HOW PERCEPTIONS OF INCLUSION RELATE TO WORK GROUP ATTRACTION

by

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ABSTRACT

DAVID JAMES SCHEAF. How perceptions of work group inclusion relate to work group attraction (Under the direction of DR. DAVID J. WOEHR)

Identification—the perceived oneness and/or belongingness—with a group has been found to be related to a host of individual and group outcomes. However, it remains unclear how group perceptions and outcomes are affected when an individual perceives oneness or membership, but does not perceive belongingness. The present study seeks to understand how perceived belongingness influences perceptions groups. I test the hypotheses using structural equation modeling with a sample of 435 working adults employed in a variety of work groups. The findings indicate that the higher degree an individual perceives a sense of belongingness by way of work group inclusion, the more positively they perceive the work group. The findings seek to make contributions to social identity theory and work group inclusion. Implications for theory and practice, as well as future fruitful avenues of research are discussed.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the Core: Mom and Dad, your love and support made reaching this milestone possible. I would not have made it this far without your encouragement. Dan, thank you reminding me to stay the course. I am grateful that I have a brother like you. Courtney, thank you for going on this journey with me. I couldn't imagine completing this degree without you. I can't wait to continue to our journey together.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Identity provides an individual with an understanding of their place in a variety of contexts (Hogg, & Mullin, 1999). Identity is one of the core concepts in the study of human cognition and behavior. Identity, as a theoretical concept, explains how and why people interpret and navigate their environments (Ashforth, 1998). In the organizational sciences, identity has been found to influence why people are attracted to organizations, why employees voluntarily turnover, and how employees interact with co-workers (Banks, Kepes, Joshi, & Seers, 2015). Identity is formed through individuals' identification with salient groups. In this way, identification is important because it is how individuals define themselves in complex environments and communicate their self-concept to others (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008: 334).

Identification—the perceived oneness and/or belongingness—with a group has been found to be related to a variety of individual and group outcomes (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989). Identification helps to reduce uncertainty, build self-esteem, and provide the individual with a sense of self (Tajfel, 1981). Identification also leads to positive outcomes for organizations and workgroups due to its social nature (Albert et al., 2000; Haslam, & Ellemers, 2005). Positive outcomes include cooperation, effort, motivation, task performance (Bartel, 2001; Kramer, 2006), and information sharing and coordinated actions (Grice, Gallois, Jones, Paulsen, & Callan, 2006).

Despite the advancements in our understanding of identification, it remains unclear how group perceptions and outcomes are affected when an individual perceives

oneness or membership, but does not perceive a sense of belongingness. The literature has often associated perceived oneness and belongingness as the same conceptual construct. Given a variety of social categories (e.g. race, gender, nationality), a theoretical distinction between oneness and belongingness for identification seems irrelevant. However, complex social categories like organizations and work groups exhibit differing levels of abstraction. Differing levels of abstraction gives rise for the possibility to contain various social categories. In this way, perceived oneness and belongingness may not function in the same theoretical manner within intersectional workgroups.

Herein I seek to understand how perceived belongingness influences perceptions of the group. I offer theoretical arguments for how perceived oneness and perceived belongingness are distinct cognitive constructs, which influence identification and group perceptions. I develop and test a set of hypotheses of work group inclusion using a sample of 435 working adults. Using structural equation modeling, I provide support that perceived belongingness is positively related to perceptions of the work group.

I begin by defining key concepts and then introduce the theoretical framework for the associated hypotheses. I follow with the methodology and results. I end with a discussion of how the findings contribute to both our understanding of social identity theory and work group inclusion.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Group behavior, inter-group behavior, or individuals within groups have commonly been researched using two orientations. One orientation recognizes individuals are nested within a group (Klein, & Kozlowski, 2000). Another orientation focuses attention on the self-concept derived from a group. Meaning, the group becomes a backdrop for how the self is defined (Tajfel, 1982). Group membership and social cognitive processes associated with group membership thereby influence individual behavior and individual perceptions of groups (Tajfel, 1969). The majority of organizational research examining group phenomenon tend to adopt the first orientation. However, the second orientation has great potential in explaining or understanding individuals within groups or organizations (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989). To explore the second orientation further, I apply social identity theory and self-categorization theory to work group inclusion.

2.1. Social Identity and Self-Categorization Theory

Social identity asserts that an individual's knowledge that s/he is a member of a certain social group influences their perceptions, thoughts, and actions (Tajfel, 1972). An individual may perceive membership to multiple social groupings. Tajfel (1972) posits an individuals' desire for self-concept drives the consideration for how the self is conceptualized in intergroup contexts. Specifically, how a collection of social categorizations creates and defines an individuals' own place in society (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Individuals seek to categorize themselves into social groups in hopes of answering

the question, "who am I?" As a result of the categorization, individuals begin to identify with the group (Oakes, & Turner, 1980; Wagner, Lampen, & Syllwasschy, 1986). Identification is defined as individuals' perception of oneness and/or belongingness to a group (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989:21).

Clear boundaries of social groups allow categorization to occur (Chatman, Bell, & Staw, 1986; March & Simon, 1958). The boundary demarcates the saliency of in and out group members (Allen et al., 1983; Turner, 1981). Boundaries may arise due to apparent physical characteristics (e.g. skin color), legal boundaries (e.g. nationality), or distinctness of values (e.g. culture or religion), and allow for intergroup comparison (Wagner, Lampen, & Syllwasschy, 1986; Oakes, & Turner, 1986). The distinctness of boundaries and intergroup comparison on criteria such as prestige (Chatman, March, & Simon, 1958), facilitate the mechanism upon which an individual may derive self-esteem or self-worth (Hogg, & Turner, 1985; Tajfel, 1978).

Beyond establishing a self-concept and providing the individual with self-esteem, self-categorization produces various positive perceptions of groups. For example, once individuals identify with a specific group they tend to favor their group over others (Brewer, 1979). Previous research has shown that favoritism towards the identified group tends to occur even in the absence of strong leadership, member interdependency, member interaction, or cohesion (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989). Identification is considered a strictly perceptual cognitive construct which is not associated with any behaviors and affective states. Behaviors and affective states may result from identification (Foote, 1991; Gould, 1975).

Various lab studies have shown that randomly placing individuals into groups leads to out-group discrimination (Brewer, 1979; Tajfel, 1981). These findings suggest that prior interaction or affinity is not necessary in producing in-group favoritism. Further, group affinity was found among participants even when there was an absence of interaction within or between groups, when group membership was anonymous, and when there was no link between self- and group-interests (Turner, 1984; Ashforth, & Mael, 1989). Indeed, these random placements and lack of prior interaction even led to increased cooperation and cohesion (Chen, & Li, 2009).

