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**Tommy J. Robertson, Jr.**  
**Sam Houston State University**

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## LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

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The *BSJ* is a journal which allows for traditional as well as non-traditional and qualitative issues to be explored. The journal follows the established policy of accepting no more than 25% of the manuscripts submitted for publication. All articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed.

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This is a Special Issue edited by Joey Robertson as a result of the Sam Houston State University conference held in April. We appreciate the opportunity to present the outstanding papers selected from the participants of that conference.

Tommy J. Robertson, Jr., Special Issue Editor  
Sam Houston State University



# INVESTIGATING THE INCREASING ROLE OF PUBLIC SOCIAL NETWORKS WITHIN THE INNOVATION PROCESS OF LARGE, MULTI-NATIONAL CORPORATIONS

Veena Peña, Houston Baptist University

## ABSTRACT

*In 2010, one of the foremost innovation and design companies of our time, IDEO, launched "OpenIDEO." Since its launch, this social networking site has proposed innovative solutions to everything from affordable healthcare to manufacturing processes, and even to redesigning the common male necktie. Contributors to the site have ranged in reported age from 12 to 95, have come from all over the world, and enjoy significant "bragging rights" as the only form of compensation for submissions. In 2011 and early 2012, "Pinterest" garnered significant press as an open portal for sharing innovation and best practices across a number of consumer categories. Social Networks such as these invite the masses to tackle everyday problems and communicate innovation via common social media elements: the internet, Facebook, YouTube, LinkedIn, and Twitter.*

*This paper investigates the rise of such social innovation sites and the application of the content found within such sites by large multi-national corporations. Because of the contemporary nature of the phenomenon, a gap in scholarly research exists in the practical use of these types of social information portals. There is a variety of processes used by corporations to harness the learnings of these sites. Legal and competitive issues could arise from the act of "shopping" for innovation ideas on sites such as these. Nonetheless, countless ideas for minimal or incremental innovation or even blue ocean ideation can be found within the realm of social networks. Today's competitive corporation cannot afford to ignore the suggestions presented on these forums.*

*The study includes conclusions from in-depth interviews from innovation managers and leaders within six Fortune 500 US-based organizations as well from two foreign corporations with large market capitalization status. One conclusion from these interviews is that such large, multi-national organizations, while well staffed and funded within their own innovation departments and consortiums, cannot ignore the diversity of non-scholarly and practical thought proposed on social networks. These corporations are in early-adoption stages of using social mediums for idea harvesting. At a minimum, most of the interviewed leaders used social networks on an informal basis. There were concerns from the company representatives that this type of idea sourcing could involve long-term litigation issues.*

## INTRODUCTION

In 2010, one of the foremost innovation and design companies of our time, award-winning and press-worthy IDEO, launched “OpenIDEO.” This concept invites the masses to tackle everyday problems via social media elements: the internet, Facebook, YouTube, LinkedIn, and Twitter (Morrison, 2005). In essence, this social media site seeks innovation from that diverse group of individuals – those that most businesses call “consumers,” “customers,” and “partners” – in varied virtual and social formats. Since its launch, the site has proposed innovative solutions to everything from affordable healthcare to manufacturing processes, even to redesigning the common male necktie. Contributors have ranged in reported age from 12 to 95, have come from all over the world, and enjoy significant “bragging rights” as the only form of compensation for submissions. OpenIDEO’s innovation yield is changing our landscape permanently. One of their first tasks was to figure out how to increase breast feeding incidence among farm-working mothers in Botswana. Collaborators ultimately launched, leveraging the idea posted by a telephone salesperson, a service offering extremely low cost mobile text messages, coupled with Google mapping, to inform child caregivers where to meet nursing mothers in the farm fields to facilitate breast feeding at the right time and place. This effort, as reported by the World Health Organization in the *SDForum* (2010), will serve to decrease infant mortality rates within the country.

The essence of OpenIDEO and other sites such as these is to harness the real-time collective creativity, knowledge and insight of others, be they experts in their field or just ordinary individuals (Morrison, 2005). Remarkably, this is not a new concept. In the late eighteenth century, Benjamin Franklin noted in his writings that societal improvements are made incrementally and in small steps, considering the most viable of all options presented from all members of an open society (Horrigan, 2005). In 1945, renowned philosopher Friedrich Hayek concurred, noting that the stability of society is espoused by “constant adjustments to small changes” (1945). No single individual has the knowledge to make those adjustments; rather, it is widely dispersed across many individuals (Rogers, 2007).

On-the-spot individuals, such as frontline managers, should not be expected to know all, even if they are expected to solve issues quickly (Morrison, 2005). As a component of figuring out appropriate courses of action, social mediums can be utilized for quick input from a variety of sources. Thus, thinking and creative horsepower increases exponentially (Morrison, 2005).

Bhide (2008) makes note that social mediums are being used by small firms for innovation development. The limited resource structure of small firms engenders a quest for free resources as there are typically few funds available for large scale Research & Development departments (R&D) (Bhide, 2008). It is unclear, however, if large firms are beginning to use social mediums for innovation development and to what extent (Lee, 2010). It could be that large firms with R&D budgets and well entrenched innovation processes and departments may not see value in social input into developments. It could also be that such firms have limited the use



of social mediums among their employees in order to preserve proprietary information. It could even be that social mediums have been tried by such large firms, but have proven to have had a negative effect, versus a positive one, on innovation development. Further, employees at large firms may be responsive only to management incentives and have not received such in relation to the use of social networks and innovation development (Lee, 2010).

The purpose of this paper is to explore the use of social networks by large firms using within their innovation development process.

## THE EMERGENCE OF PINTEREST

As seen in Figure 1 below, Pinterest, launched in 2011, is already the 4<sup>th</sup> largest social networking site in the US. This self-described electronic bulletin board has a mission to “connect everyone in the world through the ‘things’ they find interesting” (Orosz, 2012). Pinterest is a social network where users can visually share, collect or discover new ideas or interests by posting, known as ‘pinning,’ images, video, audio and other links to their own or to others virtual ‘pinboards.’ A collection of ‘pins’ usually is centered around a common theme. Others can ‘like,’ ‘share,’ or ‘re-pin’ posted ‘pins.’ In this aspect, Pinterest acts like other social mediums by encouraging interaction with user-generated content. ‘Pins’ can be shared outside of Pinterest on Facebook and Twitter or even via email or on websites or blogs (Interest in Pinterest Growing, 2012).

“Facebook tells us how people really live, but Pinterest tells us how people wish they could live” (Orosz, 2012). In that respect, this site, which CNN called the “breakout social network for 2012,” is ideal for innovation ideation (Interest in Pinterest Growing, 2012).

**Figure 1. Top 10 Social Networking sites for the week ending 03/10/2012.**

**Top 10 Social Networking sites**

The following report shows **websites** for the industry 'Computers and Internet - Social Networking and Forums', ranked by Visits for the week ending 03/10/2012.

Rank	Website	Visits Share
1.	Facebook	63.26%
2.	YouTube	20.12%
3.	Twitter	1.62%
4.	Pinterest.com	0.98%
5.	Yahoo! Answers	0.98%
6.	Linkedin	0.80%
7.	Taqqed	0.64%
8.	Google+	0.55%
9.	Yelp	0.37%
10.	MySpace	0.36%

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## LITERATURE REVIEW

As it relates to the development of innovation within multi-national firms, there are emerging social networks, be they formalized or not, be they on-line or not, that are contributing to collective genius and horsepower (Bhide, 2008). While empirical studies on the topic are limited in scope, there have been recent observations, small-scale studies, and opinions published on the topic.

Kennedy, in 2010, noted the importance of collaboration in business, but discovered that collaboration is different today than it was twenty years ago. “Communications and coordination – and the information revolution emerging from social networks and virtual mobility – are enabling new levels of collaboration, changing the way we deploy technology, where and how we work and how the organization itself is structured.” Prior to vast networking capabilities, meaningful communication and coordination required face-to-face or over-the-phone interactions. Now, rich communicative and collaborative events can occur in a virtual manner (Kennedy, 2010).

