





Examining how sexual identity, psychosocial factors, and organizational differences relate to intent-to-quit in a large-scale, cross-sectional study

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to evaluate the link between sexual minority status and intent-to-quit by analyzing traditional occupational and psychological factors. A large-scale online survey consisting of 1,021 heterosexual respondents and 167 sexual minority respondents was used. Based on regression results, the key factors associated with intent-to-quit were organizational identification, work engagement, organizational socialization, job satisfaction, work–life conflict, organization support, and major depression. The link between sexual minority status and intent-to-quit was still significant after considering both psychological and occupational factors. To decrease intent-to-quit, employers should consider both employees' depression and occupational factors in the workplace itself.

KEYWORDS

Depression; intent-to-quit; job satisfaction; sexual minority; work–life conflict

Introduction

Promoting diversity in the workplace is an important initiative in creating an inclusive and creative work environment. In the United States, an estimated 8 million sexual minority (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual, etc.) and transgender individuals are active workers among the public and private sector (Burns, 2012). However, national survey results posit that more than 40% of sexual minority people have experienced at least one lifetime incidence of employment discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (Gates, 2010; Sears & Mallory, 2011). It is well established that workplace harassment, stigma, and perceived discrimination relate to increased absenteeism and intent-to-quit (Miner & Costa, 2018; Velez, Moradi, & Brewster, 2013; Volpone & Avery, 2013). However, less attention has been focused on how traditional work-related factors affect occupational outcomes for sexual minority employees. In efforts to facilitate an understanding of the

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experiences of sexual minority employees in the workplace, it is necessary to investigate these differences for implications in developing a more welcoming and productive workplace atmosphere.

One of several traditional occupational variables is work engagement, which is described as the physical, cognitive, and emotional involvement one expresses during job performance (Soane et al., 2012). Work engagement is a positive state of well-being and enthusiasm felt by employees toward the organization. Thus, when workers lack engagement, they are likely to quit their job (Saks, 2019). Scholars have also demonstrated a positive and significant relationship between work engagement and job satisfaction (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). However, Jin and Park (2016) found that this relationship was stronger for heterosexual employees than for sexual minority employees, in turn, resulting in lower job satisfaction for sexual minority individuals (Jin & Park, 2016). The finding from Jin and Park (2016) highlights the limited understanding of sexual minorities and factors that might lead to an increase in their intent-to-quit. Additional occupational variables that may function to facilitate a decrease or increase in job satisfaction and intent-to-quit in sexual minorities employees are those associated with work-place climate. Organizational support, organizational socialization and organizational identification have all been linked to higher job satisfaction within sexual minorities employees (Tatum, 2018). Tatum (2018) found that sexual minority employees were more likely to disclose their sexual orientation and to find greater work satisfaction when they experienced a more affirming workplace environment. It could be inferred then that a non-affirming work environment would lead to a greater chance of intent-to-quit within sexual minority employees.

Additional occupational variables to consider include the extent to which work interferes with an individual's life, as well as the degree that life interferes with a person's work. Also known as work-life conflict and life-work conflict, these variables speak directly to how an employee manages and balances their personal life within their work life. Foy, Dwyer, Nafarrete, Hammoud, and Rockett (2019) found a positive and significant correlation between work-life conflict and workplace stress (Foy et al., 2019), such that as work-life conflict increased, workplace stress increased. Scholarship also has shown a positive relationship between work-life conflict and employees' intent-to-quit (Hsieh, 2008). When researching sexual minority employee's intent-to-quit, based on previous research, work-life conflict may contribute the greatest when it comes to intentions of quitting among sexual minority individuals. Similarly, life-work conflict may play a major role considering the effects of spousal or family problems and relationship strain on well-being and impact on work performance (Bakker, Du, & Derks, 2019; Fetto & Nomaguchi, 2018). Additionally, it is important to

investigate if there are significant differences between heterosexuals and sexual minorities work–life conflict and their intent-to-quit.