In an attempt to make sense out of these surprising findings, Turner (1984) proposed the existence of a psychological group. A psychological group is defined as a "collection of people who share the same social identification or define themselves in terms of the same social category membership" (Turner, 1985). Critical to the concept of psychological group is that a member of the psychological group need not to interact with, like, or be accepted by the other members for the group to inform the individual's identity (Turner, 2014). It is merely the individuals' perception of membership, derived from self-categorization, which results in identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Turner, 1984).

However, once an individual identifies with a group, it is likely to lead to higher levels of group affinity (Dion, 1973; Hogg & Turner, 1985). The individual, seeking self-concept, categorizes him or herself into a psychological group. As a result of the categorization, the individual is likely to perceive similarities with the other members of the psychological group. Theoretical perspectives from the similarity-attraction paradigm argue that perceived similarity positively relates to various positive outcomes (Byrne,

1971). For example, racial similarity in work groups has been found to increase liking, exhibit better communication behavior, lead to higher ratings of satisfaction, and reduces turnover intentions, actual turnover, and relational conflict (Buckley, Jackson, Bolino, Veres, & Field, 2007; Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998; Chattopadhyay, 1999; Godthelp, & Glunk, 2003; Riordan, & Shore, 1997; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly III, 1992). Gender similarity in groups has been found to relate positively with cohesion, feelings of competency, and negatively with stereotyping and absences (Kanter, 1977; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992).

In general, if an individual perceives similarities to other group members, then attraction to the group is likely to follow (Byrne, 1971). Outcomes of attraction are typically positive for both the individual and the group (Guillaume, Brodbeck, & Riketta, 2012). For many social categorizations, individuals who self-categorize themselves into groups are typically accepted into a psychological group. In hopes of deriving a self-concept, individuals tend to categorize themselves into groups with salient boundaries. The boundaries of groups are often derived by the very characteristics that the individual already has in common with the social group (Allen et. al, 1973). Therefore, the boundary acts as a categorization signal. The collection of people is likely to share the same social identification or define themselves in terms of the same social category membership. By sharing the same perceived psychological group, the individuals' perception of oneness and belongingness can be considered "confirmed" (Tyler, Kramer, & John, 2014). However, organizations and work groups offer a unique theoretical boundary for self-categorization. Meaning, work groups are unique in that one who may perceive oneness with a work group by way of employment, may not share the same social identification as

other organizational work group members. The potential for misalignment of psychological grouping offers a unique context to examine how perceptions of the group are influenced when individuals perceive oneness, but feel like they do not belong.

2.2. Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorization within the Organizational Context

Identification has been argued to be a distinct cognitive construct (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989). Affect and behaviors pertaining to the group may be antecedents or results of identification, but are not required for identification to occur (Gould, 1975). Individuals merely need to cognitively categorize themselves into a group for the group to inform their sense of identity (Turner, 2014). Empirical work on social identity and self-categorization theory has generally supported that categorization and subsequent identification with a group leads to positive perceptions of the group (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). However, the majority of these studies have implicitly assumed or have explicitly stated that an individuals' identification is predicated on two factors: (1) Perceived oneness and (2) perceived belongingness (Ashforth, & Mael, 1998; Rousseau, 1998). Additionally, whether individuals perceive the same psychological group as the other members is conspicuously missing. These assumptions seem fitting given the often saliency of categorical boundaries (e.g. race, nationality, religion).

Organizational and work group contexts offer a unique theoretical boundary to examine social identity and self-categorization theory. Organizations are typically thought of as the interconnections of people and routines, structures, and systems (Becker, & Gordon, 1966; Liebenstein, 1968; Nelson, & Winter, 1982). As systems, routines, and structures begin to take form, it is common for subunits or subsystems within the broader organizational context to form (Scott & Davis, 2007). Albert and

Whetten (1985) distinguished between the holographic organization—individuals across subunits share a common identity—and the ideographic organization—identity differs between subunits with the same organization. I define work groups as any sub-group within an organization.

The saliency of work group boundaries may not be as clear as aforementioned social categories. Further, diverse work groups offer various social categories (e.g. race, age, gender) upon which members can sub-categorize members. It is unclear how identification and subsequent perceptions of the work group are affected when other group members perceive the individual as an outgroup member or differ in perceived psychological groupings. Turner (1984) posits that individuals do not need to be liked or accepted by the other group members for the individual to incorporate the group membership as a part of their identity. Although the other group members' acceptance is irrelevant for identification, it is unclear whether the positive perceptions of the group would remain.

To address the current limitations in the literature, I suggest the following propositions. First, I argue that perceptions of oneness and perceptions of belongingness are distinct in the identification process. I propose perceptions of oneness influence identification, and perceptions of belongingness influence the perceptions of the group.

Second, belongingness as a concept within social identity has been assumed to operate as solely an individual cognitive construct. Individuals self-categorize themselves into social groups based on the need for self-concept. Individuals are likely to categorize themselves into groups with salient boundaries, which act as categorical ques. The individual incorporates the group into their identity due to the perceived similarities

between themselves and the group. Given this framework, it is reasonable for belongingness to operate as solely an individual cognitive construct.

Organizational work groups may operate more ambiguously. Work groups may be diverse (Roberson, 2006), which may allow members to be placed into sub-categories. Within this context, an individual who holds membership by way of employment may perceive oneness (e.g. a member of the functional tasks of the work group) and incorporate the group into their identity. However, it is not certain that work groups function like a psychological grouping. The various social categories upon which members can categorize (race, gender, age) may lead to misaligned group identifications among work group members. Under situations where a misalignment of identification occurs, it then follows that members of the work group perceive different psychological groupings for the same work group. Psychological groups, by their definition, are likely to lead to perceived similarities (Turner, 1984).

Perceived similarities between the individual and the group have been found to positively influence perceptions of the group. I propose that perceived similarities lead to positive perceptions of the group when conditions of belongingness are satisfied. Belongingness, I propose, manifests when other work group members share the same social categorization of work group members. Having a similar social categorization demonstrates an alignment of perceived psychological groupings for the same work group. With the alignment of psychological groupings, I propose that members of the group share the same perceived similarities to the individual. The shared perceptions of similarities lead to other group member behavior demonstrating acceptance (Rousseau,

1998) or a sense of mutual belongingness. I suggest it is the sense of belongingness which influences the perceptions of the group.

