

ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis: AN EXPERIENCE-SAMPLING STUDY OF
SEXUAL ORIENTATION SELF-
PRESENTATION AMONG
NONMONOSEXUAL WOMEN

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Psychology

Previous research suggests that nonmonosexual individuals engage in complex patterns of sexual orientation self-presentation, which may be obscured by traditional measures of disclosure and concealment. This study used an experience-sampling design to examine 165 nonmonosexual cisgender women's day-to-day self-presentation experiences using the novel framework of self-presentational accuracy. Participants demonstrated substantial within-person variability in self-presentational accuracy. Several contextual factors (e.g., anticipated acceptance, interaction partner sexual orientation) predicted self-presentational accuracy at the within-person level, and several person-level factors (e.g., outness, internalized monosexism) predicted self-presentational accuracy at the between-person level. Furthermore, self-presentational accuracy predicted same-day life satisfaction and positive affect through the mediator of social support at the within-person level. Contrary to my hypotheses, self-presentational accuracy was unrelated to romantic partner gender and to negative affect. Overall, results suggested that nonmonosexual women are sensitive

to context when making sexual orientation self-presentation decisions, and that these decisions influence their day-to-day well-being.

AN EXPERIENCE-SAMPLING STUDY OF SEXUAL ORIENTATION SELF-
PRESENTATION AMONG NONMONOSEXUAL WOMEN

by

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Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park, in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science
2018

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Research suggests that bisexual and other nonmonosexual individuals (i.e., people whose attractions are not limited to one sex or gender) display complex patterns of sexual orientation self-presentation that differ from those of their lesbian and gay (LG) peers. For example, nonmonosexuals are less likely to disclose and more likely to conceal their sexual orientation than LGs (Balsam & Mohr, 2007; Mohr, Jackson, & Sheets, 2016). They are also more likely to report using multiple identity labels (including accurate and inaccurate labels) depending on social context (Mohr et al., 2016). These differences may be the result of the unique prejudice nonmonosexuals encounter in both heterosexual and LG communities (Brewster & Moradi, 2010). Nonmonosexual women are particularly likely to experience their sexual orientation as fluid over time, suggesting that they may exhibit even greater variability in their self-presentation patterns than nonmonosexual men (Diamond, 2008; Ross, Daneback, & Mansson, 2012). Research on sexual minority (SM) populations often conflates the experiences of nonmonosexual women with both lesbians and nonmonosexual men, but nonmonosexual women possess unique patterns of self-presentation that warrant independent study.

The present study used an experience-sampling design to examine nonmonosexual women's self-presentation decisions, the antecedents of these decisions, and their outcomes. Although research had previously identified several factors that affect self-presentation among sexual minorities generally, this study adds to the literature by investigating these factors in the context of nonmonosexuals'

unique self-presentation experiences as they occur from day to day and by exploring novel nonmonosexuality-specific factors.

Characteristics of Nonmonosexuals' Self-Presentation Decisions

Identity Management Behaviors. Identity management describes the attempt to influence others' perceptions of one's marginalized social identities in order to mitigate the risk of stigmatization (Anderson, Croteau, Chung, & DiStefano, 2001; Jones & King, 2013). Research with sexual minorities reveals a wide range of identity management behaviors including disclosure, concealment, avoidance (e.g., avoiding conversations about romantic relationships), and signaling (e.g., referencing a movie with a prominent LGBT character). Most SM individuals regularly engage in identity management behaviors, and their use varies both by person and situation (King, Mohr, Peddie, Jones, & Kendra, 2014).

Research on nonmonosexuals' use of identity management behaviors is lacking. Models of sexual identity management were generally developed with LG participants only (e.g., Anderson et al., 2001; Button, 2004) but are assumed to apply equally well to nonmonosexuals. The few studies that have included nonmonosexual participants did not analyze nonmonosexuals separately from LGs (e.g., King et al., 2014), and may have failed to capture identity management behaviors unique to nonmonosexuals (e.g., mentioning romantic partners of several genders).

Self-Presentational Accuracy. Traditional conceptual frameworks typically consider disclosure and concealment to be dichotomous, oppositional outcomes. However, such frameworks may be inadequate for nonmonosexuals, given that they have more options for presenting their sexual orientation somewhat accurately than lesbians and

gay men (Mohr et al., 2016). For example, inaccuracy may be the result of a strategy that is intended to present one's orientation as either more homosexual (e.g. referring to oneself as a lesbian or only mentioning female partners) or more heterosexual (e.g., referring to oneself as heterosexual or only mentioning male partners) than one's actual orientation. Nonmonosexuals may also choose to disclose their SM status without disclosing their nonmonosexuality specifically (e.g., using a general label such as queer).

The present study considered identity management behaviors along a continuum of *self-presentational accuracy*. Within this framework, the impressions of one's sexual orientation that one attempts to produce through self-presentation may vary from very accurately to very inaccurately reflecting one's identity. This perspective shifts the focus from disclosure of a sexual orientation label to disclosure of information that allows the other person to gain an accurate understanding of the discloser's sexual orientation identity. Self-presentational accuracy can therefore reflect the use of signaling behaviors (e.g., mentioning one's participation in an LGB organization), which are typically measured separately from disclosure. Self-presentational accuracy can also capture identity management strategies that represent the discloser's sexual orientation identity only somewhat accurately (e.g., a nonmonosexual woman presenting as a lesbian); it is unclear how these behaviors would be categorized using traditional disclosure measures. Furthermore, self-presentational accuracy ratings take into account the individual's unique understanding of their sexual orientation identity. For example, one nonmonosexual woman might consider presenting as heterosexual to be more accurate than presenting

as a lesbian, whereas another might make the opposite judgement. Each woman's unique accuracy hierarchy would be reflected in her accuracy ratings. As a result, self-presentational accuracy may be a particularly appropriate measure of disclosure for nonmonosexual people, given the complexity of their sexual orientation identities and identity management strategies.

Antecedents of Nonmonosexuals' Self-Presentation Decisions

Event-level Antecedents. Situational characteristics likely impact SM individuals' self-presentation decisions. For instance, research suggests that SM workers are more likely to reveal their sexual orientation to interaction partners from whom they have perceived acceptance cues related to nonheterosexuality, and less likely to reveal to interaction partners from whom they have perceived rejection cues (King et al., 2014). SM individuals may also view an interaction partner's own SM status as a marker of likely acceptance of nonheterosexuality (King et al., 2014). Little research has examined how these factors operate among nonmonosexuals. Nonmonosexuals may be more likely to self-present accurately when they perceive nonmonosexuality-specific acceptance cues than when they perceive general homosexuality-related acceptance cues, given the stigmatization they face from both heterosexuals and LGs. On the other hand, nonmonosexuals may be equally concealing when they perceive nonmonosexuality- and homosexuality-related rejection cues, since SMs may be particularly sensitive to rejection (Feinstein, Goldfried, & Davila, 2012; King et al., 2014). The following hypotheses were tested on the between- and within-person levels:

Hypothesis 1: Nonmonosexuality-specific acceptance cues will be positively related to self-presentational accuracy; homosexuality-related acceptance cues will also be positively related to self-presentational accuracy, but to a lesser degree.

Hypothesis 2: Nonmonosexuality-specific rejection cues will be negatively related to self-presentational accuracy; homosexuality-related rejection cues will be negatively related to self-presentational accuracy to an equal degree.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived nonmonosexuality of interaction partners will be positively related to self-presentational accuracy. Perceived SM identity of the interaction partner will also be positively related to self-presentational accuracy, but to a lesser degree.

Research suggests that SM individuals are more likely to disclose their sexual orientation to others with whom they share close, supportive relationships (Boon & Miller, 1999; Wessel, 2017). Furthermore, the type of relationship an SM person shares with their interaction partner (e.g., friend, co-worker) may also impact their self-presentation (King et al., 2014). Again, the importance of interpersonal closeness and relationship type as predictors of identity management behavior have not been studied among nonmonosexuals specifically.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived emotional closeness to the interaction partner will be positively related to self-presentational accuracy on the between- and within-person levels.

Research Question 1: How will the type of relationship between the participant and the interaction partner be related to self-presentational accuracy?

Inter- and intrapersonal goals may be antecedents of identity management decisions among people with concealable stigmatized identities (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010; Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Omarzu, 2000); however, the impact of goals on sexual identity management has received surprisingly little attention. Cain's (1991) qualitative study of gay men indicated that sexual identity management is goal-oriented, and Garcia and Crocker's (2008) daily diary study, which included SM college students, demonstrated that ecosystem goals (i.e., goals that are related to supporting others) were associated with greater levels of sexual orientation disclosure. Given nonmonosexuals' unique self-presentation considerations, their goals for identity management are important to consider.

Research Question 2: How will goals be related to self-presentational accuracy?

Research indicates that anticipated acceptance is an important determinant of interpersonal behavior (Stinson, Cameron, Wood, Gaucher, & Holmes, 2009). SMs are more likely to disclose their orientation to others they anticipate will be accepting (Beals, Peplau, & Gable, 2009; D'Amico & Julien, 2012). In the secret-keeping literature more broadly, anticipated acceptance is theorized to be an important mechanism by which an individual can agglomerate perceived acceptance- and rejection-related cues. Anticipated acceptance then serves as the heuristic by which the individual makes the decision to reveal or conceal their secret or stigmatized

identity (Kelly, Klusas, von Weiss, & Kenny, 2001; Rodriguez & Kelly, 2006).

However, the role of anticipated acceptance has not been studied in the context on nonmonosexuals' self-presentation experiences.

Hypothesis 5: Anticipated acceptance will mediate the association between hypothesized event-level antecedents (i.e., acceptance and rejection cues, interaction partner sexual orientation, and interaction partner closeness) and self-presentational accuracy.

Person-level Antecedents. Research and theory about nonmonosexuals suggests several potential person-level antecedents to their self-presentation decisions. For example, nonmonosexual women's lower levels of sexual identity centrality (i.e., the degree to which one's sexual orientation is central to one's overall identity) and preferred sexual orientation label accuracy (i.e., the degree to which one's preferred sexual orientation label accurately reflects one's experience) have each been shown to partially explain nonmonosexual women's lower levels of outness compared to lesbians (Dyar, Feinstein, & London, 2015). Identity uncertainty has been shown to be positively related to nonmonosexuals' likelihood of presenting themselves as something other than their preferred sexual orientation label, perhaps because nonmonosexuals with high levels of uncertainty feel insufficiently committed to their nonmonosexual identity to risk disclosure-related stress (Mohr et al., 2016). Additionally, internalized and anticipated monosexism have been shown to be negatively related to outness among nonmonosexuals, while nonmonosexual identity affirmation has been shown to be positively related to outness (Paul, Grant Smith, Mohr, & Ross, 2014). Conceptually, outness and LGB community involvement

should also be positively related to self-presentation accuracy, since one must present one's sexual orientation relatively accurately in order to be out and to participate in the LGB community. Finally, from a theoretical standpoint, concealment motivation should be negatively related to self-presentational accuracy, given that participants who are more motivated to conceal their identities will likely present themselves less accurately from day to day. These findings suggest the following between-person hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6: Average self-presentational accuracy will be positively associated with identity centrality, preferred label accuracy, identity affirmation, outness, and LGB community involvement. Average self-presentational accuracy will be negatively related to identity uncertainty, internalized monosexism, anticipated monosexism, and concealment motivation.

It has been shown that nonmonosexuals' identity management behaviors are also influenced by the gender of their current romantic partner (Mohr et al., 2016). Nonmonosexuals in different-sex romantic relationships are less likely to present their sexual orientation accurately, perhaps because of the ease with which they can pass as heterosexual or because others readily assume they are heterosexual (Dyar et al., 2015; Mohr et al., 2016). However, research on the effect of casual or multiple partners' genders on nonmonosexuals' self-presentation decisions is lacking. This deficit is especially surprising given that nonmonosexual women tend to have more sex partners and be less interested in monogamy than heterosexual women and lesbians (Mark, Rosenkrantz, & Kerner, 2014; Oswalt & Wyatt, 2013).

Hypothesis 7: Average self-presentational accuracy will be lower among participants partnered with men than participants partnered with women.

Research Question 3: How will the genders of participants' casual sexual partners or multiple simultaneous romantic partners affect average self-presentational accuracy?

Research suggests that some individuals may choose to reveal their concealable stigmatized identities even when they do not anticipate that their interaction partner will be accepting. For example, an individual might reveal their stigmatized identity in order to relieve intrapsychic tension or to educate the other person (Chaudior & Quinn, 2010). Theory suggest that identity centrality may play a role in this decision. If one's stigmatized identity is very personally important, one may choose to reveal it even when an interaction partner is likely to be hostile or judgmental (Ragins, 2008).

Hypothesis 8: Identity centrality will moderate the association between anticipated acceptance and self-presentational accuracy on the between-person level.

Potential Outcomes of Nonmonosexuals' Self-Presentation Decisions

Well-Being. Research suggests that disclosure of SM status has a positive impact on well-being, whereas concealment has a negative impact. For example, LG participants in a daily diary study reported greater positive affect and self-esteem on days when they disclosed their sexual orientation compared to days when they concealed it (Beals et al., 2009). Another study demonstrated that SM college students' use of effortful concealment strategies was associated with depression (Jackson & Mohr, 2016). Few studies have examined the impact of identity

management behaviors on well-being among nonmonosexuals specifically. However, one study indicated that outness as nonmonosexual predicts well-being over and above outness as a SM, but only with respect to outness to family (Mohr et al., 2014). More research is needed to understand how nonmonosexuals' unique self-presentation behaviors are related to well-being.

Hypothesis 9: Self-presentational accuracy will be positively associated with well-being on the between- and within-person levels.

Social Support. Research indicates that perceived social support partially mediates the link between sexual orientation disclosure and well-being (Beals et al., 2009; Schrimshaw, Siegel, Downing, & Parsons, 2013). Individuals who disclose their SM status risk stigmatization; however, their use of selective self-disclosure may mitigate this risk (King et al., 2014). More research is needed to explore this process among nonmonosexuals, especially because preliminary research suggests that nonmonosexuals exhibit the lowest level social support of any sexual orientation group (Hsieh, 2014).

Hypothesis 10a: Self-presentational accuracy will be positively associated with social support on the between- and within-person levels.

Hypothesis 10b: Social support will be positively associated with well-being on the between- and within-person levels.

Hypothesis 10c: Social support will mediate the relationship between self-presentational accuracy and well-being on the between- and within-person levels.

In the concealable stigmatized identities literature, it has been shown that the positive outcomes associated with the disclosure may be partially or completely dependent on the reaction of one's interaction partner. Specifically, the discloser may only reap the benefits of disclosure if his or her interaction partner has a positive, rather than negative or neutral, response (Chaudior & Fisher, 2010; Chaudior & Quinn, 2010).

Hypothesis 11: Perceived acceptance will moderate the association between self-presentational accuracy and social support on the within- and between-person levels.

Present Study

Presenting one's stigmatized identity to others is a central aspect of the sexual minority experience, yet it has rarely been studied as it occurs from day to day. Studying self-presentation in the context of daily experience may be particularly important for understanding the lives of nonmonosexual women, given recent evidence that they are more likely than other sexual minority individuals to vary in their sexual orientation self-presentation across situations. The present study adds to the literature by using an experience-sampling design to investigate within- and between-person variability in self-presentation among nonmonosexual women. Furthermore, the study's use of the novel framework of self-presentational accuracy allowed for more precise measurement of sexual orientation self-presentation than traditional measures of disclosure, concealment, and outness, which may be particularly important when studying nonmonosexuals. The study aimed to: (1) describe the day-to-day patterns in nonmonosexuals' self-presentational accuracy, (2)

examine the event- and person-level antecedents of nonmonosexual women's self-presentation decisions, and (3) examine the outcomes of nonmonosexual women's self-presentation decisions, including well-being and social support

Chapter 2: Method

Participants

Participants were 165 nonmonosexual cisgender women. A majority of participants primarily identified as bisexual ($n = 101$, 61.2%) or queer ($n = 41$, 24.8%), followed by pansexual ($n = 14$, 8.5%), and other identities ($n = 9$, 5.4%). The average age was 29.9 ($SD = 6.7$). The majority of participants identified as White ($n = 141$, 85.5%) and possessed a bachelor's degree or more ($n = 143$, 86.6%). Participants were from geographically diverse areas across 34 states. See Table 1 for demographic information.

The final sample was drawn from 447 responses to the baseline survey. Respondents who did not complete the full baseline survey ($n = 193$) or who indicated that they were not nonmonosexual, cisgender, female, above 18 years of age, US residents, or in possession of a smartphone were dropped from participation ($n = 38$). Additionally, participants who failed either of two attention checks during the baseline survey ($n = 7$) or who appeared to have completed the survey multiple times ($n = 8$) were excluded. Two hundred and one women were invited to participate in the experience-sampling portion of the study. Of these, 165 women completed at least one nightly or one self-presentation survey; these women comprise the final sample.

Procedure

Administrators of email listservs and online forums for women and SMs were contacted to distribute a recruitment message to their members. The message asked members who are nonmonosexual women to complete a study regarding sexual

orientation self-presentation. The message included a link to the eligibility survey, which screened participants for their sexual orientation, gender, age, country of residence, and ownership of a smartphone. Because the term “nonmonosexual” is not widely used by community members, the eligibility survey asked participants to indicate the sexual orientation label that best described their identity as well as to indicate whether they are sexually or romantically attracted to people of more than one sex or gender. Participants were required to choose a nonmonosexual label and indicate nonmonosexual attractions to be eligible for the study. Eligible participants were directed to the consent form and electronically indicated their consent. Participants were then taken to the online baseline survey, which took approximately twenty minutes to complete.

Once the baseline survey was complete, participants were required to watch a five-minute video, which explained the experience-sampling phase of the study. They were given a thorough description of study procedures (see Appendix B) and were required to answer several questions assessing their comprehension of the protocol (see Appendix C). Participants were required to answer all comprehension questions correctly before moving onto the next phase of the study.

Participants engaged in the experience-sampling portion of the study for 14 days. This phase of the study involved using a personal computer or smartphone to complete two types of surveys: a nightly survey and a self-presentation survey. Participants were instructed to complete a nightly survey within two hours of going to sleep on each of the 14 days of data collection. The nightly survey assessed daily well-being (i.e., positive and negative affect, satisfaction with life, social support).

Participants were also instructed to complete a self-presentation survey as soon as possible after any self-presentation opportunity that occurred between waking up and completing the nightly survey each day during the last 13 days of the 14-day period. Self-presentation opportunities were defined as any time a participant had the opportunity to share information about her sexual orientation with another person. Reportable events included situations during which the participant could have shared information about her sexual orientation but chose not to do so. Participants also reported on events when they explicitly or implicitly share information about their sexual orientation, whether the information was accurate or not. Each self-presentation survey included measures of self-presentational accuracy, identity management behaviors, interaction partner characteristics, and identity management goals. If a participant completed more than one self-presentation survey per day, only the survey that was completed closest in time to the nightly survey was utilized.

Participants received emails about the study each morning at 6am, reminding them to complete a self-presentation survey after any self-presentation opportunity. Participants also received an email containing a link to the nightly survey each evening at 5pm, and a reminder to complete the nightly survey if it was not completed by 10pm. To minimize attrition, participants were paid 50 cents for the first 10 nightly surveys and \$1.25 for the last four nightly surveys (for a maximum of \$10). They also received a \$1 bonus per completed self-presentation survey (capped at one per day; Christensen, Barrett, Bliss-Moreau, Lebo, & Kaschub, 2003).

Measures

Eligibility form. Participants completed a questionnaire to determine their

eligibility (see Appendix D). The questionnaire asked participants to report their gender identity, their sexual orientation identity, their age, their country of residency, and whether they possessed a smartphone. Participants were deemed eligible to participate if they reported that they identify as a cisgender female, identify as nonmonosexual, are 18 years of age or older, live in the US, and possess a smartphone.

