IN SEARCH OF GREATER UNDERSTANDING OF ORGANIZATIONAL
INCLUSION: AN EXPANDED APPROACH

by

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ABSTRACT

GREGORY CHARLES BERKA. In search of greater understanding of organizational inclusion: an expanded approach. (Under the direction of DR. DAVID WOEHR)

Organizational inclusion research, which includes assessing how employees experience a sense of feeling included or excluded in their work group, is a young and developing research area. Feelings of inclusion can be based on both formal policies and informal practices within an organization or work group (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998). This study seeks to expand the concept of inclusion by testing whether the more informal feelings of belongingness, feeling known, and feeling valued for being unique in one's work group have associations with key organizational outcomes previously tied to inclusion research. In addition, the research evaluates the influence of an employee's own demographics or attributes, both on an absolute basis and in relation to one's work group, on feelings of inclusion. Last, the research considers how an employee's tenure in the work group may strengthen or reduce feelings of inclusion.

The results of a confirmatory factor analysis displayed good fit for an inclusion model with five factors: involvement in decision making, access to communication and resources, belongingness, feeling known, and valued for uniqueness. Most of these five factors displayed strong associations with three organizational outcomes: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. The study did not find any significant relationships between one's demographics or attributes, neither on an absolute basis nor in relation to one's work group, with either inclusion or organizational outcomes. The study also did not find that one's tenure in the work group had influence on inclusion factors. The self-report cross sectional survey design may have

methodological issues contributing to these null findings, which are addressed. Overall findings indicate more research is needed for the inclusion concept to gain greater understanding of why employees feel included or excluded within their particular work group or organization.

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From my earliest memories, my mom was an overwhelmingly positive force in my life. She always gently encouraged me to keep on plugging away, or told me to manage things piece by piece. She never doubted that I could accomplish anything, while sharing with me that I can overcome any set-back or ever failure. The risks became far

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INTRODUCTION

In comparison to the labor force of prior decades, the current United States labor force includes a greater proportion of women, is more ethnically and racially diverse, and is older (Toossi, 2004). These trends are expected to continue for the foreseeable future based on immigration, birth rate, and mortality projections. Managing demographically diverse employee groups can be a challenge, as reviews indicate higher levels of demographic diversity relate to increased conflict, reduced communication, and decreased social integration (Joshi, Liao, & Roh, 2010; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Areas of diversity across employees extend beyond demographics, and include attributes such as values, personality, knowledge, skills, education, experience, disability, socioeconomic status, religion, marital status and many other interpersonal differences (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Webber & Donahue, 2001). These expanded areas of diversity are also differences that have the potential to adversely impact employee groups and organizations. As a result, researchers and human resource professionals in organizations have expanded diversity management efforts to understand how to foster feelings of positive affect across a highly heterogeneous mix of employees (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

Effective diversity management policies and practices foster a host of advantages for organizations. Advantages of an effectively integrated diverse workforce include the ability to attract the best personnel, a broader array of perspectives for problem solving, higher levels of flexibility in adjusting to environmental change, and reduction in turnover and absenteeism (Cox & Blake, 1991). In addition, positive outcomes of

workforce diversity include greater access to new segments of the marketplace (Thomas & Ely, 1996), a broader array of talent (Chavez & Wiesenberger, 2008), and higher levels of creativity (McLeod, Lobel, & Cox, 1996). These outcomes of effective diversity management may provide major advantages in a highly competitive global marketplace. As such, a great deal of research and practical attention has been directed to diversity management programs and practices. One developing stream of research is the creation of work environments where diverse individuals feel included, or the study of organizational inclusion (Bilimoria, Joy, & Lang, 2008; Roberson, 2006).

In practice, organizational inclusion policies and initiatives are often implemented to aid in the management and integration of diversity. However, current research does not have a strong grasp on the experience of inclusion from the perspective of the employee. Furthermore, additional empirical research of the inclusion concept is needed to gain greater understanding of predictors and outcomes. This study focuses on the concept of inclusion through assessing the experience of the individual employee in a work group, evaluating predictors and outcomes of the inclusion concept, and contributing to the greater diversity and inclusion management literature.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORY DEVELOPMENT

Organizational Inclusion – Definition and Theory

Inclusion, as a concept, does not have a long history in organizational literature as the advent of specific inclusion research occurs primarily in the 21st century (Roberson, 2006). Prior to the turn of the century, the phenomena of inclusion was researched within social work (Mor Barak, 1999) and social psychology (Brewer, 1991), but the concept's theoretical bases and empirical relationships are still being formed. As a result of the concept's immaturity and trans-disciplinary influences, many definitions of inclusion exist in the literature.

Mor Barak (1999) defines the continuum of inclusion-exclusion as "the individual's sense of being a part of the organizational system in both the formal processes, such as access to information and decision-making channels, and the informal processes, such as 'water cooler' and lunch meetings where informal information and decisions take place" (p. 52). Pelled, Ledford, and Mohrman (1999) define inclusion as "the degree to which an employee is accepted and treated as an insider by others in a work system" (p. 1014). Avery, McKay, Wilson, and Volpone (2008) note the benefits of inclusion to the organization by stating that inclusion is "the extent to which employees believe their organizations engage in efforts to involve all employees in the mission and operation of the organization with respect to their individual talents." Roberson (2006) contends that inclusion is focused on "the removal of obstacles to the full participation and contribution of employees in organizations" (p. 217). Other definitions of inclusion focus directly on the importance of diversity or differences across individuals. Similar to Roberson's (2006) definition, Miller (1998) addresses inclusion as the extent to which

diverse individuals "participate and are enabled to contribute fully" (p. 151). Wasserman, Gallegos, and Ferdman (2008) define inclusion as when "people of all social identity groups [have] the opportunity to be present, to have their voices heard and appreciated, and to engage in core activities on behalf of the collective" (176). Prior definitions of inclusion in organizations are similar, but may not be capturing the same phenomena. The main conclusion to be drawn from the host of definitions is that the research concept of inclusion is multi-faceted and complex.

Theoretical framing of the concept of inclusion is also varied. Yet, similar to the definitions, inclusion theories tend to overlap and interrelate. As the earliest inclusion research emerged in social psychology, Festinger's (1957) social comparison theory and Mead's (1982) symbolic interaction theory provided the initial theoretical framing. Social comparison theory argues that individuals self-evaluate through assessment of their standing within groups (Mullen & Goethals, 1987; Festinger, 1957). Symbolic interaction focuses on how individuals determine their social standing through seeing themselves from others' viewpoints (Collins, 1988). As there may be many viewpoints, the individual needs to synthesize all relevant responses in the environment to assess the personal impact of others' responses (Mullen & Goethals, 1987). Social comparison and symbolic interaction theory together create a concept called interior monologue, which posits that individuals' constantly engage in internal evaluation processes required to make sense of their work environments. The main driver of the on-going evaluation process is individuals' desire to have positive affiliations within groups (Han & Shavitt, 1994).

Social identity theory (SIT) (Turner, 1982; Tajfel, 1982) is also relevant in understanding individuals' feelings and behaviors in group settings. Social identity theory considers that one's self-concept is broken up into two parts, a personal and social identity. The personal identity reflects one's attributes, abilities, and psychological traits. The social identity explains how individuals define themselves with respect to their social environment. Feelings of belongingness to various groups amalgamate to individuals' concept of social identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This means that individuals create beliefs about groups they are members of, as well as beliefs about those in which they are not involved. People attach meaning to their memberships (Tajfel, 1982) and thus, the way people perceive their social reality is strongly influenced by group membership (Alderfer, 1987).

Flipping social identity theory, individuals' exclusion from membership in groups where they desire to be a member can also impact how individuals view themselves. Individuals' dependence on others to satisfy basic needs drive them to create and maintain connections with other people and social systems (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). The "sociometer model" of self-esteem (Leary & Downs, 1995; Leary, Schreindorfer, & Haupt, 1995) theorizes that people monitor acceptances and rejections as both impact their self-esteem. Rejections generate weakened self-esteem which fosters a greater need to find acceptance in another environment. In situations where individuals seek acceptance, they may end up hiding aspects of their personal identity in an attempt to gain membership in a group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In an organizational setting, hiding aspects of one's identity based on concern that those aspects are not aligned with the organizational referent (i.e. work group) could result in the organization losing valuable

skills, perspectives, and insights. Alternatively, rejection from one's work group may result in an employee giving up on trying to be accepted/included, which may adversely impact the employee's well-being and limit pertinent contributions to the organization (Mor Barak, 1999).

Optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991), as a frame to understanding inclusion, has recently re-emerged in the organizational literature. Shore, Randel, Chung, Dean, Holcombe, and Singh (2011) explain there are two common themes consistent in the varied definitions of inclusion: feeling of belongingness and being valued for uniqueness. Optimal distinctiveness theory (ODT) postulates that people seek a balance of a need to belong, or be similar to others, and a need for uniqueness, or to be different than others (Brewer, 1991). In line with prior inclusion theories, peoples' desires for human connections foster the need for belongingness. However, the theory adds that people do not want to view themselves as interchangeable with other group members. Even within groups where individuals ascribe strong affiliation, they also desire feelings of differentiation from other group members (Pickett, Bonner, & Coleman, 2002; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980). Both belongingness and uniqueness needs are important, but one may be more important than the other depending on the situation and characteristics of the individual. As the balance desired may differ across individuals, studies in optimal distinctiveness theory indicate that individuals attempt to restore balance by placing greater value on particular social identities or finding ways to differentiate themselves (Jetten, Spears, & Manstead, 1998; Pickett, Bonner, et al., 2002; Pickett, Silver, & Brewer, 2002). Shore and associates (2011) use ODT's reasoning to extend prior definitions of inclusion to "the degree to which an employee perceives that he or she is an

esteemed member of the work group through experiencing treatment that satisfies his or her needs for belongingness and uniqueness" (p. 1265).

Self-verification theory (Swann, 1983) posits that people prefer to be seen, both in social situations and in organizations, as they see themselves. Or, an individual desires others to actually understand who they are as a unique individual (Purvanova, 2013). Self-verification theory, originally rooted in the relationship literature, has also been tested in organizational settings. This research indicates positive individual and organizational outcomes when employees feel self-verified (Creed & Scully, 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This theory lends support to the valued for uniqueness component of optimal distinctiveness theory, as self-verification postulates individuals desire to feel known for their differences. In addition, it also supports 'belongingness' in that people desire to feel both known and accepted for their differences as well as similarities to the group. This study posits that self-verification is a related, but separate component of inclusion which has not been fully captured in prior definitions of inclusion. As such, the proposed definition of inclusion builds on both Shore and associates (2011) and Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) definitions to include self-verification, or feeling known at work, by offering the following: A feeling of esteem in one's work group captured by his or her feelings of being known, valued for uniqueness, feelings of belonging, access to information and resources, and influence in decision-making. I posit that each inclusion component may have more or less relative value to different employees in varying contexts, but all are relevant dimension of the inclusion concept.

Inclusion measures and empirical findings

The most commonly used measure of inclusion across all disciplines is Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) 15-item Inclusion-Exclusion continuum. This measure of inclusion consists of three dimensions: Work group involvement, influence in decision making, and access to communications and resources. Initial research addressing the Inclusion-Exclusion continuum indicate a strong support for the three dimension model (Mor Barak and Cherin, 1998). Subsequent use of the measure supports consistently reliable results (Acquavita, Pittman, Gibbons, & Castellanos-Brown, 2009; Findler, Wind, & Mor Barak, 2005; Hwang, 2012; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002; Mor Barak, Levin, Nissly, & Lane, 2006). In addition, the measure displayed discriminate validity with the Work Alienation Scale (Pearlin, 1962) and convergent validity with the Organization Satisfaction Scale (Seashore, Lawler, & Mirvis, 1983), which captures a similar phenomenon to inclusion. Mor Barak and Cherin (1998) propose the Inclusion-Exclusion continuum is theoretically distinct from the concept Organizational Satisfaction.

The first goal of the current research is to extend Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) Inclusion-Exclusion measure to capture additional dimensions of inclusion. In their study, Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) work group involvement factor explained the greatest amount of variance at 33.6%. Shore and associates (2011) suggest that the work group involvement factor of inclusion should be broken up into separate sub-factors of sense of belongingness and valued for uniqueness. A sense of belongingness includes feelings of positive affiliation, insider status, and being a part of the team. Valued for uniqueness means one feels heard, appreciated, and that they can fully contribute. This study supports their contention and uses their validated, but unpublished measure to assess

these dimensions (Chung, Shore, Randel, Ehrhart, & Dean, in press). Additionally, the study proposes that feeling known at work (or self-verification at work) (Purvanova, 2013) is also a key dimension of inclusion that should be included in the measure. Purvanova (2013) defines feeling known as, "the belief that others have developed accurate opinions of one's traits and characteristics" (p. 1). As demonstrated in Purvanova's (2013) research, feeling known in a team is strongly related to interpersonal trust. The absence of trust in work groups is theorized to be a key antecedent of increased group conflict and other negative group outcomes (Joshi, Liao, and Roh, 2011). In addition, self-verification studies in dyads or teams indicate positive relationships with increased commitment (Cast & Burke, 2002; Jowett & Clark-Carter, 2006), more creativity as a result of group comfort (Swann, Miltion, & Polzer, 2000), and increased motivation and performance (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Lastly, self-verification theory posits increased positive interpersonal affect, increased interaction satisfaction, and greater ease of interpersonal interaction (Purvanova, 2013). The combination of empirical findings and theorization lend credence to the assertion that self-verification in one's work group, or feeling known for how individuals views themselves, may add to the growing inclusion literature and research.

The combination and extension of prior inclusion research calls for the introduction of a new model capturing the underlying dimensions of the inclusion concept. As a result, this study proposes that a five dimension model of inclusion at the work group level, consisting of belongingness, valued for uniqueness, feeling known, influence and decision-making, and access to communications and resources, is conceptually the most appropriate design. Influence in decision-making and access to

communications dimensions come directly from Mor Barak & Cherin (1998) Inclusion-Exclusion continuum. Belongingness and valued for uniqueness dimensions are borrowed from Chung, Shore, Randel, Ehrhart, and Dean's (in press) Work Group Inclusion scale. Last, Purvanova's (2013) feeling known in work group scale will account for the fifth dimension, called feeling known. See the middle section of the full model presented in figure 1 for a visual depiction of the five dimension model of inclusion.