Important in this distinction is the decoupling of perceived oneness and perceived belongingness in identification. I agree perceived oneness is a cognitive construct, distinct from affect and behaviors. I also agree that perceived oneness influences identity (Turner, 2014). Where the theoretical model departs from previous work is in the decoupling of perceived oneness and perceived belongingness. I argue that perceived oneness may occur solely based on an individual cognition. Perceived belongingness, I assert, is necessarily dependent on how the individual perceives the other group members action toward him or her. To test the theoretical propositions, I develop hypotheses using work group inclusion as a sense of belongingness.

CHAPTER 3: CURRENT STUDY

A brief discussion on the distinction between inclusion and diversity is warranted given the frequent association between both concepts in the literature. Although a tight theoretical connection between diversity and inclusion exists, these constructs are conceptually distinct (Roberson, 2006). Diversity has long been thought of as the demographic composition of a particular group. Indeed, use of the concept of diversity has been used to describe the demographic composition of groups or labor markets (Milliken, & Martins, 1996). Diversity captures the heterogeneity (or lack thereof) of members in a group (McGrath, Berdahl, & Arrow, 1999). Demographic characteristics can be segmented in a variety of ways. Scholars have examined heterogeneity of culture, values, knowledge, and skills (Cox, 1993; Larkey, 1986). Although these examples broaden the scope of diversity, the essence remains the same: group level heterogeneity (or lack thereof) on some dimension of the group.

Early diversity scholarship within the organizational studies focused attention on selection bias or discrimination of selection practices (Brugnoli, Campion, & Basen, 1979; Reimers, 1983; Schmidt, & Hunter, 1973). Past studies of work group diversity overlooked the concept of exclusion (Prasad, 2001). The majority of this work assumed that members of the work group would be treated the same. However, it became apparent that this particular assumption was flawed (Roberson, 2006). Thus, the concept of inclusion has emerged as a construct of interest when examining diverse work groups (Ibarra, 1993).

Inclusion has been defined the degree to which individuals feel they are a part of, and can influence, critical work group processes (Mor Barak, & Cherin, 1998). Whereas diversity emphasizes the heterogeneity of its members as a group level commodity (McGrath, Berdahl, & Arrow, 1995), inclusion is an individual level cognitive construct of a person-group interaction (Shore, Randel, Chung, Dean, Ehrhart, & Singh, 2010). The perception of inclusion ranges from included to excluded, based on assessments of various critical work group processes. Important to this perspective is that a group does not exhibit a group level attribute of inclusion (Miller, 1998).

The degree to which a group is inclusive can only be only be assessed by the degree of shared perceptions of its individual members (Mor Barak, 1999), aggregated to a group level. Further, individual perceptions of inclusion have been theorized as individuals' assessments of various critical work group processes (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998; Mor Barak, 2000). Inclusion is considered a higher-order reflective construct which influences various dimensions of critical work functions. Phenomena that have been theorized to capture a sense of inclusion have been perceptions of work group involvement, influence in decision making, and access to communications and resources (Mor Barak, & Cherin, 1998; Roberson, 2006). I briefly describe how each dimension of inclusion satisfies a sense of work group belongingness and hypothesize how each dimension relates to perceived work group attraction.

3.1. Work Group Involvement

Individuals simultaneously desire to be recognized as similar to the collective, while remaining distinct enough to retain a sense of uniqueness (Shore et al., 2010). To satisfy feelings of belongingness to the work group, individuals assess their levels of

involvement (Rotandi, 1975; Hobman, Bordia, & Gallois, 2004). Involvement in the work group can be thought of in both a formal and informal capacity (Mor Barak, & Cherin, 1998). Formal work group involvement is thought of as contributing to the functions of the work group. Individuals' job roles may require certain involvement in order for the work group to accomplish its functions. However, involvement in the work group functions may exceed certain job roles due to work group members valuing the uniqueness of the individual (Hobman, Bordia, & Gallois, 2003). Similarly, work group members may seek other ways to accomplish work group functions, thereby not involving certain individuals (Otten, & Jansen, 2014). Individuals involved in the formal work group functions are provided with information necessary to perform work duties. They are "kept in the loop" (Mor Barak, 2000).

Informal work group involvement extends beyond formal work functions. For example, individuals involved in an informal capacity feel a part of informal discussions (Mor Barak, & Cherin, 1998). Although these discussion could pertain to work group functions, the discussions are not being held in a formal work group medium or channel (e.g. meeting, debrief). The sense of belongingness extends past mere work roles. Informal work group involvement demonstrates to the individual that the other members involve them, even when their involvement is not necessary to the functioning of the work group (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002).

In sum, work group involvement, both in a formal and informal capacity demonstrates to the individual that the other work members value them as a member of the group. Perceived work group involvement is argued to satisfice perceptions of belongingness. I contend that individuals who report a higher level of work group

involvement, will perceive a higher level of belongingness. The sense of belongingness confirms the perceived similarities between the individual and the work group, due to the alignment of perceived psychological grouping among work group members. As the theoretical model proposes, a higher level of belongingness is likely to positively relate to perceived attraction to the work group. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived work group involvement is positively related to perceived attraction to the work group.

3.2. Influence in Decision Making

Another aspect of inclusion is the amount an individual perceive they can influence key decisions of the group (Mor Barak, & Cherin, 1998). Influence in decision making is distinct from making the decision. Influence merely implies that an individual's opinions and input are heard.

Influence in the decision making process provides the individual with a sense of belongingness to the group because it displays that they are valued by the other work group members (Simons, Pelled, & Smith, 1995). The ability to influence the decision making process allows for the individual to contribute to the work group beyond their specific work tasks. Delivering insights, and assisting in the direction of decisions is likely to increase individual perceptions of belonging to the group, as opposed to feeling like an external member responding to the work group.

By seeking input from an individual, the other work group members acknowledge the membership of the individual. This external validation of membership acts as a behavioral acknowledgement that the individual being asked from their input belongs to the larger work group collective. Therefore, the other member's perceived psychological grouping can be considered the same as the individual. The degree to which an individual

feels like they can influence the decisions of the work group provides (dis)confirmation for the alignment of psychological grouping with the other work group members. The increased perceptions of belongingness is likely to increase perceived attraction to the work group. Therefore, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Perceived influence in decision making is positively related to perceived attraction to the work group.

3.3. Access to Communications and Resources

Being a part of the critical work group processes implies the support an individual receives from the work group to carry out critical work group functions (Mor Barak, 2000). Receiving support can take many forms. For the current purposes, I describe two forms of support as they relate to inclusion. First, an individual can feel like they are receiving formal support such as training and the required resources to perform job tasks to a desired level. Resources can be thought of as material resources, such as equipment, as well as non-material resources like skill development opportunities (Spreitzer, 1996). Second, individuals can feel supported by receiving adequate, timely, and constructive feedback (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Access to supervisors within the work group has been linked to many important career development outcomes (Fedor, Eder, & Buckley, 1989). As such, receiving support may indicate the individual is a valued member of the work group.

