

The Relationship Between Sexuality–Professional Identity Integration and Leadership in the Workplace

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How do members of minority groups navigate identity in the workplace—such as being both a sexual minority and a working professional? This article extends research on identity integration (II)—perceptions of multiple social identities as compatible versus conflicting—to examine the intersection of personal identity (sexual minority) and professional identity, and the effects of II on how people influence others. The current research used a working adult sample of sexual minority individuals, leaders and nonleaders, to establish a sexuality–professional II scale (adapted from the bicultural II scale that measures perceived conflict and distance between two cultural identities) and to explore the relationship between individual differences in sexuality–professional II and leadership and power tactics. Results showed that individuals higher in II (i.e., perceived compatibility between these personal and professional identities) self-reported that they were more likely to use relational tactics that consider the needs and feelings of others, specifically personal power tactics and transformational leadership tactics. Results also showed that higher sexuality–professional II was associated with perceptions of a more supportive work environment. Further, the relationship between sexuality–professional II and tendency to use relational tactics was mediated by perceived work environment. Together, these results suggest that integration across personal and professional identities is associated with a more positive work environment, which in turn facilitates the incorporation of relational concerns when influencing others. These findings have theoretical and practical implications for navigating multiple identities, creating a supportive work climate for sexual minority individuals, and managing diversity objectives in the modern workplace.

Public Significance Statement

This study suggests that for sexual minority American workers, higher levels of identity integration between their sexual and professional identities is associated with greater use of relational tactics, such as engaging in transformational leadership practices. These findings have significant implications for the modern workplace, such that American businesses may benefit from creating a safer and more positive work environment for LGBTQ+ individuals, facilitating greater sexuality–professional identity integration.

Keywords: identity, professional identity, sexuality, sex roles, leadership

Individuals within the LGBTQ+ community¹ (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, and additional identities), many of which lead major businesses (e.g., Tim Cook), account for a sizable portion of the population with moderate estimates suggesting at least eight million American adults (3.8%; Gates, 2011) in the United States, representing 2.5% of the working population (Catalyst, 2015). More recent work suggests that these numbers are growing with estimates

of more adults identifying as LGBTQ+ (4.1%; Catalyst, 2017). However, 25%–66% of sexual minority individuals report experiencing discrimination in the workplace based on their identity (Ragins, Singh, & Cornwell, 2007). In 28 of the 50 states, sexual minority individuals have no state-level protection laws as workers (Catalyst, 2017). Thus there is a need to understand how personal (i.e., sexual minority) and professional identities can contribute to organizational dynamics and outcomes (King, Mohr, Peddie, Jones, & Kendra, 2017; Reed & Leuty, 2016) to encourage protections for sexual minority individuals. In this article, we explore how the intersection of sexual

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¹ We use the word *sexuality minority* rather than *LGBTQ+* throughout to be inclusive towards the spectrum of identities that may exist within sexuality (Gangestad, Bailey, & Martin, 2000; Savin-Williams, 2014; Savin-Williams, 2017), as well as to target nuances of sexual identity in the workplace rather than explicit identities.

and professional identity relates to power and leadership tactics in the workplace.

Below, we draw from identity integration (Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002; Roccas & Brewer, 2002) and sexual identity development (Button, 2001; Chrobot-Mason, Button, & DiClementi, 2001; Snyder, 2006) literatures to address how individuals navigate multiple social identities within the workplace. Second, we consider how gendered perceptions of power and leadership relate to the personal and professional identities at hand (Carli, 1999, 2001, 2010). It is important to note that although the research we are reviewing focuses on LGBTQ+ individuals broadly, our study will be focusing on individuals that self-identify as “nonheterosexual.”

Integrating Identities

Identity integration (II; Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002) refers to the extent to which social identities are compatible versus conflicting—specifically, perceived conflict and distance between two identities (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002). High II individuals perceive compatibility between their identities (i.e., lower conflict and distance between identities) and simultaneously activate and rely on them. Conversely, low II individuals (i.e., higher perceived conflict and distance between identities), activate singular identities in context-specific ways (Cheng, Sanders, et al., 2008). By applying II to personal (e.g., sexual minority) and professional identities, we explore how sexual minority individuals navigate social power in the workplace, specifically how II relates to power and leadership behaviors.

Social Identities

Although previous II research has examined social identities including gender (e.g., Sacharin, Lee, & Gonzalez, 2009), culture (e.g., Vu, Choi, & Do, 2011), and race-ethnicity (e.g., Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Cheng & Lee, 2009; Jackson, Yoo, Guevarra, & Harrington, 2012), sexual minority identities have received less attention (e.g., Huynh, Nguyen, & Benet-Martínez, 2011; Koc & Vignoles, 2016; Tragakis & Smith, 2010). Sexual identity is distinct in that it often remains an invisible identity (i.e., unknown to others) unless an individual discloses that identity. Additionally, sexual identities are distinct from professional identities (i.e., combined affect, behavior, and cognition in the workplace; Schein, 1976), which are more fluid and dependent on one’s current employment. Although previous work has established that personal identities (e.g., gender) can be integrated with professional identities in novel ways (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, & Lee, 2008; Sacharin et al., 2009; Wallen, Mor, & Devine, 2014), the current study explores whether II can be adapted for sexual identities. This is particularly relevant because professional American values (e.g., aggressive and independent) can conflict with values associated with women (Sacharin et al., 2009) and with sexual minority individuals (Kark & Eagly, 2010).

Sexual Identity Development

Sexual identity development models suggest a four-stage model ending in commitment to one’s identity (Cass, 1984; Coleman,

1982; Troiden, 1988). Research suggests that achieving greater sexual identity development leads to positive outcomes, such as self-knowledge and diverse social networks (Operario, Han, & Choi, 2008; Vu et al., 2011), similar to the benefits associated with high II (Mok & Morris, 2012; Mok, Morris, Benet-Martínez, & Karakitapoglu-Aygun, 2007). We reason that the effects of integrating sexual and professional identities may extend to positive outcomes in a workplace context. Specifically, we suggest that sexuality–professional II (SPII) affects the ways in which sexual minority individuals influence others in the workplace, by allowing individuals to leverage positive aspects of their identity. Perhaps greater diversity of social networks in conjunction with other benefits of sexual identity achievement (e.g., self-knowledge, self-efficacy; Crawford, Allison, Zamboni, & Soto, 2002; Operario et al., 2008) facilitates more multifaceted approaches to social power and leadership, in which individuals incorporate consideration for others when exercising influence (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001).

Identity Integration: Measurement and Outcomes

In addition to measuring II as an individual difference in the extent to which people perceive multiple identities to be compatible versus conflicting, recent research also suggests that II is a malleable construct that can be manipulated in the short term (Cheng & Lee, 2013; Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al. 2008; Mok & Morris, 2012). Previous manipulations include having participants recall positive or negative aspects of their dual identity (Cheng & Lee, 2013), or priming participants with positive or negative stereotypical images of their separate identities (Cheng, Lee, & Benet-Martínez, 2006).

Overall, previous measurements of II and associated outcomes suggest that II is an important individual difference that influences how minority individuals navigate the workplace (Cheng & Lee, 2013; Cheng et al., 2006; Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Mok & Morris, 2010, 2012).

