them is limited. These self-regulatory tasks may be especially needed for interpersonal processes (such as coping with stereotype threat) that demand attentional, emotional, and cognitive control (and less focus on task performance).

Intriguingly, Cadinu, Maass, Lombardo and Frigerio. (2006) discovered that stereotype threat could be triggered simply by the label of the task. Yet, not all people are susceptible to stereotype threat. In their study, Cadinu et al. (2006) identified three mediators: individual differences (the degree to which a person identifies with the stigmatized group), stigma consciousness, and the importance the individual assigns to the performance of the task. Individuals with higher levels of Internal Locus of Control (as measured by Rotter's External/Internal Locus of Control Scale) generally perform better than those with high levels of External Locus of Control, but are more susceptible to the effects of stereotype threat. In short, individuals who feel more personally responsible for performance, fear making the group look bad, or are trying to save the group from confirming stereotypes seem to wilt under the pressure of stereotype threat.

However, much of the research on stereotype threat has been conducted in laboratory settings, not in real-life situations (Roberson et al, 2003). Studies that have been conducted in applied settings have not shown strong support for stereotype threat. This result may be because stereotype threat may only exert influence when the minority status or gender is made salient to the individual before testing (as in laboratory settings). Conversely, stereotype threat may be experienced in applied settings, but the effect may be overcome by strong motivation to succeed. The target may exert more effort to perform well, and subsequently, inhibit the influences of stereotype threat (Cullen, Hardison, & Sackett, 2004).

In summary, stereotype threat theory posits the existence of a socio-psychological phenomenon in which a member of a stigmatized group fears that his/her actions will confirm a negative stereotype. Implicit in this concern is the desire to present oneself and

one's group in a positive light, and to avoid negative repercussions from prejudiced individuals or entities. Research has routinely shown stereotype effects in laboratory settings, but rarely in applied settings. The process of stereotype threat remains the focus of discussion among many scholars. To date, research studies suggest that everyone is susceptible to stereotype threat, but some individuals may utilize individual differences and social support resources to overcome the negative effects. When coping strategies fail to overcome stereotype threat, then emotional and mental well-being decreases and performance declines.

Self-monitoring and Concern for Appropriateness

Stereotype threat research has identified several psychological consequences of experiencing stereotype threat. Specific to the workplace, Waldo (1999) found that GLB people who experienced heterosexism in the workplace reported increased psychological distress and health-related problems. Croteau (1996) found that anxiety is the primary feature of the subjective accounts of gay men and lesbian women at work, and that anxiety is pervasive in their experience in the workplace. Anxiety is the major factor in LGBT persons choosing to hide their identities. Bosson et al. (2004) found even non-verbal anxiety significantly mediates the effects of stereotype threat on gay men's performance during an interpersonal task.

A general experience of fear and mistrust in interactions with the dominant culture evokes hypervigilance repeatedly and continually in the everyday life of the minority person (Meyer, 1995). Mathews (1990, 1993 as cited by Mogg & Bradley, 1998) described hypervigilance as a mode of operation associated with anxiety "in which the anxious person scans the environment for threatening stimuli" (p. 812). He also proposed

that hypervigilance is most likely in individuals who are experiencing stressful life circumstances: "selective attention for threat-related stimuli rather than neutral stimuli" (Mogg & Bradley, 1998). Seibt and Forster (2004) found that active, negative self-stereotypes foster a "risk-averse, vigilant processing style." This trait develops, said Allport (1954), in targets of prejudice that come to expect rejections, discrimination and violence. Such vigilance becomes chronic, a constant monitoring of his/her behavior in every circumstance, manner of dress, speaking, even walking (Meyer, 1995).

Several studies have noted hypervigilance as part of the constellation of responses to perceived threat in LGBT persons (Boatwright et al., 1996; Carroll & Gilroy, 2002; Meyer, 1995, 2003,). Frable, Blackstone and Scherbaum (1990) argued that as members of a marginalized minority, LGBT individuals must monitor their self-presentations and pay particularly close attention to the nonverbal behaviors of others. In a more positive light, vigilance can serve a protective and positive function. Since LGBT persons are at high risk for hate crimes, perceptual accuracy serves to protect homosexuals from violence (Carroll & Gilroy, 2002).

Hypervigilance can be conceptually linked to Snyder's construct of self-monitoring (Taywaditep, 2001). Day et al (2002) point out that the underlying assumption in self-monitoring is that "people differ in the extent to which they *monitor* (observe, regulate, and control) the public appearances of *self* that they display in social settings and interpersonal relationships" (p. 390).

Some people, out of a concern for the situational appropriateness of their expressive self-presentation, have come to monitor their expressive behavior and accordingly regulate their self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearances

(Gangestad & Snyder, 2000, p. 530).

Gangestad and Snyder (2000) further postulate " . . . those who engage in expressive control should be particularly sensitive to shifts in what constitutes a situationally appropriate performance" (p. 532). However, Gangestad and Snyder (2000) concluded that

> In a general sense, impression managers attempt to control information relevant to inferences about themselves that is available to others . . . specific forms of impression management practiced by high self-monitors may involve attempts to control such inference not merely by suppressing information about the self that could be construed by others in a negative way, but rather by actively constructing and cultivating public identities (that is, by projecting images) that entitle favorable outcomes (p. 546).

In general researchers have conceptualized self-monitoring as a self-regulatory mechanism (Ickes, Holloway, Stinson, & Hoodenpyle, 2006).

Typically, respondents to the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) have been characterized on a bipolar scale: high self-monitors (HSM) and low self-monitors (LSM). High self-monitors are described as "someone who treats interactions with others as a dramatic performance designed to gain attention, make impressions, and at times entertain." In contrast, low self-monitors show the opposite tendencies and attempt to communicate authentic feelings and dispositions (John, Cheek, & Klohnen, 1996, p. 763). High self-monitors tend to monitor and control images they present to better fit in with the social climate around them. HSM are adept at influencing performance ratings of them through employing impression management strategies. Low self-monitors tend

to be true to themselves and display a more consistent behavior across situations (Day et al., 2002).

While Snyder conceived of the Self-Monitoring Scale as measuring five components of behavior, several factor analytic studies identified by Lennox (1988) generally agree on three factors: Acting Ability, Extraversion, and Other-Directedness. Acting Ability refers to an ability to modify one's self-presentation. Extraversion signifies sociability, while Other-directness speaks to a person's "inconsistency of attitudes and behavior, concern about behaving appropriately, and the tendency to use other people's behavior as a guide for what to do in social situations" (John et al., 1996, p.772).

Lennox and Wolfe (1984) revised the Self-Monitoring Scale and created a Concern for Appropriateness Scale. They were concerned that the original Self-Monitoring Scale confounded aspects of self-monitoring with social anxiety in such a way as to invalidate the scale. They proposed that a revised scale would measure only sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others and the ability to modify self-presentation. This revised scale corresponded to the "Acting Ability/Extraversion" factors identified by earlier researchers. Gaines, Work, Johnson, Youn, & Lai (2000) hold that the Other-directedness factor "adequately captures" the concept of self-monitoring as Snyder first conceived it (i.e. as anxiety). Concurrently, the new Concern for Appropriateness Scale was conceived to measure two variables directly associated with social anxiety: cross-situational variability and social comparison (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984).

Self-monitoring does not relate to the external/internal dimensions of personality as much as it does to the differentiating between "on-stage" behaviors from "offstage" behaviors (Briggs & Cheek, 1988). John et al.'s, (1996) meta-analysis of self-monitoring research studies supported the validity and utility of the original self-monitoring construct as a moderator of the relations between attitudes and behavior.

Day et al. (2002) and Day and Schleicher (2006) studied self-monitoring in the workplace. In the workplace, self-monitoring has been characterized as a relationship at the heart of most organizational work and a "personality variable especially relevant to understanding the attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes that constitutes the primary criterion domains in organizational settings" (Day & Schleicher, 2006, p. 687). Results indicated that self-monitoring is associated with job performance, advancement, leadership behavior and emergence, and several other work-related attitudes. High self-monitors in the workplace were shown to be more other-directed and likely to use their jobs as a way of protecting a desirable self-image. Ironically, that strategy may lead them to pursue more prestigious job opportunities, thus being less committed to the organization than low self-monitors. High self-monitors are linked with lower interpersonal commitment, less stable social bonds, and greater levels of perceived role stressors, ambiguity, and conflict than low self-monitors.

By practicing impression management to control public perceptions, LGBT individuals undertake an "extensive restructuring" of his/her self-concept, a redefinition of one's identity, and a rejection of the juvenile images left over from childhood (e.g., "sissy" or "tomboy"). Some may thoroughly change their appearance and mannerisms, while some may only "modify their appearance to avoid gender- and homophobia-related

stigmatization." This "chronic preoccupation" develops into a "relatively enduring personality characteristic" of some LGBT persons (Taywaditep. 2001, p. 20). This line of research seems to confirm Steele's (1997) research that postulated that

in chronic situations of stereotype threat, individuals become pressured to "disidentify" with the domain to preserve feelings of self-worth. Disidentification involves a reconstruction of one's self image to remove the value associated with the domain, thereby reducing the effect of negative performance (Baker & Horton, 2003).

In sum, self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness appear to be psychological responses to threatening situations. In the current research, self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness will be operationalized as primary psychological responses to stereotype threat and as mediators of stereotype threat on job performance.

Job Performance Theory

Motowidlo (2003) defined job performance as the "total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time" (p. 39). Earlier, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) identified two types of performance: task performance and contextual performance. *Task performance* can be defined as the "effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute directly to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (p. 99) (see also Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmitt, 1997). Task performance is also considered to be prescribed by the job role (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). An example of task performance might include closing a sale, or

reconciling the books. In contrast, *contextual performance* "contributes to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes" (p. 100). Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) consider contextual performance to typically be at the discretion of the employee. An example of a contextual performance activity might be to volunteer to do a task not formally part of the job description, or voluntarily cooperating with co-workers to accomplish a task.

Task performance is further divided into two classes of behavior. One class consists of activities that "directly transform raw materials" into goods or services produced by the organization. A second class consists of the services that replenish supplies of raw materials, distribute finishes products, and provide the planning, coordination, and other activities that insure the functioning of the organization (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

Contextual performance supports the broader organizational, social and psychological needs of the organization and its employees. Borman and Motowidlo (1993; see also, Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) identified five categories of contextual performance:

> The categories are (a) volunteering to carry out task activities that are not
>
> formally a part of the job; (b) persisting with extra enthusiasm when necessary to
>
> complete own task activities successfully; (c) helping and cooperating with
>
> others; (d) following organizational rules and procedures even when it is
>
> personally inconvenient; and (e) endorsing, supporting, and defending
>
> organizational objectives (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, p. 476).

Borman and Motowidlo (1997) concluded that the contextual performance domain would become increasingly important in organizations. They cite the dynamic change in the character of the workplace, including a need for the employee to become more adaptable to diverse demands, as reasons for this growing importance. Even more importantly, they suggest that personality variables correlate more highly with contextual performance.

In summary, job performance encompasses both task specific performance and behaviors that promote the welfare of the organization. Context and environment enter into the conceptualization of job performance. As Borman and Motowidlo (1997) suggest, psychological variables greatly affect job performance. One psychological variable that has been highly researched in relation to job performance is that of self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy indicates a person's beliefs about self. Bandura (1994) defined self-efficacy as "peoples' beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" (p. 71). Bong and Skaalvik (2003) define self-efficacy as "what individuals believe they can do with whatever skills and abilities they possess . . . represents individual expectations and convictions of what they can accomplish" (p.5). Self-efficacy beliefs "consist of the degree to which individuals believe they can control their level of performance and their environment" (Klassen, 2004, p. 731). Pajares (2005) purports that self-efficacy includes how long we persist when we face obstacles and in the face of failure; thus, self-efficacy is related to coping strategies (Adams et al., 2005).

Self-efficacy beliefs develop from four major sources according to Bandura (1986, 1994): 1) enactive mastery experience, that is, successes beget successes. An individual's own mastery experiences carry a greater weight in self-efficacy appraisals than the remaining three sources (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003); 2) vicarious experience based on similar others' performance; 3) verbal persuasion, especially when people who convey the information are seen as knowledgeable, credible and realistic; and, 4) physiological reactions. "Heightened physiological arousal such as sweating, heartbeats, fatigue, aches, pain, and mood changes" affect a person's efficacy appraisal (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p.6.).

Self-efficacy is distinguished from self-concept in that self-efficacy is a "context-specific assessment of competence to perform a specific task or range of tasks in a given domain" (Klassen, 2004, p. 731). Self-concept, on the other hand, is a "composite view of oneself" (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p.2) and denotes a cognitive appraisal of one's complete self across various contexts. That is, self-efficacy is a judgment of confidence while self-concept is a judgment of self-worth. Self-efficacy may be the "most important building block in one's self concept (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p. 10; see also Bong & Clark, 1999)."

While self-efficacy beliefs are self-referent beliefs, "people's inferences about themselves are also affected by how others perceive them (p.15)." These "reflected appraisals" provide useful information used to help mold one's self-concept. These appraisals by others are "implicit in self-efficacy judgments (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, 14-16)." Bong and Skaalvik (2003) point out that Bandura (1977) studied students' academic performance when a task was novel or when the criteria for success was

ambiguous. He found that students "estimate their efficacy perceptions primarily on the basis of social comparative information (p. 16)."

Self-efficacy theory acknowledges the importance of the environment in shaping "self-referent beliefs." The theory recognizes that personal or environmental factors "moderate the transformation of interests into goal or goals into actions" or "can serve to derail a preferably fluid process of career development and choice" (Morrow et al., 1996).

By contrast, those who view themselves as *inefficacious* experience much stress and anxiety. Studies have shown that low self-efficacy is a strong predictor of anxiety and depression (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p.13). However, inefficacious experience represents more than low self-efficacy. Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) argue that another dimension of job stress, inefficacy, also influences an employee's level of burnout (chronic occupational stress). Inefficacy is "usually *not* related to job stressors, but to poor job resources and more particularly to poor coping strategies" (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2006, p. 5). That is, in addition to personal beliefs about job competence (self-efficacy), an employee under stress experiences a drain of job and personal resources to deal with job demands.

When applied to the lives of gay men and lesbian women, Morrow et al. (1996) hold that self-efficacy beliefs develop prior to one's *identification* of sexual orientation. Though Morrow et al. claim that sexual orientation is "rarely a direct influence on the development" of self-efficacy, they admit research indicates "early self-perceptions of gay boys as sensitive and aesthetically oriented (Isay, 1989)." Devine (1989) writes that there is strong evidence that stereotypes are "well-established in children's memories

before children develop the cognitive ability and flexibility to question or critically evaluate the stereotype's validity or acceptability (p. 6)." It seems logical that embryonic sexual orientation creates dissonance with the gender-role expectations of parents and the larger society. When children who mature into LGBT adults experience censure for gender-incongruent behaviors or show an affinity for gender-incongruent activities or interests, then self-efficacy and interest development may be "completely forestalled . . . when an individual is discouraged or prohibited from engaging in activities within that domain" (Morrow et al., p. 139).

In summary, self-efficacy theory purports the importance of self-referent beliefs about one's ability to perform the tasks at hand. It acknowledges that personal and environmental factors can moderate the effects of self-efficacy on performance. One can then hypothesize that both stereotype threat as an environmental factor and self-monitoring as a personal factor may moderate the effects of self-efficacy on job performance.

Career Theories

This study integrates portions of three major career theories: (1) the relationship between self-efficacy and performance from Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent et al., 1994); (2) the construct of contextual correspondence from Person-Environment-Correspondence theory (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984); and (3) sex-role, circumscription and compromise components from Linda Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription, Compromise and Self-creation (Gottfredson, 1981/2002).

Social Cognitive Career Theory.

Derived from Bandura's Social Cognitive Learning Theory (Lent, Brown, &

Hackett, 2002), Social Cognitive Career Theory proposes a bidirectional interaction of

three dynamic models to understand career development: personal attributes (Interest

Development Model), external environmental factors (Career Choice Model), and overt

behavior (Performance Model).

The Performance model is of most interest to this research. The model

conceptualizes self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals in determining

performance outcomes as sets of beliefs that interact with employees' abilities to

facilitate performance. Self-efficacy beliefs are concerned with a person's capabilities

and how they interact in a complex way with other persons, behavior, and environmental

factors. Outcome expectations are "personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes

of performing particular behaviors" and involve the "imagined consequences of

performing certain behaviors." Goals are beliefs about the "determination to engage in a

particular activity or to effect a particular future outcome" (Lent et al., 2002, p. 262).

Lent et al. (2002) hypothesize that one's abilities and past performance influence

self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations in turn

affect performance goals that impact performance attainment level (Lent et al., 1994,

2002). The authors simultaneously theorize that self-efficacy has a bearing on outcome

expectations, thus shaping performance goals directly and indirectly through outcome

beliefs. Bong and Skaalvik (2003) agree suggesting that perceived competence in

"defined domains" comprises the "single most critical element" of the conceptualization.

"Self-efficacy affects goal setting, which influences self-evaluation and self-satisfaction

and affect during the subsequent self-reflection phase, the results of which, in turn, influence intrinsic interest value, outcome expectations, and subsequent self-efficacy" (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p.30).

Accordingly, the role of self-efficacy in job performance is substantial. People tend to have more positive expectations of the outcome of activities about which they feel greater self-efficacy. Brown et al.'s (1996) study of men and women in training environments found that self-efficacy mediates between a person's experiences and subsequent levels of productivity (see also, Betz, 1986). Additionally, they found that the relation between self-efficacy and productivity might be different for men and women, such that, for men, performance is almost fully mediated by self-efficacy, whereas for women, self-efficacy only partially mediates performance.

Adams et al. (2005) hold that SCCT theory has been useful in understanding the career development process of those who face career barriers due to discrimination. Their qualitative study recorded interviews that highlight the complex nature of specific forms of self-efficacy and outcome expectancy constructs employed by LGBT individuals. Adams et al., (2005) found that self-efficacy beliefs about "one's ability to adequately deal with heterosexism" might strongly influence a person's career development process (p. 212).

Morrow et al. (1996) found in their application of Social Cognitive Career Theory to lesbian and gay careers that gay men and lesbian women grow up aware of and often censured for gender-incongruent behavior and subsequently anticipate oppression or discrimination based on sexual orientation. Thus, they may postpone or abandon the development of any interests that might otherwise translate into a fulfilling career. Due

to their inner turmoil about when and where to "come out" or the possibility of discrimination, LGBT persons may limit their work behavior self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals.

Person-Environment-Correspondence (PEC) Theory

The second theory of career development that offers helpful constructs is *Person-Environment-Correspondence (PEC) Theory,* derived by Dawis and Lofquist (1984; Dawis, 2002, 2005) from the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA). In TWA theory, work is conceptualized as an interaction between an individual and a work environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). The theory suggests a direct relationship between person-environment fit and workplace outcomes (Lyons et al., 2005). PEC theory expands TWA to areas other than work situations (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). The process by which a person (P) and his/her environment (E) mutually respond to each other is called correspondence. Accordingly, "employees are satisfied with their work environments when the values that they possess related to work (e.g., need for compensation) correspond with the reinforcements offered by their work environments (e.g., salary, benefits)" (Lyons et al, 2005, p. 538). The theory posits that P and E are always in one of two behavior modes: maintenance of the status quo or adjustment, i.e., the attempt to restore the P and E correspondence. From this theoretical base, the researcher can hypothesize about needs, skills, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, correspondence to the person and adjustments necessary to experience job satisfaction.

Dawis (1994) and Dawis and Lofquist (1984) suggested that cultural variables, including sexual orientation, would influence the fit of (in this case) LGBT workers to the workplace. The resulting fit, in turn, would influence workplace outcomes (Lyons et

al., 2005). Degges-White and Shoffner (2002) applied PEC Career theory to the work-life of lesbian women in exploring the relationship between the level of outness and discrimination. They found that discrimination as an environmental factor inhibits career satisfaction, fosters a sense of helplessness and affects relationships with coworkers. Both tacit and expressed discrimination against sexual minorities may lead to low correspondence between person and environment regardless of skills, aptitudes and qualifications. Varied levels and forms of discrimination reinforce the employees' experience in the workplace. An individual may be precluded (for example, due to gender stereotypes) from developing particular abilities and skills that would allow her/him to enter a specific field or even face total negation of their interests and abilities early in the career development process.

Lyons et al. (2005) found that approximately one-half (48%) of LGB employees' job satisfaction can be accounted for by the degree to which they feel they fit their environment. Additionally, when compared to studies surveying predominantly heterosexual employees, the fit in their study accounted for "considerably more variance" in job satisfaction. That is, person-organization fit took on greater significance with LGB employees when compared to heterosexual employees. Therefore, the perceptions of fit by the employee mediate between the experiences of informal heterosexism and job satisfaction. Lyons et al. (2005) hypothesized that "it may be that having been forced to manage a stigmatized identity (Fassinger, 2000), lesbians and gay men are more highly attuned to and, therefore, influenced by their environments when making appraisals of workplace outcome" (p. 545).

These studies have added significance when put in context of employee retention and turnovers. They suggest that there is a strong link between one's assessment of the environment and one's self-assessment. It follows that if an employee is not satisfied due to a hostile work environment and thus has a low correspondence with the environment, then the employee is more likely to leave his/her job for an environment that more closely aligns with one's values.

Theory of Circumscription, Compromise and Self-Creation

Gottfredson's *Theory of Circumscription, Compromise and Self-Creation* (1981, 2002) contributes to career theory by emphasizing the "process by which people unnecessarily circumscribe and compromise their career options, often sacrificing fulfillment of their 'internal unique selves' in order to meet expectations for job prestige and sextype" (Gottfredson, 2002, p. 86). Gottfredson postulates four core concepts in consideration of career development: 1) *Self-concept*: one's view of oneself – both public and private; 2) *Social Space*: the range of alternatives within the cognitive map of occupations that the person considers acceptable. In Gottfredson's terms this is the *zone of acceptable alternatives*; 3) *Circumscription*: the process by which children and adolescents (or adults) narrow the territory of the zone of acceptable alternatives; 4) *Compromise*: the process by which youngsters begin to relinquish their most preferred alternatives for less compatible ones that they perceive as more accessible (Gottfredson, 2002).

Self-concept. Gottfredson defined self-concept as inclusive of "many elements, including appearance, abilities, personality, gender, values, and a place in society" (Gottfredson, 2002, p.88) and as the "constellation of the perceptions and evaluations of

themselves that people hold" (Gottfredson, 1985, p. 159). Gottfredson theorizes that

occupations that conflict with core elements of self-concept will be most strongly

rejected. Termed a "salience hierarchy," the theory hypothesizes that people are more

concerned about protecting their preferred identities (core self-concept) than they are

about protecting their social class, ability level, or personality (Gottfredson, 1985). A

keystone of Gottfredson's theory of self-concept posits that sex-role identity

comprehensively affects career choice over and above other job choice factors

(Gottfredson, 1981, 2002; Lippa, 2005).

Social Space. Specifically, social space is the "set or range of occupations that

the person considers as acceptable alternatives" (Gottfredson, 1981, p. 548). Since

occupations represent one's place in society, social space also refers to the individual's

perception "of where he or she fits into society . . . the sort of person he or she would like

to be or is willing to be in the eyes of family, peers, and wider society" (Gottfredson,

1981, p. 548).

Circumscription. Circumscription in Gottfredson's theory refers to the formation

process of occupational aspirations. It is a progression of comparing one's self image

with images of occupations and judging the degree of match between the two. This

delineation of one's self-concept and associated social space (the zone of acceptable

alternatives) proceeds through four stages: 1) orientation to size and power (ages three to

five); 2) orientation to sex roles (ages six to eight); 3) orientation to social valuation (ages

nine to thirteen); 4) orientation to the integral, unique self (ages fourteen and above).

The first three stages are devoted to rejecting unacceptable alternatives. For

example, children begin to understand that jobs are adult-oriented and that working is

part of what is expected of an adult. Children further understand that society has norms about which job is appropriate for male versus female workers. Still later, the child learns that some jobs hold more prestige than other jobs, and are thus more or less acceptable as a career opportunity.

The family environment tremendously affects the child during these first three stages. Gottfredson theorizes that two classes of effects characterize the impact of the family environment on the creation of vocational interests. Shared effects are those aspects of the family environment that affect all siblings and make them more similar to each other. Nonshared effects are those "events and circumstances that affect the development of one sibling but not another." Gottfredson gives the examples of illness, parental favoritism, and different peers as cases of nonshared effects. According to Gottfredson, vocational interests seem to stem primarily from genetic and non-shared environmental factors, while the family environment molds the choices of each child specific to that child (Gottfredson, 1999).

The fourth stage is devoted to identifying which of the acceptable choices are most preferred and most accessible (Gottfredson, 2002). It is only during this fourth stage (ages 14 and up) that individuals begin to focus less on the external social context and begin to attend to the more subtle psychological aspects of self. The impact of burgeoning sexual identity, regardless of sexual orientation, on occupational choice molds the sense of where and how an individual fits into the world (Gottfredson & Lapan, 1997).

Compromise of aspirations. Compromise is the choice strategy used in the circumscription process (Blanchard & Lichtenberg, 2003). Individuals may abandon

their most-preferred alternatives adjusting their aspirations to accommodate the external reality of social norms and acceptability. Compromise (giving up what one most prefers) should be distinguished from simply "changing one's mind about what is most desirable" (Gottfredson & Lapan, 1997, p. 430).

Gottfredson emphasizes that for many individuals it is more important to craft a "good enough" public self (i.e., *settling* for "good enough"), than to choose the occupation that best fits the unique interests and abilities of the individual. For example, Gottfredson and Lapan (1997) say that when job choices involve major compromises such that all "options are clearly unacceptable in some way – wrong sextype, low prestige, or incompatible interest type . . . individuals, especially boys, will usually settle for unsatisfactory prestige and field of work rather than the wrong gender" (p. 427). Blanchard and Lichtenberg (2003) indicated that barriers that act to reduce the acceptability of a job could be seen by the employee as insurmountable obstacles. Many times the individual must consider "familial obligations, the job market, racial and sexual discrimination, and accessibility to prerequisite training" (p. 251).

These compromises follow a predictable pattern: 1) when individuals are trading off small discrepancies from their ideal field of interests, prestige, and sextype, they give highest priority to their interests; 2) when moderate trade-offs are required within the social space, people will most avoid a compromise of prestige. By contrast, they will have little or no concern with sex-type unless trade-offs verge on the unacceptable (which means for most people a cross-sextyped job); 3) when faced with major compromises, people will sacrifice interests and prestige level before compromising sextype boundaries. Although avoiding an unacceptable low-level job is of great concern,

avoiding a cross-sextyped job is of yet higher concern; 4) vocational interests are always

of moderate concern, but they are overshadowed by concerns for either prestige or

sextype, except when both of the latter are close to optimal; 5) the sextype threshold is

more relaxed for women than for men, because research suggests that women currently

are more willing to perform cross-sextyped work than are men (Gottfredson, 2002).

Empirical validation of Gottfredson's theory has been mixed. A recent review of

the literature by Blanchard and Lichtenberg (2003) has shown that, for the most part,

studies in the 1980's and 1990's concluded that Gottfredson's theory did not accurately

reflect the relative importance of sex-type, prestige, and interests. However, two studies

affirmed the primacy of sex-type in career choice and development (Taylor & Pryor,

1985; Pryor & Taylor, 1986).

In their own research, Blanchard and Lichtenberg (2003) studied "119 college

students (34 males, 85 females) from a large midwestern university with ages ranging

from 18 to 34 years old (M=19.36 years, SD=1.71)." They found differences among low,

moderate, and high compromise conditions as to which variable (sex-type, prestige, or

interests) was most important. In the low compromise condition, Gottfredson's pattern

was confirmed: "individuals engaging in minor compromise chose occupations that first

satisfied their interests, followed by prestige, followed by sex-type" (p. 267). In

moderate and high compromise conditions, prestige and sex-type variables were placed

on almost equal importance with minimal importance on interests. The authors suggest

that "Gottfredson's theory (1996) may underestimate the impact prestige has on the

career-decision-making process when one is not able to choose among jobs he or she

finds acceptable" (p. 268).