> Hypothesis 1: The concept of Inclusion in a Work Group is optimally represented as a five dimension model with the dimensions of belongingness, valued for uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resources.

The Relationship of Inclusion with Individual and Organizational Outcomes

As research in the area of inclusion is nascent, most existing work is conceptual in nature. In the few existing empirical studies, findings have generally indicated positive relations between inclusion feelings and both individual and organizational outcomes. The most consistent outcome is a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Acquavita, Pittman, Gibbons, & Castellanos-Brown, 2009; Findler, Wind, & Mor Barak, 2005; Mor Barak et al, 2006) or the inverse relationship of exclusion and job dissatisfaction (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002). Other studies indicate that inclusion is positively related to organizational commitment (Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Findler et al, 2005; Hwang, 2012; Mor Barak, Findler, & Wind, 2001). Employee well-being was demonstrated to relate positively with inclusion (Findler et al, 2005; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002). The last area of research that has displayed significant findings in more than one study is the positive association of exclusion and turnover intentions (Hwang, 2012) or the inverse positive

association of inclusion and intent to remain (Avery et al, 2008). An interesting related finding is that inclusion positively relates to organizational citizenship behaviors (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Keegan, 2007). Finally, research by Nishi (2010) found that feelings of inclusion reduce relationship and task conflict in work groups. Overall, these empirical studies indicate that feelings of inclusion are positive for the employee and encourage positive reciprocal behaviors to the work group and/or the organization as a whole.

Most of the preceding studies use Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) 15-item Inclusion-Exclusion measure which includes three principal dimensions: Work group involvement, influence in decision making, and access to communications and resources. The authors called for empirical work to be conducted using their model and some researchers answered the call, as summarized above. Roberson's (2006) research attempts to disentangle the meanings of diversity and inclusion in organizational settings. Her results indicate a conceptual distinction between the two and she calls for further empirical research on the outcomes of inclusion as an approach to diversity management. A supplementary goal of this proposal is to answer Mor Barak and Cherin (1998) and Roberson's (2006) call for additional empirical research on inclusion. The current study focuses on the three most common empirically tested outcomes of inclusion: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The relationship of each of these three organizational outcomes will be evaluated with respect to the five dimensions of the proposed inclusion model. The hypotheses below propose that all dimensions of inclusion are significantly related to each organizational outcome.

Hypothesis 2: Each of the five dimensions of the inclusion in a work group model (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resources) positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2a: Belongingness, a dimensions of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2b: Feeling valued for uniqueness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2c: Feeling known, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2d: Influence in decision-making, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2e: Access to communications and resources, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Each of the five dimensions of the inclusion in a work group model (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resource) positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3a: Belongingness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Feeling valued for uniqueness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c: Feeling known, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3d: Influence in decision-making, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3e: Access to communications and resources, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: Each of the five dimensions of the inclusion in a work group model (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resource) negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4a: Belongingness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4b: Feeling valued for uniqueness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4c: Feeling known, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4d: Influence in decision-making, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4e: Access to communications and resources, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Workforce and Workgroup Diversity

Within organizational literature, diversity is generally conceptualized as the distribution of differences across individuals (Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003; Triandis, Kurowski, & Gelfand, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Although diversity literature includes a myriad of individual differences, the most common organization-related differences considered in literature are gender, race/ethnicity, and age (Mor Barak, 1999).

Differences across gender, race/ethnicity, and age have been evaluated with respect to individuals' and groups' attitudes, well-being, and behaviors (Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Due to the proximity and saliency of the work group, group level research has become the common context for diversity-related studies (Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Williams and O'Reilly's (1998) comprehensive review of diversity research examined 40 years of studies and included over 80 articles. Overall, they conclude that increased demographic heterogeneity in work groups has negative effects on work attitudes and performance. Subsequent diversity research has generally led to similar conclusions indicating negative implications of group diversity (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999).

Research on relational demography (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) in organizations explores the impact of group level diversity on individual group members, providing over two decades of theoretical arguments and empirically-based findings. Relational demography researchers theorize that individuals in work groups compare their own demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age) to members of their work group in search of similarities or dissimilarities (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Individuals' perception of relative similarity or dissimilarity is proposed to drive both attitudes and behaviors. The contextual focus of organizational relational demography is on individuals' characteristics relative to their work group, not society at large. The primary theory underlying relational demography research is the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Newcomb, 1956). The similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Newcomb, 1956) theorizes that people are, at least initially, drawn to each other based on perceived similarities in demographic characteristics, attitudes, or leisure

activities. Given the opportunity to select another member to interact within a group, individuals have a proclivity to select persons who are similar to themselves (Byrne, Clore, & Worchel, 1966; Lincoln & Miller, 1979). Demographic characteristics possess a high-level of salience in organizational settings as the differences across individuals are visible (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The evaluation can also be based on perceived similarities in values, attitudes, education, interests, and skills; not only on demographics (Baskett, 1973; Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991; Lincoln & Miller, 1979).

Joshi, Liao, and Roh's (2011) recent review of relational demography research found both gender and ethnic-based *dissimilarities* result in reduced quality of peer relationships stemming from trust issues and a lack of personal attraction to group members. Generally, individuals in the demographic minority (relative to their work group) have experienced higher levels of conflict (Pelled et al, 1999), poorer communication (Mayo, 2000), feel more isolated (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002), have lower levels of commitment and satisfaction (Mueller, Finley, Inverson, & Price, 1999) and are more likely to turnover (Sorenson, 2000). Riordan and Wayne's (2007) review of demographic *similarity* studies indicates that both age and race similarity are significantly related to organizational commitment. In addition, age, gender, and race similarity are related to work group identification. Riordan and Wayne's (2007) review also indicated that work group similarity in demographics is related to both openness of communication and turnover intentions.

The plethora of findings connecting group demographic similarity with positive outcomes and/or demographic dissimilarity with negative outcomes builds a strong case for the influence of relational demography in work groups. However, the field of

relational demography research is neither without limitations nor immune to criticisms. A main limitation of relational demography literature is that studies often do not account for the actual gender, race/ethnicity or age of the individual in the minority (Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska, & George, 2004; Linnehan & Konrad, 1999; Riordan, 2001). Thus, much of the literature treats the situation of a white man in a group that is predominantly black women the same as a black woman in a group of predominantly white men. Or, it treats an 80 year-old in a group of 20-year olds the same as a 20 year-old in a group of 80-year olds. One cannot make the assumption with any confidence that the experience is the same, or even similar. Studies investigating the relevance of absolute gender, race, or age, in addition to member standing relative to group composition, have found varying influences within each category (Chattopadhyay, 1999; Riordin & Holliday-Wayne, 1998; Riordan & Shore, 1997, Tsui et al, 1992).

An early relational demography study found that increased work unit heterogeneity displayed a larger negative effect on whites and men when compared to nonwhites and women (Tsui et al, 1992). In this same study, women in the gender minority displayed higher levels of organizational commitment, fewer absences, and intent to stay, as compared to women in the gender majority. Riordin and Shore's (1997) study found differential effects of whites and nonwhites based on the make-up of the work group, noting some findings counter to most relational demography research. Riordin and Holliday-Wayne (1998) found that only males were affected by gender dissimilarity with respect to perceptions of individual opportunities within a group. A study by Chattopadhyay (1999) found differences with respect to age through displaying a positive association of age *similarity* and older workers to peer relations. Yet, when

evaluating outcomes of age *dissimilarity* in younger workers, the same positive association to peer relations was evident. These conclusions indicate that perhaps more than similarity or dissimilarity may be at play within relational demography research.

Discouraged by the varied and conflicting finding of relationship demography, Linnehan and Konrad (1999) criticized a strict relational demography focus in research, as it does not account for the broader societal experiences of historically advantaged groups (i.e. men as compared to women, whites as compared to other races/ethnicities). When considering demographic diversity in organizations, Linnehan and Konrad (1999) argue that historically more powerful groups in society (i.e. whites or men) put pressure on less powerful groups to assimilate to the norms of the more powerful groups. Studies show that men in a group of mostly women have weaker group identification and are less committed to the organization as compared to women in a group of mostly men (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; Tsui et al, 1992). These studies lend credence to the belief that women, a historically disadvantaged group, are more likely to assimilate to the historically advantaged group (men) based on societal power norms. Linnehan and Konrad's (1999) contention of the influence of power within subgroups fosters another understanding of factors that can be influencing the relationship of group minority status and outcome variables.

Linnehan and Konrad's (1999) argument of the influence of power, in conjunction with other anomalies in relational demography literature, prompt the consideration that more research is needed in the field of demographic differences and similarities. Other researchers agree and contend that the mechanisms underlying the link between group similarity or dissimilarity and outcomes are not fully understood (Jackson, Joshi, &

Erhardt, 2003; Knipperberg & Schippers, 2007; Shore, Chung-Herrara, Dean, Holcombe

Ehrhart, Jung, Randel, and Singh, 2009). Enhanced understanding of these mechanisms

and their influence may support advances in both the research and practice of diversity

management. Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) call for more empirically-based

research devoted to understanding the mediators and moderators of the relationship

between diverse individuals or groups and outcomes.

The present study seeks to gain understanding around the anomalies and

conflicting findings in relational demography literature in two ways. First, the research

evaluates the influence of both relational demography (i.e., status relative to work group

as a whole) while also considering gender, race/ethnicity, or age in absolute form. This

model allows for more specific testing of a distinct demographic across varying group

distribution of the demographic. Second, the study explores feelings of inclusion as a key

mediator in the relationship of relational demography and organizational outcomes (job

satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to turnover). The five dimension

model of inclusion provides for greater understanding regarding how individuals' relative

demographic status is related to each specific dimension. The formal hypotheses related

to relational demography and inclusion as a mediator are included below.

Hypothesis 5: Demographic status relative to the work group positively relates to

feelings of inclusion, such that more work group members with similar

demographics correspond with higher levels of feelings of inclusion.

Hypothesis 5a: Gender status relative to the work group positively relates to

feeling of inclusion in their work group, such that those in a work group with

higher percentage of members in the same gender will have stronger feelings of

inclusion than those in a work group with a lower percentage of members in the same gender.

Hypothesis 5b: Race/ethnicity status relative to the work group positively relate to feeling of inclusion in their work group, such that those in a work group with higher percentage members in the same race/ethnicity will have stronger feelings of inclusion than those in a work group with a lower percentage of members in the same race/ethnicity.

Hypothesis 5c: Age status relative to the work group positive relates to feeling of inclusion in their work group, such that those in a work group with higher percentage of members in a similar age range will have stronger feelings of inclusion than those in a work group with a lower percentage of members in a similar age range.

Hypothesis 6: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' standing relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypotheses 6a: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' gender standing relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypotheses 6b: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' race/ethnicity relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypotheses 6c: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between

members' age relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job

satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Although not formally included above in hypotheses, the study also tests for the influence

of absolute demographics. Meaning, do any specific demographics (e.g., female and

compared to male, black as compared to white) have a stronger relation to feelings of

inclusion when controlling for the relative work group status?

Organizational Diversity Categories

Organizational and workgroup diversity are heavily researched topics throughout

management, psychology, and sociology literatures. The primary variables of interest

traditionally are demographic-based (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, and age). However, there

are a myriad of areas where people are different that could be relevant to individual and

group dynamics in an organization. As the differences across individuals are numerous

(i.e., demographics, personality, knowledge, skills, experiences, values, socioeconomic

status, education, marital/family status, and any other area where people are different),

researchers have proposed categories of attributes that have potential similarities in

relationships to outcomes (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Milliken & Martins, 1996;

Pelled et al, 1999).

An early approach was to split diversity into observable or readily detectable

attributes, and less visible or underlying attributes (Milliken & Martins, 1996). The

observable category includes attributes like race or ethnic background, gender, and age.

The less visible category includes education, tenure, socioeconomic background, and

personality. Visible differences are more likely to evoke responses associated with

prejudices or biases (Mor Barak et al, 2001). Milliken and Martins (1996) noted that the categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive, as differences in observable characteristics could be related to differences in less visible characteristics, and vice versa.

Harrison, Price, and Bell (1998) broke diversity categories into surface-level (demographic) and deep-level (attitudinal). Pelled and associates' diversity research (Pelled, 1996; Pelled et al, 1999; Simons, Pelled, & Smith, 1999) partitioned work group diversity into highly job-related and less job-related attributes, breaking up attributes by degree to which they relate to experiences or skills relevant to work tasks. Pelled's categorizations were most effective in understanding the relationships of types of diversity and task or job performance (Webber & Donahue, 2001). Riordan (2001) suggests expanding on Harrison et al (1998) and Pelled et al (1999) categorizations by generating three categories: surface-level visible, surface-level non-visible, and deep-level non-visible dimensions. Surface-level visible includes characteristics that are immediately noticed by individuals (e.g., gender, race, age). Surface-level non-visible includes characteristics that usually take time for individuals to accurately determine, as they are not immediately visible (e.g., tenure, education, knowledge, and skills). Deep-level non-visible include attributes that likely require the most interaction to assess, as they are not immediately visible and may require building strong rapport to uncover (e.g., personality, values, and attitudes).

For this study, the proposed categories build off prior classifications to create three categories that may relate similarly to proposed inclusion dimensions. The initial category is called surface-level visible and includes attributes that, generally, can be

assessed the first time people meet. Surface level visible is similar to demographic categories and includes gender, race/ethnicity, and age. In line with relational demography research and the similarity-attraction paradigm, the study anticipates those in work groups with a higher percentage of members with the same demographics as the participant will experience greater levels of the belongingness and feelings known dimension of inclusion, as compared to those in work groups with a lower percentage of members with the same demographics as the participant.

The non-visible job related category includes differences that are relevant or important to the job requirements and responsibilities, but are not known based on sight. These are differences that people often ask each other about in a work group, as they may be related to their role. For this study, relevant years of experience and education level are included in the non-visible job related category. Relative differences in this category are anticipated to influence all five dimensions of inclusion. More specifically, higher levels of education and/or experience will increase the importance of uniqueness, information and decision making, and access to communications and resources. Also, being further away from the education norm (either much higher or much lower level of education than most group members) is proposed to have a negative impact on belongingness and feeling known.

