2018

Urban and Suburban Differences in Cultural Identification, Life-Guiding Principles, and Person-Organization Fit

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Abstract

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Person-Organization Fit

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Joseph O. Edigin

MA, University of Phoenix, 2007

BS, University of Phoenix, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

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Abstract

Diversity practitioners in the United States have taken steps to implement programs for integration of people in organizations from across the socioeconomic and demographic spectrum. Despite changes in U.S. discrimination laws and work by diversity practitioners, maintaining equitable workplace diversity continues to be a problem in U.S. corporations. This correlational study was conducted to examine differences in life-guiding principles, urban identification, and person-organization fit between urban and suburban residents. A purposive sample of 180 adults was drawn in a voluntary online survey from industries in two U.S. representative counties with a mix of urban and suburban sprawl. This study was also conducted to further examine planned behavior, expectancy, normative social influence, and social impact theories by comparing how the independent variable of participant residence location affected the dependent variables of life-guiding principles, urban identification, and person-organization fit. *T*-test statistics were used to test mean differences in normally distributed data sets, and the Mann-Whitney U test was used for testing differences in non-normally distributed data sets. Test results revealed that there were differences in the dependent variables with a significant difference in urban identification for urban and suburban residents, confirming the hypothesis. Findings from this study may help diversity practitioners and organizational leaders understand the differences among urban and suburban residents. Study findings may also support organizations' social agenda toward addressing diversity issues and for narrowing career achievement gaps between urban and suburban residents through a better understanding of variations in culture.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my mother Aituarigbon Uzibor for investing time, money, and love in my early education. Mum, you thought me the value of the education you never had. I made a conscious effort to stay in this fight for you, this is for you. To my children Osatohanmwen, Uyioghosa and Nosakhare, without your support, I would have struggled. The three of you made my journey your journey; you consistently showed me how proud you were of my interest in education. All of you gave me hope in my dimmest moments and reminded me to never quit, and never consider a surrender. Failure for me was never an option. Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to my wife Eunice without whose emotional support and persistence earning this doctorate would not have been possible. Eunice, your sleepless nights reading manuscripts you claimed were beyond your academic scope, but within your "life experience" scope is very much appreciated and a major reason this accomplishment was possible. I could not have done this without you, you remained my rock throughout this process; through good and through challenging times. I owe you a debt of gratitude.

Acknowledgments

I express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my dissertation committee for their support. This includes Dr. Godwin Igein (Committee Chair), my special thanks to Dr. Craig Barton (Committee Member), and Dr. Danielle Babb-Wright (University Research Reviewer). I would especially like to acknowledge and thank Dr. Igein for his guidance, accessibility, and willingness to always help work through process related problems and for keeping me focused through the later part of my PhD journey.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Global digital connectivity in the United States between the 1990s and 2000s necessitated diversity practitioners and organizational leaders in U.S organizations to establish a global presence (Guiso, Sapienza, & Zingales, 2014; Yang, & Konrad, 2011). There was also a need for U.S. corporations to develop cross-cultural sensitivity to remain competitive (Guiso et al., 2011). In the 1990s, corporate leaders initiated better integration of various cultures into their workforce and more closely reflect their location demographics (Wilson, 2014). Integration and support of a diverse workforce in U.S. corporations by management and human resource (HR) organizations are not always accomplished merely through hiring. What is often helpful is acquiring a clear, quantifiable understanding of the cultural identity and values of individuals that make up a workforce (Deephouse, Newburry & Soleimani, 2016; Jonsen, Tatli, Özbilgin & Bell, 2013).

Data acquired from examining and understanding individual urban identification (UI), life-guiding principles (LGP), and person-organization fit (POF) due to residence location may create a tool for addressing corporate diversity goals (Deephouse et al., 2016; Jonsen et al., 2013). Diversity practitioners in the United States have implemented programs they hoped appealed to and supported a diverse workforce of urban and suburban residents (Jonsen et al., 2016). For this study, urban and suburban residents referred to millennials residing in primary U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties. For example, Los Angeles and Orange counties in California are representative of other

counties with major cities in the United States that have a mix of urban and suburban sprawl (Hamidi & Ewing, 2014; Lassiter & Niedt; 2013; Soja, 2014).

One of the beginning points for understanding a subgroup's culture, including its characteristic values, beliefs, and behaviors, include assessing its environment (Deephouse et al., 2016). A critical environmental distinction for different subgroups in the United States is their place of residence—whether they live in urban or suburban communities. Miyares (2014) asserted that urban and suburban residents possess different values and behaviors (culture) that lead to varying preferences as it concerns organizational cultures and environments. These differing cultures and preferences can mean that urban and suburban residents may align with different types of organizations. The compatibility of an individual employee with an organization is POF (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverspike, 2006) for that organization. The degree of fit has significant implications for the individual's job satisfaction and job performance (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014).

A cultural difference between urban and suburban residents sometimes creates complex organizational conflicts (Horton, Bayerl, & Jacobs. 2014). For example, urban residents often have a different opinion of corporate cultures, which can sometimes affect management perception of their POF and may negatively affect their career trajectory (Swider, Zimmerman & Barrick, 2015). Compromised career trajectories, among other disadvantages, regardless of talents and abilities may be a result of POF (Horton et al., 2014; Swider et al., 2015). Conflicts arising from gaps in organizational culture understanding by urban residents can hinder creativity, with a resulting decline in

performance reflected in ways like customer satisfaction (Horton et al., 2014; Kaifi, Nafei, Khanfar, & Kaifi, 2012). Examining the differences between urban and suburban residents by reviewing their LGP, UI, and POF was the focus of the present study (see Arthur et al., 2006; see Swider et al., 2015).

This quantitative study was conducted in U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties. Primary U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties consist of a mix of urban and suburban geographical areas that fall within the definition of the U.S. census bureau data on urban and suburban populations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016; Soja, 2014). U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties are representative of other counties with major cities in the United States that have a mix of urban and suburban sprawl (Hamidi & Ewing, 2014; Lassiter & Niedt, 2013; Soja, 2014). Primary U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties are uniquely suited for this study due to the full range of residents living in these counties with varying cultural identifications (Towns, 2013)

Background

Bennett (2014) analyzed the relationship between employees' alignment and organizational goals through cultural competency and the important role such a relationship plays as a predictor of organizational effectiveness. To provide successful leadership in a diverse U.S. organization, the cultural dimensions that exist within such organization must be well understood (Moran, Abramson, & Moran, 2014, p. 172). Elements of cultural identities, such as race and ethnicity, can sometimes be a source of pride, unity, and achievement (Hodges, 2017; Moran et al., 2014). The atmosphere can be important when a new hire with cultural values that are different from an organization's

values enters a business environment where a nonjudgmental understanding of cultural differences built on tolerance and integration prevails (Von Bergen, Bressler & Collier, 2012).

Although many organizations promote fair and equal practices (internal practices and core culture) in the workplace, diversity remains an HR challenge (Lozano & Escrich, 2016). Enough work has not been done to ensure workplace diversity in U.S. corporations. Considering predictions by Colby and Ortman (2015) that racial minorities who predominantly identify with urban culture may represent a majority of the U.S. population in the future, bridging the nuanced cultural gap emanating from values and cultural differences between urban and suburban residents is a significant management problem.

The challenge with incorporating diversity is that the corporate cultures have traditionally kept suburban residents, specifically white men, in organizational leadership and ranks, and people who identify with the urban lifestyle, usually nonwhite, find thriving in U.S. corporations more challenging (Eagly, Chin, & McIntosh, 2012). If organizational leadership does not diversify, there is a possibility that organizations could fail because individuals tend to identify more with people who share similar characteristics as them and represent the changing global demographics (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Understanding disparities in cultural attributes such as UI, LGP, and POF for urban and suburban residents may be fundamental for narrowing the gap between corporate and urban cultural divergence (Swider et al., 2015).

In the current quantitative study, I examined differences in LGP, UI, and POF between urban and suburban residents. Arthur et al. (2006) and Farooqui & Nagendra (2014) theorized that employee differences regarding residence influence essential outcomes such as job satisfaction and performance. The potential implication of this study may include identifying opportunities for reconciling cultural differences between urban residents, suburban residents, and corporations in America to build more diverse and collaborative corporate environments.

The origin of urbanization is rooted in the emergence of rapid economic growth in the nineteenth century when various sources of identity such as hip-hop and heavy metal first appeared in urban areas within U.S. cities (Haenfler, 2013; Lamotte, 2014). The factory framework of the nineteenth century consisted of labor migrants from the Southern United States, who were mainly African Americans and other disadvantaged groups (Wilson, 2011), new to big cities and in search of employment opportunities. These labor migrants often lived close to factories, where housing quality and cost were low (Miyares, 2014).

Labor migrants who migrated to city centers at the turn of the twentieth century lived in low-income housings because of restrictive covenants and discriminatory race-based real estate practices of the time (Wilson, 2011). Higher skilled individuals in corporations usually lived in the suburbs and had cultures that often aligned with corporate culture but were significantly different from the cultures of urban residents they worked alongside (Lozano & Escrich, 2016). Addressing cultural differences, which persist to date, requires a holistic approach to understanding the existing cultural

spectrum of all people within the U.S. corporate entity. Individual cultures constitute human interactions in corporations. However, generalized policies and procedures are often not what corporations' total demographics look like (Lozano & Escrich, 2016).

Unique cultural attributes such as values within societies and corporate culture remain a reflection of the cultural values of U.S. corporations (Lindert & Williamson, 2016). There has always been a need for individual and collective values and behaviors to align with corporate behavior expectations of inclusion and diversity in U.S. corporations (Ferdman, 2014; Lozano & Escrich, 2016). The history of unequal distribution of opportunities due to socioeconomic and cultural orientation is a part of the larger society in the United States, and by extension, the U.S. corporations (Lindert & Williamson, 2016).

Societal and cultural differences often resonate in UI, LGP, and POF among urban and suburban residents at work (Kaifi et al., 2012). However, an external pressure for innovation that reinforces internal activism (institutional theory) often takes priority in U.S. corporations to promote the successful execution of corporate goals (Lounsbury & Beckman, 2015). Demand for a competitive edge and profitability by stockholders who are often distant from the daily running of organizations are usually a priority for corporate leadership (Pinder, 2014), whereas the active pursuit of diversity plans are less significant (Ferdman, 2014).

Young people may encounter challenges due to identification with urban culture, which can impact advancing their careers in U.S. corporations (Westbrook & Sanford, 1991). According to Kaifi et al. (2012), suburban culture has a closer resemblance to

corporate culture and values than urban culture. The suburb represents cultural

divergence because of its socially contrived nature and homogeneity; its structure and

predictability make it more accepted in corporations and often by corporate leadership.

By extension, individuals who are better able to adapt to organizational culture seem to

do better in corporate careers. This study was conducted to examine differences in the

LGP, UI, and POF of urban and suburban residents with a goal of trying to narrow the

gap in understanding of the correlation among the variables.

Implementing diversity measures requires a dynamic corporate culture (Dye &

Golnaraghi, 2015) that can be proactively adapted by management or as a response to the

changing organizational dynamics of the competition while employing ideas from people

with diverse cultural views within their organization (Gorodnichenko & Roland, 2016).

The changing landscape of the corporate environment and customer-focused culture

creates a contrast between urban and suburban lifestyles that are relatively stagnant and

may not be helpful for organizational diversity (Bhawuk, Carr, Gloss & Thompson,

2014). The extent of integration of many employees in U.S. corporations is dependent on

similarities in values between the individual and their organization (DeBode, Armenakis

& Field, 2013).

Rising through the ranks of U.S. organizational leadership when there are lapses

in cultural awareness within corporations has remained a challenge for urban residents

(Alvesson, 2016; Bhawuk et al., 2014; DeBode et al., 2013). Lack of organizational

culture awareness by urban residents may also be a result of the differences between

urban residents' culture and U.S. corporations' cultural expectations (Awadh & Alyahya,

2013; Kim, Aryee, Loi, & Kim, 2013). Lack of an established inclusion strategy in corporate leadership can lead to a lack of diversity in corporations (Bhawuk et al., 2014; Swider, Zimmerman & Barrick, 2015). Differences in LGP, UI, and POF can create a misunderstanding of cultural expectations for both urban and suburban residents (DeBode et al., 2013). Understanding the role LGP, and cultural identification play in the determining POF can be helpful for millennials transitioning into jobs in corporations.

Problem Statement

Despite efforts by HR practitioners to narrow diversity gaps in U.S. corporations, challenges persist with discriminatory behavior that is often not readily evident but may be one reason people who identify with urban culture struggle with integration in U.S. organizations (Bolton et al., 2013; Wilson, 2014). Although many corporate leaders in the United States advocate diversity principles and inclusionary behaviors, matching corporate interests and social responsibility with a broad spectrum of workers' benefits is often challenging for HR (Bolton, Brunnermeier, & Veldkamp, 2013). Challenges with inclusion is a problem for organizational leadership and HR practitioners in many organizations (Bonilla-Silva, 2015; Nkono & Ariss, 2014; Swider et al., 2015). Aligning management and leader roles to organizational culture to support diversity in management and leadership positions is becoming a business imperative and a general management problem (Bolton et al., 2013). For example, African Americans (12.6% of the U.S. population) accounted for 10.9% of the labor force in 1990, 11.6% in 2010 and expected to increase to 12.0% in 2020 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012).

Many employment practices adhere to and ensure fair and equal treatment in the workplace. For this study, the general management problem is the challenge with supporting diversity principles in a workplace with people who are demographically different and have differences in culture identification, LGP, and POF due to their residence location (Jansen, Vos, Otten, Podsiadlowski, & van der Zee, 2016). The challenge with this problem stems from lack of clarity in the culture type desired in an organization, and differences between individual and organizational values, behaviors, and attitudes (Jansen et al., 2016).

Central to the purpose of organizational leadership is influencing people within an organization on sharing the same set of beliefs and corporate assumptions to earn a profit or reward stakeholders (Lumby, 2013). Although a consistent leadership desire is to coordinate followers and adapt their organizational mission, there is an issue with time-inconsistency due to resolute beliefs and dependence on leadership's initial assessment of an organization's culture with a goal of profitability (Bolton et al., 2013). The specific management problem examined for this study was drawing a correlation between organizational diversity and differences between urban and suburban residents due to LGP, UI, and POF.

Although some researchers believe unique behaviors and individuality have a place in U.S. corporations (Shore et al., 2011), others believe that organizational cultures are created by integrating distinctiveness and trusting resolute leadership (Bolton et al., 2013). Creativity, collaboration, and engagement are positive work relationships possible with an alignment between individual and organizational values and cultures. Therefore,

the problem is that corporate culture, which is ideologically similar to a suburban lifestyle and is different from urban culture (Morris, 2013; Towns, 2013), is different for urban and suburban residents (Stone-Romero, Stone, & Salas, 2003). The problem examined in this study may narrow the gap in literature associated with the effect participants' residence location has on LGP, UI and POF.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to test planned behavior, expectancy, normative social influence and social impact theories by examining the difference in LGP, UI, and POF due to participant's residence locations in two key U.S.West Coast urban and suburban counties. The three dependent variables for this study were UI, LGP, and POF.

UI in this study refers to identification with urban culture and trends. An urban group, according to Towns (2013), is defined as a racially diverse group of U.S. consumers in the age range of 18–36 whose purchasing decisions are influenced directly or indirectly by inner-city trends and hip-hop culture. Values also referred to in this study as LGP, are guiding philosophies in an individual's life and include values that influence individual choices, behaviors, and attitudes (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016; Ismail, 2016). POF is a recruitment outcome that potential employees will respond positively to organizations with identical values as theirs (Swider et al., 2015).

The independent variable was participants' residence location, generally defined in this study as urban and suburban residences. Urban residence, according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2016), is a geographic area with a population density of 50,000 or more

people. A suburban area is a residential area or a mixed-use area that exists as part of a city or as a separate residential community within commuting distance of a town (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Cultural values between urban and suburban residents were examined for correlation to understand if there are differences between a person's UI, LGP, and POF (Swider et al., 2015). Respondents for this survey design study were from major U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties.

Research Questions

For this study, POF, LGP, and urban culture identification were theorized to be influenced by a person's urban or suburban residence location. Individuals' culture identification, LGP, and POF may be different for people in U.S. corporations based on their residence (Swider et al., 2015). For this present study, I examined the differences in cultural identification, values, and POF due to residence location.

Three research questions (RQ) examined in this study were:

RQ1. What are the differences in LGP between urban and suburban residents?

RQ2. Which of urban and suburban residents identify more with urban culture?

RQ3. What are the differences in POF between urban and suburban residents?

Hypotheses

A hypothesis is a stated thoughtful answer to a research question, designed to indicate a relationship between dependent and independent variables (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015). Three hypotheses related to urban and suburban residence location, LGP, UI, and POF were a part of this study (see Table 2 in Chapter 3). Conceptualization of research hypotheses is essential for replicability of research results

and methodological decision-making (Schaller, 2016). The hypotheses for this study were as follows:

$H_0 1$: There is no significant difference in cultural values between urban and suburban residents as measured by Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS).

$H_1 1$: There is a significant difference in individual cultural values between urban and suburban residents as measured by Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS).

$H_0 2$: Urban residents identify with urban UI less than or equal to suburban residents as measured by the UI scale.

$H_1 2$: Urban residents identify with urban identification (UI) more than suburban residents as measured by the UI scale.

$H_0 3$: Urban residents score less than or equal to suburban residents for POF (POF) as measured by the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

$H_1 3$: Urban residents score more than suburban residents for POF as measured by the organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI).