Frank (2010) also discusses the benefits of virtualization in the evolution of modern business processes, particularly on a global scale. Virtualization has allowed less endowed geographies to focus on one area for top notch development and has facilitated the entry of such global regions into the modern market economy. Key to virtualization is to outsource breakthrough thinking but leave a country’s national investment in innovation focused upon the development of commercialization models (Frank, 2010), so that developments can be plugged into profits as soon as possible. A country or firm need not own the thoughts behind innovation; however, they must know how to access the critical thinking and apply it.

General Electric is a good example of this insight (Bhide, 2008). Many of the innovations of this United States (US) corporate giant are not tied to true breakthrough work but rather to the application of such. GE’s advanced military sensors are not secret or even home-grown technology, but America’s sophisticated use of this technology remains unduplicated and closely guarded. Bhide (2008) points out that “...the commercialization, diffusion, and use of inventionism is of more value to companies and societies than the initial bright spark.” America’s quest for the spark of innovation and breakthrough could be less important than the application of such. This is especially true as the communication of breakthrough and innovation becomes as easy as logging into Facebook or reading the posts in your Twitter account (Bhide, 2008). Overall, the Frank study is a strong collection of opinions and treatises on the possible application of social mediums to innovation, but no empirical data is presented in the Frank work. Frank may be interpreted as suggesting that other nations, versus the US do the ‘dirty work’ of research and let America capitalize on its strength: entrepreneurship and application.

Swire (2011) discusses the benefits of virtualization within innovation work processes as well. Diminishing management structures and routines have lead to freedom in the development

process. Work no longer needs to be structured in a co-located manner. Today, virtual and physical interactions have equal weight even within the innovation process. “The key ingredient for a cognitive process is the moment of engagement: where the right people – with the right information, at the right time, in the right context – make the critical discoveries (Frank, 2010).” In this scenario, the engagement of innovation can emerge virtually. It does not need to be birthed out of any multi-story or multi-acre corporate or university property. An example of this is the burgeoning presence of ‘think tanks’ and ‘innovation centers’ seen across the globe (Swire, 2011).

Cooke (2010) identifies several approaches that can make a business organization more “responsive, collaborative, and consumer-driven.” Within these, the use of social networks to drive innovation is noted. Cooke suggests that business today, more than ever before, is in a constant state of change: people leave and come into the organization, funding commitments are altered, technology evolves, market conditions (supply and demand) are “constantly in flux,” and much more. This is distinct from a less global and simple business model that existed years ago. Cooke purports that networks can be employed to manage this flux and the chaos now inherent in business. Imagine a supply chain team that does not need to travel to a foreign destination to understand crop status. Instead, they can merely monitor a twitter feed managed by a farmer. Such is an example of using a network to drive business processes. In innovation development, networks work similarly. R&D from one portion of the world can consider a variety of ingredients based upon the real-time descriptions of those ingredients (e.g., they can consider how sweet oranges will be in Brazil this year versus those in Florida as determined by the current acid content in the soil, as measured and posted on the internet by an independent third-party.).

Innovation social networks are being viewed as a new tool within the research and development communities of big businesses (Smith-Doerr & Powell, 2005). Innovation networks are defined as social communities of subject matter experts that provide input, sometimes solicited, and sometimes not, into the development of new products and processes. Smith-Doerr & Powell (2005) note that these innovation networks allow critical and evolving information to travel at the speed of social conversations. Not all firms will utilize knowledge networks to their full potential or benefit (Srivardhana, 2006). Successful companies understand how to harvest social conversations and channel the knowledge into the appropriate development team(s). Srivardhana (2006) posits that networks can be characterized as strong / weak, long / short, internal / external, and other factors. Not all social networks are created equal. He further states that innovation must evolve into a “team sport.” Content should be filtered by thought leaders (team captains), even if on a rote basis. “Internal influence and opinion leadership has an impact within the application of social networks (Srivardhana, 2006).” Both Smith-Doerr & Powell and Srivardhana have limited their discussion to the use of intra-company or professional social networks versus the use of broad-scale, open social forums.

Uniquely, Lerner & Schoear (2010) included mathematical modeling within their scholarly research to demonstrate the effect of social networks on innovation. They show that

countries with low innovation output are also those that have limited social networks. Both decide that their research is inconclusive, however, since, during their research, the financial status of many examined countries was unstable. They state that social networks are more prevalent in affluent countries where technology for networking is inexpensive and readily available. Countries with small Gross Domestic Product (GDP) outputs, or those with significant financial troubles, are not likely to use social networks (Qualman, 2009). Limited use is not because of lack of desire or interest, but rather because of an inability to connect into a network (Qualman, 2009). It would be interesting to similarly investigate if financial instability within multi-national firms encourages or discourages the use of social networks.

A study by Kim and Park (2010) indicated that knowledge networks were already present within organizations. They found that the impact of any firm's innovation was a function of the quality and diversity derived from R&D networks, both internal (produced within a firm) and external (produced outside the firm). Essentially, the more broad the knowledge inputs into a R&D group, the more impactful the resultant innovation. The authors noted that the more of the internal R&D information that was shared with external sources, the more benefit received in return. Not surprisingly, "external R&D networks that were non-redundant to the internal firm contributed the largest benefit."

Lee (2010) studied the idea that large multi-national companies have "idiosyncratic and inimitable" resources when it comes to developing innovation and will use such to "obtain a wider range of knowledge" from the firm's composite units. Lee evaluated responses to surveys posed to over one-hundred Chinese based firms and concluded that not all multinational firms were able to capitalize on a broad informational network to develop innovation that produced better market demand. Yet, if actual input on an ongoing innovation project was not achieved, a great learning still occurred among employees whereby new thoughts and pathways were internalized, often for free. This intrinsically prepared employees for the next innovation concept and was an intangible benefit in the use of social networks (Lee, 2010).

Wilson and Doz (2011) have also studied the impact of knowledge networks on innovation. They observe that as global competition among firms escalates, developing agility in the innovation process will be paramount to success. They propose that firms who are able to leverage a network of globalized resources will be best poised for innovation success. In the Wilson and Doz study, the best innovation (in terms of return on investment) came from those firms who leverage a variety of input sources. Nokia, one of their study subjects, posted dilemmas on the internet for consumer suggestions, demonstrating that even consumers were not exempt as possible network nodes for innovation ideas. The best innovation was derived when organizations were able to absorb and integrate knowledge across the organization (Wilson and Doz, 2011). This "transfer of knowledge" varied in mechanism, but did need to exist for innovation to flourish at its best. The Wilson and Doz approach required select firms to report how innovation that exists in the market today was produced and if a knowledge network had an impact in the development of the innovation.

The aforementioned studies center on networks and the innovation process and collectively indicate that there is emerging interest in understanding and applying the current and potential role of social networks within the context of innovation. Given the recent birth of social networking, this remains a novel topic. Individuals today make and act on their own judgments to a degree that would have been unimaginable to our forebears (Bhide, 2008). Many players in the innovation “game:” entrepreneurs, managers, financiers, salesmen, consumers, not just a few brilliant scientists and engineers, can collectively keep the US at the forefront of innovation through their social connections at a time when American intellectual output may not be able to yield top positioning (Tyler, 2011).

An under-researched component within the broad innovation and social networking topic is the notion that social interactions, as described herewith, can actually be motivated (Bhide, 2008). What if there was a ranking system where visible documentation ranked employees on quantity and quality of social networking input on innovation concepts? What if there was a daily posting requirement? What if employees could vote on the best contribution of the day and reward others in this manner? All of a sudden, a business with stagnant ideas can, by virtue of a motivated network, encourage employees and even customers and suppliers (if the network is so expanded) into brainstorming and into creative exposition (Krisanic, 2008). Virtual relationships and reputations would also develop as a result (Krisanic, 2008). Research on this aspect of innovation development is light.