Interestingly, differences between male and female respondents emerged. Women generally followed the same pattern as participants overall. Men's responses, in contrast, followed Gottfredson's theory suggesting that sex-type is a "more fiercely guarded self-concept component" among men, and that men are less willing to take on a cross-sextype jobs (Blanchard & Lichtenberg, 2003, p. 269).

In supplemental analyses, Blanchard and Lichtenberg (2003) indicated that across conditions, the mean rating for sex-type did not significantly change.

One interpretation is that, regardless of the degree of compromise, sex-type is the most stable variable of the three. . . . Gottfredson has argued the importance of sex-type in the career-decision–making process since the theory's inception, and if one considers stability across conditions as a component of importance, then it provides strong support. However, if level of concern is equated to degree of importance as operationalized in this study, then Gottfredson's theory is not supported, since there were no significant differences between the low, moderate and high compromise conditions . . . it appears that . . . sex-type is a relatively substantial variable only in the moderate and high compromise conditions. (p. 270).

The limitations of the studies reviewed and conducted by Blanchard and Lichtenberg (2003) are important. Since many of the studies utilized samples of college students, a substantial difference may exist between responses of college age students looking forward toward careers and the responses of those already engaged in careers. While Gottfredson's theory *is* a developmental theory, those who have already engaged the workforce may view circumscription and compromise processes differently,

particularly in reference to the necessity of providing one's own livelihood. Other issues, such as educational attainment, and operationalization of constructs may not allow for clear study of Gottfredson's theory. Even Blanchard and Lichtenberg's study was inconclusive, though the dramatic gender differences in the moderate and high compromise positions regarding sex-type seem to provide some validation of the theory.

Several concepts from Gottfredson's theory hold intuitive appeal to LGBT persons. The matrix of self-concept, social space, circumscription and compromise strike profound chords of meaning. LGBT persons are acutely aware of how sexual orientation significantly impacts one's self-concept, one's sense of being different in an environment that favors conformity, and one's choices about what lifestyle – including career – is possible.

In line with Gottfredson's theory, LGBT persons may go to extreme lengths to protect their traits that do not conform to societal frameworks by most strongly protecting their masculinity-femininity identity. Their identity and social status (in this case, positions at work or among colleagues) will be protected *prior* to meeting the match of occupation to their personality. That is, individuals will choose jobs or careers that reflect the roles approved by society in order to maintain a level of secrecy about their gender/sexual orientation or membership in a stigmatized group.

Obviously, for the LGBT person, one's social space is of enormous import. Being LGBT in a heterosexist society, intensifies the demand to "fit in," and requires a great amount of consideration regarding the person one is, the person one would like to be, and the person one is willing to be (and at what level of openness) with family, friends, fellow workers, bosses, and the greater society.

Circumscription presents an intriguing line of inquiry when combined with the stories of LGBT individuals' personal and career development. Sex-role orientation and sexual orientation collide on this trajectory. The American Psychological Association (2004) describes sexual orientation as "most likely the result of a complex interaction of environmental, cognitive, and biological factors" that for most people "is shaped at an early age." As Gottfredson (1999) cites, some behavioral geneticists speculate that "precursor traits, closer to the genetic level, such as physique, aptitude, temperament, and personality, help determine which experiences an individual selects from a given 'cafeteria of experience' as well as how the individual reacts to those experiences (76)." This study presupposes that "precursor traits" might also refer to sexual orientation and that sexual orientation inevitably helps determine the experiences of individuals from an early age. Indeed, with Gottfredson describing sex-role orientation as occurring around the ages of six to eight years old, it is reasonable to assume that the social sex-typing of occupations might create dissonance within a child and set up conflicts with natural interests and preferences that arise from one's homosexual orientation.

Gottfredson (1981) writes that "children's preferences in Stage 2 clearly reflect a concern with doing what is appropriate for one's sex . . . children may avoid gender-ambiguous choices and accentuate stereotypes in order to consolidate their own sense of gender identity" (p.560). Research, say Morrow et al (2003), points out that gay boys often hold "early self-perceptions . . . as sensitive and aesthetically oriented (Isay, 1989), both gender-incongruent qualities" (p. 139). It seems obvious that in a heterosexist, male-dominated society boys and girls who eventually "come-out" as teenagers or adults learn that there are definite rules about which jobs are possible and acceptable according

to gender sex-roles. Sexual orientation, then, can be construed as one of the nonshared effects of the family environment with which a person of homosexual orientation has to consider in the choosing of careers and jobs.

Homosexual orientation complicates the impact of sex-roles. Recent research confirms "an individual may experience same-sex attraction but choose not to act on this attraction. Similarly, early sexual experiences (and experimentation) [might] not change other aspects of a person's life related to [career] specialization (such as how much or what type of human capital to accumulate, or what occupation to enter) . . . (Black et al., 2003, p.458)." In other words, men and women may choose occupations that conform to societal roles, rather than to their own experience of themselves.

In summary, three career theories help understand some of the career choice decisions made by LGBT persons. Social Cognitive Career Theory contributes the awareness that self-efficacy, inefficacy, and outcome expectations affect performance goals and outcomes. Self-efficacy beliefs about coping with environmental heterosexism turn out to be strategically important in the LGBT person's engagement in the workplace. Accordingly, PEC Theory confirms that discrimination as an environmental factor inhibits career satisfaction, fosters a sense of helplessness, and affects relationships with coworkers. Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise conceptualizes not only the genesis of career dissonance, but also elucidates the consideration of costs and trade-offs made by the employee in order to manage his/her identity in an often hostile world of work.

Each of these areas, self-efficacy, environmental discrimination, and career choice (including costs, trade-offs, and identity management) interact in the workplace to shape the experience of the LGBT worker and are salient to this research.

Summary

As documented above, quantitative and qualitative research, political policies, and news reports indicate that employment discrimination based on sexual orientation continues. Workplace discrimination encourages unfair and negative treatment of workers based on their personal sexual orientation, a factor viewed as being irrelevant to their job performance. Five socio-psychological theories are offered to account for some of the experiences of LGBT persons on the job site. Stereotype threat theory assists the understanding of the psychological impact of being stereotyped and, as a result, being discriminated against. The phenomenon in which a member of a stigmatized group fears that his/her actions will confirm a negative stereotype has been shown to be a factor in performance efforts by those susceptible to stereotyping.

Self-monitoring theory, and its corollary – concern for appropriateness, provides one mechanism by which to understand the experience and response to stereotyping and stereotype threat. Persons who feel threatened often engage in close monitoring of their environment as a protective strategy. Yet this strategy may both disrupt performance or, alternatively, may enhance performance while leaving the stereotyped person psychologically and emotionally vulnerable. Self-efficacy has also been strongly linked with performance. In that self-efficacy is a set of beliefs about one's capacity to perform, these beliefs can be impacted by environmental and personal factors resulting in varied effects on job performance. The job performance theory of Borman and Motowidlo

(1997) suggests that psychological variables greatly affect job performance in both performance of assigned tasks, and in the interaction of the employee with his/her environment.

Three career theories lend useful constructs to this study. Together they inform a tentative theory of career development and choice for persons of non-heterosexual orientation. The theories of Social Cognitive Career (SCCT), Person-Environment-Correspondence (PEC), and Circumscription and Compromise all have in common an acknowledgement of the impact of one's environment on career decision-making. Each of these theories contributes a unique construct to this study. SCCT describes the mediating role of self-efficacy between environmental factors and job performance. PEC theory describes how the environmental system maintains or makes adjustments, thus impacting the level of satisfaction for the employer/employee/coworker relationship. Circumscription and Compromise Theory grounds itself in the belief of the influence and impact of societal specifications regarding the appropriateness of behaviors, including choices of career.

Because of Gottfredson's insistence on the reality and power of sex-type and sex-roles in the career development process, her theory intertwines with current understandings of the genuineness of sexual orientation and its thorough impact on all aspects of life. That is to say, one's sexual orientation is an extremely important variable in one's career decisions. Contemporary events in corporate, small business, educational, and other entities provide evidence that the issue of non-heterosexual orientation continues to be an imposing barrier to gaining and maintaining employment.

One can theorize that a child or adolescent who eventually "comes out" as LGBT incorporates his/her awareness of sexual orientation (though it may be unarticulated) into considerations of career development. Since much socialization of children continues to be along traditional male and female roles (even given some changes in recent years many stereotypical tasks remain salient), children may begin to experience dissonance between personal interests reflecting sexual orientation and parents' and societies delineation of appropriate sex-type roles. The resulting conflict between sexual orientation and societal roles continues into career development and choice as the person enters the job market.

Circumscription and Compromise Theory and PEC Theory interconnect around the issues of obtaining, maintaining, and adjusting to employment. In the language of Circumscription and Compromise, the non-heterosexually oriented person will likely base some of his/her job choices on the openness of the workplace on issues of sexual orientation, thus circumscribing the types of jobs accessible, and compromising job preferences for jobs that are less threatening to personal identity. Once employed, the experiences of maintaining job satisfaction, adjusting to expectations that could be counter to one's self-esteem and identity as a non-heterosexually oriented person, or even remaining employed can be viewed through PEC theory. Anti-LGBT environments compel employees of non-heterosexual orientation to adjust to the environment in a variety of ways. Chung (2001) delineated several ways in which persons in work environments engage impression management to protect them from discrimination.

In this theory, a feedback loop seems both natural and inevitable. As one grows and matures, a developing individual becomes aware of internal and external motivations,

personal attributes and environmental factors that inform his/her choices about career

choice and employment. These factors effectively inform one's beliefs about him/herself

in the work environment, in relation to co-workers and superiors, and in his/her ability to

perform one's job in that setting. Even though a person may be well qualified to

accomplish the tasks, environmental factors such as stereotype threat, lack of support

from co-workers or superiors, even tacit discrimination may lead to a deterioration of the

worker's self-efficacy and his/her subsequent job performance. As part of a feedback

loop, each of these factors feeds back information that the employee adds to his stockpile

of information about his effectiveness and efficacy in that job.

Lyons et al. (2005) researched the work experiences of LGB persons in the

workplace emerging with results that give credence to the assumptions of this study.

They found strong evidence that: 1) LGB employees perceived significantly less

workplace discrimination when they had LGB supervisors and when they had a higher

proportion of gay coworkers in their work groups; 2) The greater the extent of supportive

policies and practices in the organization, the less workplace discrimination was reported

by LGB employees; 3) LGB employees in organizations governed by protective

legislation perceived significantly less workplace discrimination than employees in

organizations not covered by protective legislation; 4) Perceived workplace

discrimination was significantly related to the degree of disclosure of sexual orientation

in the workplace. LGB employees who perceived greater discrimination were more

likely to conceal their sexual orientation at work than LGB employees who reported less

discrimination; 5) LGB workers were more likely to disclose their sexual orientation in

organizations that had supportive policies and practices and that were covered by

protective legislation; 6) The presence of LGB coworkers significantly predicted

disclosure at work, but the presence of LGB supervisors did not; 7) Disclosure was

greater in organizations that had policies forbidding sexual orientation discrimination;

included sexual orientation in definitions of diversity; offered same-sex domestic partner

benefits; and welcomed same-sex partners at company social events; 8) LGB employees

who perceived more workplace discrimination would also hold more negative job and

career attitudes than employees who perceived less workplace discrimination.

Significant correlations were found between perceptions of workplace discrimination and

job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, organizational-based

self-esteem, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, and career commitments.

This study will make a unique contribution in exploring the relationships between

stereotype threat, self-efficacy, self-monitoring and job performance. As Lyons et al.

(2005) report the experiences of workplace discrimination correlate highly with several

employment factors of which turnover intentions is only one. In the present study, the

manner in which stereotype threat (a result of discrimination) impacts job performance

and interacts with important employee dimensions of self-efficacy and self-monitoring.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Waldo (1999) declared that the workplace provides an "ideal context to study the

process of heterosexism in GLB adults" (p.219). In line with Waldo's statement, this

study investigated an aspect of the work lives of gay men, lesbian women, bisexual, and

transgendered persons who are currently employed, namely, the experience of an

employee who is a member of a stigmatized minority in a majority-dominated workplace.

The research not only sought to identify and explicate moderators/mediators of the work

experience for LGBT persons, but also to provide insights into how LGBT persons adapt

to workplace conditions.

The purpose of this research was to examine the effects of stereotype threat on the

well-being of LGBT persons in the workplace as specifically related to self-efficacy, self-

monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and job performance. The benefits of this

research will be a further description of the threat of stereotypes on job outcomes and

adaptation of LGBT persons in the workplace.

The research questions that guided the hypotheses of this study were:

1. Can stereotype threat be confirmed in the employment experience of LGBT

persons in 2006? Croteau (1996) and Waldo (1999) have previously reported

the impact of stereotyping in the workplace, but stereotype threat of LGBT

persons in the workplace previously has not been documented.

2. Does stereotype threat decrease self-efficacy and job performance, and if so, how? Does self-efficacy mediate the effect of stereotype threat on job performance? Alternatively, does stereotype threat mediate the effect of self-efficacy on job performance?

3. What relationship exists between self-monitoring and stereotype threat, and how does that relationship affect self-efficacy and job performance? Can differences between high self-monitoring and low self-monitoring increase our understanding of how LGBT persons adapt to the work environment?

Research Design

Structural equation modeling (*SEM*) procedures was used to examine relationships among latent and manifest variables. Byrne (1994) articulated the objectives of Structural Equation Modeling: "to identify potentially important theoretical relations, and to test the plausibility of a postulated causal system comprising the latent variables . . ." (p. 653). The latent variables in this study include stereotype threat, job performance, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness. Alternative models were tested to ascertain the best fit of the model to the data (Kline, 2005).

Supplementary analysis used a variety of procedures such as independent t-tests and ANOVA tests to examine mean differences among groups on dependent variables. Differences in demographic groups, employment demographics, and sexual orientation groups were assessed on five dependent variables separately: stereotype threat, job performance, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness.

Additionally, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to examine how much sets of independent variables explained the variance in a dependent variable over

and above that explained by earlier sets of independent variables. In this way, the researcher was able to examine the influence of selected variables on job performance by partialing out other variables.

Sampling Plan

Research was conducted through a two-pronged solicitation of participants. One method of solicitation was through contact with various labor union caucuses of LGBT persons and labor caucuses support organizations. Several such caucuses were identified: American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME) LGBT Caucus, American Federation of Teachers (AFT) LGBT Caucus, Communications Workers of America (CWA) Power, The National Education Association - Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual, and Transgender Caucus, Teamsters LGBT Caucus, Service Employees International Union (SIEU) Lavender Caucus, United Food And Commercial Workers (UFCW), and OUTreach (Pride at Work, 2006). Additionally, an initial contact was made with these organizations soliciting their assistance in reaching members of their caucuses with the information regarding the research survey. While some of these caucuses are small (Teamster LGBT Caucus has "a couple of dozen members" – Bill Munger, Director, Teamsters LGBT Caucus, personal communication), Pride at Work, the AFL-CIO caucus, has a mailing list of over 4,000 persons (Bill Munger, Teamsters LGBT Caucus, personal communication). The second prong of participant solicitation was through the widely used methods of contacting persons through various LGBT organizations, newspapers, websites, and through use of the snowballing method utilizing individual contacts.

Obviously, these are not random sampling methods. Sample recruitment for studies

of this population presents some difficult issues. As reported by Herek (2000), large-scale surveys in North America and Europe in the 1980s and 1990s indicate that one to 10 percent of men and one to six percent of women have reported having sexual relations with a person of their own sex since puberty. But this statistic more than likely does not represent those who may identify as gay or lesbian. Indeed, there continues a debate regarding just how one's sexual orientation is defined (see Black, et al., 2003 for details on this debate). Further, in the United States only two to six per cent of adult respondents describe themselves as gay, lesbian, homosexual, or bisexual. Men are more likely than women to self-identify as homosexual.

Though these figures probably understate the actual proportion of gay people in the U.S. population (Herek, 2000), it presents a difficult statistic with which to work. Ideally, as Herek (2000) recommends, the researcher would give randomly selected workers opportunity to identify their sexual orientation. But if the LGBT population represents only one to ten percent of the population, the researcher can only assume that only one in ten to one in 100 persons are LGBT. For example, if the researcher seeks a population from which to derive one hundred gay men and lesbian women, he/she would have to secure 1,000 to 10,000 completed questionnaires! Thus, while self-identification and self-selection biases are relevant to the chosen method of recruitment, entirely random sampling remains unachievable in the time allotted and with limited resources.

Instrumentation

A survey instrument was created to gather data from the subjects. Both a paper-and-pencil version and a web-based version were employed. In fact, one labor caucus group indicated that a web-based survey would work best for the group (Bill Munger,

Teamsters LGBT Caucus, personal communication). Further, since the caucuses are nationwide groups, a web-based survey was potentially more accessible. However, a paper-and-pencil version was available for those who did not have access to a computer.

This research used one survey instrument consisting of a demographic questionnaire, and four scales: Stereotype Threat Scale, Self-Monitoring Scale (the Self-Monitoring Scale and Concern for Appropriateness Scale were combined into one scale), Self-Efficacy Scale, and Job Performance Scale. Each of these is detailed in the paragraphs that follow.

Demographic Questionnaire

A brief demographic section obtained information regarding age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, self-identity and locale. Specific employment details such as length of time on current job, length of time on previous job, job position/title, pay range, and company diversity policies were also requested on the questionnaire.

Stereotype Threat

Stereotype threat has generally been assessed with at least two types of instruments: a measure of stereotype activation, and a measurement of stereotype threat by a self-report questionnaire. Steele and Aronson used a word-fragment completion task to measure stereotype activation, that is, the degree to which stereotype was perceived. Versions of this task have been shown to "measure the cognitive activation of constructs that are either recently primed or self-generated (Gilbert & Hixon, 1991; Tulving, Schacter, & Stark, 1982)" (Steele and Aronson, 1995).

Stereotype threat has been measured by use of a self-report questionnaire (Chatman, 1999; Marx, Stapel, & Muller, 2005; Mayer & Hanges, 2003; McKay, 1999;

Ployhart, et al., 2003; Roberson, et al., 2003; Steele & Aronson, 1995). Steele and Aronson (1995) did not supply reliability information on their scale, but validity was demonstrated, according to Roberson, et al., (2003) in that scores of stereotyped persons were significantly higher than non-stereotyped persons. Since 1995 researchers have adapted Steele and Aronson's questions and/or created new questions to measure the construct. The researchers report a range of internal consistency coefficients for their scales of alpha = .63 to .82.

Ployhart, et al. (2003) constructed a 15-item stereotype threat questionnaire based on questions from three previous studies: Chatman (1999), McKay (1999), and Steele and Aronson (1995). In a confirmatory factor analysis, Ployhart, et al. (2003) found that only eight items performed sufficiently well in fitting the data to the model. Therefore, they eliminated the seven underperforming questions from their *SEM* analysis. While Ployhart, et al. (2003) did not report reliability coefficients, Mayer and Hanges (2003) used the same scale and provided coefficients. Mayer and Hanges (2003) further divided Ployhart, et al.'s (2003) eight-item questionnaire into two subscales: stereotype-threat general and stereotype-specific. They reported a Cronbach's α = .63 for the general scale and α = .74 for the specific scale.

This study used 14 of the 15 questions drawn by Ployhart, et al. (2003) from previous investigations to measure stereotype threat (one question that asked specifically about performance on a test was not used). The decision to include fourteen instead of eight questions was based on desire to test the questions on a different population. Ployhart, et al. (2003) assessed White/Black college students; this study sought to assess currently employed LGBT persons. The fourteen questions that were used in this study

were adapted (similarly to Roberson, et al., 2003) such that job performance terms were substituted for test-related terms. For example, "Working at my job, I want to show that people of my sexual orientation can perform well on it" was substituted for "During the test, I wanted to show that people of my race could perform well on it." This study also followed Mayer and Hanges (2005) and originally planned to assess both general and specific stereotype threat with the questionnaire.

Job performance

Job performance was measured using the model of Borman and Motowidlo (1997). They described job performance on two dimensions: task performance and conceptual performance. *Task performance* refers to the fulfillment of duties that implements the company products of services, and is most related to an employee's job description. In contrast, *contextual performance* is a discretionary behavior by the employee for the benefit of the company over and above prescribed job duties.

Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) measured job performance on these two dimensions by constructing a scale of 30 items; 14 assessed task performance and 16 assessed contextual performance. The task performance questions were adapted from Campbell's (1987) study of Army mechanics; the remaining questions were adapted from Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) description of contextual performance. This study used the 12-item questionnaire devised by Vásquez-Colina (2005) and adapted from Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994). Vásquez-Colina (2005) reported a Cronbach's α = .80. The 12-item questionnaire assesses task performance, contextual performance, and includes one question on overall job performance.

Self-efficacy

Since Bandura's (1977) original conceptualization of self-efficacy, many attempts at measuring self-efficacy have been made. According to Bandura (2001), there is no "all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy" (¶2). He explained that there would be little explanatory or predictive value because the generalized items would have little relevance to the domain being investigated. In other words, the best measurement must be tailored to the particular domain of functioning being investigated.

However, some researchers have argued for general self-efficacy. Luszczynska, Gutiérrez-Doña, and Schwarzer (2005) defined general self-efficacy as "the belief in one's competence to tackle novel tasks and to cope with adversity in a broad range of stressful or challenging encounters, as opposed to specific self-efficacy that is constrained to a particular task at hand (abstract)." These authors found support for general self-efficacy across five cultures (Costa Rica, Germany, Poland, Turkey, and the United States). Some researchers contend that general self-efficacy seems to be a better predictor of performance than specific self-efficacy (Grau, Salanova, & Peiró, 2001).

In occupational settings, the concept of professional self-efficacy was introduced by Cherniss (as cited in Grau, et al., 2001). He defined professional self-efficacy as "belief in the ability to correctly fulfill one's professional role" (p. 64). This concept was later operationalized in the Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey (MBI-GS Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). This subscale of the MBI-GS "reflects a personality characteristic closer to the concept of self-efficacy than to a genuine component of the burnout reaction" (Grau, et al, 2001, p. 64; see also, Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Cordes and Dougherty (1993) found that the construct labeled *diminished personal accomplishment* by the MBI-GS, "results primarily from

depersonalization and factors that suggest one is ineffective, incompetent, or unappreciated" (p. 647).

Because of the research documenting general and professional self-efficacy factors, Grau, et al. (2001) measure occupational self-efficacy by assessing both generalized self-efficacy and professional self-efficacy. They utilized Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1993) General Self-efficacy Scale (GSE) comprising ten items. The reliability coefficient in Grau, et al.'s (2001) study for the GSE is $\alpha = .81$. Professional Self-Efficacy was measured using the Professional Self-Efficacy dimension of the MBI-GS (Schaufeli, et al., 1996). The alpha coefficient was .70.

Wilmer Schaufeli (personal communication, June 8, 2006) argues that it would be better to use an *inefficacy scale* to measure burnout. Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) contend that lack of efficacy (or "reduced personal accomplishment") is not due to job stressors as conceptualized by the MBI-GS, but derives from poor job resources and poor coping strategies. They make the point that lack of self-efficacy cannot be assessed accurately by the reverse scored positively worded items used by the MBI-GS, and may actually be invalid as a measurement of lack of efficacy. In their study, Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) assessed inefficacy using an Inefficacy Scale in which the authors negatively rephrased the positively worded MBI-GS efficacy items. In their study, the inefficacy scale revealed reliabilities of $\alpha = .80$ to .89 for workers in two employment settings. They further theorize that self-efficacy and inefficacy span a continuum where inefficacy could be considered an element of burnout, and efficacy an element of job engagement.

In the current study, a subscale of efficacy questions combined items from the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1993), the Professional Self-Efficacy subscale of the MBI-GS (Schaufeli, et al., 1996), and the Inefficacy Scale (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2006) to assess self-efficacy. As defined by the literature a high score on General Self-Efficacy predicts high job performance. A high score on Professional Self-Efficacy predicts job engagement. A high score on Inefficacy Scale predicts a lack of resources and coping strategies. The researcher predicted that a high performing employee will score high on General and Professional Self-Efficacy Scales and low on the Inefficacy Scale.

Self-monitoring

Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) revision of the *Self-Monitoring Scale* was used to assess the amount of impression management/hypervigilance in each subject. The construct of Self-Monitoring grew out of Snyder's (1974) attempts to identify those persons who display skill in regulating their self-presentation (Cutler & Wolfe, 1985). The scale has three major versions: the original 25-item scale (Snyder, 1974), the revised scale of 18-items (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985), and a 13-item revision scale by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). Day, et al. (2002) conclude that "results are clear-cut in suggesting that if high internal consistency is desired, the 13-item scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) is more reliable than either the 25-item version (Snyder, 1974) or the 18-item version (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985)" (p. 397). They found scale reliabilities as follows: Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) 13-item scale, $\alpha = .81$; Gangestad and Snyder's (1985) revised 18-item scale, $\alpha = .73$; Snyder's (1974) 25-item scale $\alpha = .71$. Day, et al., (2002) also report that Self-Monitoring scales using continuous scoring had higher scale reliability ($\alpha =$

.77), than those using the dichotomous "true/false" scoring ($\alpha = .72$).

In their revision of the Self-Monitoring Scale, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) found four factors, two of which (*Ability of modify self-presentation* and *Sensitivity to expressive behavior of others*) more closely fit Snyder's conceptualizations of self-monitoring, and what Briggs and Cheek (1988) described as "social surgency," that is Extraversion (one of the Big Five Personality Factors). Surgency includes traits such as sociability, gregariousness, assertiveness, leadership, but also could refer to dominance and need for power. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) created their 13-item revision of the Self-Monitoring Scale with the two factors that captured surgency (*Ability to modify self-presentation and Sensitivity to expressive behavior*). They report coefficient alphas of .77 for the Ability to Modify Self-presentation subscale, .70 for the Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior subscale, and .75 for the total scale.

Lennox and Wolfe (1984) also found that two factors (*Cross-situational variability* and *Attention to social comparison information*) did not bear out Snyder's (1974) assumptions, but instead loaded on items that positively related to social anxiety. They created a second compatible scale called "Concern for Appropriateness Scale" from the results that emerged from their study to measure those items that correlated with social anxiety. Cutler and Wolfe (1985) define concern for appropriateness as "people's tendencies to comply with social demand characteristics of the situation" and the individual differences in the tendency to adopt a protective self-presentation style, one manifestation of which is a high degree of situation-appropriate behavior" (p. 318). Two subscales comprise this instrument: Cross-situational Variability ($\alpha = .82$) and Attention to Social Comparison ($\alpha = .83$). The full scale showed internal reliability of $\alpha = .86$.

In this study, the use of both the Self-Monitoring Scale-Revised (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) and the Concern for Appropriateness Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) made logical sense. First, the use of the Self-Monitoring Scale captured the ability of some individuals to actively regulate their environment. The researcher proposed that this dimension would show persons who are attempting to compensate for the actual or potential negative responses to their sexual orientation. Second, the Concern for Appropriateness Scale will capture the elements of anxiety and hypervigilance as noted by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). This ability is further explained by Cutler and Wolfe (1985) citing Arkin (1981) who proposes that "it is often out of a fear of negative evaluation and a desire to avoid social disapproval that people comply with situations demand characteristics (p. 322). Cutler and Wolfe (1984) believe that the Concern for Appropriateness Scale appears to be a valid instrument to assess the dimensions described by Arkin (1981). Together, the scales will capture the diversity of responses to stereotype threat in the workplace. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) recommend using a six-point Likert scale and scoring both subscales and a total scale score for both instruments.

Procedures

The primary mode of analysis utilized Structural Equation Modeling (*SEM*) using AMOS 6 software and SPSS 14.0 software. Structural Equation Modeling (*SEM*) is a "family" of related statistical procedures. Terms such as covariance structure analysis, covariance structure modeling, analysis of covariance structures, and causal modeling classify the various techniques grouped under the *SEM* label. *SEM* is theoretically *a priori*, requiring the investigator to hypothesize a model of interrelationships before

testing the data. However, many applications of *SEM* are combinations of exploratory and confirmatory analyses (Kline, 2005).