Details of the relationship between each hypothesis and variables are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

The Relationship Between Hypotheses and Variables

Variables	Type	Hypotheses
Participant residence location	Independent	$H_0 1$, $H_0 2$, $H_0 3$
Life-guiding principles	Dependent	$H_0 1$
Urban identification	Dependent	$H_0 2$
Person-organization fit	Dependent	$H_0 3$

Theoretical Framework

This study was based on four theoretical foundations: theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), normative social influence (Gibson, 2013), and social impact theory (Latané, 1981).

Theory of Planned Behavior

Ajzen (1985) was the first to propose the theory of planned behavior. Ajzen intended to link individuals' beliefs and behaviors using the theory of planned behavior. Ajzen proposed that a person's behavioral intentions and subsequent actions are shaped by attitudes about the behavior in question, the subjective norms surrounding that behavior, and beliefs about whether he or she can successfully exhibit the behavior.

The theory is used to propose that an individual is more likely to exhibit a particular behavior if he or she (a) has positive perceptions about the behavior, (b) believes that significant others want him or her to exhibit the behavior, and that (c) he or she can successfully exhibit the behavior. Based on their meta-analysis of past research,

Hartwick and Warshaw (1988) concluded that attitudes and subjective norms are strongly correlated to behavioral intention and subsequent behavior.

Azjen (1985) added the third variable of perceived behavioral control because he hypothesized that an individual's positive perception and supportive subjective norms concerning behavior are insufficient to produce actual behavior. Perceived behavioral control emerges from self-efficacy, the belief that someone can perform an act, and controllability, an individual's view concerning who or what controls the successful performance of the behavior. The theory of planned behavior, based on the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980), is based on learning theories and expectancy-value theories (Eccles, 1983). Learning and expectancy theories are based on consistency theories (Festinger, 1957; Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955) and attribution theory (Kelley, 1967).

Sniehotta (2009) noted that experimental testing of the theory of planned behavior is lacking. Scholars have further complained that the argument relies on cognitive processing and those who use it ignore the role of emotions and perceived needs. Endemic to the theory is the concept that an individual's beliefs—regardless of their accuracy—influence behavior. For example, inaccurately believing action is endorsed by someone's social group and inaccurately thinking he or she can successfully perform a response is likely to result in attempted enactment of that behavior. Conversely, believing the practice is discouraged or assuming a person cannot enact the method (even if the individual can act) is unlikely to produce the behavior. An example is a student who

thinks she or he is bad at math despite having excellent math skills may be unlikely to dedicate effort to her or his math class.

Scholars and practitioners have produced ample research examining the theory of planned action across disciplines including advertising, public relations, and healthcare. For example, several researchers found that the theory of planned behavior helped predict health-related behavioral intentions concerning condom use (Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein, & Muellerleile, 2001; Sheeran & Taylor, 1999). Additionally, leisure (Ajzen & Driver, 1992), exercise (Nguyen, Potvin, & Otis, 1997), diet (Conner, Kirk, Cade, & Barrett, 2003), charitable giving (van der Linden, 2011), and use of online deception (Grieve & Elliott, 2013) were found to be closely associated with the theory of planned behavior.

The theory of planned behavior is applicable to the present study with regard to testing participants' (a) attitudes toward urban cultural attributes (operationalized and tested using Schwartz's Value Survey [Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005] and Urban Identification Scale [Towns, 2013]), (b) perceived subjective norms within their organizations (operationalized and tested using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument [Cameron & Quinn, 1999]), and (c) attitudes toward their organizations' norms (operationalized and tested using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument [Cameron & Quinn, 1999]). This study produced additional data relating to individuals' participation and engagement in corporations and their POF.

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory involves the assumption that reinforcement induces changes in behavior resulting in conscious choices among alternatives and a goal of maximizing pleasure and minimizing pain (Ismail, 2016). Vroom (1964) developed expectancy theory to depict the process by which individuals choose their behaviors. He proposed that individuals rationally choose their actions based on the attractiveness of the task, the consequences of successful performance, and the probability of successful performance. Vroom outlined several variables in his theory: (a) motivation, an individual's intention to enact the behavior; (b) expectancy, an individual's belief that the task can be performed successfully; (c) instrumentality, the perceived likelihood successful performance would lead to an outcome or reward and that the immediate findings could lead to successive issues; and (d) valence, the subjective importance of the reward. Vroom hypothesized that motivation results when a person believes that (a) effort will yield acceptable performance (expectancy), (b) satisfactory performance will lead to a reward (instrumentality), and (c) the reward is valuable (valence).

Vroom's (1964) ideas related to this theory are consistent with concepts of Theory Y management, a participative style of control based on the assumption that workers will exercise self-control and self-direction toward the achievement of organizational objectives commensurate with their commitment (Avolio, 2007). Vroom's expectancy theory also avoids the simplistic approach to motivation suggested in content theories of motivation (Koontz & Weihrich, 1988). Nevertheless, several other motivation theorists alleged that Vroom's model itself is too simplistic (Graen, 1969; Lawler, 1971; Lawler &

Porter, 1967). Furthermore, Vroom's model leads to the assumption that individuals' behavior results from conscious choices to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. Another assumption from the theory is that individuals seek and can control their work environments, which is not necessarily true across all cultures (Francesco & Gold, 2004). Researchers have outlined their modifications of Vroom's theory, such as Porter and Lawler's (1968) model of work motivation.

Expectancy theory is relevant to the present study because an individual's attraction to a corporation is contingent on his or her perceptions related to tasks, the anticipated rewards from successful task achievement, and the likelihood of success (Purvis et al., 2014). The reward for corporate culture assimilation with promotions and positive career mobility was specifically relevant to this study. Thus, an individual's attraction to a corporation is consistent with expectancy theory. Participants' attraction to their organization was operationalized and tested using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This study contributes to expectancy theory by providing insights regarding how individuals' perceptions of organizational culture influence their expectancy-based attraction to the organization.

Normative Social Influence

The theory of normative social influence is used to describe how and why individuals conform to social norms (i.e., unwritten rules concerning human behavior) to satisfy the human need for companionship (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2005). Normative social influence is a concept within social psychology that has been examined and developed by various researchers (e.g., Asch, 1955; Schultz, 1999). Moreover,

researchers acknowledge that people may publicly comply with social norms for group belonging, even if they privately disagree.

Asch (1955) found in the research of normative social influence that more than one-third of the time, subjects agreed with obviously wrong reactions to a question when other group members agreed with the wrong answer to a question. Notably, in private, the participants provided the right answer more than 98% of the time. Schultz (1999) found that citizens' recycling practices could be shifted when provided with normative messages regarding their neighbors' recycling activities. In Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein, and Griskevicius's (2008) study, participants' energy conservation practices were shifted through normative messages, even though the participants themselves did not believe their behaviors could generate such signals. Heuser (2005) added that normative social influence enhances group stability, social cohesion, and higher performance. It is important to note that in earlier studies on social conformity, women slightly more likely publicly conformed to societal norms than men (Eagly & Carli, 1981). Moreover, collectivist cultures tend to favor conformity more than individualist cultures (Hofstede, 1983).

Normative social influence is relevant to the present study because I hypothesized that members of the urban communities are influenced to conform to the urban culture, whereas suburban residents are changed to adapt to the suburban lifestyle. As a result, members from urban and suburban communities may be differentially predisposed to align with corporate culture. Testing participants' conformity with urban culture was operationalized and tested using Towns's (2013) UI scale. The Organizational Culture

Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) was operationalized for testing the

POF among urban and suburban residents in U.S. corporations in the West Coast United

States to test the type of organizational culture they prefer. This research has a potential

to contribute to normative social influence theory by examining participants' alignment

with residential and professional cultures, which may or may not agree.

Social Impact Theory

Latané (1981) developed social impact theory to predict the amount of social

impact (i.e., the effect people have on one another) in specific social situations. Impact on

the individual can range from thoughts, attitudes, and motives to physiological states and

behaviors. Latané outlined three laws and associated mathematical equations to depict

social impact.

The first law relates social forces, where the amount of impact is a product of the

number of people exerting social control, the strength of their influence, and the

immediacy of the event. The second law is psychosocial, which indicates that the highest

increases in social impact happen when someone acting alone (outside a social setting) is

placed into a social context with the addition of a person. Moreover, although the impact

continues to increase with the addition of each member in the social setting, the

difference will eventually dissipate as the group continues to grow. The third and final

law is the multiplication/division of impact. In this law, Latané posited that the social

effects (product of strength, immediacy, and number of people) are distributed across the

number of people in the social setting, resulting in each person feeling less accountable

for their impact as the number of people in the setting increases.

Latané and L' Herrou (1996) later extended Latané's original work into the dynamic social impact theory to explain how influence occurs between majority and minority group members. Latané and L' Herrou posited that groups are ever-changing and complex systems that are spatially distributed and whose members repeatedly interact and reorganize into four basic patterns (i.e., consolidation, clustering, correlation, continuing diversity) to accommodate group dynamics and the sharing of ideas. Sedikides and Jackson's (1990) study of the influence of a zookeeper versus a zoo guest on visitor behavior supported the parameters of Latané's social impact theory. Perez-Vega, Waite, and O'Gorman's (2016) research regarding Facebook fan pages additionally showed support for the theory within the context of social media.

Social impact theory is relevant to the present study because the dynamics and effects of social impact may influence the espoused values of both urban and suburban residents. That is, within the context of their homes, urban residents are expected to advocate urban values, whereas suburban residents are not likely to espouse urban values. Urban values were operationalized and tested using the UI scale. Moreover, within a corporate context, it is important to measure whether participants espouse corporate values if they are situated within a corporate setting. Operationalizing and measuring whether this occurs was accomplished using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The present study can contribute to social impact theory through an examination of whether the participants' corporate cultural preferences different within the context of survey administration.

Nature of the study

A survey design was selected for this quantitative study because it is more effective and efficient for the measurement and comparison of variables compared to qualitative and mixed method approaches (Bryman, 2015). The current study was based on a survey research design to allow measurement of the study variables, namely, participant residence location, LGP, UI, and POF. Bryman (2015) stated that quantitative methods of inquiry are a more useful tool for theory and model building and theory analysis, respectively. Differences between urban and suburban residents and their POF was examined with data derived from measurements using validated instruments for this study: UI scale (Towns, 2013), Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), and the Short Schwartz's Value Survey (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). The survey research design permitted a more efficient and effective measurement, and comparison between urban and suburban residents versus qualitative and mixed methods approaches. The specific quantitative design that was used for this study is survey research design.

The use of survey research design allowed me to measure the independent variable of participants' residence location and dependent variables of LGP, UI, and POF. Suitable inferential statistics in support of the research questions was calculated using a parametric two-sample *t*-test for normally distributed sample data and Mann-Whitney U test for non-normally distributed sample data. Moreover, other designs (e.g., experimental designs) were costly and time prohibitive. The hypotheses of this dissertation required an analysis of contrasts regarding urban culture identification, LGP,

and POF. Walliman (2017) asserted that survey designs had been widely used in studies to make distinctions between LGP, UI, POF and a person's residence location.

Definitions

Corporate culture: Shared values, beliefs, behaviors and quality standards shared by members of the corporation. Corporate culture is the principles and values that inform the conduct of all employees in a corporation (Guiso et al., 2015). Corporate culture defines a company's nature, goals, mission, and vision. It stimulates corporate social activities within the corporate space (Gorodnichenko & Roland, 2016).

Cultural artifacts: Created social objects which also connote the culture of the creator and others with the creator's shared culture (Knights & Omanovic, 2016).

Culture: The values, beliefs, and behavior of a group of people (Gorodnichenko & Roland, 2016). Culture constitutes a cognitive system(s) of shared symbols and meanings that orient and stimulate social activities that may or may not be tangible (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016). Culture interpretation also varies from one group to the next (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2014); there may be differences between urban, suburban and corporate cultures. Culture also entails the values that people hold, the norms people collectively follow, and the material objects they use (Knox & Pinch, 2014).

Life-guiding principles: Standards of behavior and values that a person believes is important (Fok, Payne & Corey, 2016), and considered a perceptive belief that transcends specific situations to guide behaviors (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016). Ismail (2016) referred to LGP as individual values that influence human choices and behavior, often internalized and unconsciously become a criterion for guiding actions. LGP are what and how people

think things ought to be and how people ought to behave; interactions and relationships with others are governed by our LGP (Banaszak-Holl, Castle, Lin, & Spreitzer, 2013).

Person-organization fit: A person's compatibility with an organizations culture and performance expectations (Swider et al., 2015). POF, according to Kim et al. (2013), has a direct correlation with work attitudes and behaviors and perceived social exchange between a person and an organization.

Suburban culture: A set of values and behaviors accepted as standard in an area existing as part of a city, usually a separate residential community and within commuting distance of a city (Moran et al., 2014).

Suburban residence: A residential area or a mixed-use area, either existing as part of a city or urban area or as a separate residential community within commuting distance of a town (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). A suburban or rural area is a geographic area encompassing all population, housing, and territory not included within an urban area (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Suburban residents are people living in a suburban area classified by zip codes in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016).

Urban culture: A set of values and behaviors accepted as norms in towns and cities usually with a high density of people in limited space with people who do not know each other (Moran et al., 2014).

Urban identification: People usually between the ages of 18 and 36 years whose purchasing decisions are either directly or indirectly influenced by inner-city trends or hip-hop culture and rap by a segment of U.S. population (Knox & Pinch, 2014; Towns, 2013). Towns (2013) introduced the concept of UI within the context of a study of

consumer implication of identifying cross-culturally with three major components of urban culture. These are hip-hop headz, fashion-forward, and a free spirit.

Urban residence: A geographic area with a population density of 50,000 or more people (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Industrialization sparked a substantial population shift from rural areas to urban areas beginning in the 19th century (Wilson, 2011). Urban areas continue to be created and developed through the process of urbanization.

Assumptions

I made three central assumptions for this study. The first assumption was that participants in this survey were representative of the more significant population of urban and suburban residents in two primary U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). With this assumption, conclusions were broadened to understand whether the population studied fairly represented residence location as it relates to the variables UI, LGP, and POF. This assumption was also crucial for understanding the comparison of the two groups and how attitudes toward residence location were similar or different enough for generalization of results.

The second assumption was that survey participants were honest and truthful with the answers provided for questionnaire questions. This assumption was crucial because these study respondents were self-reporting. A final assumption was that differences in participants' residence location influenced three dependent variables, therefore having an impact on diversity in the U.S. workplace. The assumption toward the study of diversity was significant because knowledge was extended around inclusionary practices, helping practitioners in further understanding organizational dynamics on how differences in

participant's residence location influence UI, LGP, and POF. The assumption on diversity may help in contributing to existing literature on workplace diversity.

Scope and Delimitations

The hypotheses were formed to propose that the variables in this study covary, in that UI, LGP and POF may have an impact on diversity in U.S. corporations. This study was limited in scope to a comparative relational survey between participant residence location as it pertains to their UI, LGP, and POF. Differences in the UI, LGP, and POF due to participants' residences were examined, because little has been written about related to how residence location impacts a person's UI, LGP, and POF. The scope of this study was limited to urban and suburban residents, nonmanagerial and some managerial employees selected to participate in a self-administered survey. This study was also delimited to respondents who participated in the online survey and to the sample size explained within this study.

Limitations

There were some limitations to this study. The first limitation was related to how study participants reacted to the terms UI, LGP, and POF. Some participants may not have understood these terms, whereas other participants may have been emotionally affected by the words used. The emotional effect due to the wording of the survey may result in a consequence of hidden data if study participants did not answer the questions appropriately. There is also the limitation survey research has on collecting a narrow subset of feelings and opinions; future research may benefit from adopting a qualitative approach to further understand behaviors and beliefs about UI, LGP, and POF.

A second limitation to the study was that the variables used to examine differences between urban and suburban residence in major U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties that may have excluded perspective from people who did not fit study defined demographics. A final limitation related to the concept of intersectionality due to multiple identity forms of an individual (Hankivsky, 2014). This inquiry was a quantitative survey design focused on collecting and analyzing data that examined differences between urban and suburban resident's. In this study, hypotheses highlighted differences in residence location but did not account for differences in race, age, gender and other combined factors. Although it was important to focus this research, there was a fundamental limitation to this viewpoint. The narrow focus may have presented unanticipated biases and risks to data collection and analysis.

<div align="center">**Significance**</div>

Significance of Theory

Researchers previously used complexity theory to study organizational behavior and the shaping of corporate identity (Ellinas et al., 2017; McCarthy, 2014; Shahzad, 2014) by principals within organizations. Organizational culture is often framed in line with corporate identity and reflected in social groups within an organization (Xenikou & Furnham, 2013). This study was conducted by examining the differences in LGP, UI, and POF between urban and suburban residents. Although Salas, Salazar, & Gelfand (2013) analyzed the subjective nature of collaboration in the American organization and the significance of cooperation in forging deep employee relationships, there were no studies on the importance of cultural identity on the perception of POF. Salas et al. (2013)

identified creative ways of fostering collaboration in a multicultural environment. I examined cultural differences between urban and suburban residents, and their relationship with LGP, UI, and POF.

Significance to Practice

Corporate policymakers recognize the value of leadership diversity within corporate ranks, and the integral jurisdictional value urban dwellers add to a corporation (Ng & Sears, 2012). Aligning productivity and efficiency may be accomplished when workgroups within organizations have aligned cultural values with organizational cultural values and behavior expectations (Awadh & Alyahya, 2013).

Positive Social Change

Van Ham et al. (2012) asserted that urban residents exhibit values and behaviors that are consistent with urban cultural expectations but sometimes misaligned with corporate cultural expectations. Although these cultural disparities may not be job-related, they can sometimes be a source of instigation of peer-to-peer conflicts and may inhibit urban residents' careers. Urban residents have cultural values that may often be different from the cultural values in U.S. corporations (Kim et al., (2013).