The last proposed category is non-visible not job related, which includes attributes that are not directly connected to most jobs, cannot be deciphered from seeing others, and may not come up in conversations with work group members. Many of these differences have to do with one's life outside of work, which people may have varying levels of comfort introducing to the work place. For this study, the non-visible not job related

category includes sexual orientation, marital status, and having children. Similar to the surface level visible demographic category, the study proposes that being in the group majority has a positive influence on the belongingness and feeling known dimensions of inclusion. Interesting results are anticipated for the relationship of those in the work group minority and the feeling known dimension of inclusion.

In relation to Harrison, Price, and Bell's (1998) categorizations, this research only captures surface level demographics and attributes. Although deep-level attributes (e.g. personality) are valuable to study, the research design does not allow for accurately capturing deep-level attributes for multiple group members. The current study evaluates the relationships of select variables in the non-visible work related and non-visible not work related categories proposed above with organizational inclusion dimensions. In addition, the study proposes that inclusion operates as mediator in the relationship of non-visible attributes and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention). This line of reasoning presents the same mediation of inclusion in the relationship of visible (demographic) attributes and organizational outcomes proposed earlier in this study. Understanding the influence of one's status on non-visible characteristics, both relative to one's work group and absolute, can aid researchers and practitioners in design of inclusion policies and practices.

Hypothesis 7: Non-visible work related (i.e., education level and relevant experience) and not work related (i.e., sexual orientation, marital status, children status) attribute standing relative to the work group positively relate to feelings of inclusion, such that more work group members with similar non-visible work

related and not work related attributes correspond to higher levels of feelings of inclusion.

Hypothesis 8: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' non-visible work related (i.e., education level and relevant experience) and not work related (i.e., sexual orientation, marital status, children status) attribute standing relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Although not formally included above in hypotheses, the study will also test for the influence of absolute attributes. Meaning, do any specific attributes (e.g., lower level as education as compared to higher level, not married as compared to married) have a stronger relation to feelings of inclusion when controlling for the relative work group status?

Tenure in Work Group

As previously stated, Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) review of diversity in organizations request research attention is heeded on the mediators and moderators of the relationship between diverse individuals or groups and organizational outcomes. A major aspect of this study is to test the proposed multiple dimension concept of inclusion as a mediator intervening between individual status relative to the group (which includes demography, non-visible work related, and non-visible non work related differences) and organizational outcomes. The work of Harrison and colleagues (Harrison, Price, Bell, 1998; Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002) introduce a moderator that is relevant to the conceptual arguments proposed in this study. Specifically, their findings indicate that the length of time that group members work together weaken the negative effect of

demographic heterogeneity and strengthen deeper-level diversity (i.e., attitudes, beliefs, values). Other researchers have also found that time provides individuals in groups the opportunity to discover similarities, which reduces negative effects of dissimilarities (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Martins, Milliken, Wiesenfeld, & Salgado, 2003). Finally, a study conducted by Polzer, Milton, and Swann (2002) found that over time, individuals are given opportunities to assess interpersonal congruence, based on values or personality, which can attenuate the effects of demographic differences. These studies indicate positive implications for duration of time working together, or tenure in group, and relationships within the group.

Incorporating these tenure or time based findings, this study proposes group member tenure will moderate the relationship between group level variables and inclusion dimensions. Specifically and in line with prior findings, this study postulates that group members with shorter tenure will display much lower feelings of inclusion when they are in the group demographic minority, as compared to individuals with longer tenure. The passage of time provides greater opportunities for group members to get to know each other and discover similarities. As individuals discover similarities, the negative effects of dissimilarities diminishes (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Martins et al., 2003). See figure 2 for a graphical representation of the interaction. With respect to non-visible not job related characteristics (e.g., marital status or sexual orientation), group members with longer tenure will display much lower feelings of inclusion when they are in the group minority, as compared to individuals with shorter tenure. The theory supporting this argument is that group members with shorter tenure are often unaware of the non-visible not job related differences in the group. In other words, a group members'

relative standing would not have as much impact until they actually discovered these differences, which happens over time. See figure 3 for a graphical representation of the interaction.

Hypothesis 9: Tenure in the work group moderates the relationship between member's standing relative to the work group and feeling of inclusion.

Hypothesis 9a: Tenure in the work group moderates the relationship between gender standing relative to the work group and feeling of inclusion, such that longer tenure reduces the salience of gender differences. Specifically, participants with shorter tenure will display significant differences in feelings of inclusion based on relative gender standing. Participants with longer tenure will not display significant differences for feelings of inclusion based on relative gender standing.

Hypothesis 9b: Tenure in the work group moderates the relationship between marital status standing relative to the work group and feeling of inclusion, such that longer tenure increases the salience of marital status differences. Specifically, participants with longer tenure will display significant differences in feelings of inclusion based on relative marital status standing. Participants with shorter tenure will not display significant differences for feelings of inclusion based on relative marital status standing.

HYPOTHESES

In sum, this study tests all paths presented in the model included in figure 1. The model includes direct relationships, full mediation, and moderation. A listing of tested hypotheses are summarized below.

Hypothesis 1: The concept of Inclusion in a Work Group is optimally represented as a five dimension model with the dimensions of belongingness, valued for uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resources.

Hypothesis 2: Each of the five dimensions of the inclusion in a work group model (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resources) positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2a: Belongingness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2b: Feeling valued for uniqueness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2c: Feeling known, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2d: Influence in decision-making, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2e: Access to communications and resources, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Each of the five dimensions of the inclusion in a work group model (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resource) positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3a: Belongingness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Feeling valued for uniqueness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c: Feeling known, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3d: Influence in decision-making, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3e: Access to communications and resources, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: Each of the five dimensions of the inclusion in a work group model (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resource) negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4a: Belongingness, a dimensions of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4b: Feeling valued for uniqueness, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4c: Feeling known, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4d: Influence in decision-making, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4e: Access to communications and resources, a dimension of inclusion in a work group, negatively relates to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 5: Demographic status relative to the work group positively relates to feelings of inclusion, such that more work group members with similar demographics correspond with higher levels of feelings of inclusion.

Hypothesis 5a: Gender status relative to the work group positively relates to feeling of inclusion in their work group, such that those in a work group with higher percentage of members in the same gender will have stronger feelings of inclusion than those in a work group with a lower percentage of members in the same gender.

Hypothesis 5b: Race/ethnicity status relative to the work group positively relate to feeling of inclusion in their work group, such that those in a work group with higher percentage members in the same race/ethnicity will have stronger feelings of inclusion than those in a work group with a lower percentage of members in the same race/ethnicity.

Hypothesis 5c: Age status relative to the work group positive relates to feeling of inclusion in their work group, such that those in a work group with higher percentage of members in a similar age range will have stronger feelings of inclusion than those in a work group with a lower percentage of members in a similar age range.

Hypothesis 6: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' standing relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypotheses 6a: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' gender standing relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypotheses 6b: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' race/ethnicity relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypotheses 6c: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' age relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypothesis 7: Non-visible work related (i.e., education level and relevant experience) and not work related (i.e., sexual orientation, marital status, children status) attribute standing relative to the work group positively relate to feelings of inclusion, such that more work group members with similar non-visible work related and not work related attributes correspond to higher levels of feelings of inclusion.

Hypothesis 8: Feelings of inclusion fully mediate the relationship between members' non-visible work related (i.e., education level and relevant experience) and not work related (i.e., sexual orientation, marital status, children status) attribute standing relative to their work group and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention).

Hypothesis 9: Tenure in the work group moderates the relationship between members standing relative to the work group and feeling of inclusion.

Hypothesis 9a: Tenure in the work group moderates the relationship between gender standing relative to the work group and feeling of inclusion, such that longer tenure

reduces the salience of gender differences. Specifically, participants with shorter

tenure will display significant differences in feelings of inclusion based on relative

gender standing. Participants with longer tenure will not display significant

differences for feelings of inclusion based on relative gender standing.

Hypothesis 9b: Tenure in the work group moderates the relationship between marital

status standing relative to the work group and feeling of inclusion, such that longer

tenure increases the salience of marital status differences. Specifically, participants

with longer tenure will display significant differences in feelings of inclusion based

on relative marital status standing. Participants with shorter tenure will not display

significant differences for feelings of inclusion based on relative marital status

standing.

Although not formally included above in hypotheses, the study will also test for the

influence of absolute demographics and attributes. Meaning, do any specific

demographics or attributes (e.g., women as compared to men, not married as compared to

married) have a stronger relation to feelings of inclusion when controlling for the relative

work group status?

METHODS

Participants

Participants in the current study were 439 adults who were working full-time. Table 1 provides total sample population breakdown and percentage for each demographic and attribute gathered in the survey. Gender distribution was 57.4% female (n = 252) and 42.6% male (n = 187). Mean age was 38.5 years (SD = 11.64) with a range from 19 to 100 years old. Experience relevant to one's current position ranged from zero to 45 years and a mean of 11.29 (SD = 8.39). Tenure, specifically representing years of tenure in one's current work group, in the sample ranged from .08 years (or one month) to 37.6 years with a mean of 5.04 years (SD = 5.28).

Whites represented the largest race or ethnicity at 76.3% (n = 335) of the sample. Blacks (n = 41, 9.3%), Asian (n = 21, 4.8%), Hispanic/Latino (n = 20, 4.6%), multiple races/ethnicities (n = 12, 2.7%), Pacific Islander (n = 3, 0.7%), and American Indian (n = 2, 0.5%) represent the remainder of the sample. Five individuals (1.1%) opted not to disclose their race or ethnicity. With respect to sexual orientation, the sample was 83.1% heterosexual or straight (n = 365), 8.0% gay or lesbian (n = 35), 5.0% bisexual (n = 22), with the remainder (n = 17) preferring not to disclose. 60.8% of the sample was married or partnered (n = 267) while 38.7% were unmarried (n = 170). 56.3% of participants noted they do not have children (n = 247) while 43.3% did not have children (n = 190). For both marital status and children questions, two participants did not indicate a response. With respect to the highest level of education completed, the largest percentage of the sample, at 36.4%, has completed a graduate degree (n = 160). The second largest group were those with an undergraduate college degree (n = 145, 33%) followed by those

having either an associate's degree or some college (n = 61, 13.9%). The next highest

category were those who have completed some graduate school and had an undergraduate

degree at 10.3% (n = 45). The smallest category in the sample were those who had a high

school degree or equivalent as their highest level of completed education (n = 20, 4.6%).

Participants were drawn from three separate sub-samples. The first sub-sample (n

= 216) represents individuals in my network, or individuals where I have some personal

or professional connection. The second sub-sample (n=61) consists of current and former

students of graduate programs at the Belk College of Business or the Educational

Leadership program at UNC Charlotte. The third sub-sample (n = 162) represents

individual in Qualtrics.com Panel Advisor services network. This third sub-sample

includes individuals with certain demographics that were not adequately represented in

the first two sub-samples. The first two samples were drawn based on the access I had to

these pools of individuals. The third sample provided targeted participants with key

demographics for comparison and testing purposes. Table 2 illustrates a comparison

across sample by means and percentage. As displayed and expected, the samples are not

equivalent as there is variation across samples.

Measures

A survey was distributed via email with a link to an on-line survey consisted of 76

total items, including demographic and attribute-based questions. See appendix A for

printed version of the complete on-line survey. Work group size and type of work group

were gathered at the start of the survey. Subsequent to these items, all measures included

in appendix A were completed. At the end of the survey, participants indicated the

following demographics and attributes: age, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation,

years of relevant experience, education level, marital status, and whether or not they have children. Each demographic or attribute question was followed by a question where participants indicated their relative standing to members of their work group by selecting how many individuals from the participant's work group fell into each demographic or attribute category. Excluding the absolute and relative demographic and attribute-based questions, all other variables are validated scales previously used in research.

Inclusion scales. To assess organizational belongingness and valued for uniqueness, I used the work group inclusion scale generated by Chung, Shore, Randel, Ehrhart and Dean (in press)[1]. The ten-item scale includes two factors, belongingness and uniqueness, with five items for each factor. A sample of a belongingness item includes, "I am treated as a valued member of my work group." and uniqueness is, "I can share a perspective on work issues that is different than my group members." Participant responses are on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Purvanova (2013) recently developed a measure to assess one's feelings of being known in team settings in organizations. The five-item scale indicates strong internal reliability (α=.84) as tested in her study. A sample of items include, "I feel like other members of my team understand me." and "I feel that my teammates have formed accurate opinions about the my personality". See appendix B for the full scale. The responses are captured on a seven-point Likert-scaled ranging from disagree strongly (1) to agree strongly (7).

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[1] Permission was needed from the authors of this scale in order to use in this study.

The remaining components of inclusion tested in this study were all found in Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) inclusion-exclusion continuum. In the original study, the scale demonstrated good reliability across all three factors: work group involvement ($\alpha=.83$), influence in decision making ($\alpha=.72$), and access to communications and resources ($\alpha=.62$). Reliability results of subsequent testing include alpha values above .80 for the scale (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002; Mor Barak et al, 2006). See appendix B for the full scale. Participant responses are on a six-point Likert-scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6).

Outcome variables. To assess organizational commitment, I used the four items ($\alpha=.82$) that McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, and Hebl (2007) adapted from Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). A sample of items include, "I rate the company highly as a place to work" and "The company motivates me to contribute more than is normally required to complete my work". See appendix B for the full scale. The responses are captured on a five-point Likert-scaled ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Overall job satisfaction was measured with a three-item measure developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983) as part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ). The scale has displayed consistent good to strong reliability ($\alpha=.67$ to .95) across multiple studies. A sample of items include "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." and "In general, I like working here." See appendix B for the full scale. The responses are captured on a seven-point Likert-scaled ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

To capture turnover intention, I used the four-item scale originally developed by Cammann et al (1979) and Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis and Cammann (1982) and used in Jung and Yoon's (2013) study. A sample of items include "I sometimes feel compelled to quit my job in my current workplace" and "I will quit this company if the given conditions get even a little worse than now". See appendix B for the full scale. The responses are captured on a seven-point Likert-scaled ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

In addition to the variables above, a marker variable (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) that is theoretically dissimilar to any other variable in the study was used. The marker variable used is one's indication of food pleasure. This four item sub-scale is part of the larger food-life questionnaire (Sharp, Hutchinson, Prichard, & Wilson, 2013) and includes such items as "Enjoying food is one of the most important pleasures in my life." and "I have fond memories of family food occasions." See appendix B for the full scale. The responses are captured on a seven-point Likert-scaled ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Procedure

Prior to the first round of data collection, I pilot tested the demographic and attribute items of the survey on doctoral students affiliated with the Organizational Science PhD program as well as organizational-based associates. Based on feedback, adjustments were made to both absolute and relative demographic and attribute items in order to improve question clarity, comprehensiveness and discreteness of response options, and to facilitate an improved experience for participants.