Jöreskog (1993) identified three processes basic to *SEM*. The first process is strictly confirmatory where the researcher has only one model that is accepted or rejected. Kline (2005) states that there is rarely an occasion when the scope of the model is so narrow. The second process builds on the first, and includes alternative formulations of the model. The third, Kline (2005) says is the most commonly used. The researcher adjusts the initial model and tests the altered model.

The purposes of *SEM* analysis are to understand patterns of correlations among a set of variables, and to explain as much of their variance with the model specified by the researcher. This is accomplished through six basic steps: 1) The researcher specifies the model in which his/her hypotheses are expressed in the form of a structural equation model; 2) The researcher must determine if the computer program can derive a unique estimation of every model parameter. This process is called "identification"; 3) The researcher must operationalize the model by the selection of measures of the variables in the model, collection, preparation, and screening of the data. 4) Testing the model is the fourth step. The researcher uses the computer program to estimate the model. Included in this step is the need to evaluate the model fit, interpret the parameter estimates, and consider equivalent models; 5) If necessary, the researcher can respecify the model and evaluate the fit of the modified model; 6) After a final model is reached, the researcher should report the analysis clearly and completely (Kline, 2005).

While path analysis concerns the measurement of observed variables only (Kline, 2005), *SEM* allows the researcher to theorize and estimate latent variables. Latent

variables are those variables that cannot be observed directly, abstract phenomena such as self-concept, anomie, or teacher expectations. Latent variables can be measured because they are linked to observed variables. Observed variables are the measured scores such as self-report scores on an attitudinal survey, scores on intelligence tests, or coded responses to interview questions, and are presumed to indicate the latent variables (Byrne, 2001).

The plan of analysis for this study is presented next. First, a theoretical model of the relationships between variables was configured as a path diagram. The path diagram is a visual portrayal of the relations that are assumed to exist between the variables being studied, and is actually a "graphical equivalent of the set of mathematical equations" that relate dependent variables to independent variables (Byrne, 2001, p. 9). In addition to the original model, as recommended by Kline (2005), researchers should generate "at least a few substantively meaningful equivalent models" (p. 154). Equivalent models are recommended because of the widespread understanding that there are many possible equivalent solutions (MacCallum & Browne, 1993; Kline, 2005). These alternative models are expected to "yield the same predicted correlations or covariances but with a different configuration among the same observed variables" (p. 153). Kline reasons that due to an infinite number of possible equivalent versions, "it behooves the researcher to explain why his or her final model should be preferred over mathematically identical ones" (p. 153).

Second, raw scores were imported from an SPSS spreadsheet into the AMOS 6 program. AMOS 6 (but also SPSS 14.0) creates a covariance matrix that the software uses to compute the path coefficients and the estimation of variances.

The third step tested for the factorial validity of the scores from the four measuring instruments. As demonstrated by Byrne (2001), each instrument was assessed separately using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) approach. This strategy allows the researcher to "determine the extent to which items designed to measure a particular factor (i.e., latent construct) actually do so" (p. 99). The subscales of the instrument represent factors, and all of the items identified with a particular subscale are expected to load on its related factor. Post hoc analysis revealed the degree to which the instrument measured the hypothesized model with the sample data. Respecification of the model to achieve a better fitting model was considered to the extent that the original model did not adequately explain the data. Each respecification requires solid grounding in theory in order to make a model change (Byrne, 2001).

The fourth step tested the validity of the causal structure hypothesized in the original full model. The full structural model was tested for the relationships between variables. As in the measurement model, the goodness-of-fit to the data was investigated, and post hoc analyses were conducted to assess the need for respecification.

Once the original model was tested and the best fit specified, equivalent models were tested to explore alternative patterns of relationships. Comparisons between models assisted in arriving at the best explanatory model of the relationships between variables, including the direction of influence.

Supplemental analysis of the demographic data was conducted to assess the impact of various demographic items on the variables measured. Multivariate analyses of the scale scores and various demographic variables provided insights into the lives of the subjects. For example, comparisons between men and women on the variables of self-

efficacy, job performance and stereotype threat. Given the information gathered,

additional analyses were planned for on differences between age groups, blue-collar

versus white-collar jobs, education levels, income levels and so on.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

This study measured lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) persons on

their individual perceptions of their own job performance. The participants in this study

were employed persons who self-identified as LGBT, but whose participation was

solicited primarily through LGBT labor union caucuses and employee resource groups

(See Appendix C for complete list of employee groups enlisted in the survey). The on-

line questionnaire used in this study measured a number of demographic characteristics

selected to describe personal attributes of LGBT persons and their workplace. (See

Appendix B for a copy of the questionnaire.)

The bulk of the survey consisted of five inventories that followed the

demographic items of the questionnaire. The Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) was

combined with the Concern for Appropriateness Scale by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) that

the latter researchers constructed from their work on self-monitoring. A Stereotype

Threat Scale was adapted from questions used in four studies on stereotype threat

(Chatman, 1999; McKay, 1999; Ployhart, et al., 2003; Steele & Aronson, 1995). The Job

Performance Scale was first used by Vasquez-Colina (2005). The items of the scale were

adapted by Vasquez-Colina from research reported by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994)

and Borman and Motowidlo (1993). Finally, a Self-Efficacy Scale was constructed from

three efficacy scales: The Inefficacy Scale by Schaufeli and Salanova (2006), the

Professional Self-Efficacy subscale from the MBI-GS (Schaufeli, et al., 1996), and

Schwarzer and Jerusalem's Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (1993).

This chapter reports the results of the quantitative analyses of the questionnaire

data. The research questions that guided this study were:

1. Can stereotype threat be confirmed in the employment experience of LGBT

   persons in 2006? Croteau (1996) and Waldo (1999) have previously reported

   the impact of stereotyping in the workplace, but stereotype threat of LGBT

   persons in the workplace previously has not been documented.

2. Does stereotype threat decrease self-efficacy and job performance, and if so,

   how? Does self-efficacy mediate the effect of stereotype threat on job

   performance?

3. What relationship exists between self-monitoring, concern for

   appropriateness, and stereotype threat, and how does that relationship affect

   self-efficacy and job performance? Can these relationships increase our

   understanding of how LGBT persons adapt to the work environment?

To answer these questions, five major constructs represented by the five

inventories were examined: self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, stereotype

threat, job performance, and self-efficacy. These major constructs were analyzed using:

(a) hierarchical multiple regression, and (b) structural equation modeling involving both

measurement and path models.

Demographic Variables

Although 708 persons responded to the on-line survey only 570 surveys or 80.5%

of the total respondents were judged appropriate for the analysis. Of the 138 responses

eliminated, 119 persons failed to complete the full survey, 16 persons were not working in the United States, and three persons identified as heterosexual or "straight." Some respondents indicated to the researcher that the survey was too long to complete, or they felt unable to answer the question accurately (see Limitations section of Chapter 5).

Personal Characteristics

Table 1 shows frequency distributions for the variables age, gender, identity, and ethnicity. The majority of the respondents (more than 80%) were in the range of 30 to 60 years of age.

Table 1

Frequency Distributions for Age, Gender, Identity, and Ethnicity (N = 570)

Variable	n	%
Age (years)		
60+	23	4
45-60	207	36
30-45	257	45
18-29	83	15
Gender		
Female	255	45
Male	270	47
Transgender	45	8
Identity		
Bisexual	40	7
Gay	269	47
Lesbian	203	36
Transgender	33	6
Other*	25	4
Ethnicity		
African-American	22	4
Caucasian	491	86
Latino/Latina	14	3
Other*	43	7

*Respondents self-selected "Other" category.
Note. See Appendices D and E for listing of "Other" responses.

The percentages of males (n = 270, 47%) and females (n = 255, 45%) were similar, with

8% of the participants identifying as transgender. In terms of identity, the great majority

was either gay (n = 269, 47%) or lesbian (n = 203, 36%), with smaller percentages in the

categories of transgender (n = 33, 6%) or other (n = 25, 4%). The majority of respondents

were Caucasian (n = 491, 86%). By comparison, the 2006 estimate by the U.S. Censes

Bureau reports that "White" persons make up 80% of the national population, Latino

make up 14% and African-Americans comprise 13% of the American population (U.S.

Census Bureau).

Table 2 shows frequency distributions for geographical location and population.

Table 2

Frequency Distributions for Geographical Location and Population of Workplace Area

(N = 570)

Variable	n	%
Location		
Northeast	98	17
Mid-Atlantic	78	14
South	112	19
Midwest	73	13
South Central/Plains	92	16
Mountain	34	6
Western	83	15
Population		
1 million+	154	27
500,001 – 1 million	125	22
50,001 – 500,000	193	34
Less than 50, 000	98	17

The respondents were spread evenly across the United States, except for a relatively

small proportion of cases from the Mountain region (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana,

New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming). Forty-nine percent (n = 279) of respondents worked

within a large metropolitan area (greater than 500,000 persons). Another 17% ($n = 98$)

worked in areas with less than 50,000 persons. The population figures reflect the area

where the respondent worked (not where the respondent lives).

Employment Characteristics

Frequency distributions of several characteristics regarding employment are

displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Frequency Distributions for Education, Income, Employer Size (N = 570)

Variable	*n*	%
Education		
GED	3	.5
High School Diploma	7	1
Some college	91	16
Associate's Degree	32	6
Bachelor's Degree	199	35
Master's Degree	170	30
Doctoral Degree	68	12
Income		
Under $9,800 a year (poverty level)	21	4
$9,800 to $16,000	17	3
$16, 001 to $30,000	61	11
$30,001 to $45,000	98	17
$45,001 to $85,000	222	39
$85,001 to $100,000	54	9
$100,001 to $300,000	93	16
$300,001 to $500,00	2	0.5
Over $500,000	2	0.5
Employer Size		
Less than 100 employees	143	25
100 – 499 employees	89	16
500 – 1,000 employees	60	10
1,000 – 10,000 employees	131	23
Over 10,000 employees	147	26

Educationally, the largest group of respondents (n = 199, 35%) had attained their bachelor's degree, but there was good representation from persons above and below the bachelor's degree level. The majority of the respondents (n = 503, 88.2%) held full-time jobs. Fifty percent of the respondents (n = 287, 50.4%) reported collecting a salary, while 18.4% (n = 105) were paid by the hour. The modal income group (n = 222, 39%) averaged between $45,000 and $85,000 per year in income. Forty-nine percent (n = 278) of the respondents worked for companies that employ more than 1,000 workers, while another one-quarter (n = 143, 25%) worked for small companies of fewer than 100 employees.

Table 4

Frequency Distributions for Occupational Type (N = 570

Occupation	n	%
Education, Training, and Library Occupations	98	17.2
Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations	67	11.8
Community and Social Services Occupations	59	10.4
Computer and Mathematical Occupations	54	9.5
Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media Occupations	44	7.7
Production Occupations	44	7.7
Business and Financial Operations Occupations	37	6.5
Management Occupations	31	5.4
Sales and Related Occupations	28	4.9
Personal Care and Service Occupations	23	4
Architecture and Engineering Occupations	21	3.7
Life, Physical, and Social Science Occupations	17	3
Transportation and Material Moving Occupations	13	2.3
Legal Occupations	12	2.1
Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations	7	1.2
Protective Service Occupations	4	0.7
Construction and Extractions Occupations	4	0.7
Office and Administrative Support Occupations	2	0.4
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations	2	0.4
Healthcare Support Occupations	1	0.2
Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance Occupations	1	0.2
Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations	1	0.2
Military Specific Occupations	0	0
Total	570	100

Respondents were asked to identify the industry in which they were employed in an open-ended survey question. The occupations listed by the respondents were categorized by Job Families and their accompanying Occupational Code Assignment (OCA) in accordance with the O*NET-SOC (Occupational Information Network—Standard Occupational Classification) based system (O*NET Resource Center, 2006). All but one of the 23 Job Families developed by O*NET were represented among the sample, as shown in Table 4. The highest percentage of respondents (combined total 48.9%) cane from four areas: Education, Training, and Library Occupations; Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations; Community and Social Services Occupations; and Computer and Mathematical Occupations.

Respondents were also asked how long they had been employed by their current employer and how long they had been in their current position. The results (as shown in Tables 5 and 6) demonstrate that the respondents to this survey have stable careers.

Table 5

Frequency Distributions for Time in Current Position by Gender and Identity

	Males		Gay		Females		Lesbian		Transgender	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
0 – 6 months	25	9.3	28	10.4	27	10.6	16	7.9	9	27.3
6 – 12 months	22	8.1	21	7.8	29	11.4	20	9.9	5	15.2
1 to 5 years	91	33.7	89	33.1	103	40.4	80	39.4	8	24.2
5 – 10 years	61	22.6	61	22.7	47	18.4	44	21.7	4	12.1
More than 10 years	71	26.3	70	26.0	49	19.2	43	21.2	7	21.2
Total	270	100	269	100	255	100	203	100	33	100

Mean statistics show that an average of 23% of persons have been in their current position for more than 10 years: Males (n = 71, 26.3%), Gays (n = 70, 26.0%), Females (n = 49, 19.2%), Lesbians (n = 43, 21.2%), and Transgender persons (n = 7, 21.2%).

An average of 19.5% of persons has held their current position for 5-10 years: Males (n = 61, 22.6%), Gays (n = 61, 22.7%), Females (n = 47, 18.4%), Lesbians (n = 44, 21.7%), and Transgender persons (n = 8, 24.1%) have been in their current position for 5-10 years.

Table 6

Frequency Distributions for Time with Current Employer by Gender and Identity

	Males		Gay		Females		Lesbian		Transgender	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
0 – 6 months	16	5.9	18	6.7	18	7.1	8	3.9	9	27.3
6 – 12 months	15	5.6	16	5.9	24	9.4	15	7.4	4	9.5
1 to 5 years	70	25.9	68	25.3	93	36.5	73	36.0	6	18.2
5 – 10 years	66	24.4	65	24.2	59	23.1	53	26.1	5	15.2
More than 10 years	103	38.1	102	37.9	61	23.9	54	26.6	9	27.3
Total	270	100	269	100	255	100	203	100	33	100

In similar fashion, an average of 30.76% of persons have been with their same employer for more than 10 years: Males (n = 103, 38.1%), Gays (n = 102, 37.9%), Females (n = 61, 23.9%), Lesbians (n = 54, 26.6%), and Transgender persons (n = 9, 27.3%). An average of 22.6% has been with their same employer for 5-10 years: Males (n = 66, 24.4%), Gays (n = 65, 24.2%), Females (n = 59, 23.1%), Lesbians (n = 53, 26.6%), and Transgender (n = 5, 15.2%). When considered together, a large proportion of the sample has been engaged in work in the same position and/or with the same

employer for more than five years. By comparison, the *2004 Workplace Diagnostic System (WDS) Benchmarking Report* (Saratoga Institute) indicated that nearly 13% of employees who separated from their jobs left between their third and fifth year of service (WDS, 2004).

Job Diversity Characteristics

Four areas of job relationships that may be impacted by one's sexual orientation were measured. Table 7 shows frequency distributions for the level of disclosure of sexual orientation ("out-ness") to peers and to supervisors. Bivariate correlations indicated that the level of disclosure to peers and supervisors is highly correlated (.808, *p* < .05). This suggests that when an individual is "out" to peers, he/she is also "out" to supervisors.

Table 7

Frequency Distributions for Levels of Disclosure (N = 570)

Variable	*n*	%	Variable	*n*	%
Level of Disclosure/Peers			*Level of Disclosure/ Supervisors*		
Definitely do NOT know about my sexual orientation	27	5	Definitely do NOT know about my sexual orientation	38	7
Might know but NEVER talked about	40	7	Might know but NEVER talked about	52	9
Probably know but NEVER talked about	36	6	Probably know but NEVER talked about	48	8
Probably know but RARELY talked about	36	6	Probably know but RARELY talked about	32	6
Definitely know but RARELY talked about	44	8	Definitely know but RARELY talked about	75	13
Definitely know and SOMETIMES talked about	108	19	Definitely know and SOMETIMES talked about	79	14
Definitely know and OPENLY talked about	279	49	Definitely know and OPENLY talked about	246	43

As derived from Table 7, 75.6% of those surveyed ($n = 431$) indicated that their peers "definitely know" about their sexual orientation, while 70% ($n = 400$) indicated that their supervisors "definitely know" about their sexual orientation.

Table 8 shows the number of LGBT peers and supervisors in the workplace, whether the employer has a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation, and if that policy prohibits discrimination against transgender persons.

Table 8

Frequencies of Distributions for Number of Known LGBT Peer and Supervisors, and Written Policies for Diversity and Transgender Diversity (N = 570)

Variable		*n*	%
Number of Known LGBT Peers			
	None	187	33
	0-5	200	35
	5-10	68	12
	More than 10	115	20
Number of Known LGBT Supervisors			
	None	419	74
	0-5	127	22
	5-10	6	1
	More than 10	18	3
Written Diversity Policies			
	Yes	438	77
	No	132	23
Written Transgender Policies			
	Yes	225	40
	No	180	32
	I don't know	163	28

One-third of the respondents (33%) knew of no LGBT peers in their workplace, and three-quarters of them (74%) knew of no LGBT supervisors in their workplace. In terms

of workplace diversity policies, nearly one-quarter (23%) of employees work for a company that has no written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status. When asked if protection for transgender people was included in policies prohibiting discrimination, nearly 40% said "yes", 32% said "no," and 29% percent of respondents answered "I don't know." Thus in this sample, over 75% of the respondents work for companies that prohibit discrimination against persons based on sexual orientation, but only 40% work at companies that prohibit discrimination against persons who are transgender.

Incidents of Discrimination in the Workplace

Three questions in the survey measured incidents of discrimination respondents experienced in the workplace. Table 9 presents frequency distributions for the question: "Have you ever been threatened or hurt at work because someone thought you were lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender?" When calculating the percentages of incidents of threat or injury for each gender identity, 30% of transgender persons responding reported threats in contrast to 15% of females and 16% of males.

Table 9

Frequency Distributions for Threatened or Hurt at Work (N = 570)

Variable	Gender Identity						Total n	% of Total N
	Female		Male		Transgender			
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*		
Yes	37	15	43	16	13	30	93	17
No	207	82	212	80	26	60	445	79
I don't know	10	3	12	4	5	10	27	5

Respondents were also asked to report any specific incident of discriminatory behavior that they had experienced on their current job and on their previous job. Two hundred thirty-two persons (41% of the total *N*) indicated that they experience

discriminatory incidents on their current job. This number corresponds closely with the 2005 Workplace Fairness Survey by Lambda Legal Defense and Education Fund that found that 39% of their respondents reported experiencing some form of discrimination in the workplace because of their sexual orientation (Lambda Legal, 2006). Three . hundred and one individuals (53%) indicated that they had experienced discriminatory incidents in their previous jobs. Table 10 shows the list of incidents that was collected from literature on discrimination. These incidents represent the type of incidents that Chung (2001) categorized as "informal discrimination." Respondents could select more than one option, as can be seen in the table. Lack of Respect and Feeling Left Out were the most common incidents reported. Fewer reported incidents occurred for the current job compared to the previous job.

Table 10

Number of Times Incidents of Discrimination on the Job Were Reported

Incident	Current Job	Previous Job
Taunts (mocking)	64	99
Ridicule (scorn)	45	91
Unfriendly Teasing	68	120
Hard Stares	79	122
Feeling Left Out	108	165
Anti-gay Materials (pamphlets, fliers, etc)	48	55
Damages to Personal Belongings	14	25
Lack of Respect (related to sexual orientation)	115	183
Loss of Standing	52	92
Hostility	47	91
Physical Harassment	8	16
Discrimination	52	120
Physical Violence	4	9
Total	704*	1188*

Note: Respondents could select multiple incidents.

Comparisons and Contrasts on Demographic Variables

The importance of identity arose when comparisons between groups were proposed. Two demographic dimensions were chosen, Gender and Identity, and each presented unique challenges in defining the groups to be compared. Neither group was as easily defined as the category label might imply. An examination of Table 11 will reveal that the definitions of gender and identity do not follow a traditional pattern. For example, of the 40 persons who described themselves as Bisexual, 29 also described themselves as Female, 9 as Male, and 2 as Transgender. Another example is the persons who identify as Transgender on Identity. When they identified their gender, two transgender persons identified as Female, two as Male, while the rest claimed a Transgender gender identity. Furthermore, 11 persons whose gender is Female endorsed a Gay identity to refer to themselves (though no males identified as Lesbian), one Transgender person identified as Gay and one as Lesbian. When provided an opportunity to provide alternative self-descriptions 17 persons chose the name "Queer," which applied to any of the three genders (or none) supplied in Item 2 (Gender) of the questionnaire. A full list of alternative self-identifications can be found in Appendix E.

Two sets of respondents were chosen to examine for comparisons and contrasts. The similarities and differences between Females and Males and the similarities and differences between Gays and Lesbians were explored. The narrowing of categories was based on the reality that among Gender and Identity respondents, the Female/Male, Gay/Lesbian, Female/Lesbian, and Male/Gay groups had, by far, the largest representation and were nearly equal in size on each variable. Transgender and bisexual groups contained too few individuals to use in comparison to those larger groups.

Statistically significant differences were found between groups and within groups on seven descriptive variables: Age, Education, Level of "Outness" to Peers, Level of "Outness" to Supervisors, Annual Income, Diversity Policies, and the Number of Known LGBT peers in the workplace. Four of these variables were identified by Ragins and Cornwall (2001) as contributors to the experience of workplace discrimination: Diversity policies, sexual orientation of the employee's supervisor(s) and peers, and the disclosure of one's sexual orientation in the workplace.

Table 11

Crosstabulation of Identity by Gender

	Bisexual	Gay	Lesbian	Transgender	Other	Total
Female	29	11	202	2	11	255
Male	9	257	0	2	2	270
Transgender	2	1	1	29	12	45
Total	40	269	203	33	25	570

Independent t-tests were calculated to compare the means of Female and Male groups on descriptive variables. Variables having statistically significant differences are shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Comparison by Gender, Annual Income, and Number of Known LGBT Peers (N = 525)

		n	Mean	*t*	*df*	*p*
Annual Income	Female	255	4.64	-4.692	523	.000
	Male	270	5.21			
Number of Known LGBT peers	Female	255	2.07	-2.682	523	.008
	Male	270	2.32			

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used to determine significant differences between Gays and Lesbians. As shown in Table 13, significant differences were found on three descriptive variables for these groups.

Table 13

Comparison by Identity, Annual Income, Level of "Outness" to Peers, and Number of Known LGBT Peers (N = 472)

		n	Mean	*F*	*df*	*p*
Annual Income	Gay	269	5.23	11.630	(1, 470)	.001
	Lesbian	203	4.81			
Level of "Outness" to Peers	Gay	269	5.54	5.332	(1, 470)	.021
	Lesbian	203	5.93			
Number of Known LGBT peers	Gay	269	2.32	5.148	(1, 470)	.024
	Lesbian	203	2.08			

Note: The demographic variables were considered continuous variables, rather than categorical variables since they were measured as interval variables.

On Annual Income the mean difference translates into substantially different mean incomes. Income for Gay and Male persons fell in the $45,001 to $85,000 range, while the mean income of Lesbian and Female persons fell in the $30,001 to $45,000 range. On the level of "outness," Lesbian persons had higher mean scores than Gay persons indicating that Lesbian persons tend to be more "out" to their peers than Gay persons are. The mean difference on the number of known LGBT peers primarily indicated that most Gays and Lesbians (and Males and Females) know of 0-5 peers in their workplace who are LGBT.

Inventories and Subscales

Five inventories comprised the core of the survey. Each inventory was specifically selected to elucidate the experience of LGBT persons in the workplace. The

five inventories resulted in 14 subscales used to measure various psychological and job-related aspects of the employee respondent. This section will describe the validation of the inventories, the modifications made to the scales based on theory and statistical results, and reliabilities of their respective subscales. A descriptive summary of the 14 subscales can be found in Appendix F.

Following the method used by Byrne (2001), each inventory was tested for factorial validity as a measurement instrument using the measurement model of Structural Equation Modeling (*SEM*).

In testing for the validity of factorial structure for an assessment instrument, the researcher seeks to determine the extent to which items designed to measure a particular factor (i.e. latent construct) actually do so. In general, subscales of a measuring instrument are considered to represent the factors; all items comprising a particular subscale are therefore expected to load onto its related factors (p. 99).

Peyrot (1996) explained that *SEM* analyses produce latent variables that are estimated by observed variables. These observed variables (usually the inventory items) do not measure a latent variable perfectly, leaving some of their essence (Peyrot calls this "true variance") unmeasured. Thus the latent and observed variables share these unmeasured or error variances as well as their shared meaning. If measurement error is not taken into account, it can minimize the observed relationship between variables, but *SEM* allows a more accurate estimate of the size of the relationship by measuring error along with the true variance.

Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) and Concern for Appropriateness Scale (Lennox &
Wolfe, 1984)

The four subscales of the Self-Monitoring Scale and Concern for Appropriateness

Scale were tested for factorial validity. All items on three subscales (the Self-Monitoring

Ability to Modify Self Presentation subscale (SMM), the Self-Monitoring Sensitivity to

Expressive Behavior of Others subscale (SME) and the Concern for Appropriateness

Cross-Situational Variability subscale (CAV) subscale) loaded appropriately and with

statistical significance as expected, according to Snyder (1974) and Lennox and Wolfe

(1984). The parameter estimates for the Concern for Appropriateness Attention to Social

Comparison Information (CAA) subscale were, however, grossly exaggerated. Table 14

provides examples of these item estimates.

Table 14

*Examples of Items from Tests of Measurement Model of Self-Monitoring Scale and
Concern for Appropriateness Scale*

Item	Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	*p*
SMM1	1.165	.079	14.662	***
SME1	1.555	.122	12.788	***
CAV1	1.051	.079	13.330	***
CAA1	4403.367	1624953.050	.003	.998

Note. Byrne (2001) recommends C. R. values $>\pm 1.96$
*** $p < .05$

The parameter estimates for the entire CAA subscale carried similar values and the

goodness-of-fit indices reflected an ill-fitting model: $\chi^2 (489) = 1978.325, p = .000,$

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .799, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .814, and the Root

Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .073 (see Schreiber, Nora, Stage,

Barlow, & King, p. 327; also, Hu & Bentler (1999) recommend values for continuous

data: TLI > .95, CFI > .95 and RMSEA < .06). A review of the standardized residual

matrix displayed a number of values above the recommended 2.58, also indicating a poor

fitting model. Further examination showed that Item CAA13 had a standardized

regression weight (CAA13 related to Concern for Appropriateness Attention to Social

Comparison Information) of .000, and a squared multiple correlation (the proportion of

variance explained by the predictors of the variable) of .000. Modification indices

showed that the items error covariance between CAA7 and CAA12 was extremely high

(139.461). When these were allowed to co-vary, the problems of poor fit remained. The

researcher examined the content of each of the items on the CAA subscale and noted that

each problematic item (as described above) specifically related to matters of apparel,

style, and dress.

Based on knowledge of the population and on this statistical information, the

researcher decided to perform a factor analysis on the full Self-Monitoring/Concern for

Appropriateness Scales. The factor analysis used a maximum likelihood extraction

method with a Varimax rotation. KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .901. The

factor analysis converged in six factors accounting for nearly 60% of the variation. Self-

Monitoring Modify (SMM) and Self-Monitoring Expressive (SME) loaded separately on

two factors as expected. Concern for Appropriateness—Variability (CAV) loaded

significantly on a third factor. As for the CAA subscale, Items CAA2 (.548), CAA7

(.671), and CAA12 (.731) loaded together on a fourth and separate factor than the rest of

the CAA items. In addition, CAA13 had a communality extraction of .140 and a factor

loading of less than .30. Both of these values added evidence of the weak performance of

the CAA13 item.