A lack of understanding of the cultural preferences and values of urban residents as it concerns organizational life may be a consequence of not conducting enough corporate culture-specific studies on the young urban population in early sociological and behavioral studies (Slaughter & McWorter, 2013). For example, there was no known study of the behavioral patterns of urban residents in general until the University of

Chicago introduction of a multidisciplinary approach to solving social problems (Slaughter & McWorter, 2013, p. 15).

Findings from this study can be significant for better understanding people at the individual level while promoting diversity principles in a workplace with differences in culture identification (Kim et al., 2013; Swider et al., 2015). Findings from this study may also contribute to social change by helping contribute to increased understanding of the differences in residence location among urban and suburban residence and the effect of such differences on UI, LGP, and POF in U.S. corporations. Potentially increasing understanding the role of diversity in possibly narrowing career achievement gaps between urban and suburban residents in U.S. corporations may be accomplished by applying findings from this study. Finally, findings from this study may also be useful for better understanding variations in the different cultures (Arthur et al., 2006; Choi & Kim, 2013) to more effectively structure diversity-enhancing programs while promoting diversity principles in a workplace with differences in cultural identity.

Summary

In Chapter 1, I discussed differences in UI, LGP, and POF between urban and suburban residents in major U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties. Equitable career outcomes and managing career mobility in some corporations' hinge on the extent of understanding of individual cultural values and its alignment with corporate cultural values (Fabelo, O'Connor, Netting & Wyche, 2013). Researchers have shown that effective implementation and management of corporate diversity programs are often dependent on corporate leadership stance on inclusion and understanding of cultural

influences of groups within organization's (Fabelo et al., 2013; Ng & Sears, 2012; Slaughter & McWorter, 2013; Van Ham et al., 2012). Effective leadership and recognition of cultural differences within a corporation are essential components for implementing cultural diversity (Ng & Sears, 2012; Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2014; Slaughter & McWorter, 2013) and promoting positive social change in society (Benet, 2013).

This study was conducted to examine the differences in UI, LGP, and POF between urban and suburban residents. I used four theories: planned behavior (Ajzen, Joyce, Sheikh, & Cote, 2011), expectancy theory (Purvis et al., 2014), normative social influence (Gibson, 2013), and social impact theory (Van Beest, Carter-Sowell, van Dijk & Williams, 2012). This study was conducted to test the hypotheses that have been presented in this chapter using existing validated measurement instruments.

The significance of this study included a contribution to the literature on inclusion, diversity, and communication of numerical analyses of cultural differences among urban and suburban residents. My intended goal was for organizational leaders to achieve better results of sensitizing people who are diversity practitioners in their organizations to subcultures considered "others" (Halvorson & Higgins, 2013). Stimulating people to diversity within a corporation may be accomplished through a clear understanding of drivers of cultural norms within such groups (Fabelo et al., 2013; Swider et al., 2015). By observing standing assumptions, HR practitioners may gain insights into cultural attributes used as tools for the promotion of internal diversity programs with U.S. organizations (Fabelo et al., 2013).

In Chapter 2, a literature review of principal variables of this study, and literature on theoretical basis and hypotheses to be tested is presented. Significant to the theoretical foundation of these hypotheses are the differences in urban and suburban residents from a standpoint of cultural values, urban culture identification, and POF among urban and suburban residents in mid-sized American corporations, which I examined.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Differences between urban and suburban residents due to their UI, LGP, and POF is challenging for diversity practitioners in U.S. corporations (Jansen et al., 2016). The purpose of this quantitative study was to test the theory of planned behavior, expectancy theory, normative social influence, and social impact theory by examining differences in LGP, UI, and POF due to participants' residence locations in two primary U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties. There seem to be diversity challenges in U.S. organizations due to differences in LGP, UI, and POF (Moran et al., 2014; Salas & Gelfand, 2013) among urban and suburban residents.

POF and LGP for urban and suburban residents for the discipline and rigor careers in U.S. corporations are well documented. Social research over the last 30 years has been unclear as to how cultural differences in urban and suburban residence contribute to LGP, UI, and POF (Boyer, 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Riede, 2011). In addition, not enough has been discussed in literature about contrasts between underlying cultural differences that create a gap between urban and corporate cultural expectations, whereas sharing the same set of beliefs, organizational inclusiveness, and diversity remain a core focus for many U.S. corporations (Lumby, 2013; Shore et al., 2011). Jansen et al. (2016) explained that there is a problem with people failing in American corporations due to their UI, LGP, and POF. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine differences in residence location between urban and suburban residents and to understand whether relationships with their UI, LGP, and POF (Swider et al., 2015) exists due to such differences.

There were three research questions examined in this study:

RQ1.   What are the differences in LGP between urban and suburban residents?

RQ2.   Which of urban and suburban residents identify more with urban culture?

RQ3.   What are the differences in POF between urban and suburban residents?

This chapter provides a review of relevant theories and literature. A discussion of the literature search strategy used for this chapter is presented first. Second, brief overviews of the theoretical foundations for the study are outlined. Examined next was the concepts of organizational culture. Then, a literature review related to the critical study variables is presented. The chapter closes with a conclusion.

Literature Search Strategy

Scholarly search engines for recent articles and books on organizational behavior, UI, LGP, POF, culture, and urban and suburban cultures was used to conduct the literature search for this quantitative study. Library databases such as Walden library, Google Scholar, academic search complete, and ProQuest central were used to perform the literature search for this quantitative study. Emerald management, ABI/INFORM complete, business source complete, sage premier, ScienceDirect, PsycINFO, dissertations & theses, EBSCO ebooks, ERIC, psych tests, and Thoreau multi-database search were also used for the literature search. Keywords used for search included *culture, residence, urban, suburban, corporate, corporation, POF, leadership, management, organization, urban resident, suburban resident, urban culture, suburban culture, organizational culture, diversity management,* and *social isolation*.

Literature search spanned 1951–2017. Literature was searched based on relevance to study variables, historical precept, and a need for further research. Although there was little current research on the differences between urban and suburban residents and cultural nuances between the two groups, data dealing with components of the two groups was examined as components of urban and suburban cultures.

Peer-reviewed publications for the years 2014 to the current date were primarily searched for this study. However, there were some articles relevant to the research that was outside of my search criteria. Notably, the theoretical foundations and seminal articles related to those theories were published before 2014. In examining the literature related to the study variables, foundational theories of planned behavior (Ajzen, 2011), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), normative social influence (Asch, 1951), and social impact theory (Latané, 1981) was a focus for literature review for this study. Although each of these theories was supported by earlier theories, the philosophies developed by each of the researchers further helped my understanding of, and direct relationship to, study variables.

Theoretical Foundation

Several leadership theories were researched and evaluated to look at social and behavioral relationships that foster diversity within U.S. organizations (Alcazar et al., 2013, Downey et al., 2015; Dye & Golnaraghi, 2015). To understand values and behaviors in the U.S. organizatio,; a central research focus was how leaders are viewed as useful or not useful in distinguishing diversity barriers within their organizations in the United States (Ferdman, 2014; Ng & Sears, 2012). I used four situational theories to

understand why differences in residence location affect UI, LGP, and POF. The four theories were theory of planned behavior (Ajzen et al., 2011) expectancy theory (Purvis et al., 2014), normative social influence (Gibson, 2013), and social impact theory (Van Beest et al., 2012). Important to note that culture has at its core conformity, intuition, and conviction (Zittoun, 2017). A fundamental assumption for determining who is considered career ready is in a measure of the perceived level of intuitiveness and alignment of convictions between an employee and a corporation on a social scale (Knights & Omanovic, 2016).

Corporations have a mix of people from different cultural backgrounds with values and behaviors that are different from corporate expectations on values and behavior (Horton et al. 2014; Miyares, 2014; Moran et al., 2014; Tsai, 2011). Although conflicts may arise in corporations in the process of integrating individuals already indoctrinated in urban cultural beliefs, values, and behaviors into a corporate environment, I examined similarities and inherent differences between urban and suburban residents. Employees and people who share workspaces segregate based on social preferences engrained in values, beliefs, and behaviors (Wilson, 2014).

Theory of Planned Behavior

Although possession of knowledge and being informed about a job and performance expectations may not be a requirement for efficiently producing results, aligning with an existing culture within an organization is known to be helpful for generating results when assigned to projects that require collaboration with peers (Ajzen et al., 2011). The theory of planned behavior was used for this study, which was supported by empirical evidence

that is indicative of differences between acquired values, beliefs and practice on the one hand, and perceived behavioral control by individuals on the other, the precise nature of the above correlation is unclear (Pinder, 2014).

Knowledge about diversity and its implications for corporate social responsibility (Edmans, 2012) is not a guarantee for adjustment of cultural expectations that reflect the full inclusion of those considered "others" when diversity management is an organizational objective (Pinder, 2014). Lack of diversity at all levels remains a dilemma that has continued to permeate American corporations post-Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Miyares, 2014; Moran et al., 2014; Tsai, 2011). Differences are still present in POF between urban and suburban residents (Kim et al., 2013; Swider, 2015). Group-based advantages, according to DiTomaso (2014,) that favor family and friends with similar cultural backgrounds creates a challenge for urban residents whose POF is often benchmarked against a corporate culture that has more similarity with suburban culture (Matias, 2016; Moran et al., 2014).

Highlighting culture dependent differences in thinking (Schneider et al., 2013) can yield gridlocks, with an unintended consequence of compromised productivity. According to Schneider et al. (2013), taking both people and the situations where they exist (social system) and understanding an individual's mental programming can be a step in understanding the person's behaviors, and by extension values and beliefs (DiTomaso, 2014). The element of predictability of human behavior according to Schneider et al. is a reason social systems exist.

Expectancy Theory

Attraction to a corporation or a corporation's interest in an individual is usually contingent on a perception of reward and performance respectively (Purvis et al., 2014). The expectancy theory proposed by Vroom (1964) is grounded on the motivation of organizations to relate rewards directly to performance by ensuring rewards provided are rewards merited by recipients (Purvis et al., 2014). Lin, Tsai, Joe & Chiu (2012) elaborated on the role of performance-based incentives in creating a positive competitive culture in a corporation and can create a competitive advantage for attracting talents from diverse culture. Cultural expectations in an organization are usually built on the unique personality of the organization and the shared assumptions that exist in the LGP and beliefs of people within the organization (Carleton, 2015; Fok et al., 2016).

Normative Social Influence Theory

Normative social influence explains how changes in the behavior of one person, or a group of people, causes changes in the expression in others (Gibson, 2013). This reasoning is in line with a person or a group of people establishing a set of norms that become corporate culture when practiced over time in a corporation. Even though the larger society now considers such cultural expectations exclusionary of a particular segment of society, there continue to be obedience, exigency, and conformity to norms that are sometime noninclusive of a new generation of people who make up a corporation (Gibson, 2013).

Social Impact Theory

Social impact theory is focused on how groups behave toward outsider groups (Van Beest et al., 2012). An Ohio State University psychologist developed social impact theory in 1981 (Latané, 1981). According to Gass & Seiter (2015), group dynamics and interactions between groups at the individual (lower level) and group levels (higher level) form the basis of social impact theory. Differences in values, beliefs, and behavior (culture) in a group setting often create a perception of ostracism that can become a basis of comparison for examining exclusion because of corporate cultural expectations on behaviors. Consequentially, selective elimination based on cultural fit (Swider et al., 2015) is determined by comparing cultural congruence with predetermined cultural attributes (Van Beest et al., 2012).

Organizational Culture

Culture is a complex phenomenon that draws on spiritual, artistic, and intellectual aspects (Tsai, 2011). Culture in this study was defined as the long-standing values, beliefs, and behavior of a specified group (Boyer, 2012). The definition of culture has several dimensions, many of which are anchored on cognitive aspects of the human experience. According to Boyer (2012), culture is aligned with the process of information transmission. Information transmission informs material cultural evolution and cultural dynamism, often translating to a persons' scope for cultural values (Boyer, 2012). Mediating the effect of cultural vitality can be a significant step for developing culture-specific group goals (Bennett, 2014).

Organizational culture represents the prevailing ideology, underlying assumptions, and sense of identity, unwritten and often unspoken guidelines, and often an enhancer of the stability of an organization's social system (Cameron & Quin, 1999). Organizational culture has four major culture types: hierarchy culture (series of steps that can be taken to progress professionally), market culture (results oriented), the clan culture (characterized by loyalty and mutual support), and the adhocracy culture (dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative). Corporate leadership drives organizational culture (Dye & Golnari, 2015). Swider et al. (2015) stated that leadership behavior has a direct correlation with productivity outcomes. According to Kara, Uysal, Sirgy & Lee (2013), leadership effectiveness impacts corporate culture and employee job satisfaction.

Organizational culture consists of practiced values, beliefs, and behaviors deemed acceptable and embraced by a corporate group (Guiso et al., 2015; Korner, Wirtz, Bengel, & Goritz, 2015). Corporate culture consists of influences due to an infusion of cultural values, beliefs, and behavior adopted by individuals within an organization over a period (Kara et al., 2013). Cultural diversity, therefore, has a dependency on the built-in flexibility of cultural attributes within the geographical location of a corporation (Guiso et al., 2015). Corporate culture also has been associated with the organization's vision (corporate purpose and direction), mission (motivation, tactical operations, and diversity management), and values (corporate strategy, employee job satisfaction, and customer satisfaction).

According to Schneider et al. (2013), organizational culture is different from organizational climate corporate culture is about myths, internal, external images

captured and created by people in an organizational context to be representative of the organization's historical background (Alvesson, 2016). Recent writings by Lukas, Whitwell, and Heide (2013) and Alvesson (2016) suggested that corporations sometimes erroneously estimate customers' limited understanding of diverse cultural nuances because of limited cultural expectations on products and services due to their diversity in project teams.

Corporate values and beliefs are a subset of corporate culture and a determinant factor in customer relations. Directing culture outcomes for a competitive advantage requires ongoing organizational leadership refining of cultural attributes (DeBode et al., 2013). Cultural assessment and management is also a significant quality management tool needed for quality consistency, and sustained customer satisfaction (Gimenez-Espin, Jiménez-Jiménez, & Martínez-Costa, 2013).

A multitude of literature exists regarding cultural attributes contributing to employee motivation, performance, and overall productivity due to employee alignment with corporate cultural values (Uddin, Luva, & Hossain, 2013). A significant component of a corporation that is usually advertised in the first page of the prospectus of 85% of Standard and Poor's 500 list of corporations (Gimenez-Espin et al., 2013; Guiso et al., 2015) is corporate culture. Guiso et al. (2015) went on to define organizational culture as principles and values that should inform the behavior of all employees in a corporation.

Corporate culture is one of the measures potential investors use for projecting productivity, industrial relations, and a corporation's attractiveness to talented employees and social equity (both internally and externally; Guiso et al., 2015). From Edmans

(2012), diversity along with integrity (forgoing today's profitability for tomorrow's trust) is a measure included in Fortune's 100 "best firms to work for." Existence in a global community, and an understanding that the future shared with others requires complicated skills, and cultural competency (Bennett, 2014), not typical in many corporations.

Fostering workplace diversity efforts (Lindert & Williamson, 2016; Williams, Kilanski & Muller 2014) can be a step toward better understanding diverse cultures in the modern workplace (Lassiter & Niedt, 2013). Evidence of diversity and corporate compliance with the United States set standards (Kilanski & Muller, 2014) reflected in corporate mission statements, recruitment, and corporate personnel policies. Organizations' public relations often point to corporations' inclusive attributes (Yang & Konrad, 2011) and social responsibility (Edmans, 2012) with the implied contribution to positive social change. Often missing in literature are steps that can be taken to better understand some of the underlying causation of diversity challenges, such as a lack of appreciation of existing differences in UI, LGP and POF due to person's residence location. (Hodges, 2017; Kim et al., 2013).

Kim and Yoon (2015) asserted that multiple culture types exist, and within a single organization; various subcultures may exist. As a result, anyone organization's culture may reflect the values and behaviors of different residence locations; urban and suburban. For corporations that promote diversity, taking recent evolution in culture into account in shaping a core corporate culture may help cultural diversity (Downey, Werff, Thomas, & Plaut, 2015). However, developing an organizational culture to meet the

realities of cultural diversity can sometimes be a challenge, and failing to do so may create a disadvantage for employees who identify as urban. (Downey et al., 2015).

Cultural diversity is often strategically designed to be significant for a corporation's productivity and customer satisfaction goal to better understand, and forge lasting relationships in a diverse world often without examining differences between cultural diversity, performance, and corporation's effectiveness (Awadh & Alyahya, 2013). On the contrary, there are underlying assumptions about the world and values that guide organizational life (Schneider et al., 2013) when appropriate diversity programs are implemented and managed harmoniously by a corporation. According to Stone-Romero, Stone and Salas (2003), evidence of industrialized nations experiencing increased diversity in their workforce abound. What is missing in the direction of many American organizations is the gap in diversity in corporate leadership (Bolton, Brunnermeier, & Veldkamp, 2013). Addressing gaps in organizational leadership diversity has been an ongoing undertaking by successive political leaders in the modern era dating back to the early1960's (Stone-Romero et al., 2003).

Sundaramurthy, Pukthuanthong, and Kor (2014) agreed on a comprehensive consideration of the relevance of corporate culture because of the subjective nature of employees' socio-cultural choices. Ogbonna & Harris (2015) and Hung, Chen & Chung (2014) argued that different corporate cultures are a result of firm heterogeneity and common beliefs shared by members of the corporate community through shared knowledge. Corporations also contend with contrasts in urban, suburban and corporate cultural expectations. The absence of basic foundational tools, such as procedures for

behavioral practices and artifacts needed to succeed in a corporation creates a unique set of challenges for new employees (Knights & Omanovic, 2016). Successful adaptation to a corporation's culture, which could mean the difference between considerations as a team or non-team player is dependent on conformity to corporate values, beliefs, and behavior.