## **RESEARCH PROBLEM**

In considering all of the aforementioned studies, a close examination of actual open-forum social networking usage seems conspicuously absent from studies. This absence presents opportunity for additional study and original contribution into the academic field. In reviewing ProQuest, EBSCOHost and Google, there are no articles or books talking about all the central components of the desired field of study: the nexus of innovation development, public social networking input into innovation development, and devising management routines to reward and incent social networking as it relates to innovation development.

## **METHODOLOGY**

Prior to quantitative research in this area, a qualitative study with limited scope was applied. The qualitative method utilized was the interview technique. Seven US firms and five international firms, all with large market capitalization status, were solicited for interviews. Table 1 lists the companies contacted. Of those interviews sought, five US firms and two international firms positively responded to the request for survey, or 58% of total firms solicited. 71% of Domestic (US) firms contacted agreed to an interview. 40% of International firms solicited agreed to an interview. Surveys were conducted over the phone by this researcher. A

manager or senior manager in an innovation department at each of the accepting companies was the desired and realized target for the interview. Table 2 shows the topics and the progression of the interview questions.

A clear limitation in the qualitative methodology was in the selection of potential interviewees. Personal contacts were utilized. Therefore, there is a sampling (inclusive) bias and a skew in the respondents towards packaged goods companies in industrialized nations, which correlates to the background of this researcher. Because personal contacts were used, the potential for interviewer bias is also present. In each company solicited, the researcher spoke to only one manager in the innovation department. The data is biased to that one interviewee's opinions. Yet, each interviewee mentioned that they were one part of a larger innovation organization. In future studies, more than one interviewee per company should be required. In any further qualitative, and certainly in any quantitative study, all of these biases must be muted. Any future quantitative data collection and construct development should be proven to have validity.

Potential Interviewee Company	Interview Accepted?	Domestic (US) vs International
3M	No	Domestic
Baby Trend	Yes	International
China Mobile	No	International
Coca-Cola	Yes	Domestic
CVS Caremark	Yes	Domestic
Ikea	No	International
Kraft Foods	Yes	Domestic
Lowe's Home Improvement	Yes	Domestic
Nokia	No	International
Procter & Gamble	Yes	Domestic
Unilever	Yes	International
Walt Disney	No	Domestic

The information gathered from the interviews supported the research question: the extent to which these companies pursue innovation development, utilize public social networking input into innovation development, and devise management routines to reward and incent social networking as it relates to innovation development.

<b>Table 2: Discussion Points with Interviewees</b>	
Exploratory Areas During the Interview Process; Asked in the Following Order:	
1)	The typical innovation process at their company
2)	Use of intranet in their innovation process
3)	Use of internet in their innovation process
4)	Specific use of social media in their innovation process and any sharable results
5)	Current public / social (online and otherwise) input into their innovation process
6)	Potential future public / social (online and otherwise) input into their innovation process
7)	Current or potential management routines to reward or incent social network input
8)	Barriers to using public / social input into their innovation process

The data capture strategy utilized was memoing, which enabled this research to write down ideas and verbatims during the telephone interviews on a constant basis. These memos and transcripts were constantly compared for emerging themes, developing categories and likely causal relationships or important contexts, links or associations. Personal anonymity was granted to all interviewees. In subsequent research, once additional sample size is utilized and bias is minimized, broader explanations can be derived so that substantive theories can develop. Identified causal relationships, once verified by further qualitative study, could be quantitatively studied to determine relationships to the research question.

The collected data should potentially tell this researcher: attitudes toward usage of social media within large multi-national corporations, profitable yield of social media inputs in the innovation process, and if other companies and industries should consider usage of public social networks within their innovation process.

## **QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

Table 3 features select verbatims for each of the interview questions (IQ) asked. There was a degree of variability in answers, even among companies within the same industry (packaged goods). For IQ1, subjects in each case described a process for innovation. None of the company managers described an environment where there was little or no structure in the approach to innovation. Each subject worked as part of a larger innovation team, though size varied greatly – everything from 5 members to over 100 members. There were no respondents who stated they worked in silos. There was also a degree of accountability in each manager's role. All of them stated that they were required to commercialize projects annually. One domestic company interviewee from Coca-Cola noted that not every person in their innovation department was required to commercialize. However, the manager that I spoke with did have that level of accountability (Name withheld, personal communication, December 13, 2011). This aspect of in-company variability is worth further inspection. It could be that an innovation leader that has less pressure to annually commercialize innovation is more likely to use social mediums

for break through ideas. Development around such break through ideas could take a long time which could fit with the less-pressured, non-commercialized environment. Further study around this thought is warranted.

IQ2 asked about intranet usage at the firm specific to innovation. 100% of interviewed company managers stated that intranet was used. Intranet usage should not be confused with something as simple as emails. The interviewed companies described document and approval proprietary portals where real-time information is easily shared, tracked, discussed and reviewed by multiple constituents across wide geographic borders. Intranet usage for international managers included partners outside the firm, such as key vendors or suppliers. None of the domestic company managers allowed non-company users access to their intranet-based innovation portals. The manager at Kraft Foods stated that non-company users are forbidden because the information contained therein is confidential and comprehensive, including everything from costs to launch timing. The information is too sensitive to be shared with non-company partners (Name withheld, personal communication, December 15, 2011).

IQ3 asked about internet usage in their innovation process. Answers here were varied. Half of interviewed managers described internet usage as informal or unstructured. One company respondent from Coca-Cola noted that the internet could provide qualitative data, but their innovation development was largely based on meaningful quantitatively-derived data. Information gained off the internet could be highly suspect. It could be the basis of future quantitative study, but, without validation, the input from such a source would not be seriously considered on its own (Name withheld, personal communication, December 13, 2011). Three domestic companies noted that third party entities, such as agencies or consultants, presented innovation ideas to them on a variable basis. These outside sources routinely included sound clouds, prominent and recent examples of innovation, buzz topics and other ideas gleaned from the internet. These managers were highly satisfied with the third party collection and reporting of innovation ideas based on internet information.

When asked specifically about social media use in the innovation process (IQ4), responses also varied. All company managers interviewed did receive inbound Facebook posts related to existing products or product ideas if those had been posted. The manner in which Facebook posts were received by interviewed managers was diverse. One domestic company manager, from Procter & Gamble, commented that Facebook posts were from passionate consumers. These consumers were interested in making their favorite products better (Name withheld, personal communication, December 15, 2011). The two international company managers, from Baby Trend and Unilever, noted that open social forums were engaged in innovation development, though passively (Names withheld, personal communications, December 14-22, 2011). While neither company directly sought innovation input, they did make note of ideas that were relevant to their industry. Pinterest was noted as a recently used valuable source both by one international and one domestic interviewee. In the case of Unilever, some ideas derived from social mediums had nothing to do with a current product. Ideas for new



materials, popular styles, appealing scents or selling ideas were desired for incorporation into future innovation. Neither of these companies solicited ideas, but rather this information would have been gathered through observation. The manager from Unilever did note that the passive gathering of information could be time consuming, but that netnography used with social mediums was an efficient means to understand current trends, and that the use of the social forums has even led to “blue ocean” innovation for the company (Name withheld, personal communication, December 14, 2011).

All of the domestic company interviewees had specifically sought public or social input into the innovation process (IQ5). 100% of the domestic packaged goods companies used several social media formats to engage consumers, such as Facebook, Twitter or YouTube. The use of social media formats was often led by marketing departments in these companies, but innovation departments benefited if the engagement was developmental. For example, innovation departments benefited if consumers were asked to suggest the next flavor of a particular brand or the color of a package. The innovation leader from CVS Caremark noted that public input was sought on private label items in order to build use and appeal of the brands (Name withheld, personal communication, December 15, 2011). The domestic interviewees cited use of Facebook posts, polls and engagements more than other venue when describing their process for utilizing public or social inputs. International interviewees were not actively using public or social inputs within their innovation processes.