The procedure for the actual survey included prospective participants receiving an email from me asking them to complete an on-line survey called "Work Group Experience". The text of the email indicated that the survey would take approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete, identities would be kept confidential, and the results would be used for my dissertation and to improve human resource practices in organizations. The email solicitation text included a link to an on-line survey hosted by Qualtrics.com survey software. An explanation of informed consent with Institutional Review Board contact information was included in the first page of the on-line survey, which required participants to electronically provide consent before moving on to the survey. If participants did not consent, they were automatically removed from the survey.

Email solicitation occurred in three primary phases. As the only requirements were participants needed to be at least 18 years old and working full-time, I began by reaching out to all of my networks. In the email, I also requested for the recipients to forward the email on to others in their networks who met the qualifications of the study. The study did not target a specific industry nor organization, and I sought a very diverse sample of participants from demographic (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, age, sexual orientation) and attribute backgrounds (i.e., education level, relevant experience, tenure, marital status, having children). Survey participants were offered an incentive of being entered into a drawing to win a Target gift card if they indicated their email address at the end of the survey.

A total of 460 emails were sent to my networks. 274 individuals from my networks started the survey, with 216 of those completing the survey and being included in the final sample. As the demographic questions were located at the end of the survey, I

am unable to tell if there were any noticeable trends for individuals stopping the survey prior to completion. An exact response rate is not possible to calculate as I am not aware how many individuals forwarded the email on to others in their network to complete. However, the strong response was anticipated based on my personal or professional connection to these individuals.

The second phase of email solicitation involved distributing emails to all current and former students of graduate programs in the Belk College of Business at UNC Charlotte as well as graduate programs associated with the Education Leadership Program at UNC Charlotte. The language in the email included the same confidentiality, explanation of data use, and the incentive of being entered into a drawing for a Target gift card. In total, the emails were sent to approximately 700 individuals. 79 individuals began the survey and 61 individuals completed the survey. The completed surveys represent an 8.7% response rate. This low response rate was expected as I do not have a personal connection to these individuals and no follow up or reminder emails were distributed.

Qualtrics.com Panel Advisor services was used for the third and final phase of participant recruitment. The sample gathered through phases one and two of participant recruitment resulted in a very small population of racial/ethnic minorities, gay or bisexual individuals, and older workers. An adequate representation in the overall sample population of these demographics was needed in order to test for differences in variables by race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and age. Qualtrics.com Panel Advisor services was able to target these demographic areas through their database of survey participants. At a cost of $7 per completed survey, I hired qualtrics.com to distribute the survey through

their networks and to find at least 50 people in each demographic area above. As these individuals were paid by Qualtrics.com to complete surveys, I removed the Target gift card incentive from their survey. Qualtrics.com Panel Advisor services collected completed surveys from a total of 162 participants: 55 individuals other than heterosexual, 50 individuals other than white, and 57 individuals above the age of 50. Although there is no way to tell how many participants Qualtrics.com invited to participate in this survey, I do know that 845 participants began the survey. Most of these individuals were removed from the survey when they indicated that they did not meet one of the three following qualifications: ethnic/racial minority, other than heterosexual, or above the age of 50.

At the beginning of the survey, the work group referent was explained as follows, "For questions regarding your work group, please consider the largest group of people with whom you interact on a regular basis. This could be your department, a section of your department, a cohort, or a project team." Respondents were then asked to select the descriptor that best represents their work group from a host of choices (i.e., department, unit, sub-group in department, division, cohort, or can fill in other descriptor) and to indicate the size of their work group. In addition to generating a concrete picture of one's work group, this step gathered valuable information that aided with data analyses. Specific reminders of the work group referent were strategically placed throughout the survey. Qualtrics.com has capabilities to include what the respondent indicated for group size on future survey questions. Therefore, the prompt for questions was as follows, "You previously indicated that your work group has X people, please indicate the number of people in your work group that are in each of the following categories?"

In the survey, participants indicated their own demographic and individual attributes. Each demographic or attribute question was followed by a question where participants indicated how they compare to the remainder of their work group. The comparison to work group question required selecting how many individuals from the participant's work group fell into each category. This question design attempted to gather a complete picture as possible of the participants work group for the variables in this study. This work group breakdown by demographic or attribute, used in conjunction with the work group size item, allowed for calculation of a ratio for each demographic and attribute of percentage similar to the participant. For items that may be difficult to know the exact level for all members in the work group (i.e., education, relevant experience), the participant was prompted to indicate how many individuals in their work group have greater, similar, or lower levels than the participant. All items either directly gather comparative information on work group members or provide for post-hoc calculation of participants' relative standing to their work group creating continuous variables for relative work group standing. During my initial review of data, I removed any participants that assigned all work group members to one category in every one of the eight demographic or attribute question. The probability of those results being true are very small and it is much more likely that these individuals simply plugged in numbers to move the next question. Although there were very few participants who responded with all work groups members in one category, I decided to remove these to reduce their potential adverse statistical influence on the remainder of the sample.

RESULTS

Analyses were conducted using AMOS software to test measurement modeling (confirmatory factor analysis) and SPSS for multiple regression calculations including moderation. Prior to testing the specific hypotheses, descriptives and zero-order correlations were evaluated across all variables. See table 3 for descriptives and table 4 for zero-order correlations. The descriptives and zero-order correlations provide for an initial overview of data collected and the relationships across all variables included in the study. All significant correlations were in the direction anticipated, except there was a significant negative correlation of work group tenure and turnover intention. Although surprising, this result is not counter to any proposed hypotheses. Multicollinearity among the independent variables (inclusion factors) did not appear to be an issue as all variance inflation factor values were 3.4 or below (Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken, 2003). Internal reliabilities for all variables in the study were in an acceptable range with the lowest at .74 and the highest at .92 (M = .87) (see table 4).

I tested for the presence of common method variance using two post-hoc analytical techniques: common latent factor modeling and marker variable testing (Podsakoff et al, 2003). Common latent factor testing was conducted by correlating the same common factor to all latent variable items in the study. The result was 21% of shared variance across all latent variable items. Although no formal cutoff point is indicated in previous literature, general guidance suggests that anything below 50% is not indicative of common method variance. As a double check, marker variable testing (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) considers the relationship of the theoretically unrelated marker variable to all other latent variables. Marker variable testing displayed shared

variance of 17%, which is lower than the common latent factor approach and well below the 50% informal threshold. Although testing deemed that common method variance is not an issue, the statistically significant correlations of the marker variable and many other latent variables in the study caused concern (see table 4). As a result, all regression calculations in the analyses control for variance associated with the marker variable by entering the marker variable in the first step of regression.

In order to test hypothesis 1, I conducted two separate steps of analyses: Regression followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Influence in decision-making and access to communication and resources variables are inclusion factors from Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) validated Inclusion-Exclusion continuum model that represent more formal organizational processes. These two factors are included in their original format in the inclusion model proposed in this study. The third factor of Mor Barak and Cherin's Inclusion-Exclusion continuum, called work group involvement, captures more informal aspects of inclusion and in prior testing was the greatest predictor of organizational outcomes tested at 33.6% of variance (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998). This study seeks to break out the work group involvement factor to sub-factors representing belongingness, feeling valued for uniqueness, and feeling known. In order to assess the convergent validity of the three sub-factors and the work group involvement scale, I ran a step-wise multiple regression where work group involvement was regressed onto the three sub-factors. Model one controlled for common method variance from the marker variable, which did share a significant 3% of variance with work group involvement ($R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 438) = 14.56$, $p < .001$). Model two (see table 5) displayed that the three sub-factors explained a great deal of variance (64%) in work group

involvement, Change in R^2 = .64, $F(4, 438)$ = 220.76, $p < .001$. These results indicate

that these three factors may capture a very similar phenomenon to Mor Barak and

Cherin's (2002) work group involvement aspect of inclusion.

Next, I ran a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that included a total of 29 items

from three existing validated measures (Chung et al, in press; Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998;

Purvanova, 2013). Hypothesis 1 proposed that the inclusion model with the strongest fit

indices is a five-factor model of inclusion including belongingness, uniqueness, feeling

known, influence in decision-making, and access to communication and resources. See

appendix C for a visual depiction of the existing scales with items and the proposed

model based on these scales. I mapped the items from the work group involvement factor

of the inclusion-exclusion continuum (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998) to three of the

dimensions on the new model, as displayed in appendix C.

For CFA analyses, I used a cross validation approach where all data was

randomly split into two groups: roughly two-thirds of entire data set (n = 298) and about

one-third (n = 141). I ran a series of confirmatory factor analyses on the two-thirds data

sub-set in order to identify the optimal model. Table 6 displays the results of different

models tested. In support of hypothesis 1, the optimal model fit is a five factor model

with the categories belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-

making, and access to communication and resources (X^2 = 691, CFI=.90, TLI=.88,

SRMR=.07). However, the six items associated with the work group involvement (WGI)

subscale on Mor Barak & Cherin's (1998) Inclusion-Exclusion continuum were not

included in the five-factor model with the strongest fit indices. I attempted to map these

WGI items to one of the five categories (as displayed in the fourth and fifth model in

table 6), however the items' loadings were low and the model fit was much weaker when compared to models where the WGI items were dropped.   Thus, the decision was made to drop the items associated with the WGI factor for the remainder of testing.

In order to cross-validate the results from the two-thirds data set, I ran the remaining one-third of the randomly divided data through the CFA model with the five factors. The fit indices, although weaker than the larger subsample, continued to represent acceptable model fit which support findings for the two-thirds of data and add supports to hypothesis 1. As a final test and to evaluate item loading weights across all participants, a CFA with the five factors was run on the entire sample (N=439) and the results are also included in table 6. The standardized item loading weights ranged from .58 to .86 ($M = .77$) and are displayed in table 7. These findings indicate acceptable model fit, provide support for Hypothesis 1, and substantiate use of the five-factor model of inclusion for the remainder of testing throughout all additional analyses in this research study.

To test Hypotheses 2 through 4, I separately regressed each hypothesized organizational outcome (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions) on to the proposed five factors of inclusion (belongingness, uniqueness, feeling known, influence in decision-making, and access to communication and resources). See figure 1 for a visual depiction of the proposed relationships. Each multiple regression calculation was administered step-wise in which the variance associated with the marker variable (food pleasure scale) was used as a statistical control in the first step. The regression results of the marker variable is displayed as model 1 in all analyses. Hypotheses 2 through 4 predicted that all five factors will have a significant

relationship with each outcome, which tests the proposed relationships between the middle and right parts of figure 1.

Hypothesis 2, 3, and 4 were each partially supported, as the overall set of predictors contributed a significant Adjusted R-Square, however only three factors displayed significant beta weights in the hypothesized direction for each outcome. See tables 8 to 10 for regression analyses statistics. Hypothesis 2 predicts the positive relationship of the five inclusion factors and the outcome organizational commitment. The entire set of independent variables explained 43% of the variance in organizational commitment ($F = 43.23$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .43$). However, only belongingness, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resources were both positively and significantly related predictors of organizational commitment. Feeling valued for uniqueness was not significant. Feeling known was a significant predictor ($p < .01$), but the standardized coefficient beta weight was negative which was not hypothesized. See table 8 for regression analyses.

Hypothesis 3 predicted the positive association of the inclusion factors and job satisfaction. The entire set of independent variables explained a significant 48% of the variance in job satisfaction ($F = 59.47$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .48$). The same three factors that predicted organizational commitment (belongingness, influence in decision-making, and access to communications and resources) were also significant and positive predictors of job satisfaction. Both feeling valued for uniqueness and feeling known were non-significant. See table 9 for regression analyses. Hypothesis 4 predicted the negative relationship of the inclusion factors and turnover intention. The entire set of independent variables explained a significant 28% of the variance in job satisfaction ($F = 27.86$, $p <$

.001, R^2 = .28). The three independent variables with significant and negative standardized coefficients are belongingness, access to communication and resources, and feeling known. Feeling valued for uniqueness is, again, non-significant. The involvement in decision-making variable is also non-significant for the turnover intention outcome. See table 10 for regression analyses. These results display partial support for hypotheses 2, 3, and 4.

As an additional test of hypotheses 2 through 4, I also conducted relative weights testing (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011; Tonidandel, LeBreton, & Johnson, 2009) to assess if non-significant variables in the regression analyses for each outcome are non-significant due to shared variance being allocated to another predictor, or if they actually do not contribute materially to the variance. The results of three separate relative weights analyses in Table 11 display that all five factors are significant contributors to the shared variance in each outcome. Belongingness (28% OC, 33% JS, 25% TI) and access to communication resource (31% OC, 20% JS, 28% TI) factors account for the largest allocation of variance across all outcomes, with the exception of feeling known accounting for 26% of the overall variance in turnover intention. Feeling valued for uniqueness, the factor with all non-significant standardized beta weights in all regressions, displays significant relative weights for all three outcomes (12% OC, 14% JS, 11% TI). It is noteworthy to point out that the direction of the association between feeling valued for uniqueness and each outcome variable is opposite of that hypothesized. The results indicate that employees' level of feeling valued for uniqueness may reduce organizational commitment and job satisfaction, while increasing turnover intention. As a

result of the significant relative weights values of all predictors, all five factors will

remain in the model for the remainder of the testing.

   In order to test hypothesis 5 and 7, or the association of employees' demographics

and attributes relative to their work group and their feelings of inclusion, I conducted a

series of multiple regressions where each inclusion factor was regressed onto all

demographic and attribute standings relative to one's work group variables. The study

included a host of individual demographic (gender, race/ethnicity, and age) and attribute-

based variables (level of education, relevant experience, sexual orientation, marital status,

children). I created a continuous variable, ranging from zero to one, for all other relative

demographic and attributes categories based on what survey participants indicated for

their group members' demographics and attributes. This continuous variable represents

percentage similar to those in their work group, with a one meaning 100% similar and a

zero meaning they are the only one in their work group with this demographic or

attribute. The zero-order correlations of the eight relative to work group variables in table

3 display only two significant relationships: Feeling known with both race ($r = .12$, p <

.05) and education level ($r = .15$, p < .01) relative to work group. The results of the

multiple regression calculations similarly found that the only predictors with significant

standardized beta weights were race and education level relative to work group with

feeling known. These two predictors did not display any significance standardized beta

weights with the other four inclusion factors. As a set, the relative to work group

variables did not contribute significant variance for any of the five inclusion variables.