Culture Types

Several subcultures exist in the United States. Hoefstede (1984) compared settled societies and their social, behavioral, educational, and structural design characteristics with the nomadic culture from which they evolved, to this effect; there has been growing criticism of the dimensions of culture. Hofstede's (1990) and Schneider et al. (2013) aspects of culture have been particularly misapplied, with consequences for researchers seeking a more refined analysis being unsuitability of cultural constructs that broadly and evenly portray culture the same way across domains (Hudea, 2014). However, Hofstede's dimensions of culture provide a helpful starting point and credible order of logic and dependability for hypotheses development in examining culture effect in American corporations (Boyer, 2012).

Prevalent in organizations is a biased spatial projection of what the culture of others ought to be (Matias, 2016; Pedersen 2013) and the meanings people assign to the actions of others (Rao, Schaub & Sadeh, 2015). Such spatial projections can be a basis for creating a refining capacity that is mutually beneficial and creates a common purpose (Lange, 2014; Rao et al., 2015) for coexistence in a corporate space. However,

coexistence and common cultural goal are usually the exceptions in the pursuit of diversity in corporations.

A person's ability to emotionally regulate values and behavior has a relationship with the person's developmental cognition stage (Boyer, 2012). Cultural tolerance can also mean managing the preservation of an individual's culture while tolerating distinctions that are different in the person's perception of the culture of "others" (Korte & Lin, 2013). Researchers have found that challenges encountered when attempting to collect sensitive diversity data from corporations are often due to fear by corporate management of an inherent risk of exposure to misconduct lawsuits (Lounsbury & Beckman, 2015). Data from corporations are often needed by researchers for an accurate extrapolation of the impact of cultural non-conformance on POF by minority and non-minority groups as well. However, when there are significant changes in acceptable organizational social norms, institutional changes do occur according to Banaszak-Holl et al. (2013).

The literature on corporate, urban, and suburban cultures did not show relationships that are transformable for organizational value (Banaszak-Holl et al., 2013; Engelen, Schmidt, Strenger & Brettel, 2014; Korte & Lin, 2013; Lange, 2014). Assuming ownership of understanding cultures that are different to align with corporate cultural practices is also not sufficiently addressed in organization culture literature (Ellinas, Allan & Johansson, 2017; Engelen et al., 2014). Also, inquiring about the prior socialization of individuals and cultural indoctrination of the new hire into existing corporate culture for positioning, and future growth can be perceived as discriminatory in

the United States (Hodges, 2017; Ellinas et al., 2017). According to Korte & Lin (2013), successful socialization lies in the network ties afforded newcomers to a group with specific expectations on values (life-guiding principles), beliefs (POF) and behaviors (cultural identification). Such behavior expectations are mostly inadequate in organizations because of expectations on diversity that are often different from some group members' values, beliefs, and behaviors.

Diversity Management

Ajzen et al. (2011) noted in a critical analysis of the literature on the theoretical formulation that knowledge alone, though needed as a tool for diversity management, is insufficient for behavior modification. In the wake of corporation's drive toward high-performance teams in the 1970s workforce diversity models were implemented. One of the reasons for implementing new diversity models was social responsibility; meaning that employees felt valued and exhibit productivity (Alcazar, Fernandez & Gardey, 2013). Embracing a culture of diversity can be accomplished by employing knowledge infusion, and behavior modification intervention activities. Korner et al. (2015) discussed the relationship between leadership and organizational culture and found them to be correlated. However, there was no conclusive evidence in Tsai's (2011) study that pointed at whether there was a relationship between organizational culture (POF), employee's cultural identification (UI), and individual values (LGP).

Research results show an increase in the use of subgroups (Cummings, & Carton, 2012; Engelen et al., 2014) with an insight into subgroups characterized by diversity. The literature on the cultural component of subsets as a component of a broader corporate

culture remains loosely connected (Cummings & Carton, 2012). Although cooperation between workers often results in improved productivity (Ogbonna & Harris, 2011), what is most important is the unique perspective that is often helpful for accomplishing complex corporate tasks.

Managing diversity in a corporation is institutional and resource-based (Ferdman, 2014; Yang & Konrad, 2011). Making a business case for diversity (Edmans, 2012) and review of diversity implementation and outcomes is complicated and often based on a variety of contingencies (Yang &Konrad, 2011). The ideological belief of corporate leadership; such as a liberal CEO believing and leaning more toward diversity as part of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and conservative CEO with an opposite ideological viewpoint (Chin, Hambrick & Treviño, 2013) tilt the case for social responsibility toward politics. Due to human social systems, the best predictor of job satisfaction is a perceived level of inclusion (Downey et al. 2015; Dye & Golnaraghi, 2015; Ely, Padavic, & Thomas, 2012; Lindert & Williamson, 2016). Moreover, corporations can also inherently incur liabilities and legal recourse because of diversity due to inherent racial and cultural stereotypes.

Organizations usually consist of employees that are members of teams whose individual behaviors can impact corporate productivity outcomes (Alcazar et al., 2013; Engelen et al., 2014). In teams where team members view their team as supportive, it is indicative of a team countering the social stereotype on cross-race learning (Ely et al., 2012). Perception of a team as supportive is also indicative of a team's enhanced learning, and ease of fitting into corporate cultural expectations by team members, such

team members are more productive (Korner et al., 2015). Organizational leadership plays a vital role in managing the different sub-cultures while aligning teams and team members with a corporation's core values, beliefs and, behaviors (Dye & Golnaraghi, 2015). Innovative ways of representation of urban subculture in corporations (Yang & Konrad, 2011) can be viewed as a strategy for reaching and maintaining a mutually beneficial relationship across cultures.

Managing diversity gaps in a corporation requires an understanding of formalized practices developed within organizations that have become standard organizational practice (Yang & Konrad, 2011). Work by corporate leadership on bridging gaps in cultural diversity, and continued education on other cultures by corporations is laudable (Engelen et al., 2014). Efforts made to understand urban and different cultures further, speaks to the role organizational leadership play in overcoming follower misalignment on culture (Bolton et al., 2013).

Teamwork, cooperation, helpfulness, understanding of cultural expectations in a corporation, and a clear focus on an organization's diversity goals by individuals within work groups represents value for a corporation with a diverse workforce. Modern corporations face a societal demand for an increased demographic representation as a measure of corporate diversity. However, achieving and sustaining diversity in an organization, while simultaneously mitigating drawbacks such as differences in individual cultural attributes (values, beliefs, and behaviors), require a shift and an improved diversity management mindset that include an integrative approach. Finding, embracing, and sustaining proper diversity management requires an in-depth

understanding of cultural differences and influences of a managerial decision tree (Parham & Muller, 2017).

Obtaining data for planning and implementation of a diversity management system is difficult because of a potential risk of discrimination lawsuits (Lounsbury & Beckman, 2015). Further, researchers who infiltrate distinct organizational subgroups find congruence between non-minority and minority managerial approaches to addressing inclusivity tendencies (Ely et al., 2012). This backdrop is significant when examining preparedness for life in corporate America by both urban and suburban residents from diverse cultural backgrounds. Creating an environment that utilizes strength in diversity, fostered by cultural differences, requires management understanding of inherent gains in promoting a different work environment (Lounsbury & Beckman, 2015).

Corporations develop a culture that is often representative of environmental factors that are driven by the corporation's location and demographic composition. Gaining an understanding of gaps in cultural alignment between a corporation, its demographic structure, and geographic area can become a significant need for implantation of corporate diversity programs (Ely et al., 2012). Implementing corporate diversity programs often require contextually examining corporate culture (Maon, & Lindgreen, 2015). Achieving a sustainable diversity program entails a clear understanding of personal behavioral fits within a corporate culture (Knights & Omanovic, 2016), that is relevant for continued integration of people with different cultural values. In a well-meaning diversity program, regardless of cultural differences of various actors within the contextual framework of corporate culture, demographic

disadvantages at work should be acknowledged (Knights & Omanovic, 2016) which

could have an unintended consequence of social isolation within an organization.

Infusion of subcultures (mainly of urban and suburban roots) into U.S.

organizations due to globalization can result in cultural diversity consequences such as a

change in traditional U.S. corporate culture (Ajzen et al., 2011; Alcazar et al., 2013).

Leadership control of resulting diversity due to a new corporate reality of globalization

and alignment with organizational objectives remain a stated diversity goal of many

organizations (Deephouse et al., 2016; Kara et al., 2013). Matching corporate interests,

and social responsibility with a broad spectrum of worker's benefit is a management

challenge (Andrew & Ashworth, 2015).

Social Isolation

Recent works by scholars in the field of organizational behavior have examined

social inclinations and, by definition, cultural values, beliefs, and practices. Social

preferences are private information, and a tendency exists to inadvertently create

separating equilibriums for different individuals within an organization (Ogbonna &

Harris, 2015). Separating equilibrium is often produced because of social isolation of the

races (Ogbonna & Harris, 2015; Wilson, 2014). How much impact social isolation; due to

artificially created separations has on the perception of qualification, measured in

preparedness for corporate functions has not been well studied. Also, resulting

misconstruction of other worldviews and cultures due to social isolation and a lack of

exposure to cultures other than the ones known by urban residents often transfers to work

(Krivo, Washington, Peterson, Browning, Calder, & Kwan, 2013).

Economically disadvantaged individuals experience social isolation; it is often ignored and not addressed (Krivo et al., 2013) for a transformative resolution. But, social isolation is a condition representative of lack of different cultural tolerance and can exacerbate into an absence of diversity in a corporation. Urban residents are often at the receiving end of separating equilibrium in corporations with devastating implications due in part to unresolved historical underpinnings (Wilson, 2011). Choi and Kim (2013) succinctly analyzed the challenges encountered by urban residents who have embraced urban cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors; they also outlined a cultural behavior guideline required for success in an American corporation that is different from urban culture. However, because of long-held perceptions, urban residents are often at a disadvantage due in part to separating equilibriums in corporations created by cultural differences between urban residents and their corporations (Choi & Kim, 2013).

Significant challenges were identified in the literature (Fleming, Lamont, & Welburn, 2012) when confronting social isolation; one such problem is a tendency for individuals that are critical players in the perpetuation of social isolation to embrace a perception of the act being normal. Another challenge is the stigma that can, and often arises from being identified as one perpetuating or on the receiving end of social isolation (Wilson, 2014). Addressing the modality for responding to stigmatization among urban residents, bridging the gap between social isolation, and education of out-group members requires getting acquainted with the urban cultural experience (Wilson, 2014). Researchers have found in studies that among urban residents, confronting the modality for responding to stigmatization is inherently risky (Fleming, Lamont & Welburn, 2012),

often creates further social isolation, and resulting economic consequences. Problems created because of cultural differences in corporations without really defining what POF look like for urban residents was reiterated in literature search (Boyer, 2012; Fleming et al., 2012; Krivo et al., 2013; Ogbonna & Harris, 2015).

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

The study dependent variables included life guiding principles, UI, and POF. Study independent variable was participant residence location. Covariate variables for this study were urban, suburban and organizational (corporate) cultures.

There have been several studies on culture (Boyer, 2012; Jonsen et al., 2016; Tsai, 2011), organizational culture (Downey et al., 2015; Dye & Golnaraghi, 2015), diversity (Awadh & Alyahya, 2013), and LGP (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016; Ismail, 2016; Schwartz, 2014). There have also been several studies on UI (Morris, 2013) and POF (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005) that correlates participant residence location with UI, LGP, and POF. The following sections reviewed literature related to these variables.

Residence Location

A cursory examination of differences in culture identification due to study participant's residence location may be indicative of profound core differences and contrasts among urban and suburban resident's cultures (Boyer, 2012; Krivo et al., 2013; Ogbonna & Harris, 2015; Wilson, 2014). This study was significant because corporations that promote corporate cultural values influence their productivity and global competitive advantage (Tsai, 2011). Participant residence location is a suitable variable for this study because of the hypothesized significance of residence location to UI (Towns, 2013), LGP

(Awadh & Alyahya, 2013; Ismail, 2016; Schwartz, 2014, Tamir et al., 2016), and POF (Edmans, 2012; Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014; Youngs, Pogodzinski, Grogan & Perrone, 2015)

Many scholars have studied culture prototypes in the context of organizational behavior and leadership (Von Bergen et al., 2012; Xenikou & Furnham, 2013). Schneider (2013) studied corporate culture from the standpoint of social questions such as cultural differences between subgroups (urban and suburban) in an organization. However, studies examining the relationship between cultural identification, LGP, and POF are rare. Schneider et al. (2013) explained the importance of corporate culture as a strategic asset due in part to the significant role culture plays in an organization's performance standards, innovation, and accountability.

Researchers examining corporate culture (Von Bergen et al., 2012; Xenikou & Furnham, 2013) maintain that a relationship exists between suburban and corporate culture. Researchers also agree that there are gaps in cultural similarities between urban and corporate culture due to recent urban flight and corporate migration to the suburbs (Schneider et al., 2013; Wilson, 2014). Chetty, Hendren, and Katz (2015), and Swider et al. (2015) examined LGP, and culture identification, and did not draw a significant connection between LGP, cultural identification, POF, and residence location. According to Chetty et al. (2015), factors such as socioeconomic compositions, LGP, and neighborhood effect (residence location) often influence cultures. People respond differently to their environment, and inherent challenges exist in measuring how impactful neighborhood effect is on people, especially young people (Wilson, 2011), who

are expected to adapt to cultural values expectations in an American corporation that may be different from cultural values they are accustomed.

In a recent study by Breen and Rottman (2014), cultural traits, LGP, and behavior were found to have no impact on a person being good or bad. Breen and Rottman suggested that while denied opportunities arising from differences between urban and suburban cultures are a consequence of social marginality, marginalization is often not a product of cultural inferiority. However, inadequate preparations of urban residents for corporations because of cultural disparities may pose a corporate challenge for diversity implementation.

Variations in the cultural background often stem from differences in LGP, and behaviors due to residence location. There is a link between many of the exhibited cultural values, cultural history, and the residence location of the person (Van Ham, Manley, Bailey, Simpson & Maclennan, 2002). Although daily interactions form the basis of passing beliefs, values, and behaviors on from one generation to the next, the sphere of influence, and the draw to identification with people an individual around forms the person's identity (Van Ham et al., 2002).

Urban residence is defined by the U.S. Census Bureau (2016) as people living in a metropolitan area. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2016) data, an urban area is as a geographic area with a population density of 50,000 or more people. Industrialization sparked a substantial population shift from rural areas to urban areas beginning in the 19th century (Wilson, 2011). Urban areas continue to be created and developed through the process of urbanization.

An urban resident is a person living in an urban area or urban cluster. An urban residence according to U.S. Census (2016) data is a geographic area with a population density of 50,000 or more people. Industrialization sparked a substantial population shift from rural areas to urban areas such as New York, Boston, San Francisco, and Los Angeles beginning in the 19th century (Wilson, 2011). Urban residence continues to be created and developed by process of urbanization (Chen, Zhang, Liu & Zhang, 2014).

Suburban residence (area) is a residential area or a mixed-use area, either existing as part of a city or urban area or as a separate residential community within commuting distance of a town (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). According to U.S. Census (2016) data, the suburban or rural area is a geographic area encompassing all population, housing, and territory not included within an urban area and having a population density of fewer than 50,000 people. Suburban residents are people living in a suburban area classified by zip codes in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016).

A suburban residence is different from elements of urban clusters and usually exists within a commuting distance of a city. In general, suburban residence locations have lower population densities than inner city neighborhoods (urban groups) within a metropolitan area, and most residents commute to central cities or other business districts.

Urban Identification

Towns (2013) introduced the concept of UI within the context of a study of consumer implication of identifying cross-culturally with three major components of urban culture. These are hip-hop headz, fashion-forward, and a free spirit (sic). UI refers to people usually between the ages of 18 and 36 years whose purchasing decisions are

either directly or indirectly influenced by inner-city trends or hip-hop culture (sic) and rap by a segment of United States population (Knox & Pinch, 2014; Towns, 2013).

Urban culture is the practiced values, beliefs and attitudes normalized and expressed in towns and cities with high density of people in limited space where people do not know each other's behaviors, beliefs, and values. Besides, social interactions are often self-centered. Self is a locus of constant experimentation with no set limitations in urban culture (Bennett, 2014). Data emanating from a stereotype of differences creates a perception and a challenge in absorbing value-adding features, transferable from an urban environment to corporations. Engaging urban population in new and innovative ways may be helpful for extending organizational diversity and inclusion (Williams, Kilanski & Muller, 2014; Yang & Konrad, 2011). UI refers to people who identify with the urban culture, usually between the ages of 18 and 36 years whose purchasing decisions are either directly or indirectly influenced by inner-city trends or hip-hop culture (sic) and rap by a segment of United States population (Knox & Pinch, 2014; Towns, 2011).

Suburban culture is the practiced values, beliefs and attitudes normalized and expressed by people living in a residential area or a mixed-use area, either existing as part of a city or urban area or as a separate residential community within commuting distance of a town. Suburban communities are usually characterized by homes that spread out, located on the outskirts of urban cities, and farmlands. According to Lassiter & Niedt (2013), people who live in suburban communities often travel outside their communities for work (United States Census Bureau, 2016). Suburban cities usually have a lower

population than urban communities and have a sizeable middle-class population (Lassiter

& Niedt; 2013; United States Census Bureau, 2016).

UI is a construct that refers to people usually between the ages of 18 and 36 years

whose purchasing decisions are either directly or indirectly influenced by inner-city

trends or hip-hop culture (sic) and rap by a segment of United States population (Knox &

Pinch, 2014; Towns, 2013). According to Towns (2013), the urban sector is a diverse

blend of ethnicities that is heavily influenced by taste, attitude, and lifestyle by inner-city

American youth, and hip-hop culture (sic). UI encompasses a cross between economic

marginality, clothing, embodied dispositions, and race (Towns, 2013). UI transcends

traditional cultural norms and draws attention to the fact that cultures are a social

construct (Knox & Pinch, 2014). Although UI has its roots in hip-hop with origin in the

inner-city U.S., the hip-hop influence of UI has extended beyond the American landscape

(Towns, 2013). UI is a suitable variable for this study because the concept of UI

measures essential factors representing a broad segment of urban culture and area such as

hip-hop, rap, clothing, race, and lifestyle.