While the interviewees all acknowledge current use of social mediums, even if on a passive (reading versus asking) basis, reaction to future use of social mediums was negative (IQ6). None of the interviewees had formal plans to incorporate public or social media forums into their innovation processes in any formal or structured manner. Passive or only occasional use of these forums was preferred. The manager at Lowe’s Home Improvement preferred that requests for public or social inputs into innovation be classified as a means to engage consumers in a positive manner. Many of the ideas solicited were not going to be implemented as they often were not feasible or a fit with company objectives. The solicitation of ideas did build relationships with consumers, however (Name withheld, personal communication, December 14, 2011). The innovation manager from Coca-Cola identified social and public inputs as unreliable from a development and investment perspective. While a trend could be identified, further study must be engaged to be certain that the trend is valid and explored across a variety of contexts. That which may appeal to one set of consumers on a social forum may not appeal to a broad set of consumers. An appearing trend must be quantified and explored for merit (Name withheld, personal communication, December 13, 2011). The lack of academic rigor associated with the use of public and social forums was identified as a potential reason for senior leaders in the Kraft Foods organization to resist the source of any idea emerging from this platform without corresponding and preferably quantified veracity (Name withheld, personal communication, December 15, 2011).

In describing innovation manager incentives for using public or social mediums (IQ7), all managers stated that no incentive for this specific engagement existed. There were, however, typical bonuses and performance structures, such as merit raises or recognition programs, if developed innovation was successful. From that perspective, if the public or social medium helped develop successful innovation, then there was an end-incentive, though nothing in their incentive structures specifically called out the use of the internet or any of its social platforms.

Barriers to the use of social mediums (IQ8) were around the ownership of the idea, the potential for litigation, the fact that competition is aware of your posts and activities, and the time it takes to search through the numerous daily inputs onto social forums. The innovation manager from Baby Trend noted that ideas emanating from social arenas should be assumed as those that your competition has also engaged (Name withheld, personal communication, December 22, 2011). Such ideas are likely not coupled with competitive advantage. Establishing competitive advantage is a key purpose of innovation, however (Wilson and Doz, 2011).

<b>Table 3: Interviewee Verbatims in Response to Interview Questions</b>		
	Interview Question	Verbatims
1)	The typical innovation process at their company	"Consumer or Cost Based"
		"Cross-Functional"
		"Internal"
		"Global"
		"Many steps and levels; with rigorous approval and funding stages throughout"
		"Bureaucratic"
		"Formal"
2)	Use of intranet in their innovation process	"Required for Speed and Communication"
		"Can't Do Without It"
		"Heavy"
		"Fundamental to 'Stage and Gate' approval processes"
		"Proprietary systems for just innovation are used"
3)	Use of internet in their innovation process	"I don't want to know about it."
		"Informal"
		"Varies"
		"Easy way to gain consumer feedback"
		"Rarely a starting point, but this is changing"
		"Component of third party inputs (Consultants, Agencies), but rarely initiated in-company"
4)	Specific use of social media in their innovation process and any sharable results	"There are ideas on the web that we should look into more. We are aware, but not pursuing"
		"Used for upgrades or tweaks to current innovation"
		"Only company-controlled sites, like Facebook pages, used for this; never outside sites"

<b>Table 3: Interviewee Verbatims in Response to Interview Questions</b>	
Interview Question	Verbatims
	"Success with Pick-Flavor / Pick-Color innovation"
	"Working on two ideas that are from open innovation sources now"
	"It's busy work to find the ideas, but there are good ones out there that we have found and used"
5) Current public / social (online and otherwise) input into their innovation process	"We look for ideas and share informally. Sometimes we apply good ideas"
	"Best left to third parties who present ideas to us"
	"Don't ask and Don't tell innovation. We don't want to tip our hand to competition , so we don't ask"
6) Potential future public / social (online and otherwise) input into their innovation process	"I don't imagine a link between commercialized retail products and social innovation"
	"It will never be formalized. We don't work that way"
	"We need more input from consumers; likely this will come from panel research vs. broad questioning"
	"Perhaps; not sure how internal leaders will react to use of social networking for innovation" "The act of polling consumers tips your hand to competition"
7) Current or potential management routines to reward or incent social network input	"I'm not paying people to surf the internet. They can do that on their own time."
	"There is no incentive for social networking, but there are benefits to coming up with a good idea."
	"There are requirements for intranet posting and communication; nothing for internet"
	"We don't want to formalize anything for our internal teams to do on social media sites"
8) Barriers to using public / social input into their innovation process	"Just because it's public, doesn't mean the idea isn't owned"
	"Too much potential for litigation. Source of Idea can be found, but we may not approach for release"
	"Legal concerns"
	"Who gets the credit? The person who read a blog? The person who came up with the idea?"
	"Gray area; Corporate has not defined a policy"
	"Competition likely surfs social networks. We must too."

In deriving theories based on the interviews, it should be again noted that the sample size of this study was restrictive. In hindsight, multiple innovation managers at each company should have been polled. Still, this researcher notes that the attitude toward usage of social media within large multi-national corporations is positive enough to allow for, at a minimum, passive (reading versus active engagement and posting) use of these tools within the innovation process.

Undefined internal and external ramifications from the use of social mediums restricts formalized use of social forums as does the threat of exposing company objectives to competitors.

All interviewees were from large, multi-national corporations that were prominent in their industries. They each noted significant competition. The effect of competition is an interesting tenant to explore as it relates to the use of social mediums for innovation. Could it be that social mediums are best utilized by those who are more immune to the threat of competition? Does the benefit of using social mediums outweigh the threat of competition? Is there a way to use social networking in a way that does not tip the hand of the company? Is it assumable that if these companies at least use social mediums passively in their innovation process, all large multi-national companies are doing the same? Should all companies consider the use of public social networks within their innovation process?

In this study, qualitative comments indicated that a profitable yield from social media inputs in the innovation process was realized by a few companies, most notably Unilever (Name withheld, personal communication, December 14, 2011).

## CONCLUSION

The presence and use of strong social networking within an organization propels innovation into a state of rapidity and incremental improvements as valuable people (consumers, customers, vendors, thought leaders, etc.) weigh in instantaneously with ideas and counter points throughout the development (Srivardhana, 2006). It is like having a virtual and instantaneous suggestion box that can provide innovation development leaders with new ideas that they independently would be unable to raise. There is a social value for those weighing in. It may be something tangible, such as points or prizes, or intangible, such as recognition or the ability to become lauded as a thought leader (Krisanic, 2008). Given the recent emergence of broad use of social mediums by those whose age-range fits the typical mid to high level manager (Qualman, 2009), the use of social networking as a positive force within multi-national firms is only beginning to be explored.

This preliminary research suggests that outbound innovation may be supplemented with a new source of innovation ideas. Inbound marketing, and inbound innovation, is effacing (Pitta, 2004) in the innovation processes of large, multi-national corporations. While multi-national firms did not formally embrace social platforms for innovation, passive or informal use of these sources was endorsed by 100% of the interviewees. The two main barriers to use of these mediums were noted as (1) the lack of clarity around the owner of the finished idea and therefore the potential for litigation, and (2) the fact that competition becomes informed of your intentions as you pursue innovation from a social format. This could reduce any preferred competitive advantage that could be derived from resultant innovation concepts.

Qualitative research with a significant sample size and mitigated bias and/or quantitative research are ideal next steps in the investigation of the original purpose of the study: to

understand the purpose and extent to which large, multi-national companies utilize public social networking input into innovation development and therefore devise management routines to reward and incent social networking.