Taking this information, the researcher used items CAA2, CAA7, and CAA12 to create a new subscale: Concern for Appropriateness in Appearance (CAP). When the *SEM* measurement model was applied to this five-factor (SMM, SME, CAV, CAA, CAP) model, all five subscales displayed statistically significant regression weights. Goodness-of-fit statistics exhibited improvement in model fit: χ^2 (455) = 1316.726, p = .000; the Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI) = .881, Comparative fit index (CFI) = .891, and the RMSEA = .058. The creation of the Concern for Appropriateness – Appearance appeared to theoretically and statistically improve the measurement model for the Self-Monitoring Scale and Concern for Appropriateness Scale. The reliabilities of the scales Self-Monitoring Modify subscale are shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Reliability Statistics for Self-Monitoring/Concern for Appropriateness Subscales

Subscale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Self-Monitoring—Modify (SMM)	.840	7
Self-Monitoring – Expressive (SME)	.844	6
Concern for Appropriateness—Variability (CAV)	.867	7
Concern for Appropriateness—Attention (CAA)	.864	9
Concern for Appropriateness—Appearance (CAP)	.749	3

Note. CAA13 was eliminated from the analysis.

Stereotype threat

The stereotype threat questions were derived from four studies and, following the method employed by Ployhart, et al. (2003) and Mayer and Hanges (2003), questions were originally divided into two subscales: Task-specific Stereotype Threat and Generalized Stereotype Threat. When these were subjected to the *SEM* measurement model process, the two-latent-variable model exhibited a poor fit: χ^2 (76) = 594.224, p = .000; TLI = .674; CFI = .728; RMSEA = .109. The questions were factor analyzed to

determine if a different underlying structure than previously hypothesized existed. A principal components factor analysis unrotated and Varimax rotated were performed with unsatisfactory results. That is, the loadings on the factor components did not make conceptual sense when the items were examined. Subsequently, the researcher chose to use the maximum likelihood extraction method with Varimax rotation. This decision was based on the fact that structural equation modeling also uses maximum likelihood methods. The first analysis resulted in a four component matrix. While this rotation was somewhat clearer, three items continued to be troublesome. In examining the communalities, three items carried a very low extraction value: TSST2 = .083, TSST4 = .197, TSST5 = .216. A fourth item, GST5, was found to load minimally on all components, thus providing no clear direction. Each item was examined for content. Table 16 contains the items in question.

Table 16

Questioned Items on Stereotype Threat Scale

(TSST2) My job may be easier for people of my sexual orientation.
(TSST 4) If I don't understand a job task, I will ask for help, regardless of what people think.
(GST5) I am unconcerned with other's opinions of me.
(TSST5) Working at my job, I want to show that people of my sexual orientation can perform well on it.

The researcher decided that TSST2 and TSST5 were poorly worded in that they likely failed to elicit a feeling of threat. Items TSST2 and TSST5 were, therefore, considered a poor measure of stereotype threat and eliminated from the stereotype threat items. When TSST4 and GST5 were examined, it was judged that both items elicited general

performance responses rather than stereotype threat responses. Thus, they too were eliminated from the analysis.

After eliminating the previous four items, a factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction method and Varimax rotation was again applied. This time the rotated factor matrix provided three components that accounted for 59% of the variance (See Appendix G). The components were named and structured as follows.

Stereotyped Abilities. This subscale was conceptualized as measuring an employee's fear that one's abilities/skills would be minimized because of the perception of others about the employee's sexual orientation.

(STA1) Some people feel I have less ability to do my job because of my sexual orientation (formerly TSST1)

(STA2) My employers expect me to perform poorly on my job because of my sexual orientation (formerly TSST3)

(STA3) As my job gets more difficult, I worry about confirming the negative opinion(s) about the job performance of people of my sexual orientation (formerly TSST6)

(STA4) In work situations people of my sexual orientation often face biased evaluations of performance (formerly GST1) (*Note:* Despite this item's use of the term "evaluations," the item consistently loaded higher on Stereotyped Abilities than on Stereotyped Evaluations.)

Stereotyped Evaluations. This subscale was conceptualized as eliciting beliefs that one's job evaluations will be influenced negatively due to the evaluator's perception of the employee's sexual orientation.

(STE1) Job evaluations have been used to discriminate against people of

my sexual orientation (formerly GST7)

(STE2) A negative opinion exists about how people of my sexual

orientation perform on the job (formerly GST8)

Stereotyped Perceptions. This subscale was conceptualized as drawing on the

employee's concerns regarding others' perceptions of the employee on account of

his/her sexual orientation. This description closely parallels the "reflected

appraisals" noted by Bong & Skaalvik (2003) that are critical to one's self-

concept and "implicit in self-efficacy judgments" (p. 16).

(STP1) My sexual orientation does not affect people's perception of my job

performance ability (formerly GST2)

(STP2) In work situations, I never worry that people will draw conclusions

about me based on my sexual orientation (formerly GST3)

(STP3) I rarely wonder if supervisors judge my job performance based on

my sexual orientation (formerly GST4)

(STP4) When I am talking to someone, I rarely wonder what they may be

thinking of me (formerly GST6)

In the opinion of the researcher, these three scales measured stereotype threat better than

did the two original scales.

Table 17

Reliability Statistics for Stereotype Threat Subscales

Subscale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Stereotyped Abilities (STA)	.729	4
Stereotyped Evaluations (STE)	.766	2
Stereotyped Perceptions (STP)	.716	4

Table 17 shows reliability coefficients for the three Stereotype Threat subscales.

Job Performance Scales

Borman and Motowidlo (1997) conceived of job performance in two dimensions. Task-specific Job Performance related to how well a person feels he/she performs the tasks assigned. Contextual Job Performance related to how well the employee becomes a member of the "community" by initiating additional responsibilities over and above assigned job tasks and that have benefit for the whole group or company. Vásquez-Colina (2005) created and validated a three-part scale to assess Task-specific Job Performance, Contextual Job Performance and Overall Job Performance. This scale was used in this research to assess the employee's perception of his/her performance on the job.

The items on the Job Performance subscales required the respondent to rate him/herself in comparison with the perceived job performance of their co-workers. Table 18 provides examples of the questions.

Table 18

Examples of Job Performance Subscale Items

In relation to other individuals in your organization, how likely is it that you . . .?
Use problem solving skills (Task-specific Job Performance)
Perform administrative work (Task-specific Job Performance)
Cooperate with others in a team (Contextual Job Performance)
Support and encourage a coworker with a problem (Contextual Job Performance)

As shown in Table 19, reliabilities for the Task-specific Job Performance subscale and the Contextual Job Performance subscale are acceptable. Since these scales performed well on both *SEM* measurement model and in the reliability statistics, they were not modified. It should also be noted that these two scales are strongly correlated ($r = .704$,

p = .000). The Overall Job Performance was only one item and was not assessed for scale

reliability, nor was it included in subsequent analysis.

Table 19

Reliability Statistics for Job Performance Scales

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Task-specific Job Performance (TJP)	.799	6
Contextual Job Performance (CJP)	.825	5

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy was measured using three scales. The Professional Self-Efficacy

Scale was a subscale from the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Scale (MBI-GS)

(Schaufeli et al., 1996). This scale was designed to elicit an employee's feelings of

efficacy specifically about their job. The Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer &

Jerusalem, 1993) was designed to assess a person's global feelings of self-efficacy. The

Inefficacy Scale came from the work of Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) who believe that

inefficacy is not simply low self-efficacy, but a feeling of inability and a separate

construct from self-efficacy.

The factorial validity of the Self-Efficacy Scale produced a well-fitting model

both substantively meaningful and statistically significant: $\chi^2 (178) = 594.226, p = .000$;

TLI = .929; CFI = .940; RMSEA = .064. Inefficacy (INE) correlated negatively with

Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) and Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE). Professional

Self-Efficacy (PSE) and Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) correlated positively and very

strongly ($r = .828, p = .001$). The reliabilities for these scales were mixed (see Table 20)

with the PSE and GSE scales having very good reliabilities, but the Inefficacy Scale with poor reliability. The Inefficacy (INE) scale was therefore dropped from further analysis.

Table 20

Reliability Statistics for Self-Efficacy Scales

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE)	.869	6
Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE)	.925	10
Inefficacy (INE)	.584	5

Comparisons and Contrasts on Inventory Variables

In the analyses presented in this section, the researcher examined the effects of several variables on the inventory variables. Variables selected for examination included gender, sexual identity, age, income, and education. The goal of these analyses was to explore how gender, sexual identity, and additional variables related to the scores on the inventories completed by the respondents. These analyses provide a detailed understanding of how the variables measured in the study were interrelated.

When analyses of variance were performed to measure differences among groups, F ratios were calculated to make decisions about statistical significance. The measure of effect size was the partial eta square statistic (η^2). As suggested by Cohen (1988) the partial eta square statistic can be interpreted as follows: .01 means a small effect size, .06 means a medium effect size, and .14 or larger means a large effect size. Values falling between two values are interpreted as being in an intermediate status. For example, a partial eta square statistic of .04 for an F ratio can be interpreted as "between small and medium" in effect size.

Between the groups (as shown in Table 21), Females/Males and Gays/Lesbians demonstrated similar response patterns on the inventory variables. Of note, the mean scores on seven of the inventory variables for both Females and Males and Gay and Lesbians were 3.0 or higher. Scores of 3.0 or higher on each of the inventory questions indicate a range of response from agreement to strong agreement that these items apply to the respondent. For example, the second item of the Concern for Appropriateness — Variability scale (CAV2) states: "In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons." Likert-type response headings were 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Moderately Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree. These seven variables include the Self-Monitoring Ability to Modify Self Presentation subscale (SMM), the Self-Monitoring Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior of Others subscale (SME), the Task-specific Job Performance (TJP), Contextual Job Performance (CJP), and Overall Job Performance (OVR) subscales, the Professional (PSE) and Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) subscales.

Also shown in Table 21, statistically significant group mean differences existed between Gays and Lesbians (but not between Females and Males) on Self-Monitoring Modify (SMM), all three of the Concern for Appropriateness subscales (CAV, CAA, and CAP) and the Contextual Job Performance (CJP) subscale. Table 22 provides significance statistics and effect size for the five inventory variables on which Lesbians and Gays demonstrated statistically significant differences. Gay men had higher scores than Lesbians for SMM, CAV, CAA, and CAP. On CJP, the Lesbian mean exceeded the Gay mean.

Table 21

Means of Inventory Subscales for Females and Males, Gay and/Lesbians

	Self-Monitoring		Concern for Appropriateness			Job Performance		
	SMM	SME	CAV	CAA	CAP	TJP	CJP	OVR
Female (N = 255)	3.19	3.34	2.60	2.36	2.24	4.30	4.44	4.37
Lesbian (N = 203)	3.18*	3.37	2.57*	2.32*	2.17*	4.35	4.50*	4.42
Gay (N = 269)	3.40*	3.37	2.79*	2.58*	2.54*	4.25	4.37*	4.46
Male (N = 270)	3.40	3.37	2.81	2.58	2.54	4.24	4.34	4.46

	Self-Efficacy			Stereotype Threat		
	PSE	GSE	INE	STA	STE	STP[+]
Female	4.16	3.93	1.45	1.73	2.53	2.86
Lesbian	4.20	3.96	1.41	1.73	2.60	2.88
Gay	4.15	3.91	1.56	1.73	2.53	2.78
Male	4.15	3.90	1.56	1.73	2.53	2.78

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree
*Denotes a significant difference in group means between Gays and Lesbians, $p < 0.05$.
[+]STP was reverse scored.

Table 22

F Ratios and Effect Sizes for Differences between Lesbians (N = 203) and Gays (N = 269) on Five Variables

Dependent Variable	Lesbian	Gay	F	p	Effect Size (η^2)
SMM	3.18	3.40	$F(470, 1) = 9.930$	.002	.011
CAV	2.57	2.79	$F(470, 1) = 9.045$	.003	.019
CAA	2.32	2.58	$F(470, 1) = 18.90$	.000	.039
CAP	2.17	2.54	$F(470, 1) = 24.54$	.000	.050
CJP	4.50	4.37	$F(470, 1) = 6.092$	.014	.013

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Effects of age

When examined for the effect of age, females showed significant differences

between age groups on two variables (see Table 23). On Contextual Job Performance

(CJP), the mean score rose as age rose until age 60-plus, at which time the mean declined slightly (F (251, 3) = 6.486, η^2 = .072). Post hoc tests (Tukey HSD) revealed that the significant group differences were between the 18-29 year olds and those persons who were 30-45 years of age (MDif. = .33562, p = .009) and 18-29 year olds and those 45-60 years old (MDif. = .47033, p = .000). Note that there was no statistically significant difference among age groups on Task-specific Job Performance (TJP). Means on the Professional Self-Efficacy Scale (PSE) also rose as age rose (F(251, 3) = 4.356, η^2 = .049). The statistically significant difference existed between 18-29 year olds and 45-60 year olds (MDif = .38916, p = .017). There was no statistically significant difference among age groups of females on the Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) Scale.

Table 23

Means on Inventory Variables with Significant Differences on Females (N = 255) and Males (N = 270) by Age

	FEMALES		MALES			
	CJP	PSE	SME	CAV	CAA	CAP
18-29 years	4.11	3.94	3.38	3.23	3.12	3.19
30-45 years	4.45	4.08	3.47	2.84	2.63	2.62
45-60 years	4.58	4.33	3.27	2.69	2.43	2.35
60+ years	4.53	4.61	2.97	2.57	2.14	1.86

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.
CJP = Contextual Job Performance; PSE = Professional Self-Efficacy; SME = Self-Monitoring-Expressive; CAV = Concern for Appropriateness-Variability; CAA = Concern for Appropriateness-Attention; CAP = Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance.

As Table 23 shows, when Males were examined on the age dimension, there was a significant difference among age groups of males on one Self-Monitoring subscale and all three of the Concern for Appropriateness subscales. On the Self-Monitoring Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior of Others (SME) subscale (F(266, 3) = 2.925, η^2 = .032), though all age groups agreed that this was a salient dimension, those in the 30 to

45-years age group averaged a statistically significant higher score. While overall, the three Concern for Appropriateness scales averaged a score that indicated disagreement, the 18-29 year old males differed at a statistically significant level by agreeing that Concern for Appropriateness-Variability (CAV) ($F(266, 3) = 3.277$, $\eta^2 = .036$), Concern for Appropriateness –Attention (CAA) ($F(266, 3) = 10.038$, $\eta^2 = .102$), and Concern for Appropriateness – Appearance (CAP) ($F(266, 3) = 10.393$, $\eta^2 = .105$) dimensions were salient for them. For all other age groups of males mean scores decreased as age increased.

Effects of Annual Income

There was a significant difference between groups of females on Contextual Job Performance (CJP) with regards to annual income ($F(248, 6) = 6.404$, $\eta^2 = .134$). Table 24 shows that all age groups endorsed relatively high levels of CJP. Mean scores rose as income levels rose. The same pattern existed on both Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) ($F(248, 6) = 3.279$, $\eta^2 = .083$) and Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) ($F(248, 6) = 3.069$, $\eta^2 = .069$).

Table 24

Means for CJP, PSE, GSE for Females (N = 255) by Income Group

Annual Income	n	CJP	PSE	GSE
Under $9800 per year	9	3.78	3.83	3.77
$9800 to $16,000	6	3.93	3.39	3.42
$16,001 to $30,000	31	4.12	3.92	3.65
$30,000 to $45,000	51	4.36	4.00	3.75
$45001, to $85,000	110	4.61	4.29	4.06
$85,001 to $100,000	22	4.46	4.33	4.00
$100,001 to $300,000	26	4.58	4.38	4.17
Total	255	4.44	4.16	3.93

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. CJP = Contextual Job Performance; PSE = Professional Self-Efficacy; GSE = Generalized Self-Efficacy

The significant mean differences of females by income on CJP existed between those who made under $9,800 and those who made above $45,000 (MDif range: .69 to .83, $p < 0.05$) and between those making $16,001 to $30,000 and those making over $45,000 (MDif range: .46 to .49, $p < 0.05$). For males, there were no significant differences among income groups on Job Performance and Self-Efficacy variables.

Effects of Education

Overall, neither males nor females had high levels of agreement that the stereotype threat dimension was related to job evaluations (STE – "Does my sexual orientation make a difference in how I'm evaluated on my job?"). Table 25 shows that there was a significant relationship between education level and mean STE (F (6, 248) = 3.56, η^2 = .079) for females. Those with a doctoral degree had the highest mean. For males, there was no association between education and STE.

Table 25

Means for STE for Females (N = 255) by Educational Level

Education Level		n	m
GED		1	3.50*
H.S. Diploma		3	1.83
Some College		40	2.49
Associate's Degree		10	1.80
Bachelor's Degree		80	2.32
Master's Degree		87	2.64
Doctoral Degree		34	3.16
	Total	255	2.55

*Only one respondent had a GED.
Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.
STE = Stereotyped Evaluations

Effects of the Presence of Diversity Policies

There were no statistically significant group differences for females on any of the inventory variables related to the presence of written diversity policies in the workplace.

But there were significant group differences for males (see Table 26) on the Self-Monitoring Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior of Others (SME) variable ($F(263,5)$ = 2.305, η^2 = .042). At all levels of diversity policies, there was relatively high agreement among males of a need to be concerned with noticing important social cues (SME). Interestingly, as diversity policies were more emphasized, the mean scores rose, perhaps suggesting a need to be more watchful as diversity became more of an issue. Additionally, on both Task-specific Job Performance (TJP) ($F(263, 5)$ = 2.582, η^2 = .047) and Contextual Job Performance (CJP) ($F(263, 5)$ = 2.520, η^2 = .046), perceptions of job performance rose as the level of emphasis on diversity rose.

Males were also affected by stereotype threat on levels of diversity policies. There were significant differences on the Stereotyped Perceptions (STP) subscale ($F(263, 5)$ = 4.969, η^2 = .086). The higher mean scores were on the categories that reflect a written diversity policy in place, but about which it is never, rarely, or only sometimes discussed. This implies that even when policies banning discrimination are in place, unless the issue is regularly emphasized, the negative perceptions of others regarding LGBT persons persist.

Table 26.

Means on Inventory Variables for Males (N=269) by Written Diversity Policies of Workplace

	n	SME	TJP	CJP	STP
Does NOT have a policy	62	3.22	4.30	4.31	2.58
Has a policy/NEVER talked about	30	3.42	4.12	4.12	3.08
Has a policy/RARELY talked about	51	3.38	4.05	4.18	3.00
Has a policy/SOMETIMES talked about	46	3.39	4.30	4.43	2.99
Has a policy/OPENLY talked about	56	3.30	4.22	4.46	2.75
Has a policy/FREQUENTLY talked about	24	3.76	4.53	4.55	2.11
Total	269	3.37	4.23	4.33	2.78

Note: Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. SME = Self-Monitoring-Expressive; TJP = Task Job Performance; CJP = Contextual Job Performance; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

Number of Known LGBT peers in the workplace

There were no statistically significant differences for females on any inventory variable by the number of known LGBT peers in the workplace. For males, however, those who knew of 5-10 LGBT peers in the workplace had the highest mean score on STE (Stereotyped Evaluations) dimensions of the job ($F(265, 4) = 2.396$, $\eta^2 = .035$) (see Table 27). Contextual Job Performance ($F(265, 4) = 3.342$, $\eta^2 = .048$) showed a statistically significant difference for men in regards to the number of LGBT peers reported in the workplace. In fact, all respondents endorsed high levels of Contextual Job Performance, but those persons who knew of 5-10 LGBT peers in their workplace scored a statistically significant higher mean score than other groups.

Table 27

Means on Inventory Variables with Significant Differences on Number of Known LGBT Peers in the Workplace for Males (N = 270)

	n	STE	CJP
None	85	2.31	4.20
0-5	83	2.59	4.34
5-10	35	3.05	4.64
More than 10	70	2.50	4.35
Total	270	2.53	4.34

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; CJP = Contextual Job Performance

"Outness" to Peers

The questionnaire also measured the level of being "out" to peers and supervisors. "Out" refers to the common usage by LGBT persons of having revealed their sexual orientation. The question was asked on a seven-point Likert-type scale from "Definitely do not know" to "Definitely know and Openly talked about." For both females and males, the mean scores were a mix of agree/disagree depending on the level of "outness."

Table 28 displays the mean scores for both females and males on inventory variables affected by levels of "outness" to peers. When examined for significant differences in levels of "outness" among one's peers for females, the variable Concern for Appropriateness – Variability (CAV) ($F(248, 6) = 5.799$, $\eta^2 = .123$) had mean scores of 3.0 or above by those who endorsed three of the categories: "(My peers) Definitely do not know my sexual orientation," "(My peers) Might know my sexual orientation, but NEVER talk about it," and "(My peers) Definitely know my sexual orientation, but rarely talk about it." This variable (CAV) can be understood as measuring a response to "Do I change my behavior in different situations to preserve the impression I need to maintain?" Results indicated that those who were closeted or rarely talked about their sexual orientation experienced more of a concern about impression management in the workplace among their peers. Those who were more open about their sexual orientation had less perceived need to vary behavior. The significant group differences occurred between those who "Definitely Know and Openly" talk about their sexual orientation and the three groups previously mentioned.

The same pattern existed for females on the STE (Stereotyped Evaluations) variable ($F(248, 6) = 2.381$, $\eta^2 = .054$) perhaps tapping into a fear of unfair evaluation if their sexual orientation were known. The variable STP (Stereotyped Perceptions) ($F(248, 6) = 3.053$, $\eta^2 = .069$) presented a mixed set of responses. Those who endorsed "(My peers) Definitely do NOT know my sexual orientation," "(My peers) Might know my sexual orientation, but never talk about it," and "(My peers) Definitely know my sexual orientation and rarely or sometimes talk about it" all agreed (scores of 3.0 and higher) that perceptions of them by others affect their relationship with peers in the workplace.

The female respondents who answered as such demonstrated that they experience concern over stereotyped perceptions by others when they were not out, or their sexual orientation is rarely discussed. This would suggest a fear of the response if peers knew of her sexual orientation, or feeling that the subject was being avoided. Groups of females also demonstrated significant differences on Contextual Job Performance ($F(248, 6) = 2.194$, $\eta^2 = .050$) though all levels of "outness" strongly endorsed participation in the contextual aspects of their job. Those who were more out had higher scores on Contextual Job Performance.

Males endorsed the Concern for Appropriateness—Variability (CAV) ($F(263, 6) = 2.759$, $\eta^2 = .059$) dimension in a similar way as females endorsed it. Those who described themselves as "(My peers) Definitely do not know my sexual orientation," "(My peers) might know, but never talk about it," "(My peers) probably know, but never talk about it," and "(My peers) definitely know but rarely talk about it" all agreed that they were concerned about presenting the appropriate behavior in the appropriate situations among their peers.

In relation to Contextual Job Performance (CJP) ($F(263, 6) = 3.676$, $\eta^2 = .077$) for males, the mean scores generally rose as level of "outness" increased, but there were not significant differences on Task-specific Job Performance (TJP). On the Stereotyped Perceptions (STP) variable ($F(263, 6) = 3.024$, $\eta^2 = .065$), mean scores were highest for those categories which indicated a position of being less out to peers.

Table 28

Means of Females (N = 255) and Males (N = 270) on Inventory Variables by Levels of

Outness to Peers

	FEMALES					MALES			
	n	CAV	STE	STP	CJP	*n*	CAV	STP	CJP
Definitely do Not know	9	3.24	3.11	3.33	4.02	12	3.36	3.0	4.15
Might know/ Never	14	3.05	3.25	3.32	4.14	22	3.10	3.38	4.13
Probably know/ Never	11	2.90	2.41	2.75	4.76	22	3.03	3.03	4.22
Probably know/ Rarely	19	2.83	3.03	2.91	4.33	13	2.80	2.46	4.38
Definitely know/ Rarely	19	3.02	2.42	3.0	4.46	20	3.06	2.98	3.93
Definitely know/ Sometimes	44	2.71	2.57	3.02	4.39	55	2.80	2.77	4.27
Definitely know/ Openly	139	2.37	2.40	2.67	4.50	126	2.64	2.61	4.50
Total	255	2.60	2.55	2.86	4.44	270	2.81	2.78	4.34

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. CAV = Concern for Appropriateness-Variability; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored); CJP = Contextual Job Performance

"Outness" to Supervisors

The level of "outness" to supervisors was also measured. Generally, as reported in the demographic section, respondents were more out to peers than to supervisors. It appears when group differences are examined that concern for appropriateness and stereotype threat were more of a concern in relation to supervisors.

There were statistically significant differences among levels of outness for females on the Concern for Appropriateness—Variability (CAV) subscale ($F(248, 6) =$ 7.488, $\eta^2 = .153$). Those females who had not revealed their sexual orientation to their supervisors or who never talked about their sexual orientation endorsed higher levels of CAV than those females whose sexual orientation was known regardless of how openly it was discussed (see Table 29). The significant differences according to the Tukey HSD

analysis occur between the group that is "Definitively know and Openly talk about" and those groups who are not out or rarely discuss their sexual orientation. Those who were more open agreed, however, that the perceptions held by their supervisors (Stereotyped Perceptions -STP) were not a factor ($F(248, 6) = 3.804$, $\eta^2 = .084$), while those who were not out were concerned about supervisors' perceptions.

Males followed the same pattern as that of females of statistically significant differences on the CAV variable ($F(263, 6) = 4.399$, $\eta^2 = .091$) as well as the STP variable ($F(263, 6) = 2.745$, $\eta^2 = .059$). The "outness" groups among males differed, however, regarding how important the CAV and STP variable were.

Table 29

Means of Females (N = 255) and Males (N = 270) on Inventory Variables by Levels of "Outness to Supervisors"

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	CAV	STP	*n*	CAV	STP
Definitely do Not know	14	3.24	3.25	17	2.94	3.32
Might know	24	3.05	3.34	24	3.51	3.15
Probably know/Never	19	2.90	3.34	26	2.88	2.65
Probably know/Rarely	14	2.87	2.70	16	3.03	2.44
Definitely know/Rarely	32	3.02	2.66	33	2.87	3.01
Definitely know/Sometimes	29	2.71	3.01	44	2.66	2.66
Definitely know/Openly	123	2.37	2.68	110	2.64	2.68
Total	255	2.60	2.86	270	2.81	2.78

Note: Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. CAV = Concern for Appropriateness-Variability; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

To reiterate, between the groups (as shown in Table 20), Females/Males and Gays/Lesbians demonstrated similar response patterns on the inventory variables. Of note, the mean scores on seven of the inventory variables for both Females and Males and Gays and Lesbians were 3.0 or higher. Scores of 3.0 or higher on each of the inventory questions indicate a range of response from agreement to strong agreement that these

items apply to the respondent (Likert-type response headings were 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Moderately Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree). As shown in this section and Tables 24 through 29, responses to scales were often moderated by other variables, sometime showing statistically significant differences within groups. These dimensions appear to be primarily influenced by developmental factors, whether the variable be age (e.g., males 18-29 years old on the three Concern for Appropriateness variables) or the development of public acknowledgement of one's sexual orientation.

Comparisons on the Three Stereotype Threat Variables

Responses to each of the three stereotype threat variables – Stereotyped Abilities, Stereotyped Evaluations, and Stereotyped Perceptions – were reviewed to ascertain differences related to several variables. As noted in the foregoing sections, various groups displayed some statistically significant differences. In this section, responses to the stereotype threat variables will be reviewed according to eight demographic variables of interest: Age, Population Size of Community, Location, Annual Income, Time in Current Position, Time with Current Employer, and Levels of "Outness" to Peers and to Supervisors.

In general, across each of these demographic variables, respondents did not indicate Stereotyped Abilities as having importance in their experience. On Stereotyped Evaluations and Stereotyped Perceptions, the responses were generally evenly divided, with the slightly larger group rejecting the premise that evaluations and perceptions were affected by one's sexual orientation.

As to age (see Table 30), 90.5% of persons 18 to 60 years of age disagreed that Stereotyped Abilities applied to their employment situation. On Stereotyped Evaluations,

56% disagreed with the premise that job evaluations were influenced by one's sexual

orientation. The percentages declined with age from 66% for 18-29 year olds to 54% for

45-60 year olds. However, 61% of those above 60 years of age agreed that they held a

concern about job evaluations. In regards to Stereotyped Perceptions, 59% of all age

groups disagreed (scores below 3.0 on the Likert scale) that Stereotyped Perceptions were

a concern.