Person-level measures (baseline survey)

Demographics. Participants completed a demographic survey (see Appendix E) assessing age, education, income, employment, race/ethnicity, and location. They also described their sexual orientation, gender presentation, relationship status, and the genders of current and past sexual and romantic partners.

Self-perceived sexual orientation label accuracy. Participants were asked to indicate all of the sexual orientation labels they use in social situations, as well as all of the labels that feel at least somewhat accurate (see Appendix F). Participants also indicated their most preferred identity label. For this label, participants were asked “How well does this term capture your sexual identity?” and rated each label from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*perfectly*; Dyar et al., 2015). This rating was used as a measure of the self-perceived accuracy of one’s preferred sexual orientation label. Research with nonmonosexual women has shown that self-perceived label accuracy is positively related to sexual identity centrality and negatively related to nonmonosexual identity, suggesting validity of scores on the measure (Dyar et al., 2015).

Sexual identity. Participants completed the Identity Centrality, Identity Uncertainty, and Concealment Motivation subscales of the Lesbian, Gay, and

Bisexual Identity Scale (LGBIS; Mohr & Kendra, 2011). High scores on the 4-item Identity Uncertainty subscale indicate a high level of uncertainty about one's sexual orientation. High scores on the 5-item Identity Centrality subscale indicate a high degree of belief that one's sexual orientation identity is central to one's overall identity. High scores on the 3-item Concealment Motivation subscale indicate a high degree of desire to conceal one's sexual orientation from others. The items of the Identity Centrality and Identity Uncertainty subscales were modified to refer specifically to each participant's preferred nonmonosexual identity label (e.g., "To understand who I am as a person, you have to know that I'm *pansexual*."). Items on the LGBIS are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*agree strongly*). Items for each subscale were reverse scored as appropriate and averaged. The subscale scores demonstrate excellent validity with diverse SM populations. For example, Identity Uncertainty scores have been found to be negatively correlated with the amount of time elapsed since LGB-related developmental milestones (e.g., first noticing a sexual attraction to someone of the same sex; Mohr & Kendra, 2011). In the same study, Identity Centrality scores were positively correlated with an established scale of the construct, and Concealment Motivation scores were negatively related to outness, as would be expected based on theory about sexual identity development (Mohr & Kendra, 2011). Scores on the Identity Centrality, Identity Uncertainty, and Concealment Motivation subscales also demonstrate high levels of reliability with SM populations (Cronbach's $\alpha = .85, .89, \text{ and } .79$, respectively; Mohr & Kendra, 2011). In the current study, scores on the Identity Centrality, Identity Uncertainty, and Concealment Motivation subscales demonstrated

adequate internal consistency with nonmonosexual women (Cronbach's $\alpha = .82, .87,$ and $.81,$ respectively).

Participants also completed the Outness to World subscale of the Outness Inventory (OI; Mohr & Fassinger, 2000). This 4-item subscale measures SM individuals' general outness in their everyday lives. To complete the OI, participants rate on a scale from 1 (*this person definitely does not know about your sexual orientation status*) to 7 (*this person definitely knows about your sexual orientation status, and it is openly talked about*) the degree to which they are out to various groups of people (e.g., work peers, new acquaintances). The Outness to World subscale has shown acceptable reliability with SM samples (Cronbach's $\alpha = .79;$ Mohr & Fassinger, 2000). Research has also shown that the Outness to World subscale is positively related to the Identity/Synthesis phase of sexual identity development among lesbians and gay men, as would be expected (Mohr & Fassinger, 2000). In the current study, the Outness to World subscale demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency with nonmonosexual women (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$).

Finally, participants completed the Behavioral Engagement scale of the Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual Group Identity Measure (LGBGIM; Sarno & Mohr, 2016), which measures the degree to which SM individuals are actively involved with the SM community. Participants are asked to rate items such as "I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly LGB people" on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). The 4-item Behavioral Engagement has been shown to have adequate reliability with SM samples (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$) and to be positively related to outness and private collective self-esteem in a diverse sample

of SM adults (Sarno & Mohr, 2016). Cronbach's α in the current sample was .61, suggesting that behavioral engagement in the LGB community may need to be measured differently among nonmonosexual women. See Appendix G.

Nonmonosexual Identity. Participants also completed the Identity Affirmation, Anticipated Binegativity, and Internalized Binegativity subscales of the Bisexual Identity Inventory (BII; Paul et al., 2014). High scores on the 6-item Identity Affirmation subscale indicate high levels of comfort with and pride in one's nonmonosexual identity. High scores on the 5-item Anticipated Binegativity subscale indicate a high degree of concern that one will be treated poorly because of one's nonmonosexual identity. High scores on the 5-item Internalized Binegativity subscale indicate a high level of negative feelings towards one's nonmonosexual identity. Items were slightly changed to refer to each participant's preferred nonmonosexual identity rather than bisexuality specifically (e.g., "I am comfortable being *heteroflexible*"). Participants rated each item on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). In the instrument development study, Cronbach's alphas for each subscale were acceptable (.73, .84, and .93 for Anticipated Binegativity, Internalized Binegativity, and Identity Affirmation, respectively). Previous research has also provided convergent validity evidence for the subscales (Paul et al., 2014). For example, the Anticipated and Internalized Binegativity subscales were shown to be positively related to depressive symptoms, and the Identity Affirmation subscale was shown to be positively associated with outness. In the current study, the Identity Affirmation, Anticipated Binegativity, and Internalized Binegativity subscale

demonstrated adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89, .76,$ and $.72,$ respectively). See Appendix G.

Day-level measures (nightly surveys)

Affect. Participants were asked to rate on scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*) the extent to which they felt each of ten positive emotions (e.g., “alert”) and each of ten negative emotions (e.g., “distressed”; Watson & Clark, 1999). Scores on the positive and negative affect scales have demonstrated excellent psychometric properties with sexual minority samples (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$ and $.87$ and for the positive and negative affect scales, respectively; Mohr & Sarno, 2016). In that study, the positive affect scale was negatively associated with internalized stigma, while the negative affect scale was positively related to internalized stigma, as would be expected. In the current study, Cronbach's alphas for the positive and negative affect scales were satisfactory ($.92$ and $.88,$ respectively). See Appendix H.

Satisfaction with Life. Participants also completed the five-item Satisfaction with Life scale (Diener, Emmons, Larson, & Griffin, 1985; see Appendix I). Participants rated on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*extremely*) the extent to which they agreed with statements such as “The conditions of my life are excellent”. Scores have evidenced adequate reliability with SM samples (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$) and are correlated with social support (Beals et al., 2009). In this study, Cronbach's alpha was $.91.$

Social Support. Participants also completed the Interpersonal Support Evaluation List-12 (ISEL-12; Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamarck, & Hoberman, 1985) as a measure of social support. Participants completed the ISEL-12 by rating each of 12

items (e.g., “If I wanted to have lunch with someone, I could easily find someone to join me”) on a scale from 1 (*definitely false*) to 4 (*definitely true*). The ISEL-12 has shown excellent reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .82$) and convergent validity with diverse samples (Merz et al., 2014). In the current sample, internal consistency was adequate (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .88$). See Appendix J.

Event-level measures (self-presentation surveys)

Self-presentational accuracy. Self-presentational accuracy was assessed with two items: one capturing the participant’s behavior (i.e., “To what degree did your behavior during this interaction allow your interaction partner to accurately understand your identity as a *bisexual* person?”) and the other capturing the interaction partner’s understanding (i.e., “To what degree do you think your interaction partner accurately understands your identity as a *pansexual* person after this interaction?”). Participants rated each item on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). These items have not been used in previous research; however, preliminary validity evidence was collected at baseline. Both items were positively associated with an established measure of revealing behaviors and negatively associated with established measure of concealing behaviors (King et al., 2014). See Appendix K.

Identity Management Behaviors. Participants were also asked to rate the degree to which they engaged in four identity management behaviors on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*a lot*). The items assessed the extent to which the participant behaved a way that would lead her interaction partner to believe she was her preferred nonmonosexual identity, LG, heterosexual, or an SM person generally (e.g., “During

this interaction, to what extent did you try to create the impression that you are lesbian/gay?"). Again, these items have not been used in previous research. However, preliminary validity evidence collected at baseline showed that the nonmonosexual and general SM items were positively correlated with an established measure of revealing behaviors, whereas the heterosexual item was positively correlated with an established measure of concealing behaviors (King et al., 2014). The LG item was unrelated to either concealing or revealing behaviors, which is unsurprising given the unique role LG presentation plays in self-presentation among nonmonosexuals (Mohr et al., 2016). Participants were also asked to briefly describe their behavior during the interaction as it related to their sexual orientation. See Appendix K.

Interaction characteristics. Participants reported the format of the interaction (i.e., in-person, phone call, text message, internet, or other; See Appendix L). They also report their interaction partner's sexual orientation (i.e., asexual, lesbian/gay, nonmonosexual, heterosexual, unsure; adapted to include nonmonosexuality and asexuality as separate categories; King et al., 2014). Participants were able to select multiple levels of this variable to account for situations involving more than one interaction partner. Participants also indicated their relationships with their interaction partner or partners (i.e., family member, friend, romantic partner, boss, professor, co-worker, classmate, acquaintance, stranger, or other).

Additionally, participants completed six items measuring whether their interaction partner had ever displayed acceptance or rejection cues for nonmonosexual people, SM people, and heterosexual people (adapted to include nonmonosexuals and heterosexuals as distinct categories; King et al., 2014). For this

measure, participants were instructed to consider the interaction partner who had the greatest impact on their self-presentation decision. Participants were asked, “Has your interaction partner ever expressed or implied having positive/negative views about nonmonosexual/LGBTQ/heterosexual people?” and responded using a 3-point scale for each item (1 = *definitely*, 2 = *maybe*, 3 = *definitely not*). Each item was analyzed as a separate variable. This measure has demonstrated high levels of validity with SM samples at the within-person level; rejection cues are related to concealment of sexual orientation and acceptance cues are related to disclosure of sexual orientation (King et al., 2014).

Participants also completed single-item measures of anticipated and perceived acceptance and rejection. They rated each item (i.e., “Before this interaction, how likely did you think it was that your primary interaction partner would accept/reject your identity as a pansexual person?”, “After this interaction, how accepted/rejected do you feel by your primary interaction partner in terms of your identity as a *bisexual* person?”) on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). These items were adapted from measure of general anticipated acceptance, which was shown to be associated with pro-social behavior (Stinson et al., 2009).

Finally, participants completed a one-item measure of their emotional closeness with their most influential interaction partner (Roberts & Dunbar, 2011). Participants were asked “How emotionally close are you to your interaction partner?” and responded on a scale from 1 (*someone I never see or hear from*) to 10 (*someone with whom I have a deeply emotional relationship*). This scale has been shown to be

strongly related to communication frequency, time since last contact, and type of relationship (Roberts & Dunbar, 2010; Roberts & Dunbar, 2011).

Goals. I developed and pilot tested a measure of goals for sexual orientation self-presentation (See Appendix M). Items were generated from a review of the literature on goals related to the concealment or disclosure of concealable stigmatized identities (e.g., Cain 1991; Derlega, Winstead, Greene, Serovich, & Elwood, 2004; King et al., 2014; Omarzu, 2000). Participants were asked “How much did each of these reasons play a role in your decisions about whether and how to share information about your sexual orientation during this interaction?” and rated nine items (e.g., “To become closer to my interaction partner”) on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). Each item represents a distinct interpersonal goal (i.e., intimacy, authenticity, improved communication, avoidance of hostility, relief of tension, approval of the interaction partner, avoidance of discrimination, education of the interaction partner, and protection of privacy).

The measure was pilot tested with 75 SM adults from the United States using the Mechanical Turk web platform. Half of the sample completed the measure about a past disclosure event, and half completed the measure about a past concealment event. Each item correlated as expected with a conceptually related scale (see Table 2) with the exception of one item, which was removed. Because the goal of protecting one’s privacy was suggested by over 10% of the respondents, a privacy item was added (“To protect my right to privacy”). In the current sample, the privacy item was positively associated with an established measure of privacy goals (Derlega et al., 2004).

Analytic Plan

Daily patterns in self-presentational accuracy and identity management behaviors were explored through descriptive statistics such as means, frequencies, standard deviations, and intraclass correlation coefficients. Statistical analysis for this study is complicated by the multilevel structure of the data, wherein data from self-presentation and nightly surveys were nested within participants. Some of the hypothesized antecedents to self-presentational accuracy were measured at the person level (e.g., identity centrality, preferred label accuracy, LGB community engagement); thus, I tested the effect of these antecedents on average self-presentational accuracy at the between-person level.

Other antecedents were measured at the event level (i.e., acceptance/rejection cues, interaction partner sexual orientation, relationship closeness, relationship type, and goals). The effect of these antecedents on self-presentational accuracy was tested at both the between- and within-person levels using multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM), which has been shown to offer higher power to detect effects than more traditional multilevel regression models (Lüdtke et al., 2008; Preacher, Zhang, & Zyphur, 2011; Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). MSEM partitions predictors measured at the event level into latent within-cluster and between-cluster components. Interpretation of parameters in this model is similar to interpretation in traditional multilevel models in which predictors are group-mean centered, and between-person analyses represent the total effect of a predictor on an outcome at both levels of analysis. Comparisons of the relative importance of predictors (e.g., the effect of acceptance cues towards nonmonosexuals versus acceptance cues towards

SMs on self-presentational accuracy) were made by testing the significance of the difference between the predictors' path coefficients. Path coefficients were comparable because all predictors were standardized prior to these analyses.

Mediators (i.e., anticipated acceptance, social support) were tested at the within- and between-person levels using the parametric bootstrap approach described by Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang (2010). This method makes no assumptions about the distribution of the indirect effect and is easily implemented using standard multilevel software and an online utility provided by Selig and Preacher (2008). As recommended by Preacher et al. (2010), I used the parametric bootstrap to generate 90% confidence intervals of the indirect effect, given the lower power associated with tests of indirect effects relative to direct effects. Statistical significance was inferred when a confidence interval did not contain 0. The effects of moderators (i.e., perceived acceptance/rejection; identity centrality) were also examined at the within- and between-person levels by testing the significance of the appropriate interaction term. Nonnormality and missing data were handled using robust full information maximum likelihood estimation. Analyses were conducted with Mplus software (Version 8.0; Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2017). Variables were grand-mean centered prior to analysis.

Chapter 3: Results

Descriptive Findings

Participant completed a total of 733 self-presentation surveys ($M = 4.44$; $SD = 3.42$; range = 0-13) and 1,826 nightly surveys ($M = 11.07$; $SD = 3.29$; range = 1-14). Means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations among baseline variables are included in Table 3. Correlations among baseline variables were in the expected directions based on sexual minority literature (e.g., outness and anticipated monosexism were negatively correlated; $r = -.43$, $p < .05$). Means, standard deviations, intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs), and bivariate correlations among event-level variables are included in Table 4. Event-level variables' ICCs represent the proportion of variance that is consistent within persons; (1 - ICC) represents the proportion of variance that varies within persons from day to day or event to event (plus error). The low ICCs associated with self-presentational accuracy, acceptance/rejection cues, interaction partner closeness, and anticipated acceptance (ICCs = .10 - .22) indicate that these variables vary a great deal from event to event, which is consistent with a contextual view of sexual orientation self-presentation. The higher ICCs associated with social support, life satisfaction, and positive and negative affect (ICCs = .44 - .84) indicate that these variables are more consistent within persons, though there is still some degree of daily variability. Overall, the within-person correlations among event-level variables were as expected; however, the between-person correlations were largely nonsignificant. Sample descriptions of self-presentation events are included in Table 5. In total, 70.7% of self-presentation events

took place in-person, 13.9% over the telephone or text message, 7.4% over the internet, and 0.5% through another medium.

Multilevel Models Linking Contextual Factors, Self-Presentational Accuracy, and Well-Being

All hypotheses examined at Levels 1 and 2 were tested with three multilevel path models. Each path model was identical with the exception of the well-being outcome (i.e., life satisfaction, positive affect, or negative affect). In each model, all predictors (i.e., acceptance and rejection cues, interaction partner sexual orientation, interaction partner closeness, anticipated acceptance, and self-presentational accuracy) were allowed to covary. At Level 1, the previous day's well-being was included as a covariate of the current day's well-being. Model fit for each of the three models was acceptable ($CFI > .97$). Associations among contextual predictors (i.e., cues, interaction partner sexual orientation, interaction partner closeness) are not reported because they were not the focus of my hypotheses; see Table 4 for zero-order bivariate within- and between-person correlations. Each of the models was run with both accuracy of behavior (i.e., participants' ratings of how accurately they presented their sexual orientation during the interaction) and accuracy of understanding (i.e., participants' ratings of how accurately their interaction partners understood their sexual orientation after the interaction) as the measure of self-presentational accuracy; results were very similar. Only results using accuracy of behavior are presented for ease of interpretation.

Level 1 results.

Effects of contextual factors on anticipated acceptance and self-presentational accuracy. Within-person results are depicted in Figures 1-3. In each of the three models, anticipated acceptance was predicted by acceptance cues towards nonmonosexuals and SMs, rejection cues towards nonmonosexuals and SMs, having a nonmonosexual interaction partner, and interaction partner closeness. Notably, having an LG interaction partner did not predict anticipated acceptance in any of the models. In each of the models, self-presentational accuracy was predicted by acceptance cues towards nonmonosexuals, having a nonmonosexual interaction partner, and interaction partner closeness over and above the effects of anticipated acceptance. Anticipated acceptance was positively associated with self-presentational accuracy in all three models.

Effect of self-presentational accuracy on social support and well-being. In each of the models, self-presentational accuracy was positively associated with social support. Self-presentational accuracy and social support were both positively associated with life satisfaction and positive affect but unrelated to negative affect.

Indirect effects. Results of the within-person tests of indirect effects are shown in Table 6. The indirect effects of contextual factors (i.e., acceptance and rejection cues towards nonmonosexuals and SMs, interaction partner sexual orientation, and interaction partner closeness) on self-presentational accuracy through anticipated acceptance were tested in each of the three models. Results were similar for the three models, which was expected because this portion of the model was identical for all three models. Thus, to streamline presentation, only results for the life satisfaction model are presented. Results suggested that each of the contextual factors, except for

having an LG interaction partner, had a nonzero indirect effect on self-presentational accuracy through anticipated acceptance at Level 1.

I also tested the indirect effect of self-presentational accuracy on well-being through social support in each of the models (i.e., life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect). Results suggested that the indirect effect was nonzero in the life satisfaction and positive affect models only. In both models, self-presentational accuracy had a positive impact on social support, which in turn had a positive impact on the well-being outcome. Both represent partial mediations; the direct association between self-presentational accuracy and well-being remained significant when controlling for the indirect effect. These results indicate that self-presentational accuracy has an indirect effect on positive well-being outcomes but not negative outcomes.

Level 2 results. Although my focus was on the within-person models, I also tested each model at the between-person level. The models tested were identical to the models depicted in Figures 1-3, except that the previous day's well-being was not included as a covariate in the between-person models. Results were largely nonsignificant. In the life satisfaction model, the only significant association (excluding associations among contextual predictors; see Table 4 for bivariate zero-order correlations) was between anticipated acceptance and social support ($b = 2.89, p = .01$). This suggests that women who were most often in situations where they anticipated acceptance tended to have the highest levels of perceived social support. In the positive affect model, the only significant associations were between anticipated acceptance and social support ($b = 2.96, p = .01$), social support and

positive emotion ($b = .22, p = .01$). Finally, in the negative affect model, the only significant association was between social support and negative emotion ($b = -0.11, p = .02$).