We also must consider mental health inequities when researching sexual minorities in the workplace. A large body of literature suggests sexual minorities experience more psychological distress and greater rates of psychopathology relative to heterosexuals (Meyer, 2003; Rodriguez-Seijas, Eaton, & Pachankis, 2019), which may negatively impact both workplace and family contexts (Holman, 2018). Generally, depression and anxiety negatively affect worker productivity and performance (Jones, Latreille, & Sloane, 2016; Rasool, Maqbool, Samma, Zhao, & Anjum, 2019), likely affecting both the workers and the organizations by reducing income and efficiency. Furthermore, depression and anxiety have been associated with workplace intent-to-quit and attrition (Brunetto, Rodwell, Shacklock, Farr-Wharton, & Demir, 2016; Jones-Rincon & Howard, 2019; Mack, Johnson, Jones-Rincon, Tsatenawa, & Howard, 2019).

Therefore, research is needed to examine the predictive contributions of both psychological and occupational factors on intent-to-quit, to better meet the occupational needs of employees, especially those with a sexual minority status. The aim of this study was to investigate factors that predict working people's intent-to-quit. More specifically, this study intends to evaluate the link between sexual minority status and the intent-to-quit by analyzing the effects of multiple traditional occupational and psychological factors. To this end, a hierarchical multiple regression will be used to evaluate this relationship. The research question asked, does sexual minority status predict intent-to-quit even after considering psychological and occupational factors?

Methods

Participants and procedure

Data were drawn from a large-scale online survey that used the Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk) survey administration system and only participants that reported a current working status were included in the analysis. The participants in this study included 1,188 adults and were compensated for participating in the survey. The sample consisted of 1,021 heterosexual respondents and 167 sexual minority respondents, which were grouped based on self-reported self-identifying sexual orientation. The sexual minority group was composed of participants that reported a non-heterosexual sexual identity (e.g., lesbian, gay, bisexual, queer/questioning, asexual, and pansexual). Participants worked in different types of industry, including 10.5% in Health Care, 10.7% in Retail, 12.1% in Sales, 9.1% in Finance, 12.5% in Education, 4.1% in Government, 12.2% in Manufacturing, 1.7% in

Transportation, and 27.1% in Other, with similar prevalence of both comparison groups in each type of industry. Participants responded to questions regarding sociodemographic factors, occupational demographic factors, occupational measures, and validated psychosocial measures.

Measures

The sociodemographic variables included age, gender, race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. The occupation demographic data included work hours per week, years worked in current organization, years worked in current role, managerial position status, and profit status. Measures assessing occupational and psychological factors included the following validated questionnaires.

Occupational factors

Organizational identification. A shortened version of the Organizational Identification Questionnaire (OIQ) was used to assess the degree respondents' interests merge with those of their organization (Cheney, 1982). Items were drawn from the similarity component of identification and were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *very strong agreement* to *very strong disagreement*. An example item from this scale is, "I find that my values and the values of my organization are very similar." For this sample, the OIQ ($M = 5.15$, $SD = 1.19$) similarity component achieved an alpha reliability of 0.871. The OIQ has demonstrated acceptable reliability in prior studies with Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.80 (Corman, 1990) to 0.95 (Bullis & Tompkins, 1989).

Work engagement. The Intellectual, Social and Affective Engagement Scale (ISA) was used to assess employee engagement in the workplace (Soane et al., 2012). The scale consists of 9 items and is measured on a 7-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. An example of this scale is: "I pay a lot of attention to my work." For this sample, the ISA ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 0.95$) achieved an overall alpha reliability of 0.908. A validation study on each subscale of the ISA showed the alpha reliability to be 0.90 for social engagement, 0.82 for intellectual engagement, and 0.90 for affective engagement (Phuangthuean, Kulachai, Benchakhan, Borriraksuntikul, & Homiyamyen, 2018).