Supporting an individual in performing their duties may seem expected. However, when members of the work group exclude individuals, they have been found to withhold various resources and adequate feedback (Einarsen, & Skogsted, 1996). Prior research has examined these types of behaviors from a discrimination perspective (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1980; Mansfield et al., 1991). Regardless, of the motives,

when access to resources and communications is withheld from an employee they are not likely to perceive belongingness to the work group.

Therefore, individuals that perceive access to resources and communications within their workgroups are likely to feel a sense of belongingness. The access indicates that the individual is a valued member of the workgroup and belongs. The sense of belongingness confirms the perceived similarities between the individual and the work group, due to the alignment of perceived psychological grouping among work group members. Satisficing belongingness is likely to increase perceived attraction to the work group. Accordingly, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: Perceived access to resources and communications is positively related to perceived attraction to the work group.

3.4. Relative Importance of Each Dimension of Inclusion

All the aforementioned sub-dimensions of inclusion are theorized to be important aspects of fostering a sense of belongingness in a work group (Shore et al., 2010), and hypothesized to increase the attractiveness of a work group. However, do all sub-dimensions act equally in fostering a sense of belongingness and therefore relate to attraction to work groups equally?

Each sub-dimension represents a different aspect of inclusion into the work group. Access to resources and communications represents the degree to which an individual perceives they are adequately supported to perform the duties of their job tasks. Although, access to resources and communications may be an adequate signal to the individual that they are a valued member of the work group, the focus remains on the individual performing duties of a the job role. Similarly, perceived influence in decision

making is closely aligned with performing job tasks, and influencing decisions as they pertain to work tasks. The perceived influence in decision making can signal the value the individual work group member.

Lastly, work group involvement involves both formal and informal involvement in the work group. The sense of belongingness to the work group extends past work role responsibilities (Hobman et al., 2003, 2004). By being involved in an informal capacity, the work group signals to the individual that they belong even in the absence of a directly related job function (Anderson, Caffey, & Byerly, 2002). I contend that this association of belongingness to the work group, which is attributed to the individual rather than the job tasks, has the greatest impact on developing a sense of belongingness. Given our theoretical framework, a greater sense of belongingness is likely to have a larger relationship with perceptions of attraction towards the work group. Therefore, I hypothesize,

> *Hypothesis 4: Perceived work group involvement, when compared to the other sub-dimensions of inclusion, is the largest contributor of variance for perceived work group attraction.*

CHAPTER 4: METHOD

4.1. Sample and Procedure

This study took place as part of a larger study of inclusion and work group related outcomes. Respondents were recruited using two recruiting methods. Both recruiting methods used email solicitation with a link to the study survey using Qualtics. First, current and former graduate students from a southern university were invited to participate in the study if they met the criterion of being employed in a work group. Participants were informed that participation could result in the reward of a minor incentive. A second wave of emails were targeted at one of the author's professional network connections. Emails recruited target members of various organizational types and industries. Second, data were collected using Panel Advisor from Qualtrics (Brandon, Long, Loraas, & Mueller-Phillips, 2013). Qualtrics Panel Advisor connects social science researchers with a large panel of potential survey respondents. Qualtrics Panel Advisor offers small incentives for participation. In all, a total of 1160 survey links were emailed with 435 total survey responses (response rate of approximately 38%).

For this study, I limited the sample to potential respondents who are employed and routinely work in a work group. The 435 work adults used for this study were employed within a wide range of work groups. Work group classification was determined by the participants. Work groups included Departments (44%), Units (15.4%), sub-groups within departments (19.4%), Division (8.7%), cohort (4.6%) or other (8.9%). Of the other classification, "team" represented the majority of responses (47.1%). The work

groups ranged in size with a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 30. Mean for group size was 13.16 members with a standard deviation of 8.61.

Respondents ranged from 19 to older than 65; most (84.9%) were between 24-54 years old. Most respondents were female (57.2%). Respondents were highly educated, with 33.3% having earned an undergraduate degree. The majority of the respondents were white (76.6%). Black respondents represented the second largest race (9.2%), followed by Asian (4.8%), Hispanic/Latino (4.6%), multiple races/ethnicities (2.8%) representing the rest of the sample.

The analyses used structural equation modeling, which requires no missing data. Upon examination for missing data, 8 cases for similarity of work group race composition were missing. Although these 8 cases are well below the 5% threshold for missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), I decided to impute values. Imputation for similarity of work group race composition was computed using random number generation using the existing sample mean and standard deviations. Imputed values ranged between 0 and 1, consistent with the work group race similarity metric. I also used quartile techniques to detect any outliers (Hawkins, 1980). No outliers were present in the data set.

4.2. Measures

Inclusion was measured using Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) inclusion-exclusion continuum. Inclusion is conceptualized as three distinct latent factors: Work group involvement, influence in decision making, and access to communications and resources.

Work Group Involvement. The inclusion-exclusion continuum assesses work group involvement with a 6-itm sub-scale. Participants were instructed to indicate their level of agreement with respect to their previously indicated work group, using a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). Sample items include 'I feel a part of informal discussions in my work group' and 'I feel my judgement is respected by members of my work group'.

Influence in Decision Making. I used Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) 4-item sub-scale to assess influence in decision making. Participants were instructed to indicate their level of agreement with respect to their previously indicated work group, using a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). Sample items include 'I am consulted about important project decisions' and 'I have a say in the way work is performed'.

Access to Communications and Resources. I used Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) 4-item sub-scale to assess the perceived support received from supervisors and co-workers. Participants were instructed to indicate their level of agreement with respect to their previously indicated work group, using a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). Sample items include 'I have all the materials I need to do my job' and 'I don't have access to training I need'.

Perceived Attractiveness to Work Group. Perceived attractiveness towards the work group was operationalized as a higher order latent factor influencing the lower order factors of perceived group cohesiveness, perceived trust amongst work group members, and perceived liking of group members. Attraction towards a work group has been found to positively relate to perceived cohesiveness, perceived trust of work group

members, and the perceived liking of the work members (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Jehn et al., 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Therefore, any common variance amongst these lower order factors may theoretically be attributed to an overall perception of group attractiveness (Hogg, 1992). Sub-scales for perceptions of trust, liking, and cohesiveness were used from Jehn and Mannix (2001) Group Atmosphere Items.