Life-Guiding Principles

Ismail (2016) referred to LGP as individual values that influence human choices

and behavior, often internalized and unconsciously become a criterion for guiding

actions. LGP are standards of conduct and values that a person believe is important

according to Fok, Payne, and Corey (2016), and considered a perceptive belief that

transcends specific situations to guide the evaluation of behaviors (Hanel & Wolfradt,

2016). LGP are what, and how people believe things ought to be, and how people ought

to behave, interactions and relationships with others are governed by our LGP (Banaszak-Holl, Castle, Lin, & Spreitzer, 2013).

LGP are the guiding philosophies in a person's life (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016). Life guiding principles extend behaviorally to what and how people think things ought to be, sometimes conceptually and transcend specific situations, guiding behavior and evaluations (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016). LGP, according to Schwartz (2014) are psychological properties unique to an individual and located in the person's mind. Not to be mistaken with emotions, values reflect how people will like to see the world while feelings indicate how people experience the world (Tamir et al., 2016). According to Hanel & Wolfradt (2016), LGP entail acts of self-regulation that are directed toward the desired end state.

Variations of values within countries are arguable LGP, because, within countries, there are more significant sociodemographic variabilities (Schwartz, 2014). Not to be mistaken with cultural values, LGP historically trend toward individualism (Schwartz, 2014) because of technological advances in communication and travels between geographical zones that were previously less practical. LGP have been extensively studied in the context of countries (Ismail, 2016; Schwartz, 2014; Tamir et al., 2016) and at the individual level (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016). LGP were a suitable variable for this study because of its direct correlation with an individual's values (Hanel & Wolfradt, 2016; Ismail, 2016), including formation and transformation by residence location. Stakeholder engagement drives LGP and performance outcomes in American

corporations (Eccles, Ioannou, & Serafeim, 2012), teamwork, and worker collaboration on many levels (Ogbonna & Harris, 2015).

Person-Organization Fit

POF refers to a person's compatibility with an organizations culture and performance expectations (Swider et al., 2015). POF according to Kim et al. (2013), has a direct correlation with work attitudes, behaviors, and perceived social exchange between a person and an organization. POF is a perceived recruitment outcome that applicants will respond positively to organizations with identical values as theirs (Swider et al., 2015). POF occurs when an organization satisfies individual's needs and desires from a supply standpoint (Sökmen, Bitmis & Üner, 2015).

POF is an integrative model, often developed because of value correspondence during recruitment and beyond about a reciprocal future work environment and employer relations (Yu, 2014). POF sometimes translate motive into successive goal attainment and job satisfaction (Youngs et al., 2015). POF was a suitable variable for this study because of its direct correlation with an individual's preferred organizational culture (Swider et al., 2015), perceived social exchange between a person and an organization (Kim et al., 2013) including formation and transformation by residence location. Researchers within industrial-organizations have indicated that the degree of congruence of integration and requirements of collaboration in the workplace is what defines an individual's POF (Youngs et al., 2015).

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the effects of residence location on UI, LGP and POF in the context of U.S. organizations. The dynamism of current corporate culture requires people within corporations to be collaborative and promote corporate diversity to be competitive in a global competitive landscape. Engendering workforce activities that are inclusive and diverse constitutes a significant organizational leadership responsibility. Several cultural traits lend their beginnings to the transitional times between nomadic and settled cultures, and differences in geographic locations. Moreover, family structures have been historically helpful in shaping the values, beliefs, and behaviors of individuals. Social stratification of communities and, in later times, countries, states, and continental blocks faced different and an emerging reality of eradication due to advances in communication technology and eroded boundaries due to globalization. What remained was a continued need by organizations to be competitive in the face of an emerging business reality of globalization (Deephouse et al., 2016; Eccles et al., 2012; Kara et al., 2013).

There are further research opportunities for further examination of the impact of programs such as mentoring, cultural exchange, and an internship on UI, LGP, and POF among urban and suburban residents in the U.S. (Arthur et al., 2006). However, understanding the differences between urban and suburban cultures due to their values, beliefs and behaviors can be a significant step toward gaining a better understanding of changes needed in organizations to create more diverse cultures (Alcazar et al., 2013; Rueywei, Shih-Ying, & Min-Lang, 2014).

Current study findings may have significant implications for diversity

practitioners as data from this study may be applied toward better understanding the

differences between urban and suburban residents due to LGP (values) UI, and POF.

Study findings could be useful for further studies on social isolation (Krivo et al., 2013),

social stratification (Fleming, Lamont, & Welburn, 2012) and cultural diversity in the

American workplace (Lounsbury & Beckman, 2015). Study findings could also be useful

for understanding the cultural differences due to residence locations, the impact of UI,

LGP, POF, and the dynamics of cultural expectations in U.S. organizations (Ellinas et al.,

2017; Hodges, 2017). Chapter 3 discusses the quantitative research method and design in

greater detail for this study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative study was to test planned behavior, expectancy, normative social influence, and social impact theories by examining the influence of participant residence location on UI, LGP, and POF. This chapter includes scales used to operationalize the independent variable of participant residence location, and the dependent variables of UI, LGP, and POF among urban and suburban residents. Also included in this chapter is a discussion of the reliability and validity of the scales used for study hypotheses testing. Additionally, a significant section of this chapter is focused on research design, rationale, methodology, and threats to study validity. Furthermore, subsections of the method include study population, sample size, recruiting procedure, research instruments, data treatment, data analysis plan, and data storage plan.

There were three research questions for this study:

RQ1.   What are the differences in LGP between urban and suburban residents?

RQ1.   Which of urban and suburban residents identify more with urban culture?

RQ2.   What are the differences in POF between urban and suburban residents?

The research method for this study is discussed in sufficient detail for other researchers to build upon or replicate the study. The research design is described first, followed by a presentation of the procedures used to recruit study participants; described next are ethical considerations (Ng & Sears, 2013; Maon & Lindgreen, 2015; Lozano & Escrich, 2016; Sims & Sauser, 2013). Presented along with instruments used are study variables and hypotheses for this study. Finally, I describe procedures related to data collection and analysis, study reliability, study validity, limitations, and delimitations.

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative survey design was used to predict the effect of the independent variable of participant residence location on the dependent variables of LGP, UI, and POF. This study is deductive. The experimental or quasi-experimental design was not appropriate for the size and geographic diversity of most mix of urban and suburban populations in U.S. West Coast states. Variables were operationalized using existing validated measures (Cameron & Quin, 1999; Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005; Towns, 2013). LGP were measured with the Short Schwartz's Value Survey (SSVS) by Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005). UI was measured with the UI scale by Towns (2013). Finally, the POF was measured using the Organization Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) by Cameron and Quin (1999). Lastly, I ascertained demographics data by using a demographic data questionnaire (U.S.Census Bureau; 2016).

The quantitative research method and instruments were used to test study hypotheses to determine whether there are relationships between the dependent and independent variables, and the level of significance of the connections for urban and suburban residents. The instruments were used to address central research questions of this study to help ascertain why residence location is an implicit factor in determining UI, LGP, and POF for urban and suburban residents in U.S. corporations.

The use of survey design was adequate for collecting analytical data for this study to understand the relationships between the dependent variable of participants' residence location and independent variables of UI, LGP, and POF. Several studies have dealt with study variables within the context of group dynamics (Kim et al., 2015; Korner et al.,

2015; Moran et al., 2014). Researchers have studied the direct link between a person's residence and UI, LGP, and POF. Recent examples of quantitative studies that have advanced knowledge of diversity and inclusionary practices include Downey et al. (2015), who conducted a study on the role of diversity practices and inclusion in creating and promoting employee engagement while fostering a climate of trust and set perception of integration for employees. Swider et al. (2015) also conducted a study on how changes in POF influence job choices for applicants in U.S. organizations. Finally, Kim et al. (2013) studied how the social exchange was a predictor of LGP and POF. These studies are only a few examples of studies researchers continue to build upon in advancing knowledge of LGP, POF, and diversity disciplines.

The quantitative research method was deemed appropriate to best apply to the research problem for this study. A quantitative approach allows researchers to examine relationships between variables (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015). Theories, hypotheses, models, samples, data and parameter estimates (Zyphur & Pierides, 2017) were numerically evaluated, making a quantitative approach most appropriate for this present study. A survey design study also numerically connects variables and allows the testing of study hypotheses by examining samples within test population (Zyphur & Pierides, 2017), generating data and measuring variables.

Methodology

Population

The target population for this study was adult residents ages 18–36, currently employed by a medium to mid-sized U.S. corporation and resident in dominant U.S.

West Coast urban and suburban counties. The target population was surveyed using random samples from the SurveyMonkey participants pool (Freeman Herreid et al., 2016). Primary U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties consist of a mix of urban and suburban geographical areas that fall within the definition of the U.S. Census Bureau on urban and suburban populations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). SurveyMonkey members are required to provide their demographic information, which allows SurveyMonkey to solicit the participation of individuals that meet specified selection criteria (Freeman Herreid et al., 2016). Criterion sampling strategy was used to recruit participants for this quantitative survey design, nonexperimental comparative study. U.S. West Coast central urban and suburban counties such as Los Angeles and Orange counties are uniquely suited for this study due to the full range of residents living in the two counties with varying culture identification (Towns, 2013).

Sampling Frame and Sampling Procedures

Sampling Frame and Power Analysis

The sampling frame for this study was adult volunteer respondents from U.S. industries. Sampling was random and participants were drawn from the more extensive SurveyMonkey participant pool that can met researcher's defined criteria (Freeman Herreid et al., 2016). SurveyMonkey is an online survey administration organization that maintains a U.S. membership database of more than 45 million individuals. Individuals in SurveyMonkey are usually invited to complete survey research for the company's customers and researchers.

G*Power statistical software with two-tailed correlation parameter, with a priori type power analysis, a medium effect size r = .30, significance level α = 0.05, and power = .80 (1- β) was used to determine appropriate sample size for this study. Based on the result of the calculation using the G*Power statistical software, the appropriate sample size for the population was 84 for the survey to be statistically significant with lower critical r = -0.2145669 and upper critical r = 0.2145669 (see Figure 1). The actual target sample size for this study was 120 participants, 52 samples for Group 1 (urban residents), and 68 samples for Group 2 (suburban residents). The more significant sample size is designed to account for likely occurrence of dropouts, incomplete responses, and nonresponse bias (Nishimura, Wagner, & Elliott, 2016).
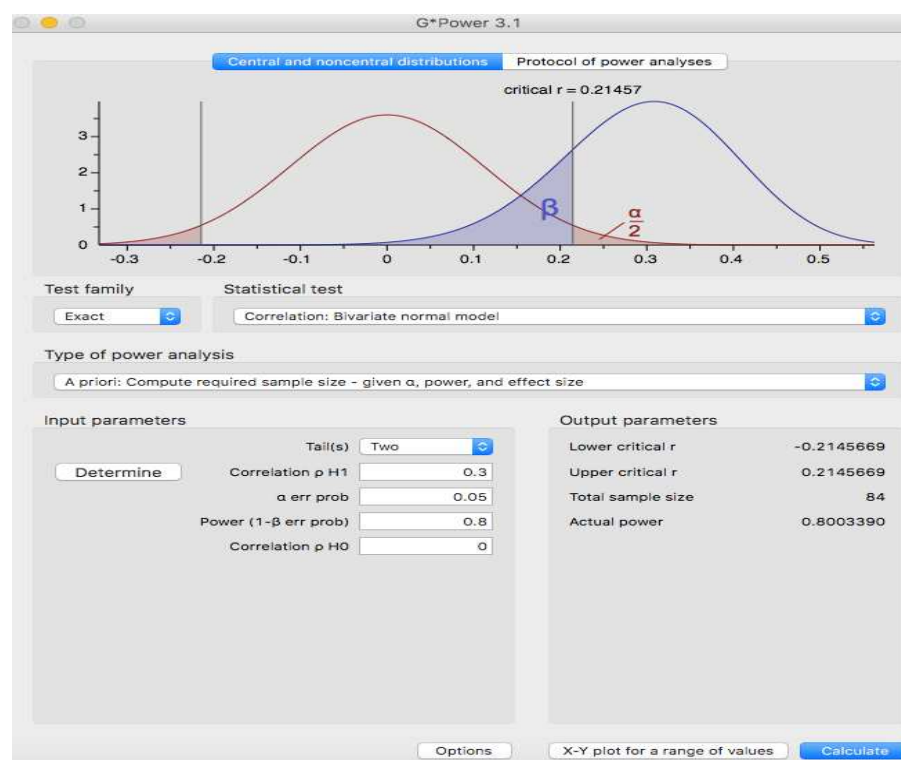
Figure 1. G*Power graph.

Specific Procedures for Sampling

Recruiting was random from the SurveyMonkey company (Freeman Herreid et al., 2016), and selection of survey participants was from their volunteer participant pool. Participation in this study was voluntary, and respondents were offered an option to decline answering questions or withdraw from the study at any time. Participant recruitment was done with a criterion sampling strategy. Only samples representative of the study criteria and target population were selected. Criterion sampling was used to identify study participants, and respondents were required to meet the following selection criteria to participate in this study:

1. Respondent is currently employed full-time (at least 30 hours per week) by an American corporation. This criterion was created to ensure data uniformity and eliminate differences in POF (Arthur et al., 2006) that might be the result of employment status.

2. Respondent has received at least a bachelor's degree in their occupational field. This criterion was created to eliminate differences based on widely varying educational attainment and narrows the participant pool to professionals (Baum, Cunningham & Tanenbaum, 2015; Kokemuller, 2016).

3. Respondent is between the ages of 18 and 36. These ages assure the respondent is an adult, and within the millennial generational cohort, which several researchers have claimed possess very different workplace preferences compared to their predecessors (Festing & Schafer, 2014). This criterion was created to eliminate differences based on age and generational cohort.

4. Online respondents targeted in the SurveyMonkey participant pool lives in U.S. central West Coast urban and suburban counties determined by the zip code they provide (Freeman Herreid et al., 2016). These U.S. central West Coast urban and suburban counties have a range of suburban and urban locations, thus allowing inclusion of the target population. Moreover, limiting the areas to central U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties helps to reduce the differences caused by regional disparities.

Recruitment and Participation. An online survey was provided for SurveyMonkey to invite random participants through SurveyMonkey Contribute, a database where individuals can voluntarily sign-up as survey participants (Freeman Herreid et al., 2016). I matched survey participants to the study requirements based on a pre-answered demographic survey through SurveyMonkey's recruitment efforts. SurveyMonkey sent study survey to participants that were a match, where they either could participate or opt out of the study.

Participants in this study were diverse and a fair representation of the U.S. population living in urban and suburban areas with access to a personal computer and the internet. During the survey process, I collected demographic variables that included age and ZIP code. The ZIP code data was a nominal data. Age was a ratio data. There were no interval variables as it related to participant demographics.

Informed Consent and Data Collection

Informed Consent

Study participants were expected to click on the study link contained within the e-mail that was by SurveyMonkey including a statement of implied consent found on the first page. This statement had a listing of who to contact during the study with a question(s) and possible resolution of such concern(s). I also requested study participants to acknowledge consent by selecting the "next" button to begin the survey and at the end of the study.

Data Collection Procedures

Data was collected over a 6-week period using an online survey administered by SurveyMonkey. SurveyMonkey was also asked to target segment of participant pool in central U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties. A web survey service run by SurveyMonkey was used to collect data. Survey instruments for this study comprised 52 questions divided into four demographic questions, 40 questions scored on a Likert scale (Green & Salkind, 2013), and six questions where study participants are asked to divide 100 points among six questions in order of preference for data collection. The last six questions were repeated, and answers were based on what study participants would like their organization to look like in 5 years. Due to its time and cost-effectiveness and ease of reaching a large sample, I chose web-based survey administration. The effectiveness of reaching potential participants via e-mail is unclear (De Bruijne & Wijnant, 2014).

Study Exit

Study participants were instructed to select submit at the end of the survey. For any participant who did not click "submit" on completion of study invalidated the survey responses. There was no real way to communicate with participants individually in this study, and the participant pool was controlled by SurveyMonkey. No additional follow-up procedure was needed after study participants selected submit at the end of the survey.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Variables

There were three dependent variables for the current study: LGP, UI, and POF. The independent variable for this study was participant residence location. In Chapter 2, I discussed the background and rationale for all study variables.

Life-Guiding Principles

LGP was conceptually defined by Ismail (2016) as principles that influence human choices and behavior, often internalized, but often become a criterion for guiding life's actions. LGP are what is believed as necessary and how an individual believes things ought to be and how people ought to behave. LGP are sometimes conceptual; for example, education, artifacts such as dreadlocks, ties, and perfumes govern our behavior, relationships, and interaction with others. Although other attempts have been made to measure LGP, SVS was developed in 2005 by Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) to study the role of LGP in social life. SSVS includes 10 topic themes of the self-administered questionnaire in which study participants were asked to rate the importance of values as an LGP for them. For example, participants were asked to rate the importance of the following values as an LGP for you: power (social power, authority, wealth),

achievement (success, capability, ambition, influence on people and events), and

hedonism (gratification of desires, enjoyment in life, self-indulgence). Study participants

were also instructed to "rate the importance of the following values as an LGP for you.

Using an 8-point Likert-type scale in which 0 indicates that *the value as opposed to your*

principles, 1 indicates that *the value is not important for you*, 4 indicates that *the value is*

important, and 8 indicates that *the value is of supreme importance for you*. The range of

possible scores after the questionnaire was administered to study participants for the

SSVS was 0-80 (0 = lowest, 80 = highest). The overall composite score for SSVS was

calculated using the SPSS statistical program.