Organizational socialization. The Organizational Assimilation Index (OAI) was used to assess participants' involvement or assimilation in the workplace (Gailliard, Myers, & Seibold, 2010). This scale includes 24 items measured on a 7-point Likert scale from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*, such as "I feel comfortable talking to my coworkers." For this sample, the

OAI ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 0.93$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.95. The reliabilities for the seven factors of the OAI ranged between 0.79 and 0.95 on the study to reconceptualize the OAI measure (Gailliard et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction. The Job Descriptive Index—Coworker Satisfaction Scale (JDI) was used to measure participants' job satisfaction or satisfaction with coworkers (Smith, 1969). The scale consists of 18 adjectives and participants indicate with a "No" or "Yes" if the word describes the job. Example items include, "Pleasant," "Inadequate," and "Enjoyable." For this sample, the JDI ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 0.70$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.91. The alpha reliabilities for the scales of the Job Descriptive Index range between 0.86 and 0.91 (Balzar et al., 1997).

Work-life conflict and life-work conflict. The Work-Family Conflict Scale (WFC) was used to assess the degree that work interferes with participants' life, while the Family-Work Conflict Scale (FWC) was used to assess the degree that life interferes with participants' work (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Each scale consists of 5 items on a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. An example item from the WFC is, "The demands of my work interfere with my personal life," and an example item from the FWC is, "The demands of my family or friends interfere with work-related activities." For this sample, the WFC ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 1.69$) and the FWC ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.66$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.94 and 0.95, respectively. Based on the development and validation of this instrument, the internal consistency for these scales ranged between 0.82 and 0.90 (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Organization support. The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support—Shortened Version (SPOS) was used for assessing the degree that an organization shows concern for participants' well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This scale consisted of 8 items on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. An example item included: "My organization really cares about my well-being." For this sample, the SPOS ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 0.81$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.86. A study using the 9-item version of this scale conducted by Colbert et al. (2004) reported an alpha reliability of 0.95.

Intent-to-quit. The Employee Turnover Questionnaire (ETQ) was used to assess participants' intention to quit the organization (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). Two items were drawn from this scale and were measured on a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *strongly*

disagree to strongly agree. An example of an item is, “I often think about quitting this organization.” For this sample, the ETQ ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 1.90$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.90. Salman, Abdullah, and Saleem (2016) established the reliability of the ETQ to be 0.91.

Psychological factors

Perceived stress. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) was used to measure participants’ general stress over the past month (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983). This scale includes 10 items and is based on a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *never* to *very often*. An example of this scale is: “How often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?” For this sample, the PSS ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 0.70$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.83. In a review to evaluate the reliability and validity of the PSS, the Cronbach’s alpha was >0.70 for all 12 studies evaluated using the PSS-10 (Lee, 2012).

Perceived social support. The Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (ISEL) was used to measure participants’ general social support and included 12 items each assessed on a 4-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *definitely false* to *definitely true* (Cohen & Hoberman, 1983). An example item from this scale is, “If a family crisis arose, it would be difficult to find someone who could give me good advice about how to handle it.” For this sample, the ISEL ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 0.61$) achieved an alpha reliability of 0.88. In a validation study, the internal consistency for the subscales for English speakers were 0.66 for the tangible scale, 0.71 for the appraisal scale, and 0.76 for the belonging scale (Merz et al., 2014).

Axis I psychopathology. The Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) was used to assess psychopathology, specifically if participants met the criteria for Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) and Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD) (Kroenke, Spitzer, Williams, & Lowe, 2010). The MDD subscale consists of 9 items measured on a 4-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *not at all* to *nearly every day*. This questionnaire asks about participants’ feelings over the past two weeks, such as “Feeling bad about yourself, or that you are a failure, or have let yourself or your family down.” Whereas, the GAD subscale consists of 7 items measured on a 3-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *not at all* to *more than half the days*. This questionnaire asks about participants’ feelings over the past four weeks, such as “Feeling nervous, anxious, on edge, or worrying a lot about different things.” For these subscales, an algorithm is used to determine if participants meet the criteria for diagnosis and were grouped into respective categorical variables if the criteria are met or not.