Table 30

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Threat Variables by Age (N = 570)

	18- 29 years		30-45 years		45-60 years		60+ years		Total	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
STA Agree	6	7	33	13	15	7	0	0	54	9.5
STA Disagree	77	93	224	87	192	93	23	100	516	90.5
STE Agree	28	34	112	44	96	46	14	61	250	44.0
STE Disagree	55	66	145	56	111	54	9	39	320	56.0
STP Agree	34	41	118	46	74	36	6	26	232	41.0
STP Disagree	49	59	139	54	133	64	17	74	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities;
STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

There were no significant differences on the three variables related to the

population size of the community where the participant was employed (see Table 31).

Following the same pattern as discussed in the previous paragraphs, 90.5% disagreed that

Stereotyped Abilities was a concern, 56% disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations were a

concern, and 59% disagreed that Stereotyped Perceptions were a concern across all sizes

of communities.

Table 31

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Threat Variables by Size of Population Area (N = 570)

	< 50,000		50,000 to 500,000		500,000 to 1, 000,000		> 1 million		Total	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
STA Agree	11	11	17	9	13	10	13	8	54	9.5
STA Disagree	87	89	176	91	112	90	141	92	516	90.5
STE Agree	40	41	88	46	46	40	66	43	250	44.0
STE Disagree	58	59	105	54	69	60	88	57	320	56.0
STP Agree	43	44	82	42	49	39	58	38	232	41.0
STP Disagree	55	56	111	58	76	61	96	62	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

There also appeared to be no significant differences across locations. Though respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Abilities was a concern across all areas of the country, the South, Midwest, and Mountain areas disagreed at a rate of 85% while all other areas (Northeast, Mid-Atlantic, South Central & Plains, and Western) were in a range of 90% to 97% disagreement. When it came to Stereotyped Evaluations, those in the South, South Central and Plains, and Mountain regions agreed that Stereotyped Evaluations were a valid concern (South: 53%, South Central and Plains: 48%, and Mountain: 50%). All other regions disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations were a concern in a range of 55% to 64%. Respondents from all areas of the nation agreed Stereotyped Perceptions as important in a range of 82 to 94%.

Table 32

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Threat Variables by Location (N = 570)

	Northeast		Mid-Atlantic		South		Midwest	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
STA Agree	3	3	4	5	17	15	11	15
STA Disagree	95	97	74	95	95	85	62	85
STE Agree	35	36	28	36	59	53	33	45
STE Disagree	63	64	50	64	53	47	40	55
STP Agree	33	34	38	49	46	41	34	47
STP Disagree	65	66	40	51	66	59	39	53

Table 32 (continued)

	South Central & Plains		Mountain		Western		Total (all seven areas)	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
STA Agree	9	10	5	15	5	6	54	9.5
STA Disagree	83	90	29	85	78	94	516	90.5
STE Agree	44	48	17	50	34	41	250	44.0
STE Disagree	48	43	17	50	49	59	320	56.0
STP Agree	39	42	12	35	30	36	232	41.0
STP Disagree	53	58	22	65	53	64	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

No level of income agreed that Stereotyped Abilities was applicable to their experience (90.5%). Respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations were a concern at a rate of 56%. No level of income agreed that Stereotyped Perceptions was a concern at a rate of 59 %.

Table 33

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Threat Variables by Annual Income (N = 570)

	Under $9,800 to $45,000		$45,000 to $85,000		Over $85,000		Total	
	N	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*N*	*%*
STA Agree	22	11	19	9	13	9	54	9.5
STA Disagree	175	89	203	91	138	91	516	90.5
STE Agree	81	41	104	47	65	43	250	44.0
STE Disagree	116	59	118	53	86	57	320	56.0
STP Agree	76	39	94	42	62	41	232	41.0
STP Disagree	121	61	128	58	89	59	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

The variables Time in Current Position (see Table 34) and Time with Current Employer (see Table 35) were reviewed. In relation to Time in Current Position, all respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Abilities was a concern (90.5%); all respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations was a concern (56%), and all respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Perceptions was a concern (59%).

Table 34

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Threat Variables by Time in Current Position (N = 570)

	0 to 6 months		6 months to 12 months		1 to 5 years		5 to 10 years		More than 10 years		Total	
	N	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
STA Agree	8	17	4	10	18	10	12	9	12	7	54	9.5
STA Disagree	39	83	38	90	158	90	118	91	163	93	516	90.5
STE Agree	21	45	15	36	82	47	53	41	79	45	250	44.0
STE Disagree	26	55	27	64	94	53	77	59	96	55	320	56.0
STP Agree	33	50	20	35	91	44	41	37	47	37	232	41.0
STP Disagree	33	50	37	65	117	56	70	63	81	63	338	59.0

Note: Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

Those who had been on the job 6 months or less were evenly split (50%) as to whether Stereotyped Perceptions were an issue. In relation to Time with Current Employer, all respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Abilities was a concern (90.5%); all respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations was a concern (56%), and all respondents disagreed that Stereotyped Perceptions was a concern (59%).

Table 35

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Threat Variables by Time with Current Employer (N = 570)

	0 to 6 months		6 months to 12 months		1 to 5 years		5 to 10 years		More than 10 years		Total	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
STA Agree	10	15	3	5	24	12	9	8	8	6	54	9.5
STA Disagree	56	85	54	95	184	88	102	92	120	94	516	90.5
STE Agree	30	45	25	44	94	45	41	37	60	47	250	44.0
STE Disagree	36	55	32	56	114	55	70	63	68	53	320	56.0
STP Agree	23	49	13	31	75	43	49	38	72	41	232	41.0
STP Disagree	24	51	29	69	101	57	81	62	103	59	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

The final comparison on Stereotype Threat variables was in regards to levels of disclosure of sexual orientation to peers and supervisors. Those whose "Peers Definitely Did NOT Know" about the respondent's sexual orientation disagreed that Stereotyped Abilities was a concern at a lower rate than all other groups (74%). All other groups disagreed that Stereotype Abilities was a concern in a range from 84% to 94%. Two levels of disclosure agreed that Stereotyped Evaluations was a concern for them: "Peers Might Know" (60%) and "Peers Probably Know But It Is Rarely Talked About" (55%).

All other groups disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations was a concern in a range from 52% to 64%.

Table 36

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Variables by Level of "Outness" to Peers (N = 570)

	Definitely do NOT Know		Might know/Never		Probably know/ Never		Probably know/ Rarely	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
STA Agree	7	26	5	13	2	6	5	14
STA Disagree	20	74	35	87	34	94	31	86
STE Agree	11	41	24	60	17	47	20	55
STE Disagree	16	59	16	40	19	53	16	45
STP Agree	13	48	26	65	15	42	13	36
STP Disagree	14	52	14	35	21	58	23	64

(table continued)

Table 36 (continued)

	Definitely know/ Rarely		Definitely know/ Sometimes		Definitely know/ Openly		Total	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
STA Agree	7	16	7	6	21	8	54	9.5
STA Disagree	37	84	101	94	258	92	516	90.5
STE Agree	21	48	39	36	118	42	250	44.0
STE Disagree	23	52	69	64	161	58	320	56.0
STP Agree	25	57	49	45	91	33	232	41.0
STP Disagree	19	43	59	55	188	67	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

There were differences among levels of disclosure regarding Stereotyped Perceptions. For example, those who indicated that their peers "Might know but never talk about it" and those who indicated their peers "Definitely know but rarely talk about

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it" agreed that stereotyped perceptions concern them. All other groups disagreed that Stereotyped Perceptions were a concern.

The patterns of response differed in relation to levels of disclosure to supervisors. Those who's "Supervisors Definitely Did NOT Know" about the respondent's sexual orientation disagreed that Stereotyped Abilities was a concern at a lower rate than all other groups (82%). All other groups disagreed that Stereotype Abilities were a concern in a range from 85% to 94%. Two levels of disclosure agreed that Stereotyped Evaluations was a concern for them: "Supervisors Might Know" (52%) and "Supervisors Probably Know But It Is Rarely Talked About" (55%). All other groups disagreed that Stereotyped Evaluations was a concern in a range from 52% to 67%. Those who indicated that their supervisors "Definitely do NOT know," and "Might know, but never talk about it" agreed that Stereotyped Perceptions were a concern for them. All other levels of disclosure disagreed. This would suggest some concern regarding a supervisor's response if he/she knew of the individual's sexual orientation.

Table 37

Frequency Distributions on Stereotype Variables by Level of "Outness" to Supervisors (N = 570)

	Definitely do NOT Know		Might know/Never		Probably know/ Never		Probably know/ Rarely	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
STA Agree	7	18	8	15	6	12	2	6
STA Disagree	31	82	44	85	42	88	30	94
STE Agree	18	47	27	52	20	42	12	55
STE Disagree	20	53	25	48	28	58	10	45
STP Agree	21	55	32	62	23	48	11	34
STP Disagree	17	45	20	38	25	52	21	66

(Table 37 continued)

Table 37 (continued)

	Definitely know/Rarely		Definitely know/ Sometimes		Definitely know/ Openly		Total	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
STA Agree	6	8	7	9	18	7	54	9.5
STA Disagree	69	92	72	91	228	93	516	90.5
STE Agree	36	48	26	33	111	45	250	44.0
STE Disagree	39	52	53	67	135	55	320	56.0
STP Agree	35	47	26	33	84	34	232	41.0
STP Disagree	40	53	53	67	162	66	338	59.0

Note. Response scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. STA = Stereotyped Abilities; STE = Stereotyped Evaluations; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions (reverse scored)

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to examine how much sets of independent variables explained the variance in a dependent variable over and above that explained by earlier sets of independent variables. The researcher had the advantage of choosing the order of entry of the variables thereby partialing out the effects of independent variables known to strongly correlate with the dependent variable. The researcher also used theory to dictate the progression of order of predictor variables that made sense within the context of the study. For example, in this study, the Self-Monitoring variables and Concern for Appropriateness variables were often partialed out first because these variables likely represent habits of self-presentation learned from childhood. The researcher was then able to assess the impact of job performance or stereotype threat over and above the self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness behaviors.

Bivariate correlations showed that no demographic variables were more than moderately correlated with the inventory variables. In fact, only one demographic

variable – Level of "Outness" to Supervisors -- was correlated even moderately with

inventory variables (Level of "Outness" to Supervisors correlated -.302, $p = .01$ with

Concern for Appropriateness – Variability (CAV). Thus, no demographic variable was

entered as a predictor variable in the regression analyses.

Table 38

Hierarchical Regression Model Summary: Dependent Variables: Task-specific Job Performance and Contextual Job Performance

Dependent Variable Step and Predictor Variables	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	B	Beta
Task-specific Job Performance (TJP)				
Step 1	.494***	.495***		
Contextual Job Performance			.706***	.704***
Step 2 = ns				
Step 3 = ns				
Step 4	.518***	.018***		
Contextual Job Performance			.613***	.611***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.016	.012
Self-Monitoring Expressive			-.001	-.002
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			.013	.017
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			-.067	-.067
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			.013	.016
Professional Self-Efficacy			.132**	.144**
General Self-Efficacy			.019	.020
Contextual Job Performance (CJP)				
Step 1	.494***	.495***		
Task-specific Job Performance			.702***	.704***
Step 2	.502**	.009**		
Task-specific Job Performance			.685***	.687***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.024	.018
Self-Monitoring Expressive			.074*	.087*
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			-.043	-.056
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			-.017	-.017
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			.026	-.034
Step 3 = ns				
Step 4	.547***	.044***		
Task-specific Job Performance			.565***	.567***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.000	.000
Self-Monitoring Expressive			.043	.050
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			-.049	-.064
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			.011	.011
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			.038	.049
Professional Self-Efficacy			.106*	.116*
General Self-Efficacy			.136**	.149**

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

Because the intent of this research as stated by the research questions and hypotheses was to investigate the effect of several variables on job performance, the hierarchical multiple regressions performed on each subscale of the Job Performance Scale were assessed first. Table 38 shows results from these regressions.

As seen in Table 38, Job Performance variables were significantly predicted by only the Self-Efficacy variables. Only Professional Self-efficacy predicted Task-specific Job Performance (Beta = .144, $p < .01$). This makes theoretical sense in that both of these variables specifically assessed tasks associated with one's job description. Generalized Self-efficacy did not significantly predict Task-specific Job Performance. Contextual Job Performance was significantly predicted, however, by both Professional Self-Efficacy (Beta = .116, $p < .05$) and Generalized Self-Efficacy (Beta = .149, $p < .01$).

Further examination of the Self-Efficacy variables was warranted to try to understand those elements that comprise or predict self-efficacy. Hierarchical regression analyses were performed on the two Self-efficacy variables. The results are shown in Table 39. Professional Self-Efficacy was significantly predicted by only Generalized Self-Efficacy (Beta = .763, $p = .000$). In contrast to the single predictor of Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE), Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) was predicted by several variables. Thus, it appears that Generalized Self-Efficacy (belief in one's competence to tackle novel tasks and life challenges) measures broader dimensions than Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE). These dimensions could be described as the ability to manage the best impression of self (SMM), a sensitivity to the expressive displays of others (SME), attention to social comparison information (CAA), feeling a part of the "community"

Table 39

Hierarchical Regression Model Summary: Dependent Variables: Professional Self-efficacy and Generalized Self-Efficacy

Dependent Variable Step and Predictor Variable	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	B	Beta
Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE)				
Step 1	.684***	.685***		
Generalized Self-efficacy			.827***	.828***
Step 2 = ns; Step 3 = ns				
Step 4	.700***	.016***		
Generalized Self-efficacy			.762***	.763***
Self-Monitoring Modify			-.015	-.010
Self-Monitoring Expressive,			-.033	-.035
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			.019	.022
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			.053	.049
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			-.037	-.044
Task-specific Job Performance			.097	.089
Contextual Job Performance			.084	.077
Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE)				
Step 1	.684***	.685***		
Professional Self-efficacy			.828***	.828***
Step 2	.697***	.014***		
Professional Self-efficacy			.801***	.800***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.059	.040
Self-Monitoring Expressive			.089***	.095***
Step 3	.705**	.009**		
Professional Self-efficacy			.787***	.786***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.113**	.076**
Self-Monitoring Expressive,			.085**	.092**
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			-.005	-.006
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			-.115**	-.105**
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			.014	.017
Step 4	.711**	.007**		
Professional Self-efficacy			.734***	.733***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.108**	.073**
Self-Monitoring Expressive			.076**	.082**
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			.002	.002
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			-.106**	-.098**
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			.006	.007
Task-specific Job Performance			.013	.012
Contextual Job Performance			.104**	.095**
Step 5	.714*	.004*		
Professional Self-efficacy			.717***	.716***
Self-Monitoring Modify			.098*	.066*
Self-Monitoring Expressive,			.079**	.085**
Concern for Appropriateness-Variability			.006	.007
Concern for Appropriateness-Attention			-.092**	-.084**
Concern for Appropriateness-Appearance			.006	.007
Task-specific Job Performance			.016	.015
Contextual Job Performance			.103**	.094**
Stereotyped Abilities			.028	.029
Stereotyped Evaluations			-.013	-.021
Stereotyped Perceptions			-.057**	-.075**

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

over and above essential job duties (CJP), and consideration of others' perceptions of self (STP).

These analyses suggest that a structural model of the variables will show that self-efficacy impacts job performance, while stereotype threat will impact job performance, but only indirectly through its effect on self-efficacy. Figure 1 graphically portrays the relationships between Self-Efficacy and Job Performance.

Hierarchical regression analyses of Self-Monitoring variables and Concern for Appropriateness variables were not performed since neither significantly predicted Job Performance. However, as the analyses and Figure 1 demonstrate, indirect effects of Self-Monitoring, Concern for Appropriateness, and Stereotype Threat variables can be expected.
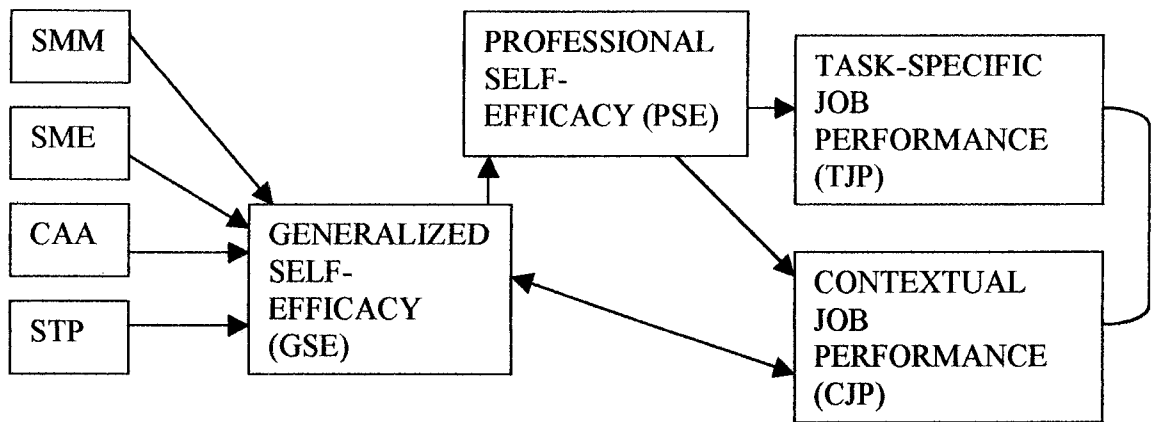
Note: SMM = Self-Monitoring Modify; SME = Self-Monitoring Expressive; CAV = Concern for Appropriateness—Attention; STP = Stereotyped Perceptions.

Figure 1. Conceptual model of relationships among variables

Structural Equation Modeling – Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The knowledge gained in this study from the demographic variables, the group comparisons, and the hierarchical regression analyses led naturally to an effort to represent the way(s) these variables function as a system to influence the workplace

behavior of LGBT persons. Structural Equation Modeling (*SEM*) was selected because as a theoretically *a priori* method it requires the investigator to hypothesize a model of interrelationships before testing the data.

In specifying an *SEM* model, the researcher wanted to identify important theoretical relations including "latent" constructs that cannot be directly measured, but which are deemed plausible. In this study, four constructs were initially proposed as latent variables: Stereotype Threat, Self-Efficacy, Self-Monitoring, and Job Performance. Examinations of scale correlations and hierarchical regressions suggested, however, that the Self-Monitoring Scale and Concern for Appropriateness Scale should be considered separate latent variables. The Self-Monitoring variables correlated weakly with the Concern for Appropriateness variables (ranging from .198 to .322) and, perhaps more significantly, demonstrated correlations in opposite directions with other variables. For example, Self-Monitoring variables correlated positively with Self-Efficacy variables, while Concern for Appropriateness variables correlated negatively. Hierarchical regression analyses resulted in the same type of prediction directions.

The most commonly used *SEM* analytic process allows the researcher to test the initial model for its goodness-of-fit to the data. Subsequently, the researcher may adjust the initial model and test the altered model in order to find a best, most parsimonious fit of the theoretical model to the data.

The *SEM* models were based on the following research hypotheses proposed for testing these research questions:

H1 Stereotype threat has a direct, negative effect on one's perception of his/her job performance and perceived self-efficacy, and a

positive direct effect on self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness.

H1a: It is predicted that as stereotype threat increases, perceived self-efficacy and perceived job performance decrease while self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness increase.

H2 Perceived self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness mediate the effects of stereotype threat on job performance.

H2a: It is predicted that indirect effects of stereotype threat on job performance can be traced by the analysis.

The initial hypothesis stated that Stereotype Threat would have a direct and significant effect on Job Performance. Using only the latent variables, Figure 2 represents a path model of this hypothesis:
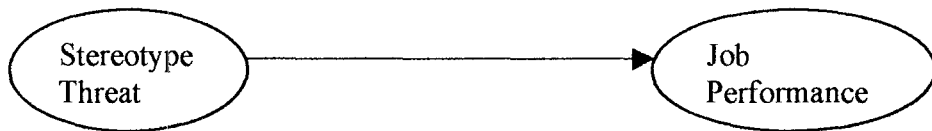
Figure 2. Path model for Stereotype Threat Affecting Job Performance

The second hypothesis stated the possibilities that one or more latent variables, specifically Self-Monitoring, Concern for Appropriateness, and/or Self-Efficacy, would mediate the effect of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance. Figure 3 graphically represents this hypothesis.
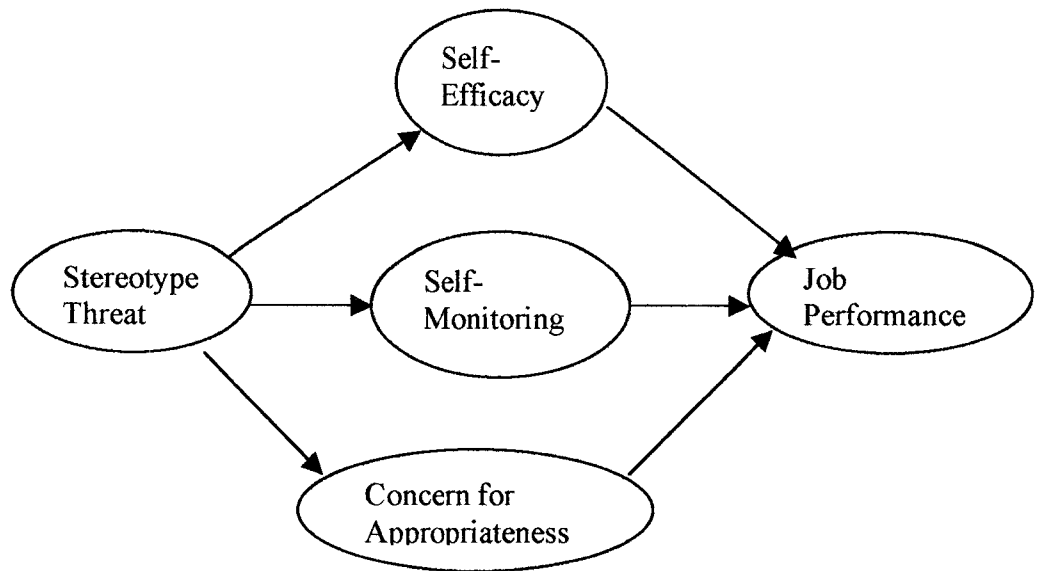
Figure 3. Path model for Stereotype Threat and Intermediate Variables Affecting Job Performance

Mediation, in a statistical sense, refers to a "mechanism" that "generates" the influence of one independent (or predictor) variable on a dependent (or criterion) variable (Baron & Kenny, 1984, p. 1173). Shadish and Sweeney (1991) state it simply: "the independent variable causes the mediator which then causes the outcome" (p. 883). That is, as the independent variable (Stereotype Threat) affects the mediator variable, the mediator will generate a change in the dependent variable (Job Performance). A researcher may also determine indirect effects (not mediation) of the independent variable on the dependent variable through a third variable if there is no significant direct effect between the independent and dependent variables (Holmbeck, 1997).

A three-step process to test for mediation was set out by Baron and Kenny (1986) and applied to *SEM* models by Holmbeck (1997) and Foster et al. (2005). The first step requires that there be a significant association between the independent and dependent variables. This corresponds to the first hypothesis noted above. The second step requires

testing for significant relationships between the independent variable and the mediating variable(s) and between the mediating variable(s) and the dependent variable. Hypothesis Two above corresponds with this step. However, the third step in testing for mediation requires that a direct effect remain between (a) the independent variable and the mediating variable and (b) between the mediating variable and the dependent variable while (c) the direct path between the independent variable and the dependent variable is greatly reduced in magnitude or is no longer statistically significant.

Step One

The model illustrated in Figure 2 was analyzed to meet the first condition of mediation. Due to underidentification of the model, error variances on each of the indicators of the latent variables (three for Stereotype Threat and three for Job Performance) were set to be equal. Analysis of the resulting model showed a statistically significant, negative path between Stereotype Threat to Job Performance ($p = .009$) indicating that as Stereotype Threat increases, Job Performance decreases. The goodness-of-fit statistics indicated, however, a poor fit of the model to the data: $\chi^2 = 227.240$, $df = 12$, $p < .001$. When assessing goodness-of-fit for *SEM* models, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended the use of RMSEA, TLI, CFI, and SRMR fit indices for continuous data, with these values indicating a good fit: TLI > .95, CFI > .95 and RMSEA < .06. The goodness-of-fit indices for the current model were: Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .676, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .741, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .178.

Following the methods recommended by Byrne (2001) and Kline (2005), Modification Indices were examined in order to determine if important parameters or

error covariances could be added to create a better fit of the model to the data.

Modifications by this method might include adding a parameter between variables or adding an error covariance. Modifications were performed one at a time based on two criteria: a) beginning with the largest Modification Index value; b) theoretical grounding.

Examination of the modification indices (MI) of the first model revealed a high MI for the error covariance between Task Job Performance and Contextual Job Performance. Since bivariate correlations had shown these two observed variables to be highly correlated, then an error covariance recognizing this correlation made theoretical sense. Analysis of this altered model showed a statistically significant, negative path between Stereotype Threat and Job Performance ($p = .010$). The goodness-of-it statistics improved substantially: $\chi^2 = 105.858$, $df = 11$, $p = .000$, TLI = .844, CFI = .886, RMSEA = .123. A second error covariance was suggested by the modification index between Stereotyped Perceptions and Stereotyped Evaluations. After this modification was made, the final test of the model yielded a statistically significant, negative path between Stereotype Threat to Job Performance ($p = .002$). The goodness-of-fit indices following these modifications indicated an excellent fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 28.894$, $df = 10$, $p = .001$, TLI = .966, CFI = .977, RMSEA = .058.
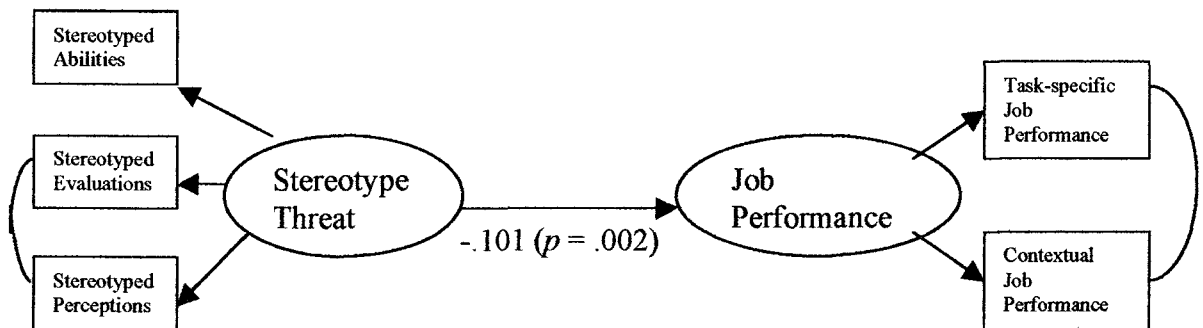
Figure 4. Measurement model for Stereotype Threat Affecting Job Performance

Thus, the first condition of mediation was met by a small, but significant direct effect of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance (see Figure 4).

Step Two

The model illustrated in Figure 3 was analyzed as described by Foster et al. (2005) for the second step of the mediation analysis. Initial results revealed three nonsignificant paths among the variables: a) Stereotype Threat $\rightarrow$ Self-Monitoring; b) Concern for Appropriateness $\rightarrow$ Job Performance; c) Self-Monitoring $\rightarrow$ Job Performance. Goodness of fit statistics indicated a poor fit of the model to the data: $\chi^2 = 731.768$, $df = 78$, $p = .000$, TLI = .726, CFI = .765, RMSEA = .121. Following Byrne's method (2001), the nonsignificant paths were dropped from the analysis rendering mediational analysis for Self-Monitoring and Concern for Appropriateness variables unnecessary. Further attempts to improve the model by using Modification Indices did not result in an appreciably better model. Three sets of error covariances were added one at a time as recommended by Byrne (2001). The errors of Stereotyped Perceptions (STP) and Stereotyped Evaluations (STE), the errors for Concern for Appropriateness Appearance (CAP) and Concern for Appropriateness Attention (CAA), and the errors for Concern for Appropriateness Attention (CAA) and Concern for Appropriateness Variability (CAV) were covaried. The final goodness-of-fit statistics for the model minus the nonsignificant paths and with these three sets of error covariances added was: $\chi^2 = 452.107$, $df = 75$, $p = .000$, TLI = .835, CFI = .864, RMSEA = .094. No other modifications made empirical or theoretical sense, so the analysis was considered complete. The model was considered an unsatisfactory fit to the data.