II Outcomes

II is associated with numerous personal benefits, such as greater self-esteem and wellbeing (Chen, Benet-Martínez, & Bond, 2008; Schwartz et al., 2015) and greater self-knowledge and self-efficacy (Crawford et al., 2002; Operario et al., 2008; Vu et al., 2011). More recently, II has also been studied within the context of professional outcomes. High II has been associated with greater appraisal (Cheng, Lee, Benet-Martínez, & Huynh, 2014) and attention (Mok & Morris, 2012). Research has also shown that high II individuals have more interconnected social networks (Mok et al., 2007) and experience greater professional acceptance, persistence, optimism, satisfaction, and performance (Darling, Molina, Sanders, Lee, & Zhao, 2008; Tragakis, 2007). Further, high II encourages the ability to rely on multiple knowledge sets associated with more than one identity, leading to greater creativity in identity-related tasks (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Mok & Morris, 2010, 2012). Thus the positive outcomes of high II may extend to other social aspects of the workplace context that leverage creativity and diversity, such as leadership and power dynamics. We suggest that sexual minority individuals higher in II may be more likely to engage in a diverse, or multifaceted approach to leadership and power when attempting to influence others or to

address potential concerns in the workplace (e.g., increasing job performance and cooperation).

Gender, Power, and Leadership

Gender and Sexual Identity

With the knowledge that gender is a multidimensional construct where individuals can be masculine and feminine simultaneously (i.e., psychological androgyny), research suggests nuanced differences in gender expression between heterosexual and sexual minority individuals (Dean & Tate, 2017). Sexual minorities tend to have a lower adherence to traditional gender roles (Rees-Turyn, Doyle, Holland, & Root, 2008), which may encourage greater androgynous gender expression. Given this connection between sexual identity and gender expression, we suggest that sexual minority individuals may also be more likely to engage in androgynous approaches to social dynamics in the workplace—specifically those that are relevant to gender and social power.

The Role of Gender and Sexual Identity in Leadership and Power

Leadership and power tactics in the workplace are influenced by gender roles, such that men are more likely to be considered prototypic managers (Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012), whereas women are more likely to be perceived as having less social power (Ragins & Winkel, 2011). However, women are also perceived to be more helpful and affiliative, leading to a greater and more effective use of transformational leadership practices (Carli, 1999; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Kark & Eagly, 2010; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014).

Given the willingness of sexual minority individuals to defy scripted gender roles (Kark & Eagly, 2010), how they integrate their sexual minority and professional identities may affect their use of leadership and power tactics traditionally considered more relational or “feminine” (Carter, DeChurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015; Li & Hung, 2009). Thus gendered forms of leadership and power, such as transformational leadership (Carter et al., 2015; Kark et al., 2012) and personal power tactics (Koslowsky, Baharav, & Schwarzwald, 2011), are important considerations in the context of SPII. Specifically, because sexual minority individuals who are higher in SPII are more likely to integrate their sexual identity into their professional identity, they may be more willing to break from traditional gender roles and power dynamics in the workplace (Rees-Turyn et al., 2008), by using more relationally-oriented leadership and power tactics.

Leadership Styles

Previous research on leadership has differentiated between styles that employ a more developmental approach, such as transformational leadership, and those that employ a more transactional approach to the leader-follower relationship (Carter et al., 2015), as well as the outcomes associated with different styles (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Transformational leadership involves a relational approach, in which leaders emphasize social relationships with coworkers and subordinates to build unity

(Carter et al., 2015; Kark et al., 2012), and a collective vision of success (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Kark et al., 2012). Conversely, transactional leadership focuses on hierarchical structure within the workplace through rewards and punishments (Eagly et al., 2003).

Whereas the effectiveness of transactional leadership seems to be context-dependent, such that only public rather than private organizations seem to benefit, transformational leadership has been shown to consistently provide benefits across numerous contexts (Lowe et al., 1996). Specifically, transformational leadership encourages greater mental flexibility (Ramchandran, Colbert, Brown, Denburg, & Tranel, 2016), cooperation and higher job satisfaction (Sardjono, Huseini, Raharjo, & Arifin, 2014), and lower job stress and burnout (Salem, 2015). Additionally, transformational leadership is associated with greater organizational learning and knowledge management (Noruzi, Dalfard, Azhdari, Nazari-Shirkouhi, & Rezazadeh, 2013), as well as greater creative self-efficacy among subordinates (Nijstad, Berger-Selman, & De Dreu, 2014; Wang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014).

Within the context of identity integration, little research attention seems to focus explicitly on II's relationship with power and leadership. However, previous theoretical work suggests that II should have a positive association with transformational leadership (Brannen, Garcia, & Thomas, 2009). Given the demonstrated benefits of high II with respect to creativity and cognition (Mok et al., 2007; Darling et al., 2008), the ability to integrate the perspectives of multiple identities and diverse social networks is likely a necessity for success in an increasingly globalized world (Brannen et al., 2009). The current study extends research on identity integration to explore its relationship with transformational leadership, a developmental leadership style with well-established benefits for individuals and organizations (Noruzi et al., 2013; Sardjono et al., 2014; Salem, 2015; Ramchandran et al., 2016).

Power Tactics

Similar to research on leadership, previous work on power has also differentiated between unique forms of social influence (Carli, 2001). Power tactics, broadly, refer to the use of social influence to exert control over others (i.e., to get others to comply with requests; Carli, 1999). Typically, these power tactics rely on one's person (e.g., personal appeals, rational persuasion) or one's position (e.g., exchange, pressure; Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Relatedly, these types of power have been referred to as soft versus harsh forms of power, respectively (Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998; Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Bernstein, 2013). Soft forms of power (e.g., charisma, or referent power) de-emphasize hierarchical differences, whereas harsh forms of power (e.g., coercion) emphasize these differences (Raven et al., 1998).

Recent work suggests that harsh power tactics are less successful in the long-term (Koslowsky et al., 2011). Additionally, research has shown that being dominant, a stereotypically masculine behavior, is perceived as an ineffective strategy (Driskell & Salas, 2005). In contrast, soft and personal power tactics have been shown to encourage greater job commitment (Pierro, Raven, Amato, & Bélanger, 2013), as well as lower job burnout and stress (Bélanger et al., 2016). Although the effectiveness of specific types of power tactics (i.e., soft vs. harsh) may be context-dependent, based on individual differences among employees or

the type of workforce (e.g., Koslowsky et al., 2011), generally it seems that soft power tactics may be more effective in the long-term (Pierro, Kruglanski, & Raven, 2012).

Given the professional benefits of soft tactics, an emphasis on relational power and leadership tactics (i.e., transformational leadership and personal power tactics) in conjunction with more traditional agentic tactics (i.e., transactional leadership and harsh power tactics), or an androgynous approach in which individuals engage in both types of tactics, may be more effective than relying solely on one type of strategy (Hackman, Furniss, Hills, & Paterson, 1992; Kark & Eagly, 2010; Kark et al., 2012; Snyder, 2006). Specifically, because of greater willingness to endorse androgynous behaviors (Doyle, Rees, & Titus, 2015; Rees-Turyn et al., 2008), sexual minority individuals who are able to integrate their sexual and professional identities may in turn use more relational approaches to power and leadership in the workplace (Kark et al., 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Ramchandran et al., 2016; Sardjono et al., 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014).