As with the within-person models, between-person indirect effects of contextual predictors on self-presentational accuracy through anticipated acceptance and of self-presentational accuracy on the three well-being outcomes through social support were tested; all indirect effects were nonsignificant.

Comparisons of predictors. The total effects of three pairs of predictors (i.e., acceptance cues towards nonmonosexuals versus acceptance cues towards SMs, rejection cues towards nonmonosexuals versus rejection cues towards SMs, and having a nonmonosexual interaction partner versus having an LG interaction partner) on self-presentational accuracy were compared at Level 1 and Level 2 by testing the significance of the difference between their path coefficients (see Table 7). Contrary to my hypotheses, there were no significant differences between the effects of acceptance cues towards nonmonosexuals and acceptance cues towards SMs at Levels 1 or 2. There was a significant difference between the effects of rejection cues towards nonmonosexuals and SMs at Level 1, such that rejection cues towards SMs ($b = -0.60, p = .00$) were a stronger predictor of self-presentational accuracy than rejection cues towards nonmonosexuals ($b = 0.02, p = .89$). Finally, there was also a significant difference between the effects of having a nonmonosexual versus sexual minority interaction partner at Level 1, such that having a nonmonosexual interaction partner ($b = 1.13, p = .00$) was a stronger predictor of self-presentational accuracy than having an LG interaction partner ($b = 0.39, p = .02$).

Moderation effects. Perceived acceptance was examined as a potential moderator of the within- and between-person associations between self-presentational accuracy and social support. Moderation was tested by including the interaction term between the moderator and predictor in the model. Perceived acceptance was not a significant moderator at the within-person ($b = -0.01, p = .96$) or between-person ($b = -0.00, p = .96$) levels. Identity centrality was examined as a potential moderator of the between-person association between anticipated acceptance and self-presentational accuracy. Identity centrality did not moderate this association ($b = 0.30, p = .22$).

Baseline Characteristics and Self-Presentational Accuracy

Identity variables. Between-person correlations between identity variables measured at baseline and self-presentational accuracy are shown in Table 8. Overall, only some of my hypotheses were supported. Preferred label accuracy and outness were positively correlated with both accuracy of behavior and accuracy of understanding, whereas anticipated monosexism and internalized monosexism were negatively correlated with both types of accuracy. Identity centrality was positively correlated with accuracy of understanding only, and identity uncertainty was negatively correlated with accuracy of understanding only. Unexpectedly, concealment motivation, LGB community engagement, and nonmonosexual identity affirmation were not significantly correlated with either type of accuracy.

Romantic partner gender. The effect of romantic partner gender on self-presentational accuracy and identity management behaviors was examined using ANOVAs with person-level mean self-presentational accuracy as the dependent variable (See Table 9). Participants in committed, monogamous relationships were

the focus of the first set of analyses. Given the small number of participants in committed relationships with nonbinary partners ($n = 2$), only participants in relationships with male and female partners were compared. Data were first tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test and for homogeneity of variances using Levene's test. Data in the male-partnered group failed the Shapiro-Wilk test. One-way ANOVA tends to be robust to violations of the assumption of normality (Schmider, Ziegler, Danay, Beyer, & Buhner, 2010); however, results should be interpreted with caution. There were no significant differences between participants partnered with male and female partners with regards to accuracy of behavior or accuracy of understanding. However, participants with female partners were more likely than participants with male partners to present themselves as lesbian or gay. They were also more likely to be perceived as lesbian or gay and as sexual minorities generally by their interaction partners. On the other hand, participants with male partners were more likely to be perceived as heterosexual.

In the second set of analyses, participants in any type of relationship, including casual and nonmonogamous relationships, were included. Participants in relationships with nonbinary partners were excluded due to small sample size. Data were tested for normality and homogeneity of variances; data in the female partner-only group failed the Shapiro-Wilk test. Again, results should be interpreted with caution. There were no significant differences between participants partnered with men only, participants partnered with women only, and participants with partners of multiple genders with regards to accuracy of behavior or accuracy of understanding. However, there were significant differences in terms of identity management

behaviors, which were further examined using Tukey's HSD tests. Results followed a similar pattern to those found in the analyses of committed relationships.

Exploratory Analyses

Interaction partner relationship type. Multilevel modeling was also used to examine the effect of participants' relationships with their interaction partners on self-presentational accuracy and use of identity management strategies. Four models were tested at the within- and between-person levels. In each model, all nine types of interaction partners were included as predictors; the models differed in terms of the predicted outcome (i.e., self-presentational accuracy, presentation as nonmonosexual, presentation as LG, and presentation as heterosexual). Within-person results are shown in Table 10. At the within-person level, participants presented more accurately when their interaction partners were friends or romantic partners, and less accurately when their interaction partners were classmates. To friends and romantic partners, participants were also more likely to present themselves as nonmonosexual and less likely to present themselves as heterosexual. To family members, participants were less likely to present themselves as LG, and more likely to present themselves as heterosexual. Results at the between-person level were nonsignificant.

Goals and accuracy. Within-person correlations between interaction goals, self-presentational accuracy, and identity management strategies are presented in Table 11. Overall, participants presented themselves more accurately when their goals were closeness, authenticity, communication, tension relief, and education, and less accurately when their goals were avoidance, approval, benefits, and privacy. The same pattern of results held for the correlations between goals and self-presentation as

nonmonosexual. Participants tended to present themselves as LG to a greater degree when their goals were closeness, authenticity, and education, and to a lesser degree when their goals were avoidance, benefits, and privacy (notably, these correlations were weaker than those observed for presentation as nonmonosexual). On the other hand, participants were more likely to present themselves as heterosexual when their goals were avoidance, approval, benefits, or privacy, and less likely to present themselves as heterosexual when their goals were closeness, authenticity, or education. Results at the between-person level followed a similar pattern; for brevity, between-person results are not presented.

Chapter 4: Discussion

Recent literature has demonstrated complex patterns of sexual orientation self-presentation among nonmonosexual individuals (Balsam & Mohr, 2007; Mohr et al., 2016), particularly nonmonosexual women (Diamond, 2008; Ross et al., 2012). It has been hypothesized that context plays an important role in these processes (Dyar Feinstein, Schick, & Davila, 2017; Mohr et al., 2016). By studying self-presentation processes as they occur from day to day, this study was able to examine how situational factors influence self-presentation decisions at the within-person level, as well as the daily impact of these decisions on well-being. The results of the study indicate that self-presentation varies a great deal from situation to situation, underscoring the value of examining these processes as they occur. Furthermore, by operationalizing self-presentation on a continuum from very accurately to very inaccurately reflecting one's sexual orientation identity, this study was able to capture a more nuanced picture of nonmonosexuals' identity management behaviors than that captured by more traditional measures (e.g., concealment and disclosure). To my knowledge, this is the first study to examine nonmonosexual women's self-presentation experiences as they occur in everyday life. It adds to a growing body of literature on identity and identity management processes among nonmonosexuals.

Event-Level Antecedents to Self-Presentational Accuracy

The within-person results of the study demonstrate that contextual factors play an important role in determining how nonmonosexual women present their sexual orientation to others. As hypothesized, participants reported being sensitive to factors such as their interaction partner's sexual orientation, the closeness and nature of their

relationship with their interaction partner, and their interaction partner's indications of positive and negative feelings towards SMs and nonmonosexuals. Many of these factors influenced self-presentational accuracy indirectly by contributing to participants' judgments of how likely it was that their interaction partners would accept their sexual orientation, which in turn influenced how accurately they presented their identity. This finding suggests that nonmonosexual women strategically vary their self-presentational accuracy to avoid monosexism. However, several of the contextual factors operated outside of this process, indicating that anticipated acceptance was not the only determinant of self-presentational accuracy.

The within-person results also indicated that having a nonmonosexual interaction partner was a stronger predictor of accuracy than having an LG interaction partner. Indeed, contrary to my expectations, having an LG interaction partner did not predict anticipated acceptance or accuracy in any of the models. These results align with previous literature highlighting nonmonosexual individuals' experiences of monosexism in LG communities (Balsam & Mohr, 2007; Mulick & Wright, 2002), and suggest that nonmonosexual women may not consider LGs a "safe space" for discussing their identities. Alternatively, it may be that having an LG interaction partner is not a strong enough signal of likely acceptance to warrant increased self-presentational accuracy, especially when acceptance and rejection cues are considered simultaneously. In addition to being influenced by contextual factors, the results of this study indicate that participants actively tailored their self-presentational strategies to achieve their goals for the interaction. They presented more accurately when they were pursuing positively valenced goals (e.g., closeness, authenticity) and less

accurately when pursuing more negative or protective goals (e.g., avoidance of hostility, privacy). Both the influence of context on self-presentation and the goal-oriented management of self-presentation among nonmonosexual individuals deserve further study.

It is notable that none of the hypothesized associations between contextual factors and self-presentational accuracy were significant at the person level. The lack of significant associations underscores the highly complex and situational nature of sexual orientation self-presentation among nonmonosexual women. Though factors such as acceptance and rejection cues predict variability in self-presentational accuracy from one situation to another, stable differences in the frequency with which these cues are encountered do not predict person-level differences in mean accuracy. These results indicate that study designs that focus on individual differences in identity management may miss important phenomena occurring at the within-person level. On the other hand, the lack of significant results at Level 2 may be the result of low ICCs and small group size (i.e., number of self-presentation events per participant) among the contextual variables. These factors may have contributed to low group mean reliability among the contextual variables, and in turn, decreased statistical power (Bliese, 2000).

Person-Level Antecedents of Self-Presentational Accuracy

Several person-level identity variables were associated with mean levels of self-presentational accuracy in the hypothesized directions. These results indicate that self-presentational accuracy is a viable way to conceptualize and measure identity management decisions among nonmonosexual women. It is particularly interesting

that preferred label accuracy (i.e., the degree to which a participant felt that her most preferred sexual orientation identity label accurately describes her internal sense of her sexual orientation) predicted mean self-presentational accuracy. This finding supports previous research, which demonstrated that a lack of appropriate identity labels may hinder one's ability to disclose one's sexual orientation to others (Dyar et al., 2015; Galupo, Mitchell, & Davis, 2015).

However, three hypothesized person-level predictors of self-presentational accuracy were not associated with mean accuracy. Behavioral engagement in the LGB community was not associated with mean accuracy. This finding may suggest that nonmonosexual women expect to encounter monosexism when interacting with other sexual minority people, or that engagement needs to be measured differently among nonmonosexual women (i.e., engagement in nonmonosexual spaces versus engagement in general sexual minority spaces). In contrast to previous research (Paul et al., 2014), nonmonosexual identity affirmation was also unrelated to mean accuracy, suggesting that nonmonosexual women's internal sense of pride in their identity does not result in sharing that identity more accurately with others. Women with high levels of identity affirmation may choose to conceal their identities not out of shame, but in order avoid discrimination and judgment. Perhaps most surprisingly, concealment motivation was not associated with mean self-presentational accuracy. However, two of the three items used to measure concealment motivation refer specifically to concealing same-sex romantic relationships (Mohr & Kendra, 2011). This conceptualization of concealment motivation may be inadequate for nonmonosexuals, who may feel pressured to hide their different-sex romantic

relationships from monosexist LG peers. This finding demonstrates the importance of using measures designed with nonmonosexuality in mind when studying nonmonosexual individuals.

Contrary to my hypotheses, there were no differences in mean self-presentational accuracy based on the gender of participants' committed romantic partners or casual romantic partners. However, there were differences in terms of identity management strategies, which support the findings of previous research (Mohr et al., 2016). Participants in relationships with women were more likely than others to present themselves as LG and to be perceived as LG. In contrast, participants in relationships with men were more likely to be mistaken for heterosexual. These findings indicate that nonmonosexual women may sometimes use the gender of their current romantic partners to engage in strategic self-presentation (e.g., a woman who is partnered with a woman presenting as a lesbian to avoid monosexism). On the other hand, the results also demonstrate that interaction partners may interpret the gender of an individual's romantic partner as a marker of a monosexual sexual orientation status, even when the individual is not actively presenting her orientation that way. The assumption of monosexism that underlies these results may contribute to the high levels of stress and mental health problems reported by nonmonosexual individuals (Bostwick, Boyd, Hughes, & McCabe, 2010). Alternatively, it may be that monosexual self-presentation that aligns with the gender of one's romantic partner does not feel particularly inaccurate, which may be why significant differences were found in terms of identity management strategies but not overall self-presentational accuracy.

Outcomes of Self-Presentational Accuracy

The within-person results of this study indicate that the degree to which participants presented their sexual orientation accurately had a positive effect on same-day life satisfaction and well-being. Some of this effect was explained by the mediating role of social support. Previous literature has emphasized the importance of increased social support as an outcome of the disclosure of invisible stigmatized identities (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010; Omarzu, 2000). Research has also demonstrated that SMs tend to disclose their sexual orientation to others who are likely to provide social support, and that social support is in turn associated with increased well-being (Beals et al., 2009). My results replicate this finding with nonmonosexual women. However, a significant direct effect of self-presentational accuracy on life satisfaction and positive affect remained even controlling for the indirect path through social support. This finding suggests that there is a second pathway by which self-presentational accuracy predicts well-being in the absence of increased social support. This pathway likely implicates the personal benefits of “coming out” regardless of the other person’s response – a satisfied need for authenticity and identity coherence, the relief of intrapsychic tension, and the opportunity to educate others (Bosson, Weaver, & Prewitt-Freilino, 2012; Ragins, 2008).

Unexpectedly, self-presentational accuracy did not have an effect on negative affect either directly or through the mediator of social support at the within-person level. Whereas accurately presenting one’s nonmonosexual identity seemed to confer mood-related benefits, concealing or inaccurately presenting one’s identity did not appear to produce negative consequences in this sample. Nonmonosexual women

may be insulated from the negative effects of concealment typically seen in SMs by their experience with adapting their self-presentation to fit their social environment (Diamond, 2000; Katz-Wise, 2015; Mohr et al., 2016). Furthermore, nonmonosexual individuals may be less likely than other SMs to feel as if they are engaging in effortful concealment (which has been linked to negative outcomes; Jackson & Mohr, 2016), given the many options they have for presenting their identity at least somewhat accurately. Though not explored here, future research should examine whether different types of inaccurate self-presentation (e.g., presentation as a lesbian versus presentation as heterosexual) have differential effects on negative mood.

At the between-person level, significant associations were found between anticipated acceptance, social support, and affect. These results indicate that stable differences between persons in perceived acceptance from interaction partners and in social support may have important impacts on mental health, extending previous findings to nonmonosexual women (Schrimshaw et al., 2013). Though social support did not predict negative affect from day to day, it did have an effect on negative affect at the between-person level, suggesting that the harmful effects of low social support may accumulate over time. Self-presentational accuracy did not significantly predict any outcomes at the between-person level, suggesting that the effect of accuracy on well-being is situation-dependent.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study has several limitations that must be kept in mind when interpreting results. First, the sample contains a higher proportion of White, young, urban, and educated women than would be expected based on the general population of the

United States. Results may not generalize to nonmonosexual women of color, those who are older or less educated, and those who live in rural and suburban areas. For example, older nonmonosexual women may be less likely to present their sexual orientation accurately than younger women, regardless of acceptance or rejection cues (Fredriksen-Goldsen, Kim, Shiu, Goldsen, & Emler, 2014). Additionally, all participants in the study were cisgender women. It is likely that the sexual orientation processes of interest are influenced by gender. Therefore, results of this study cannot be generalized to nonmonosexual men, transgender women, or nonbinary people. Future research should examine how gender and other identity variables affect self-presentational accuracy among diverse nonmonosexual individuals.

Another limitation is related to study design. It is likely that participants encountered many self-presentation opportunities over the course of their participation in the study. Though I attempted to reduce the time needed to complete a self-presentation survey as much as possible, participants likely did not complete a survey for every opportunity they encountered due to the time burden. Some self-presentation opportunities may have even occurred outside of participants' conscious awareness, meaning they could not be reported. Additionally, only one completed self-presentation survey per day could be used in analyses, meaning that a substantial number ($n = 102$) of reported self-presentation events were not examined.

An additional limitation of the study design is that all of the self-presentation data was collected concurrently. Though I hypothesize about the directionality of the associations between self-presentation variables (e.g., cues influence self-presentational accuracy), it is possible that the associations among these variables

may be the result of unmeasured third variables or paths of reverse influence (e.g., accurate self-presentation may have elicited acceptance or rejection cues about nonmonosexuality from interaction partners). I attempted to prevent this possibility with explicit survey instructions (e.g., by instructing participants to report only cues that occurred prior to self-presentation); however, it cannot be ruled out. Future research on sexual orientation self-presentation should incorporate longitudinal and experimental designs in order to establish causal relations.

Finally, there may be important limitations to the study's measurement of self-presentational accuracy. Both accuracy items explicitly referred to the interaction partner's "accurate understand[ing]" of the participant's sexual identity. Participants may have interpreted this phrase to mean the interaction partner's emotional understanding of, empathy with, or acceptance of the participant's sexual identity. If participants answered the accuracy items with emotional understanding in mind, the correlation between accuracy and social support may have been artificially inflated. Additionally, the accuracy of understanding item required participants to rate the degree to which their interaction partner understood their identity after the interaction. It is possible that participants misjudged their interactions partners' level of understanding, or that interaction partners demonstrated a strong but inaccurate understanding of participants' identities.

Implications

The results of this study have several implications for clinical work with nonmonosexual women. Clinicians should keep in mind that their nonmonosexual clients engage in an ongoing process of sexual orientation self-presentation, and that

this process may impact their well-being from day to day due, in part, to their perceptions of social support. Exploration of the positive and negative effects clients' self-presentation decisions have on their daily mood may prove useful. Clinicians should help their clients engage with people (e.g., other nonmonosexuals) and communities that hold positive views towards nonmonosexuality and that allow them to accurately and authentically share their identity. Clinicians should also help their clients identify situations in which it would be personally meaningful to share their identity with others, even in the face of discrimination or judgment.

From a research perspective, results highlight the need for more nuanced theories and measurement tools related to sexual orientation identity management. In particular, the results demonstrate that traditional theories of sexual orientation identity management that focus on disclosure and concealment may be inadequate for individuals with nonmonosexual identities. More research that captures the unique experiences of nonmonosexuals is needed, particularly given that the number of individuals who identify with a nonmonosexual sexual orientation is increasing (Copen, Chandra, Febo-Vazquez, 2016; Twenge, Sherman, & Wells, 2016). Self-presentational accuracy may be a useful, flexible construct to advance research on identity management among nonmonosexuals and sexual minorities more generally. Additionally, given the highly context-dependent nature of sexual orientation self-presentation, future research on the topic should utilize experience sampling and other microlongitudinal methods.

Appendix A: Comprehensive Literature Review

Relatively little research has examined identity management processes among nonmonosexual individuals, who represent a large and growing subset of the sexual minority population in the United States. This review examines theoretical and empirical literature relevant to nonmonosexuals' unique self-presentation patterns. I begin by discussing nonmonosexuals' and particularly nonmonosexual women's experiences with sexual orientation identity and bias. I then review theory and research related to the management of concealable stigmatized identities. Finally, I review research that indicates potential antecedents, content, and consequences of self-presentation decisions among sexual minorities generally and nonmonosexuals specifically.

Nonmonosexuality

The term “nonmonosexual” (also known as “plurisexual” or “polysexual”) is an umbrella term referring to sexual minority individuals whose sexual and/or romantic attractions are not limited to one sex or gender (Dyar, Feinstein, Schick, & Davila, 2017; Galupo, Mitchell, & Davis, 2015). The number of labels that nonmonosexuals use to express their sexual orientation identity have increased in recent years (Wadsworth & Hayes-Skelton, 2015), and include bisexual, pansexual, omnisexual, pomosexual, queer, heteroflexible, mostly heterosexual, mostly gay/lesbian, two-spirit, fluid, and label-free (Dyar et al., 2017; Eisner, 2013). There is strong evidence that the number of individuals who identify with a nonmonosexual sexual orientation is increasing, especially among women and young people (Copen, Chandra, Febo-Vazquez, 2016; Savin-Williams, 2005; Twenge, Sherman, & Wells,

2016). Indeed, recent population studies indicate that there are more self-identified nonmonosexual people in the United States than there are lesbians or gay men (Copen et al., 2016; Gates, 2011).