The remaining variable, Self-Efficacy, demonstrated significant paths between

Stereotype Threat → Self-Efficacy and Self-Efficacy → Job Performance. As shown in

Figure 4, the statistically significant paths were Stereotype Threat→ Self-Efficacy =

-.198, p = 000 and Self-Efficacy → Job Performance = .545, p = 000. When this revised

model was analyzed, the goodness-of-fit statistics showed a good fit with the data with

the exception of the RMSEA index: χ^2 = 136.086, df = 17, p = .000, TLI = .910, CFI =

.927, RMSEA = .111. The Modification Index indicated that covarying the errors

between Stereotyped Perceptions and Stereotyped Evaluations would improve the fit.

Allowing these errors to covary improved the goodness-of-fit indices substantially: χ^2 =

54.537, df = 16, p = .000, TLI = .969, CFI = .976, RMSEA = .065.
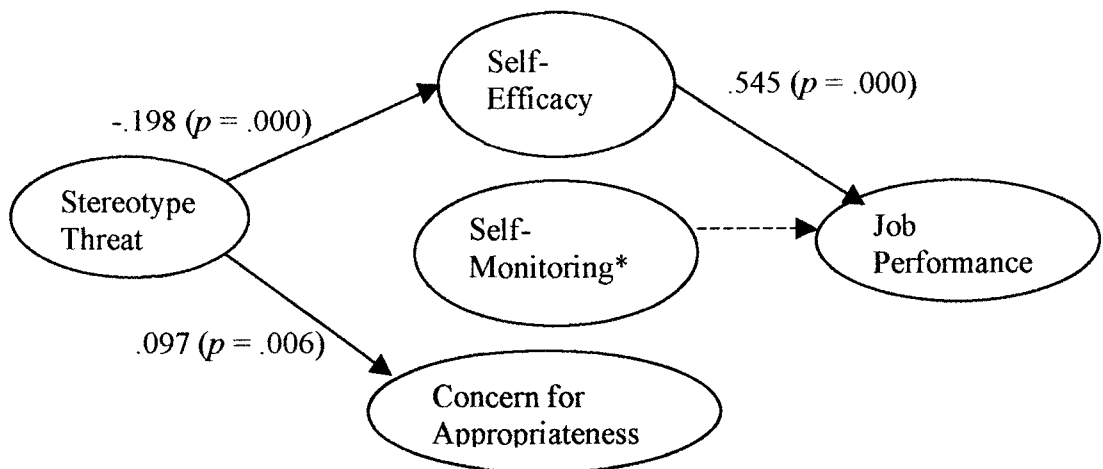
Note: No statistically significant paths were found to or from the Self-Monitoring variable. The path from Self-Monitoring to Job Performance was significant at a level of .060.

Figure 5: Stereotype Threat and Three Intervening Variables Affecting Job Performance

These statistics indicate the independent variable (Stereotype Threat) was significantly

related to the mediating variable (Self-Efficacy), and the mediating variable was

significantly related to the dependent variable (Job Performance). As stipulated by Baron

and Kenny (1986), these results supported the second step of mediation.

Step 3

According to Baron and Kenny (1986) and Holmbeck (1997), mediation by a variable is confirmed when the direct effects of the independent variable on the mediating variable and the direct effects of the mediating variable on the dependent variable remain statistically significant while the direct effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable become zero, no longer statistically significant, or their significance is greatly reduced. As shown in Figure 6, exact condition was met in the analysis. The path Stereotype Threat → Job Performance became nonsignificant, thus indicating that Self-Efficacy completely mediates the effect of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance. Goodness-of-fit statistics for this analysis (including the error covariance between Stereotyped Perceptions and Stereotyped Evaluations) indicated an excellent fit of the model to the data: $\chi^2 = 54.537$, $df = 15$, $p = .000$, TLI = .966, CFI = .976, RMSEA = .068
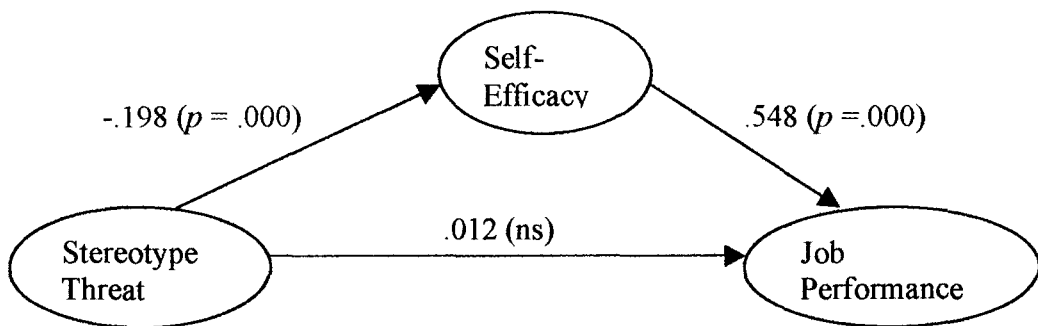
Figure 6. Stereotype Threat Mediated by Self-Efficacy Affecting Job Performance

Summary of Results

Five hundred and seventy respondents (80.5% of the total sample) were measured on demographic and inventory variables. The respondents self-identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender, employed, and above 18 years of age. They were primarily

Caucasian, between the ages of 30 and 60 and about evenly divided between female and male, and between Gay and Lesbian. The respondents were well distributed in communities across the United States and were evenly distributed across rural to metropolitan areas.

About one-quarter of the respondents held less than a bachelor's degree, one-third held a bachelor's degree, and nearly half (42%) held a master's or doctoral degree. The median and modal income fell between $45,000 and $85,000 (39% of the sample). Thirty-five percent of the sample earned less than $45,000 and 26% earns more than $85,000. This compares to the median nonfamily household income estimate of $27, 326 in 2005 (DeNavas-Walt, Proctor, & Lee, 2006). Of the 35% who earned less than $45,000, 26% lived in the South while another 20% lived in the South Central/Plains region. These regions are also the areas of the nation that had the highest percentages of those earning between $45,000 and $85,000 (South = 20%, South Central/Plains = 19%). The highest income levels ($85,000 and above) occurred in the Northeast (23%) and Mid-Atlantic regions (29%). (Note: percentages reflect number of persons within the income categories that earned the respective annual income level.) Employer size was also somewhat equally distributed with 25% of employees working for companies of less than 100 employees, 26% for companies with 100 to 1,000 employees, 23% for companies of 1,000 to 10,000 employees, and 26% for companies with over 10,000 employees. Four industries represented 45% of those who responded: education, healthcare, community and social services and computer and mathematical occupations. The respondents also represent a rather stable workforce.

Three-fourths (75.6%) of those surveyed indicated that their peers "definitely know" about their sexual orientation, while 70% have disclosed their sexual orientation to supervisors. Two-thirds of the respondents reported the presence of known LGBT peers in the workplace, but 74% reported no knowledge of known LGBT supervisors. Seventy-seven percent of those surveyed work for companies with diversity policies prohibiting discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation, but only 40% of respondents worked for companies that included the transgender category in their non-discrimination policies.

When it comes to actual incidents of discrimination, twice as high a percentage of transgender persons reported being threatened or hurt at work due to their sexual or gender identity. Still, only 93 individuals (17%) of the total sample reported that they had been threatened or hurt at work directly related to their sexual or gender identity. Respondents clearly indicated a substantially higher rate of incidents of discrimination in previous jobs (1188) over current jobs (708).

Statistically significant differences were found on several variables. Males earned more than Females and Males knew more LGBT peers in the workplace. Gays earned more than Lesbians and knew more LGBT peers in the workplace. Lesbians were more likely to disclose their sexual orientation, that is, to be "out."

On the Stereotype Threat variables, respondents generally rejected Stereotyped Abilities as having importance to their work situations. Respondents were generally evenly split on the validity of Stereotyped Evaluations, and respondents generally rejected Stereotyped Perceptions as being an important consideration in their job

experience, although there were groups that agreed that Stereotyped Perceptions were a concern.

Hierarchical regression analyses showed strong prediction of Job Performance by Self-Efficacy. Professional Self-Efficacy significantly predicted Task-specific Job Performance, but Generalized Self-Efficacy did not predict Task-specific Job Performance. In contrast, Contextual Job Performance was significantly predicted by both Professional and Generalized Self-efficacy. In turn, Generalized Self-Efficacy (but not Professional Self-Efficacy) was predicted by the two Self-Monitoring subscales, one Concern for Appropriateness subscale (Attention), and one Stereotype Threat subscale (Stereotyped Perceptions).

The structural equation modeling analysis bore out predictions discovered in regressions. It was shown that Stereotype Threat has a significant effect on Job Performance, Self-efficacy, and Concern for Appropriateness. Only Self-Efficacy also had a statistically significant effect on Job Performance. Therefore, Self-Efficacy was analyzed for its mediating effect. It was found that Self-Efficacy completely mediated the effect of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results and implications of the findings of this study

that examined negative stereotyping in the employment experience of LGBT persons. In

designing this study, the researcher asked these questions: "Does stereotype threat exist

in the workplace?" "Can stereotype threat be documented as a reality in the experience of

LGBT persons in their workplace?" "If it can be established that stereotype threat does

exist, and if, as earlier research indicates, stereotype threat lowers performance on a

variety of tasks, then does stereotype threat diminish the job performance of LGBT

persons?"

A second set of questions evolved from the first set: "Since earlier research has

indicated that self-efficacy strongly predicts job performance, do the effects of stereotype

threat decrease self-efficacy to the point of diminishing job performance?" "Or does a

strong sense of self-efficacy mediate the disruptive effects of stereotype threat?"

Earlier research indicated that stereotype threat induces anxiety and evaluative

apprehension, thereby undermining performance. "If stereotype threat does exist and

appreciably effects job performance, can the role of anxiety be ascertained?" "Would

anxiety be expressed through a hypervigilant observation of the work environment, or

might it stimulate compensatory actions in an effort to disprove the stereotype?" "In

other words, what psychological characteristics allow LGBT employees to adapt to the pressure?"

These questions were operationalized with two hypotheses:

The first hypothesis suggested that stereotype threat has a direct, negative effect on one's perceived job performance and perceived self-efficacy, and a positive direct effect on self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness. The researcher predicted that as stereotype threat increases, perceived self-efficacy and perceived job performance decrease, while self-monitoring and concern for appropriateness increase.

The second hypothesis suggested that perceived self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and concern for appropriateness mediate the effects of stereotype threat on job performance. This second hypothesis does not concede any direct effects of stereotype threat on job performance. It does recognize, however, the possibility of indirect effects of stereotype threat on job performance.

A summary of the remainder of the chapter plots the examination of the findings and their integration: a summary of the rationale for the study and its methodology; the major findings; an integration and discussion of the implications of the findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

<div align="center">Rationale for the Study</div>

Businesses and organizations expend enormous amounts of energy, money, and resources in managing the comings and goings as well as the safety and security of employees. Turnover in the workplace not only affects the employee who separates from his/her job and those responsible for finding a replacement, but also co-workers, administrative staff, the production of services, and the profit margins of the company.

As documented in Chapter 1, employees cite unfairness in the workplace as a primary motivator toward job separation.

Diversity policies directly address the existence of unfairness, especially highlighting the inequities resulting from discrimination in the workplace for those who are of non-heterosexual orientation. Studies have consistently documented the effects of discrimination based on sexual orientation. Few studies, however, have examined the effect of stereotyping on job performance based on sexual orientation.

This study assumed that a significant proportion of LGBT employees experience stereotype threat on a regular basis in their workplace. As minority persons, LGBT employees who experience stereotype threat likely experience a variety of detrimental effects associated with being stereotyped. Given the deleterious effects of stereotype threat this study assumed that stereotype threat when experienced at work affects job performance.

Additionally, individual differences affect the employee's ability to cope with a threatening situation. To investigate the possible mediating effects of individual differences, three psychological phenomena – self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, and self-efficacy – were assessed. By investigating the relationships between these psychological processes, stereotype threat, and job performance, this study examined how an employee might adapt to the workplace.

Data for this study were collected from LGBT persons who were currently employed. This was an important criterion since the study was designed to assess whether or not stereotype threat exists in the real-life workaday world of the American experience. By using a variety of techniques, including Structural Equation Modeling

(*SEM*), the data were analyzed for the relationships and direction of influence among the variables. The researcher anticipated that this study would demonstrate the reality of stereotype threat and its effects on job performance, directly and indirectly.

<center>Major Findings</center>

Three major findings resulted from this study. First, this study documented the reality and a three-dimensional structure of stereotype threat in the workplace in 2006. Second, the study uncovered subtle, indirect ways in which stereotype threat impacted job performance. Third, self-efficacy was found to be a powerful mediator of the effects of stereotype threat on job performance.

Reality of Stereotype Threat

This study documented the presence of stereotype threat in the workplace in 2006. The most basic indicator of the reality of stereotype threat was the verification by respondents of specific discriminatory incidents on both previous and current jobs. The mere presence of discriminatory incidents based on an individual's sexual orientation indicated that stereotyping and discrimination continue to be a threat to many employees. It is a positive indicator that fewer persons (41%, $n = 232$) specified fewer incidents of discrimination in their current job than were indicated in their previous jobs (53%, $n = 301$). Still, a large proportion of the respondents indicated that they continue to experience some form of discriminatory incident in their *current* job. This statistic corresponds to the *2005 Workplace Fairness Survey* by Lambda Legal Defense and Education Fund that found that 39% of their respondents reported experiencing some form of discrimination in the workplace because of their sexual orientation (Lambda Legal, 2006).

These same data appear to suggest that when LGBT persons sought new jobs, they moved from a job where they experienced more discriminatory incidents to a job where they encountered fewer discriminatory incidents. Additionally, over three-quarters of those surveyed worked for employers who have instituted a policy that prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation. These results suggest that LGBT employees, when they changed jobs, sought jobs where they expected fewer incidents of discrimination and where there were written policies in place banning discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (and sometimes, transgender status). Less discrimination equates to feelings of less stereotype threat, and by implication, an emotionally safer work environment.

Three-dimensional structure of Stereotype Threat

The survey responses revealed a three-dimensional representation of stereotype threat. Respondents indicated that stereotype threat was a concern on two of the three dimensions. One dimension, designated *Stereotyped Abilities* (an employee's fear that one's abilities/skills would be minimized based on the perception of one's sexual orientation), was rarely endorsed to be true by an employee. This implied that, overall, respondents felt good about their abilities and skills and did not believe they were questioned or minimized by others based on the employee's sexual orientation.

A second dimension, *Stereotyped Evaluations* (an employee's beliefs that one's job evaluations will be influenced negatively due to the evaluator's perceptions of the employee's sexual orientation), was of more concern to employees. While overall employees rejected this dimension as being of concern, the scores indicated that the responses were almost evenly split on the issue. Unlike Stereotyped Abilities that was

soundly rejected, Stereotyped Evaluations represented a substantial issue for a large number of LGBT employees.

One can observe this variability by examining different demographic groups. For example, Doctoral level females endorsed Stereotyped Evaluations as a concern, but no other educational level among women or men felt evaluations were an issue. Another group who endorsed Stereotyped Evaluations were men who worked with 5 – 10 other LGBT peers. Men who worked with fewer than five LGBT peers and men who worked with more than 10 LGBT peers did not endorse Stereotyped Evaluations as a concern. This may imply that a strong presence of (but not large presence, i.e. more than 10) LGBT peers may engender some greater apprehension about being evaluated based on perceptions of sexual orientation. It would be plausible that issues of sexual orientation may not be as conspicuous in workplaces with less than five LGBT peers. In workplaces where there are 10 or more LGBT peers, sexual orientation likely becomes a non-issue, but 5 – 10 LGBT peers in the workplace may be of just enough magnitude to engender a heightened awareness of LGBT issues causing evaluative apprehension to increase.

While respondents often disagreed with Stereotyped Abilities being a problem, respondents disagreed at a much lower rate with Stereotyped Evaluations being a problem. In specific situations, the numbers switched as described above and more respondents agreed that stereotyped evaluations were a concern than disagreed.

The third aspect of Stereotype Threat, *Stereotyped Perceptions* (an employee's concerns regarding others' perceptions of the employee on account of his/her sexual orientation), was of mixed concern. Only certain groups of the total sample agreed that Stereotyped Perceptions were a concern, and only in certain situations. For example, for

both males and females, those who had definitely *not* disclosed their sexual orientation to their peers or their supervisors agreed that Stereotyped Perceptions were a concern. Croteau (1996) reported that anxiety is the major factor in LGBT persons' choosing to hide their identity. In other words, in covering their sexual orientation the respondents to this survey likely were indicating some level of fear or anxiety regarding the possible response of the peer or supervisor to their sexual orientation if it were known. This same anxiety was also implied by those who indicated that their peers or supervisors "might know, but it's never talked about." Additionally, even when peers and supervisors "definitely know" about the employee's sexual orientation, but it is rarely talked about, a respondent's level of disclosure becomes a source of concern, perhaps indicating that peers or supervisors may not approve of or understand the employee's sexual orientation. LGBT persons who have been on their job less than six months indicate that Stereotyped Perceptions are a concern. Moreover, for males, when their employer has a written diversity policy in place, but it is never or rarely mentioned, Stereotyped Perceptions are a concern. This suggests that simply having a policy may not lessen the negative perceptions of peers or supervisors when an individual is known as LGBT.

Stereotyped Perceptions may be understood as situated at the heart of stereotype threat. The content of this subscale's questions tap into concern about being judged or perceived differently because of one's sexual orientation, or concern about others drawing unwarranted conclusions due to one's sexual orientation. When Steele and Aronson (1993) first described stereotype threat they emphasized that

the existence of such a stereotype means that anything one does or any of one's features that conform to it make the stereotype more plausible as a self-

characterization in the eyes of others, and perhaps even in one's own eyes . . .

[it is] essentially, a self-evaluative threat (p. 797).

That is, the perceptions of LGBT persons of how one believes others view him/her have a great deal to do with how one behaves and feels about self.

The self-evaluative character of stereotype threat was further demonstrated when it was found that Stereotyped Perceptions significantly and negatively predicted Generalized Self-Efficacy-GSE (Beta = -.077, p < .01). It seems that the impact of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance was most strongly experienced through the respondent's general sense of belief in one's competence (Generalized Self-Efficacy-GSE). Practically speaking, to the degree that Stereotyped Perceptions (STP) decreased one's feelings of efficacy, they negatively affected one's ability to do one's job.

To understand this impact, one should remember that self-efficacy was evaluated through two subscales: Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) and Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE). The only statistically significant predictor of Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) was Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE). That is, no other variable, including Stereotype Threat, significantly predicted one's feeling of efficacy in regards to the particular job or tasks one was assigned to perform. Thus, any impact on Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) was felt through the effects of Generalized Self-Efficacy on Professional Self-Efficacy. As one's Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) rose, one's Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) increased. If one's Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) was low, then, more than likely, one's sense of Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) would be low.

Four other variables were found to be statistically significant predictors of Generalized Self-efficacy (GSE). Hierarchical regression analyses showed that both of

the Self-Monitoring variables (SMM & SME) and Contextual Job Performance (CJP) positively predicted Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE). Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA), like Stereotyped Perceptions (STP), negatively predicted Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE).

One may logically presume that Self-Monitoring played a positive role in Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) by employing the sociability, gregariousness, assertiveness and leadership qualities of self-monitoring described by Briggs and Cheek (1988) as "social surgency." In this way, as suggested by Day and Schleicher (2006) self-monitoring was associated with job performance, advancement, leadership behavior and emergence, and several other work-related attitudes. High self-monitors in the workplace were shown to be more other-directed and likely to use their jobs as a way of protecting a desirable self-image.

The fact that Contextual Job Performance (CJP) predicted Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) suggests that the more one feels a part of the team, or a part of the mission of the company, the more Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) increases. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) considered contextual performance to be at the discretion of the employee. Thus, as an employee uses his/her discretionary time and efforts toward the good of the group or the company, self-efficacy increases. The Contextual Job Performance construct implies that an employee engages in contextual performance as he/she individually chooses. Thus, the employee's personality characteristics (e.g., openness or conscientiousness) influence the degree to which an employee becomes involved in contextual job tasks (see Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Theoretically, as both Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) and Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE) increase due to

the voluntary participation of the employee within the company context, the direct effects of Self-Efficacy on Job Performance increase the employee's own job performance. These patterns were shown in this research and they may also imply a feedback loop by which Contextual Job Performance (CJP) promoted Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) and vice versa.

Concern for Appropriateness—Attention (CAA) that along with Stereotyped Perceptions (STP), negatively predicted Generalized Self-efficacy (GSE), is, in a manner of speaking, the "flip side" of the Contextual Job Performance (CJP) variable. The Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA) construct captures the concern (or social anxiety) of the employee to fit into the group. Thus, Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA) highlights the extreme attention to elements that would assist the employee to appear to be part of the group and the hypersensitivity to elements that would spotlight an uncomfortable distinction from the group. As opposed to Contextual Job Performance (CJP), Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA) would tend to inhibit a person's willingness to participate in an environment that feels unsafe. This corresponds to earlier research by Croteau (1996) and Waldo (1999) that documented the deleterious effects of stereotyping, including anxiety, psychological distress, and health-related problems when employees experience heterosexism in the workplace.

Bong and Skaalvik (2003) identified this social comparison exercise as one factor in self-evaluative consciousness that, along with one's internal self-comparisons, are implicit in one's sense of self-efficacy. As a negative predictor of Generalized Self-efficacy (GSE), Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA) underscored the concern that an employee has about fitting into the workplace: the more concern about fitting in,

the less Self-efficacy he/she experiences. Put another way, the more integrated an employee is in the workplace, the less he/she is concerned about fitting in and the more the employee will feel efficacious in his/her job.

Most likely, these five variables interact in a ballet of motivations and concerns. Together they predicted a large portion (72% of the variance) of one's Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE). These results also appear to correspond with the mediators that Cadinu et al. (2006) suggest mediate the effects of stereotype threat: individual differences, stigma consciousness, and the importance one assigns to the performance of the task. Self-Monitoring (SMM & SME) captures individual differences in managing one's identity. Contextual Job Performance (CJP) speaks to the value an employee confers on a job (though this value is contextual and not task-specific). Concern for Appropriateness-Attention (CAA) and Stereotyped Perceptions (STP) are essentially and unavoidably stigma consciousness. Should the employee become overly concerned about fitting in and with the perceptions of others, these negative emotions may likely overwhelm the positive predictors, thereby diminishing Generalized Self-efficacy (GSE) to the extent that Job Performance decreases.

Subtle effects of Stereotype Threat

A second major finding was that stereotype threat manifested in inconspicuous ways. As discussed immediately above, this study provides evidence that even when a strong direct effect of stereotype threat cannot be supported, a subtler, and perhaps, more insidious threat can still be present. The indirect effects of stereotype threat through self-efficacy may be just as detrimental as direct threats. These more subtle effects of

stereotype threat might seduce both employer and employee into an apathetic

unawareness of the impact of stereotype on the job performance of the employee.

An example of a more subtle effect can be seen in the differential response to

Diversity policies by males (see Chapter 4 for details). This response supports the

contention by Roberson et al. (2003) who found that organizational policies toward

diversity affect an employee's vulnerability to stereotype threat. Even when diversity

tolerance is being promoted, the stigmatized person may be singled out. Whether this

attention to the employee due to his/her sexual orientation is positive (supportive) or

negative (becomes singled out as an individual adding additional burden), the spotlight

has been turned on the employee and the salience of the stereotype may be increased.

A recent article unmistakably speaks to the subtle discrimination experienced in the

workplace in the United States. Brian McNaught, who himself was once fired for being

gay, speaks of his long-time efforts to get American companies to adopt anti-

discrimination policies:

> Initially, (the) focus was to try to get companies to pass policies that would make it
>
> easier for people to feel good at work, such as nondiscrimination policies, domestic-
>
> partner benefits, the creation of gay and lesbian employee business networks. Most
>
> companies . . . have done that. But that did not address the culture . . . How do you
>
> transform the culture so that gay people don't feel (merely) tolerated at work but
>
> valued? . . . Gay people are not afraid in most places of being fired for being gay,
>
> they are afraid of being marginalized. They are afraid of not having someone ask
>
> on a Monday morning, "How was your weekend?" They are afraid of being
>
> invisible at work when they come out. The reason for that is not the hostility of the

heterosexual colleague but their fear or ignorance. Their strategy is to avoid openly gay people (Lisotta, 2007, p. 40).

The culture of the workplace is at the most basic level of this research. An employment culture that allows stereotyping diminishes the significance of valuable employees and their contributions to the success of their employer. The next frontier of human resources in making the workplace a profitable enterprise (for employer and employee alike) is to change the culture of the workplace, not just the policies.

Mediating effects of Stereotype Threat

Stereotype Threat in the workplace was further substantiated by the initial Structural Equation Modeling analysis that confirmed a statistically significant effect of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance. This effect was negative, that is, as Stereotype Threat increases, Job Performance decreases. While the effect was significant, it was also small. By virtue of the characteristics of the sample population of this study, however, which is socially privileged by race (and tending toward privilege in class and educational level) in the United States (80.5% of the respondents were Caucasian), it was noteworthy that stereotype threat was captured at all. One could presume that those who are marginalized as minorities many times over (for example, an African-American lesbian transgender is a minority in at least three areas: race, sexual orientation, and gender) experience even greater levels of stereotype threat.

When the direct effects of Stereotype Threat were tested on the three remaining variables, a significant direct negative effect was found on Self-Efficacy and a significant direct positive effect on Concern for Appropriateness, but no significant direct effect on Self-Monitoring. It is logical that as Stereotype Threat increases, Self-Efficacy decreases.

It is also logical that as Stereotype Threat increases Concern for Appropriateness increases as well, since Concern for Appropriateness captures elements of social anxiety. This finding supports the research by Stone et al. (1999), Aronson et al. (2002), and Ben-Zeev et al. (2005) that identified anxiety as the mechanism by which stereotype threat operates. The nonsignificant effect on Self-Monitoring implies that Self-Monitoring did not function as a significant response to Stereotype Threat in this sample.

Direct effects were also tested for Self-Efficacy, Self-Monitoring, and Concern for Appropriateness on Job Performance, but only one variable, Self-Efficacy, proved to have statistically significant direct effects. However, Self-Monitoring did have a direct effect on Job Performance at a level just shy of statistical significance ($p = .061$). This suggests that a further examination of the effect of Self-Monitoring on Job Performance should be made, perhaps by examining whether Self-Monitoring acts to moderate Job Performance.

One could hypothesize a number of reasons as to why Self-Monitoring did not show statistical significance. It could be that the sample, being more highly educated, has less need to utilize self-monitoring's assertive characteristics to move forward in their job. Similarly, it could be that the four industries in which a large number of the respondents work: Education, Healthcare, Social Services, and Information Technology are more tolerant of diversity and necessitate less self-monitoring activity than other industries. It might also be that individual or group differences affect the responses enough to lessen the impact of self-monitoring. For example, the results of this survey indicated that Lesbians tended to be more "out" than Gays, thus one might reason that Lesbians tend to

engage in less impression management. That is, as Lesbians are less concerned about the disclosure of their sexual orientation, they might have reported self-monitoring behavior.

In another direction, the lack of statistical significance of Self-Monitoring on Job Performance could be explained by mediating and moderating effects of other variables. For example, the bivariate correlations show that Self-Efficacy and Self-Monitoring are positively correlated, so one could reason that Self-Efficacy effectively mediates the effects of Self-Monitoring on Job Performance. Another possibility is that stereotype threat acts to negate the positive effects of Self-Monitoring to the extent of making Self-Monitoring nonsignificant on Job Performance.