Statistical analysis

Initial univariate comparisons were conducted to assess sexual identity differences between the two sexual orientation groups. Independent samples *t*-tests were used to compare groups on continuous variables and chi-square tests of independence were used to compare groups on categorical variables. In the multivariate analysis, to analyze the effect of sexual minority status on the intent-to-quit, the sexual orientation groups were dummy coded with heterosexuals as the reference group. A hierarchical multiple regression model with three blocks was used to predict the intent-to-quit outcome variable using continuous and categorical predictor variables. The first block included sociodemographic variables, the second block included psychosocial and psychopathology variables, and the third block included the occupational variables and validated scales.

An alpha level of 0.05 was used in the present analyses. For this study, all analyses were conducted in SPSS v. 25 (IBM Corp, Inc). A post-hoc power analysis was conducted using a two-tailed *t*-test with independent means, a small effect size ($d = 0.25$), and an alpha = 0.05, and the achieved power computed was $(1 - \beta) = 0.84$, indicating sufficient power.

Results

Prior to running statistical analyses, data were screened for normality and outliers. The total sample included 1,188 participants, of which 167 identified as non-heterosexual. The overall sample included 53.7% males, 46.0% females, 0.2% gender non-conforming people, and 0.1% transgender people. The average age for the participants in this sample was 35.2 (SD = 10.9). The racial breakdown of the sample was 67.1% Caucasian, 7.2% African American, 10.9% Asian or Pacific Islander, 3.5% Native American or Alaskan Native, 7.8% South Asian or Middle Eastern, and 3.6% Mixed or an Additional Race. For ethnicity, 13.0% of the sample indicated Hispanic ethnicity.

Univariate comparisons between heterosexual and sexual minority groups found significant differences across sociodemographic, psychological, and occupational variables. In sociodemographic comparisons, there were differences in age, gender, race, and ethnicity, as seen in [Table 1](#). The heterosexual group was an older aged group with more males than females, while the sexual minority group was composed of a more racially diverse group of more females and gender minorities.

Psychological comparisons

The differences between the heterosexual and sexual minority groups on psychological variables are captured in [Table 2](#) (all $ps < .001$). The sexual

Table 1. Demographic comparisons between groups.

Variables	Heterosexual, <i>n</i> = 1,021	Sexual minority, <i>n</i> = 167	Statistical comparison, <i>p</i> -value
Age	35.9 (11.1)	31.9 (9.4)	<.001
Gender			
Male	54.5%	47.3%	<.001
Female	45.5%	50.3%	
Gender non-conforming	0%	1.8%	
Transgender	0%	0.6%	
Race			
Caucasian	69.7%	54.3%	.001
African American	7.3%	6.8%	
Asian or Pacific Islander	10.1%	14.2%	
Native American/Alaskan Native	2.9%	6.2%	
South Asian/Middle Eastern	6.6%	13.0%	
Mixed or additional race	3.3%	5.6%	
Ethnicity			
Hispanic	11.0%	23.4%	<.001
Sexual orientation			
Heterosexual/Straight	100%	0%	<.001
Lesbian	0%	9.6%	
Gay	0%	9.0%	
Bisexual	0%	70.1%	
Queer/questioning	0%	3.6%	
Asexual	0%	1.8%	
Pansexual	0%	6.0%	

Table 2. Psychosocial comparisons between groups.

Variables	Heterosexual, <i>n</i> = 1,021	Sexual minority, <i>n</i> = 167	Statistical comparison, <i>p</i> -value
Perceived Stress Scale (PSS)	15.9 (7.0)	18.8 (6.4)	<.001
Social Support (ISEL)	36.1 (7.4)	33.5 (7.0)	<.001
Major Depressive Disorder (PHQ)	19.0%	39.5%	<.001
Generalized Anxiety Disorder (PHQ)	4.2%	11.4%	<.001

minority group evidenced greater perceived stress and greater prevalence of meeting the criteria for MDD and GAD than the heterosexual group. In addition, the heterosexual group had greater social support than the sexual minority group.