Researchers often analyze all sexual minority participants as one group, rather than analyzing nonmonosexual and exclusively homosexual participants separately. However, this practice has been criticized on the basis that nonmonosexuals' experiences and psychological characteristics are distinct from those of lesbians and gay men (Elia & Eliason, 2012; Rust, 2002). For example, there is strong evidence to suggest that nonmonosexual people are less likely to feel that their sexual orientation is an important aspect of their overall identity than lesbians and gay men (Dyar, Feinstein, & London, 2015; Pew Research Center, 2013). Some studies also suggest that nonmonosexuals are less likely than lesbians and gay men to feel that common measures of sexual orientation capture their experiences of sexuality (Galupo, Davis, Gryniewicz, & Mitchell, 2014), that nonmonosexuals are more likely people to describe themselves with multiple sexual orientation labels (Galupo et al., 2015; Rust, 2002), and that nonmonosexuals are more likely to reject sexual orientation labels altogether (Wadsworth & Hayes-Skelton, 2015). Because of these differences, scholars are increasingly recommending that nonmonosexuality be conceptualized as a unique identity and researched separately from exclusive homosexuality (e.g., Diamond, 2008; Galupo et al., 2015; Rust, 2002; Vrangalova & Savin-Williams, 2010). Researching nonmonosexuals separately from lesbians and gay men may be particularly important given that many of these differences are related to fundamental aspects of sexual orientation, such as individuals' conceptualizations of their own

sexual orientation identities and experiences with managing and presenting their sexual orientation identities.

Nonmonosexual people also report unique experiences with stigma and discrimination. A great deal of research demonstrates that nonmonosexuals face monosexism (i.e., nonmonosexuality-specific stigma) from both the heterosexual and lesbian and gay communities in addition to standard heterosexism (Balsam & Mohr, 2007; Mulick & Wright, 2002). For example, heterosexuals report lower opinions of nonmonosexual men and women than any other sexual orientation group (Herek, 2002), and may view nonmonosexuality as morally unacceptable and nonmonosexuals as deviant and untrustworthy (Spalding & Peplau, 1997). In addition, lesbians and gay men may question the existence of nonmonosexuality, dismiss it as a transitory stage or a denial of one's true sexual orientation, and perceive nonmonosexuals as untrustworthy, promiscuous, and disloyal to the sexual minority community (Brewster & Moradi, 2010; Israel & Mohr, 2004, Mohr & Rochlen, 1999). For both heterosexuals and lesbians and gay men, nonmonosexuality represents a fundamental challenge to the traditional, dichotomous understanding of sexual orientation (Israel & Mohr, 2004). Research clearly demonstrates that nonmonosexuals experience higher levels of anxiety, depression, and substance use disorders than any other sexual orientation group, perhaps as a result of these experiences of stigmatization (Bostwick, Boyd, Hughs, & McCabe, 2010; Eisenberg, Gollust, Golberstein, & Hefner, 2007; Wadsworth & Hayes-Skelton, 2015; Wilsnack et al., 2008). More research on the unique, sexual identity-relevant experiences of nonmonosexual people is needed given the increasing number of nonmonosexuals,

the lack of research on nonmonosexuality, and the unique characteristics and experiences of nonmonosexuals.

Nonmonosexual Women

Cisgender women are twice as likely as cisgender men to identify with a nonmonosexual sexual orientation label (Copen et al., 2016). There is also clear evidence indicating that women are more likely than men to experience their sexual orientation as fluid over time, and that nonmonosexual women are particularly likely to endorse such fluidity (Diamond, 2008; Ross, Daneback, & Mansson, 2012). Nonmonosexual women are also more likely than other nonheterosexual individuals to claim sexual orientation labels such as “queer” and “pansexual”, which may indicate the irrelevance of partner gender to attraction, a rejection of binary models of gender and sexual orientation, or a politicized understanding of one’s sexual orientation (Horner, 2015; Morandini, Blaszczyński & Dar-Nimrod, 2016; Rice, 2015). While research on the identity-related experiences of nonmonosexual women is still emerging, these findings suggest that nonmonosexual women possess a unique perspective on sexual orientation identity and self-presentation that warrants further study.

In addition, some studies suggest that nonmonosexual women are at the highest risk for mental health issues such as depression (Baams, Grossman, & Russel, 2015; Bostwick et al., 2010), anxiety (Shearer et al., 2016), suicidal ideation (Warner et al., 2004), and alcohol dependence and abuse (Drabble, Midanik, Trocki, 2005; McCabe, Hughes, Bostwick, West, Boyd, 2009) compared to all other sexual orientation and gender groups. However, research on this topic is equivocal, with

other studies indicating that gay and nonmonosexual men are at the highest risk (e.g., Cochran & Mays, 2000; Fergusson Horwood, Ridder, & Beautrais, 2005; Diamant, Wold, Spritzer, & Gelberg, 2000). Unfortunately, much of the research on the prevalence of mental health issues among sexual orientation groups combines nonmonosexual women with lesbians (e.g., Cochran, Sullivan, & Mays, 2003; Gruskin, Hart, Gordon, & Ackerson, 2001) or nonmonosexual men (e.g., Jorm, Korten, Rodgers, Jacomb, & Christensen, 2002), or ignores nonmonosexual individuals completely (e.g., Cochran & Mays, 2006), eliminating the possibility of drawing conclusions about nonmonosexual women as a distinct group.

Nonmonosexual women experience unique forms of stigmatization based on the intersection of their gender and sexual orientation identities. Nonmonosexuality among women is often eroticized by heterosexual men and perceived as performative or attention-seeking (Herek, 2002; Yost & Thomas, 2012). Heterosexual men and women, therefore, tend to believe that nonmonosexual women are “really heterosexual” (Yost & Thomas, 2012, p. 698). On the other hand, some research suggests that lesbian women tend to have particularly negative opinions of nonmonosexual women compared to nonmonosexual men, especially with regards to the stability of their sexual orientation over time (McLean, 2008; Mohr & Rochlen, 2001). Preliminary evidence also indicates that nonmonosexual women are more likely to experience monosexism in their everyday lives than nonmonosexual men (Dyar, 2017). A recent population-based study suggested that nonmonosexual women are also at the highest risk of sexual and intimate partner violence compared to lesbians, gay men, and heterosexuals (Walters, Chen, & Breiding, 2013), though

another study indicated that nonmonosexual women and lesbians experience similar levels of intimate partner violence (Balsam & Szymanski, 2005). The majority of nonmonosexual women's victimization seems to be perpetrated by male sexual and romantic partners, and may be the result of minority stress (Messinger, 2011; Balsam & Szymanski, 2005). The need for more research on nonmonosexual women is particularly apparent in light of their potentially elevated risk for mental illness, stigmatization, and abuse.

Identity Management

People with concealable stigmatized identities—"personal information that is socially devalued but not readily apparent to others," such as minority sexual orientation, mental illness, abortion history, or HIV-positive status—must continually make decisions about whether to disclose these identities to others (Chaudior & Fisher, 2010, p. 236). Disclosure of a stigmatized identity may lead to prejudice, discrimination, and rejection. On the other hand, disclosure also offers the opportunity for positive outcomes, such as self-expression, psychological relief, social support, and increased intimacy in interpersonal relationships (Chaudior & Fisher, 2010; Derlega, Winstead, Greene, Serovich, & Elwood, 2004; Pachankis, 2007). Thus, the decision of whether or not to disclose a concealable stigmatized identity is complex.

Research clearly indicates that *identity management*—the attempt to influence others' perceptions of one's marginalized social identities in order to mitigate the risk of stigmatization—is common among individuals with concealable stigmatized identities (Anderson, Croteau, Chung, & Distefano, 2001; Button, 2004; Clair,

Beatty, & Maclean, 2005; Jones & King, 2013; Pachankis, 2007). Individuals use these strategies to control “when, how, where, and to whom” they will disclose their identities (Jones & King, 2013, p. 1467). Identity management theory suggests that people with concealable stigmatized identities are attentive to interpersonal and situational cues about how their identity will be perceived by others, and that these cues direct their use of behavioral identity management strategies (Frable, Platt, & Hoey, 1998). If individuals feel that their identity is likely to be accepted by their interaction partner, they may explicitly disclose the identity; if they feel that their identity is likely to be rejected, they may conceal it. If individuals are unsure of their interaction partner’s reaction, they may subtly hint at the identity or decline to share the identity without actively concealing it (Anderson et al., 2001). Thus, though the consequences of identity management are typically theorized to be dichotomous (i.e., either disclosure or concealment), the behaviors that fall under the umbrella of identity management strategies fall along a wide continuum (Button, 2004). The need to choose a behavioral strategy to achieve one’s disclosure goal for a given social situation further complicates decision-making process of individuals with concealable stigmatized identities (Flett, 2012).

Self-presentation refers to “the attempt to control images of the self before real or imagined audiences” in order to influence how the audience perceives the self (Schlenker & Leary, 1982, p. 643). Research on various forms of self-presentation (e.g., of the self as a potential romantic partner or employee) suggests that self-presentation includes what is “given” (i.e., identity management behaviors, including verbal communication and other effortful attempts to influence the interaction

partner's perceptions) and what is "given off" (i.e., unintentional cues and impressions received by the interaction partner; Ellison, Heino, & Gibbs, 2006; Goffman, 1963; Kramer & Winter, 2008). For the purposes of this review, *self-presentational accuracy* will be defined as the extent to which one's self-presentation accurately reflects one's internal sense of self. Importantly, individuals are at least somewhat aware of the accuracy of their self-presentation, and they may be motivated to present themselves accurately or inaccurately depending on the social situation (Barrick, Shaffer, & Degraffi, 2009; Ellison et al., 2006; Tice, Butler, Muraven, & Stillwell, 1995). In the context of concealable stigmatized identities, individuals may use identity management strategies to self-present their stigmatized identity more or less accurately depending on the social context (e.g., perceptions of hostility or acceptance; Chaudior & Fisher, 2010; Omarzu, 2000).

Identity Management among Sexual Minorities

Although sexual orientation is not visually apparent to others, sexual minority individuals who disclose their sexual orientation continue to face discrimination, rejection, and violence (Herek, 2009). Therefore, nonheterosexual individuals face complicated decisions about whether and how to present their sexual orientation to others (King, Mohr, Peddie, Jones, & Kendra, 2014). As Chrobot-Mason, Button, and DiClementi (2001) note, "Although frequently characterized as a dichotomous choice between passing as a heterosexual or openly identifying oneself as gay or lesbian... recent research suggests that the decision [to come out] is more complex" (p. 323).

Content of Identity Management Decision among Sexual Minorities.

Identity management behaviors. Research with sexual minorities reveals a wide diversity of behavioral identity management strategies. For example, Anderson, Croteau, Chung, and Distefano's model of workplace sexual orientation identity management behaviors, which was developed by surveying gay and lesbian employees, included explicitly outing oneself, implicitly outing oneself, passing for heterosexual, and covering one's sexual orientation. On the other hand, Woods' (1993) interview study with gay businessmen produced three categories of strategies: counterfeiting, avoiding, and integrating (i.e., revealing). Button's (2001) survey study with gay and lesbian workers provided further support for this three-factor structure. King, Mohr, Peddie, Jones, and Kendra's (2014) study of lesbian, gay, and bisexual workers validated a measure of revealing, concealing, and signaling identity management behaviors. In the above frameworks, outing oneself explicitly or implicitly, integrating, revealing, and signaling are classified as disclosure-related behaviors, while passing, covering, counterfeiting, and avoiding are considered concealing behaviors. Jackson and Mohr's (2016) survey study of identity management among sexual minority college students made an important contribution by distinguishing between concealment (i.e., effortful behaviors meant to prevent others from becoming aware of one's sexual orientation) and nondisclosure (i.e., nonperformance of a behavior that would lead to the revelation of one's sexual orientation). This study supports previous work suggesting that concealment and disclosure are not oppositional processes (Meidlinger & Hope, 2014). Although the specifics of these models differ, they all emphasize the fact that identity management behaviors are more complex than a simple disclosure-concealment dichotomy.

King et al.'s (2014) experience-sampling study with lesbian, gay, and bisexual workers demonstrated the importance of identity management behavior in the everyday lives of sexual minority individuals. Participants in the study completed a brief online survey after each identity management situation they encountered during the study period. The surveys collected information about the situation, the participant's interaction partner, and the participant's identity management behaviors (which included revealing, concealing, and signaling behaviors). Study results indicated that identity management situations related to sexual orientation occur fairly frequently; participants experienced a mean of 3.6 identity management events in the workplace over a 3-week period. Beals, Peplau, & Gable's (2009) experience-sampling study of lesbians and gay men demonstrated similar results; participants reported an average of three identity management situations over a two-week period. Though few other studies have examined identity management among sexual minorities on a daily basis, these results suggest that identity management is an important phenomenon in the lives of most sexual minority individuals.

Self-presentational accuracy. Sexual orientation self-presentation refers to purposeful efforts to influence an audience's perceptions of one's sexual orientation. To my knowledge, no previous research has explored sexual orientation through the paradigm of self-presentational accuracy; however, a great deal of research suggests that sexual minority individuals intentionally vary the accuracy of their self-presentation through identity management strategies such as counterfeiting, signaling, implicit and explicit disclosure, etc. (Anderson, Croteau, Chung, & Distefano, 2001; Button, 2004; Clair, Beatty, & Maclean, 2005). For example, almost 10% of lesbian

and gay participants in a study of sexual orientation self-presentation reported inaccurately presenting their sexual orientation in some social situations (Mohr, Jackson, & Sheets, 2016), and the majority of lesbian and gay participants in Button's 2004 study of identity management in the workplace reported sometimes using counterfeiting, avoiding, and revealing strategies. Sexual orientation self-presentational accuracy is an improvement upon the traditional, dichotomous framework of disclosure versus concealment, because it allows for a more nuanced description of self-presentation that emphasizes the individual's internal sense of their identity. For example, a lesbian who sometimes presents as bisexual and sometimes presents as heterosexual (as 2.8% of the lesbian and gay sample in Mohr, Jackson and Sheets' 2016 study did) may feel that her presentation as bisexual is more accurate than her presentation as heterosexual, but the traditional framework would categorize both of these presentational strategies as equally concealing.

Antecedents to Identity Management Decisions among Sexual Minorities.

Person-level antecedents.

Identity centrality. Mohr and Kendra (2011) found that sexual identity centrality (i.e., the degree to which one's sexual orientation is seen as central to one's overall identity) was negatively correlated with concealment motivation in a sample of lesbian, gay, and bisexual college students. In addition, King et al.'s (2014) experience sampling study of identity management with lesbian, gay, and bisexual workers indicated that sexual identity centrality was positively associated with the tendency to use revealing, rather than concealing, identity management behaviors. These findings provide modest evidence suggesting that identity centrality may serve

as an antecedent to sexual minorities' self-presentation decisions, but more research is needed.

Internalized homonegativity. Clair et al. (2005) suggested that individuals' identity management patterns may be influenced by person-level differences in adaptation to stigma. Internalized homonegativity (i.e., the application of society's negative attitudes towards nonheterosexuality to the self) has been demonstrated to be strongly negatively correlated with outness (Frost & Meyer, 2009; Weber-Gilmore, Rose, & Rubinstein, 2011) and disclosure behavior (Rostosky & Riggle, 2002) and positively correlated with concealment behavior (King et al., 2014) among sexual minorities. Researchers suggest that high levels of internalized homonegativity may motivate sexual minorities to inaccurately self-present in order to avoid feared outcomes such as rejection and stigmatization (Weber-Gilmore et al., 2011) and to be viewed positively by others (King et al., 2014). Individuals with high levels of internalized homonegativity may also have difficulty forming support networks, and may therefore avoid coming out (Rostosky & Riggle, 2002). Based on these result, there is a strong likelihood that internalized homonegativity impacts self-presentation among sexual minorities.

Identity uncertainty. Identity uncertainty (i.e., the degree to which one feels unsure of one's sexual orientation identity) has been shown to be positively corelated with concealment motivation (Mohr & Kendra, 2011) and the use of signaling identity management behaviors (King et al., 2014), and negatively correlated with accurate self-presentation and outness (Mohr et al., 2016). Thus, it seems likely that identity uncertainty predicts sexual minorities' identity management decisions,

perhaps because sexual minority individuals who do not feel certain of their sexual orientation identities feel less motivated to accurately self-present and endure heterosexist stigmatization.

Event-level antecedents.

Acceptance cues. Researchers theorize that sexual minority individuals are more likely to reveal their sexual orientation to interaction partners they believe to be accepting of nonheterosexuality, and more likely to conceal their sexual orientation from interaction partners they believe to be hostile (Boon & Miller, 1999; Button, 2004; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001; Griffith & Hebl, 2002). Qualitative research strongly supports this assumption, and suggests that sexual minority individuals are attentive to their interaction partners' cues about whether they are accepting or rejecting of homosexuality (Gedro, Cervero, & Johnson-Bailey, 2004; King, Reilly, & Hebl, 2008). King et al.'s (2014) experience-sampling study of lesbian, gay, and bisexual workers provided empirical evidence for the importance of cues to sexual minorities' self-presentation decisions. On the within-person level, participants were more likely to use revealing identity management behaviors when they perceived homosexuality-specific acceptance cues from their interaction partners, and more likely to use concealing behaviors when they perceived homosexuality-specific rejection cues. Interestingly, the participants were more likely to reveal their orientation only when they perceived definite acceptance cues but were more likely to conceal when they perceived even ambiguous rejection cues. This suggests that sexual minority individuals err on the side of caution when choosing whether to accurately present their identities. Sexual minority individuals may also view an

interaction partner's own sexual minority status as a marker of likely acceptance of nonheterosexuality. Indeed, King et al. (2014) found that their participants were less likely to use concealing identity management strategies with co-workers they knew to be sexual minorities themselves.

Relationship closeness. In the concealable stigmatized identity literature, the quality and closeness of the relationship between an individual and his or her interaction partner is theorized to be an important factor in determining the type and depth of sensitive information that is shared (e.g., Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010; Greene, Derlega, & Mathews, 2006). Indeed, research clearly suggests that sexual minority individuals are more likely to disclose their sexual orientation identities to others with whom they share close, high-quality relationships, broadly defined. For example, Wessel's (2017) cross-sectional survey of lesbian, gay, and bisexual workers indicated that participants were more likely to accurately disclose their sexual orientation to co-workers whom they perceived to be emotionally and instrumentally supportive. Similarly, Ryan, Legate, Weinstein, and Rahman's (2017) cross-sectional study indicated that lesbian, gay, and bisexual adults were more likely to disclose their sexual orientation to others who provide a high level of autonomy support. Boon and Miller's (1999) qualitative study also demonstrated that interpersonal trust was an important factor in gay men's decisions about whether or not to come out to their mothers. Based on this evidence, it seems likely that relationship quality is a situational predictor of identity management behaviors among sexual minorities.