Work Environment

Although sexuality–professional identity integration is particularly relevant to understanding how sexual minority individuals interact with and influence others in the workplace, the context in which these individuals are working—the workplace itself (King et al., 2017)—may also play a role in these individuals' approaches to leadership and power. Given that more than 25% of sexual minority workers report experiencing discrimination in the workplace (Ragins et al., 2007), it is unsurprising to find that sexual minority workers invisibilize their sexual identity within the workplace (King et al., 2017; Newheiser, Barreto, & Tiemersma, 2017). Specifically, research suggests that sexual minority individuals consciously manage their identities depending on both individual differences (Reed & Leuty, 2016) as well as contextual factors, such as organizational climate (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001; King et al., 2017).

While concealing one's sexual identity may be a necessity to avoid discrimination, it is also associated with detrimental psychological outcomes, such as lower job satisfaction, self-esteem, and work-related commitment (Newheiser et al., 2017). On the other hand, for those who perceive a friendly work environment toward their sexual identity, research suggests greater levels of productivity and profitability for organizations overall (Pichler, Blazovich, Cook, Huston, & Strawser, 2016), and a greater likelihood of integrating their identity into the workplace (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001). Given the personal and professional advantages related to high II and a positive workplace climate, perhaps sexual minority workers who successfully integrate their identity into the workplace may reap the positive organizational benefits of both. We expect that individuals with higher SPII, within the context of a more supportive work environment, will engage in more relational leadership and power tactics compared to those in a less supportive work environment. To the best of our knowledge, previous research has not yet examined the relationship between a global measure of sexual identity and perceived work environment. The majority of relevant work to date has focused on the nuances between specific forms of sexual identity (e.g., centrality, uncertainty) and resulting outcomes such as outness (King et al., 2017; Reed & Leuty, 2016). Thus there is a need to assess how individ-

uals perceive their work environment based on a more global measure of sexual identity and its intersection with professional identity.

Current Research

The current research on sexuality–professional identity integration (SPII)—integration of sexual minority identity and professional identity—is a novel expansion on identity and workplace outcomes. We demonstrate that the Bicultural Identity Integration (BII) scale (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002) can be reliably adapted from previous work (e.g., Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Sacharin et al., 2009; Wallen et al., 2014) to reflect sexual identity and professional identity, and explore the relationship between sexuality–professional II and workplace behaviors related to power and leadership. Based on high II's well-established associations with simultaneous activation of multiple identities, and its positive outcomes related to diversity (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001; Crawford et al., 2002), creativity and innovation (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008), and professional performance (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Mok, Cheng, & Morris, 2010; Mok & Morris, 2010; Sacharin et al., 2009), we propose that integrating sexual minority and professional identities will yield a more inclusive repertoire of power and leadership tactics, less scripted by traditional gender roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000; Heilman, 1995; Schein, 1976, 2001).

We hypothesize that individuals with higher SPII—those who integrate sexual minority and professional identities in the workplace—are more likely to use relational power and leadership tactics that incorporate the needs and concerns of others, as opposed to relying solely on traditional power and leadership tactics that emphasize one's authority over others. Given that previous research has shown II to be context-dependent (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008), we also consider the possibility that work environment plays a role in the relationship between SPII and relational approaches to power and leadership.

The current study has two objectives: first, to establish a Sexuality–Professional Identity Integration (SPII) scale as a psychometrically valid measure; and second, to examine the relationship between individual differences in SPII and power and leadership tactics. We hypothesize that SPII will be associated with positive identity development and a well-established measure of the Big Five personality traits (Ten Item Personality Inventory; TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003), specifically the traits of openness and neuroticism, consistent with previous research on II and personality (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005). Hypotheses pertaining to scale validation are as follows:

Hypothesis 1a: SPII will be negatively associated with a less adapted sense of sexual identity (i.e., maladjusted perceptions of sexual identity).

Hypothesis 1b: SPII will be positively associated with a more adapted sense of sexual identity development (i.e., well-adjusted perceptions of sexual identity).

Hypothesis 2a: SPII will be positively associated with openness (i.e., intellectual curiosity).

Hypothesis 2b: SPII will be negatively associated with neuroticism (i.e., emotional instability).

In addition, we expect that SPII will be positively associated with the use of power and leadership tactics that incorporate relational concerns. Specifically, we hypothesize that SPII will be associated with the use of more personal (i.e., soft) power tactics and transformational (i.e., developmental) leadership tactics. However, we do not expect that SPII will be associated with positional (i.e., harsh) power tactics and transactional (i.e., reward vs. punishment-focused) leadership tactics. In other words, we do not propose that SPII is associated with the use of power and leadership tactics overall—we expect individuals to use traditionally agentic tactics such as positional power and transactional leadership regardless of the extent to which they integrate professional and sexual identities. Instead, we propose that SPII leads to greater use of tactics that are specifically relevant to relational concerns when influencing others. Hypotheses pertaining to power and leadership outcomes are as follows:

Hypothesis 3: SPII will be positively associated with the use of personal power tactics.

Hypothesis 4: SPII will be positively associated with the use of transformational leadership tactics.

Further, we explore whether work environment mediates the observed relationship between SPII and power and leadership tactics. We expect that higher SPII is associated with a more supportive work environment, which in turn predicts greater use of personal power tactics. Hypotheses pertaining to this mediation analysis are as follows:

Hypothesis 5a: SPII will be a significant predictor of positive work environment.

Hypothesis 5b: Positive work environment will be a significant predictor of personal power tactics.

Hypothesis 5c: SPII will be a significant predictor of personal power tactics.

Hypothesis 5d: The relationship between SPII and personal power tactics will be mediated by positive work environment.

Likewise, we expect that higher SPII is associated with a more supportive work environment, which in turn predicts greater use of transformational leadership tactics. Hypotheses pertaining to this mediation analysis are as follows:

Hypothesis 6a: SPII will be a significant predictor of positive work environment.

Hypothesis 6b: Positive work environment will be a significant predictor of transformational leadership tactics.

Hypothesis 6c: SPII will be a significant predictor of transformational leadership tactics.

Hypothesis 6d: The relationship between SPII and transformational leadership tactics will be mediated by positive work environment.

Method

Participants

A sample of 135 nonheterosexual working adults in the U.S. (77 male; 56 female; two unidentified) was recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Sexual minority status was defined by identifying as nonheterosexual to some degree, a measure we describe in the procedures below. Participants also indicated their sexual identity in response to the prompt “What is your sexual orientation?” Sexual orientation was coded such that 1 = *homosexual* (e.g., homosexual, gay, lesbian), 2 = *bisexual* (e.g., bisexual, bi, bisexual preferring women), 3 = *nonbinary* (e.g., nonbinary, queer), and 4 = *nonheterosexual or other sexual identity* (e.g., nonheterosexual, pansexual, questioning). There were 89 participants who identified as homosexual, 32 as bisexual, 12 as nonheterosexual, and 2 as nonbinary. Participants indicated their gender in response to the prompt “What is your gender?” and had three options: male, female, or an open-ended specification of gender identity. Only one participant used the open-ended option to indicate “gender queer.” Participants ranged from 20 to 69 years of age ($M = 32$ $SD = 9.71$). The sample was 76% White: 102 participants identified as White, 14 as African American, 11 as Hispanic/Latino, four as Asian American, two as American Indian or Alaska Native, and two as multiracial.