Participants were instructed to indicate the level of perceived cohesiveness, trust, and liking for their previously indicated work group on a 7-point Likert scale. The 7-point Likert scale was anchored by 1 (Not at all) and 7 (A lot). Perceptions of group cohesiveness sample items include 'How much do you feel like your team has group spirit?' and 'To what degree would you talk up this work group to you friends as a great group to work in?'

Perceptions of group trust was measured using a 3 question sub-scale. Sample items include 'How much do you trust your fellow group members?' and 'How comfortable do you feel delegating to your work group members?' Lastly, perceived liking of group members was measured using a 2-item sub scale. Items included 'To what degree would you consider these people your friends?' and 'How much do you like your work group members?'

Control Variables. I chose to assess work group race and gender similarity (dissimilarity) as a control variable because of the theoretical and empirical support for race and gender similarity being related to focal variables in the present study. Race and gender similarity are two common surface-level characteristics that have been found to influence both inclusion and group attraction (Harrison et al., 1998; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). The purpose of the current study is to determine the relationship

between belongingness, conceptualized as work group inclusion, and perceived attraction towards the work group, when perceived psychological groupings of members may be (mis)aligned with other work group members.

Surface-level characteristics of the individual and work group members may spuriously affect the relationship between perceptions of inclusion and perceived attractiveness of the work group. Surface-level characteristics can act as an apparent boundary for sub-categorization. These surface-level characteristics exist beyond the boundaries of the organization, and can influence the degree to which work group members share the same perceptions of psychological groupings. By sharing a categorization to a psychological group based on other categories than the work group itself, the relationship between belongingness (i.e. inclusion perceptions) and group attractiveness may be spuriously related due to a psychological grouping which extends beyond the work group.

Race and gender work group similarity were measured by taking the number of similar work group members to the participant and dividing by the total work group size. The resulting metric ranges from 0 (no other similar work group members), to 1 (all members are similar to participant). I used the same method to produce both race and gender work group similarity. The participant reported all demographic information of the work group at the beginning of the survey, and demographic information about themselves at the end of the survey.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 1 displays correlations for each of the variables. Correlations between items were consistent with the direction hypothesized. A pre-requisite for structural equation modeling is the assumption of normally distributed data. All item distributions fall within acceptable ranges for assumptions of normality. All item values of kurtosis range within values of -3 to +3, demonstrating an acceptable range for normal univariate distribution (Garson, 2012). All skewness values for study items range between -2 to +2, further supporting normal univariate distribution (George, & Mallery, 2010).

5.2. Test for Common Method Bias and Discriminant Validity

The survey device used in the study may produce artificial covariation among the predictor and criterion variables (Lindell, & Whitney, 2001). Additionally, common method variance may result from having a common rater for all constructs of interest (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass, 1991). Techniques used to control for common method variance should reflect the fact that it is expected to have its effects at the item level instead of the construct level (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To test for common method variance, I first used Harman's single factor test (Greene, & Organ, 1973; Organ, & Greene, 1981). I loaded all variable items in the present study into an exploratory factor analysis and examined the non-rotated factor solution to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the items.

TABLE 1 Correlations

Variables	WGI	IDM	ACR	Grp Coh	Grp Trust
WGI	-				
IDM	.729	-			
ACR	.593	.594	-		
Grp Coh	.685	.597	.649	-	
Grp Trust	.751	.584	.588	.859	-
Grp Like	.741	.528	.591	.925	.925

Note. N=435

Common method variance is assumed to be present when either a single factor will (a) only be present or (b) will account for the overwhelming majority of the variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The results from the exploratory factor analysis showed four resulting factors when items were suppressed to load at the .3 level or higher. These results were also supported by an examination of a scree plot (Kaplan, 2009). Further, when items were placed into a confirmatory factory analysis with only one factor specified for all item loadings, the model displays poor fit among multiple fit indices (Table 2).

Although appealing, the Harman's single-factor test exhibits several limitations. To supplement these limitations, I used a confirmatory factor analysis marker technique (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Williams and colleagues (Williams, Edwards, & Vandenberg, 2003) propose a theoretically irrelevant marker be tested in a confirmatory factor analysis with the variables under investigation. Table 2 displays model fit between marker models. Common method variance may be thought of as any shared variance between the marker factor and the indictors of the theoretical factors. Comparing the change in fit between a model in which the marker construct is free to estimate and a model where the

TABLE 2: Confirmatory factor analysis models

Model	MLMχ^2_a	$\Delta\chi^2$	*df*	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
1. 1 factor model	2359.42**	-	209	.70	.67	.09	.15
2. 2 factor model	1663.04**	696.38	208	.80	.78	.08	.13
3. 4 factor model$_b$	1519.34**	143.7	203	.82	.79	.08	.12
4. 4 factor model$_c$	1039.82**	479.52	203	.88	.87	.06	.10
5. 7 factor model	902.66**	137.16	200	.90	.89	.06	.09
6. 6 factor model	866.41**	36.25	194	.91	.89	.06	.09

Note. $N = 435$. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = standardized root mean square; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; $\Delta\chi^2$ = chi-squared difference between model and preceding model. [a] χ^2 values are based on robust maximum likelihood estimation. [b] Four factor model reflects all inclusion indicators loading onto one inclusion latent factor, and three distinct latent factors for perceptions of group cohesiveness, perceptions of trust amongst work group members, and perceptions of affect towards work group members for respective indicators. [c] Four factor model reflects one latent factor for perception of group cohesiveness, perceptions of trust for group members, and perceptions affect towards group members and three latent factors for inclusion items. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

marker is constrained to zero is argued to be a statistical test for common method variance (Richardson, Simmering, & Strutman, 2007).

The occurrence of common method variance does not conclude that the shared variance between constructs attributed by the common method inherently biases the observed relationships (Spector, 2006). Common method bias occurs when correlations among theoretical constructs substantially change as a result of common method variance (Williams et al., 2003). The correlations of the marker model represent the "corrected" correlations. All correlation changes are ≤ .02. Common method variance had only a minor inflation (and in some cases no inflation) between theoretical constructs of interest. For the sake of parsimony, I will continue analyses without the common method marker factor and items.