Goals. Many researchers have suggested that inter- and intrapersonal goals serve as important antecedents to identity management decisions among people with

concealable stigmatized identities (Bosson, Weaver, & Prewitt-Freilino, 2012; Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010; Chaudoir & Quinn, 2010; Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Omarzu, 2000; Pachankis, 2007). In this framework, identity management behaviors can be seen as functional (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979). In general, disclosure-related behaviors are thought to be motivated by approach-focused goals (e.g., intimacy, desire for support; Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010; Omarzu, 2000) or the need for identity coherence and authenticity (Bosson, et al., 2012; Ragins, 2008; Swann & Buhrmester, 2003), while concealment-related behaviors are seen to be motivated by avoidance goals (e.g., avoiding hostility, embarrassment, or rejection; Bosson, et al., 2012; Chaudoir, 2009; Jackson & Mohr, 2016; Pachankis, 2007). Scholars suggest that goals usually affect identity management decisions at the situation level, meaning that an individual's goals vary from context to context and interaction partner to interaction partner (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Omarzu, 2000). However, some goals, particularly social approval, may operate on the person level. In these instances, the person-level goal serves as the individual's default motivation during social interactions until another goal is triggered by situational characteristics (Omarzu, 2000).

The impact of goals on sexual identity management has received surprisingly little attention in the sexual minority literature. Cain's (1991) qualitative study with gay men indicated that sexual identity management is goal-oriented, and that these goals can be both inter- and intrapersonal. Cain's model included eleven goals, which were divided into disclosure-related goals (e.g., relationship-building) and concealment-related goals (e.g., political). Bosson et al.'s (2012) survey study with

lesbians and gay men demonstrated that disclosure-related behaviors were associated with a greater sense of identity coherence, while concealment-related behaviors were associated with a lesser perceived likelihood of negative evaluation by others, in line with typical assumptions about identity management goals. Furthermore, Garcia and Crocker's (2008) daily diary study of sexual minority college students demonstrated that participants' daily levels of other-oriented goals (e.g., building a close relationship) were associated with greater levels of disclosure-related behavior on that day. Beyond these studies, there has been little work examining how goals impact sexual minority individuals' self-presentation decisions, though many scholars note the need for research in this area (e.g., King et al., 2014).

Outcomes of Identity Management Decisions among Sexual Minorities.

Well-being. Disclosure process models suggest that disclosure (i.e., accurate self-presentation) of one's concealable stigmatized identity has a positive impact on well-being (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010), including outcomes such as decreased distress (e.g., Jonzon & Lindblad, 2005; Kalichman & Nachimson, 1999; Major & Gramzow, 1999), increased self-esteem (e.g., Afifi & Coughlin, 2006; Zea, Reisen, Poppen, Bianchi, & Echeverry, 2005), and improved physical health (e.g., Cole, Kemeny, Taylor, & Visscher, 1996; Greenberg & Stone, 1992). These improvements in well-being are hypothesized to be mediated by the alleviation of inhibition, an increased availability of social support, and changes in social information (i.e., improved visibility of the self and transparency in interpersonal relationships; Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010). Disclosure is more likely to have a positive effect on well-being when the interaction partner has a positive reaction to the revelation (e.g., Afifi & Coughlin,

2006; Cole, Kemeny, & Taylor, 1997). However, a neutral or even negative reaction does not necessarily foreclose the possibility of increased well-being through the mechanisms of relief and improved self-evaluation (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010). Furthermore, although individuals who choose to disclose a concealable stigmatized identity risk stigmatization and rejection, research suggests that the use of selective self-disclosure (i.e., disclosing only to those perceived as likely to be accepting) mitigates this risk (Bos et al., 2009; Ullman, 2003).

Much less research has examined the effects of concealment (i.e., inaccurate self-presentation) of a stigmatized identity on well-being (Pachankis, 2007). However, concealment of a stigmatized identity has been linked to decreased well-being, including outcomes such as increased distress (Frable et al., 1998; Kalichman & Nachimson, 1999; Major & Gramzow, 1999), decreased self-esteem (Frable et al., 1998), and diminished self-efficacy (Kalichman & Nachimson, 1999). These outcomes are theorized to be the result of vigilance, effortful identity management, social isolation, and impaired close relationship functioning related to the concealment of a stigmatized identity (Pachankis, 2007).

Research with sexual minority individuals provides robust evidence for the applicability of these models to sexual identity management. For example, Beals, Peplau, and Gable (2009) studied the effects of disclosure-related behaviors on well-being among lesbians and gay men using an experience-sampling design. During the two-week study period, participants completed a short survey after they had the opportunity to share their sexual orientation with another person, whether or not they chose to do so. Participants also completed measures of positive affect, self-esteem,

and satisfaction with life every evening during the study period. The authors found that “participants reported significantly greater positive affect, self-esteem, and satisfaction with life on days when they disclosed compared to days in which they had an opportunity to disclose but decided to conceal their sexual orientation” (p. 7). This study provided extremely valuable evidence about the impact on sexual identity management on well-being, as it was the first study to evaluate the relationship between sexual identity management behaviors and well-being on a daily basis. Strachan, Bennett, Russo, and Roy-Byrne’s (2007) longitudinal study of HIV-positive men and women produced similar results. In this study, greater overall levels of disclosure of HIV-positive status and minority sexual orientation independently predicted physical health (i.e., increased CD4 cell counts) over an approximately yearlong period. Finally, Jackson and Mohr’s (2016) study with sexual minority college students demonstrated that the use of effortful concealment strategies related to sexual orientation was associated with increased depression and decreased life satisfaction, over and above the effects of the motivation to conceal one’s sexual orientation and simple non-disclosure. These findings suggest that, in general, the potential positive outcomes of accurate self-presentation outweigh the risk of discrimination that sexual minorities face when disclosing their identities. However, there are several limitations to this literature. Apart from Beals et al.’s (2009) daily diary study, these studies were not able to examine how self-presentation impacts well-being on a day-to-day basis, and instead measured the relationship between overall outness or disclosure and global well-being. This is problematic given that the likelihood recall bias is quite high when the measured constructs are emotionally

salient (Shiffman, Stone, & Hufford, 2008). Furthermore, more precise measurement of well-being is preferable given that identity management behaviors likely impact well-being on an immediate, rather than global, level (Beals et al., 2009).

Social support. Disclosure process theory indicates that an increased availability of social support partially mediates the link between accurate self-presentation and increased well-being (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010), and this link has been demonstrated with several stigmatized populations (e.g., Bos, Kanner, Muris, Janssen, & Mayer, 2009; Kalichman, DiMarco, Austin, Luke, DiFonzo, 2003; Smith, Rossetto, & Peterson, 2008; Vyavaharkar et al., 2011). On the other hand, concealment of a stigmatized identity can lead individuals to miss opportunities for social support, harming their overall well-being (Heckman et al., 2004; Pachankis, 2007). This pattern is echoed in research with sexual minorities, though more research is needed. Beals et al. (2009) found that levels of perceived social support partially mediated the relationship between disclosure gay or lesbian sexual orientation and well-being on a day-to-day basis; social support was a more robust mediator of this relationship than either emotional suppression or emotional processing. Furthermore, a greater level of perceived social support (aggregated across the study period) was associated with greater well-being and lower levels of depression two months after the study period, controlling for baseline well-being and depression. The authors suggest that this mediation relationship likely exists because “gay men and lesbians are skilled at picking suitable disclosure recipients” (i.e., those who are likely to be accepting; p. 10). Similarly, lesbian women in a daily diary study who perceived greater daily support for their sexual orientation identity reported

greater well-being at two-month follow-up (Beals & Peplau, 2005). These results suggest that social support may be an important mechanism in the relationship between accurate self-presentation and well-being among sexual minorities.

Identity Management among Nonmonosexuals

Content of Identity Management Decisions among Nonmonosexuals

Identity management behaviors. Across genders, nonmonosexual individuals clearly tend to be less “out” than their lesbian and gay peer (Balsam & Mohr, 2007; Legate, Ryan, & Weinstein, 2012). Nonmonosexual women also report lower levels of outness compared to lesbians (Morris, Waldo, & Rothblum, 2001). This finding holds when sexual orientation is rated along a continuum from exclusively heterosexual to exclusively homosexual; a higher degree of lesbian self-identification is associated with greater outness (Morris et al., 2001). Studies of outness provide important information about nonmonosexuals’ experiences with sexual identity management; however, they are unable to capture how the use of specific identity management strategies lead to differences in outness levels between nonmonosexual and lesbian and gay participants. Furthermore, typical measures of outness refer to openness about sexual orientation broadly; they do not specify whether respondents should answer the items based on their openness about their specific sexual orientation identity (e.g., bisexual), or their sexual minority status generally. Given that some nonmonosexuals may be out as sexual minorities without being out as nonmonosexual specifically, whether by identifying as lesbian/gay or using an umbrella term such as queer, traditional measures of outness may be

inappropriate for nonmonosexual samples and may obscure their true levels of outness.

Mohr, Jackson, and Sheets' (2016) cross-sectional survey-based study helped to fill this gap by comparing nonmonosexuals to lesbians and gay men in terms of identity management behaviors. Participants in the study reported up to two sexual identity labels they felt were most self-descriptive, as well as all of the sexual identity labels they use when describing themselves to others. Using this information, participants were categorized based on whether they present as a heterosexual, as the "other minority" (e.g., a lesbian who sometimes describes herself as bisexual or a bisexual who sometimes describes herself as a lesbian), and/or as their actual orientation. The nonmonosexual participants in the study were much more likely than lesbian and gay participants to report using multiple identity labels, suggesting an active use of identity management strategies based on social context. In contrast, lesbian and gay participants were 2.5 times as likely as nonmonosexuals to uniformly present their true sexual orientation identity to others in all contexts. A great deal of research suggests that lesbian, gay, and nonmonosexual individuals strategically employ different labels when explicitly describing their sexual orientation to others in order to avoid stigma or signal something about their identities (e.g., Button, 2004; Bohan & Russell, 1999; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2001). Nonmonosexuals, in particular, seem to have a unique relationship with sexual orientation labels. They are more likely than other sexual minorities to identify with multiple labels (Galupo et al., 2015), to use labels to signal their political beliefs or attitudes (Morndini et al., 2016),

and to feel that available sexual orientation labels are an inaccurate reflection of their identity (Dyar et al., 2015).

There are several limitations to the current body of research regarding identity management among nonmonosexuals. For the most part, models of sexual orientation identity management were developed with gay men and lesbians only, but are assumed to apply equally well to nonmonosexuals. The studies that do include nonmonosexual participants tend not to analyze nonmonosexuals separately, and therefore may obscure nonmonosexuals' unique identity management patterns. These problems are apparent when examining survey items created to assess sexual minorities' identity management behaviors. For example, Button's (2004) survey asks the respondent to rate the truthfulness of the statement, "To appear heterosexual, I sometimes talk about fictional dates with members of the opposite sex" (p. 478); however, the intent of such a behavior would not necessarily be concealment among nonmonosexual individuals. Additionally, King et al.'s (2014) study, which included bisexual participants but analyzed them together with lesbian and gay participants, asked respondents if they ever "communicated in a vague or incomplete manner to avoid revealing [their] orientation" (p. 11). This item may be difficult for nonmonosexual participants to interpret, as they may be unsure whether to consider their nonmonosexual identity or their sexual minority status when answering the item. Furthermore, these frameworks neglect identity management strategies unique to nonmonosexuals (e.g., mentioning several romantic partners of different genders, identifying as a sexual minority without identifying as nonmonosexual specifically).

Self-presentational accuracy. As with sexual minorities in general, no studies have directly examined self-presentational accuracy among nonmonosexuals. However, Mohr, Jackson, & Sheets' (2016) study can be viewed through the lens of self-presentational accuracy. The authors found that nonmonosexual participants were less likely to accurately self-present their sexual orientation than their lesbian and gay peers, either because they were presenting as heterosexual or as lesbian/gay. The results also demonstrate the existence of a "disclosure gap" for nonmonosexuals; meaning that nonmonosexuals tend to be more out as sexual minorities generally than as nonmonosexual specifically, either because they are presenting themselves as lesbian/gay or because they are using terms that indicate sexual minority status without specifically disclosing nonmonosexuality (e.g., queer). In light of these results, it seems that self-presentational accuracy of sexual orientation may be a particularly appropriate construct for nonmonosexuals. The concept of self-presentational accuracy allows for the description of nuanced behaviors that cannot be neatly categorized as disclosure or concealment, but can be placed upon a spectrum of accuracy (e.g., a bisexual woman self-presenting as a lesbian in some contexts, a pansexual man self-presenting as a sexual minority without revealing his nonmonosexuality). The study's focus on self-presentation also avoids the problems related to generic measures of outness described above (i.e., is outness referring to nonmonosexual identity or sexual minority status?). As this is a single study, more research is needed to definitively state that nonmonosexuals demonstrate lower levels of self-presentational accuracy than their lesbian and gay peers, but it provides important evidence to this effect. However, the study was limited in that it could not

explore the factors that predict self-presentational accuracy, such as social context and interpersonal goals. The authors also required that all participants identify as bisexual, meaning that nonmonosexuals who use other labels (e.g., pansexual, fluid) may have been excluded.

Researchers have proposed several factors that may contribute to nonmonosexuals' probable lower levels of self-presentational accuracy compared to lesbians and gay men. For example, nonmonosexuals may be attempting to avoid the stigmatization they confront from both heterosexual and gay and lesbian communities by using multiple sexual orientation labels depending on social context (Mulick & Wright, 2002; Israel & Mohr, 2004). As Balsam and Mohr (2007) note,

Like lesbians and gay men, [nonmonosexuals] must come to terms with a sexual identity that diverges from societal expectations. However, bisexuals must also cope with the challenges of having a sexual identity that deviates from the expectations of some lesbian and gay men, which may lead nonmonosexuals to develop even higher levels of vigilance to signs of stigma than their [lesbian and gay] counterparts" (p. 308).

As a result of this vigilance, nonmonosexual individuals may vary their sexual orientation self-presentation based on their perceptions of the likelihood of encountering stigma from their current interaction partners, as well as the type of bias they are likely to face. A pansexual woman, for example, might present herself as a lesbian or generically queer when interacting with lesbians and gay men to avoid nonmonosexuality-specific stigma, and as heterosexual when interacting with heterosexual individuals in order to avoid homonegativity altogether. Such self-

presentational strategies would decrease her level of self-presentational accuracy in both contexts. Nonmonosexuals also report feeling pressured to identify as heterosexual or lesbian/gay based on gender of their current romantic partners, which may contribute to internal conflict about one's nonmonosexual identity and lower levels of accuracy (Dobinson, Macdonnell, Hampson, Clipsham, & Chow, 2005).

The complexity of nonmonosexuals' sexual orientation identities may also contribute to nonmonosexuals' tendency to use multiple sexual orientation labels, thereby varying their level of self-presentational accuracy. Nonmonosexuals have more options for sexual orientation labels that describe some aspect of their sexual orientation without being completely accurate (e.g., lesbian, queer, bisexual, heterosexual). For some individuals, nonmonosexuality may also represent a fluidity in sexual orientation, the immateriality of partner gender to sexual attraction, or a rejection of the binary system of gender rather than a stable orientation or an attraction to a particular sex or gender, and some nonmonosexuals may choose specific labels (e.g., queer, pansexual) to signal these attitudes (Morandini et al., 2016; Ross et al., 2012). These complex aspects of nonmonosexuals' sexual orientation identities may make accurate disclosure of nonmonosexuality interpersonally difficult or awkward, and may therefore result in lower overall levels of self-presentational accuracy.

Antecedents to Identity Management Decisions among Nonmonosexuals

Person-level antecedents.

Romantic partner gender. Qualitative research suggests that nonmonosexuals' identity management experiences may be impacted by the gender

of their current romantic partners. In particular, romantic partner gender tends to influence whether nonmonosexual individuals are perceived to be heterosexual or lesbian/gay (Hequembourg & Brallier, 2009; Ross et al., 2010). Dyar, Feinstein, and London's (2015) study of nonmonosexual women provided preliminary quantitative support for the idea that romantic partner gender can influence nonmonosexuals' self-presentation decisions. Women in this study who self-reported being in same-sex relationships also reported higher levels of outness in everyday life compared than those in different-sex relationships. The authors note that nonmonosexual women in same-sex relationships "must disclose, implicitly or explicitly, their nonheterosexual identity if they are to disclose their current relationship with a female partner" (p. 449). Unfortunately, the study was not able to assess whether the participants in same-sex relationships were more out as nonmonosexual specifically, or as sexual minorities generally.

Mohr et al.'s (2016) study addressed this issue with a sample of nonmonosexual men and women. In that study, nonmonosexual participants who self-reported being in a different-sex romantic relationship were significantly less likely to self-present as their actual sexual orientation, less likely to present as gay or lesbian, and more likely to present as heterosexual. Indeed, nonmonosexuals' greater likelihood of self-presenting as heterosexual compared to lesbians and gay men was fully explained by their likelihood of having a different-sex partner. Furthermore, nonmonosexuals in same-sex relationships were more likely to be out as sexual minorities than as nonmonosexual specifically. These findings may be the result of the ease with which nonmonosexuals in different-sex relationships can pass as

heterosexual and avoid heterosexism, and the ease with which nonmonosexuals in same-sex relationships can pass as lesbian/gay and avoid monosexism. However, the results may also be related to the pervasiveness of binary models of sexual orientation. Friends and family members may readily assume that a nonmonosexual person is either “really straight” or “really lesbian/gay” based on the gender of his or her current romantic partner (Dyar et al., 2015; Mohr et al., 2016; Yost & Thomas, 2012). While these studies provide compelling evidence for the importance of partner gender to nonmonosexuals’ self-presentation decisions, they are limited by a focus on long-term, monogamous romantic partners. It is possible that casual sexual partners may also influence nonmonosexuals’ self-presentation strategies (e.g., if a nonmonosexual individual is dating partners of multiple genders concurrently), but no research has examined the role of such partners to date. This deficit is especially surprising given that nonmonosexuals women tend to have more sex partners and be less interested in monogamy than heterosexual women and lesbians (Mark, Rosenkrantz, & Kerner, 2014; Oswalt & Wyatt, 2013).

Label accuracy. Nonmonosexual individuals are especially likely to feel that currently available sexual orientation labels are not an accurate reflection of their experiences with sexual identity (Galupo et al., 2014; Vrangalova & Savin-Williams, 2010; Vrangalova & Savin-Williams, 2012). Dyar et al.’s (2015) study provided evidence that perceived label inaccuracy may impact nonmonosexuals’ self-presentation decisions. Participants in the study reported their preferred sexual orientation label and how well this term captured their sexual identity; a blank space was provided so participants were not limited to terms provided by the authors. The

authors found that nonmonosexual participants reported lower levels of self-perceived accuracy of sexual identity labels compared to lesbians; that is, they reported that even their most preferred sexual orientation label captured their identity less well than the lesbian women reported the label “lesbian” captured their identity. Furthermore, self-perceived label inaccuracy partially explained the nonmonosexual participants’ lower levels of outness, suggesting that nonmonosexual women may feel less motivated to accurately disclose their sexual orientation when they are uncommitted to their sexual orientation label.

Galupo, Mitchell, and Davis’ (2015) survey-based study provided further support for the idea that label inaccuracy may contribute to nonmonosexuals’ lower levels of accurate sexual orientation self-presentation compared to exclusively homosexual participants. Participants in the study were asked to specify their primary sexual orientation label, as well as any secondary identities they use to describe their sexual orientation. Nonmonosexual participants were much more likely than monosexual participants to nominate a secondary sexual orientation label, and were more likely to provide definitions for the labels they nominated. Similarly, Rust found that nonmonosexual participants were more likely than monosexual participants to endorse more than one sexual orientation label (2000). This identification with several sexual orientation labels could make accurate disclosure of one’s true sexual orientation identity more difficult for nonmonosexual individuals. Similarly, Galupo, Davis, Gryniewicz, and Mitchell’s (2014) qualitative study suggested that nonmonosexual participants were more likely than monosexual participants to state that their sexual orientation identities fell outside of the typical conceptualizations of

sexual orientation represented by the scales. As one pansexual female participant stated, “I feel that this scale is trying to smooch me into a category. And none of them fit. It’s like sticking a square in a circle” (p. 446). In particular, nonmonosexual participants objected to the scales’ interpretation of nonmonosexuality as a hybrid between heterosexuality and homosexuality. A queer participant noted that one of the scales, “linguistically constructs bisexuality and pansexuality as existing between two binary poles which always positions bisexuality in relationship to being between hetero/homosexuality” (p. 451). These critiques illustrate that nonmonosexuals may feel that sexual orientation labels, as they are typically defined and measured, are inaccurate or unrepresentative of their experiences, potentially leading them to feel that their self-presentation using these labels is inaccurate. More research is needed to examine how label accuracy affects self-presentation among nonmonosexuals.