Occupational comparisons

Results from comparisons of occupational demographics and validated occupational measures are found in Table 3. For occupational demographics, heterosexuals worked longer in their organization ($p = .016$) and in their current position ($p = .048$), while sexual minorities worked more in managerial positions ($p = .003$). No significant differences were found in work hours per week or working for-profit status. Based on the scale comparisons between groups, no differences were found in organizational

Table 3. Occupational comparisons between groups.

Variables	Heterosexual, <i>n</i> = 1,021	Sexual minority, <i>n</i> = 167	Statistical comparison, <i>p</i> -value
Total work hours per week	40.5 (9.8)	39.8 (13.8)	.544
Years worked in organization	6.0 (5.6)	5.0 (5.1)	.016
Years worked in current position	4.6 (4.6)	3.9 (3.8)	.048
Managerial position	47.4%	56.3%	.033
For-profit or nonprofit			.468
For-profit	83.0%	80.7%	
Nonprofit	17.0%	19.3%	
Organizational identification (OIQ)	5.2 (1.2)	5.1 (1.3)	.587
Work engagement (ISA)	5.7 (1.0)	5.6 (0.9)	.849
Organizational socialization (OAI)	5.3 (0.9)	5.4 (1.0)	.516
Job satisfaction (JDI)	44.9 (12.4)	42.3 (13.8)	.022
Work–life conflict (WFC)	3.5 (1.7)	4.5 (1.7)	<.001
Life–work conflict (FWC)	3.0 (1.6)	3.9 (1.9)	<.001
Organizational support (SPOS)	3.6 (0.8)	3.5 (0.8)	.039
Intent to quit (ETQ)	3.1 (1.8)	4.4 (2.0)	<.001

identification, work engagement, or organizational socialization. The sexual minority group reported significantly greater work–life conflict, life–work conflict, and intent-to-quit (all $ps < .001$). The heterosexual group reported higher job satisfaction ($p = .022$) and organizational support ($p = .039$).

Multivariate analysis

A correlation matrix for the continuous measures from demographic, psychological and occupational factors is presented in Table 4. A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to identify the variables that would significantly predict the intent-to-quit outcome variable, as seen in Table 5. In the first block, the sexual identity and sociodemographic variables were entered to assess the link between sexual minority status and intent-to-quit and to control for demographics. The first block significantly contributed to the model, $F(9, 867) = 13.80$, $p < .001$, and demographics accounted for 12.5% of the variance in the intent-to-quit. The psychological variables were added in block two and found a significant change in *R*-square, $F(13, 863) = 22.46$, $p < .001$, for an additional 12.8% of the variance. Introducing the occupational demographics and measures in block three resulted in a significant change in the model variance, $F(25, 851) = 46.22$, $p < .001$, and an additional 32.3% was explained. Altogether, including demographics, psychological variables, and occupational variables accounted for 57.6% of the variance in the intent-to-quit. Based on the results of block three, the occupational factors associated with the intent-to-quit outcome variable were organizational identification, work engagement, organizational socialization, job satisfaction, work–life conflict, life–work conflict, and organization support. Additionally, the key psychological factor predicting the intent-to-quit was meeting the criteria for MDD. A final trimmed model with only significant predictors is presented in Table 6.

Table 4. Pearson correlation matrix for continuous measures.