The foregoing results found no mediating effect of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance by Self-Monitoring or Concern for Appropriateness. However, there were significant paths from Stereotype Threat to Self-Efficacy and from Self-Efficacy to Job Performance. Thus, Self-Efficacy was tested as a mediating variable of the effects of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance. Analyses to test for mediation substantiated that Self-Efficacy completely mediated the effects of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance in this sample.

Self-Efficacy's role as mediating the effects of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance is an important finding of this research. As the mediating variable, Self-Efficacy situates itself between Stereotype Threat and Job Performance. A negative path was found between Stereotype Threat and Self-Efficacy, that is, as Stereotype Threat increases, Self-Efficacy decreases. The path from Self-Efficacy to Job Performance was found to be in the positive direction, that is, as Self-Efficacy increases Job Performance increases. When the full effects of Stereotype Threat through Self-Efficacy to Job

Performance are considered, one finds an intimately connected and dynamic pattern of behavior. Consider this situation: an employee feels a great deal of anxiety due to perceived stereotype threat. As his/her perception of stereotype threat grows, his/her sense of self-efficacy diminishes. Concurrently, as self-efficacy is diminished, so is job performance. Contemplate an alternative state of affairs: an employee enjoys a minimal experience of stereotype threat. His/her self-efficacy is allowed to flourish reinforcing his/her job performance.

Thus, self-efficacy demonstrates a strong contextual dependence. Several researchers (Bong & Clark, 1999; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Klassen, 2004; Morrow et al., 1996) have written about this contextual sensitivity characteristic of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy shares a complex and intimate relationship to goal-setting and outcome expectations, each an important element of job performance. In setting goals, and anticipating outcomes, self-efficacy is determined by both context and personal characteristics of the individual employee. The employee makes a context-specific assessment of competence ("How able am I to . . .?") and determines to what extent he/she can manage his/her level of performance and the environment in which the work is to take place. Some goals and outcome expectations can be set based on these considerations of competence and management.

Individual differences in self-efficacy assessments can be gender related. Brown et al. (1996) found that self-efficacy fully mediates job performance for men, but only partially mediates job performance for women. Individual differences either can support the goals and outcome expectations or can sabotage the beliefs of competence and management. For example, individual differences in one's ability to cope with demands

and persist in the face of challenges have been found to affect self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, moreover, appears to be exceptionally sensitive to an employee's inner emotional/motivational state and to be affected by others' appraisals. That is, as detailed in Chapter 4, Generalized Self-Efficacy is predicted by Self-Monitoring, Contextual Job Performance, Concern for Appropriateness and Stereotyped Perceptions. The dynamic mix that occurs within the individual employee can be caused by and/or reflective of stereotype threat in the environment.

Self-efficacy's power to mediate the effects of stereotype threat to the level of nonsignificance and, at the same time, powerfully in a positive direction effect job performance might also be understood through examining the rating of job performance by the respondents. As might be expected on a self-rating of job performance, respondents tended to rate themselves highly: Task Job Performance (TJP) Mean = 4.2500, Contextual Job Performance (CJP) Mean = 4.3779, and Overall Job Performance (OVR) Mean = 4.3982 (5.0 = "Very likely to perform this task"). On the surface, the high self-rating would seem to suggest a strong opinion of one's performance on the job, and/or a strong sense of self-efficacy. Yet, in the context of stereotype threat, high scores may represent *overcompensation* in the face of threat. Miller and Malloy (2003) found such a pattern among the gay men they studied. Indeed, Cullen et al. (2004) suggest that targets of stereotype threat may exert more effort to perform well to inhibit the influences of stereotype threat. These same dynamics may account for the statistically significant direct effect found in this study of Stereotype Threat on Job Performance. If so, it would suggest not that stereotype threat is absent from the workplace, but that employees redouble their efforts in an attempt to inhibit the effects of stereotype threat. It would

also suggest that self-efficacy reflects a strong, overpowering desire to achieve in the face of negative environmental factors.

This brings us full circle to the subject of self-monitoring. If, as these data seem to suggest, self-monitoring reflects the assertiveness, leadership, and sociability of the respondents, then Self-Monitoring may significantly moderate the effect of Self-Efficacy on Job Performance. Subsequently, Self-Efficacy, may mediate in a positive manner, the effects of Self-Monitoring on Job Performance.

Concordance with Vocational Theory

The finding of this study that Self-Efficacy strongly predicts and demonstrates a strong and significant path to Job Performance corroborates the finding of many researchers including Bandura (1977) and the Social Cognitive Career theorists, especially the work of Brown et al. (1996) and Lent, Brown and Hackett (2002). The work of these researchers has shown that Self-Efficacy strongly predicts Job Performance. As Lent et al. (2002) assert, the combination of self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals forms an employee's sense of competence.

The insight of the hierarchical regression analyses (on Generalized Self-Efficacy-GSE) that reveals the importance the employee places on the workplace environment through Contextual Job Performance supports the Person-Environment-Correspondence (PEC) Theory of Work of Dawis and Lofquist (1984), Dawis (2002, 2005) and Lyons et al. (2005). Particularly, the importance of a supportive, non-threatening work environment is confirmed. One may logically assume that if the workplace is a hostile atmosphere (stereotype threat and discrimination) an employee will not be satisfied and will experience a low correspondence with the workplace. Moreover, if the employee is

not satisfied, he/she is more likely to leave the job for an environment that feels safer or supportive. Again, the statistics in this study of the differences in the number of discriminatory incidents between previous jobs and current jobs appear to support this assertion.

Inasmuch as Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise speaks to the need to "fit in" to an environment, this study appears to support that claim. The Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA) construct illustrates one's attention to social comparison information and concern of one to fit in with the group. In that the Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA) was the one Concern for Appropriateness subscale that predicts Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE), and is itself strongly linked to Stereotype Threat, the assertion of Gottfredson that an employee will circumscribe and compromise his/her job choices in order to fit in seems consistent with the responses of those who took this survey. Gottfredson also theorizes that many individuals settle for a "good enough" public self, rather than choosing the occupation that best fits the unique individual interests and abilities. The results of this study suggest that in changing jobs a person who feels discriminated against leaves a job that more fully fits their interests for a job that less fits their interests, but presents a safer environment. Though the reasons for job change were not evaluated in this study, Gottfredson's theory together with the implications of this study suggests that one reason people might change jobs is the presence of stereotype threat.

Limitations

As with all research, the analyses and conclusions drawn in this study must include several acknowledged limitations. First, the study did not use a random sampling of

subjects, primarily due to the numbers necessary to obtain a sampling of LGBT persons within the larger population. Second, no control group of heterosexuals was used resulting in an inability to see if the same conditions apply to all persons.

The characteristics of the sample used in this study present some challenges. The results demonstrated a racial homogeneity in that too few ethnic minorities answered the survey. Too few transgender and bisexual persons answered the survey to be able to use these groups as comparison groups. As mentioned above, the survey itself did not allow some transgendered persons to answer with confidence. The questions regarding self-identification did not allow for enough breadth of identification. The remaining survey questions asked solely about sexual orientation and not transgender identity.

The researcher must clearly acknowledge the important distinction between sexual orientation and transgender identity. Several transgender respondents wrote personally to the author expressing concerns that several questions in the survey used only the term "sexual orientation." This vocabulary choice appears to have restricted some persons' ability to answer candidly. Some transgender persons felt that they could not answer the questions appropriately since it was not clear whether they should respond to the questions according to their sexual orientation or according to their gender identity. As one respondent wrote:

> If I were gay, lesbian or bisexual AND transgender, it could be very difficult to
> answer accurately (I might, for example, be out as gay but not as transgender) . . .
> While we (LGBT) have many similarities and common issues, many of the
> problems of trans people experience in the workplace are not issues for GLB
> people . . . trans is not just another way to be gay . . . (C. Michael Woodward,

Program Coordinator, Wingspan Southern Arizona Gender Alliance, personal

communication, November 2, 2006. Used by permission).

Another wrote:

As a bisexual transsexual, I often face discrimination that is from one or both

(sexual orientation/gender identity). Though encouraged to participate as a

transgender person, I did not feel encouraged to answer about discrimination for

being transgender, because you were asking about sexual orientation (Name

withheld, email communication, 12/07/06).

Indeed, as another respondent said: "A person can very conceivably consider themselves

to be in both categories (e.g. lesbian and transgender) AND feel more unsafe being open

about one or the other" (Wendi S., personal communication, October 12, 2006. Used by

permission).

This difficulty in responding accurately represents a confounding of some of the

responses. Still, this may not be a large problem for this study based on (a) the small

number of transgender respondents (45, or 7.9% of the total sample) in relation to the

total sample, and (b) the fact that at least some of transgender persons responded

according to their sexual orientation as specified and not their gender identity.

The perennial problems of self-report and self-identification limit this study.

These elements may have been particularly evident in the job performance questions that

asked for a respondent's self-perception of his/her job performance. Most responses to

items on the Job Performance subscales indicated that the respondents felt positively

about their performance. Seventy-two percent of respondents ($n = 410$) answered that

they were "more likely" or "very likely" to perform well on Task-Specific Job

Performance items, and 78.4% ($n = 447$) answered the same on Contextual Job

Performance. Additionally, without a supervisor's evaluation, for example, the question

of job performance is obviously biased toward one's self-assessment. To seek permission

to survey supervisors would have been prohibitive in cost and would have made retaining

confidentiality extremely difficult.

The on-line format of the survey may have been limiting to some. Perhaps some

employees did not feel comfortable completing the survey at work, but did not have

computer access at home. Perhaps some potential respondents have no on-line access.

Note, for example, that respondents were much more likely to be college graduates and to

have advanced degrees than is true in the general population. Although paper-and-pencil

versions were available, none were requested.

Though every effort was made to assure anonymity and confidentiality, some

potential respondents may have chosen to not take part due to fear of self-disclosure. In

fact, some persons who are very closeted may not connect with known LGBT resource

groups in their companies, thus may not have known about the survey.

Other limitations derive from the possibility that the models presented do not best

depict the actual relationships of the variables. For example, the number and choice of

variables were limited. Any number of other variables in the job environment may be

influential on job performance, self-efficacy, self-monitoring and concern for

appropriateness.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study needs to be replicated with other groups of LGBT employees. Not only

is replication important to substantiate the results, but also additional effort should be

exercised to survey other minorities within the LGBT population. Particularly, a survey should be targeted only to transgender persons taking into account their particular circumstances. Additionally, efforts to assess racial minority employees who are also LGBT would be important. While this study did not show statistically significant differences of stereotype threat between income levels and did not analyze for differences between specific job types or industries, it would be interesting to further investigate these demographics to determine if stereotyping is more of an issue in some jobs, industries, or income levels than others. Additionally, studies investigating the experiences of multiply stigmatized groups of employees would add to the literature.

Additional structural equation modeling analyses should continue the evaluation of the models used in this study. A comparison of groups such as women and men and gays and lesbians would provide more information regarding how different groups respond. As mentioned earlier, Brown et al. (1996) found that the mediation by self-efficacy different between men and women, so comparisons on the *SEM* models would be most interesting to study.

A comparison and contrast with the work of Lyons et al. (2005) would lend additional insight into the results of this study. Lyons et al. listed eight results of their study of "heterosexism and fit perceptions in the job satisfaction of lesbian, gay, and bisexual employees" that seem to correspond to much of the same results of this study. Particularly interesting in the Lyons et al. study are the effects of written diversity policies and disclosure of one's sexual orientation in the workplace that reveal a not-always-positive experience in regard to diversity efforts and self-disclosure.

One early analysis proposed by this writer was to investigate the differences between "blue-collar" and "white-collar" LGBT workers. The task of defining these sets of workers proved, however, much more difficult than imagined. No authoritative definition of these groups was found. Nor was this survey's questionnaire sufficiently detailed to capture differences in job type and position within a specific industry. For example, workers on the assembly line at an automobile manufacturer might be classified as "blue-collar," but the engineers that design the automobiles might be classified as "white-collar." This survey obtained too general a description of occupational type to investigate these differences (such as when a respondent provided only "automobile industry" as a description).

The reasons people change jobs constitutes another area of interest. As suggested by this research, one of the important reasons LGBT persons change jobs is to find a safer, more tolerant and accepting workplace. These aspects need further and more specific investigation.

Further examination of the Self-Monitoring and Concern for Appropriateness variables and their impact on job performance might yield more information on the mechanisms that affect job performance in a hostile workplace. For example, Self-Monitoring may moderate the effects of Concern for Appropriateness on Job Performance. The relationship between Self-Monitoring and Self-Efficacy may be better measured as a reciprocal causation path. Concern for Appropriateness may more suitably be considered a temporal predecessor to stereotype threat, thus moderating the effects of Stereotype Threat variables on Job Performance.

An important follow-up line of research would be to explore how a company

changes its culture to become more tolerant, accepting, and welcoming to minority employees. Regardless of whether employees are LGBT persons, ethnic minorities, persons with disabilities, or present other differences, a workplace that is safe and supportive seems vital to not only the employee, but to the success of the employer. With this study's findings of the importance of the contextual elements of the workplace, culture change becomes an imperative for employers.

Conclusion

Stereotype threat, self-monitoring, concern for appropriateness, self-efficacy and job performance are not unique to lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender persons. In fact, the findings of this study reiterate well-known findings in some areas. For example, it has long been established that self-efficacy is a major contributor to job performance. This study also established that stereotype threat effects performance.

This study contributes documentation of the effects of stereotype threat on a unique and specific minority: LGBT persons. Most clearly, this study documents for the first time that stereotyping occurs and threatens employees within their workplace, and that LGBT employees are subject to the effects of stereotype threat. It documents that even among those who are more socially privileged in the United States – white, educated males – stereotyping diminishes the employee's ability to bring to the employer the full range of his/her talents, experience, and assets.

Secondly, this research documents the potential for self-efficacy to effectively mediate the negative effects of stereotyping, or alternatively, the deleterious effects of stereotype threat when it overwhelms the self-efficacy of an employee. Self-efficacy,

drawing on both contextual attributes and individual characteristics strongly affects the success or failure of the employee – and by extension – the employer.

Finally, this research emphasizes the need for employers to attend to the environment of the workplace, not only in making policy that bans discrimination, but in being sensitive to the ongoing subtle stereotyping that occurs regardless of whether an employee has or has not chosen to reveal his/her sexual orientation or gender identity. The subtleties of discrimination are most difficult to document, but this study provides evidence of those subtleties especially in that stereotype threat impacts one's own sense of efficacy in his/her job. Furthermore, the negative effects of discrimination are felt, not only in regards to one's ability to fulfill the specifics of a job description, but also in the employee's personal sense of efficacy. Moreover, the importance of a safe environment cannot be understated. As the job environment becomes more emotionally safe, the employee engages more in the contextual dimension of the company. This company "spirit" motivates the employee to work beyond the simple fabrication of the company's product, but toward the well-being of the company itself.

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APPENDIX A

HUMAN STUDIES APPROVAL

UNIVERSITY of LOUISVILLE

dare to be great

October 9, 2006

Samuel C. Stringfield, PhD
(Gary Collins)
CEHD
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY 40292

RE: 505.06/ When Fear Succeeds: The Interaction of Stereotype Threat with Indicators of Job Performance

Dear Doctor Stringfield:

The revised advertisement for the above referenced study has been received and contains the changes requested in our letter of 9/28/06.

This study has been reviewed by the chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) and approved through the Expedited Review Procedure, according to 45 CFR 46.110(b), since the research is on individual or group characteristics.

The following items have been approved:

- Protocol, not dated
- Preamble with Survey, dated 9/1/06
- Recruitment Letter
- Advertisement

This study now has final IRB approval through **10/2/2007**. The committee will be advised of this action at their next full Board meeting.

Please note that the IRB follows the principles of the Belmont Report, is in compliance with Good Clinical Practice Guidelines as defined by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration and the Department of Health and Human Services under the Code of Federal Regulations (21 CFR Parts 50 and 56; 45 CFR 46) and International Conference on Harmonization (ICH) Guidelines (Section E6).

You should complete and return the Progress Report/Continuation Request Form EIGHT weeks prior to 10/2/2007, in order to ensure that no lapse in approval occurs. Best wishes for a successful study.

Please send all inquires and electronic revised/requested items to our office email address at hsppofc@louisville.edu.

Sincerely,

Patricia K Leitsch

Patricia K. Leitsch, Ph.D., Chair,
Social/Behavioral/Educational Institutional Review Board

PKL/crn

APPENDIX B

LGBT WORK ATTITUDES SURVEY

LGBT Work Attitudes Survey

THIS SURVEY WAS CLOSED AS OF MIDNIGHT, DECEMBER 31, 2006. If you have any questions about this research, please contact the researchers listed below.

As an employed LGBT person, you know that the everyday reality of the working environment may differ from an employer's official policy banning bias and discrimination based on sexual orientation.

By completing this survey, you will help researchers better understand the everyday experience of LGBT persons at work.

Your responses (when combined with hundreds of others) may shed light on experiences of bias and discrimination that occur despite diversity policies. Such knowledge can help establish a base of research from which to work to make the workplace a more tolerant environment.

Thank you for your time and effort in completing this survey!

*This survey is part of the research for a PhD dissertation.

Investigators names and address:
Samuel C. Stringfield, Ph.D., Principal Investigator
Gary M. Collins, MDiv, MSFT, Co-investigator
Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology
College of Education and Human Development
University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky

WHEN FEAR SUCCEEDS: THE INTERACTION OF STEREOTYPE THREAT WITH INDICATORS OF JOB PERFORMANCE

Date: September 1, 2006

Dear LGBT employee:

You are being invited to participate in a research study by answering the attached survey about how LGBT persons perceive various aspects of their work. Especially important is how negative stereotypes about LGBT persons affect the work environment and job performance. There are no major risks for your participation in this research study. The information collected may not benefit you directly. The information learned in this study may be helpful to others. The information you provide will be used to complete the PhD dissertation of Gary M. Collins, Doctoral candidate at the University of Louisville. Your completed survey will be stored in a locked file cabinet at the Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology, College of Education and Human Development at the University of Louisville. The survey will take approximately 25 minutes to complete.

Individuals from the Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed.

Taking part in this study is voluntary. By completing this survey you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Dr. Samuel C. Stringfield, Acting Chair, Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology, College of Education and Human Development, University of Louisville. 502-852-0615.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the research staff, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the

University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24-hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Samuel C. Stringfield, PhD   Gary M. Collins, MDiv, MSFT
Principal Investigator   Co-investigator

Informed Consent

When fear succeeds: The interaction of stereotype threat with indicators of job performance

Investigator(s) name and address:
      Samuel C. Stringfield, Ph.D., Principal Investigator
      Gary M. Collins, MDiv, MSFT, Co-investigator
      Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology
      College of Education and Human Development
      University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky

Site(s) where study is to be conducted: On-line Survey
Phone number for subjects to call for questions: 502-852-0615

Introduction

You are invited to participate in a research study. The study is being conducted by Samuel C. Stringfield, Ph.D., and Gary M. Collins, MDiv, MSFT. The study is sponsored by the University of Louisville Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology. The study will be conducted on-line. However, a pencil-and-paper version will be available.   Approximately 1,000 participants will be invited to participate.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate the attitudes of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) persons about their place of employment. The study seeks to discover how LGBT persons deal with negative experiences such as name-calling and discrimination while they are at work.

Procedures

In this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire: The LGBT Work Attitudes Survey. The survey will take 20 to 30 minutes to complete. The survey is a one-time event. After you complete the survey, no other task will be required. Participation in this survey is voluntary.

Potential Risks

There are minimal risks associated with this survey. There is the risk that the questions contained within the survey might raise greater awareness of psychological threats, and/or stimulate unanticipated psychological responses. There is the risk that participants

may be identified as LGBT by completing the survey, especially if completed at work on a desktop that is in view of others. There is the risk that completing the survey might induce feelings that might lead to dissatisfaction with the subject's job. There may be unforeseen risks.

Benefits

The possible benefits of this study may include greater insight into the environment of the workplace. The information gained might be used in career decision-making and in learning ways to adapt to the work environment. The results of the survey may also be useful to employers and human resource professionals as they look to diversity their workforce, deal with issues of discrimination, and address issues of fairness and turnovers in their company.

Compensation

There is no compensation for completing the survey. However, if you would like to receive a summary of the results once the survey has closed, you may email a request to the Co-Investigator, Gary Collins, at gmcoll58@gmail.com.

Confidentiality

Total privacy cannot be guaranteed. Your privacy will be protected to the extent permitted by law. If the results from this study are published, your name will not be made public. While unlikely, the following may look at the study records:

> The University of Louisville Institutional Review Board, Human Subjects Protection Program Office.

Any identifying information (e.g., name, URL) will be separated from the completed questionnaire. Your completed survey will be stored in a locked file cabinet at the University of Louisville within the Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology. The data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity and the identity of your employer will not be disclosed. In no case will your name be attached to the information you share on the questionnaire.

Voluntary Participation

Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide not to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time.

Research Subject's Rights, Questions, Concerns, and Complaints

If you have any concerns or complaints about the study or the study staff, you have three options.

1. You may contact the principal investigator, Samuel C. Stringfield, Ph.D. at 502-852-0615.

2. If you have any questions about your rights as a study participant, questions, concerns or complaints, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPO) at (502) 852-5188. You may discuss any questions about your rights as a subject, in secret, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) or the HSPPO staff. The IRB is an independent committee composed of members of the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as lay members of the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB at the University of Louisville has reviewed and approved this study.

3. If you want to speak to a person outside the University, you may call 1-877-852-1167. You will be given the chance to talk about any questions, concerns or complaints in secret. This is a 24 hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

TO TAKE THE SURVEY
This paper tells you what will happen during the study if you choose to take part.

By checking the "I agree" box below, your assent means that this study has been discussed with you, that your questions have been answered, and that you will take part in the study.

  ❏ **I agree**

TO DECLINE
If you decide that you do not want to participate in this survey, OR if you choose to not complete the survey, simply return the survey to the person who gave you the survey form.

This informed consent document is not a contract. You are not giving up any legal rights by signing this informed consent document.

LIST OF INVESTIGATORS   PHONE NUMBERS

Samuel C. Stringfield, Ph.D.   502-852-0615

Gary M. Collins, MDiv, MSFT   845-309-5689

LGBT WORK ATTITUDES SURVEY

INSTRUCTIONS: Please fill in, or check, the following items that best apply to you.

Part I: Background Information

Age:
_____ 18-29 years
_____ 30-45 years
_____ 45-60 years
_____ 60+ years

Gender:
_____ Female
_____ Male
_____ Transgender

Ethnicity:
_____ African American
_____ Caucasian/White American
_____ Latino/Latina American
_____ I'd rather not say
_____ Other (please specify):

_____

Highest Education Level:
_____ Some high school
_____ GED
_____ High School Diploma
_____ Some college
_____ Associate's degree
_____ Bachelor's degree
_____ Master's degree
_____ Doctoral degree

Population of the city/town where you work:

_____ less than 50,000 people
_____ 50,001 to 500,000 people
_____ 500,001 to 1 million people
_____ more than 1 million people

Location of your city of residence
_____ *Northeast* (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Vermont)
_____ *Mid-Atlantic* (Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia)
_____ *South* (Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee)
_____ *Midwest* (Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin)
_____ *South Central and Plains* (Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, North Dakota, Nebraska, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas)
_____ *Mountain* (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming)
_____ *Western* (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Nevada, Oregon, Washington)
_____ Other (please specify)

_____

Personal Identity

1. Which of the following best describes you?

   _____ Bisexual
   _____ Gay
   _____ Heterosexual ("straight")
   _____ Lesbian
   _____ Transgender
   _____ Other (please specify): _____

2. Please circle the number that best indicates the degree to which you have disclosed your sexual orientation ("out") at work:

	Definitely do NOT know about my sexual orientation	Might know but NEVER talked about	Probably know but NEVER talked about	Probably know but RARELY talked about	Definitely know but RARELY talked about	Definitely know and SOMETIMES talked about	Definitely know and OPENLY talked about
1. My work peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My work super-visors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Work Experience

Current Employment Status:

   _____ I work one full-time job (35 or more hours per week)
   _____ I work one part-time job (less than 35 hours per week)
   _____ I work two or more part time jobs
   _____ Other (please specify: _____

Do you work for an Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, or Transgender (LGBT) organization?
_____Yes   _____No

Time Worked in Current *Position*:

   _____ 0 to 6 months
   _____ 6 month to 12 months
   _____ 1 to 5 years
   _____ 5 to 10 years
   _____ more than 10 years

Time Worked for Current *Employer*:

   _____ 0 to 6 months
   _____ 6 month to 12 months
   _____ 1 to 5 years
   _____ 5 to 10 years
   _____ more than 10 years

What is your current position (check all that apply):

_____ Temporary
_____ Part-time/intern
_____ Contract
_____ Hourly employee
_____ Salaried employee
_____ Unit supervisor
_____ Supervisor over several units
_____ Manager
_____ Executive officer (President, Vice-President, CEO, CFO, etc)
_____ Other (please specify): _____

What is your current yearly income (just you, not your household):

_____ Under $9,800 a year
_____ $9,800 to $16,000 a year
_____ $16,001 to $30,000 a year
_____ $30,001 to $45,000 a year
_____ $45,001 to $85, 000 a year
_____ $85,001 to $100,000 a year
_____ $100,001 to $300,000 a year
_____ $300,001 to $500,000 a year
_____ Over $500,000 a year

Organization/Employer Size:

_____ Less than 100 employees
_____ 100-499 employees
_____ 500-1,000 employees
_____ 1,000 to 10,000 employees
_____ Over 10,000 employees

Occupation Type:
Please indicate the industry in which you work (Examples: Accounting, Banking, Manufacturing, Construction, Health Care, etc.)

_____

How many of your work peers are LGBT?

_____ None to my knowledge
_____ 0-5
_____ 5-10
_____ More than 10
_____ I don't know

How many of your work supervisors/managers are LGBT?

_____None to my knowledge

_____0-5

_____5-10

_____More than10

_____I don't know

Diversity Policies

Circle the number of the response that best describes your employer's diversity policies.

My employer does NOT have a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status	My employer has a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status, but it is NEVER talked about	My employer has a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status, but it is RARELY talked about	My employer has a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status, and it is SOMETIMES talked about	My employer has a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status, and it is OPENLY talked about	My employer does NOT have a written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation status, and it is FREQUENTLY talked about
1	2	3	4	5	6

Does your employer's written policy prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation include transgendered persons?

_____Yes

_____No

_____I don't know

Job Choice:

Choose the following statement that best describes how you chose the job(s) you are currently working (choose all that apply):

_____This is the job I imagined I would have as a child.

_____I chose this job because my parents encouraged or suggested this would be a good job for me.

_____I chose this job because it is a job that someone of my gender (male or female) would do.

_____I chose this job to avoid a job(s) in which I am interested because that job is usually done by someone of the opposite gender than me.

_____I chose this job because it is something I am very interested in doing.

_____I chose this job because I needed a job, and this is helping to pay my bills.

_____Other:_____

INSTRUCTIONS: The items shown below describe various attitudes about working with a group of people. To the right of each item is a 5-point scale that ranges from a low of 1 (**Strongly disagree**) to a high of 5 (**Strongly Agree**). Please circle the **one** number for each item that best reflects your opinion regarding how you interact with other people.