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# MANIPULATING THE NUMBERS: EARNINGS MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES IN PROFESSIONAL SPORTS

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## ABSTRACT

*Professional sports team owners' ongoing claims of financial distress are the primary reason cited in support for their positions in collective bargaining negotiations with player representatives. However, some financial experts and the players' associations continue to maintain that the owners substantiate their claims of financial distress through unethical earnings management procedures. Through such practices, the owners are able to shelter the revenue streams through reallocation of expenses, thus making the teams' financial position look much worse than what it really is (Howard & Crompton, 2004). For decades, league officials and team owners have been allowed to consistently report large losses and threaten impending financial demise of their businesses. Since the majority of professional sports franchises are privately owned by individuals, families, or through corporations or similar private entities, such as a limited liability company, it is virtually impossible to verify the actual extent and magnitude of these claims. Furthermore, there is no legal obligation to disclose detailed financial information about their teams, since most are not publicly traded companies (Howard & Crompton, 2004). This study evaluates and presents some of the legal accounting maneuvers employed by professional sports team owners to establish perceived financial struggles endured as a result of franchise ownership.*

## INTRODUCTION

How does a major league sport franchise win one of the most coveted trophies in all of professional sports and still report financial losses around \$30 million for their championship season? That's exactly what happened to the 1997 World Series Champion Florida Marlins when owner, Wayne Huizenga, reportedly lost nearly \$30 million. As a result, the following year, Mr. Huizenga subsequently dismantled the championship roster and traded away the majority of the team's stars lowering the team payroll from \$53 million in 1997 to \$13 million in 1998 (Zimbalist, 1998). It's hard to imagine how such a savvy and successful businessman, like Wayne Huizenga, owner of other notable professional sport business entities such as the Florida Panthers of the National Hockey League and the Miami Dolphins of the National Football League could not turn such an exciting season and World Series run into a profitable venture. Is it likely that the founder of the video rental giant, Blockbuster Video, the man who grew Waste Management from a single truck into a Fortune 500 company, and the namesake of a business school established to educate and create future business leaders and entrepreneurs simply forgot

how to capitalize on the strength of a successful product in such a large media market? Or were the reported losses actually strategic and creative earnings management techniques meant to misrepresent the actual profitability of the Marlins franchise? If you believe the later, then the next obvious questions become “Why?” and “How?”.

### **REASONS TO MANIPULATE THE NUMBERS**

When most people think of professional sport team owners, they think about the generation of money, not the loss of it. Thus, many perceive a contradiction between being a billionaire professional sports team owner and the proclamation of poverty. Yet, there are many reasons to alter public perception and justify the manipulation of financial figures. The primary motivation appears to be rooted in the pursuit of money. This pursuit takes many forms such as negotiating power, public relations, and income tax obligations. Earnings Management, or creative accounting as it is sometimes referred to, is perfectly legal. Earnings management is considered by many, in the corporate sector, to be a generally accepted accounting principle (GAAP). However, some argue that, by nature, the manipulation of financial numbers for personal gain is, by definition, fraudulent (Ghosh, 2010). According to Kohler (1972), fraud involves “willful misrepresentation, the deliberate concealment of a material fact for the purpose of inducing another person to do or to refrain from doing something to his detriment” (p. 201).

In terms of negotiating power, team owners are constantly battling player representatives for the power and control of the leagues. In the case of professional sports, power equates to money. Both sides want a bigger proportion of league revenues, and both sides try to substantiate reasons for their demands. In most cases, collective bargaining agreements in professional sports hinge on each side’s ability to effectively justify their financial position. Obviously, the players’ union representatives will negotiate for things such as pay increases and better benefits. Conversely, owners will portray lackluster profits and necessary burdensome spending increases in order to substantiate their position. The ability of owners to validate the aforementioned economic distress is a key component in retaining control of their leagues. To a large extent, the reporting of financial information by professional sport team owners is arbitrary (Silver, 2010). Since the majority of professional sports franchises are privately owned by individuals, families, or through corporations or similar private entities, such as a limited liability company, it is virtually impossible to verify the actual extent and magnitude of these reports of financial misfortune (Howard & Crompton, 2004). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that some owners could manipulate financial figures to report losses for the purpose of improving their bargaining power in collective bargaining negotiations. This assumption is based on the principles of earnings management.

The perception of substantial economic distress by professional team owners can also serve to generate empathy, or at least tolerance, from public stakeholders such as fans, consumers, and local community leaders. For example, owners may be able to better justify price increases for things such as tickets, concessions, parking, and merchandise if they’re able to effectively portray the perception of financial hardships to consumers who attend games. Similarly, these perceptions may also serve to excuse a lack of aggressive spending on the open market for free agents to improve the competitiveness of the team product. In addition, owners



have also incorporated this strategy when requesting local government and tax subsidies for new stadium construction (Coates, 2008). Cries of financial distress also provide leverage for owners to relocate the team to another city if certain subsidies are not provided or if local governments do not support new stadium construction proposals (Johnson, 1986).

Another reason owners utilize earnings management techniques involves the desire to minimize their tax obligations. The more earnings an owner reports on his or her income tax returns, the greater the owner's tax obligation is to the state and/or federal government. Thus, by reducing the amount of reported income through earnings management or creative accounting techniques, the less the owner's tax obligation becomes and the more their personal wealth increases (Rosner & Shropshire, 2010).

### **EARNINGS MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES**

Former Toronto Blue Jays Vice President, Paul Beeston, once said, "Anyone who quotes baseball profits is missing the point. Under generally accepted accounting principles, I can turn a \$4 million profit into a \$2 million dollar loss and I could get every national accounting firm to agree with me" (Zimbalist, 1992). This statement, from a former Major League Baseball executive, epitomizes earnings management principles. The manipulation techniques Mr. Beeston was referring to have become universal creative accounting strategies utilized throughout corporate America and professional sports. There are three primary techniques used in earnings management in professional sport.

The first technique involves the principle of "paying yourself first". Oftentimes, owners and/or their family members receive salaries or fees from their teams. These salaries are shown as expenses on an organization's balance sheet. In addition, teams may purchase services from other companies controlled by the owner which, again, appear as team expenses, but are actually profits retained by the owner via another source (Fort, 2002). For example, under the ownership of Drayton McLane, the Houston Astros purchased concession food items from Classic Foods, a subsidiary of The McLane Group owned by Mr. McLane himself.

Another earnings management technique includes shifting revenues among various business entities controlled by the team owner. These monies are often shifted at the owner's discretion (Howard & Crompton, 2004). For example, in the case of Wayne Huizenga and the Florida Marlins, the former owner's reported \$30 million loss failed to include revenues from luxury suites, premium seats, naming rights, signage, parking, concessions, and merchandise. The profits from these revenue streams were attributed to Pro Player Stadium, which Mr. Huizenga also owned. The estimated revenue from these sources was \$36 million in 1997. That profit combined with post season ticket sales accounted for total revenue of \$42.7 million. Thus, a reported loss of nearly \$30 million turns into an operating profit of \$13.8 million (Zimbalist, 1998).

A third earnings management technique is influenced by the type of corporation structure professional sports team owners set up for their franchises. Most professional sport teams are registered with the Internal Revenue Service as a subchapter S corporation. This particular type of corporate structure provides tax advantages and allows income earned from their teams to flow directly to the owners of the corporation (Quirk & Fort, 1997). A subchapter S corporation

does not pay direct income tax. Instead, any revenues or losses an owner incurs from the corporation flow through to the owner's personal individual 1040 federal income tax forms based on his or her proportion of franchise ownership. For example, if a professional ownership group consisting of 20 equal shareholders purchases a Major League Baseball team for \$2 billion, each owner would be allowed to pass one tenth of any losses incurred from the baseball franchise to his or her personal federal income tax returns. So, if the aforementioned baseball franchise reported first year operating losses of \$50 million, each owner would be allowed to carry over a \$5 million share of the total loss to their individual 1040 return. For an owner who reported a taxable personal income of \$3 million, his or her tax obligation would now be reduced to zero. Additionally, the remaining \$2million loss could be carried over to the following year to once again offset that owner's taxable income (Howard & Crompton, 2004).

## CONCLUSION

This study outlined some of the pertinent questions and answers regarding the manipulation of financial information in professional sports. It did not, however, attempt to justify or condemn the use of such creative accounting techniques. The ethical dilemmas of incorporating earnings management techniques in professional sports will continue to be debated and analyzed for the foreseeable future. Likewise, calls for ownership transparency will continue to be demanded by player unions in upcoming contentious collective bargaining negotiations. As long as these techniques are legal, though, we can assuredly expect their implementation throughout professional sport.