A total of 82 participants, or 60.7%, indicated that they were currently in a leadership position. Of those currently in a leadership position, in response to the open-ended question “How many people do you supervise (or how many people are you responsible for)?” they indicated a range of 0 to 189 individuals. In response to the open-ended question “What is your specific position or role?” they indicated a wide variety of leadership roles (e.g., store manager, customer service leader, department head, director of sales/finance, trainer of new employees). Participants were working in a diverse range of industries (e.g., retail/sales, consulting, insurance, social work, technological support, education). Participants were compensated via Amazon vouchers at a rate of \$6.00/hr.

Measures and Procedure

Participants were directed from MTurk to complete an online survey that included self-report measures of identity and personality, power and leadership, and work environment. Prior to completing the survey, participants responded to a filter question on sexual identity by self-identifying on a seven-point scale ranging from “completely heterosexual” to “completely nonheterosexual.” This response format uses an adapted Kinsey-like scale to capture the growing number of individuals who identify not necessarily as homosexual or bisexual, but rather as nonheterosexual (Galupo, Mitchell, Gryniewicz, & Davis, 2014; Savin-Williams, 2009). Individuals who responded “completely heterosexual” were filtered out of the survey by MTurk prior to viewing any survey items, such that all participants who completed the study self-identified as nonheterosexual to some degree. By using a broad conceptualization of sexual identity (i.e., nonheterosexual identity), we aimed to capture the full spectrum of individuals who identify with the sexual minority community. At the conclusion of the survey, participants also had the option to provide a specific label via an open-ended response to the prompt “sexual orientation.”

Although not reflective of explicit sexual identities, the Kinsey-like scale largely reflected distributions skewed toward “completely nonheterosexual.” Specifically, participants who selected “completely nonheterosexual” represented 71.1% ($n = 96$) of the sample, and those who selected “somewhat nonheterosexual” represented the next largest group at 19.3% ($n = 26$). In addition, 5.2% ($n = 7$) of the sample selected “slightly nonheterosexual,” and 4.4% ($n = 6$) selected “neither heterosexual nor nonheterosexual.” No participants selected options 2 (“somewhat heterosexual”) or 3 (“slightly heterosexual”) on the Kinsey-like scale. Following the filter process, a total of 29 individuals were removed from the sample based on three survey research criteria: a failed attention check, a high response bias (e.g., selecting the furthest right/left option 90% of the time), or largely incomplete data (e.g., less than 60% completion of the survey). This process resulted in a final sample of 135 participants.

Sexuality–Professional Identity Integration (SPII) Scale. Following the filter, participants completed a self-report SPII scale designed to measure their perceptions of compatibility between sexual minority identity and professional identity. We based our measure of SPII on an adaptation of the Bicultural Identity Integration (BII) scale, which was designed to measure two identities associated with different cultures (see Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002). As in previous research, we adapted the BII scale based on the specific identities examined (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Sacharin et al., 2009; Wallen et al., 2014). For example, previous studies have adapted the BII scale to reflect gender-professional identity integration in order to explore experiences of gender identity in the context of profession. This line of work has focused on women’s perceptions of identity in male-dominated professions such as STEM fields, law, and business (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Mok & Morris, 2012; Sacharin et al., 2009), or more recently, men’s experiences in female-dominated professions such as nursing (Wallen et al., 2014). These previously published measures differ in their specific language modifications and the extent to which they utilize the full eight-item BII scale (e.g., Wallen et al., 2014) or one of the two four-item BII subscales (e.g., Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Sacharin et al., 2009).

In this study, we used a modified version of the eight-item BII scale (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002; Wallen et al., 2014). We modified the language to reflect a sexual identity and a professional identity as opposed to two cultural identities (e.g., “sexuality” and “profession” as opposed to “Asian-American”). The eight-item SPII scale assessed perceived distance and conflict between these identities and consisted of the following items: (1) My ideals as a nonheterosexual person differ from my ideals as a professional; (2) I keep everything about being nonheterosexual separate from being a professional; (3) Succeeding in my profession involves the same sides of myself as succeeding as a nonheterosexual person (reverse-scored), (4) My self-concept seamlessly blends my identity as a professional and my sexual identity (reverse-scored), (5) I feel conflicted between my identity as a nonheterosexual person and my identity as a professional; (6) I am someone whose behavior switches between the norms of my sexuality and the norms of my profession; (7) I feel torn between the expectations of my sexuality and of my profession; (8) I do not feel any tension between my goals as a nonheterosexual person and the goals of my profession

(reverse-scored). Participants indicated their agreement with scale items on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Upon examination of inter-item correlations and alphas with items deleted, one item was removed from the scale to increase reliability (“I keep everything about being nonheterosexual separate from being a professional”). We created a composite by averaging across the remaining seven items. The SPII scale yielded sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .88$). This level of reliability is consistent with previous research on II (Benet-Martínez, Leu, Lee, & Morris, 2002; Cheng et al., 2006, 2008; Haritatos & Benet-Martínez, 2002). The SPII scale was reverse-scored, such that higher scores indicate lower perceived distance or conflict, or higher SPII.

Power and leadership. Participants completed two self-report measures of power and leadership tactics they typically use. First, participants completed the power questionnaire, a two-factor taxonomy of power sources designed to measure power as influence in downward and lateral relations (Yukl & Falbe, 1991), including power tactics derived from *personal characteristics* (e.g., charisma) and power tactics derived from *positional characteristics* (e.g., coercion). The 12-item *personal* tactics scale consisted of four subscales—charismatic (e.g., “Appeal to the emotions and values of people”), persuasive (e.g., “Interpret events and analyze problems in a way that makes sense”), likability/referent (e.g., “Have an attitude of enthusiasm and optimism that is contagious”), and expertise (e.g., “Use knowledge to help solve technical problems related to work”). The nine-item *positional* tactics scale consisted of three subscales of the power questionnaire—reward (e.g., “Control resources people need to do work effectively”), coercive (e.g., “Take disciplinary action if someone fails to comply with a request”), and legitimate authority (e.g., “Use authority to determine whether a task someone does is acceptable or not”).