These results do not indicate any support for Hypothesis 5 or 7, which predicted

employees' demographics or attributes relative to their work group would display a positive association with inclusion factors.

As stated after the formal hypotheses, I also tested whether the absolute demographic or attribute variables were predictors of inclusion factors. Categorical variables were coded for each absolute demographic and attribute with discrete categories (gender, race/ethnicity, level of education, sexual orientation, marital status, and children). Age and years of experience were maintained as continuous variables. I entered all absolute variables (gender, race, age, education level, relevant experience, sexual orientation, marital status, and having children) as a set in multiple regression. The set of absolute variables did not account for significant variance in any of the five inclusion predictors. The only significant predictors were age and experience on both feeling known and uniqueness. As feeling known and uniqueness were the inclusion variables that had the most inconsistent relationships with the outcome variables and some of the lowest relative weights, these findings indicate that no associations exist between absolute variables and inclusion factors.

Hypotheses 6 and 8 predict that the five-factor inclusion model fully mediates the relationship between absolute or relative to work group demographic or attribute standing and outcome variables. In order for the five-factor inclusion model to mediate the relationship between the absolute or relative to work group demographic and attribute standing and the outcome variables, significant relationships need to exist across all variables in figure 1 (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Testing for hypotheses 5 and 7 displayed a lack of significant relationships between both absolute and relative to work group demographics and attribute standing variables with inclusion factors. This is the

first indication that mediation is not present, which fails to support hypotheses 6 and 8. For additional testing and clarity, each outcome variable (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention) was regressed onto the entire set of relative to work group variables. The overall set of variables did not contribute significant variance in any of the three outcome variables. In addition, none of the relative to work group variables had significant standardized beta weights. The same non-significant result occurred when each outcome variable was regressed onto the set of absolute demographics and attributes. The lack of significant relationships between the absolute and relative to work group demographic and attributes with any outcome variables precludes a potential mediation situation, as this is the first step in mediation testing (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This finding, in conjunction with the lack of significant relationships between absolute and relative to work group variable with the inclusion variables, means that hypotheses 6 and 8 are not supported. Based on these data, we can conclude that the entire left side of figure 1 is not statistically related to the inclusion variables nor the outcome variables in this study.

To test for hypothesis 9, which predicts that tenure will moderate the relationship between employees' demographic or attribute relative to their work group and inclusion, I used step-wise regression with interaction terms created by multiplying each absolute and relative work group variable with tenure. As stated in hypotheses 9a and 9b, I predicted that the moderation will be apparent when evaluating the relationship of select demographics and non-visible not work related attributes relative to the work group. Even though no direct relationships existed between absolute or relative to work group

variables and inclusion factors, is it possible that tenure could be moderating the relationship.

After I ran regressions for all variable combinations, only two relative to work group variables—race/ethnicity and sexual orientation—displayed significant interactions with tenure as predictors of inclusion. However, the incremental explained variance (R^2 < .01) was very small for both relative to work group variables. In addition, the interaction for sexual orientation was in the direction opposite than hypothesized. This result means that lower levels of inclusion variables were associated with group members with longer tenure. Hypotheses 9, 9a, and 9b are not supported for this data set based on the results of these analyses.

Additional analyses

As prior testing displayed, the absolute or relative to work group variables did not display significant relationships with neither inclusion factors nor the organizational outcome variables. However, most inclusion factors were significant predictors of three outcomes, partially supporting Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4. I next conducted additional step-wise regression calculations by separately adding the full sets of absolute and relative to work group variables to the inclusion factor predictors to assess if any variables contributed additional significant explained variance in the outcomes. The full sets of variables did not result in significant explained variance. The only variable that was a significant predictor ($p < .01$) across both sets was experience. However, the incremental improvement to overall prediction due to experience was very small (R^2 < .01). Tenure was also added to the inclusion variables to test if it contributed incremental variance in

the outcome variables. Findings for tenure were also non-significant. The null tenure

finding is consistent with prior non-significant findings of tenure moderation effects.

DISCUSSION

Findings in support of hypothesis 1 build the case that the informal work group involvement factor in Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) Inclusion-Exclusion continuum may have relevant sub-factors including a sense of belongingness and feeling known in one's work group. The partially supported hypotheses (2 through 4) indicate that an employee's feelings of inclusion are associated with three organizational outcomes: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. These associations, which are consistent with prior studies (Acquavita et al, 2009; Avery et al, 2008; Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Findler, Wind, & Mor Barak, 2005; Hwang, 2012; Mor Barak et al, 2001; Mor Barak et al, 2006), suggest that this area of research is valuable for further study and understanding. The remainder of the hypotheses, 5 through 9, were not supported in this study with additional consideration included below.

With respect to the five-factor model of inclusion and organizational outcomes (hypotheses 1 through 4), the results displayed that employees' sense of belongingness, a tested sub-factor of work group involvement, was a significant ($p < .01$) predictor of inclusion with all three organizational outcomes. In addition, the results of relative weights testing displayed belongingness was one of the largest predictors across all three outcomes (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011; Tonidandel, LeBreton, & Johnson, 2009). This indicates that an employee's sense of belongingness may be an important component of inclusion and that belongingness has a strong relationship with key organizational outcomes. The results of employees' levels of feeling known in their work group was far less clear. Feeling known was a key driver of turnover intentions. Although not significant in multiple regression analysis with the outcome of job satisfaction, feeling

known did display a significant relative weight. This indicates that feeling known shared substantial variance with another factor, but still may be an important predictor when variance is proportionally distributed. Contrary to hypothesized, feeling known displayed a significant negative ($p < .01$) relationship with organizational commitment. This generates additional questions, such as do individuals prefer to maintain a private persona at work? Or do individuals prefer to have separate and distinct work and personal identities? The overall findings with respect to feeling known, and the underlying self-verification theory, indicate that more research is needed to understand how individuals' in a work group experience feeling known and what these feelings translate to from an inclusion perspective.

The last proposed sub-factor of work group involvement, feeling valued for uniqueness, did not display any significant relationship with any of the three outcomes in multiple regression analyses. The results of the relative weights analyses, however, displayed significant relative weights for feelings of uniqueness with all three organizational outcomes. It is interesting to note that standardized beta values were in the opposite direction of hypothesized with each organizational outcome. This introduces the question of whether a group member who feels that he or she is unique in some way experiences a sense of exclusion from the group. Meaning, instead of feeling valued for bringing an alternative point of view or perspective to the work group, the individual may experience negative feelings. This may make sense from the group perspective. Consider if someone in a work group periodically offers an idea that is different than the group's traditional line of thought, that person may feel appreciated for the different idea. However, if a work group member is consistently offering ideas that are different than the

way the group normally operates, then that individual's ideas could be recurrently discounted or unappreciated by most group members. The group may feel this individual halts progress that the group is making. Minority influence research indicates that in response to normative pressures, people often avoid aligning themselves with a deviant source (Wood, Lundgren, Ouellette, Busceme, & Blackstone, 1994). In this study, group members offering ideas consistently different from the group could be considered deviant. As a result, the individual that is frequently offering a unique perspective may experience a sense of exclusion from the group. It may be valuable to gain additional understanding on feelings of work group members who frequently share a perspective that is different than their work group. Or, from the group's perspective, how often or in what format can someone disagree with the group and their ideas are still appreciated?

As the results indicated, hypotheses 5 through 9 were not supported with the data gathered. This means the entire left hand side of the model (see figure 1), which includes absolute and relative demographics and attributes, did not display any consistently statistically significant relationships with neither inclusion factors nor organizational outcomes. The lack of relationship between demographics and attributes and organizational outcomes precluded any mediation of inclusion factors (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Tenure, which was proposed to moderate the relationship between relative demographics/attributes and inclusion factors, was not shown to be a consistently significant moderator.

Prior demographic similarity research found that employees' demographic standing relative to their work group did influence organizational outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention) (Joshi, Liao, & Roh,

2011; Riordan & Wayne, 2007). This study attempted to build on those findings by proposing that feelings of inclusion mediated the relationship between relative standing (or demographic similarity/dissimilarity) to work group and organizational outcomes. I hypothesized that an employee's level of similarity to his or her work group had an influence on the individual's feeling of inclusion which in turn influenced organizational outcomes. In this study, the relationship of demographic similarity and organizational outcomes did not hold. The inconsistency in this study's finding with prior research could be based on methodology and survey design differences.

The first limitation to consider when findings are null is whether the sample size was adequate to find significant differences within variables tested. An a priori power analysis was conducted in G*Power 3.1.7 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner, 2013) to assess the minimum required sample size for multiple regression using six predictor variables and searching for an incremental explained variance of .05 for the seventh predictor. This estimate is used as an example of a regression equation calculation where an inclusion factor was regressed on to a host of absolute and relative group standing variables. The test controls for the variance contributed by the first six variables and searches for incremental explained variance of at least .05 from the seventh predictor variable. At a minimum acceptable power of .95, the required minimum sample size is 262. The results of a sensitivity analysis using G*Power assuming a sample size of 262 generates an effect size of .20. This means that any direct correlations at or above a value of .20 will be significant during post hoc analyses for a sample of at least 262. My final sample totaled 439 respondents, which represents a sample population that is large

enough for model testing. As the zero-order correlations displayed in table 3, correlations values above .10 were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for the study's sample.

A second potential limitation in a survey-based research design is whether the composition of the sample population represents a fair representation of the overall population. If a demographic or attribute is severely over or underrepresented, the possibility of skewed results may be greater. The demographic and attribute ratio breakdown of the sample was compared to Bureau of Labor Statistics ("BLS"; bls.gov) of employed individuals for 2012 ("workforce"). See table 1 for the comparison. Many ratios of the sample were similar to those of the workforce. Mean age for sample was 38.5, compared to 42.4 for the workforce (bls.gov). Mean tenure was 5.0 for sample compared to 5.4 for the workforce (bls.gov). Married individuals in sample was 60.8%, compared to 57.1% for the workforce. However, the present study's sample represents a greater number of females (57.4% in sample compared to 46.8% in workforce), higher level of individuals with college degree or higher (79.7% compared to 37.1%), and more individuals without children (56.3% compared to 42.4%). The racial breakdown of this study's sample was similar to the Bureau of Labor Statistics work force estimates, but the BLS survey allowed participants to choose multiple areas (i.e. Hispanic and White) which accounts for their percentages equaling greater than 100%. The primary area of concern above is the disparity in education level. A potential limitation of this study findings is that these results are applicable to a more highly educated workforce as compared to the education level of the general workforce. This may make the results more relevant to certain industries, where a high percentage of employees have college or graduate degrees. The 9% greater female population of the sample as compared to the

BLS statistics could also have skewed results. I received a comment from a survey participant asking if the incentive, Target gift cards, from the drawing may make the survey more popular to females. This comment meant that more women than men shop at Target. I had not considered that in selection of the incentive, but this may have contributed to a larger female sample.

A third limitation to consider is that all information collected from the employee was self-reported. The survey participant indicated the demographics and attributes of each person in his or her work group. Most prior demographic similarity studies had work group demographics provided by the organization. Meaning, there was a pre-set level of analysis. Depending on the specific research question, there may be advantages to both approaches. The present study's research design desired for participants' to develop a concrete picture of those they consider in their work group, which made the interpretation subjective to each participant and could have spanned multiple organizational levels. Prior demographic similarity research, especially in studies with performance outcomes, gathered dependent variables from work group managers. The present study's design sought to specifically compare employee's standing in the work group with the individual member's affective feelings regarding the organization, not others' feeling on the individual. Employment of an outside rater to assess individuals' feelings or perceptions may weaken the research design (Conway & Lance, 2010). Prior inclusion research used formal organization inclusion policies or practices as indicators of level of inclusion within an organization. Formal policies or practices may not be known or as relevant at the employee level. Many organizations may have the same inclusion policy, but that does not mean that employees within and across these

organizations experience the same feelings of inclusion. This study's design sought to capture employees' feelings of organizational inclusion (not actual organization policies or practices) in comparison to both relative work group standing and organizational outcomes. A single-source confidential self-report survey design was an effective approach to explore tested hypotheses.

A host of potential adverse influences can increase measurement error in single-source self-report cross sectional survey designs including social desirability, acquiescence, primer effect, consistency motif, and common method variance biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003). Many steps are included in the a priori research design to reduce the influence of measurement variance. As some topics are sensitive in nature (i.e. diversity and inclusion related), all participants confidentially completed the survey and the instructions indicated that there are no wrong answers. Confidentiality should help to reduce social desirability biases (Nederhof, 1985) and informing respondents that there are no wrong answers may reduce evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Many scales used in this study include reversed scored items, which may reduce acquiescence bias (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). A scale representing a variable that is thought to be theoretically unrelated to other variables in the study was placed between the scales for independent and dependent variables. This food pleasure marker-variable scale may help reduce biases associated with a consistency motif, or respondents attempt to maintain consistency across all responses (Podsakoff et al, 2003).

Demographic (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age) and other individual attribute-based information (e.g., education level, marital status, relevant experience) data were

gathered to categorize and analyze the responses by relevant grouping. Self-report demographic and level or status-based attributes questions (i.e., education level, marital status) are considered more objective questions that reduce the opportunity for percept-percept inflation (Crampton & Wagner, 1994). All attribute-based variables were strategically selected based on the increased chance that individuals will know the information about others in their group and could compare to their own attribute. For example, variables like personality or skills/knowledge were intentionally excluded as those are often more obscure and may be more difficult to compare to one's work group. The self-report design of the survey asked participants to assign individuals in their work group to distinct categories. For a category like gender, this may be easy to do. However, this may not be as easy for race, sexual orientation, or marital status. These may not be as obvious visually or the participant may simply not know the marital status of some coworkers. Work groups do not necessarily need to be co-located, which means individuals may only have virtual or electronic communications with members of their groups. In addition, some questions ask participants to indicate how many work group members have more, less, or similar of some attribute (i.e., experience, education, age). The standing of each coworker may be unknown by participants or may be estimated. For these categories, this design may create more of a subjective, or perceptual, impression of relative standing or similarity/dissimilarity. To minimize the likelihood that the questions regarding work group characteristics operate as a priming effect, which can increase percept-percept inflation, all of the group status questions were included at the end of the survey (Cleveland & Shore, 1992).