Identity centrality. Sexual identity centrality is another potential predictor of self-presentational accuracy among nonmonosexuals. Nonmonosexual women in Dyar et al.’s (2015) study reported lower levels of sexual identity centrality than lesbian women, as well as lower levels of outness to family and in everyday life. Self-perceived label accuracy partially mediated the relationship between sexual orientation and identity centrality; and identity centrality partially mediated the relationship between sexual orientation and outness. Thus, the authors suggest that nonmonosexual women’s lower levels of outness compared to lesbians may stem from a sense that even their most preferred sexual orientation label is inaccurate, leading to a lower level of sexual identity centrality and therefore less motivation to be out. These findings suggest that both label inaccuracy and identity centrality may

be an important between-person factor influencing nonmonosexuals' self-presentation decisions, though replication is needed.

Identity uncertainty. Nonmonosexual participants in Dyar et al.'s (2015) study also reported greater identity uncertainty than lesbian participants, and this difference was mediated by the frequency with which nonmonosexual participants were assumed to be lesbians. This finding highlights another potential source of complexity in nonmonosexuals' identity management decisions. Rather than an internal sense of uncertainty about their orientation, nonmonosexual women "are assumed to be lesbians as a result of the common assumption that bisexuality is a transitory stage in identifying as lesbian/gay. In turn, this assumption may lead them to question the validity of their bisexual identities" (Dyar et al., 2015, p. 49). Again, this uncertainty may lead nonmonosexual women to feel less motivation to accurately self-present as nonmonosexual and risk stigmatization from lesbians and gay men.

Mohr et al.'s (2016) study also investigated the role of identity uncertainty in sexual orientation self-presentation. The authors found that higher levels of identity uncertainty partially explained nonmonosexual participants' greater likelihood of self-presenting as a different sexual orientation than their actual orientation compared to lesbian and gay participants. Furthermore, identity uncertainty partially predicted the magnitude of nonmonosexuals' "disclosure gap" (i.e., the extent to which they were more out as sexual minorities than as nonmonosexual). Finally, nonmonosexual participants with high levels of identity uncertainty were less likely to be out in everyday life than other nonmonosexuals. The authors speculate that nonmonosexual individuals with high levels of identity uncertainty "may be more likely than others to

present themselves as [lesbian/gay] or heterosexual because they are experimenting with different public personas, not exposed to positive models of out bisexuals, or not sufficiently committed to a bisexual identity to risk the potential rejection that could result from disclosure” (p. 12).

Finally, Dyar et al.’s (2017) survey-based study provided further evidence for the role of identity uncertainty in nonmonosexuals’ lower levels of accurate sexual orientation disclosure. Participants in this study, all of whom were nonmonosexual men and women, completed measures of sexual identity uncertainty, monosexist experiences, outness as nonmonosexual, internalized identity illegitimacy, frequency of assumed lesbian/gay and heterosexual identities, and management of romantic partner gender. Among participants with lower levels of outness as nonmonosexual, experiences of monosexism were related to greater internalized identity illegitimacy, which was in turn related to greater identity uncertainty. Furthermore, among participants who more frequently encountered assumptions about their sexual orientation identity, greater identity uncertainty was related to greater romantic partner gender management (i.e., the degree to which dating decisions are influenced by a desire to be seen in romantic relationships with a particular gender). Both results indicate that monosexism, identity uncertainty, and outness are part of an interrelated process. As the authors discuss, is possible that higher levels of sexual orientation disclosure protect some nonmonosexual individuals from the impact of monosexism on identity uncertainty. Alternatively, it is possible that nonmonosexual individuals with higher levels of identity uncertainty are less likely to disclose their sexual orientation. They note the need for longitudinal research to clarify the directionality

of this relationship. Based on this research, it seems quite likely that identity uncertainty is an important person-level predictor of self-presentation among nonmonosexuals.

Event-level antecedents.

To my knowledge, no research has examined event-level predictors of self-presentation among nonmonosexuals specifically. Extant research on situational predictors of sexual orientation identity management has tended to combine nonmonosexual participants with lesbian and gay participants, which may obscure differences in the way these predictors function among nonmonosexuals and exclusively gay individuals. For example, research with sexual minorities suggests that homosexuality-related acceptance and rejection cues are important antecedents to self-presentation decisions, but these cues may operate differently among nonmonosexuals. Given nonmonosexuals' experiences of both heterosexism and monosexism, they may be vigilant not only to cues related to homosexuality, but also cues related to nonmonosexuality. However, no research has examined and compared how these cues influence nonmonosexuals' self-presentation decisions. Similarly, more research with nonmonosexuals is needed to determine how interaction partner sexual orientation, relationship closeness, and intra- and interpersonal goals (all of which have been shown to be important event-level predictors among sexual minorities generally) impact nonmonosexuals' self-presentation decisions.

Outcomes of Nonmonosexuals' Self-Presentation Decisions

Well-being. Schrimshaw, Siegel, Downing, and Parsons (2013) studied the effects of disclosure and concealment on the mental health of behaviorally bisexual

men who had not revealed their same-sex sexual behavior to female sexual partners. They found that overall levels of concealment of same-sex sexual behavior, but not levels of disclosure, were associated with mental health. Meidlinger and Hope (2014) found that the relationships between disclosure and concealment and psychological health were the same for nonmonosexuals as they were for lesbians and gay men in this study. However, nonmonosexuals reported lower levels of disclosure than lesbian and gay participants. Taken together, these findings indicate that nonmonosexuals' lower levels of well-being may be the result of decreased levels of implicit disclosure, rather than effortful concealment. As the authors note, "Full disclosure of [nonmonosexuals'] sexual orientation may then require explicit disclosure rather than more implicit or indirect means that may be available to both heterosexual and gay or lesbian individuals" (p. 495). Finally, Mohr et al.'s (2016) study examined the nuances of the link between identity management behaviors and well-being for nonmonosexuals by assessing nonmonosexual participants' levels of outness as sexual minorities as well as levels of outness as nonmonosexual. The results indicated that outness as nonmonosexual predicted well-being over and above outness as a sexual minority, but only with respect to outness to one's family (rather than outness in everyday life). The authors speculate that coming out to one's family as nonmonosexual specifically may be particularly important because this disclosure may be motivated by authenticity goals. On the other hand, "In everyday life, outness may mostly serve the function of promoting peer relationships with other sexual minority people—a benefit that can be gained without being specifically out as [nonmonosexual]" (p. 1477).

These findings indicate that identity management behaviors and self-presentation may have an important impact on nonmonosexuals' well-being, and that this link is likely somewhat different for nonmonosexuals than it is for lesbians and gay men. However, there are few studies on the topic, and except for Mohr et al.'s (2016) study, these studies were not able to assess how specific self-presentational strategies (e.g., self-presentation as bisexual versus queer) could differentially impact nonmonosexuals' well-being. This gap seems particularly important to study given that nonmonosexuals are more likely than lesbians and gay men to use multiple self-presentational strategies (Mohr et al., 2016).

Social support. The link between self-presentation, social support, and well-being may be particularly important for nonmonosexuals, who preliminary evidence suggests may exhibit the lowest level social support of any sexual orientation group (Hsieh, 2014). In their cross-sectional study of behaviorally bisexual men, Schrimshaw et al. found that men who concealed their same-sex sexual behavior from friends and family members reported higher levels of depression and anxiety symptoms and lower levels of positive affect than men who disclosed this behavior, and social support from friends and family members partially mediated this relationship. Again, much more research on the impact of self-presentation on social support among nonmonosexuals is needed. This research is particularly important given that nonmonosexuals may be differentially affected by different forms of social support (e.g., general social support versus support for nonheterosexuality versus support for nonmonosexuality).

Outness. Conceptually, it seems obvious that self-presentational patterns should be related to overall levels of outness, but this relationship is likely nuanced for nonmonosexual individuals. Mohr et al.'s (2016) study is the only research on the link between self-presentation and outness among nonmonosexual individuals to date. Participants in the study (including lesbians, gay men, and nonmonosexuals) indicated their self-presentation patterns by listing all of the sexual orientation labels they currently use, and also took a typical measure of outness (i.e., a measure that referred to openness with one's sexual orientation broadly rather than specifying a particular identity). The authors found that participants (both nonmonosexual and gay/lesbian) who self-presented as heterosexual reported lower overall outness levels than other participants. On the other hand, nonmonosexual participants who misrepresented themselves as gay/lesbian reported higher overall levels of outness, while lesbian and gay participants who presented as nonmonosexual reported lower overall levels of outness. Indeed, those nonmonosexual participants who presented themselves as gay or lesbian had the highest levels of outness of all the nonmonosexual participants. A separate sample of nonmonosexual participants reported on their self-presentation patterns as well as outness levels as nonheterosexual and as nonmonosexual specifically. The authors found that participants who presented themselves as gay/lesbian tended to report a larger disclosure gap (i.e., the difference between levels of outness as a sexual minority versus outness as nonmonosexual specifically) than other nonmonosexuals.

These results indicate that typical measures of outness operate differently for nonmonosexual than for gay and lesbian respondents, suggesting that research using

these measures with nonmonosexual samples should be interpreted with caution (as discussed above). They also demonstrate that that self-presentation and outness are meaningfully linked for nonmonosexual individuals, but not in a straightforward manner (as the authors note, nonmonosexuals who *misrepresent* their sexuality paradoxically report the highest levels of outness). Thus, more research is needed to examine how and why different self-presentation patterns result in different overall outness levels among nonmonosexuals. Furthermore, research is needed on the day-to-day identity management strategies nonmonosexuals use to pursue their goals for self-presentation and outness.

Conclusion

In sum, there is a great deal of research suggesting that nonmonosexuals exhibit unique identity management patterns compared to lesbians and gay men. There is also research suggesting possible antecedents, content, and consequences of nonmonosexuals' identity management decisions. However, much of the literature is limited by its exclusion of nonmonosexuals, its direct application of models created with lesbians and gay men to nonmonosexuals, and its focus on dichotomous outcomes (e.g., disclosure versus concealment) that may be inappropriate for nonmonosexuals. Furthermore, most of the relevant studies are cross-sectional, which limits the precise measurement of daily, specific identity management behaviors and the way these behaviors impact day-to-day well-being. More research that is tailored to nonmonosexuals (including research that utilizes a self-presentational accuracy framework) and that can examine day-to-day identity management patterns is needed

in order to learn about how and why nonmonosexuals make identity management decisions and the impact of these decisions on well-being.

Appendix B: Description of Procedures

Thank you for your interest in participating in our study about the experiences of bisexual, pansexual, and other nonmonosexual women. The next phase of the study will take place over a **14-day period**. During this period, you will have **two responsibilities** as a participant:

1. **Nightly surveys:** Each evening during the study period, you will be required to take a brief survey. Each day, you will receive a unique link at 5pm Eastern Daylight Time (EDT) that will allow you to access that night's survey. If you have not responded by 10pm EDT that evening, a reminder email will automatically be sent to you. Please try to take the survey **within two hours of going to bed each night**. The surveys will close daily at 6am EDT the following morning. If you have not responded to the survey by then, you will receive an email explaining that the survey has closed with instructions on how to proceed. This process will be repeated during each day of your participation.
2. **Self-presentation surveys:** During the study period, you will complete a brief survey **each time** you have a "self-presentation opportunity" during the window from when you wake up in the morning until you complete the nightly survey. Self-presentation opportunities are times in your daily life when it occurs to you that you have *could* share your sexual orientation with another person, *whether or not you choose to do so*, and *whether or not the way you presented your sexual orientation was an accurate representation of your identity*. These opportunities can occur during interactions that take place

face-to-face, over the phone or texting, or over the internet. Using your personal smartphone or computer, you will complete the self-presentation survey **as soon as possible** after each self-presentation event during the 14-day period. You can access the self-presentation at any time here [link], and it will also be included in a reminder email you will receive each morning during the study period. There is no limit to the number of self-presentation surveys you can complete per day. You should complete a self-presentation survey whenever:

- You realize you could share your sexual orientation with another person, but you **choose not to do so** (e.g., you decline to state your sexual orientation, avoid using gender pronouns to refer to a romantic partner, or avoid conversations about dating).
- You communicate about your sexual orientation **directly** (e.g., using a sexual orientation label to refer to yourself).
- You communicate about your sexual orientation **indirectly** (e.g., using a gender pronoun to refer to a romantic partner).
- You communicate about your sexual orientation **vaguely, or you imply something** about your sexual orientation (e.g., mentioning your participation in an LGBTQ organization).
- You communicate about your sexual orientation **accurately** (e.g., using the correct sexual orientation label to refer to yourself).

- You communicate about your sexual orientation **inaccurately** (e.g., you refer to yourself using an incorrect or non-preferred sexual orientation label).
- You communicate about your sexual orientation **incompletely** (e.g., only referring to romantic partners of one gender).

Below are some examples of situations that would require the participant to complete a self-presentation survey:

- Danna, who identifies as bisexual, is talking with a new-coworker. The co-worker asks Danna if she has a boyfriend. Danna says, “no” and changes the subject, rather than revealing that she is bisexual and in a relationship with a woman.
- Julia identifies as queer and is married to a man. When a friend assumes that Julia is heterosexual, Julia corrects him, and tells him that she identifies as queer.
- Sandra identifies as heteroflexible and has dated both men and women in the past. When discussing her sexual history with her doctor, she only discusses her past relationships with men.
- Yun identifies as pansexual. When she is hanging out with a group of friends, she makes a joke that implies she is a lesbian.
- Michele, who identifies as bisexual, mentions to a classmate that she has a date planned with her boyfriend later that night. It occurs to her that her classmate probably assumes that she is straight, and that she could tell the classmate that she is bisexual, but she decides not to.

- Gloria, who identifies as queer, mentions to an acquaintance that she likes a popular website for queer women, but does not explicitly refer to herself as queer.
- Monica, who is bisexual, tells her co-worker that she bought a present for her wife. She knows that this suggests to the co-worker that she is a sexual minority.
- Lila, who identifies as omnisexual, tells her mother that she is omnisexual. Lila's mother previously assumed she was a lesbian.

You will receive 50 cents for completing the first 10 nightly surveys and \$1.25 for the last four nightly surveys (for a maximum of \$10). You will also receive a \$1 bonus per completed self-presentation survey (capped at one per day).

Appendix C: Procedures Comprehension Check

1. The study period lasts for _____ days.
 - 7
 - 14
 - 21

2. During the study period, I am required to take a survey:
 - Every morning within two hours of waking up
 - Every afternoon at 3pm
 - **Every evening within two hours of going to sleep**

3. I should also complete a survey (called the *self-presentation survey*):
 - Every time it occurs to me that I could share my sexual orientation with another person, and I *choose to share* my sexual orientation
 - Every time it occurs to me that I could share my sexual orientation with another person, and I *choose not to share* my sexual orientation
 - **Every time it occurs to me that I could share my sexual orientation with another person, *whether or not I choose to share***

4. When I choose to share my sexual orientation with another person, I should only complete a self-presentation survey about times when I *share accurately and completely* about my sexual orientation
 - True
 - **False**

5. Ana, who is bisexual, tells her boss that she needs to take a day off of work for her girlfriend's birthday. The boss did not previously know about Ana's sexual orientation. Does this count as a self-presentation event?
 - **Yes**
 - No

Appendix D: Eligibility Survey

Thank you for your interest in this study! Please complete the following questions to determine if you are eligible to participate.

1. Are you 18 years of age or older?
 - Yes
 - No

2. What is your current gender identity?
 - Female
 - Male
 - Genderqueer/Nonbinary
 - Different identity (please state):

3. Are you transgender?
 - Yes
 - No

4. What of the following **best** describes your sexual orientation?
 - Heterosexual/straight
 - Gay
 - Lesbian
 - Bisexual
 - Pansexual
 - Queer
 - Asexual
 - Other (please list):

5. Are you sexually and/or romantically attracted to people of more than one sex/gender?
 - Yes
 - No

6. In which country do you currently reside? _____

7. Do you currently have a smartphone (e.g., iPhone, Android, Pixel, Galaxy)?
 - Yes
 - No

Appendix E: Demographics (baseline survey)

1. What is your age? [Text box]
2. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - Less than High School
 - High School or GED
 - Some college
 - Associate's Degree (Two-Year Degree)
 - Bachelor's Degree
 - Master's Degree
 - Professional Degree (M.D., J.D., Ph.D.)
3. What is your total household income?
 - Less than \$10,000
 - \$10,000 to \$19,999
 - \$20,000 to \$29,999
 - \$30,000 to \$39,999
 - \$40,000 to \$49,999
 - \$50,000 to \$59,999
 - \$60,000 to \$69,999
 - \$70,000 to \$79,999
 - \$80,000 to \$89,999
 - \$90,000 to \$99,999
 - \$100,000 to \$149,999
 - \$150,000 or more
4. What is your employment status (*check all that apply*)?
 - Employed part-time
 - Employed full-time
 - Full-time student
 - Part-time student
 - Military (active duty)
 - Military (reservist)
 - Unemployed and currently looking for work
 - Unemployed and NOT currently looking for work
 - Unable to work due to disability
 - Homemaker/full-time caretaker
 - Retired

5. Please check all of the following that describe your race/ethnicity.

- Asian
- Black
- Latina
- Native American or Alaska Native
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- White
- Other (please specify): (text box)

6. Please choose the option that best describes the area where you live.

- Urban
- Suburban
- Rural

7. What state or province do you live in? [Text box]

8. Please *describe* your sexual orientation (e.g., the genders of people you are attracted to romantically and/or sexually, the importance of gender to your attractions, etc.) [Text box]

9. To what extent are you **sexually** attracted to **men**?

Not at all					A great deal
1	2	3	4	5	6

10. To what extent are you **sexually** attracted to **women**?

Not at all					A great deal
1	2	3	4	5	6

11. To what extent are you **sexually** attracted to **genderqueer/nonbinary** individuals?

Not at all					A great deal
1	2	3	4	5	6

12. To what extent are you **romantically** attracted to **men**?

Not at all					A great deal
1	2	3	4	5	6

13. To what extent are you **romantically** attracted to **women**?

Not at all					A great deal
1	2	3	4	5	6

14. To what extent are you **romantically** attracted to **genderqueer/nonbinary** individuals?

Not at all					A great deal
1	2	3	4	5	6

15. On a scale from one to ten, with “1” being a person whose **physical attributes** including clothing, hair, style of dress, way of walking, or way of talking are “very feminine” and consistent with those stereotypically assigned to women, and “10” being a person whose clothing, hair, style of dress, way of walking, and way of talking are “very masculine” or most like those stereotypically assigned to men, which number best represents **your own** physical attributes?

Very “feminine”				Somewhere in between					Very “masculine”
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

16. Which best describes your **current** relationship status?

- Single
- Casually dating/hooking up with a single partner
- Casually dating/hooking up with multiple partners
- In a committed relationship with a single partner
- In committed relationships with multiple partners
- One primary partner and at least one casual partner
- Other (please describe): _____

17. [If not single]: What are the gender(s) of your **current** romantic/sexual

partner(s)? *(Check all that apply)*

- Male
- Female
- Genderqueer/nonbinary

18. [If not single]: Are your **current** romantic/sexual partner(s) aware that you are (preferred nonmonosexual identity)?