5.3. Model Fit

I tested a series of nested confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) models to assess if indicators loaded onto their intended latent variables, and to determine if items were distinct from one another. I used Amos 6.0 to compare the fit of nested models: (1) a one-factor model treating work group involvement, influence in decision making, access to communications and resources, perceived group cohesiveness, perceived trust amongst members, and perceived liking of work group members as indicators of one general latent factor; (2) A two-factor model where indicators for inclusion items load on one latent factor and perceptions of the group load on another; (3) A four-factor model where indictors of work group involvement, influence in decision making, access to communications and resources load onto one latent factor of inclusion and indictors for perceived group cohesiveness, perceived trust amongst members, and perceived liking of work group members load onto their respective factors; (4) A four-factor model where indictors of work group involvement, influence in decision making, access to communications and resources load onto their distinct latent factors, and indicators for perceptions of the group load onto one general factor; (5) a six-factor model where indicators for study variables load onto their respective latent factors; (6) a seven-factor model where indicators load onto their respective latent factors, and a higher order factor is abstracted to influence the lower order factors of perceived group cohesiveness, perceived trust amongst members, and perceived liking of work group members. The theoretical framework suggests this higher order latent factor to be an overall perceived attractiveness towards the work group. To set the metric of the latent variables, the

highest loading item from each factor was set to 1. In the seven-factor model, the overall variance parameter for the higher order latent factor was set to 1.

Each more differentiated model shows a significantly better chi-square statistic (Table 2). The six-factor model exhibited slightly better fit for both chi-square and the comparative fit index (CFI). However, this slightly better fitting model displays high inter-correlations among latent factors for perceived group cohesiveness, perceived trust amongst members, and perceived liking of work group members. The indicators load onto distinct latent factors, however, these factors remain highly correlated. This evidence suggests a higher order factor contributing to covariation among the three distinct latent factors (Kaplan, 2009). Therefore, the seven-factor model (Figure 1) represents the best theoretical and empirical fit for subsequent analyses. Further, the seven-factor model meets cutoff requirements for a variety of fit indices.

The CFI of the seven-factor model is .9 demonstrating acceptable fit (Brown, 2006). The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) is just below the recommended cutoff of .9, however, this is partly due to the average correlation among variables. With the addition of more variables entered into the model, it can be reasonable for the TLI to sink below .9 (Bollen, & Long, 1993). The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is below .08, indicating good fit (Hu, & Bentler, 1999). Lastly, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is less than desirable, but still represents acceptable fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). All items loaded on their theoretical latent factors with loadings ranging .55 or higher (Appendix A), indicating “good” to “excellent” factor loadings (Comrey, & Lee, 1992).

5.4. Test of Hypothesized Model

Figure 1 presents the results of the hypothesized model. The control variables, race similarity and gender similarity, were not statistically significantly related to any variables in the full model ($p > .05$) and are not displayed in the figure. However, the standardized path estimates modeled represent the relationships between variables of interest while accounting for control variables.

Perceived work group involvement was positively related to perceived attractiveness of the work group, supporting hypothesis 1. Perceived influence in decision making was positively related to perceived attractiveness of the work group, thus providing support for hypothesis 2. Perceived access to communications and resources was also positively related to perceived attractiveness of the work group, thereby supporting hypothesis 3. To note, in order for the structural model to be identified, the higher order latent factor of group attraction had to have a fixed parameter estimate to a lower order factor. Perceived liking of group members was chose as the fixed parameter estimate due to a standardized regression weight of .99 in the measurement model.

5.5. Relative Importance Analysis

As depicted in Table 3, the predictors perceived work group involvement, perceived influence in decision making, and perceived access to communications and resources are moderately to highly correlated. This is to be expected as each predictor represents a sub-dimension of perceptions of inclusion (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998). Further, the perceptions of inclusion must theoretically derive from one rater. Only an individual can provide their perceptions of inclusion into a work group. Because the structural model included controls, the predictor variables became endogenous, which limits the ability for covariation among predictors (Kaplan, 2009). To determine the

relative importance of the inclusion predictors, I conducted relative importance analysis (Luo, & Azen, 2013; Tonidandel, & LeBreton, 2011).

Inspection of the standardized regression coefficients is an insufficient approach to determining predictor importance. Standardized regression weights do not appropriately partition variance when predictors are correlated (Tonidandel, & LeBreton, 2011). Any shared explanatory variance is credited to the variable that was entered first in the model, thus clouding the true contribution of variance for each predictor of interest. Relative weights analysis approaches relative importance by examining changes in R^2 resulting from the addition of a predictor to all possible subset regression equations (Tondidandel, & LeBreton, 2011; Budescu, 1993). Taking an average across models, one can estimate the importance a particular predictor exhibits by itself, and in combination with other predictors (Luo, & Azen, 2013).

I used the correlation matrix of latent factors produced from the measurement model to run this analysis. This approach displays both advantages and disadvantages over using raw observed scores. First, by using the correlation matrix among latent factors, the analysis will estimate importance while accounting for measurement error (LeBreton et al., 2007). Second, estimates of relative importance for the higher order latent factor criterion can be examined, even though it was not directly observed. Despite these advantages, using a correlation matrix of any type for relative weights analysis prevents the use of bootstrapping, which prevents significance testing or the production of confidence intervals (LeBreton, & Tonidandel, 2008).

The analyses were conducted using the R statistical software package. The code used was developed by Tonidandel, & LeBreton (2014). Table 3 displays the raw and

rescaled relative weights of perceived work group involvement, perceived influence in decision making, and perceived access to communications and resources as predictors for perceived attractiveness towards the work group. Perceived work group involvement displayed the largest contribution to variance for perceived attraction towards the work group, thereby supporting hypothesis 4.

TABLE 3 Raw and rescaled relative weights for predictors of attraction to work group

Variables	Raw	Rescaled
WGI	.32	49.73%
IDM	.13	20.28%
ACR	.19	29.99%

Note. N=435.