The cross-sectional aspect of the study generates an inherent limitation in understanding directionality of relationships. In essence, all relationships found between variables are two-way relationships which preclude an ability to conclude that any factor of inclusion creates an outcome. The reality may be that an organizational outcome is a predictor of inclusion. For example, if employees feel a high level of organizational commitment for reasons external to their work group, they may be more likely to feel a sense of group belongingness as well. In addition, demographics and attributes tested should display one-way relationships as, generally, one's demographics and attributes do not change. Unfortunately, the study found very few significant relationships between absolute or relative to work group demographics and attributes with either inclusion variables or outcome variables.

As mentioned previously in the results, common method variance was assessed post hoc using common latent factor and unrelated marker variable testing displaying a presence of small method variance. Although common method variance did not appear to be an issue, the research design allowed for controlling for common method variance in all regression calculations by entering the marker variable in the first step of step-wise regression.

Fourth, the inclusion items in the survey are designed to capture an overall feeling of inclusion in one's work group. This may be difficult for some individuals to cognitively construct. Participants in this research study indicated differential feelings to members of their work group in comments at the end of the survey. Meaning, participants shared that they had positive work relationships with some members of their work group, but not others. Or, that they enjoyed the dynamics with their work group, but not their

manager or vice versa. The survey design did not allow for indication of these differences, or reasons why individuals may not experience inclusion. It may be interesting to include a qualitative open-ended response in a future study where the participant can provide specific details regarding their feelings around inclusion. Another option may be to assess quality of interactions with members of the work group, in addition to the demographic or attribute breakdown of the work group. Understanding the relationship of demographics and attributes, in conjunction with the quality of interactions, may provide for additional insights in understanding one's experience of inclusion.

The inability of a participant to indicate distinct feelings associated with managers and coworkers in this study design is an important point to consider for future studies. The availability of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and perceived organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) validated measures may be worthwhile to include in future studies and models of inclusion. This study used an inclusion sub-scale of belongingness and uniqueness developed and validated by Chung et al (in press). It is interesting to note that those researchers are also attempting to develop a more comprehensive inclusion model that includes POS and a measure of employee voice. Their model, which included these two additional factors, displayed stronger fit indices in confirmatory factor analyses than the proposed five-factor model in this study. Their model also appears to completely focus on the more informal aspects of inclusion. In future studies, assessing discriminant validity between the proposed inclusion measure

and other work atmosphere measures (i.e., POS) will be an important contribution to the inclusion literature.

Prior studies of work group standing and organization outcomes have tested for the influence of tenure, finding that the influence of time weakened effects of demographic *dissimilarities* (Harrison, Price, Bell, 1998; Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002) and provides the opportunities to find similarities in deeper level characteristics, like personality, attitudes, beliefs, and values (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Martins, Milliken, Wiesenfeld, & Salgado, 2003). The present research did not find that tenure had any differential outcome, either on its own, or in conjunction with relative work group standing. However, the study did not assess similarities or differences in deeper-level characteristics (e.g., personality). This prevented the ability to test if the importance of surface-level characteristics faded over time and deeper-level took their place. This study could only conclude that, based on these data, one's tenure in a work group did not appear to be a significant factor influencing inclusion nor organizational outcomes.

Prior demographic similarity studies found differential effects based on gender, race, and age. Specifically, white men (Tsui et al, 1992) and men in general (Riordin & Holliday-Wayne, 1998) were found to have larger negative effects when being in the demographic minority. In addition, differential effects were found for whites and non-whites (Riordin & Shore, 1997). Last, differences in age were found as it appears that age similarity was more important, with respect to organization outcomes, to older workers than younger workers (Chattopadhyay, 1998). Linnerhan and Konrad's (1999) argument regarding historical power structure and the influence of societal dynamics in the

workplace, in conjunction with the differential findings, provided for additional testing to be conducted in this study regarding differences across demographic or attribute-based sub-groups. New variables were created to break individuals into two groups (e.g., white and non-white), but all testing found no significant and consistent differences across groups. Again, this inconsistency with prior studies created confusion with these data. Methodological concerns were previously addressed, but upon closer review of the sample the extreme overweighting of highly educated individuals (79.7% of individuals in sample with college degree or higher, as compared to 37.1% in the workforce (bls.gov)) could be skewing the data. The U.S. Census results report 11.5% of the U.S. population hold advanced degrees (Census.gov); however, these data include 36.4% of participants with graduate degrees. The prior statistic indicates that this study's sample contains over three times as greater percentage of individuals holding graduate degrees than the general population. Advanced education may require more diversity classes and the opportunity to work with individuals from a variety of backgrounds. As many graduate classes may focus more on group work, these individuals may consistently be working with many different groups at one time. This educational practice of recurrently working within different diverse groups may, over time, generate a norm where one experiences a level of inclusion in all types of work groups and teams.

From a theoretical standpoint, the study may shed additional light on the host of competing organizational inclusion theories. Social comparison theory (Festinger, 1957), which posits that individuals self-evaluate their standing within groups, assumes a desire for positive affiliation with the group. Positive affiliation may mean different things to different people. Some people may desire social interactions with the group and others

may not, as they do not have the time necessary for consistent social interactions, especially outside of the workplace. Individuals in a work group with varying levels of desired social interactions may create a different optimal level of inclusion for individuals in the same work group. Along these same lines, individuals in a work group may have differing feelings regarding whether or not they want their work group to know everything about them. Self-verification theory (Swann, 1983) posits that individuals' desire others to see them as they see themselves. However, one of the tenants of social identity theory (Turner, 1982; Tajfel, 1982) is that individuals have a social self and a personal or private self. It is possible that some individuals in a work group would feel higher levels of inclusion if they are able to keep certain aspects of themselves private or hidden. These individuals might feel less comfortable in the work group if people knew the things they consider to be private and could bring those things up in public forums.

Optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991) argues that individuals in a group seek a level of belongingness, or feeling similar to those in their work group, and a level of feeling valued for being unique. This study did not find support for the dimension of being valued for uniqueness in the proposed inclusion model. In fact, it displayed relationships opposite of those hypothesized. Upon further review of the items used to capture one's feeling of being valued for uniqueness, it is possible that the items are capturing a different phenomenon. It appears the items may capture one's comfort level in expressing opinions that diverge from the work group. Although this may be an aspect of inclusion, this does not necessarily mean the individual is valued for those differing opinions or the attributes that make that individual distinct from the work group. The concept of feeling valued for being unique in a work group may need more research to

understand how people experience this feeling as well as to provide content validity for the measure used in this study (Chung, Shore, Randel, Ehrhart, & Dean, in press) or another measure.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

The host of unsupported hypotheses, especially the results that are inconsistent or unsupportive of prior findings, could be attributable to a host of possibilities. Many of these possibilities have been previously addressed in this discussion section, including potential survey item design issues, the influence of self-report, and the highly educated skewed sample. However, it is interesting to consider a few other possibilities. First, as the introduction to this paper states, the prior decades display large increases in the diversity of the U.S. workforce. This may mean that affiliation in a work group where one is the minority in a host of different demographics or attributes is the norm for most people. As the current U.S. workforce consists of a high level of diversity, nearly everyone may be a minority in multiple different ways. As a result of this consistent minority experience in work groups, people may have less awareness of their relative group standing and the standing may generate less influence on feelings of inclusion or organizational outcomes.

In conjunction, the increasingly diverse workforce, over time, may create a situation where people do not focus on surface-level differences as much as they did in the past. After working with individuals of different backgrounds, perhaps prior held stereotypes or assumptions are reduced or removed. This means that people may be able to tell demographic differences, but don't believe those differences make any difference in their work group. Rather, people have a greater focus on deeper-level similarities or

differences of work group members. Along these same lines, it may be that people are not aware of differences in demographics or attributes as it is not relevant to them. Therefore, the design of this study asks participants to categorize individuals. That practice may be something that people do not consciously or subconsciously do with their work group. They may think, "My workgroup is very similar to me" which could be based on deeper-level attributes (e.g., We get along very well), even though the workgroup is highly demographically diverse.

This study does not at all conclude that demographic similarity or dissimilarity in a work group is no longer relevant to one's organizational outcomes or feelings of inclusion. However, the study does beg the question of what else is relevant to feelings of inclusion that was not tested here. Could deeper-level attributes, like personality or values, be a main driver? Or, could the factor be a phenomenon that the research has yet to explore? This study indicates that one's education, or education level, could be a valuable area for future exploration. Does one's education increase feelings of inclusion through exposure to more diversity courses and working with diverse groups of individuals in many difference courses?

Or, taking a different perspective, do people care less about feelings of inclusion in their work group? Individuals tend to change jobs more often, organizations tend to restructure departments, and organizations often merge with other organizations. Does the frequency of these changes result in individuals not desiring a feeling of inclusion with a particular work group as they suspect they will not be with that work group for very long? In addition, individuals are more often located in different geographic locations from the remainder of their work group. Does the distance, and associated

reduced social contact, create a situation where feelings of isolation (or exclusion) are more the norm for remote employees?

      The nascent areas of inclusion research is ripe for additional exploration and understanding. Organizational leaders and human resource executives, who focus on fostering of feelings of inclusion across their organization, may be interested in assessing if the inclusion policies and practices that they have implemented are effective. If so, these organizations and human resource leaders may be open to research within their organization where greater empirical testing can occur and strong inclusion theory can be established.

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FIGURES
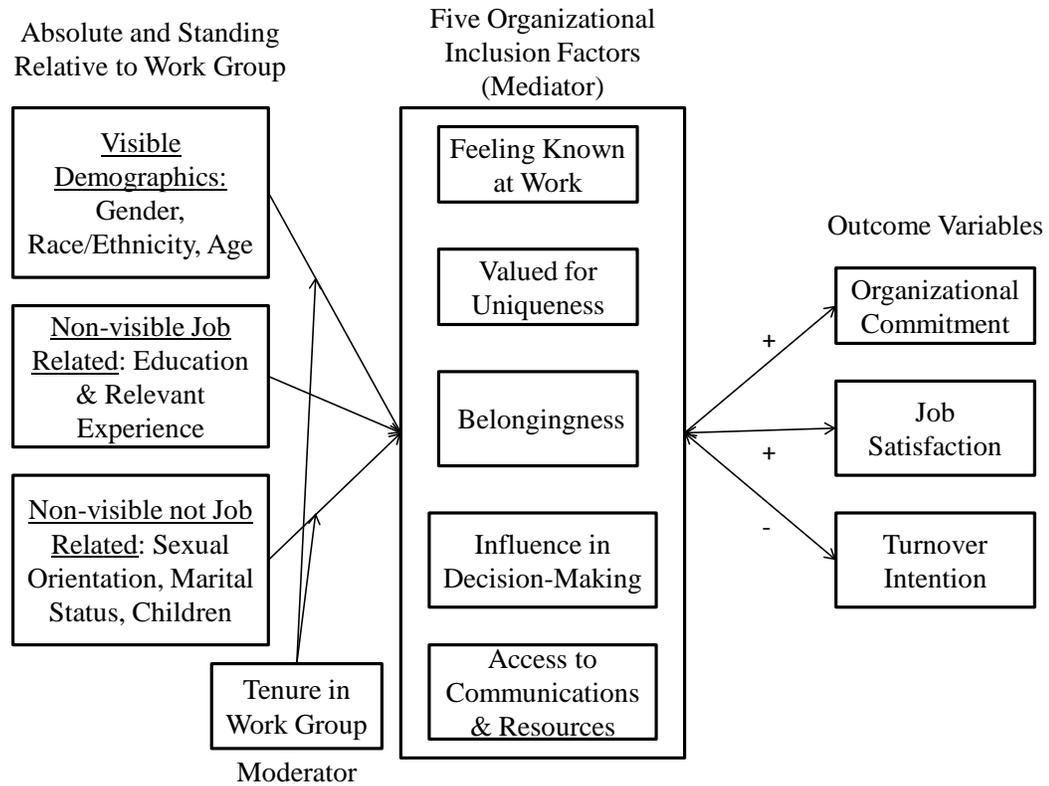
Figure 1: Full Model. This figure illustrates all proposed and tested relationships.
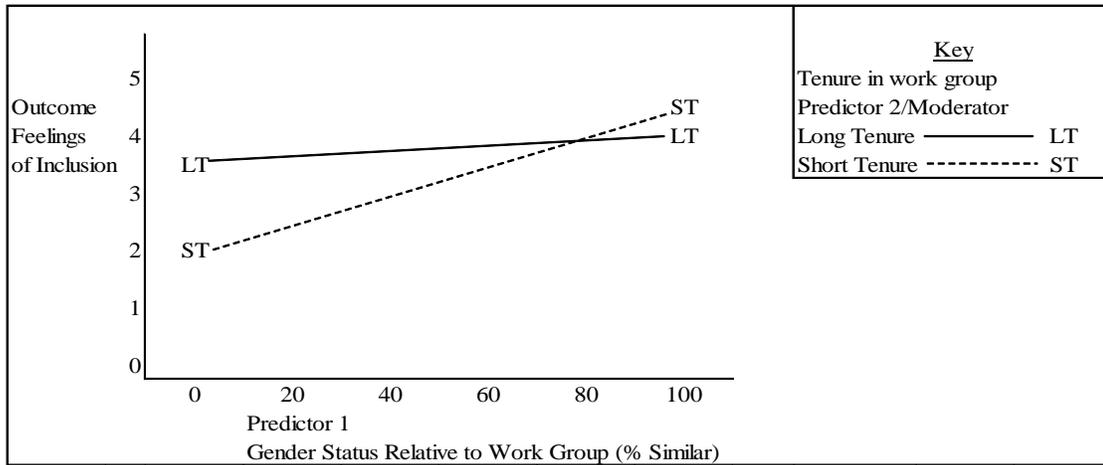
Figure 2. Tenure as a moderator of gender status relative to one's work group and inclusion. This figure illustrates hypotheses 9a, which predicts that longer tenure in the work group reduces the importance of gender status relative to one's work group.
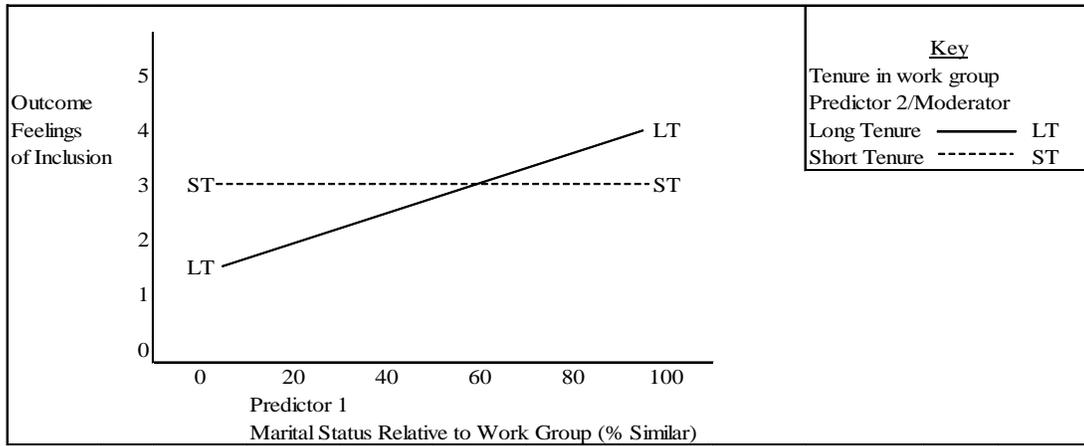
Figure 3: Tenure as a moderator of marital status relative to one's work group and inclusion. This figure illustrates hypothesis 9b, which predicts that longer tenure in the work group increases the importance marital status relative to one's work group.