Participants also completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ includes *transformational* tactics that indicate a more developmental leadership style (e.g., consideration of the follower), *transactional* tactics that indicate a merely transactional approach to the leader-follower relationship (e.g., reward and punishment based on performance) and *passive-avoidant* tactics that indicate a more laissez-faire approach to leadership (e.g., absence from the leader-follower relationship). The 20-item *transformational* tactics scale consisted of charismatic/inspirational (e.g., “Express confidence that goals will be achieved”), intellectual stimulation (e.g., “Seek differing perspectives when solving problems”), and individualized consideration (e.g., “Spend time teaching and coaching”) subscales. The eight-item *transactional* tactics scale consisted of *contingent reward* (e.g., “Express satisfaction when others meet expectations”) and *management by exception—active* (e.g., “Direct attention toward failures to meet standards”) subscales. The eight-item *passive-avoidant* tactics scale consisted of *laissez-faire* (e.g., “Avoid making decisions”) and *management by exception—passive* (e.g., “Fail to interfere until problems become serious”) subscales.

For both the power and leadership measures, the items were presented in a randomized order. Participants were instructed to indicate their “own style as [they] perceive it” and to consider “how frequently each statement fits” their behaviors. Participants rated the extent to which they typically use each tactic on a 5-point scale (1 = *Not at all* to 5 = *Frequently, if not always*). We created

composites by averaging across the items pertaining to each scale, and each scale yielded sufficient reliability: *personal* ($\alpha = .87$), *positional* ($\alpha = .82$), *transformational* ($\alpha = .92$), *transactional* ($\alpha = .70$), and *passive-avoidant* ($\alpha = .82$). These reliability estimates are roughly consistent with previous research on these measures, with the exception of the relatively lower reliability for the transactional scale: .91–.92 for personal and .88–.89 for positional (Yukl & Falbe, 1991), and .96 for transformational, .84–.86 for transactional, and .89–.91 for passive-avoidant (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003), respectively.

Identity development. Then participants completed an identity development measure—the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual Identity Scale (LGBIS; Mohr & Fassinger, 2000; Mohr & Kendra, 2011). The LGBIS is a multidimensional measure of sexual minority identity consisting of eight subscales. We selected seven subscales as specific targets for analyses, a common practice in previous work using the LGBIS (King et al., 2017; Reed & Leuty, 2016; Tornello & Patterson, 2015): *acceptance concerns* (e.g., “I often wonder whether others judge me for my sexual orientation”); *concealment motivation* (e.g., “I prefer to keep my same-sex romantic relationships rather private”); *identity uncertainty* (e.g., “I’m not totally sure what my sexual orientation is”); *internalized homonegativity* (e.g., “If it were possible, I would choose to be straight”); *difficult process* (e.g., “Admitting to myself that I’m an LGB person has been a very painful process”); *identity affirmation* (e.g., “I am glad to be an LGB person”); and *identity centrality* (e.g., “My sexual orientation is a central part of my identity”). Higher scores on the first five subscales—the negative subscales—indicate a less adapted sense of LGB identity (i.e., maladjusted perceptions of LGB identity), whereas higher scores on the last two subscales—the positive subscales—indicate a more adapted sense of LGB identity (i.e., well-adjusted perceptions of LGB identity; Mohr & Kendra, 2011). We expect SPII to be positively associated with the LGBIS positive subscales (and negatively associated with the LGBIS negative subscales), as an adapted sense of LGB identity represents acceptance and affirmation of one’s sexual identity and perhaps more willingness to integrate it in the context of other identities.

The scale language of the LGBIS was modified, such that references to specific sexual identity labels (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual) were changed to reflect the phrasing “nonheterosexual.” The purpose of this modification was to be inclusive of a wide range of identities, so as to reflect the diversity of sexual identities and experiences of nonheterosexual individuals (Galupo et al., 2014; Savin-Williams, 2014). Consistent with this language change, one scale item was removed from the *identity uncertainty* subscale (“I can’t decide whether I am bisexual or homosexual”), given its limited focus on specific sexual identities. We maintained all other scale language and scoring. Participants indicated their agreement with statements on a six-point Likert scale (1 = *Disagree strongly* to 6 = *Agree strongly*). We created subscale composites by averaging across the items pertaining to each subscale, and each scale yielded sufficient reliability: *acceptance concerns* ($\alpha = .79$), *concealment motivation* ($\alpha = .88$), *identity uncertainty* ($\alpha = .85$), *internalized homonegativity* ($\alpha = .91$), *difficult process* ($\alpha = .79$), *identity affirmation* ($\alpha = .89$), and *identity centrality* ($\alpha = .78$). These reliability estimates are consistent with previous research using these measures, with the exception of the

relatively lower reliability for the centrality scale: .77, .78, .88, 87, .79, .89 and .86, respectively (Mohr & Kendra, 2011).

Personality. Participants completed the Big-Five Ten Item Personality Inventory, the TIPI (Gosling et al., 2003), which assesses the traits of openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Participants indicated their agreement with statements on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*). Higher scores indicate higher levels of a given trait. We created composites for each of the five traits by averaging across the two items pertaining to each trait: extroversion ($\alpha = .76$), agreeableness ($\alpha = .72$), neuroticism ($\alpha = .84$), conscientiousness ($\alpha = .63$), and openness ($\alpha = .50$), respectively. The lower reliability estimates for these subscales is consistent with previous research using this measure, as these two-item instruments result in unusually low internal consistency estimates: .68, .40, .73, .50, and .45, respectively (Gosling et al., 2003).²

Workplace perceptions. Participants completed a measure of perceived work environment (Button, 2001; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001), which assesses treatment of and discrimination toward sexual minorities (e.g., “This organization does not treat lesbians and gay men fairly”). Participants indicated their agreement with statements on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*). We created a composite by averaging across the nine items, and the scale yielded high reliability ($\alpha = .92$), consistent with previous research using this measure (Button, 2001; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001). The perceived work environment (PWE) scale was reverse-scored, such that higher scores indicate lower levels of perceived discrimination, or a more supportive work environment.

Participants also completed additional work-related demographics (e.g., employment status, leadership status, current occupation) and basic demographic information (e.g., gender, age, sexual orientation).

Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, alpha coefficients, and correlations for primary study variables: gender, age, PWE ($\alpha = .92$), SPII ($\alpha = .88$), personal power ($\alpha = .87$), positional power ($\alpha = .82$), transformational leadership ($\alpha = .92$), transactional leadership ($\alpha = .70$), and passive-avoidant leadership ($\alpha = .82$).

Preliminary Analyses

The distance and conflict subscales of the SPII scale were highly correlated in this study, $r(135) = .76, p < .001$. This finding is consistent with recent research demonstrating that the conflict and distance subscales of the Bicultural Identity Integration (BII) scale are correlated (e.g., Cheng & Lee, 2013). Factor analysis of the SPII scale items found a satisfactory one-factor solution. All items

² As Gosling and colleagues acknowledge, although the two-item subscales are somewhat inferior to standard multi-item instruments with respect to reliability estimates, the two-item instruments emphasize content validity over reliability and have demonstrated (a) convergence with widely used Big-Five measures, (b) test-retest reliability, (c) patterns of predicted correlates, and (d) convergence between self and observer ratings (Gosling et al., 2003).