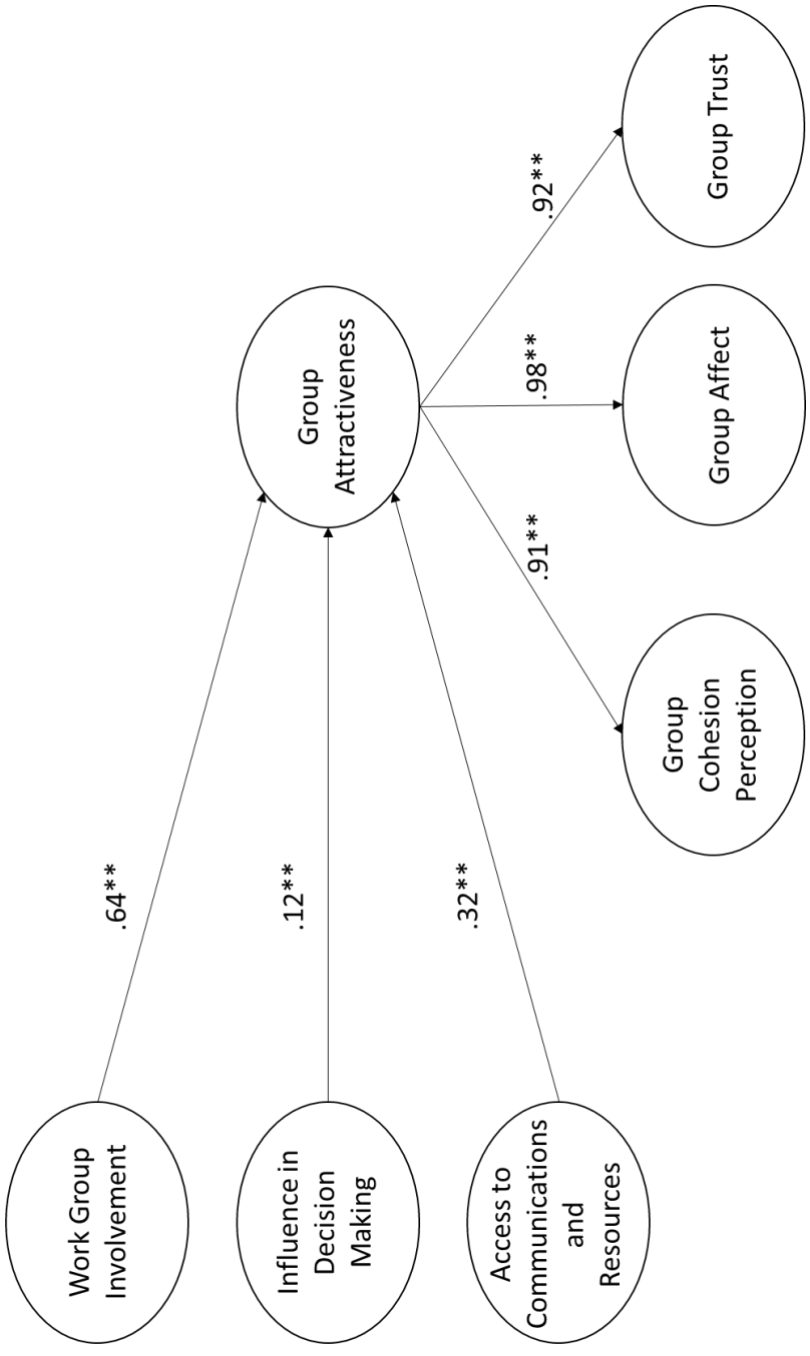

FIGURE 1. Path model of hypothesized relationships.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

Individuals may choose to apply to certain organizations due to perceived similarities between their self-concepts, and the categorization ques of the organization (Banks et al., 2015). However, once an individual is hired and enters the existing organizational structure, routines, and systems, they have little control over selecting work group members in the existing system (Scott, & Davis, 2007). Current theory suggests that individuals who identify with a group have positive perceptions of the group. Previous definitions of identification incorporate both aspects of perceived oneness and perceived belongingness. The study sought to examine how individuals perceive their work groups when conditions of oneness (i.e. current employment) were satisfied, but may exhibit different perceptions of belongingness. In an organizational context, I conceptualized work group inclusion as a sense of belongingness.

The results of the present study are consistent with theoretical arguments that attraction to a work group, within an organizational context, are influenced by perceived belongingness (Rousseau, 1998). Perceived oneness with a work group may satisfice aspects of identification, whereas perceived belongingness with the work group influence outcomes or perceptions of the work group itself. The findings suggest that perceived oneness and perceived belongingness are two distinct aspects of identification, consistent with recently expressed theoretical arguments for differing levels of identification (Albert et al., 1998).

I found support that attraction to the work group increased when an individual also reported higher perceptions of work group involvement, influence in decision making, and access to resources and communications. As sub-dimensions of the inclusion-exclusion continuum, these findings suggest inclusion to the work group relate to group attraction. The findings seek to make the following contributions to the literature. First research has found that higher magnitudes of identification increases group attraction (Brewer, 1979; Turner, 1982, 1984). However, these findings, and their theoretical arguments, do not clearly distinguish between perceived oneness and perceived belongingness (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989). These theoretical assumptions are reasonable given the often various social categories examined in social identity theory (e.g. race, gender, religion). Meaning, perceived oneness and perceived belongingness are likely to operate in similar ways. Further, the majority of the identification literature is theoretically interested in how identification influences self-concept and outcomes of self-concept (Turner, 2014).

The study sought to extend boundary conditions for social identity by examining organizational work groups as social categories. Given this unique theoretical context, perceptions of oneness and perceptions of belongingness were conceptualized to operate differently. Perceptions of oneness were theoretically conceptualized to operate the same as other social categories—as an individual level cognitive construct, distinct from other group member affect and behavior. The theoretical boundary condition of organizational work groups extends current theory by treating perceptions of belongingness as an individual level cognitive construct based on the perceived actions of relevant group members. Perceptions of belongingness in the framework is an assessment of how well

the individual believes they belong to the work group based on how included they are into the work group. The findings conflict with previous studies that support membership into a group positively relate to perceptions of the group (Turner, 1982, 1984). The present study suggests that inclusion, or satisficing belongingness, relates to positive perceptions of the group with the rejection of the null hypothesis for each sub-dimension of inclusion.

Second, the present study sought to contribute specifically to the inclusion literature. Inclusion has traditionally been theorized to be an outcome of attraction to work group members (Shore et al., 2010). Previous theoretical arguments for inclusion into work groups follow a similarity-attraction-inclusion mechanism. A similarity-attraction-inclusion paradigm suggests individuals are attracted to similar work group members on some characteristic (race, gender, age etc.) and include them in work group functions, while dissimilar individuals are excluded (Harrison et al., 1998; Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002). Exclusion of minority members is well documented in the literature, and I do not seek to refute these findings. I seek to extend this past work by treating inclusion to work group functions as an antecedent, rather than an outcome, of attraction. By controlling for race and gender similarity of work group members, the results suggest that inclusion as a distinct phenomenon positively relates to work group attraction. The present results are consistent with recent theoretical developments for organizational inclusion climates, cultures, policies, and leadership (Bilimoria, Joy, & Lang, 2008). The framework contributes to inclusion climate theories by incorporating a salient psychological grouping. Inclusion climates, culture, policies, and leadership within organizations may foster salient categorical boundaries for the work group. The

salient boundaries of the work group may act as a strong social group whereby constituent members perceive the same psychological grouping for the work group. The theoretical arguments and subsequent results provide a theoretical bridge for how inclusion climates, cultures, policies, and leadership behaviors may overcome a similarity-attraction-inclusion effect.