The full SSVS has ten questions, modeled as a short form of the 57 questions

comprehensive Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) based on Schwartz's value theory

(Schwartz, 1992). Four studies that tested the SSVS against the SVS, and the Portrait

Values Questionnaire (PVQ) by Schwartz, Melech, Lehmann, Burgess, Harris, and

Owens (2001) were used to validate the study. There were four studies conducted in the

development and initial validation of the SSVS. Total of 670 individuals (72.3% women,

27.7% men) from Finland ages 15 to 58 (M = 19.76 years, SD = 5.23 years) participated

in the study (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005).

In study 1, an examination was conducted to ascertain whether value scores

obtained with the SSVS correlated with those obtained with the SVS and the PVQ

(Schwartz et al., 2001). A *9*-point scale was used in study 1. The goal of study 1 was to

test if the quasi-circular structure of values by Schwartz (1992) can be found with the

SVSS (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). The general reliability coefficient (GRC) was used

to calculate the reliability of the composite scales (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). Like the Chronbach alpha (Field, 2013), the GRC is a statistical technique for measuring the reliability of composite measures (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). The GRC for conservation and self-transcendence were .78 and .72 respectively for study 1.

In study 2, the quasi-circular structure of the SVS was replicated in a more heterogeneous sample to determine reliability, using a *7*-point scale ranging from 1 = *against my principles* to *5 = of supreme importance* for a test-retest procedure. The GRC for conservation and self-transcendence were .75 and .69 respectively. The validity results of the two value dimensions of conservation and transcendence were as good as those concerning the value items on the SVS.

In study 3, a 2-week test-retest reliability study of the SSVS was analyzed. Except for self-direction, results correlated for the measure. In study four a comparison of the cognitive load was conducted for the SSVS, SVS, and PVQ. SSVS had the least cognitive load of the three measures at the average time of two minutes for survey completion, see Table 2. The SSVS is reliable and has a good construct validity for measuring LGP. I used the SSVS in this study to measure the dependent variable LGP and test its relationship with the dependent variable of participant residence location for urban and suburban residents. Dr. M. Verkasolo granted researcher permission to use the SVSS (see Appendix B).

Table 2

Comparison of the Cognitive Load of SSVS, SVS, and PVQ

Scale	Number of items	Time to complete
SVS	57	12 mins
PVQ	40	6 mins 40 secs
SSVS	10	2 mins

Urban Identification.

RQ2: Which of urban and suburban residents identify more with urban culture? UI refers to people usually between the ages of 18 and 36 years whose purchasing decisions are either directly or indirectly influenced by inner-city trends or hip-hop culture (sic) and rap by a segment of the United States population (Knox & Pinch, 2014; Towns, 2013). UI is characterized by distinct behavioral and attitudinal factors, such as having a hip-hop style, concern with fashion, and contrarian attitudes (Morris, 2013). UI was measured using the UI scale (Morris, 2013).

Urban identification was measured by administering Towns (2013) Urban Identification Scale (UIS) to study participants. UIS is a 30-item self-administered questionnaire in which study participants, for example, were asked: to what extent does each of the following characteristics describe you? Multicultural, have "attitude," and listen to rap music. The rating for each value was scored using a Likert scale of values: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7. Where 1 = *not at all*, 4 = *somewhat*, 7 = *completely*. The range of possible scores after administering the questionnaire to study participants for the UIS was: lowest

= 30 and highest = 210. The overall composite score for UIS was calculated using the SPSS statistical program.

In the development of the UIS, Towns (2013) determined the best measure of UI would loosely follow the steps used by Zaichowsky (1995) for the development of the personal involvement inventory (PII) and the PII scale reduction techniques. The full UIS is broken down into three underlying dimensions that comprise the constructs of UI; hip-hop lifestyle, personal style, and personality. (Towns, 2013). For validation of the UIS, Towns (2013) tested urban construct cross-culturally on U.S. and Hong Kong populations. First, Towns (2013) defined the UI constructs to be measured. Definitions that pertained to the defined UI constructs were solicited from experts to establish content validity within a study population in the United States. Next, a non-U.S. population (Hong Kong) was tested to compare underlying construct dimensions between the two cultures. Consumer's sources of information were examined to verify a similar pattern. Finally, willingness to purchase U.S. brands was tested within a Hong Kong population for urban and non-urban identifiers in animosity toward the U.S. (sic).

Convergent reliability was tested by assessing the correlation of the scale measure of UI with a self-reporting measure, and construct validity scale was tested by gathering and analyzing initial data. Participants in this study consisted of 256 undergraduate marketing students from three private U.S. universities in Washington DC and Los Angeles California. Respondents in this study were defined urban as a racially diverse group of U.S. consumers ages 18 – 36, 50% Caucasians, 19% African Americans, 17% Latinos, 4 % Asians and 1% other (Towns, 2013). Scoring was on a 7-point Likert scale;

1= *not at all* to 7 = *very much* with a midpoint 4 = *neutral or unsure*. The scale was divided such that 5 or higher were categorized as "urban," while *4* or below classified as non-urban (Towns, 2013). A confirmatory factor analysis using principal component analysis showed hip-hop headz (hip-hop lifestyle), fashion (personal style), and a free spirit (personality) correlated at p < .001 with Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) of .90, .85 and .79 respectively for the U.S. population. Also, confirmatory factor analysis using principal component analysis showed hip-hop headz, fashion-forward, and free spirit correlated at p < .001 with Cronbach's alpha of .93, .88 and .79 respectively for the Hong Kong population.

The UIS, measured across the U.S. and Hong Kong urban popular; on; showed right internal consistency (correlation between several items within the same test) and construct validity. The UIS was used to measure dependent variable of UI for this study and to test its relationship with the dependent variable of participant's residence location for urban and suburban residents in Los Angeles and Orange counties California. Dr. Marlene Morris Towns verbally permitted the researcher to use the UIS. The researcher was then referred to and obtained permission to use the UIS from the American Marketing Association; copyright owners of the UIS (Appendix C).

Person-Organization Fit

RQ3: What are the differences in POF between urban and suburban residents? POF (consisting of core beliefs, values, and behavioral norms) or culture types prefer by respondents in an employer. POF is a perceived recruitment outcome that applicants will respond positively to organizations with identical values as theirs (Swider et al., 2015).

POF is also an integrative model, often developed because of value correspondence during recruitment and beyond about a reciprocal future work environment and employer relations (Yu, 2014). POF often translates motive into successive goal attainment and job satisfaction (Youngs et al., 2015). Researchers have found the degree of congruence of LGP and requirements of their workplace is what defined an individual's POF (Youngs et al., 2015). POF is a synergetic relationship between organizations and their employees, resulting in needs supply and alignment of organization and LGP.

Organization Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quin (1999) was used to measure POF. OCAI is a 6-theme item self-administered questionnaire. Each question has four alternatives (items); A, B, C, and D. Study participants were instructed to divide 100 points among the four alternatives depending on the extent to which each option was like their organization. Study participants gave a higher number of points to the choice that is most like their organization. For example, in question one, if you think alternative A is like your organization, alternative B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is hardly identical, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points to B and C, and five points to D. Study participants were instructed to ensure their total point assignment equaled 100 points for each theme. Study participants were asked four questions (A B C D) on each of the six subjects; *dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, corporate glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success*.

The OCAI was administered twice to study participants. First, study participants were instructed to score the six themes for their "now" (current) organizational culture,

and second, they were instructed to score the six themes of the OCAI instrument again for their preferred organizational culture. The range of possible scores for the "now" and preferred cultures for each theme was 0 – 100. The overall composite score for the OCAI was calculated using the SPSS statistical program.

Cameron & Quin (1999) used the OCAI to understand the concept of diagnosing organization's culture. Several scientific studies on organizational culture were examined to define, evaluate dimensions, and assess reliability and validity of the OCAI instrument (Cameron & Quin, 1999). The OCAI was developed as a diagnostic tool for identifying core organizational culture values. As part of OCAI validation, Cameron & Quin (1999) examined the two main disciplinary foundations of organizational culture; functional approach (culture emerges from collective behavior) and semiotic approach (culture resides in individual interpretations and cognition).

A study was conducted by Quin and Spreitzer (1991) to test the reliability of the OCAI, where 796 executives from 86 public firms rated their firms' culture. Each coefficient was statistically significant, $p < .001$ with Cronbach's alpha .74 for clan culture, .79 for adhocracy culture, .73 for hierarchy culture and .71 for market culture (Cameron & Quin, 1999).

To test the validity of the OCAI, Cameron and Freeman (1991) studied organizational cultures in 334 higher education institutions, a total of 3404 individuals (12 – 20 per institution) participated in the study. Organizational culture was assessed by performing a multitrait-multimethod analysis using two measurement instruments. One of the instruments was the OCAI and the other, a modified OCAI using a *5*-point Likert

scale; 1–5 (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Convergent validity was supported when construct validity (using correlation matrix) was examined. All diagonal correlation coefficient at $\rho<.001$ were statistically different from zero and ranged between .212 and .515 for a moderate level of correlation. The OCAI was used to measure the dependent variable of POF for this study and to test its relationship with the dependent variable of participant's residence location in major U.S. West Coast urban and suburban counties determined by the zip codes provided by study participants. Permission to use the OCAI was obtained from Dr. Kim Cameron and Dr. Robert Quin (see Appendix D)

Participants Residence Location

RQ1, RQ2, RQ3. Participant residence location for this study was for urban and suburban residents. Participant residence location was measured on a nominal (categorical) scale; *1* = urban and *2* = suburban.

Urban residence. An urban residence was defined for this study as a geographic area with a population density of 50,000 or more people (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). A suburban residence was defined for this study as a residential area or a mixed-use area, either existing as part of a city or urban area or as a separate residential community within commuting distance of a town (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). A suburban or rural area is defined according to U.S. census bureau data as a geographic area encompassing all population, housing, and territory not included within an urban area. See Appendix I for a summary of variable data collection.

Data Analysis Plan

Data analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 24.0 (IBM Corp., 2016). Dependent variables were LGP, and POF. Independent variable was participant residence location. The purpose of using the SPSS software for data analysis was to test the relationships between each of the three dependent variables and participant's residence location.

Data cleaning and Screening Procedure

The SPSS software allows for simple data cleaning, which helped with identifying data with missing values. Consistency check was implemented to determine data that were out of range to ensure data uniformity. Missing responses were treated methodically to reduce their adverse effects by assigning a suitable value to blank answers. Missing data were initially entered as a blank cell for SPSS to fill in all empty cells, on SPSS (Salkind, 2014).

Restatement of Research Questions and Hypothesis

RQ1. What are the differences in LGP between urban and suburban residents?

H_o1: There is no significant difference in cultural values between urban and suburban residents as measured by Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS).

H_a1: There is a significant difference in individual cultural values between urban and suburban residents as measured by Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS).

RQ2. Which of urban and suburban residents identify more with urban culture?

H_o2: Urban residents identify with UI less than or equal to suburban residents as measured by the UI scale.

H_a2:   Urban residents identify with UI more than suburban residents as measured by the UI scale.

RQ3.   What are the differences in POF between urban and suburban residents?

H_o3:   Urban residents score less than or equal to suburban residents for POF as measured by the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

H_a3:   Urban residents score more than suburban residents for POF as measured by the organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI).

Demographic characteristics

Demographic categories include age, the highest level of educational, employment status and zip code. These characteristics were analyzed by frequency distribution; which identified the number of responses that fell into each category.

Test Statistics

The following steps were utilized to analyze the data gathered for all variables measured in this study:

1. To ensure data was normally distributed (goodness of fit), each set of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality on SPSS; dataset > 50 (Field, 2013). A test for normality was conducted to identify an appropriate parametric or non-parametric analysis for each variable to analyze study hypotheses (Field, 2013).

2. Central tendency (mean) descriptive statistics test was used in this study to report the mean for each variable composite score, for urban and suburban residents.

3. Standard deviation (dispersion) was calculated using SPSS for each variable

to measure data distribution to provide an overall description of the data

set for urban and suburban residents.

Analysis

Independent sample t-test was conducted using SPSS to understand the effect of

the independent variable (participant residence location) on the dependent variable UI

(data from variable met normal distribution) by comparing the mean the study variable

composite scores for urban and suburban residents. The Mann-Whitney U test was

conducted to understand the effect of the independent variable (participant residence

location) on the variables LGP and POF (variables did not meet the parametric

assumption of a normal distribution). Unlike the t-test, Mann-Whitney U does not require

the premise of the normal distribution (Field, 2013), see Table 3.

Table 3

Hypothesis Testing: Summary of Applied Statistical Tests

Hypotheses	Predictor variable (independent)	Criterion Variable (dependent)	Test statistics (Parametric assumptions met)	Test statistics (Parametric assumptions not met)
$H_0 1$	Participant residence	Life-guiding principles	Independent sample *t*-test	Mann-Whitney U Test
$H_0 2$	Participant residence	Urban identification	Independent sample *t*-test	Mann-Whitney U Test
$H_0 3$	Participant residence	Person-organization fit	Independent sample *t*-test	Mann-Whitney U Test

Threats to Validity

Internal, External, and Statistical Validity

Threats to internal validity for this study were minimal; all measurement instruments for this study were previously validated and used in several studies with valid results. Also, scales selected were intended to adequately measure constructs outlined because of similarity of study constructs to constructs previously measured as part of scales validation (Cameron & Quin, 1999; Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005; Towns, 2013). Data collection was performed through an online web survey. The length of the survey instrument was one page long per topic; demographic information on one page, the SSVS,….. External validity was controlled by following web-administered survey protocols (De Bruijne, & Wijnant, 2014; Schouten, Calinescu, & Luiten, 2013). A survey was conducted using the SurveyMonkey web survey administration site. The self-selection nature of the study was used to address the threat to selection-treatment interaction; study participants could halt response if they did not meet the self-selection criteria when answering demographic questions. There were no anticipated threats to internal and constructed validity.

Ethical Procedures

This study was managed within the oversight of the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). Walden University IRB approval was requested, and permission granted before commencing data collection. The researcher observed all human subject's protection in compliance with the National Institutes of Health (NIH) guidelines (see the attached certificate in Appendix K). Potential participants were sent a

study invitation via e-mail that outlined the purpose of this quantitative study, nature of participation, measures that were taken to protect respondents' confidentiality, and how the data was used (see Appendix A). To address ethical concerns regarding participant's recruitment and materials, SurveyMonkey initiated a managed communication with study participants, with no access to participant information. Participants additionally were assured that participation is voluntary they were provided and a link to the online survey in the recruitment e-mail.

The first page of the online survey was the complete informed consent information, and a reminder that participants could withdraw from the study if they were no longer interested in study participation. Respondents were required to indicate their consent by responding affirmatively to the question: do you provide your consent to participate in this study; to proceed to the remainder of the survey questions. The researcher informed participants they could exit the study anytime by selecting submit at the end of the survey, no additional follow-up was necessary. A summary of the dissertation was made available to participants through a shared drive (Google drive private link) to ensure transparency.

Although claims of anonymity in online surveys are mostly inaccurate according to Rao et al. (2015), proactive measures were implemented to assure that participants' privacy concerns were addressed. One such measure was to remind participants to disable cookies when entering information on a web-based form to avoid potential behavioral profiling in the introduction page. Participants' privacy in this study remain confidential and protected by this researcher.

Data was password protected and accessible only to the researcher. As part of demographic data collection, the researcher did not collect identifying labels such as name, address, telephone number; and e-mail address. Participants did not face legal, emotional, physical, economic, or psychological risks because of participation in the study.

Summary

This chapter describes the research method used in this study. The researcher designed a non-experimental quantitative survey design for this study. A 52-item survey (including demographic questions) was administered to gather data about respondent's residence, cultural values, urban culture identification, and POF. I collected data from full-time employees in mid-size American corporations.

The SSVS (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005), UIS (Towns, 2013), and OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) were discussed as instruments that were used to measure the dependent (criterion) variables. Participant residence location was reviewed and determined by zip codes through the demographic data scale used to assess respondent's demographic information.

The goal of this chapter was to determine whether LGP, UI, and POF were different for urban and suburban residents (participants' residence location). Standard survey instruments were used to measure all variables, and an online survey platform was used to collect data. Self-selection sampling was used to establish a sample of 120 adult employees from various U.S. industries. After cleaning and screening the data, it was analyzed using Pearson's correlation. The researcher discussed research design, study

rationale, methodology and potential threats to validity. Also reviewed were subsections of the population, sample size & sampling strategy, recruitment procedure, research study instruments, data treatment, and data storage. Researcher finally discussed inform consent, ethical concerns and treatment of participants were addressed as well as precautions to avoid ethical concerns.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to test the theory of planned behavior, expectancy theory, normative social influence, and social impact theory by examining the influence of participant residence location on UI, LGP, and POF. The independent variable of participant residence location was defined as a home in a structure within a designated geographic area where the study participants inhabit (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Participants' residence location was determined by two distinct characteristics of urban and suburban residences. Urban residence is defined as a geographic area with a population density of 50,000 or more people, and suburban residence is defined as a residential area or mixed-use area, either existing as part of an urban area or as a separate community (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Residence location according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2016) is a home in a structure within a defined geographic area where a person inhabits. Urban and suburban residence are two distinct concepts that determine participant's residence location.

The dependent variable of LGP was defined through variables presented in the Short Schwartz Value Survey (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005), which included rating the value of power and achievement as LGP. The dependent variable of UI was defined through variables presented in the UI scale (Morris, 2013). The extent an individual's purchasing decisions are influenced directly or indirectly by inner-city hip-hop culture and rap by a segment of the U.S. population is the individual's UI (Knox & Pinch, 2014; Towns, 2013). Lastly, the dependent variable of POF, measured through the Organization Culture Assessment Instrument, is an integrative model used for value correspondence

determination during recruitment about a reciprocal work environment and employer relations (Cameron & Quin, 1999; Yu, 2014).