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# AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE COMMUNICATION CONTENT IN REPUTABLE MANAGEMENT JOURNALS

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## ABSTRACT

*I used one-way analysis of variance to test mean differences among the occurrences of the five communications (business communication, organizational communication, management communication, corporate communication and technical communication) as content in 39 management and specialized journals across five tiers. I found that among the five communications organizational communication was the only communication subject that differed between tiers 4 and 5. Means also differed among “super-cited” seminal articles, based on a Google Scholar search, and tiers. The occurrences of communication across five journal tiers were statistically the same on four of six null hypotheses tested; therefore, there appears to be no inherent bias in the occurrences of communication content in the management journals.*

## INTRODUCTION

Ask any management professor walking around an Ivy League campus, “What are the top journals in management?” He or she would respond, rather matter of fact, “Everyone knows the top management journals.” That statement reflects the more common belief held among many academics working at the top ranked business schools. Furthermore, numerous studies confirm that there are top journals in economics, entrepreneurship, marketing, accounting, finance, management, MIS and business communication (Azar, 2007; Bell, 2010; Bonner, Hesford, Van der Stede, & Young, 2006; Mort, McColl-Kennedy, Kiel, & Souter, 2004; Rogers, Campbell, Louhiala-Salminen, Rentz, & Suchan, 2007; Yuyuenyongwatana & Carraher, 2008).

As business communication faculty gain a better foothold in schools and colleges of business there is a need to know if communication content occurs equally in the management journals across journal ranks (tiers). This is extremely important for disciplinary identity and other reasons, especially now, since communication is firmly recognized as a management competency area. Principles of management textbooks have included chapters on communication for many years; one recent 9<sup>th</sup> edition textbook not only includes a chapter on communication, but goes as far as defining communication as “*The transmission of information and meaning from one party to another through the use of shared symbols*” (Bateman & Snell, 2011, p. 516). Bell and Martin (2008, p. 130) define management communication similarly as “*the downward,*

*horizontal, or upward exchange of information and transmission of meaning through informal or formal channels that enables managers to achieve their goals.”*

If communication is truly a management competency the five communications (business communication, organizational communication, management communication, corporate communication and technical communication) as content should occur equally across management journals, regardless of tiers. Furthermore, how business school faculty are judging the quality of a journal is extremely important because these views impinge on faculty's merit pay increases, their promotions and whether or not tenure will be awarded, where these journal lists have been adopted by faculty members and college administrators (Miller, Taylor, & Bedeian, 2011). Cyphert (2009, pp. 264, 267) writes:

*In special JBC issues on the topic, editors Kathy Rentz (1993) and Margaret Graham and Charlotte Thralls (1998), citing the practical issues of working with promotion and tenure committees that don't understand or value our work, recognized institutional politics as a driving force toward disciplinary self-examination. Even so, the search for identity is no less important simply because external relationships have forced a crisis. Granted, the search for a disciplinary identity might well be “hopelessly old-fashioned” in the contemporary educational climate (Eisenberg, 1996) and might even represent a nostalgic yearning for a romanticized academic existence that doesn't actually exist in any discipline. Still, it would be nice to have a recognizable and impressive self-identifier ready for cocktail party conversations.*

Knowing if communication content occurrences differ significantly among journal tiers is very important because the five communications continue to struggle to be recognized as core business subjects that are on par with the main business subjects of accounting, finance, management, marketing and MIS.

Specialized journals (i.e., Business Communication Quarterly, Journal of Business and Technical Communication, Journal of Communication Management, etc.) that predominately publish content on the five communications are not routinely included on lists of “acceptable” journals created by the management faculty of the top ranked business schools, despite the fact that communication has been a management competency for many years. This is in direct conflict with business communication trying to achieve a disciplinary identity. The exclusion of specialized communication journals from such lists is troubling, especially since the perceptions of the quality of a journal seem to be affecting merit pay, tenure and promotions. In other words, journal quality perceptions influence a harsh reality.

My purpose, therefore, was to test a list of management journals, developed by a top business school that was consistent with the journal ranking literature, for occurrences of the five communications as content in order to ascertain if mean differences in occurrences among journal tiers existed. I also wanted to know if there was any mean difference among citations of the most cited article for each journal to determine if such a list had construct validity. My purpose was furthermore predicated on whether or not the occurrences of the five

communications as content were equally represented in a set of specialized journals compared to management journals. Therefore, two very important research questions needed to be answered:

- Q1 Do the occurrences of the five communications as content differ in articles published across management journals, regardless of tiers?*
- Q2 Can it be argued that the five communications occurring in articles published by both specialized journals and management journals support the proposition that communication is a management competency being explored by researchers and refined in the management literature?*

Answers to these two questions would show evidence that the five communications are treated as content in the management literature or, that communication content is being ignored or unevenly represented by a certain tier of journals, namely the specialty journals that publish an abundance of communication subjects.

### **RELATED LITERATURE**

Although ranking journals using survey methodology tends to be subjective (Katerattanakul, Razi, Han, & Kam, 2005), many journal quality studies appear to base their ratings on surveying the opinions and perceptions of academicians. Some of journals that are deemed top journals appear to be specifically targeting the faculty working at the Carnegie classified research extensive institutions to publish their work—to the dismay of the lesser classified institutions' faculty (Bell & Chong, 2010). The bias on perception of journal quality is pervasive. Nonetheless, the literature has helped to shape academic perceptions that top business journals do exist in each field.

Four or five journals in each of the business fields consistently appears at the top of the list when professors are surveyed about their opinions as to the quality of a journal or when they are asked to rank journals based on their perceptions of a journal's quality (Alexander, Scherer, & Lecoutre, 2007). Furthermore, one recent study finds the Academy of Management Review, Academy of Management Journal, Administrative Science Quarterly, and Journal of Management are top among 50 other management journals they are compared against (Yuyuenyongwatana & Carraher, 2008).

Among the 50 most frequently cited finance journals the top finance journals are: 1) Journal of Finance, 2) Journal of Financial Economics, 3) Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis, and 4) Review of Financial Studies Alexander and Mabry (1994). The journals with the most importance to operations management research were 1) Management Science, 2) Decisions Sciences, 3) Operations Research, 4) the Harvard Business Review, 5) Journal of Operations Management, and 6) IIE Transactions (Vokurka, 1996; Vastag & Montabon, 2002). Olson (2005) measures what top-25-business-school-professors rated as quality in operations

management journals concludes with similar findings for top journals. Azar (2007) determined three economics journals to be top: 1) Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization ranked first, 2) Journal of Economic Psychology ranked second, and 3) Journal of Socio-Economics ranked third. Mort et al. (2004) derived a list of top-tier marketing journals: 1) Journal of Consumer Research, 2) Journal of Marketing, 3) Journal of Marketing Research, 4) Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, and 5) International Journal of Research in Marketing. Similarly, Bauerly and Johnson (2005) determined there were five journals cited mostly in marketing syllabi for doctoral programs. These are 1) Journal of Marketing, 2) Journal of Consumer Research, 3) Journal of Marketing Research, 4) Marketing Science, and 5) Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science. Among these, they account for 66.5 percent of citations in syllabi analyzed from 109 doctoral programs accredited by AACSB.

Bonner et al. (2006) reported four accounting journals consistently were at the top rank in their field: 1) Accounting, Organizations and Society, 2) Contemporary Accounting Research, 3) Journal of Accounting and Economics, and 4) Journal of Accounting Research. Business ethics scholars have searched for the top journals in their field only to determine there are two dominant academic communities: one in Europe and one in North America (Albrecht, Thompson, Hoopes, & Rodrigo, 2010). Carraher and Paridon (2008) found that four journals to be top in the field of entrepreneurship: 1) Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice, 2) the Journal of Business Venturing, 3) the Journal of Small Business Strategy, and 4) the Journal of Small Business Management. Business communication has joined in on journal quality rating research fray, citing the Journal of Business Communication, Business Communication Quarterly, and Journal of Business and Technical Communication as top journals (Rogers, et al. 2007).