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Coefficients, and Correlations Among Primary Study Variables

| Variable name | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---------------------|----------|-----------|-------|------|--------|-------|---------|--------|---------|-------|-------|
| 1. Gender | 0.42 | 0.50 | — | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age | 32.16 | 9.71 | .13 | — | | | | | | | |
| 3. PWE | 4.94 | 0.81 | .12 | .02 | (.92) | | | | | | |
| 4. SPII scale | 5.15 | 1.28 | .20* | .08 | .52*** | (.88) | | | | | |
| 5. Personal power | 3.98 | 0.55 | .22* | .21* | .37*** | .27** | (.87) | | | | |
| 6. Positional power | 2.80 | 0.71 | -.07 | .12 | .06 | -.02 | .24** | (.82) | | | |
| 7. Transformational | 3.79 | 0.59 | .23** | .17 | .33*** | .23** | .76*** | .33*** | (.92) | | |
| 8. Transactional | 3.33 | 0.62 | -.08 | .18* | .14 | .06 | .23** | .44*** | .38*** | (.70) | |
| 9. Passive-avoidant | 1.78 | 0.70 | -.15 | -.11 | -.17* | -.19* | -.38*** | .09 | -.30*** | .14 | (.82) |

Note. $N = 135$. Gender was coded such that 0 = male, 1 = female. Values on the diagonal represent estimates of internal consistency. PWE = perceived work environment; SPII = Sexuality-Professional Identity Integration.

* $p \leq .051$. ** $p \leq .01$. *** $p \leq .001$.

yielded sufficient factor loadings above .40. Thus the single composite scale for SPII (7 items; $\alpha = .88$) was used in the analyses.

Lesbian-Gay-Bisexual Identity Scale (LGBIS). SPII ($\alpha = .88$) was significantly correlated with six out of the seven subscales of the LGBIS: *acceptance concerns* ($\alpha = .79$), $r = -.54$, $p < .001$; *concealment motivation* ($\alpha = .88$), $r = -.43$, $p < .001$; *identity uncertainty* ($\alpha = .85$), $r = -.15$, $p < .10$ (marginally significant); *internalized homonegativity* ($\alpha = .91$), $r = -.51$, $p < .001$; *difficult process* ($\alpha = .79$), $r = -.52$, $p < .001$; and *identity affirmation* ($\alpha = .89$), $r = .42$, $p < .001$. SPII was not significantly correlated with the *identity centrality* ($\alpha = .78$) subscale ($r < .10$). Overall, as hypothesized, individuals who perceived more compatibility between their sexual and professional identities were less likely to have maladjusted perceptions of LGB identity (Hypothesis 1a), and more likely to have an adapted sense of LGB identity (Hypothesis 1b), specifically with respect to affirmation of one's identity.

Personality. SPII ($\alpha = .88$) was also significantly correlated with a well-established personality measure (the TIPI; Gosling et al., 2003). SPII was positively associated with openness ($\alpha = .50$), $r(135) = .21$, $p = .017$, and negatively associated with neuroticism ($\alpha = .84$), $r(134) = -.22$, $p = .010$, supporting hypotheses 2a and 2b. SPII was not significantly correlated with other personality traits of extroversion ($\alpha = .76$), agreeableness ($\alpha = .72$), and conscientiousness ($\alpha = .63$), $r_s < .15$, $p_s > .100$. Although the correlations observed between SPII and personality traits in the current study do not exceed those observed in previous research using II measures, the results are consistent with II research focusing on bicultural identity (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005), in which openness was negatively correlated with perceived distance between identities at $-.34$, and neuroticism was positively correlated with perceived conflict between identities at $.34$ (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005).³

Main Analyses

Correlations were used to assess relationships among the main variables of interest: PWE ($\alpha = .92$), SPII ($\alpha = .88$), personal power ($\alpha = .87$), positional power ($\alpha = .82$), transformational leadership ($\alpha = .92$), transactional leadership ($\alpha = .70$), and passive-avoidant leadership ($\alpha = .82$; see Table 1 for descriptive statistics and correlations for primary study variables). As pre-

dicted, SPII was positively associated with personal power (Hypothesis 3), $r(128) = .27$, $p = .002$, and transformational leadership (Hypothesis 4), $r(124) = .23$, $p = .009$, but SPII was not significantly associated with positional power or transactional leadership ($r_s < .10$, $p_s > .100$). SPII was also negatively associated with passive-avoidant leadership, $r(132) = -.19$, $p = .032$. Similarly, PWE was positively associated with personal power, $r(127) = .37$, $p < .001$, and transformational leadership, $r(123) = .33$, $p < .001$, but PWE was not significantly associated with positional power or transactional leadership ($r_s < .15$, $p_s > .100$). PWE was also negatively associated with passive-avoidant leadership, $r(131) = -.17$, $p = .049$.

In mediation models, we tested the pathways of interest and whether PWE mediated the relationship between SPII and the power and leadership outcomes. We followed the bootstrapped indirect effects approach to test for mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2008), using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012). In each model, SPII was included as the independent variable (X), with the particular power and leadership outcome as the dependent variable (Y), and PWE as the proposed mediator (M), using 1000 bootstrapped samples. Table 1 includes the correlations among independent, mediator, and outcome variables. We considered demographics as covariates, including gender, age, sexual orientation, and current leadership position. These variables did not affect the results; thus they are not included in subsequent analyses and will not be discussed further.

Personal power. Figure 1 shows the path diagram for the mediation model. SPII was a significant predictor of PWE (Hypothesis 5a), $b = .33$, 95% confidence interval (CI) [0.23, 0.43], $SE = .05$, $t(125) = 6.49$, $p < .001$, PWE was a significant predictor of personal power (Hypothesis 5b), $b = .20$, 95% CI [0.08, 0.33], $SE = .06$, $t(124) = 3.17$, $p = .002$, and SPII was a significant predictor of personal power (Hypothesis 5c), $b = .12$, 95% CI [0.05, 0.20], $SE = .04$, $t(125) = 3.23$, $p = .002$. The significant relationship between SPII and personal power was no longer significant when PWE was included in the model (Hypo-

³ The difference in positive versus negative correlations with personality traits in current and previous research reflects a difference in scoring; the II measure was not reverse-scored in the previous study (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005), as it was in the current study.

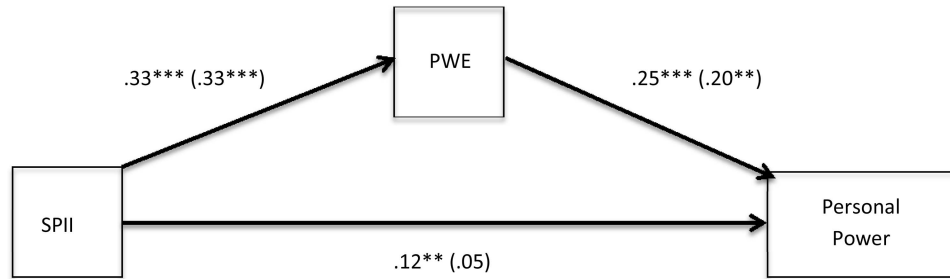


Figure 1. Unstandardized regression coefficients for the effect of sexuality-professional identity integration (SPII) on personal power as mediated by perceived work environment (PWE). The unstandardized regression coefficients when controlling for PWE are included in parentheses. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

esis 5d), $b = .05$, 95% CI $[-0.03, 0.14]$, $SE = .04$, $t(124) = 1.29$, $p = .199$. The 1000-sample bootstrapped estimate indicated a significant indirect effect, $b = .07$, 95% CI $[0.03, 0.13]$, $SE = .02$. This estimate suggests that PWE fully mediated the effect of SPII on personal power, as the CI range did not contain 0.