This study contained three research questions with corresponding hypotheses that examined the relationship between the independent variable of participants residence location and the dependent variables of LGP, UI, and POF:

RQ1. What are the differences in LGP between urban and suburban residents?

$H_0$1: There is no significant difference in cultural values scoring on the Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS) between urban and suburban residents.

$H_1$1: There is a significant difference in individual cultural values scoring on the Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS) between urban and suburban residents.

RQ1. Which of urban and suburban residents identify more with urban culture?

$H_0$2: Urban residents score less than or equal to suburban residents on the UI scale.

$H_1$2: Urban residents score greater than suburban residents on the UI scale.

RQ2. What are the differences in POF between urban and suburban residents?

$H_0$3: Urban residents score less than or equal on the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) than suburban residents for POF.

H_l3:   Urban residents score more on the Organizational Culture

Assessment Instrument (OCAI) than suburban residents for (POF).

This chapter includes a synopsis of data collection strategies, including timeframe and response rates, data cleaning and screening, and sample characteristics. Furthermore, included are results of statistical tests, including the general descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, and hypotheses testing through an independent sample t-test. Finally, I provide a summary of the findings and transition to Chapter 5.

Data Collection

Time Frame, Response Rates, and Sample Characteristics

The data for this study was collected over a period of 3 weeks. As described in Chapter 3, study participants were recruited from SurveyMonkey's participant pool, where they self-selected to answer the survey questions. There were 120 responses received, with 52 and 68 respondents identifying as urban and suburban residents respectively (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). As shown in Table 4, the age range was diverse, and a majority of study participants identified as suburban residents. There was no missing data in the responses; all survey participants offered their consent to participate in the survey or they were screened out.

Table 4

Demographic Profile of Participants

Residence	Count	%
Urban	52	43.33
Suburban	68	56.67
Total	120	100.00
Education	Count	%
Bachelor's Degree	76	63.33
Advanced Degree	44	36.67
Total	120	100.00
Age	Count	%
18-21	23	19.17
22-26	38	31.67
27-31	34	28.33
32-36	25	20.83
Total	120	100.00

Study Results

Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach's alpha for the scales used in the study to measure LGP, UI, and POF (SSVS, UIS, and OCAI respectively) are presented in Table 5. Alpha scores of .65 (coefficient of reliability) or higher are acceptable when attempting to show internal consistency of an instrument (Cronbach, 1951; Vaske, Beaman & Sponarski, 2017). The Cronbach's alpha scores for all instruments showed good to excellent internal consistency. LGP, UI, and POF were .87, .97 and .79 respectively; right internal consistency for the SSVS, UIS, and OCAI measures. On average, POF showed the highest standard deviation (145.93). UI, however, presented the lowest standard deviation (22.07) when compared to other variables (LGP and POF).

The average covariance among items for POF showed a collective negative average Cronbach's alpha, which would violate reliability model assumption (Vaske, Beaman & Sponarski, 2017). However, when subsets of POF were tested individually (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy; now and preferred) by splitting the data into the four subvariables that make up POF, right average internal consistency of .79 was obtained.

Table 5

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Cronbach's alpha for Study Variables

Urban Residents	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach's alpha
LGP	62.85	12.09	.87
UI	105.52	24.65	.92
POF	280.73	166.87	.87
Suburban Residents			
LGP	51.71	21.71	.97
UI	99.51	21.48	.89
POF	274.19	124.99	.72

Note: Cronbach alpha' scores indicated all items have high internal consistency

Evaluation of Data Quality and Data Preparation

Two statistical tests were used in this study to understand the strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The two statistical analyses were also used to understand whether or not the dependent variables are predictors for the independent variables. Through SPSS, independent sample *t*-test or point serial correlation on mean score values for the bounded range was used to determine whether the independent variable participant residence location was a predictor of UI (parametric assumption of normality was met by data from the UI scale that was used to measure urban identification). Bootstrapped *t*-test or Mann-Whitney U test was

also used to determine whether the independent variable of participant residence location was a predictor of LGP and POF. Before completing the statistical analyses, I assessed the data for missing values, normality, and linearity.

The data were first examined for missing values. There were no missing values; the survey was designed to screen out incomplete responses. One hundred-and-twenty respondents answered 52 quantitative questions for a total of 10,560 Likert-type responses without the four demographic questions. Next, the data set was examined for normal distribution to verify that each of the variables met parametric assumption of normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. For normality test, the composite scores for POF_Now (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) and POF_Preferred (Clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) were calculated and used in the test.

Table 6

Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	Sig.
LGP	.846	.000
UI	.994	.911
POF_Now	.950	.012
POF_Preferred	.877	.000

Results from the Shapiro-Wilk test shows data from the UI table were normally distributed and not statistically significantly different from a normal distribution. POF data, measured with responses for participants "now and preferred" (average composite

scores of the clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) POF were not normally distributed and statistically significantly different from a normal distribution. Data for the variable LGP was also not normally distributed and statistically significantly different from a normal distribution, see figure 2, histograms and QQ-plots for LGP, UI, and POF.
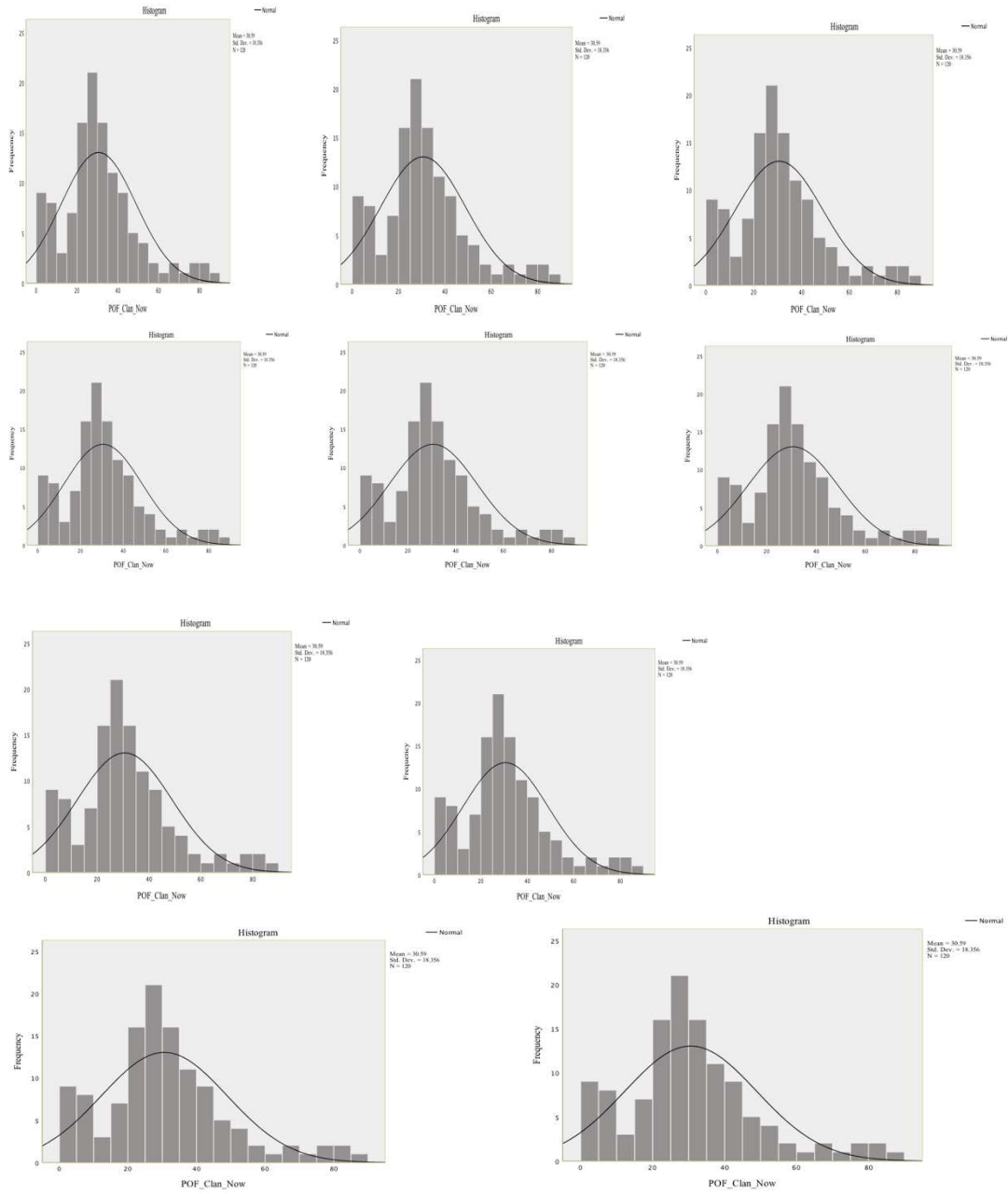
Figure 2. Histogram of data set.

The UI variable met the parametric assumption of normality. Histogram and QQ-plot of the UI data shown in figure 2 did not reveal apparent outliers. Therefore, I statistically examined data for outliers and results are listed in Table 7.

Table 7

Outliers Upper and Lower Limits and Extreme Values for UI

Variable	Lower bound	Upper bound	Min	Max
Urban Identification	23.75	177.50	44	168

Note. There was no outlier for urban identification.

Next, to understand the linear relationship between the dependent variables (LGP, UI) and independent variable (participant residence location), I used a scatterplot. Data for POF (now and preferred) were measured at the scale level and not included in the scatterplot analysis. Moreover, the variable POF was measured by using four components (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy), a scatterplot relationship between the each of the POF sub-variables would not have adequately represented a valid connection. Data for LGP and UI were measured at the ordinal level. LGP appeared to be positively and linearly related to UI.

Independent Sample *t*-test

I conducted a standard independent sample *t* analysis to assess the ability of participant residence location (urban or suburban) to predict an individual's UI in West Coast United States. There was a significant difference in scores for urban residents (M = 105.31, SD = 24.41) and suburban residents (M = 99.51, SD = 241.47); $t(118) = 1.38$, $p =$

.170). Specifically, result from the model summary suggests that there is a higher mean

UI for individuals that identify as urban than suburban residents.

Table 8

Model Summary for Urban Identification

	Residence Location	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
UI	Urban	52	105.31	24.414	3.386
	Suburban	68	99.51	21.479	2.605

Next, Mann-Whitney U analysis was conducted to assess the ability of an

individual's participant residence location (urban or suburban) to predict their LGP and

POF (now and preferred). The difference in mean scores between urban and suburban

residents was not significantly different for POF (now) between urban and suburban

residents. Urban residents had a slightly higher score than suburban residents on the POF

(preferred) score. LGP score was higher for urban residents than it was for suburban

residents.

Table 9

Model Summary for Person-Organization Fit and Life-Guiding Principles

Residence_Location		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Urban	POF_Now	52	26.00	1.034	24	29
	POF_Pref	52	24.96	.160	24	25
	LGP	52	62.85	12.087	26	86
	Residence_Location	52	.00	.000	0	0
Suburban	POF_Now	68	26.09	1.607	23	36
	POF_Pref	68	24.86	1.191	18	30
	LGP	68	51.71	21.710	22	84
	Residence_Location	68	1.00	.000	1	1

Note. The significance level is at .05 (2-tailed).

Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses, I split the combined into urban resident's data set (*N* = 52) and suburban resident's data set (*N* = 68). Once independent samples were split into two, a Pearson's product-moment correlation was processed to understand the relationship among urban and suburban residents and how that relationship may or may not affect an individual's LGP, UI, and POF. As indicated in Table 10, there was no statistical significance for the "now" and "preferred" organizational culture, LGP, and UI for urban residents at the 95% confidence interval. There were negative correlations between the "now" and "preferred" POF, and LGP for urban residents. Correlation results are shown in Tables 10 and 11. There were weak positive correlations between LGP and "now" POF, and UI and "preferred" POF at the 95% confidence interval. Also indicated in Table 11 was a weak statistically significant negative correlation between the "preferred" and now POF for suburban residents. There were also negative correlations that were not

statistically significant between LGP and the "now" POF and between UI and LGP.

There were positive correlations between LGP, and "preferred" POF; UI and "now" POF,

and a weak positive correlation between UI and "preferred" POF at the 95% confidence

interval.

Table 10

Correlation Table for Urban Residents

		POF_Now	POF_Preferred	LGP	UI
POF_Now	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	52			
POF_Preferred	Pearson Correlation	-.215	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.126			
	N	52	52		
LGP	Pearson Correlation	.104	-.088	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.465	.536		
	N	52	52	52	
UI	Pearson Correlation	-.101	.091	-.223	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.475	.523	.112	
	N	52	52	52	52

Table 11

Correlations for Suburban Residents

		POF_Now	POF_Pref	LGP	UI
POF_Now	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	68			
POF_Pref	Pearson Correlation	-.694**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	68	68		
LGP	Pearson Correlation	-.227	.235	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	.053		
	N	68	68	68	
UI	Pearson Correlation	.158	.053	-.045	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.198	.666	.716	
	N	68	68	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Summary and Conclusion

The purpose of Chapter 4 was to analyze the relationship between LGP, UI, and POF among urban and suburban residents. It hypothesized that there are no significant differences in cultural values between urban and suburban residents. Also hypothesized was that urban residents identify less or equal to suburban residents with urban culture. Finally, I hypothesized that urban residents are of less or equal fit for an organizational culture that suburban residents. The aggregated samples were split into two independent samples of urban and suburban residents to test the hypotheses. A correlation analysis of the two independent samples showed a weak positive correlation between urban and suburban residents ($p < 0.05$) for LGP measured with the SVSS, UI measured with the UIS, and POF measured with the OCAI. There was sufficient evidence to reject the null

hypotheses after conducting an independent sample *t*-test on the dataset for UI (dataset was normally distributed) and Mann-Whitney U test for LGP and POF (data set for both variables were not normally distributed). Table 12 is a summary of the null hypotheses and fail to reject or rejection for each hypothesis.

Table 12

Summary of Null Hypotheses Test Results

Null Hypotheses	Description	Reject/Fail to Reject
$H_0 1$	There is no significant difference in cultural values scoring on the Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS) between urban and suburban residents.	Reject
$H_0 2$	Urban residents score less than or equal to suburban residents on the Urban Identification Scale (UIS).	Reject
$H_0 3$	Urban residents score less than or equal on the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) than suburban residents for Person-organization Fit (POF)	Reject

In Chapter 5, interpretation of research findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research were discussed. Implications for HR, diversity practitioners, and positive social change were also reviewed.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Chapter 5 includes a review of five main topics: a general discussion and interpretation of the study findings and limitations of the study. Next, Cin Chapter 5 I discuss recommendations for future research. Chapter 5 also includes a review of study implications for researchers, diversity practitioners, positive social change, and concluding remarks.

The Short Schwartz Value Scale (SSVS) was designed as a scale to measure cross-cultural comparisons by measuring the dimensions of values (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). Urban residents possess cultures and values that are often dimensionally different from cultures and values in corporations (Slaughter & McWorter, 2013). In this study, the SSVS was used to measure differences in values between urban and suburban residents. Suburban residents scored higher on the SSVS scale than their urban counterparts. On the contrary, urban residents had a higher mean score than suburban residents on the UI scale. The UI scale was designed to be positively skewed toward urban identification. The UI scale was designed to test the urban construct by measuring values and attitudes cross-culturally in U.S. and Hong Kong populations.

Similar to the abovementioned scales and measures, data for *now* and *preferred* organizational culture was collected using the OCAI. Although data for urban residents showed a slightly insignificant negative correlation ($p=-.215$) for their *now* and *preferred* corporate culture, suburban residents data showed a significant negative correlation ($p=-.694$). The OCAI instrument was designed to measure competing values framework, so these results were expected (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Organizational culture preference

between urban and suburban residents was measured by assessing research participants'

views on six dimensions of current and preferred organizational performance,

competitiveness, innovation, satisfaction, retention, and resistance to organizational

change consisting of four competing values (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy).

Design of the OCAI is based on a corporate culture that is derived from suburban cultural

attributes, which may mean suburban residents may be aware of growing diversity in

corporations but want something different.

Interpretation of the findings

Life-Guiding Principles

Stemming from the Schwartz's value theory (Schwartz, 1992), Lindeman and

Verkasolo (2005) identified 10 dimensions of value: power, achievement, hedonism,

stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformism, and

security. These values are compatible with the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen et al.,

2001), which is indicative of differences between acquired values, beliefs, and behavior

as well as the perceived behavioral control by individuals. LGP could be understood and

manipulated by managers to promote enthusiasm and motivational increase in the

psychological state of employees. Supporting evidence for the theory of planned behavior

(Ajzen et al., 2001) was revealed in this study and found to be different for urban and

suburban residents. Results from this study indicated a modest, negative correlational

relationship LGP between urban and suburban residents on LGP. Organizational leaders

seeking an improvement in diversity may more efficiently disperse value driven

organizational behavior design efforts for employees with differences in value tendencies.

Urban Identification

Towns (2013) acknowledged the differences between urban and suburban groups and their appreciation of evolving global cultural trends. According to Towns, the UIS used to measure UI for this study was developed to measure and incorporate behavioral and lifestyle as well as social, style, and attitude variables. Latané's (1981) social impact theory was focused on group dynamism and interactions between groups at the individual level (Gass & Seiter, 2015). Supporting evidence for this theory was discovered in this study. The results from this study signified a modest positive correlational relationship on UI for urban residents and negative correlational relationship for suburban residents. For employees with either high or low internal UI, managers who wish to see improvements in levels of diversity may focus their efforts on crafting team building activities that promote understanding of value adding attributes of the cultural spectrum within their organization.