I	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.	1	2	3	4	5
4. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.	1	2	3	4	5
11. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting on a good front.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I tend to show different sides of myself to different people.	1	2	3	4	5
15. It is my feeling that if everyone else in a group is behaving in a certain manner, this must be the proper way to behave.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I actively avoid wearing clothes that are not in style.	1	2	3	4	5
17. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	1	2	3	4	5

18. At parties I usually try to behave in a manner that makes me fit in.   1   2   3   4   5

19. When I am uncertain how to act in social situations, I look to the behavior of others for cues.   1   2   3   4   5

20. Although I know myself, I find that others do not know me.   1   2   3   4   5

21. I try to pay attention to the reactions of others to my behavior in order to avoid being out of place.   1   2   3   4   5

22. I find that I tend to pick up slang expressions from others and use them as part of my own vocabulary.   1   2   3   4   5

23. Different situations can make me behave like very different people.   1   2   3   4   5

24. I tend to pay attention to what others are wearing.   1   2   3   4   5

25. The slightest look of disapproval in the eyes of a person with whom I am interacting is enough to make me change my approach.   1   2   3   4   5

26. Different people tend to have different impressions about the type of person I am.   1   2   3   4   5

27. It's important to me to fit into the group I'm with.   1   2   3   4   5

28. My behavior often depends on how I feel others wish me to behave.   1   2   3   4   5

29. I am not always the person I appear to be.   1   2   3   4   5

30. If I am the least bit uncertain as to how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.   1   2   3   4   5

31. I usually keep up with the clothing style changes by watching what others wear.   1   2   3   4   5

32. I sometimes have the feeling that people don't know who I really am.   1   2   3   4   5

33. When in a social situation, I tend not to follow the crowd, but instead behave in a manner that suits my particular mood at the time.   1   2   3   4   5

INSTRUCTIONS: The items shown below describe various attitudes related to your sexual orientation. To the right of each item is a 5-point scale that ranges from a low of 1 **(Strongly disagree)** to a high of 5 **(Strongly Agree).** Please circle the **one** number for each item that best reflects your opinion regarding attitudes toward you based on your sexual orientation.

II		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1.	Some people feel I have less ability to do my job because of my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My job may be easier for people of my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My employers expect me to perform poorly on my job because of my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	In work situations people of my sexual orientation often face biased evaluations of performance.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My sexual orientation does not affect people's perception of my job performance ability.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	In work situations, I never worry that people will draw conclusions about me based on my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	If I don't understand a job task, I will ask for help, regardless of what people think.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I rarely wonder if supervisors judge my job performance based on my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am unconcerned with other's opinions of me.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	When I am talking to someone, I rarely wonder what they may be thinking of me.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Job evaluations have been used to discriminate against people of my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	A negative opinion exists about how people of my sexual orientation perform on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Working at my job, I want to show that people of my sexual orientation can perform well on it.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	As my job gets more difficult, I worry about confirming the negative opinion(s) about the job performance of people of my sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5

Have you ever been threatened or hurt at work because someone thought you were lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgendered?

_____Yes

_____No

_____I'm not sure

Check each item below to indicate which incident(s) YOU have experienced:

a) in your *CURRENT* job:

_____none

_____taunts (mocking)

_____ridicule (scorn)

_____unfriendly teasing

_____hard stares

_____leaving you out

_____anti-gay materials (pamphlets, fliers, etc.)

_____damages to personal belongings

_____lack of respect (related to sexual orientation

_____loss of standing

_____hostility

_____physical harassment

_____discrimination

_____physical violence

b) in *PREVIOUS* jobs:

_____none

_____taunts (mocking)

_____ridicule (scorn)

_____unfriendly teasing

_____hard stares

_____leaving you out

_____anti-gay materials (pamphlets, fliers, etc.)

_____damages to personal belongings

_____lack of respect (related to sexual orientation)

_____loss of standing

_____hostility

_____physical harassment

_____discrimination

_____physical violence

III

In relation to other individuals in your organization, how likely is it that you . . .?	Not at all Likely				Very Likely
1. Use problem solving skills.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Perform administrative tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Have a good overall technical performance.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Plan your work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Organize your work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Cooperate with others in a team.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Look for a challenging assignment/task.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Pay attention to important details.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Support and encourage a coworker with a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Work well with others.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall Job Performance:

	Do not meet standards for job performance	Meet standards for job performance		Exceed standards for job performance	
Overall, rate your job performance (circle one number).	1	2	3	4	5

INSTRUCTIONS: The items shown below describe various attitudes related to your personal beliefs about how well you can do your job. To the right of each item is a 5-point scale that ranges from a low of 1 **(Not at all true)** to a high of 5 **(Exactly true)**. Please circle the **one** number for each item that best reflects how true each statement is for you.

IV

		Not at all true				Exactly true
1.	I don't feel confident about accomplishing my work efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	At work, I think I'm inefficient when it comes to solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	In my opinion, I'm not good at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I feel I'm making an effective contribution to what this organization does.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I feel I'm not making an effective contribution to what this organization does..	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	In my opinion, I am good at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I have not accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	1	2	3	4	5

- THANK YOU -

APPENDIX C

LGBT LABOR UNION CAUCUSES

- AFSCME (American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees) LGBT Caucus

- American Federation of Teachers (AFT) LGBT Caucus

- CWA (Communications Workers of America) Power

- Teamsters GLBT Caucus

- Service Employees International Union Lavender Caucus (SEIU)

- UFCW (United Food And Commercial Workers) OUTreach

- Pride at Work/AFLCIO

- NOGLSTP (National Orgainzation of Gay and Lesbian Scientists and Techinical Professionals, Inc.

- Out and Equal

Contact information can be found at http://www.prideatwork.org/page.php?id=141

LGBT EMPLOYEE RESOURCE GROUPS

GROUP NAME	COMPANY NAME
3MPlus	3M
Agilent	Agilent
Amerige	Adobe
Amgen	Amgen
AMS	AMS
AOL	AOL
APCI	APCI
Avaya	Avaya Telecommunications
BAH	Booz Allen Hamilton Consulting
Bausch	Bausch & Lomb
BEAGLES	Boeing
BellSouth	Bellsouth
Beyond Pride	BP Oil
BGLAD	Bain & Company Consulting
BGLAD	Dupont
BMS	Bristol Meyers Squibb
Boeing	Boeing
BP Oil	BP Oil
Brookhaven	Brookhaven National Laboratory/Dept. of Energy
Chase	Chase
ChoicePoint	ChoicePoint technology
Chrysler	DaimlerChrysler
Chubb	Chubb Insurance
Citicorp	Citicorp
Citigroup	Citigroup
CLGEA	Chevron
CLGEA	ChevronTexaco
CompaqPLUS	Compaq Computer Corp.
Coors	Coors
Credit Suisse	Credit Suisse Boston
CUNA Mutual	CUNA Mutual
Delta	Delta
Disney	Disney
Dow	Dow Chemical
DTE Energy	DTE Energy
EAGLE	IBM

GROUP NAME	COMPANY NAME
EAGLES	Prudential
EDS	EDS
ENET	ENET
EQUAL	Quaker Oats
EQUAL!	Lucent
Fairview	Fairveiw Health Services
FMAGLAD	Dow Chemicals
Ford	Ford
G&L Support Network	Glaxo Smith Kline
GALEA	Wachovia
GayLesbianForum	Coca-Cola
Genentech	Genentech Biotechnology
General Mills	General Mills
Gillette	Gillette
GLADE	RBC Dain Securities
GLAFNet	Northrup Grumman Space Technology
GLAM	McKinsey & Company
GLBC	Motorola
GLBT Alliance	GE
GLBTE	Weyerhaeuser
GLEAM	Microsoft
GLEAM	American Airlines
GLEAM	Lilly
GLEE	Air Products & Chemicals
GLEN	Hewlett-Packard
GLOB&L	Bausch & Lomb
GlobalAge.org	grass-roots affintiy group
GLOBE	Ford
GMC	GMC
GMPlus	GM
GOALNY	Gay Officers Action League
Goldman Sachs	Goldman Sachs
HarperCollins	HarperCollins
HBO	HBO
Heery International	Heery International
Heller Ehrman LLP	Heller Ehrman LLP
Hewitt	Hewitt
Hewlet-Packard	HP
HFH Pride	Henry Ford Healthcare System

GROUP NAME	COMPANY NAME
IGLOBE	Intel
Imco	Imco
Inc.com	Inc.com
Jenner	Jenner
JPMorgan	JPMorgan
KCC	Kimberly Clark
Kraft	Kraft
Lambda	Jet Propulsion Labs
Lambda	Kodak
Lambda Network	Kodak
LBGLN	Lehman
LBGTIDWG	Los Alamos Nat'l Laboratory
LEAGUE	Disney
LEAGUE at AT&T	AT&T
Los Alamos Labs	Los Alamos Nat'l Laboratory
Lucent	Lucent
Maryland GlEA	Maryland GLEA
MassMutual	MassMutual
MBCO	MBCO
Merck	Merck
Merrill Lynch	Merrill Lynch
Microsoft	Microsoft
MitchellGold	MitchellGold
Morrison&Foerster	Morrison&Foerster Law
Motorola	Motorola
Nationwide	Nationwide
NCR	NCR
NewANGLE	Bellsouth
Next Media	Next Media
NIHGLEF	NIH
NLGJA	National Lesbian and Gay Journalists Association
northern trust	Northern Trust
Notes	Bellcore
Owens Corning	Owens Corning
Perkins+Will	Perkins+Will Architects
Pfizer	Pfizer
PLUSatBigRed	BigRed
Polaroid	Polaroid
PPLWeb	PPL Electricity

GROUP NAME	COMPANY NAME
PrideCollborative	PrideCollaborative
Principal	Principal Financial
PWCGlobal	PriceWaterhouseCoopers
Quadriga	Quadriga
Quaker Cats	Quaker Oats
QUALComm	QUALComm
Quest Diagnostics	Quest Diagnostics
QWEST	QWEST
Rainbow Americas	Deutsch Bank
Raytheon	Raytheon
SAGA	Southern Arizona Gender Alliance
SAIC	SAIC
SBC	SBC
Schering-Plough	Schering-Plough
Schwab	Schwab
SDLDiversity	Mayo
Sears	Sears
Shell	Shell Oil
Siemens	Siemens
St Paul Travellers	St. Paul Travellers
Sumhccl	Sumhccl
Sun Microsystmes	Sun
Target	Target
The Harford Co.	The Hartford Co.
The Network	Roche
TIMEInc	Time Inc.
Travelers	Travelers
Tucson Commission on GLBT Issues	Al Whitehurst
Turner	Turner
UBSPrideNetwork	UBS
Verio	Verio IP Solutions
Visteon	Visteon Automotive Supplier
WarnerBros.	WarnerBros.
WE Energies	We Energies
Worldspan	Worldspan

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES TO "OTHER" – ETHNICITY QUESTION

ETHNICITY

- Cajun
- Euro/Afro American
- Middeterinian (as spelled by respondent)
- Native American and White
- mixed
- Mexican/American Indian
- Lebanese/American
- Caucasian/Native American
- Native American
- Asian
- Asian American
- Italian-American
- Irish/Caucasian
- White Canadian!
- White, of Cuban descent
- Chinese American
- Asian (Chinese)
- Native American
- Irish
- South Asian
- Mixed – Caucasian & Native American
- Jewish American (Caucasian)
- European-descent American (I hate the classification "white")
- Biracial: Pacific Islander/Caucasian
- Asian-American
- Pacific Islander/Caucasian
- Asian Indian
- Asian
- Moor – 1/2 Arab, 1/2 Spanish
- East Indian
- Native American
- Italian
- White/Native American
- Jewish
- Cauc/Latina
- Asian American
- White European
- Asian (NOT Asian-American)
- Eurasian
- Asian
- Asian American
- European Hispanic
- half white and half Hispanic
- Biracial (Asian & Caucasian)
- Black-American
- Adopted: Information unobtainable
- native American, but identified as Caucasian
- Caucasian and Native American

APPENDIX E

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES TO "OTHER" – IDENTITY QUESTION

- Queer
- Queer
- Woman
- Queer
- Queer
- Transgender, M2F still intrested in women or maybe another trans. What does that make me? Who knows?
- transgendered/heterosexual
- dyke identified transman
- straight male transgender
- queer
- Pansexual (open to partnering with all genders)
- Queer
- Trans-lesbian
- FTM Man
- Heteroqueer
- All of the above Except Hetero
- queer, also my gender is femme & my sex is intersex not male, female or trans.
- Transgender bisexual
- Queer
- genderqueer pansexual (when I choose to use labels, which is not often)
- Heterosexual transgender
- Queer
- queer
- Queer
- queer femme dyke
- Queer
- Genderqueer
- queer
- Queer
- I'm a hetero transman. Transgender is not a sexual orientation.
- gay, transgender
- Queer (if you intend to refer to sexual identity - but I am trans.)
- transgendered (ftm) and gay
- Queer, GenderQueer, Dyke

APPENDIX F: INTERCORRELATIONS OF DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS AND INVENTORY SUBSCALES

Variable Descriptors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Age	1											
2 Education Level	.119**	1										
3 Population of Area where job is located	-.056	.117**	1									
4 Level of "Outness" to Peers	-.047	.058	.067	1								
5 Level of "Outness" to Supervisors	-.003	.078	.092*	.808**	1							
6 Current Job Status	-.061	.018	-.018	-.065	-.018	1						
7 Time in Current Position	.457**	.066	-.052	.084*	.077	-.108**	1					
8 Time with Current Employer	.441**	.092*	-.112**	.092	.093*	-.153**	.712**	1				
9 Annual Income	.285**	.317**	.142**	.129**	.112**	-.323**	.371**	.490**	1			
10 Employer Size	.088*	.055	.126**	-.019	-.051	-.246**	.166**	.352**	.429**	1		
11 Number of Known LGBT Peers in Workplace	.029	.067	.111**	.215**	.203**	-.016	.109**	.206**	.232**	.238**	1	
12 Number of Known LGBT Supervisors	-.026	-.021	.112**	.112**	.110**	.012	.036	.064	.046	.034	.390**	1
13 Written Diversity Policies at Workplace	.014	.044	.149**	.199**	.212**	-.059	.026	.116**	.268**	.337**	.296**	.155**
14 Written Transgender Diversity Policies at Workplace	-.055	-.038	-.054	-.111**	-.124**	.057	-.128**	-.217**	-.265**	-.229**	-.214**	-.105*
15 Self-Monitoring Modify (SMM)	-.060	.006	-.021	-.043	-.01	.042	-.086*	-.059	.012	.006	-.016	-.017
16 Self-Monitoring Expressive (SME)	-.083*	.004	.057	.067	.064	.036	-.085*	-.094*	.002	-.048	-.027	.011
17 Concern for Appropriateness – Variability (CAV)	-.154**	-.098*	-.045	-.270**	-.302**	.051	-.135**	-.098	-.120**	.039	-.083*	-.091
18 Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA)	-.214**	.026	.012	-.156**	-.154**	-.031	-.172**	-.107*	-.009	.046	-.062	-.036
19 Concern for Appropriateness – Appearance (CAP)	-.207**	.048	.130**	-.043	-.025	-.047	-.159**	-.124**	.022	.015	.004	.051
20 Task Job Performance (TJP)	.101*	.073	-.041	.082	.042	-.144**	.121**	.100*	.156**	-.007	.049	.034
21 Contextual Job Performance (CJP)	.083*	.100*	-.005	.148**	.088*	-.114**	.094*	.097*	.216**	.056	.087*	.041
22 Overall Job Performance (OVR)	.109**	.034	-.004	.108**	.134**	-.054	.166**	.154**	.157**	-.005	.112**	.101*
23 Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE)	.153**	.052	-.006	.062	.065	-.036	.158**	.163**	.179**	.025	.065	.028
24 Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE)	.090*	.042	.003	.047	.031	-.024	.111**	.125**	.176**	.051	.061	.023
25 Inefficacy (INE)	-.072	-.022	.013	-.134**	-.123**	.043	-.116**	-.093*	-.111**	-.001	-.026	-.012
26 Stereotyped Abilities (STA)	-.025	-.033	-.003	-.161**	-.152**	-.042	-.023	-.019	-.059	.017	-.080	.004
27 Stereotyped Evaluations (STE)	.130**	.079	.007	-.086*	-.020	-.029	-.002	.005	.030	-.04	.029	.041
28 Stereotyped Perceptions (STP)	.084*	-.031	.068	.184**	.185**	.050	.070	.019	-.008	-.023	.067	-.012

APPENDIX F (continued)

		13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1	Age												
2	Education												
3	Population												
4	Peers												
5	Supervisors												
6	Cstatus												
7	TimeCurPos												
8	TimeCurEmp												
9	Anninc												
10	EmplSize												
11	LGTpeers												
12	LGBTsupv												
13	Diversity	1											
14	TransDiv	-.457**	1										
15	SMM	.071	-.021	1									
16	SME	.045	-.025	.507**	1								
17	CAV	-.077	.046	.322**	.145**	1							
18	CAA	-.001	.061	.312**	.127**	.548**	1						
19	CAP	.066	-.009	.198**	.159**	.195**	.499**	1					
20	TJP	.052	-.056	.122**	.165**	-.056	-.115**	-.006	1				
21	CJP	.105*	-.091*	.147**	.210**	-.074	-.088*	.030	.704**	1			
22	OVT	.054	-.043	.108**	.166**	-.042	-.083*	-.022	.423**	.333**	1		
23	PSE	.031	-.031	.194**	.208**	.011	-.086	-.067	.488**	.522**	.496**	1	
24	GSE	.043	-.048	.244**	.282**	-.013	-.132**	-.061	.471**	.523**	.427**	.828**	1
25	INE	-.060	.108*	-.008	-.025	.183**	.237**	.171**	-.227**	-.276**	-.270**	-.451**	-.350**
26	STA	-.138**	-.033	.072	.057	.247**	.280**	.121**	-.069	-.128**	-.086*	-.134**	-.141**
27	STE	-.012	-.101*	.059	.059	.07	.056	.000	-.001	-.050	.003	-.009	-.033
28	STP	.115**	.007	.020	.005	-.215**	-.302**	-.156**	.137**	.167**	.183**	.287**	.314**

APPENDIX F (continued)

		25	26	27	28
1	Age				
2	Education				
3	Population				
4	Peers				
5	Supervisors				
6	Cstatus				
7	TimeCurPos				
8	TimeCurEmp				
9	Anninc				
10	EmplSize				
11	LGTpeers				
12	LGBTsupv				
13	Diversity				
14	TransDiv				
15	SMM				
16	SME				
17	CAV				
18	CAA				
19	CAP				
20	TJP				
21	CJP				
22	OVR				
23	PSE				
24	GSE				
25	INE	1			
26	STA	.209**	1		
27	STE	-.002	.517**	1	
28	STP	-.252**	-.522**	-.263**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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Descriptive Summary of Inventory Subscales

Latent construct	Theme	Observed variables	Definition
Stereotype Threat	The fear of confirming a negative stereotype of oneself or one's group based on one's behavior, dress, or personal attributes.	Stereotyped Abilities (STA)	An employee's fear that one's abilities/skills will be minimized because of the perception of others about the employee's sexual orientation.
		Stereotyped Evaluation (STE)	Beliefs that one's job evaluations will be influenced negatively due to the evaluator's perception of the employee's sexual orientation.
		Stereotyped Perceptions (STP)	Employee's concerns regarding others' perceptions of the employee on account of his/her sexual orientation.
Self-Monitoring	Impression Management: sociability, gregariousness, assertiveness, leadership; could refer to dominance/ need for power	Self-Monitoring Modify (SMM)	Ability to modify self-presentation: Assesses how much an individual is willing to change his/her behavior in order to make a better impression on others.
		Self-Monitoring Expressive (SME)	Sensitivity to Expressive Behavior: measures one's ability to pick up on social cues (expressions of others) and use that information to modify one's behavior to make a better impression.
Concern for Appropriateness	Social Anxiety Hypervigilance: tendencies to comply with social demand characteristics of the situation; to adopt a protective self-presentation style, including a high degree of situation-appropriate behavior	Concern for Appropriateness – Variability (CAV)	Cross-situational variability: concern for appropriate behavior in a variety of settings such that one is ever-changing one's behavior according to the setting in order to never reveals one's true self.
		Concern for Appropriateness – Attention (CAA)	Attention to social comparison information: concern of one to fit in with the group . . . extreme attention to elements that would assist him/her to appear to be part of the group and be hypersensitive to elements that would spotlight and uncomfortable distinction from the group.
		Concern for Appropriateness – Appearance (CAP)	Attention to one's appearance, attire, style as indicators of one's status: concern that one dresses appropriately in order to fit into the group.
Self-Efficacy	Belief in one's competence	Professional Self-Efficacy (PSE)	Belief in the ability to correctly fulfill one's professional role
		Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE)	Belief in one's competence to tackle novel tasks, cope with adversity in a broad range of stressful encounters, as opposed to specific self-efficacy that is constrained to a particular task
		Inefficacy (INE)	Job weariness derived from poor job resources and poor coping strategies
Job Performance	Performance of the employee at his/her job.	Task-specific Job Performance (TJP)	Fulfillment of duties that implements the company products of services, and is most related to an employee's job description
		Contextual Job Performance (CJP)	Discretionary behavior by the employee for the benefit of the company over and above prescribed job duties
		Overall Job Performance (OVR)	The respondent's overall self-rating in comparison to fellow employees.

Factor Analysis of Stereotype Threat Questions – Final Solution

Rotated Factor Matrix

		Factor		
		1	2	3
STA1	Stereotyped Abilities (formerly TSST1)	.633		
STA2	Stereotyped Abilities (formerly TSST3)	.635		
STA3	Stereotyped Abilities (formerly TSST6)	.488	-.326	
STA4	Stereotyped Abilities (formerly GST1)	.510		.426
STE1	Stereotyped Evaluations (formerly GST7)			.843
STE2	Stereotyped Evaluations (formerly GST8)	.384		.682
STP1	Stereotyped Perceptions (formerly GST2)		.571	
STP2	Stereotyped Perceptions (formerly GST3)		.823	
STP3	Stereotyped Perceptions (formerly GST4)	-.359	.496	
STP4	Stereotyped Perceptions (formerly GST6)		.446	

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

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ACADEMIC BACKGROUND

Ph.D. Candidate	University of Louisville – Louisville, Kentucky College of Education and Human Development Counseling Psychology Anticipated graduation date: August 2007
Master of Science	Friends University – Wichita, Kansas Major: Marriage and Family Therapy 2001
Master of Divinity Texas	Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary – Fort Worth, Major: Theology 1984

LICENSURE

Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist, State of Kansas #504
2002-2006

PRE-DOCTORAL INTERNSHIP

Dutchess County Department of Mental Hygiene
230 North Road
Poughkeepsie, New York 12601
> First Rotation -- Partial Hospital Program – September 2006 – February 2007
> Second Rotation – Hudson Valley Mental Health, Inc. Outpatient Clinic and
> Dutchess County Department of Mental Hygiene – Clinic for the Multi-Disabled
> – March 2007 to present

PRACTICUM/TRAINING EXPERIENCE

Practicum Sites – University of Louisville

1. Student Counseling Center
   Bellarmine University – Louisville, Kentucky
   September 2005 – July 2006

   Tasks: Individual therapy

2. Luther Luckett Correctional Complex – LaGrange, Kentucky
   Medium security prison
   April 2005—August 2005

   Tasks: Individual therapy, psychological assessments

3. Student Counseling Center
   University of Louisville
   September 2004 – March 2005

   Tasks: Individual therapy, presentations (depression and suicide,
   GLBT issues)

4. Learning Improvement Center – Assessment practicum
   College of Education and Human Development
   University of Louisville
   January – August 2004

   Tasks: 13 psychoeducational reports: 7 children, 6 adults

5. Sexual Offenders Treatment Program
   Commonwealth of Kentucky
   Louisville, Kentucky
   September – December 2003

   Tasks: Psychological assessments, group therapy

<u>Graduate Assistantships</u>

1. Office of Research, Office of the Dean
        College of Education and Human Development
        University of Louisville
        July 2004 – present

2. Learning Improvement Center
        College of Education and Human Development
        University of Louisville
        August 2003 – July 2004

<u>Practicum Sites – Friends University</u>

1. Friends University Marriage and Family Clinic – Wichita, Kansas
        September 2000 – September 2001.

    Tasks: Individual, couple, family therapy

2. College Hill United Methodist Church Counseling Center – Wichita, Kansas
        September 2000 – September 2001 – practicum
        September 2001 – June, 2003 – post-graduate hours

    Tasks: Individual, couple, family therapy; psychoeducational groups;
    Program development.

Professional Positions

1. Minister of Counseling and Pastoral Care,
    Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist, State of Kansas License #504
    January 1997 – June 2003

    College Hill United Methodist Church
    2930 East First Street
    Wichita, Kansas 67214

    Duties: Provided counseling and therapy to church members and surrounding
    community; organize and generate various educational/therapeutic offerings to
    the community, such as annual mental health series, therapeutic groups (grief
    and divorce), relationship enhancement opportunities (heterosexual,
    homosexual, non-traditional); physical health (church-wide wellness program,
    monthly blood pressure checks); senior care (hospital, health care facilities,
    homebound); teaching various classes on above cited topics

2. Lecturer

   Department of Administration, Counseling, Educational and School Psychology
   Wichita State University
   Wichita, Kansas
   Fall Semesters 2000, 2001

   Duties: Developed and taught a one-hour class on "Spiritual Resources in
   Counseling" Supervisor: Dr. Orpha Duell, Department Chair

3. Chaplain/pastoral counselor

   Prairie View Psychiatric Hospital
   Newton, Kansas, January 1992 – January 1997
   Full time position

   Duties: Provide pastoral care to all inpatients and day-patients during
   hospitalization and to staff. This included numerous psycho-educational groups
   of various topics (not limited to "religious" in nature), religious issues groups,
   community liaison to churches. Worked with adults, adolescents, children, drug
   and sexual addiction programs, sexual abuse victims.

   Supervisor, Clinical: Dr. Daniel Heinrichs, MD, Clinical Director

4. Community Case Manager

   Prairie View Mental Health Center,
   Marion, Kansas. June 1989 – January 1992
   Part to full-time position

   Duties: Assist clients with severe and persistent mental illness in daily living
   skills, socialization, accessing of health and social welfare programs for the
   mentally ill   populations of Marion County, Kansas.

   Supervisor: Walter Thiessen, LSCSW and Director of the Marion County
   Office of Prairie View Mental Health Center.

Membership in Professional Associations

   American Psychological Association, Student member

   American Psychological Association of Graduate Students

   Division 44 - Society for the Psychological Study of Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual
   Issues, American Psychological Association

Past Member of American Association of Marriage and Family Therapy
Associate Member

Past Member of the American College of Chaplains – 1993-1997

Past Member of the Kansas Association of Chaplains – 1992- 1997
President, 1996-97

Presentations

The making of a social deviant: The modern discourse on deviancy and four directions for further investigation. Presentation at the Spring Research Conference, University of Cincinnati, April 23, 2005.

Service

Planning committee – Spring Research Conference 2006 – April 1, 2006 Conference for students collaboratively sponsored by the Universities of Louisville, Kentucky, and Cincinnati. Hosted by University of Louisville in Louisville, Kentucky.

Planning committee – Future Faculty Program, College of Education and Human Development, University of Louisville, 2004—2005

Community Participation

Stand and Be Counted – political action group – Louisville, Kentucky, 2004

ConnectCare (Wichita, KS AIDS support organization) – training, volunteering, conducting funerals.

Writings

Articles

Saderholm, J., Ronau, R., Brown, E.T., & Collins, G.M. (2006). Validation of the Diagnostic Teacher Assessment of Mathematics and Science (DTAMS) Instrument. Submitted for publication.

Dissertation

Encountering Stereotype Threat in the Workplace: How Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Employees Meet The Challenge Of Negative Stereotyping

Doctoral program papers

1. Discorrupting the Deviant: Learning to Transform the Language of Deviancy
2. Bioneurological Components in Sexual Identity Formation
3. Consultation as an Integral Part of a Career as a Counseling Professional
4. Assessing Self-Efficacy
5. Exploring the Self-Efficacy Component of Social Cognitive Theory
6. Gay/Lesbian/Bisexual/Transgendered/Queer Persons and Work Discrimination

Booklet

"An Invitation to Celebration: Planning Your Funeral" for College Hill United Methodist Church (1998).

Pamphlet

"How to Teach your Children Spiritual Values" for Prairie View, Inc. (1994).

Honors

Member: Kappa Delta Pi -- International Honor Society in Education since 2007

Golden Key International Honour Society since 2007