- Yes
- No
- Unsure
- Some are, some are not

19. What are the gender(s) of your all of the romantic/sexual partner(s) you have had **throughout your lifetime**? *(Check all that apply)*

- Male
- Female
- Genderqueer/nonbinary

Appendix F: Label Accuracy (baseline survey)

1. In your current life, what do you tell others your sexual orientation is? Please select all of the sexual orientation labels you currently use with others, including accurate and inaccurate labels. Bisexual

- Asexual
- Bicurious
- Bisexual
- Fluid
- Demisexual
- Gay
- Gray-A
- Homoflexible
- Lesbiflexible
- Heteroflexible
- Heterosexual/straight
- Lesbian
- Omnisexual
- Pansexual
- Polysexual
- Queer
- Other [Text box]

2. Please select all of the sexual orientation labels that feel accurate to some degree.

- Asexual
- Bicurious
- Bisexual
- Fluid
- Demisexual
- Gay
- Gray-A
- Homoflexible
- Lesbiflexible
- Heteroflexible
- Heterosexual/straight

- Lesbian
- Omnisexual
- Pansexual
- Polysexual
- Queer
- Other [Text box]

3. What is your **most preferred** sexual orientation label?

- Asexual
- Bicurious
- Bisexual
- Fluid
- Demisexual
- Gay
- Gray[A
- Homoflexible
- Lesbiflexible
- Heteroflexible
- Heterosexual/straight
- Lesbian
- Omnisexual
- Pansexual
- Polysexual
- Queer
- Other [Text box]

4. How well does this term capture your sexual identity?

Not at all						Perfectly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix G: Sexual and Nonmonosexual Identity (baseline survey)

For each of the following questions, please mark the response that best indicates your current experience as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person. Please be as honest as possible: Indicate how you really feel now, not how you think you should feel. There is no need to think too much about any one question. Answer each question according to your initial reaction and then move on to the next.

Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. My sexual orientation is an insignificant part of who I am.
2. My sexual orientation is a central part of my identity.
3. To understand who I am as a person, you have to know that I'm [preferred nonmonosexual identity].
4. Being a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person is a very important aspect of my life.
5. I believe being [preferred nonmonosexual identity] is an important part of me.
6. I'm not totally sure what my sexual orientation is.
7. I keep changing my mind about my sexual orientation.
8. I can't decide whether I am bisexual or homosexual.
9. I get very confused when I try to figure out my sexual orientation.
10. I prefer to keep my same-sex romantic relationships rather private.
11. I keep careful control over who knows about my same-sex romantic relationships.
12. My sexual orientation is a very personal and private matter.

Use the following rating scale to indicate how open you are about being [preferred nonmonosexual identity] to the people listed below. Try to respond to all of the items, but leave items blank if they do not apply to you. If an item refers to a group of people (e.g., work peers), then indicate how out you generally are to that group.

- 1 = person definitely does NOT know about your sexual orientation status
- 2 = person might know about your sexual orientation status, but it is NEVER talked about
- 3 = person probably knows about your sexual orientation status, but it is NEVER talked about
- 4 = person probably knows about your sexual orientation status, but it is RARELY talked about
- 5 = person definitely knows about your sexual orientation status, but it is

RARELY talked about

- 6 = person definitely knows about your sexual orientation status, and it is SOMETIMES talked about
- 7 = person definitely knows about your sexual orientation status, and it is OPENLY talked about

1. Mother
2. Father
3. Siblings (sisters, brothers)
4. Extended family/relatives
5. My new straight friends
6. My work peers
7. My work supervisor(s)
8. Members of my religious community (e.g., church, temple)
9. Leaders of my religious community (e.g., church, temple)
10. Strangers, new acquaintances
11. My old heterosexual friends

The purpose of this scale is to measure the extent to which you identify with each of the following statements as it relates to identifying as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity individual]. Please indicate the corresponding number for each item as it relates to you personally.

Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	

1. People probably do not take me seriously when I tell them I am [preferred nonmonosexual identity].
2. I am reluctant to tell others of my [preferred nonmonosexual identity] identity.
3. I feel that I have to justify my [preferred nonmonosexual identity] identity to others.
4. People might not like me if they found out that I am [preferred nonmonosexual identity].
5. When I talk about being [preferred nonmonosexual identity], I get nervous.
6. It's unfair that I am attracted to people of more than one gender
7. I wish I could control my sexual and romantic feelings by directing them at a single gender.
8. Being [preferred nonmonosexual identity] prevents me from having meaningful intimate relationships.
9. I would be better off if I would identify as gay or straight, rather than [preferred nonmonosexual identity].
10. I am grateful for my [preferred nonmonosexual identity] identity.

11. I am comfortable being [preferred nonmonosexual identity].
12. I am proud to be [preferred nonmonosexual identity].
13. I feel freedom with people of different genders.
14. Being [preferred nonmonosexual identity] is rewarding to me.
15. I am okay with my [preferred nonmonosexual identity] identity.
16. My life would be better if I were not [preferred nonmonosexual identity].

Please respond to the following items related to your connection to lesbian gay, bisexual, and queer (LGBQ) communities and your identity as an LGBQ person.

Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I have spent time trying to find out more about the LGBQ community.
2. I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly LGBQ people.
3. I have a clear sense of my sexual orientation and what it means for me.
4. I am happy that I am a member of the LGBQ community.
5. I am not very clear about the role of my sexual orientation in my life.
6. In order to learn more about LGBQ culture I have often talked to other people about LGBQ culture.
7. I have a lot of pride in the LGBQ community and its accomplishments.
8. I participate in LGBQ cultural practices such as pride events, benefits, or marches.
9. I feel a strong attachment towards the LGBQ community.
10. I feel good about being a part of the LGBQ community.

Appendix H: Affect (nightly surveys)

Indicate to what extent you have felt this way over the past day.

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	2	3	4	5

- Interested
- Distressed
- Excited
- Upset
- Strong
- Guilty
- Scared
- Hostile
- Enthusiastic
- Proud
- Irritable
- Alert
- Ashamed
- Inspired
- Nervous
- Determined
- Attentive
- Jittery
- Active
- Afraid

Appendix I: Satisfaction with Life (nightly surveys)

Please indicate your agreement with each item:

Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6

- In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
- The conditions of my life are excellent.
- I am satisfied with my life.
- So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
- If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing

Appendix J: Social Support (nightly surveys)

This scale is made up of a list of statements each of which may or may not be true about you. For each statement check “definitely true” if you are sure it is true about you and “probably true” if you think it is true but are not absolutely certain. Similarly, you should check “definitely false” if you are sure the statement is false and “probably false” if you think it is false but are not absolutely certain. Please complete the items based on how you feel today.

Definitely false			Definitely true
1	2	3	4

1. If I wanted to go on a trip for a day (for example to the beach, the country or mountains), I would have a hard time finding someone to go with me.
2. I feel that there is no one I can share my most private worries and fears with.
3. If I were sick, I could easily find someone to help me with my daily chores.
4. There is someone I can turn to for advice about handling problems with my family.
5. If I decide one afternoon that I would like to go to a movie that evening, I could easily find someone to go with me.
6. When I need suggestions on how to deal with a personal problem, I know someone I can turn to.
7. I don't often get invited to do things with others.
8. If I had to go out of town for a few weeks, it would be difficult to find someone who would look after my house or apartment (the plants, pets, garden, etc.).
9. If I wanted to have lunch with someone, I could easily find someone to join me.
10. If I was stranded 10 miles from home, there is someone I could call who could come and get me.
11. If a family crisis arose, it would be difficult to find someone who could give me good advice about how to handle it.
12. If I needed some help in moving to a new house or apartment, I would have a hard time finding someone to help me.

Appendix K: Self-Presentational Accuracy and Identity Management Behaviors (self-presentation surveys)

For the following questions, “interaction partner” refers to the person or people you were interacting with when you presented your sexual orientation.

1. Did you share *any* information about your sexual orientation during this self-presentation opportunity? This includes both explicitly labeling your sexual orientation and hinting at your sexual orientation (for example, using gendered pronouns to refer to a romantic partner or referencing your participation in an LGBTQ organization). It does not matter whether the information you shared was accurate, inaccurate, or partially accurate.

- Yes
- No

2. To what degree did your behavior during this interaction allow your interaction partner to accurately understand your identity as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person?

Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Very much	Completely
1	2	3	4	5

3. To what degree do you think your interaction partner accurately understands your identity as a $\{e://Field/SO\}$ person after this interaction?

Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Very much	Completely
1	2	3	4	5

4. During this interaction, to what extent did you...

Not at all			A lot
1	2	3	4

- Try to create the impression that you are [preferred nonmonosexual identity]
- Try to create the impression that you are a lesbian/gay
- Try to create the impression that you are heterosexual/straight
- Try to create the impression that you are a sexual minority (i.e., LGBQ person) in general

5. If you explicitly labeled your identity during this interaction, please indicate the label you used:

- Bisexual
- Pansexual
- Fluid
- Queer
- Lesbian
- Gay
- Straight/heterosexual
- Other:_____

6. Please briefly describe your behavior during this interaction as it relates to your sexual orientation. What did you do to share, hide, or avoid your sexual orientation (if anything)? [text box]

Appendix L: Interaction characteristics (self-presentation surveys)

1. Which of the following best describes the format of this interaction?
 - In-person
 - Phone call
 - Text message
 - Internet (e.g., email, messaging)
 - Other

2. What were the sexual orientation(s) of your interaction partners(s)?
 (*Check all that apply if you were interacting with multiple people*)
 - Asexual
 - Lesbian/gay
 - Bisexual/pansexual/nonmonosexual
 - Heterosexual
 - Unsure

3. What is your primary relationship with your interaction partner?
 (*Check all that apply if you were interacting with multiple people*)
 - Family member(s)
 - Friend(s)
 - Romantic partner(s)
 - Boss/supervisor(s)
 - Co-worker(s)
 - Teacher/professor(s)
 - Classmate(s)
 - Acquaintance(s)
 - Stranger(s)
 - Other(s) (please describe): _____

If you were interacting with multiple people during this interaction, please choose the person who had the most influence on your decisions about whether and how to present your sexual orientation during this interaction. Answer the following questions about that person (your "primary interaction partner"). If you were only interacting with one person, that person is automatically your primary interaction partner.

4. How emotionally close are you to your interaction partner?

Someone I never									Someone with
-----------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--------------

see or hear from									whom I have a deeply emotional relationship
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

5. **Before this interaction**, how likely did you think it was that your primary interaction partner would **accept** your identity as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person?

Not at all likely				Extremely likely
1	2	3	4	5

6. **Before this interaction**, how likely did you think it was that your interaction partner would **reject** your identity as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person?

Not at all likely				Extremely likely
1	2	3	4	5

7. Has your primary interaction partner ever expressed or implied having **positive** views about **nonmonosexual (e.g., bisexual, pansexual)** people?

- Yes
- Maybe
- No

8. Has your primary interaction partner ever expressed or implied having **negative** views about **nonmonosexual (e.g., bisexual, pansexual)** people?

- Yes
- Maybe
- No

9. Has your primary interaction partner ever expressed or implied having **positive** views about **LGBTQ** people in general?

- Yes
- Maybe
- No

10. Has your primary interaction partner ever expressed or implied having **negative** views about **LGBTQ** people in general?

- Yes
- Maybe
- No

11. Has your primary interaction partner ever expressed or implied having **positive** views about **heterosexual** people?

- Yes
- Maybe
- No

12. Has your primary interaction partner ever expressed or implied having **negative** views about **heterosexual** people?

- Yes
- Maybe
- No

13. **After this interaction**, how **accepted** do you feel in terms of your identity as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person?

Not at all accepted				Completely accepted
1	2	3	4	5

14. **After this interaction**, how **rejected** do you feel in terms of your identity as a [preferred nonmonosexual identity] person?

Not at all rejected				Extremely rejected
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix M: Goals (self-presentation surveys)

How much did each of these reasons play a role in your decisions about whether and how to share information about your sexual orientation during this interaction?

Not at all	A little bit	Somewhat	Very much	Completely
1	2	3	4	5

- To become closer to my interaction partner(s)
- To be true to myself
- To make communication with my interaction partner(s) easier
- To avoid hostility or judgement
- To relieve tension I was feeling
- To get my interaction partner(s) to approve of me
- To educate my interaction partner(s)
- To receive benefits (e.g., good grades) or avoid negative consequences (e.g., loss of my job)
- To respect my right to privacy

Appendix N: Tables and Figures

Table 1

Demographics of Participants

Demographic Factor	<i>n</i> (%)
Sexual Orientation	
Bisexual	101 (61.2%)
Queer	41 (24.8%)
Pansexual	14 (8.5%)
Other	9 (5.4%)
Race/Ethnicity^a	
Asian	6 (3.6%)
Black/African American	13 (7.9%)
Hispanic/Latina	11 (6.7%)
Native American or Alaska Native	3 (1.8%)
White/Caucasian	141 (85.5%)
Other	8 (4.8%)
Income	
Under \$10,000	12 (7.3%)
\$10,000-\$29,999	43 (26%)
\$30,000-\$49,999	37 (22.4%)
\$50,000-\$69,999	27 (16.4%)
\$70,000-89,999	14 (8.5%)
\$90,000 and above	22 (19.4%)
Education	
High School Diploma or GED	1 (0.6%)
Some College	15 (9.1%)
Associate Degree	6 (3.6%)
Bachelor's Degree	55 (33.3%)
Master's Degree or more	88 (53.3%)
Romantic Partner Gender	
Single	36 (21.8%)
Casual or multiple partners	49 (29.7%)
Male	59 (35.8%)
Female	18 (10.9%)
Nonbinary	3 (1.8%)

Note. Total sample size: $n = 165$.

^a = Response options were not exclusive; percentages add up to greater than 100%.

Table 2

Correlations of Goals Measure Items with Established Scales

Item	Scale	Correlation
“To become closer to my interaction partner”	Close Relationship – Reasons for HIV Disclosure (Derlega et al., 2004)	.76**
“To be true to myself”	Affirmation – Lesbian, Gay, & Bisexual Identity Scale (Mohr & Kendra, 2011)	.24*
“To make communication with my interaction partner easier”	Approach – Friendship Motivations (Elliot et al., 2006)	.47**
“To avoid hostility or judgement”	Rejection – Reasons for HIV Nondisclosure (Derlega et al., 2004)	.76**
“To relieve tension I was feeling”	Catharsis – Reasons for HIV Disclosure (Derlega et al., 2004)	.45**
“To get my interaction partner to approve of me”	Avoidance – Friendship Motivations (Elliot et al., 2006)	.43**
“To educate my interaction partner”	Education – Reasons for HIV Disclosure (Derlega et al., 2004)	.71**
“To receive benefits (e.g., good grades) or avoid negative consequences (e.g., loss of my job)”	Avoidance – Friendship Motivations (Elliot et al., 2006)	.40**
“To protect my right to privacy” ^a	Privacy – Reasons for HIV Nondisclosure (Derlega et al., 2004)	.60**

^a = tested in the current sample; * $p < .05$.; ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations Among Person-Level Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Identity centrality	4.57	0.94	1-6	---								
2. Preferred label accuracy	5.99	0.88	3-7	.27*	---							
3. Outness to World	3.62	1.55	1-6	.26*	.22*	---						
4. LGB community engagement	4.83	1.03	1-6	.40*	.20*	.37*	---					
5. Identity affirmation	5.74	1.03	1-7	.48*	.38*	.23*	.30*	---				
6. Identity uncertainty	1.94	0.96	1-6	-.19*	-.35*	-.14	-.07	-.32*	---			
7. Concealment motivation	3.20	1.20	1-6	-.46*	-.16*	-.52*	-.46*	-.46*	.22*	---		
8. Anticipated monosexism	4.08	1.23	1-7	-.12	-.10	-.43*	-.19*	-.43*	.12	.22*	---	
9. Internalized monosexism	1.66	0.81	1-7	-.12	-.25*	-.15	-.10	-.60*	.15	.19*	.42*	---

Note. Means and standard deviations for all variables provided in original scales. Range represents range of possible scores for each measure. LGB = Lesbian, gay, and bisexual.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations Among Event-Level Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	ICC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Accuracy of behavior (SP)	2.78	1.52	1-5	.15	---	.85*	.41*	.37*	-.16*	-.24*	.33*	.15*	.34*	.51*	.16*	.14*	.10*	-.12*
2. Accuracy of understanding (SP)	2.70	1.53	1-5	.12	.99*	---	.52*	.41*	-.22*	-.27*	.39*	.17*	.43*	.58*	.15*	.15*	.14*	-.16*
3. Acceptance cues towards NMs (SP)	2.00	0.80	1-3	.16	.14	.14	---	.65*	-.21*	-.18*	.47*	.11*	.39*	.57*	.10*	.03	-.02	-.07*
4. Acceptance cues towards SMs (SP)	2.30	0.83	1-3	.17	.24	.29	.79*	---	-.15*	-.29*	.29*	.21*	.34*	.54*	.11*	.05	-.02	-.02
5. Rejection cues towards NMs (SP)	1.45	0.66	1-3	.15	.22	.30	.37*	.29	---	.70*	-.17*	.06	-.06	-.39*	-.06	-.07	-.09*	.02
6. Rejection cues towards SMs (SP)	1.37	0.64	1-3	.11	.16	.19	.27	.20	.94*	---	-.11*	-.12*	.00	-.43*	-.07	-.06	-.06	.04
7. IP = NM (SP)	0.22	0.41	0-1		.13	.14	.21	.53	.04	-.27	---	.16*	.18*	.35*	.07	.02	-.01	-.04

Table 4 continued

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	ICC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
8. IP = LG (SP)	0.18	0.39	0-1		-.09	-.02	.34	.25	.11	.13	.48	---	-.10*	.10*	.06	.09*	.02	-.03
9. Closeness to IP (SP)	4.71	2.98	1-10	.22	-.19	-.21	.05	.30	.13	.04	-.06	.47	---	.45*	.09*	.05	.00	-.01
10. Anticipated acceptance (SP)	3.67	1.23	1-5	.10	.12	.21	.27	.36	-.17	-.22	.26	.47*	-.16	---	.14*	.08*	.04	-.09*
11. Social support (N)	3.16	0.62	1-4	.79	.00	.11	-.03	-.01	-.45*	-.59*	-.06	-.01	-.14	.37*	---	.28*	.18*	-.16*
12. Life satisfaction (N)	3.85	1.12	1-6	.84	.00	-.01	-.06	.04	-.39*	-.46*	-.05	-.16	-.09	.39*	.41*	---	.40*	-.40*
13. Positive affect (N)	2.59	0.84	1-5	.57	.18	.18	.10	.15	-.13	-.25*	.14	.27	.02	.32*	.32*	.47*	---	-.28*
14. Negative affect (N)	1.81	0.66	1-5	.44	-.04	-.06	.07	.23	.22*	.22	-.06	.07	.31*	-.11	-.21*	-.36*	-.10	---

Note. Means and standard deviations for all variables provided in original scales and based on data aggregated to the person level. Range represents range of possible scores for each measure. ICCs shown for continuous variables. Within-person correlations located above diagonal; between-person correlations located below diagonal. SP = self-presentation survey; N = nightly survey; NMs = nonmonosexuals; SMs = sexual minorities; LG = lesbian or gay.

* $p < .05$.