Variables	Age	PSS	ISEL	Hours/ week	Years (Org)	Years (Role)	OIQ	ISA	OAI	JDI	WFC	FWC	SPOS	ETQ
Age	1													
PSS	-.281 **	1												
ISEL	.216 **	-.524 **	1											
Hours/ week	.036	.007	.015	1										
Years (Org)	.466 **	-.203 **	.138 **	.110 **	1									
Years (Role)	.479 **	-.175 **	.115 *	.072 *	.776 **	1								
OIQ	.034	-.149 **	.139 **	.090 **	.126 **	.083 **	1							
ISA	.074 *	-.254 **	.228 **	.065 *	.078 **	.025 **	.759 **	1						
OAI	.023	-.182 **	.236 **	.130 **	.164 **	.096 **	.705 **	.737 **	1					
JDI	.046	-.195 **	.182 **	.022	.117 **	.053 **	.592 **	.648 **	.547 **	1				
WFC	-.175 **	.388 **	-.354 **	.175 **	-.048	-.077 **	.002	-.098 **	.002	-.164 **	1			
FWC	-.258 **	.403 **	-.426 **	.084 **	-.050	-.086 **	.124 **	-.025 **	.065 *	-.016 **	.654 **	1		
SPOS	.037	-.274 **	.284 **	.013	.139 **	.090 **	.616 **	.575 **	.638 **	.597 **	-.234 **	-.106 **	1	
ETQ	-.218 **	.373 **	-.357 **	.038	-.184 **	-.165 **	-.338 **	-.383 **	-.256 **	-.502 **	.505 **	.449 **	-.510 **	1

**Correlation is significant at .01 level (2-tailed); *correlation is significant at .05 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

This study evaluated differences in demographic, psychological, and occupational factors between heterosexual and sexual minority individuals and further examined the relationship of these variables on the intent-to-quit in the workplace. The results answer our research question, which confirms sexual minority status does predict intent-to-quit even after considering psychological and occupational factors. When controlling for sociodemographic variables, the first regression model revealed a significant difference in the intent-to-quit between heterosexual and sexual minority groups. When psychological variables were added to the second model, the sexual minority relationship was partially attenuated and stress, social support, and MDD became significant predictors of the intent-to-quit variable. When including the occupational variables in the final model, all validated occupational measures became significant. Consequently, psychological variables lost significance and the relationship between sexual minority status and intent-to-quit was partially attenuated, but still significant. The variance of the models in block comparisons show that the occupational variables are most important to address when decreasing intent-to-quit in workplace settings, yet even with the occupational variables, MDD was still a significant predictor.

Table 5. Hierarchical multiple regression block comparison predicting intent-to-quit.

Variables	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3	
	B	(95% CI); p	B	(95% CI); p	B	(95% CI); p
Demographics						
Sexual Id. (ref: heterosexual)	0.90 (0.55, 1.26); <.001		0.59 (0.26, 0.93); .001		0.38 (0.12, 0.63); .004	
Sexual minority	-0.02 (-0.03, -0.01); <.001		-0.01 (-0.02, 0.01); .355		-0.00 (-0.01, 0.01); .719	
Age						
Gender (ref: male)						
Female	-0.31 (-0.55, -0.07); .012		-0.25 (-0.48, -0.02); <.033		-0.06 (-0.24, 0.12); .524	
Race (ref: White)						
Black	0.31 (-0.20, 0.82); .228		0.01 (-0.46, 0.48); .959		0.22 (-0.14, 0.58); .225	
Asian Pacific Islander	0.58 (0.18, 0.98); .005		0.46 (0.09, 0.84); .015		0.41 (0.12, 0.69); .006	
Native American/Alaskan Nat.	1.09 (0.43, 1.74); .001		0.63 (0.02, 1.25); .044		0.47 (-0.01, 0.95); .053	
South Asian/Middle Eastern	1.01 (0.55, 1.48); <.001		0.54 (0.10, 0.98); .016		0.34 (-0.01, 0.69); .059	
Mixed	0.36 (-0.29, 1.00); .280		0.23 (-0.37, 0.83); .460		0.25 (-0.21, 0.70); .293	
Ethnicity (ref: non-Hispanic)						
Hispanic	0.37 (-0.00, 0.75); .050		0.20 (-0.15, 0.55); .256		0.26 (-0.01, 0.53); .057	
Psychosocial						
Perceived stress			0.05 (0.03, 0.07); <.001		-0.00 (-0.02, 0.01); .736	
Social support			-0.04 (-0.06, -0.02); <.001		-0.01 (-0.02, 0.01); .476	
MDD (ref: unmet)						
Met criteria			0.79 (0.46, 1.13); <.001		0.44 (0.17, 0.71); .001	
GAD (ref: unmet)						
Met criteria			0.30 (-0.25, 0.84); .288		0.15 (-0.27, 0.57); .473	
Occupational						
Total work hours per week						
Years worked in organization						
Years worked current position						
Manager status (ref: Manager)						
Non-manager						
Profit Status (ref: For-profit)						
Nonprofit						
Organizational identification						
Work engagement						
Organizational socialization						
Job Satisfaction						
Work-life conflict						
Life-work conflict						
Organization support						
Model summary statistics						
R-square	.125		.253		.576	
Adjusted R-square	.116		.242		.563	
R-square change	.125		.128		.323	