Although publication patterns do exist among 25 top economics departments (Rupp & McKinney, 2002) attempting to create a universally acceptable list adoptable to every school or department would appear brash and somewhat naïve (Polonsky, 2004; Polonsky & Whitelaw, 2005). Different disciplines require different methods. Accounting, finance, marketing, MIS, organizational behavior, human resources, operations management, and related fields such as economics or business communication resolve disciplinary issues from somewhat esoteric approaches.

It should be noted that top business journals do not guarantee top articles nor do these journals represent a proxy for guaranteed quality of the articles they publish (Chow, Haddad, Singh, & Wu, 2007; Smith, 2004). The top journals publish articles that are infrequently cited in the management literature and vice versa, relatively obscure management journals publish articles that are cited frequently in the management literature. Singh, Haddad, and Chow (2007) find that “top” articles and “non-top articles” are too often misclassified in the management literature for any journal to be a proxy for quality and, vice versa. A top journal does not guarantee a top article.

Despite the drawbacks of inferring lesser quality to articles not published in a top journal researchers are still confirming that top journals exist. Mason, Steagall, and Jeffrey (1997)

examined economic journal ratings and rankings based on a survey of economics department chairs' perceptions. They found, when data was stratified according to the degree of research versus teaching orientation of institution, remarkable symmetry across school types, although significant variations occur in a few journals. Department chairs' rankings were significantly correlated to rankings reported in previous studies, including quality-adjusted rankings. They concluded department chairs tend to rank journals both consistently and in accordance with generally accepted measures of quality.

Bell and Chong (2010) used chi-square analyses to show refereed business journals predicted an institution's Carnegie 2000 Classification, AACSB accreditation status, and the number of coauthors appearing on a single publication. Bell (2010) investigated if the relative frequencies of faculty's publications in eight refereed business journals were the same for gender, professorial rank, and number of authors on a published article; refereed business journals significantly predicted that two or more authors meant being published in journals with lower acceptance rates but he found no difference between male and female authors.

Polonsky and Whitelaw (2005) argue that it might not be possible to develop a universal set of criteria that is applicable to a set of journal rankings. And, as the reliance on academic journal rankings increases the importance of journal impact may also encourage indiscriminate citation or erroneous use of references (Nkomo, 2009). Davis (1998) provided evidence of the inconsistency in rating journals in economics. Davis warned economists about results derived from depending on Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) used to rank existing journals to evaluate scholarly productivity and evaluate economics departments. Among the economics disciplines, little consistency has been found empirically on rating the quality of the hundreds of economics journals. Beed and Beed (1996) determined the citation method measures influence rather than excellence and the correlation between influence and quality was uncertain. However, they found some consistency in the literature when rating the top four or five economics journals.

In an intriguing study, Smith (2004) compares the rankings of 15 leading finance journals by the average number of Social Sciences Citation Index cites per article for articles published in 1996. A "top article," was compared to an "article in a top journal" an examination of Type I error (a "top" article is rejected by a particular decision rule, e.g., in top three journals) and the Type II error (a "non-top" article is accepted as a top article) for each journal and combinations of the journals. Due to the high error rates, Smith found the results suggested that identifying top articles requires looking beyond the Top 3 finance journals, as well as examining each article more carefully for their intrinsic qualities.

A similar study in accounting, Chow et al (2007) stressed empirical research is rife with evidence that discounting an article as not being a top quality article because it did not appear in one of the top accounting journals is faulty thinking. Too many articles that should have been rated as top articles were too often discounted as not being so merely because they had not been published in one of the three top accounting journals; and there are other business fields producing empirical results on the journal quality questions.

Polonsky and Whitelaw (2004) developed a weighted multi-dimensional perceptual ranking based on respondents' evaluation of a journal's prestige, contribution to theory, contribution to practice, and contribution to teaching, adding fuel to the fire. Reinstein and Calderon (2006) found rankings used by both doctoral-granting and non-doctoral-granting accounting programs to confirm the existence of set of top journals whose rankings are invariant to school type, faculty size, resource base or mission.

From the published reports, there is very little consistency in criterion for rating the quality of a scholarly business journal, beyond the popularity of four or five journals in each of the academic business fields; each field is dominated by a handful of journals that are rated top. Despite the fact there is apparent inconsistency of judging the quality of hundreds of scholarly business journals, a handful of journals consistently appear as top journals named in various empirical studies. The literature, moreover, confirms there is academic agreement on the top journals in each of the business fields, including business communication (Rogers et al. 2007). Therefore, for this study's purpose, I assumed top journals do exist, as top journal existence is continually substantiated in the literature. Yuyuenyongwatana and Carraher (2008) recently reported that among 50 management journals they compared there is a suggestion of consensus of rankings based on survey research. Given there is so much agreement on the top management journals it is plausible for the faculty working for schools of business to create lists of journals and rank those journals by tiers (Marsh & Hunt, 2006). On the surface such lists have face validity. I located online a list of management journals already ranked by tiers.

## RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Scholars at the University of Houston's Bauer College of Business (a U.S. News & World Report "Top 50" Business School) created a list of 61 management journals in 2009 and ranked them by tiers from 1 to 4, with 1 being highest. (See Appendix A for an original list of the 61 management journals that Bauer ranked) The following information is reported online by Bauer: (<http://www.bauer.uh.edu/prospective/where-we-rank.asp>)

### *U.S. News & World Report*

- *Undergraduate program: 49th among public business schools (Best Undergraduate Business Programs, 2012)*
- *Entrepreneurship program: 21st overall among entrepreneurship programs (Best Undergraduate Business Programs – Specialty Rankings in Entrepreneurship, 2012)*
- *Full-time MBA program: Top 50 among public business schools (Best Business Schools, 2011)*
- *Part-time MBA program: 26th among public business schools (Best Business Schools: Part-Time MBA Programs, 2011)*



The Bauer list adheres to the consensus of what management professors perceive to be top management journals that has been substantiated in the literature. In this study, I assumed the Bauer list to have face validity based on the numerous studies that show agreement among management researchers that there exist top management journals.

I added a fifth tier to Bauer list because it did not include any of the specialty journals that publish predominately communication subjects. This was necessary to answer aforementioned research question 2. Since none of these types of journals were included in the original Bauer list of 61 management journals it was important to add them. I also acknowledge the limitation that some of the journals listed in the tier 5 category, not included on the original Bauer list are considered top tier by departments of communication and schools of business with business communication faculty offering core business communication courses (Rogers et al. 2007).

Nevertheless, listing the specialty journals in tier 5 serves my research purpose. By adding an additional level to the tier variable does not necessarily make an argument about the quality of the journals in tier 5; in this case, the tiers are treated in the data analyses as five levels in one nominal independent variable, rather than ordinal rankings. Therefore, I wrote six null hypotheses to test whether means differed among the five tiers of journals and the five communications that occurred as content in each journal. Since I had plenty of data for analyses, I selected 10 journals from tier 3, 10 from tier 4 and created a list of 10 journals for tier 5. This gave me a total of 39 journals to compare across the five tiers.

### **Six Null Hypotheses**

- H1 Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the most cited Google Scholar article per journal within each tier.*
- H2 Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of organizational communication content within them.*
- H3 Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of management communication content within them.*
- H4 Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of corporate communication content within them.*
- H5 Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of technical communication content within them.*
- H6 Means do not differ among the five tiers of management journals and the occurrences of business communication content within them.*

For the sake of brevity and to be consistent with the way data are reported in the forthcoming tables, I will henceforth refer to business communication as BCOM, organizational communication as OCOM, management communication as MCOM, corporate communication as CCOM, and technical communication as TCOM. Collecting data on the number of times BCOM, OCOM, MCOM, CCOM, and TCOM occurred as content in the 39 journals analyzed in this study across five tiers was relatively simple. I used IBM's SPSS 19.0 software for all the data analyses. I used one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), an excellent method for comparing one dependent quantitative variable that is an interval or ratio measure on one independent variable with three or more levels, to test mean differences using six null hypotheses.