Positional power. SPII was not a significant predictor of positional power, $b = -.01$, 95% CI $[-0.11, 0.09]$, $SE = .05$, $t(128) = -0.24$, $p = .811$. Further, neither PWE nor SPII were significant predictors of positional power when both were included in the model: $b = .08$, 95% CI $[-0.10, 0.26]$, $SE = .09$, $t(127) = 0.91$, $p = .364$, and $b = -.04$, 95% CI $[-0.15, 0.08]$, $SE = .06$, $t(127) = -0.66$, $p = .513$, respectively.

Transformational leadership. Figure 2 shows the path diagram for the mediation model. SPII was a significant predictor of PWE (Hypothesis 6a), $b = .32$, 95% CI $[0.22, 0.43]$, $SE = .05$, $t(121) = 6.14$, $p < .001$, PWE was a significant predictor of transformational leadership (Hypothesis 6b), $b = .20$, 95% CI $[0.06, 0.34]$, $SE = .07$, $t(120) = 2.79$, $p = .006$, and SPII was a significant predictor of transformational leadership (Hypothesis 6c), $b = .12$, 95% CI $[0.03, 0.20]$, $SE = .04$, $t(121) = 2.70$, $p = .008$. The significant relationship between SPII and transformational leadership was no longer significant when PWE was included in the model (Hypothesis 6d), $b = .05$, 95% CI $[-0.04, 0.14]$, $SE = .05$, $t(120) = 1.06$, $p = .290$. The 1000-sample bootstrapped estimate indicated a significant indirect effect, $b = .06$, 95% CI $[0.01, 0.12]$, $SE = .03$. This estimate suggests that

PWE fully mediated the effect of SPII on transformational leadership, as the confidence interval range did not contain 0.

Transactional leadership. SPII was not a significant predictor of transactional leadership, $b = .03$, 95% CI $[-0.06, 0.11]$, $SE = .04$, $t(130) = 0.65$, $p = .518$. Further, neither PWE nor SPII were significant predictors of transactional leadership when both were included in the model: $b = .11$, 95% CI $[-0.04, 0.27]$, $SE = .08$, $t(129) = 1.45$, $p = .151$, and $b = -.01$, 95% CI $[-0.11, 0.08]$, $SE = .05$, $t(129) = -0.18$, $p = .856$, respectively.

Passive-avoidant leadership. SPII was a significant predictor of passive-avoidant leadership, $b = -.11$, 95% CI $[-0.21, -0.02]$, $SE = .05$, $t(129) = -2.36$, $p = .020$. However, neither PWE nor SPII were significant predictors of passive-avoidant leadership when both were included in the model: $b = -.08$, 95% CI $[-0.25, 0.09]$, $SE = .09$, $t(128) = -0.94$, $p = .350$, and $b = -.09$, 95% CI $[-0.20, 0.03]$, $SE = .06$, $t(128) = -1.56$, $p = .121$, respectively.

Discussion

The results provide support for the hypotheses pertaining to sexuality-professional identity integration (SPII). The current study established an SPII scale and examined the relationship between individual differences in SPII and the ways in which people use leadership and power. The preliminary analyses suggest that the SPII scale is psychometrically sound with respect to reliability and subcomponents of validity. The SPII scale yielded

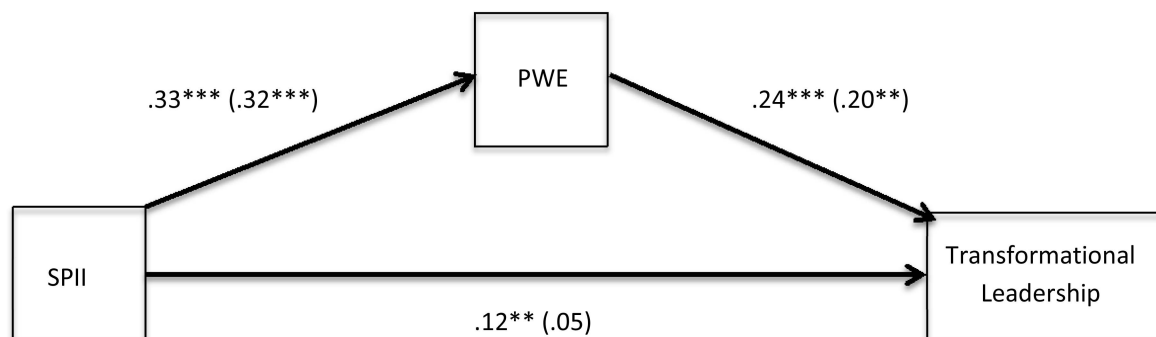


Figure 2. Unstandardized regression coefficients for the effect of sexuality-professional identity integration (SPII) on transformational leadership as mediated by perceived work environment (PWE). The unstandardized regression coefficients when controlling for PWE are included in parentheses. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

sufficient reliability, and SPII was significantly associated with an established measure in the identity literature (LGBIS), supporting hypotheses 1a and 1b. SPII was associated with positive sexual identity development, such that individuals higher in SPII (i.e., those who perceived *less* conflict and distance between their sexual minority and professional identities) were more likely to have positive perceptions of their sexual identity.

Additionally, SPII was significantly associated with some, but not all components of the Big Five personality characteristics, demonstrating aspects of both convergent and divergent validity. Consistent with previous research on II, SPII was associated with personality traits of openness and neuroticism (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005), supporting hypotheses 2a and 2b. Openness has been associated with greater self-acceptance and higher levels of self-esteem (Chen et al., 2008; Leavy, 1999), whereas neuroticism reflects a proneness to worry and anxiety (Gosling et al., 2003). In the current study, individuals higher in SPII scored higher on openness and lower on neuroticism, suggesting that higher SPII is associated with higher intellectual curiosity and emotional stability. However, as in previous research on II, SPII was not associated with extroversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005).

The main analyses support our hypothesis that sexual minority individuals who integrate their personal and professional identities are more likely to incorporate relational concerns when influencing others. Results showed that SPII (i.e., perceived compatibility between sexual minority identity and professional identity) was a significant predictor of leadership and power tactics. As expected in hypotheses 3 and 4, SPII was positively associated with more relational tactics, including a leadership style that involves a developmental approach to leadership, as well as power tactics that involve a personal approach to control and influence. Overall, individuals who were higher on SPII were more likely to incorporate relational concerns and the needs of others when leading and influencing other people.

Further, mediation tests showed that perceived work environment (PWE) significantly mediated the effect of SPII on personal power and transformational leadership, supporting hypotheses 5d and 6d, respectively. The direct effects of SPII on personal power (as in hypothesis 5c) and transformational leadership (as in hypothesis 6c) were no longer significant when PWE was included in the model, indicating that PWE fully mediated the effect of SPII on these power and leadership tactics. These findings suggest that SPII affects the ways in which individuals enact power and leadership, by way of its association with a supportive work environment. As expected, greater SPII led to more positive perceptions of the work environment (supporting hypotheses 5a and 6a), which in turn predicted greater use of personal power tactics and transformational leadership tactics (supporting hypotheses 5b and 6b).