6.1. Future Research

I hope the findings lead to future theoretical developments in social identity theory, as well as the inclusion-attraction perspective. A fruitful avenue of future work may be to examine different theoretical mechanisms which result in shared perceptions of psychological groupings for diverse work groups. In other words, what are the antecedents to developing a salient work group boundary for social categorizations? How do organizational leaders and managers develop a salient boundary for work groups so their constituent members perceive the work group as a social group rather than other social classifications that extend beyond the organization, which can lead to exclusionary behaviors (Harrison et al., 1997). Antecedents for the saliency of the work group boundaries may reside at various levels of the organization.

Future work examining the nested nature of work groups may uncover various multi-level phenomenon which contribute to the saliency of the boundaries. How culture, climate, policy, and leadership behaviors affect the saliency of boundaries offers a unique theoretical explanation for how dissimilar individuals may be included into work group functions despite their dissimilar characteristics. Further work is needed to properly explain this proposed theoretical nexus between social categories of work groups and

inclusion into work groups. I believe the present study offers a foundation for interesting questions and opportunities for future research.

6.2. Practical Implications

The practical implications of the study is that inclusion may be fostered regardless of work group membership make up. Although this insight may seem intuitive, the majority of inclusion research treats inclusion-exclusion as an outcome of similarity-attraction paradigm. However, the results suggest that work group race and gender similarity were not significant predictors of inclusion nor attraction to work group members. Therefore, if organizational leaders can foster inclusion in critical work group functions, the individual members are likely to perceive the work group members as more attractive. Previous research has demonstrated the various positive outcomes associated with individual attraction to work groups. These findings include higher cohesion, increased performance, decreases in relational conflict, and decreased turnover intentions (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Williams, & O'Reilly, 1998).

The study suggests that organizations can foster inclusion in work groups, regardless of group membership characteristics. Diverse work groups have commonly been found to exhibit an interesting paradox: a work group of dissimilar individuals is simultaneously associated with both positive and negative outcomes for the work group. The findings suggest that inclusion into the work group may help alleviate the negative effects, while enhancing the positive effects of dissimilarity. Organizations with diverse work groups can create a salient work group social category—by way of organizational policies, culture, climate, group leadership, among others—to provide dissimilar individuals a shared collective identification, rather than other social categories.

6.3. Limitations

First, the study sought to gather data from a wide variety of work group types, within various organizations, spanning different industries to enhance generalizability. This limited the data collection to individuals reporting about their work groups. I did not collect data for all work group members. Although the theory and inclusion as a construct were conceptualized to reside at the individual perceptual level, future work may seek to gather data from all group members of a particular work group. Collection of data for all group members will allow for empirical examination of whether group level phenomenon are spuriously related to the theoretical argument. The theoretical framework argues that the relationships should be independent of the nested nature of groups, but with the current data, I cannot empirically rule out such an assertion.

Second, the data collection method was a mono-source, mono-method technique. I performed common method variance and bias tests to reduce concerns of theoretical relationships being driven by artifacts of the survey methodology. However, the common method bias tests used have certain assumptions that do not completely rule out common method as a significant driver of the presented relationships. The marker technique, and use of EFA and CFA reduce the concerns of common method bias, but the most highly recommended method to reduce common method is with time lagged, multi-source data collection techniques. Multi-source techniques are difficult to derive given the theoretical conceptualizations of identity and inclusion. Other group members' ratings may offer interesting insights into degree of shared perceptions for a particular individual's inclusion into the group, but this rating would not be considered an accurate theoretical

measure of an individuals' perceptions of inclusion. Future work should however include time lagged data collection to reduce concerns of common method bias.

Third, the study design limits the ability to make causal claims. Although I use structural equation modeling, which is often referred to as causal modeling, the study design prevents any claim of proper causation. I offer sound theoretical rationale for why perceptions of belongingness should precede attraction to the work group, but I cannot empirically support such claims with the use of cross-sectional data. Further work must be done to demonstrate causal mechanisms using longitudinal study designs with inclusion intervention manipulations. With proper inclusion manipulations, future work may assess whether perceptions of belongingness mediate identification and perceptions of the group.

Last, there may exist additional variables that are not accounted for in the present study which may result in a critical omitted variable problem. I controlled for race and gender work group similarity, but these variables only reflect surface level characteristics for similarity-dissimilarity. Research has shown that surface-level dissimilarity has less effect on group outcomes over time as individuals begin to share or recognize similar deep level characteristics (e.g. values, opinions, beliefs). Whether surface-level or deep-level similarity leads to inclusion is not of concern to the present study. However, it is a limitation that deep-level similarity is not controlled for. Future work should examine whether deep-level similarity is a spurious driver of the predicted inclusion-attraction relationship.

6.4. Conclusion

The study has provided a first step at clarifying how perceptions of oneness and perceptions of belongingness differentially relate to identification and subsequent perceptions of groups. I seek to extent social identity theory by examining social identity in a work group context. I seek to offer an extended theoretical framework to explain how individuals who perceive oneness with a work group by way of membership, perceive the work group with varying degrees of perceived belongingness. To empirically test the theoretical arguments, I used work group inclusion as a perceived sense of belongingness. The results reject the null hypothesis that work group inclusion was not a significant predictor of work group attraction. These findings suggest that individuals may perceive oneness with a group, but not be as attracted to the work group due to a lack of perceived belongingness. The findings seek to contribute to both social identity theory and work group inclusion.

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APPENDIX A: ITEM FACTOR LOADINGS

	Item	WGI	IDM	Access	Trust	Liking	Cohesiveness
1.	I feel part of informal discussions in my work group	.69					
2.	I feel isolated from my work group (R)	.59					
3.	I feel work group members don't share information with me. (R)	.55					
4.	I feel people in my work group listen to what I say	.87					
5.	I feel my judgement is respected by members of my work group	.87					
6.	I feel my work group members make me feel a part of decisions	.87					
7.	I am able to influence organizational decisions.		.83				
8.	I am able to influence work assignment decisions.		.87				
9.	I am consulted about important project decisions.		.86				
10.	I have a say in the way work is performed.		.81				
11.	I am provided feedback by my boss			.75			
12.	I don't have access to training I need (R)			.59			
13.	I have all the materials I need to do my job.			.65			
14.	I rarely receive input from my supervisor. (R)			.56			
15.	How much do you trust your fellow group members?				.89		
16.	How comfortable do you feel delegating to your group members?				.77		
17.	Are your group members truthful and honest?				.89		
18.	How much do you like your group members?					.87	
19.	To what degree would you consider these people your friends?					.81	
20.	To what extent is your group cohesive?						.87
21.	How much do you feel like your group has group spirit?						.89
22.	To what degree would you talk up this group to your friends as a great group to work in?						.90