Table 6. Final trimmed regression model predicting intent-to-quit.

Variables	B	95% CI	<i>p</i>
Sexual Id. (ref: heterosexual)			
Sexual minority	0.45	0.22, 0.69	<.001
Race (ref: White)			
Asian Pacific Islander	0.30	0.04, 0.57	.024
MDD (ref: unmet)			
Met criteria	0.58	0.36, 0.80	<.001
Organizational identification	−0.13	−0.25, −0.01	.030
Work engagement	−0.17	−0.33, −0.02	.031
Organizational socialization	0.34	0.20, 0.48	<.001
Job satisfaction	−0.04	−0.05, −0.03	<.001
Work–life conflict	0.21	0.14, 0.27	<.001
Life–work conflict	0.25	0.19, 0.32	<.001
Organization support	−0.67	−0.82, −0.52	<.001

Note: *R*-square = .562, adjusted *R*-square = .558

Findings from this study highlight the influence occupational variables may have on the intent-to-quit in employees. More, these findings give employers necessary insight to address these factors to improve employee morale. Specifically, to reduce employees' intent-to-quit, employers may use these results to develop strategies that increase organizational identification, work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational support, while decreasing both work–life conflict and life–work conflict. Several studies emphasize the importance of a supportive work environment with job satisfaction and burnout, with negative consequences associated with unsupportive peers and supervisors (Han, Trinkoff, & Gurses, 2015; McPhillips, Stanton, Zuckerman, & Stapleton, 2007; Mishra, 2014). Organizations may consider how they can offer support to sexual minority employees, by promoting an inclusive workspace, starting diversity training initiatives, and recruiting sexual minority employees to educate coworkers (Baillie & Gedro, 2009; Mickens, 1994; Raeburn, 2004). Curiously, increased organizational socialization was positively related to intent-to-quit, which departs from previous research (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). This relationship might be attributed to a mediating variable not explored in the present study, as prior work has shown that organizational behaviors, like information acquisition (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002), mediate the relationship between organizational socialization and outcome variables. Meanwhile, occupational demographics were not found to be predictors of the intent-to-quit. Recent research finds that the number of years that employees have been employed and the number of hours per week relate to turnover intention (Oh & Kim, 2019), though these relationships were not found in this study perhaps from a suppressive effect of the occupational measures on the occupational demographic variables.