Limitations and Future Directions

Although the current study established relationships among SPII, PWE, and power and leadership tactics, it did not directly test the effects of SPII and PWE on these outcomes. Thus we cannot make causal inferences from the correlational data. To address this concern, future research should develop manipulations of SPII and PWE in the context of power and leadership. For example, SPII manipulations could instruct participants to focus on personal

experiences with their various identities, or could be designed to reflect specific sexualities (e.g., gay, straight, bisexual). Future studies could also use vignette manipulations to explore individuals' perceptions of different tactics (e.g., personal vs. positional power, transformational vs. transactional leadership) used by individuals with various sexual identities (e.g., gay, straight, bisexual) in different workplace environments (e.g., supportive vs. hostile) and to shed light on implicit biases and stereotypes associated with sexuality and social power.

Relatedly, we also cannot determine the direction of causality among variables in the current study. SPII effects on relational power and leadership were mediated by PWE. However, these findings are open to multiple interpretations. Perhaps the tendency to integrate one's sexual and professional identities leads one to perceive the surrounding environment as more positive and supportive, which then facilitates the use of more diverse approaches to power and leadership. Conversely, perhaps PWE affects SPII, given that a hostile work environment has been shown to increase stress in regard to relevant identities (Ragins et al., 2007), and II has been shown to be a malleable construct (Cheng & Lee, 2013; Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, et al., 2008; Mok & Morris, 2012). For example, it is possible that perceiving one's work environment as more hostile toward sexual identity could lead one to second guess or avoid utilizing potentially beneficial attributes of that identity (even if it is perceived as compatible with professional identity), due to increased fear of discrimination.

In addition to potential limitations pertaining to measurement and causal inference, there are sampling issues to consider. In an effort to be inclusive of sexual minority individuals broadly, the current sample includes individuals who identify as "nonheterosexual," and therefore it may lack diversity with respect to other sexuality and gender demographics. Although the results provide support for our hypotheses, sexuality–professional II may have different effects for other minority identities in the workplace. Future research should include other sexual minority populations (e.g., the transgender, bisexual, or asexual communities), and a heterosexual population could provide a useful comparison. Studies could also explore how gender and sexuality intersect with other demographic identities (e.g., race/ethnicity, culture) to affect social interactions and workplace outcomes.

Furthermore, the current sample does not include extensive information pertaining to leadership demographics. We collected data on current leadership position and open-ended responses about current leadership roles and number of direct reports. However, we did not collect detailed information on past leadership experiences, or the extent to which past or present experience affects leadership style and decisions. Future research could expand on the experiences of sexual minority individuals with diverse leadership backgrounds to explore the effects of SPII on the various roles of leaders and nonleaders across different types of workplace settings. Perhaps the effects of SPII and/or work environment are stronger in the context of more years of leadership experience, or in the context of more hierarchical organizations.

Practice Implications

Our findings suggest that SPII affects the ways in which individuals wield power and leadership. Results showed that individuals who perceive more compatibility between their sexual minor-

ity and professional identities were more likely to use a personal approach to power (e.g., expertise, persuasion, charisma; [Pierro et al., 2012](#); [Yukl & Falbe, 1991](#)). Perhaps they are more able to convince coworkers or supervisors that their ideas are worthwhile, given their unique individual perspective or expertise, their ability to persuade those around them, or their ability to identify with fellow workers.

Similarly, SPII was associated with transformational leadership tactics that emphasize social connections and relationships (e.g., intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration). Individuals who were higher in SPII were more likely to consider the needs of others on an individual basis (individualized consideration), or to look at a problem from multiple angles, and therefore may be less likely to address a task without considering other pertinent information. Individuals with higher SPII may be more likely to use leadership styles that attempt to build unity, to act as a role model, and to consider the perspectives of others; thus promoting a vision of success that involves the whole group rather than emphasizing the power differential between leader and subordinate ([Avolio & Bass, 1995](#); [Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005](#); [Cheng et al., 2006](#)).

The results also showed that PWE mediated this observed relationship between SPII and power and leadership outcomes. Individuals who were more likely to integrate their sexual and professional identities were more likely to have positive perceptions of their workplace climate, which in turn led to greater use of personal power and transformational leadership. Perhaps organizations that are conducive to integrating personal and professional identities facilitate a more supportive climate for sexual minority individuals, and therefore more multifaceted leadership approaches that incorporate relational concerns. Thus, if organizations are interested in taking steps to ensure that their employees—particularly sexual minority individuals—can better integrate their personal and professional identities, the process may be as simple as maintaining open and positive attitudes toward a diversity of sexual identities in the work environment, and enacting policies that protect and value sexual minority individuals.

Likewise, organizations may facilitate more relational approaches to power and leadership by minimizing the perceived disparity between personal and professional identities. For example, organizations might do well to encourage integration or minimize scripted gender roles when appropriate, by implementing diversity training that encompasses gender and sexual minorities (e.g., gender norms associated with leadership: [Eagly & Karau, 2002](#); [Eagly et al., 2000](#); [Heilman, 1995](#); [Schein, 1976, 2001](#)). Furthermore, enacting workplace antidiscrimination policies and proactively creating a safe space for sexual minority individuals to integrate their identities at work may ultimately yield improved personal and professional outcomes beyond power and leadership.

These findings have both individual-level and organizational-level implications. For example, [Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, and Kramer \(2004\)](#) found that leaders who engage in more transformational leadership tactics (e.g., monitoring progress, consulting with subordinates, giving emotional support, and recognizing good work) have more creative problem-solving teams, and this relationship was attributable in part to fostering a positive work environment. Additionally, leaders who engage in more relational approaches to leadership are perceived as more effective ([Driskell & Salas, 2005](#)). Therefore, for organizations that wish to reap the

benefits of identity diversity in the context of leadership, it may be in their best interest to maintain a work environment in which sexual minority individuals' identities (and other minority identities) are respected, whether they choose to disclose their identities in the workplace or not.

Conclusion

The current research contributes to the literature on identity integration by expanding the knowledge of how multiple social identities blend across personal and professional domains, and by providing insight into the ways in which sexual minority individuals navigate social dynamics in the modern workplace. The focus on sexuality–professional identity integration (SPII) extends the identity integration literature beyond demographics, such as gender or race/ethnicity, to encompass the intersection of sexual minority identity and a more fluid social identity—professional identity. Our findings suggest that SPII affects how sexual minority individuals enact social power. Individuals who are able to integrate sexual identity and professional identity are more likely to use power and leadership tactics that consider the needs of others. It is interesting to note that integrating these sexual and professional identities in the workplace was associated with a more positive work environment, which in turn facilitated the use of these relational approaches to power and leadership. Indeed, fostering a diverse work environment more inclusive of sexual minority identities and more conducive to integrating those identities with professional identities may encourage individuals to incorporate relational concerns when influencing others.

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