TABLES

Table 1: Characteristics of the sample

Variable	N	Range	Mean	SD	U.S. BLS Mean
1. Work group size	439	2 – 30	13.14	8.594	--
2. Age (in years)	438	19 – 100	38.5	11.644	42.4
3. Experience (in years)	437	0 - 45	11.29	8.387	--
4. Tenure (in years)	370	.08 – 37.58	5.036	5.283	5.4

Variable / Variable sub-category	N	Percent of Total	U.S. BLS (2012) Percent of Workforce
5. Work group type	439		
Department	194	44.2	--
Unit	68	15.5	--
Sub-group in department	84	19.1	--
Division	39	8.9	--
Cohort	20	4.6	--
Other	34	7.7	--
6. Race / Ethnicity [1]	439		
American Indian/Alaskan Native	2	.5	1.2
Asian	21	4.8	5.1
Black	41	9.3	13.1
Hispanic/Latino	20	4.6	16.9
Pacific Islander (Native Hawaiian)	3	.7	.2
White	335	76.3	77.9
Multiple Races/Ethnicities	12	2.7	2.4
Unknown/Prefer not to disclose	5	1.1	--
7. Sexual Orientation	439		
Heterosexual or Straight	365	83.1	--
Bisexual	22	5.0	--
Gay or Lesbian	35	8.0	--
Other/Prefer not to disclose	16	3.6	--
Missing	1	.2	--
8. Gender	439		
Male	187	42.6	53.2

Female	252	57.4	46.8
9. Education	439		
High school degree or equivalent	20	4.6	27.1
Associate's degree or some college	61	13.9	27.8
College degree (Undergraduate)	145	33.0	37.1
Some graduate school	45	10.3	--
Graduate degree	160	36.4	--
Other	8	1.8	8.0
10. Marital status	439		
Unmarried	170	38.7	42.8
Married or partnered	267	60.8	57.1
Missing	2	.5	
11. Children status	439		
Do not have children	247	56.3	42.4
Do have children	190	43.3	57.6
Missing	2	.5	

Note: "--" represents information not available from the Bureau of Labor Statistics website (bls.gov). [1]U.S. BLS race/ethnicity statistics allow an individual to select more than one category resulting in percentages in excess of 100.

Table 2: Characteristics of three sub-samples

Variable	My Network	Graduate School	Qualtrics Panel Advisor
Sample Size (n)	216	61	162
Work group size	12.3	11.3	15.0
Age (in years)	35.5	35.4	43.7
Experience (in years)	10.0	10.3	13.4
Tenure (in years)	3.9	3.0	6.8

Note: n = 216 (My Network), 61 (Graduate School), and 162 (Qualtrics Panel Advisor)

Breakdown of Sub-Samples (in percentages)

Variable Variable sub-category	My Network	Graduate School	Qualtrics Panel Advisor
Race / Ethnicity [1]			
American Indian/Alaskan Native	0	0	1.2
Asian	.5	1.6	11.7
Black	7.4	9.8	11.7
Hispanic/Latino	2.8	1.6	8.0
Pacific Islander (Native Hawaiian)	0	0	1.9
White	83.8	83.6	63.6
Multiple Races/Ethnicities	4.6	0	1.2
Unknown/Prefer not to disclose	.9	3.3	.6
Sexual Orientation			
Heterosexual or Straight	94.9	93.4	63.6
Bisexual	.9	1.6	11.7
Gay or Lesbian	2.8	1.6	17.3
Other/Prefer not to disclose	.9	3.3	7.4
Missing	.5	0	0
Gender			
Male	33.8	45.9	53.1
Female	66.2	54.1	46.9
Education			
High school degree or equivalent	2.8	0	8.6
Associate's degree or some college	11.1	0	22.8
College degree (Undergraduate)	39.4	6.6	34.6
Some graduate school	5.6	39.3	5.6
Graduate degree	38.9	50.8	27.8

Other	2.3	3.3	.6
Marital status			
Unmarried	34.7	41	43.2
Married or partnered	64.8	57.4	56.8
Missing	.5	1.6	0
Children status			
Do not have children	56.5	65.6	52.5
Do have children	43.1	32.8	47.5
Missing	.5	1.6	0

Note: n = 216 (My Network), 61 (Graduate School), and 162 (Qualtrics Panel Advisor)

Table 3: Descriptives

	Variable	N	Range	Mean	SD
1.	Age to work group	436	0 – 1	.325	.27
2.	Gender to work group	439	0 – 1	.6	.259
3.	Race to work group	430	0 – 1	.647	.345
4.	Sexual Orientation to work group	382	0 – 1	.854	.312
5.	Education level to work group	432	0 – 1	.473	.345
6.	Experience to work group	433	0 – 1	.281	.281
7.	Marital status to work group	412	0 – 1	.586	.311
8.	Children to work group	410	0 – 1	.562	.311
9.	Belongingness	439	1 – 5	3.927	.770
10.	Valued for Uniqueness	439	1 – 5	4.017	.659
11.	Feeling Known	439	1 – 7	5.354	1.246
12.	Access to Communication Resources	439	1 – 6	4.50	.956
13.	Involvement in Decision Making	439	1 – 6	4.47	1.086
14.	Organizational Commitment	439	1 – 5	3.667	.928
15.	Job Satisfaction	439	1 – 7	5.362	1.426
16.	Turnover Intention	439	1 – 7	3.171	1.751

Note: All "to work group" variables represent the percentage similar to one's work group. The range is zero (no one is similar) to one (all work group members are similar).

Table 4: Zero order correlations

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.
1. Age RTWG																			
2. Gender RTWG	.005																		
3. Race RTWG	-.019	.007																	
4. Sexual Orient RTWG	.054	**.118**	**.112**																
5. Education RTWG	**.239**	.047	-.015	.055															
6. Experience RTWG	**.357**	.048	-.022	.023	**.285**														
7. Marital Status RTWG	.042	-.065	.092	.096	-.028	.008													
8. Children RTWG	**.176**	.018	**-.099**	.032	-.065	**.116**	**.192**												
9. Decision Making	.036	.015	-.028	-.045	.015	-.026	.013	.020	*.903*										
10. Access to Comm	.034	.012	-.009	-.066	.033	-.039	-.085	.034	**.444**	*.736*									
11. Feeling Known	-.017	.070	**.118**	.028	**.150**	-.047	.017	.016	**.447**	**.517**	*.891*								
12. Belongingness	.015	.039	.040	-.067	.085	.004	.015	.021	**.656**	**.502**	**.698**	*.887*							
13. Valued for Unique	.101	-.030	-.010	-.063	.035	.000	.010	-.037	**.647**	**.486**	**.596**	**.769**	*.862*						
14. Org Commitment	.062	-.010	-.040	.005	.053	.032	-.070	**.097**	**.540**	**.556**	**.394**	**.602**	**.488**	*.907*					
15. Job Satisfaction	.020	-.014	.015	.024	.068	.011	-.033	-.010	**.528**	**.530**	**.548**	**.683**	**.549**	**.753**	*.910*				
16. Turnover Intention	-.001	-.003	.000	-.038	-.070	-.006	.018	-.002	**-.337**	**-.431**	**-.452**	**-.467**	**-.370**	**-.526**	**-.739**	*.918*			
17. Tenure	**-.103**	.057	.012	-.088	.026	-.054	-.003	.011	**.114**	.034	.090	.088	.078	.029	.071	**-.136**			
18. Work Group Size	.001	**-.103**	**-.134**	-.016	.023	.003	.008	-.021	**.110**	.045	.048	.083	.080	**.100**	.060	-.036	**.109**		
19. Food Pleasure	.065	-.049	-.080	.034	.060	.002	-.028	.020	**.182**	**.157**	**.203**	**.228**	**.200**	**.239**	**.206**	-.059	.007	.042	*.819*

Notes: N = 439. RTWG means relative to work group and is a ratio between 0 (completely dissimilar to work group) to 1 (completely similar to work group). Italicized entries on the diagonal represent Cronbach's alpha values (α). Correlation values above .134 are significant at $p < .01$. Correlation values between .097 and .133 are significant at $p < .05$. All significant correlations are depicted in bold font.

Table 5: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis of work group involvement on three informal inclusion sub-factors (N = 439)

Variable	Model 1 (Control)			Model 2		
	B	$SE\ B$	β	B	$SE\ B$	β
Food	0.15	0.41	0.18**	-0.01	0.03	-0.01
Feeling Known				0.37	0.03	0.49**
Belongingness				0.28	0.06	0.23**
Uniqueness				0.28	0.06	0.20**
Adjusted R^2		.03			.67	
Change in adj R^2		--			.64	
F for change in R^2		14.56**			206.19**	

Note: **$p < .01$.

Table 6: Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Inclusion Model (n = 298)

Factors	Factor Description	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df
1	WGI+IDM+ACR+B+U+FK	2165.49	377	0.72	0.70	0.126	0.121-0.132	0.088		
2	(IDM+ACR), (WGI+B+U+FK)	1880.00	376	0.63	0.75	0.116	0.111-0.121	0.089	285.49	1
3	IDM, ACR, (WGI+B+U+FK)	1748.82	374	0.79	0.77	0.111	0.106-0.117	0.079	416.66	3
4	IDM+WGI4-6, ACR, B+U+WGII, FK+WGI2&3	1502.18	371	0.82	0.81	0.101	0.096-0.107	0.086	663.31	6
5	IDM+WGI4-6, ACR, B+WGII, U, FK+WGI2&3	1433.14	367	0.83	0.82	0.099	0.094-0.104	0.085	732.35	10
5	IDM, ACR, B, U, FK	691.46	220	0.90	0.88	0.085	0.078-0.092	0.066	1474.03	157
4	IDM, ACR, B+U, FK	761.38	224	0.88	0.87	0.090	0.083-0.097	0.068	1404.11	153

Cross Validation Factor Analysis Results for Inclusion Model (n =141)

Factors	Factor Description	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	SRMR
5	IDM, ACR, B, U, FK	490.38	220	0.87	0.85	0.091	0.080-0.102	0.082

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Inclusion with Entire Sample (N=439)

Factors	Factor Description	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	SRMR
5	IDM, ACR, B, U, FK	834.90	220	0.91	0.89	0.080	0.074-0.086	0.062

Notes: WGI = work group involvement, IDM = involvement in decision-making, ACR = access to communications and resources, B = belongingness, U = valued for uniqueness, FK = feeling known.

Table 7: Item factor loadings on inclusion variables

	Factor Loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Belongingness (B) [#]					
Belongingness item 1	0.82				
Belongingness item 2	0.79				
Belongingness item 3	0.84				
Belongingness item 4	0.73				
Belongingness item 5	0.76				
Uniqueness (U) [#]					
Uniqueness item 1		0.62			
Uniqueness item 1		0.79			
Uniqueness item 1		0.84			
Uniqueness item 1		0.78			
Uniqueness item 1		0.83			
Feeling Known (FK)					
I feel like the other members of my team understand me.			0.77		
I feel that my teammates have formed accurate options about my personality.			0.80		
I feel misunderstood by my teammates. (R)			0.77		
If asked, my teammates would not be able to describe me as I am. (R)			0.79		
I don't think my teammates really know me. (R)			0.83		
Influence in Decision Making (IDM)					
Able to influence organizational decisions				0.83	
Able to influence work assignment decisions				0.86	
Consulted about important project decisions				0.86	
Have a say in the way work is performed				0.81	
Access to Communications and Resources (ACR)					
Provided feedback by boss					0.73
Don't have access to training I need (R)					0.62
Have all the materials I need to do my job					0.64
Rarely receive input from my supervisor (R)					0.58

Note: [#] Permission was needed from the authors (Chung, Shore, et al, In press) of this scale in order to use in this study.

Table 8: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting organizational commitment (N = 439)

Variable	Model 1 (Control)			Model 2		
	B	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Food	0.20	0.40	0.24**	0.08	0.03	0.10**
IDM				0.17	0.04	0.20**
ACR				0.34	0.04	0.35**
Feeling Known				-.012	0.04	-0.16**
Belongingness				0.54	0.08	0.45**
Uniqueness				-0.11	0.08	-0.08
Adjusted R^2		.06			.49	
Change in adj R^2		--			.43	
F for change in R^2		26.56**			43.12**	

Note: $**p < .01$.

Table 9: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting job satisfaction (N = 439)

Variable	Model 1 (Control)			Model 2		
	B	$SE\ B$	β	B	$SE\ B$	β
Food	0.27	0.61	0.21**	0.05	0.05	0.04
IDM				0.14	0.06	0.11*
ACR				0.33	0.06	0 .22**
Feeling Known				0.08	0.06	0.07
Belongingness				0.89	0.12	0.48**
Uniqueness				-0.10	0.12	-0.05
Adjusted R^2		.04			.52	
Change in *adj R^2*		--			.48	
F for change in R^2		19.37**			59.47**	

*Note: *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 10: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting turnover intention (N = 439)

Variable	Model 1 (Control)			Model 2		
	B	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Food	-0.10	0.08	- 0.06	0.11	0.07	0.07
IDM				-0.05	0.09	-0.03
ACR				-0.42	0.09	-0.23**
Feeling Known				-0.26	0.08	-0.19**
Belongingness				-0.61	0.17	-0.27**
Uniqueness				0.17	0.18	0.06
Adjusted R²		.00			.28	
Change in adj *R²*		--			.28	
F for change in *R²*		1.55			29.40**	

Note: **$p < .01$.