Table 5

Sample Descriptions of Self-Presentation Events

I texted my landlord about my boyfriend visiting but didn't mention either of us being queer. (1,1)	I told a stranger who was hitting on me at the gym that I'm gay so he'd leave me alone. (5,2)
Discussed dating experiences and only referred to the men I've dated, neglecting to mention that I also date women. (1,1)	I referred to myself as gay to a classmate I do not know very well. I use gay as an umbrella term like queer but they may not have known this and may just as likely have thought I meant that I am a monosexual lesbian woman. (3,3)
I stated "as a lesbian" in reference to myself, however I don't identify as a lesbian strictly - I prefer queer and believe that better captures my experience. However I used the word lesbian rather than go into detail about myself. (1,4)	Wearing a pride shirt at the ballpark and a stranger asked where I got it. Expressed joy at being with so many other queer people here. (4,3)
After much hesitation I ultimately chose not to endorse that I like men and women on my Facebook page. (3,2)	Clarified I was not gay, but bisexual. (5,5)
I enthusiastically talked about it being Lesbian Visibility Day to the class that I teach with whom I had previously hinted at that I was queer. Although this implied that identify as a lesbian, instead of queer/bi. (3,3)	Was talking with a friend about how as a bi woman partnered with a straight man, there are times when my partner attends queer events with me and times when he doesn't, and I talked about how my partner and I choose to navigate that. (5,5)

Note. Numbers in parentheses are the participant's rating of self-presentation accuracy, on a scale of 1 to 5. The first number is the participant's rating of the accuracy of her behavior regarding her sexual orientation during event; the second is her rating of the accuracy of her interaction partner's understanding of her sexual orientation after the event.

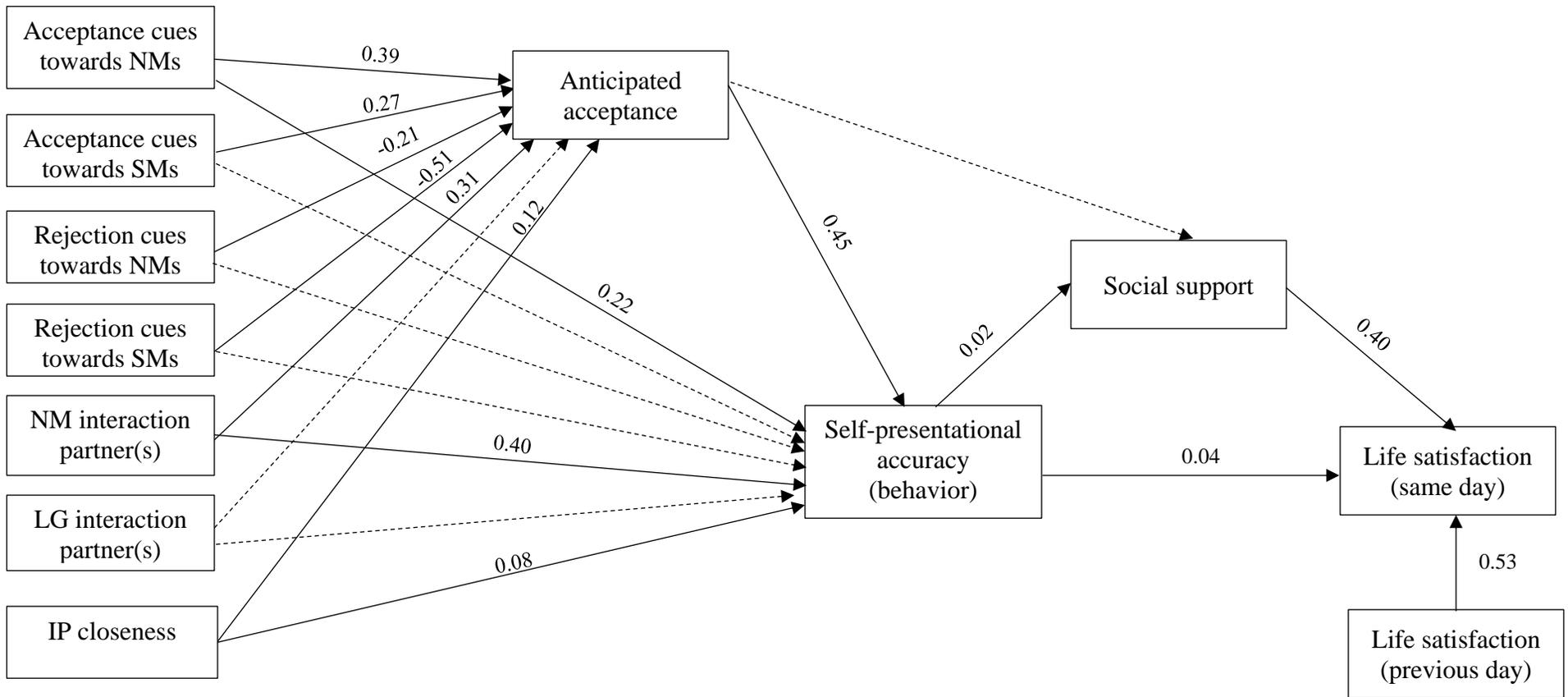


Figure 1. Unstandardized coefficients from within-person (Level 1) model linking situational factors, self-presentational accuracy, social support, and life satisfaction. Only paths significant at the .05 level are shown; non-significant paths are depicted by dashed lines. This figure does not depict the covariance between the predictors to the far left, which were included in the model. NM = nonmonosexual; SM = sexual minority; LG= lesbian or gay; IP = interaction partner.

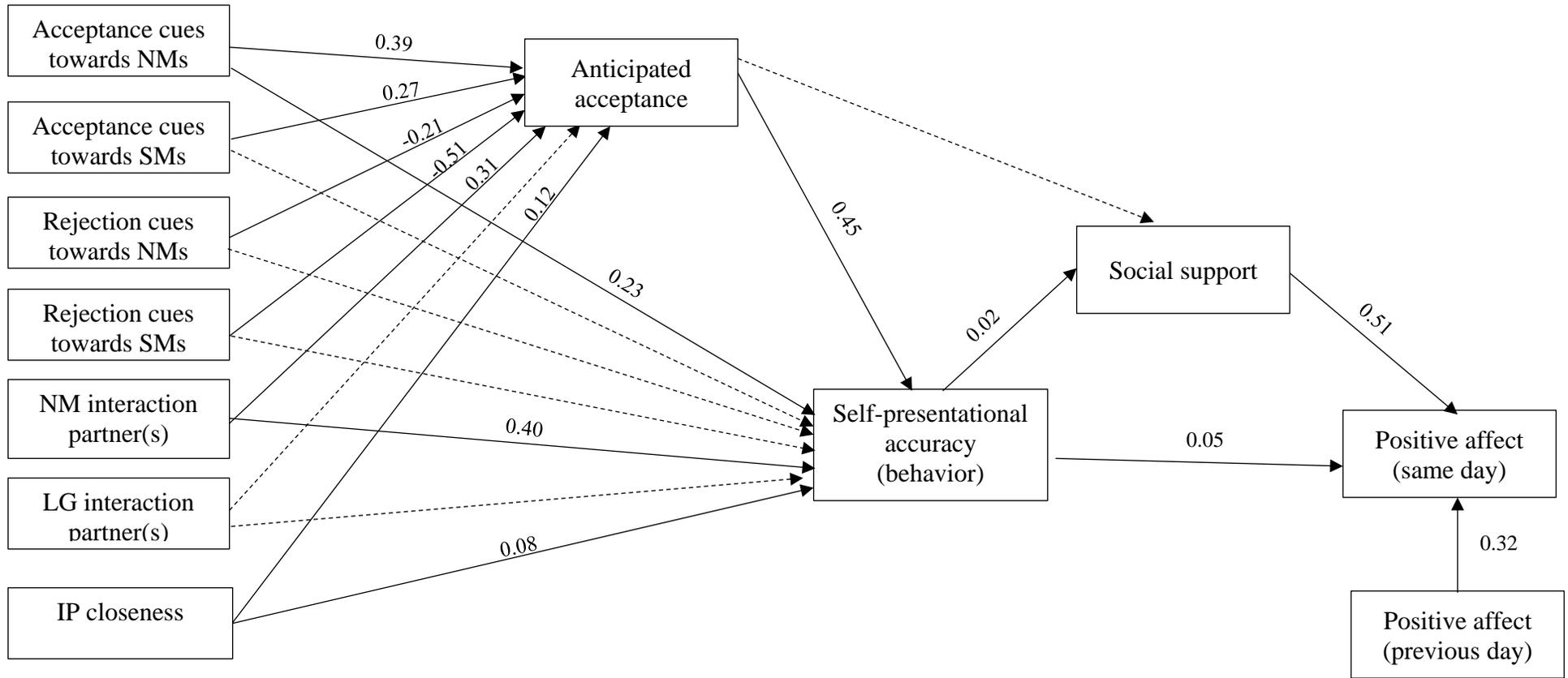


Figure 2. Unstandardized coefficients from within-person (Level 1) model linking situational factors, self-presentational accuracy, social support, and positive affect. Only paths significant at the .05 level are shown; non-significant paths are depicted by dashed lines. This figure does not depict the covariance between the predictors to the far left, which were included in the model. NM = nonmonosexual; SM = sexual minority; LG= lesbian or gay; IP = interaction partner

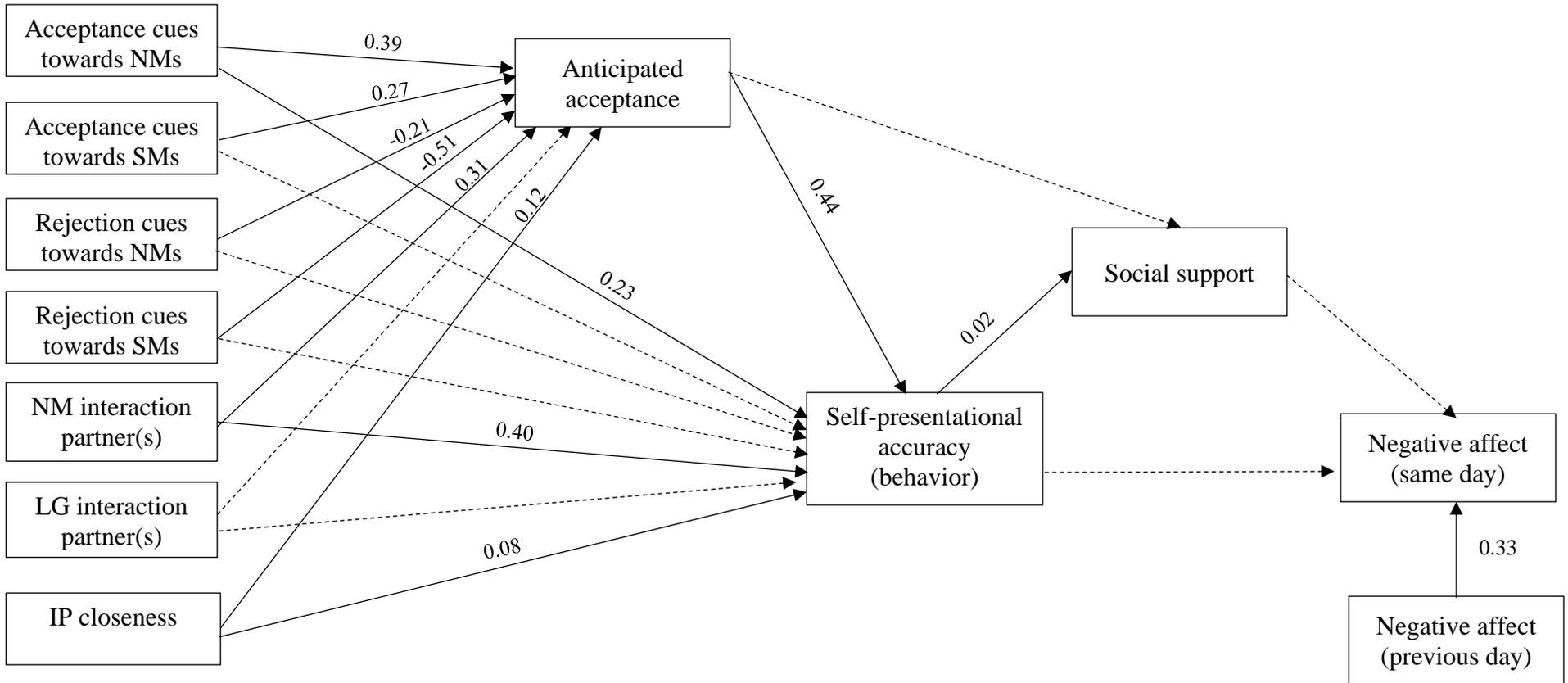


Figure 3. Unstandardized coefficients from within-person (Level 1) model linking situational factors, self-presentational accuracy, social support, and negative affect. Only paths significant at the .05 level are shown; non-significant paths are depicted by dashed lines. This figure does not depict the covariance between the predictors to the far left, which were included in the model. NM = nonmonosexual; SM = sexual minority; LG= lesbian or gay; IP = interaction partner.

Table 6

Within-Person Indirect Effects

Predictor	Mediator	Outcome	Estimate	90% Confidence Interval
Acceptance cues towards NMs ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	0.177*	[0.108, 0.258]
Acceptance cues towards SMs ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	0.120*	[0.062, 0.185]
Rejection cues towards NMs ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	-0.093*	[-0.169, -0.016]
Rejection cues towards SMs ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	-0.230*	[-0.316, -0.149]
Interaction partner = NM ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	0.139*	[0.066, 0.223]
Interaction partner = LG ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	0.063	[-0.024, 0.151]
Interaction partner closeness ^a	Anticipated acceptance	Self-presentational accuracy	0.056*	[0.040, 0.073]
Self-presentational accuracy	Social support	Life satisfaction	0.008*	[0.003, 0.015]
Self-presentational accuracy	Social support	Positive affect	0.010*	[0.004, 0.018]
Self-presentational accuracy	Social support	Negative affect	-0.002	[-0.012, 0.010]

Note. Asterisk denotes a statistically significant indirect effect ($p < .10$) as indicated by the confidence interval. Self-presentational accuracy refers to accuracy of behavior; results using accuracy of understanding were similar. NMs = nonmonosexuals; SMs = sexual minorities; LG = lesbian or gay.

^a Results are shown for the life satisfaction model; results for the positive and negative affect models are similar.

Table 7

Comparisons of Total Effects on Self-Presentational Accuracy

Comparison	Within-person	Between-person
NM acceptance cues versus SM acceptance cues	Est = 0.28; $z = 1.74$; $p = .08$	Est = -0.79; $z = -0.80$ $p = .42$
NM rejection cues versus SM rejection cues	Est = 0.62; $z = 2.51$; $p = .01^*$	Est = 2.07; $z = 0.66$; $p = .51$
IP = NM versus IP = SM	Est = 0.74; $z = 3.37$; $p = .001^*$	Est = 1.61; $z = 0.80$; $p = .44$

Note. Results are presented for accuracy of behavior; results for accuracy of understanding are similar. Est = (coefficient 1 – coefficient 2); NM = nonmonosexual; SM = sexual minority; IP = interaction partner.

* $p < .05$.

Table 8

Between-Person Correlations Among Person-Level Variables and Self-Presentational Accuracy

Baseline variable	Accuracy of behavior	Accuracy of understanding
Identity centrality	.27	.27*
Preferred label accuracy	.34*	.37*
Outness to World	.29*	.26*
LGB community engagement	.08	.05
Identity affirmation	-.13	-.16
Identity uncertainty	.28	.27*
Concealment motivation	.03	.00
Anticipated monosexism	-.35*	-.33*
Internalized monosexism	-.35*	-.33*

* $p < .05$.

Table 9

Between-Person Differences in Mean Self-Presentational Accuracy by Romantic Partner Gender

Outcome	Results	Significant Differences
<u>Committed Relationships (male partners vs. female partners)</u>		
Self-Presentational Accuracy (Behavior)	$F(1, 70) = .04, p = .841$	
Self-Presentational Accuracy (Understanding)	$F(1, 70) = .37, p = .548$	
Presentation as NM (Behavior)	$F(1, 70) = .02, p = .901$	
Presentation as LG (Behavior)	$F(1, 70) = 10.90, p = .002^*$	Female partners > Male partners
Presentation as Heterosexual (Behavior)	$F(1, 70) = 3.89, p = .053$	
Presentation as SM (Behavior)	$F(1, 70) = .46, p = .500$	
Presentation as NM (Understanding)	$F(1, 70) = .17, p = .682$	
Presentation as LG (Understanding)	$F(1, 70) = 68.23, p = .000^*$	Female partners > Male partners
Presentation as Heterosexual (Understanding)	$F(1, 70) = 8.46, p = .005^*$	Female partners < Male partners
Presentation as SM (Understanding)	$F(1, 70) = 6.76, p = .011^*$	Female partners > Male partners
<u>All Relationships (male partners only vs. female partners only vs. partners of multiple genders)</u>		
Self-Presentational Accuracy (Behavior)	$F(2, 100) = .45, p = .642$	
Self-Presentational Accuracy (Understanding)	$F(2, 100) = .52, p = .599$	
Presentation as NM (Behavior)	$F(2, 100) = .43, p = .655$	
Presentation as LG (Behavior)	$F(2, 100) = 9.27, p = .000^*$	Female only > Male only and Multiple genders
Presentation as Heterosexual (Behavior)	$F(2, 100) = 1.99, p = .142$	
Presentation as SM (Behavior)	$F(2, 100) = 2.44, p = .092$	
Presentation as NM (Understanding)	$F(2, 100) = .176, p = .839$	
Presentation as LG (Understanding)	$F(2, 100) = 38.31, p = .000^*$	Female only > Male only and Multiple genders
Presentation as Heterosexual (Understanding)	$F(2, 100) = .535, p = .006^*$	Female only < Male only and Multiple genders
Presentation as SM (Understanding)	$F(2, 100) = 4.29, p = .016^*$	Female only > Male only

Note. NM= nonmonosexual; LG = lesbian or gay; SM = sexual minority.

* $p < .05$.

Table 10

Within-Person Effects of Interaction Partner Type on Self-Presentational Accuracy and Identity Management Behaviors

Interaction Partner type	Accuracy of behavior	Presentation as NM	Presentation as LG	Presentation as heterosexual
Family member	-0.29	-0.25	-0.26*	0.39*
Friend	0.92*	0.69*	0.01	-0.25*
Romantic partner	1.14*	0.87*	-0.03	-0.30*
Co-worker	-0.09	-0.16	0.05	-0.06
Classmate	-0.74*	-0.38	0.22	0.03
Boss	-0.34	-0.46	-0.17	0.04
Professor	-0.48	-0.34	-0.04	0.37
Acquaintance	-0.12	-0.02	0.16	-0.05
Stranger	-0.31	-0.20	0.06	0.05

Note. Values listed in each column are unstandardized regression coefficients from a multilevel regression analysis. Results using accuracy of understanding are similar to the results shown for accuracy of behavior. NM= nonmonosexual; LG = lesbian or gay; SM = sexual minority.

* $p < .05$.

Table 11

Within-Person Correlations Among Interaction Goals and Self-Presentational Accuracy

Goals	Accuracy of behavior	Presentation as NM	Presentation as LG	Presentation as heterosexual
<i>Closeness</i> – “To become closer to my interaction partner”	.49*	.50*	.06*	-.25*
<i>Authenticity</i> – “To be true to myself”	.68*	.70*	.27*	-.47*
<i>Communication</i> – “To make communication with my interaction partner easier”	.17*	.13*	.18	-.02
<i>Avoidance</i> – “To avoid hostility or judgement”	-.56*	-.56*	-.21*	.55*
<i>Tension Relief</i> – “To relieve tension I was feeling”	.18*	.19*	.03	-.06
<i>Approval</i> – “To get my interaction partner to approve of me”	-.16*	-.15*	-.05	.30*
<i>Education</i> – “To educate my interaction partner”	.37*	.42*	.09*	-.27*
<i>Benefits</i> – “To receive benefits or avoid negative consequences”	-.33*	-.31*	-.10*	.40*
<i>Privacy</i> – “To protect my right to privacy”	-.59*	-.59*	-.24*	.41*

Note. Results using accuracy of understanding are similar to the results shown for accuracy of behavior. NM= nonmonosexual; LG = lesbian or gay.

* $p < .05$.

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