It is known that job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention and positively related to work–life conflict, with evidence of a supportive work–family culture benefiting those balancing work and life (Lu et al.,

2017; McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, Brown, & Valcour, 2013). Organizations have an opportunity to develop organizational support for sexual minority employees' lives out of work, to ultimately decrease the intent-to-quit. Future research could investigate how work-life conflict and life-work conflict vary between heterosexual and sexual minority individuals, such as parsing out minority stress specific stressors, differences in opposite and same-sex relationships and how they contribute to life-work conflict. Future research should also examine the underlying mechanisms driving these occupational differences. Under the framework of minority stress, if someone is perceived as a sexual minority and stigma exists in the workplace from coworkers or supervisors, perhaps people will feel less likely to be engaged in work, socialize with coworkers, or feel organizational support/identification and be more likely to quit. Additional research could assess workers' attitudes toward sexual minority coworkers. By assessing workers' attitudes and increasing the motivation to respond without prejudice, perspective taking has been shown to have positive effects on diversity training outcomes and further in the workplace environment (Lindsey, King, Hebl, & Levine, 2015). Future research should consider specific factors (demographic, psychosocial, occupational, and other) that uniquely differentiate heterosexual and sexual minority groups' intent-to-quit. While we can gain some insight into how these groups may differ in the sexual identity and intent-to-quit relationship from the univariate results in Tables 1–3, separate regression analyses for heterosexual and sexual minority people may provide additional insight into group specific intent-to-quit factors.

Regarding intervention in the workplace for employees with symptoms of depression, a systematic review found strong evidence for CBT stress management strategies, exposure therapy, and problem-focused return to work programs to help rehabilitate workers and improve symptomology and occupational outcomes (Joyce et al., 2016). With a focus on psychological distress in sexual minority employees, future work is also needed in compensating for mental health inequities and providing support for sexual minority populations in the workplace. Perhaps future research can evaluate the efficacy of LGBTQ+ specific therapies in the workplace relative to strategies aforementioned. Employers should consider ways of offering support to employees, such as to practice mindfulness trainings and setting work-life boundaries for increasing work ability in employees suffering from depression (Buxton, 2020; Ridge, Broom, Kokanovic, Ziebland, & Hill, 2019). Although perceived workplace discrimination was not directly measured in this study, a recent study found associations between symptoms of depression and experiencing workplace racial discrimination (Stone & Carlisle, 2019). More research is needed in understanding

intersectionality in the workplace and the crossroads of both racial and sexual minority identities and how stigma and microaggressions impact work performance and further how to effectively prevent these types of discrimination. Anti-harassment policies have been shown to reduce turnover intentions, especially for minorities (Deery, Walsh, & Guest, 2011).

Limitations

This study is correlational and used a survey design, thus no causal inferences can be made on the relationships previously discussed. To establish causality, more longitudinal or laboratory work would be needed. Due to a limited sample size, sexual minority respondents were grouped across subgroups and future research may consider investigating for specific within group differences. For example, workplace experiences may differ between gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals and with different levels of outness (Sears & Mallory, 2011). Sexual minorities have to choose a level of openness in the workplace and research suggests that individuals are more likely to disclose their sexuality at work when they feel comfortable and supported by peers and supervisors (Ragins, Singh, & Cornwell, 2007). Future work should look at the relationship between the intent-to-quit and employees' level of openness. Additionally, the operationalization of sexual orientation was by self-reported sexual identity and did not account for sexual attraction or sexual behavior.

Conclusion

This research adds to the sexual minority research in the industry literature and has applications to Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs). Similar to recent research, EAPs can systematically include sexual identity with targeted outreach and diversity training for EAP counselors for sexual minority employees' mental health support (Bartram et al., 2020; Roche et al., 2018). EAPs can build relationships at the employee and organizational level by utilizing peer support and team building initiatives to benefit both employee mental health and business success (Attridge, 2019; Espedido, Searle, & Griffin, 2020). In addition, participants in this study were from an array of industries, so the results of this research should be generalizable to many industries. This study found factors associated with differences in the intent-to-quit on the basis of sexual orientation. To decrease the intent to quit one's job, employers should consider both psychological and occupational factors. There is dire need to address mental health service gaps in the workplace, especially for sexual minorities. In short, additional research is needed to address these gaps and help shape a more supportive working environment.

Disclosure statement

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