Table 11: Relative weights analyses output of inclusion predictors on outcome variables

Organizational Commitment

Predictor	*B*	Relative Weight	% of R-square	90% CI
IDM	0.20**	0.11^	22%	0.07-0.15
ACR	0.35**	0.15^	31%	0.10-0.21
Feeling Known	-0.16**	0.04^	8%	0.02-0.05
Belongingness	0.45**	0.14^	28%	0.09-0.18
Uniqueness	-0.08	0.06^	12%	0.04-0.09
Total Adj R-Square		0.48		

Job Satisfaction

Predictor	*β*	Relative Weight	% of R-square	90% CI
IDM	0.11**	0.08^	16%	0.05-0.12
ACR	0.22**	0.10^	20%	0.07-0.14
Feeling Known	0.07	0.09^	17%	0.06-0.12
Belongingness	0.48**	0.17^	33%	0.13-0.21
Uniqueness	-0.05	0.08^	14%	0.05-0.10
Total Adj R-Square		0.52		

Turnover Intention

Predictor	*B*	Relative Weight	% of R-square	90% CI
IDM	-0.03	0.03^	10%	0.01-0.05
ACR	-0.23**	0.08^	28%	0.04-0.12
Feeling Known	-0.19**	0.07^	26%	0.04-0.12
Belongingness	-0.27**	0.07^	25%	0.04-0.11
Uniqueness	0.06	0.03^	11%	0.02-0.05
Total Adj R-Square		0.29		

Note: $N = 439$. ** $p < .01$. ^ means significant relative weight. IDM = involvement in decision-making. ACR = access to communications and resources.

Appendix A: Work Group Experience Survey

Work Group Experience Survey

Welcome to "Work Group Experience", a web-based survey that examines your feelings relative to your work group. If you have already taken this survey, please do **not** complete it again. Before taking part in this study, please read the consent form below and click on the "I Agree" button at the bottom of the page if you understand the statements and freely consent to participate in the study.

Consent Form

This study involves a web-based survey designed to explore your feelings relevant to your work group. Participation in the study typically takes 10 to 15 minutes and is confidential. Participants will answer a host of questions regarding themselves, their workgroup, and their organization. There are no known risks associated with your participation in this survey.

There are no direct benefits to you as a result of participation. The research results may result in greater understanding of individuals' feelings with respect to their work group. You will not receive any credit for completing this survey. Upon completion of the survey, if you provide an email address it will be entered into a drawing for one of three potential prizes: a $100 Target gift card and two $50 Target gift cards.

Participation is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study at any time.

If you have further questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this study, contact the Compliance Office at (704) 687-1871. If you have questions concerning the study, contact the principal investigator, Gregory Berka at (704) 277-9614 or by email at gcberka@uncc.edu

You may print a copy of this form. If you are 18 years of age or older, understand the statements above, and freely consent to participate in the study, click on the "I Agree" option to begin the survey.

○ I agree

○ I do not agree (and will not be taken to the survey)

Many questions on this survey refer to your work group. For questions regarding your work group, please consider **the largest group of people with whom you interact on a regular basis**. This could be your department, a section of your department, a cohort, a project team. Please select a group with fewer than 30 people.

Which term below best fits your work group?

○ Department

○ Unit

Sub-group in Department

○ Division

○ Cohort

○ Other (please indicate type of group below)

[   ]

What is the approximate number of people in your work group (including you)? Write number below

[   ]

Note 1: There are no incorrect answers on this survey. Your responses should be based on your experience(s).
Note 2: Response choices may change throughout the survey.

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your previously indicated work group.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel part of informal discussions in my work group.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel isolated from my work group.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel work group members don't share information with me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel people in my work group listen to what I say.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel my judgment is respected by members of my work group.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel my work group members make me feel a part of decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your previously indicated work group.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am able to influence organizational decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am able to influence work assignment decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am consulted about important project decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a say in the way work is performed.	○	○	○	○	○	○
	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am provided feedback by my boss.						
I don't have access to training I need.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have all the materials I need to do my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I rarely receive input from my supervisor.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your previously indicated work group.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel like the other members of my work group understand me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel like my work group has formed accurate opinions about my personality.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel misunderstood by my teammates.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
If asked, my teammates would not be able to describe me as I am.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don't think my teammates really know me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your previously indicated work group.

	Strongly Disagee	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Belongingness item 1	○	○	○	○	○
Belongingness item 2	○	○	○	○	○
Valued for uniqueness item 1	○	○	○	○	○
Valued for uniqueness item 2	○	○	○	○	○
Belongingness item 3	○	○	○	○	○
Valued for uniqueness item 3	○	○	○	○	○
Valued for uniqueness item 4	○	○	○	○	○
Belongingness item 4	○	○	○	○	○
Belongingness item 5	○	○	○	○	○
Valued for uniqueness item 5	○	○	○	○	○

Permission was needed from authors (Chung, Shore, et al, In press) in order to use this scale in the study. If you would like to use scale, please contact the authors for items and permission.

Please indicate your level of agreement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Enjoying food is one of the most important pleasures in my life.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have fond memories of family food occasions.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Money spent on food is money well spent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think about food in a positive way.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to the organization where you work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The company inspires me to do my best work every day.	○	○	○	○	○
The company motivates me to contribute more than is normally required to complete my work.	○	○	○	○	○
I would recommend the company as a place to work.	○	○	○	○	○
I rate the company highly as a place to work.	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your job.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, I don't like my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, I like working here.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your job at the organization where you work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I sometimes feel compelled to quit my job in my current workplace.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am currently seriously considering leaving my current job to work at another company.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I will quit this company if the given conditions gets even a little worse than now.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I will probably look for a new job in the next year.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

For the next seven (7) questions, some extra thinking/care is required to answer the items as you need to consider each member of your work group. These questions are very important to the success of this research and your time is appreciated.

What is your gender?

○ Female

○ Male

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people, including you.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each gender category below.

Female   [   ]

Male   [   ]

What is your race/ethnicity?

○ American Indian / Alaskan Native

○ Asian

○ Black

○ Hispanic / Latino

○

Pacific Islander (Native Hawaiian)

○ White

○ Multiple Races / Ethnicities

○ Unknown / Prefer not to disclose

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each race/ethnicity category below.

American Indian / Alaskan Native	
Asian	
Black	
Hispanic / Latino	
Pacific Islander (Native Hawaiian)	
White	
Multiple Races / Ethnicities	
Unknown	

What is your age (in years)?

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in category below.

Younger than you	
Around your age (within 5 years)	
Older than you	

What is the highest level of education you achieved?

○ Less than high school

○ High school degree or equivalent (i.e., GED)

○ Associate's degree or some college

○ College degree (Undergraduate)

○ Some graduate school

○ Graduate degree

○ Other (please indicate below)

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each category below.

Lower level of education than you	
Around the same level of education as you	
Higher level of education than you	

How long have you worked as a member of your current work group? Please indicate the number of years and months below.

Years	
Months	

How many total years of experience do you have that is relevant/related to your current job (including the time you worked in your current work group)? Please round to the nearest total years.

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each category below.

Less experience than you	
Around the same experience level as you	
More experience than you	

What is your sexual orientation?

○ Bisexual

○ Gay or Lesbian

○ Heterosexual or Straight

○ Other / Prefer not to disclose

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each sexual orientation category below.

Bisexual [   ]

Gay or Lesbian [   ]

Heterosexual or Straight [   ]

Other / Unknown [   ]

What is your current marital status?

○ Married or Partnered (in marriage-like relationship / living together)

○ Unmarried

○ Other (please enter status below)
[   ]

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each category below.

Married or partnered (in marriage-like relationship / living together) [   ]

Unmarried [   ]

Other / Unknown [   ]

Do you have children?

○ Yes

○ No

You previously indicated your work group has ${q://QID2/ChoiceTextEntryValue} people.

Please indicate the number of people from your workgroup (excluding you) in each category below.

Have children

Do not have children

Other / Unknown

This is the last page of questions. You are almost finished. Thank you again.

Please indicate your level of agreement with respect to your previously indicated work group.

	Not at all (1)	(2)	(3)	Moderately (4)	(5)	(6)	A lot (7)
How much do you trust your fellow group members?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How comfortable do you feel delegating to your group members?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Are your group members truthful and honest?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much do you respect your fellow group members?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much do you respect the ideas of the people in your group?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much do you like your group members?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what degree would you consider these people your friends?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much open discussion of issues is there in your group?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what degree is communication in your group open?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what degree is conflict dealt with openly in your work group?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what extent is your group cohesive?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much do you feel like your team has group spirit?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what degree would you talk up this work group to your friends as a great group to work in?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Thank you for participating. Please type your email address below to be entered into the drawing for Target gift cards: one $100 gift card and two $50 gift cards. If you win, you will be contacted at this email address. All email addresses will be kept private and confidential.

If you have anything else to add, please do so below as well. Please click the right arrow below to submit your survey.

APPENDIX B – SCALES

Feeling Known in Organizational Team (Purvanova, 2013). (1 = Disagree Strongly to 7 = Agree strongly)
1. I feel like the other members of my team understand me.
2. I feel that my teammates have formed accurate opinions about my personality.
3. I feel misunderstood by my teammates. (R)
4. If asked, my teammates would not be able to describe me as I am. (R)
5. I don't think my teammates really know me. (R)

Work Group Inclusion (Chung, Shore, Randel, Ehrhart, & Dean, in press) (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)
Belongingness items are 1,2,5,8,9; Uniqueness items are 3,4,6,7,10

1. I am treated as a valuable member of this group (Sample belongingness item).
2. Belongingness item 2
3. Belongingness item 3
4. Belongingness item 4
5. Belongingness item 5
6. I can share a perspective on work issues that is different than my group members (Sample valued for uniqueness item).
7. Valued for uniqueness item 2
8. Valued for uniqueness item 3
9. Valued for uniqueness item 4
10. Valued for uniqueness item 5

Note: Permission was needed from the authors above in order to use the work group inclusion scale in this study. As part of the permission, only a sample of each item can be reproduced in the document.

Inclusion-Exclusion Continuum (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998) (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Somewhat agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly agree)

Work Group Involvement (WGI)
1. I feel part of informal discussions in my work group.
2. I feel isolated from my work group. (R)
3. I feel work group members don't share information with me. (R)
4. I feel people in my work group listen to what I say
5. I feel my judgment is respected by members of my work group
6. I feel my work group members make me feel a part of decisions.

Influence in Decision-Making (IDM)
1. I am able to influence organizational decisions.
2. I am able to influence work assignment decisions.

3. I am consulted about important project decisions.
4. I have a say in the way work is performed.

Access to Communications and Resources (ACR)
1. I am provided feedback by my boss.
2. I don't have access to training I need (R).
3. I have all the materials I need to do my job.
4. I rarely receive input from my supervisor. (R)

Organizational Commitment (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007 adapted from Moway, Steers, & Porter, 1979) (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

1. The company inspires me to do my best work everyday.
2. The company motivates me to contribute more than is normally required to complete my work.
3. I would recommend this company as a place to work.
4. I rate the company highly as a place to work.

Overall Job Satisfaction, part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ) developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh, 1983. (1=Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly agree)

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working here.

Turnover Intention (Cammann et al (1979) and Seashore et al (1982)) (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree)

1. I sometimes feel compelled to quit my job in my current workplace.
2. I am currently seriously considering leaving my current job to work at another company.
3. I will quit this company if the given conditions gets even a little worse than now.
4. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.

Food Pleasure Scale (Sharp, Hutchinson, Prichard, & Wilson, 2013) – theoretically unrelated marker variable (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree)

1. Enjoying food is one of the most important pleasures in my life.
2. I have fond memories of family food occasions.
3. Money spent on food is well spent.
4. I think about food in a positive way.

APPENDIX C   **CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS**

<u>Five Factors</u>

Work Group Inclusion (Chung, Shore, Randel, Ehrhart, & Dean, in press)

Belongingness [#]

Belongingness item 1	B1	
Belongingness item 2	B2	
Belongingness item 3	B3	Belongingness
Belongingness item 4	B4	
Belongingness item 5	B5	

Valued for Uniqueness [#]

Valued for Uniqueness item 1	U1	
Valued for Uniqueness item 2	U2	Valued for
Valued for Uniqueness item 3	U3	Uniqueness
Valued for Uniqueness item 4	U4	
Valued for Uniqueness item 5	U5	

Feeling Known in Organizational Team (Purvanova, 2013)

I feel like the other members of my team understand me.	FK1	
I feel that my teammates have formed accurate options about my personality.	FK2	
		Feeling
I feel misunderstood by my teammates. (R)	FK3	Known
If asked, my teammates would not be able to describe me as I am. (R)	FK4	
I don't think my teammates really know me. (R)	FK5	

Inclusion-Exclusion Continuum (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998)

Influence in Decision Making (IDM)

Able to influence organizational decisions	IDM1	
Able to influence work assignment decisions	IDM2	Influence in
Consulted about important project decisions	IDM3	Decision-Making
Have a say in the way work is performed	IDM4	

Access to Communications and Resources (ACR)

Provided feedback by boss	ACR1	Access to
Don't have access to training I need (R)	ACR2	Communications &
Have all the materials I need to do my job	ACR3	Resources
Rarely receive input from my supervisor (R)	ACR4	

Work Group Involvement (WGI)   <u>Maps to:</u>

Feel part of informal discussions in my work group	WGI1	Belongingness
Feel isolated from my work group (R)	WGI2	Feeling Known
My judgment is respected by members of my work group	WGI3	Feeling Known
People in my work group listen to what I say	WGI4	IDM
My work group members don't share information with me (R)	WGI5	IDM
My work group members make me feel a part of decisions	WGI6	IDM

Note: [#] Permission was needed from the authors (Chung, Shore, et al, In press) of this scale in order to use in this study.