Person-Organization Fit

Asch & Guetzkow (1951) developed the normative social influence theory and posited that there are existing social and personal conditions that encourage individuals to either conform to or resist prevailing cultures based on their perception facts. Vroom (1964) proposed expectancy theory and posited that relating rewards and incentives directly to performance created positive competitive culture's in organizations. The two theories summarized are a fundamental basis of organizational culture. The OCAI was

developed by Cameron & Quinn (1999) as a method to assess organizational culture by measuring four dimensions of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy). As a construct, there is still considerable research to be conducted regarding POF. No found research studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between POF and participant residence location. The results from this present study indicated differences in POF between urban and suburban residents (participant residence location). There was a statistical difference in mean scores between urban and suburban residence on the OCAI.

Limitations of the Study

While the present study may have contributed to the literature on differences in cultural identification, LGP, and POF between Urban and suburban residents, there were six limitations to this study:

1. This study relied on data collected through random self-selection sampling and self-reported measures which may present a threat to validity.

2. Respondents may have elected to complete the survey because of their alignment with the topic even though their responses may not be reflective of their feelings.

3. The study was narrowly focused on urban and suburban residents in central West Coast U.S. counties and excluded other counties in the United States. The study may have benefitted by being more inclusive of how the variables interacted with attributes such as socio-economics and class.

4. Study relied on cross-sectional data to test the hypotheses. Because of this, I was unable to conclude causality, but only to show that the variables were either the same or different.

5. Sample size for this study was a limitation. If there had been more time for data collection, data collection could have spanned over 120 samples, which would have allowed for broader generalizability to the U.S. population.

6. The OCAI instrument required participants to divide 100 points among four alternatives. The process required weighing given alternatives; preferred and now for an entire organization, sometime by an individual with no visibility of other departments, leaving a possibility of mistakenly rejecting a null hypothesis (Type 1 error).

Recommendations

The researcher did not find a study similar to this study that examined the effects of residence location on LGP, UI, and POF; there is an opportunity for further research. One of such research may be expanding on this study through experimental research to ascertain if residence location causes an individual to be a better fit for an organization. Another recommendation for future research is to expand the population being examined from urban and suburban residents in significant US West Coast counties to other counties in the US; major and minor. Furthermore, while there was evidence showing differences in LGP, UI, and POF between urban and suburban residents, further research is needed to understand what role these differences play in a person's ability to integrate into an American organization. It might be of interest to research how much

consideration U.S. organizations or diversity practitioners place on cultural differences due to residence location when formulating diversity policies. Finally, future research can be conducted to understand the role of gender as it relates to the study variables of UI, LGP, and POF.

Implications

The results of this study implied there is still much to be learned in the field of diversity about differences in residential location. While there is an opportunity to continue this research for scholars, there is a lot to discover for not only diversity practitioners but also for those wishing to make a positive social change in society and within their organizations.

Implications for Researchers

The results of this study narrowed the gap in the literature regarding the relationship between cultural identification, LGP & POF and residence location. Specifically, the study focused on the importance of suburban residence and culture, which had a stronger relationship with corporate culture than urban culture. Future research may further develop and validate this knowledge. By focusing on young adults ages 19-36, there is potential to take findings from this study and expand or recreate the study for other populations. Very little has been found in the literature related to the exact combination of variable effect (i.e., participant's residence location) on an individual's LGP, UI, and POF. By uncovering a difference between urban and suburban residents, researchers can use this study to further establish cultural relationships or gaps within the diversity and leadership fields. Lastly, as mentioned in the limitations, researchers can

use this study as a basis to broaden the participant's pool to other demographics to either

reject the study hypotheses of failing to reject within other demographics.

Implications for Organizational Diversity

This present study places emphasis on the differences in LGP, UI, and POF

among urban and suburban residents. Although diversity practitioners are persistently

exploring ways to improve diversity in the workplace, mastering intercultural

competencies (Bennett, 2014) remains a challenge that inhibits their ability to set aside

stereotypical characteristics assigned to outsider culture groups (p 161) such as urban

residents. By scientifically generating and generalizing cultural archetypes through an

ethnographic process, diversity practitioners may be unaware of the suburban culture that

shapes the organizational diversity paradigms in which they work (McIntosh, 2015). This

study highlights the differences between urban and suburban residents, and factors that

influence their values, beliefs, and preferred organizational culture.

While the results of this study showed slight but significant differences in LGP,

UI and POF among urban and suburban residents, the effect of such differences may be

consequential for organizational diversity. Results from this study may provide insight

for corporate diversity practitioners with interest in gaining a deeper understanding of

managing the range of cultural attributes within their organizations. By acknowledging

and addressing ways of aligning value adding cultural characteristics of all cultures;

urban, suburban, and corporate, diversity practitioners may potentially narrow

employment gap between urban and suburban residents while developing and targeting

inclusionary programs to increase the number of future leaders from a broader demographic.

Implications for Positive Social Change

Although the motivation for conducting this research was to understand relationships between urban and suburban residents by examining their LGP, UI, and POF, the results of the study suggest diversity practitioners might also be considered active agents of positive social change. Relying on data from measurements outlining differences in urban and suburban cultural attributes, diversity practitioners can induce valuable cultural characteristics from individuals identifying with urban culture in leadership positions in American corporations. By focusing on factors that promote leaders who identify with the urban culture, diversity practitioners can redirect their focus to enable the success of leaders with values, and behaviors that identify with urban values and behaviors that can contribute to positive social change at the organizational level. In doing so, employees identifying with urban culture may continue to maintain their cultural identity while embracing and promoting success factors in their existing corporate cultures. This effort might also benefit organizations aspiring to practice corporate social responsibility because of the psychological empowering of a segment of employee base representing the economically disadvantaged in society.

Findings from this study can be potentially significant for better understanding people at the individual level while promoting diversity principles in a workplace with differences in culture identification (Kim et al., 2013; Swider et al., 2015). Findings from this study may also contribute to social change by helping contribute to increased

understanding of the differences in residence location among urban and suburban residence and effect on UI, LGP, and POF in American corporations. Findings from this study can also apply toward potentially increasing understanding the role of diversity in possibly narrowing career achievement gaps between urban and suburban residents in American corporations. Finally, findings from this study may also be useful for better understanding variations in the different cultures (Arthur et al., 2006; Choi & Kim, 2013) to more efficiently structure diversity-enhancing programs and promoting diversity principles in a workplace with differences in cultural identity.

Concluding Remarks

In this study, differences in LGP, UI, and POF between urban and suburban residents were examined. Empirical results showed that UI, LGP and POF were different for urban and suburban residents. Some study results were found to be unreasonably close for urban and suburban residents; which implied a narrowing of the geographic divide between urban and suburban locations. It is my foundational belief that if organizations are to become more demographically diverse within the leadership ranks, diversity practitioners will have to recognize and understand significant and sometimes subtle cultural differences between people who identify as urban and suburban residents. While this study extends prior research on differences between urban and suburban residents in U.S. organizations, gaps in literature was narrowed by positively and significantly relating LGP, culture identification, and preferred organizational culture in organizations to residence location. In the final analysis, there was sufficient evidence to support the stated hypotheses of the present study. It is evident in organizations that

obstacles exist that inhibits people with differing LGP, UI, and do not to have sufficient POF. This study compliments prior descriptive research on organizational diversity in management literature and sets the stage for future research regarding the effects of residence location on LGP, UI, and POF.

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Appendix A: Demographic Data (United States Census Bureau)

1. Age:

   (Survey ends if respondent is less than 18 years or more than 36 years old)

2. Employment status:

   ☐ Unemployed ☐ Part-time ☐ Full-time (at least 30 hours per week)

   (Survey ends if respondent does not work full-time)

3. Highest educational attainment in your occupational field:

   ☐ Less than bachelor's ☐ Bachelor's ☐ Master's ☐ Doctorate ☐ Post-doctorate

4. Zip code of your residence:

Appendix B: Request and permission for use of the Short Schwartz's Value Survey

Marjaana Lindeman
Markku Verkasalo
University of Helsinki
Institute of Behavioral Sciences
Helsinki, Finland

August 16, 2017

Dear Dr. Lindeman and Dr. Verkasolo

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in 2017. I am contacting you to request permission to copy the Short Schwartz's Value Survey (SSVS)

for use in my study. My research is an examination of people who identify with urban culture and do not prefer hierarchical cultures (with the implication that they may not succeed in such cultures)?

This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and study participation is voluntary. The proposed sample population is 180 people from a participant pool at surveymonkey.com If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and I am happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your support.

Joseph Edigin
Walden University PhD Candidate

Response.

Hallo Joseph!

You are free to use our measure which I include here.
Markku Verkasalo

Appendix C: The Short Schwartz's Value Survey

Please rate the importance of the following values as a life-guiding principle for you.

Use the 8-point scale in which 0 indicates that the value is opposed to your principles, 1

indicates that the values is no important for you 4 indicates that the values is important,

and 8 indicates that the value is of supreme importance for you.

	Opposed to my principles	Not important			Important				Of supreme importance
1. POWER (social power, authority, wealth)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2. ACHIEVEMENT (success, capability, ambition, influence on people and events)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3. HEDONISM (gratification of desires, enjoyment in life, self-indulgence)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4. STIMULATION (daring a varied and challenging life, an exciting life)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5. SELF-DIRECTION (creativity, freedom, curiosity, independence, choosing one's own goals).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
6. UNIVERSALISM (broad-mindedness, beauty of nature and arts, social justice, a world at peace, equality, wisdom, unity with nature, environmental protection).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
7. BENEVOLENCE (helpfulness, honesty,	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

forgiveness, loyalty,
responsibility).

8. TRADITION (respect for tradition, humbleness, accepting one's portion in life, devotion, modesty).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. CONFORMITY (obedience, honouring parents and elders, self-discipline, politeness).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10. SECURITY (national security, family security, social order, cleanliness, reciprocation of favors).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Note. (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005)

Appendix D: Request and permission for use of the Urban Identification Scale

Dr. Marlene Morris Towns
Teaching Professor
School of Business
GeorgeTown University

August 17, 2017

Dear Dr. Towns,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in 2017. I am contacting you to request permission to copy the Urban Identification Scale (UIS) for use in my study. My research is an examination of people who identify with urban culture and do not prefer hierarchical cultures (with the implication that they may not succeed in such cultures)?

This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and study participation is voluntary. The proposed sample population is 180 people from a participant pool at surveymonkey.com If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and I am happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your support.

Joseph Edigin
Walden University PhD Candidate

Response:

Referred to publisher; License information copied below:

Appendix E: Urban Identification Scale

To what extent does each of the following characteristics describe you?

	Not at All			Somewhat			Completely
1. Multicultural	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Have "attitude"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Listen to rap music	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Purchase rap music	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Familiar with hip-hop slang	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Familiar with hip-hop fashion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Influenced by hip-hop styles/culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Spend money (versus saving)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Adventurous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Not happy with the status quo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Expressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Individualist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Appreciate hip-hop	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Up-to-date / trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Had experience with life in a large city	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Comfortable with African-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

American
culture

19. Flashy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Rhythmic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Young-hearted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Use/understand slang	1	2	3	4	4	6	7
23. Read "Source" / "Honey" / "Vibe"/"Savoy" magazines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Dance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Resourceful (Can always make do)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Animated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Like flashy clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Like flashy car rims	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Fashion leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Trend setter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Note. Towns, 2013.

Appendix F: Request and Permission for use of Organizational Culture Assessment

Instrument

Kim Cameron
William Russell Kelly Professor of Management & Organizations
Stephen M. Ross School of Business
University of Michigan

Robert E. Quinn
Stephen M. Ross School of Business

August 9, 2016

Dear Dr. Cameron and Dr. Quinn,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in 2017. I am contacting you to request permission to copy the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) for use in my study. My research is an examination of people who identify with urban culture and do not prefer hierarchical cultures (with the implication that they may not succeed in such cultures)?

This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and study participation is voluntary. The proposed sample population is 180 people from a participant pool at surveymonkey.com If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and I am happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your support.

Joseph Edigin
Walden University PhD Candidate

Response

Dear Joseph,

Thank you for your inquiry regarding the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). Kim Cameron copyrighted the OCAI in the 1980s, but because it is published in the Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture book, it is also copyrighted by Jossey Bass.

The instrument may be used free of charge for research or student purposes, but a licensing fee is charged when the instrument is used by a company or by consulting firms to generate revenues. As a graduate student, you may use it free of charge. Please be sure all surveys include the appropriate copyright information (© Kim Cameron). Since you are planning to use an online service to distribute the surveys, we ask that you have some sort of password protection to insure the instrument does not be part of the public domain. Professor Cameron would appreciate it if you would share your results with him when you finish your study.

We do have a local company (BDS, Behavioral Data Services, 734-663-2990,) which can distribute the instrument on-line, tabulate scores, and produce feedback reports for a fee. These reports include comparison data from approximately 10,000 organizations--representing many industries and sectors, five continents, and approximately 100,000 individuals.

I hope this explanation is helpful. Congratulations on your program, and I wish you well on your project. Please let me know if you have other questions.

Best wishes,

Meredith Smith
Assistant to Kim Cameron

Appendix G: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument- Now and Preferred

Each question has four alternatives. Divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organization. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization. For example, in question one, if you think alternative A is very similar to your organization, alternative B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is hardly similar at all, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points to B and C, and five points to D. Just be sure your total equals 100 points for each question.

Note, that the first pass through the six questions is labeled "Now". This refers to the culture, as it exists today. After you complete the "now", you will find the questions repeated under the heading of "preferred". Your answers to these questions should be based on how you would like the organization to look five years from now.

1. Dominant Characteristics	Now	Preferred
A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.		
B. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.		
C. The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done.		
D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.		

	Total		

2.	Organizational Leadership	Now	Preferred
A.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.		
B.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.		
C.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.		
D.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.		
	Total		

3.	Management of Employees	Now	Preferred
A.	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.		
B.	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.		
C.	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.		
D.	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and		

stability in relationships.

	Total		

4.	Organizational Glue	Now	Preferred
A.	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.		
B.	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.		
C.	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressive and winning are common themes.		
D.	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.		
	Total		

5.	Strategic Emphasis	Now	preferred
A.	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.		
B.	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		

	Now	Preferred
C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.		
D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.		
Total		
6. Criteria of Success	Now	Preferred
A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.		
B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.		
C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.		
D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.		
Total		

Note. (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)

Appendix H: Variable Data Collection

Variable	Data Source	Type	Scale – [items, range]	Scoring, Range	Research Question
Participant Residence Location	Demographic: Urban or Suburban	Predictor (independent)	Nominal: 1 = Urban, 2 = Suburban	Binominal indicator	RQ1, RQ2, RQ3
Life-Guiding Principle (LGP) "Individual Values"	Short Schwartz's Value Survey SSVS (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005)	Criterion (dependent)	Interval Ranking (9 ratings) Opposed to principles (0) to Supreme Importance (8)	Composite score for 10 sub-questions, Range 0 to 80	RQ1
Urban Identification (UI)	Urban Identification Scale (Towns, 2013)	Criterion (dependent)	Interval Ranking (7 ratings) Not at all (1) to Completely (7)	Composite score for 30 sub-questions, Range 30 to 210	RQ2
Personal Organizational Fit (POF)	Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument OCAI (Cameron & Quin, 1999)	Criterion (dependent)	Similarity dimension point assignment.	Composite score from 100 points allocated to 4 similarity options for each of 6 organizational dimensions, for the "now" and "preferred" organization	RQ3

Appendix I: National Institute of Health Certificate

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that
Joseph Edigin successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course
"Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 12/24/2016.

Certification Number: 2259384.

Appendix J: Institutional Review Board Approval

 Dear Mr. Edigin,

This email is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has approved your application for the study entitled, "Examining Differences in Cultural Identification, Life-Guiding Principles, and Person-Organization Fit between Urban and Suburban Residents."

Your approval # is 01-04-18-0243614. You will need to reference this number in your dissertation and in any future funding or publication submissions. Also attached to this e-mail is the IRB approved consent form. Please note, if this is already in an on-line format, you will need to update that consent document to include the IRB approval number and expiration date.

Your IRB approval expires on January 3rd, 2018. One month before this expiration date, you will be sent a Continuing Review Form, which must be submitted if you wish to collect data beyond the approval expiration date.

Your IRB approval is contingent upon your adherence to the exact procedures described in the final version of the IRB application document that has been submitted as of this date. This includes maintaining your current status with the university.
Your IRB approval is only valid while you are an actively enrolled student at Walden University. If you need to take a leave of absence or are otherwise unable to remain actively enrolled, your IRB approval is suspended. Absolutely NO participant recruitment or data collection may occur while a student is not actively enrolled.

If you need to make any changes to your research staff or procedures, you must obtain IRB approval by submitting the IRB Request for Change in Procedures Form. You will receive confirmation with a status update of the request within 1 week of submitting the change request form and are not permitted to implement changes prior to receiving approval. Please note that Walden University does not accept responsibility or liability for research activities conducted without the IRB's approval, and the University will not accept or grant credit for student work that fails to comply with the policies and procedures related to ethical standards in research.

When you submitted your IRB application, you made a commitment to communicate both discrete adverse events and general problems to the IRB within 1 week of their occurrence/realization. Failure to do so may result in invalidation of data, loss of academic credit, and/or loss of legal protections otherwise available to the researcher.

Both the Adverse Event Reporting form and Request for Change in Procedures form can be obtained at the IRB section of the Walden website:
http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec

Researchers are expected to keep detailed records of their research activities (i.e., participant log sheets, completed consent forms, etc.) for the same period of time they retain the original data. If, in the future, you require copies of the originally submitted IRB materials, you may request them from Institutional Review Board.

Congratulations,

Bryn Saunders
Research Ethics Support Specialist
Office of Research Ethics and Compliance