I searched Google Scholar for the most cited article for each of the 39 journals used in the data analyses. For example, I requested 100 results per page. Next, I typed in the journal's name in the "publication" search window and found the most cited Google Scholar article for the Academy of Management Review is "Building Theories from Case Study Research" with 14,561 citations, as of October 3, 2011. The most cited Google Scholar article for the Journal of Management is "Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage" with 20,325 citations, as of October 3, 2011. I checked the most cited article out of 100 results per page for each of the 39 journals shown in Table 1. I included this variable because the literature suggests a journal that has published a seminal article is an important criterion for that journal's reputation as "top" among management professors. I call this type of article a "super-cited" article because a seminal article spawns a generation of research and is cited thousands of times after it is published.

I used the ProQuest library subscription database to find occurrences of the five communications as content in each of the 39 journals. Since this database allows for searches within a journal using quotations marks, I simply selected the journal and then searched for communication terms within that journal within quotation marks. For example, I went to Academy of Management Journal (AMJ) in ProQuest and within quotes searched "business communication." This search resulted in four occurrences of BCOM within that journal. Another example, I searched for "organizational communication" within the Administrative Science Quarterly (ASQ) and found 25 for OCOM within that journal. I used this approach to find occurrences of the five communications for each of the 39 journals.

Interestingly, the 29 management journals representing tiers 1, 2, 3, and 4 had 238 occurrences of BCOM, 303 for OCOM, 130 for MCOM, 104 for CCOM, and 96 for TCOM. The 10 specialized journals representing tier 5 had a much larger aggregate of the five communications with 2,671 occurrences of BCOM, 723 for OCOM, 926 for MCOM, 947 for CCOM, and 766 for TCOM. The number of times BCOM, OCOM, MCOM, CCOM, and TCOM occurs in the management and professional journals across all five tiers is shown in Table 1.

In the ProQuest search the five communications occurred as content in tier 1 management journals 186 times, in tier 2 management journals 96 times, in tier 3 management journals 331 times, in tier 4 management journals 258 times and in tier 5 professional journals 6,033 times. As an aggregate the occurrences of the five communications as content increases as a journal's tier

decreases. Communication content is indirectly related to a journal's tier. The lower ranking tiers publish more communication content than the higher ranking tiers.

The mean (and standard deviation) for articles cited in tier 1 journals was 9,690.75 (5,284.31), tier 2 journals was 6,056.20 (8,138.47), tier 3 journals was 1,456 (2,367.87), tier 4 journals was 942.30 (670.52) and tier 5 journals was 170.50 (248.52). The total mean (and standard deviation) for the 39 total articles' citations was 2,429.03 (4,481.15). An article cited more than 2,429 was labeled "super-cited" seminal article. All means and standard deviations shown in Table 2 seem to substantiate the claim made by Singh, Haddad, and Chow (2007, p. 319) that, "articles published in the five journals most often considered to be the top ones in management tend to be cited more often than ones published in the other journals." Means and Standard deviations for BCOM, OCOM, MCOM, CCOM, and TCOM for each tier are also shown in Table 2.

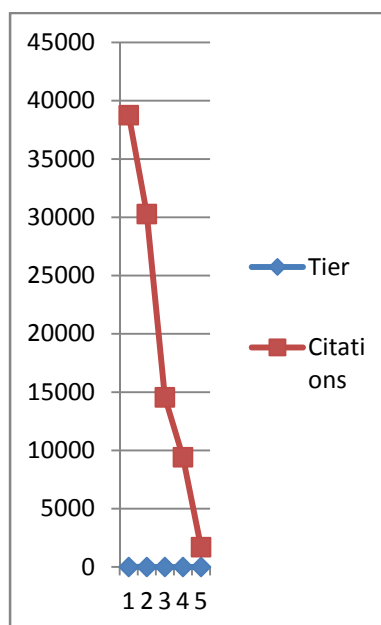
Shown in Line Chart 1, based on an October 03, 2011 Google Scholar search for most cited article in each of the 39 journals, the four journals that comprised tier 1 had four articles cited a total of 38,763 times; the five journals that comprised tier 2 had five articles cited a total of 30,281 times; the 10 journals that comprised tier 3 had 10 articles cited a total of 14,560 times; the 10 journals that comprised tier 4 had 10 articles cited a total of 9,423 times; and the 10 journals that comprised tier 5 had 10 articles cited a total of 1,705 times. Tiers 1 and 2 journals had the most super-cited seminal articles, with 7 of 9 articles exceeding 3,500 citations each.

Tier	Bauer List of Journals by Tier	BCOM	OCOM	MCOM	CCOM	TCOM	Google
1	Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)	4	35	8	8	18	4,149
1	Academy of Management Review (AMR)	5	35	8	2	4	14,561
1	Administrative Science Quarterly (ASQ)	0	25	0	2	10	13,842
1	Strategic Management Journal (SMJ)	4	7	2	1	8	6,211
	Total	13	<b>*102</b>	18	13	40	38,763
2	Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS)	15	15	8	4	7	4,402
2	Journal of Management (JOM)	0	1	1	0	0	20,325
2	Journal of Management Studies (JMS)	1	1	0	1	0	1,857
2	Leadership Quarterly (LQ)	0	0	0	0	1	181
2	Personnel Psychology (PP)	10	16	7	4	4	3,516
	Total	26	<b>*33</b>	16	9	12	30,281
3	Academy of Management Perspectives (AMP)	3	7	2	7	1	117
3	Corporate Governance (CG)	6	3	2	24	0	238
3	Human Relations (HR)	18	77	38	16	7	7,798
3	IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management (IEEETEM)	0	2	0	0	6	363
3	International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM)	0	0	0	0	0	893
3	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (JOOP)	0	9	9	0	1	826

<b>Table 1: ProQuest Results for Number of Times BCOM, OCOM, MCOM, CCOM, TCOM Occurred in a Journal, with Most Cited Article as of a Google Scholar Search October 3, 2011</b>							
<b>Tier</b>	<b>Bauer List of Journals by Tier</b>	<b>BCOM</b>	<b>OCOM</b>	<b>MCOM</b>	<b>CCOM</b>	<b>TCOM</b>	<b>Google</b>
3	Journal of Managerial Issues (JMI)	5	14	6	0	4	97
3	Journal of Organizational Behavior (JOB)	4	15	10	2	10	2,468
3	Organization Dynamics (OD)	6	6	2	8	1	8
3	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (PSPB)	0	0	0	0	0	1,752
	Total	42	<b>*133</b>	69	57	30	14,560
4	Academy of Management Learning And Education (AMLE)	0	0	0	0	0	1,145
4	Asia Pacific Journal of Management (APJM)	2	4	5	2	2	405
4	British Journal of Management (BJM)	0	0	0	0	0	495
4	Business and Society (BS)	7	8	4	10	0	1,542
4	California Management Review (CMR)	6	4	3	4	1	1,102
4	Human Performance (HP)	0	0	0	0	0	764
4	Human Resource Management (HRM)	3	4	2	5	0	1,049
4	Human Resource Management Review (HRMR)	0	2	0	0	0	2,403
4	Journal of Education For Business (JOEB)	139	11	12	2	11	157
4	Journal of World Business (JWB)	0	2	1	2	0	361
	Total	<b>*157</b>	35	27	25	14	9,423
5	Business Communication Quarterly (BCQ)	1,084	40	63	27	101	41
5	Corporate Communications (CC)	133	81	82	518	22	9
5	Journal of Business Communication (JBC)	1,107	156	111	58	98	293
5	Journal of Business And Technical Communication (JBTC)	117	41	37	15	514	91
5	Journal of Management Inquiry (JMI)	4	9	8	1	2	816
5	Journal of Organizational Culture, Communication And Conflict (JOCCC)	9	4	6	2	0	25
5	Journal of Communication Management (JOCM)	51	53	47	134	9	111
5	Management Communication Quarterly (MCQ)	72	298	546	41	16	265
5	Strategic Communication Management (SCM)	72	32	17	139	4	37
5	Supervision (S)	22	9	9	12	0	17
	Total	<b>*2,671</b>	723	926	947	766	1,705
*Denotes which of the five professional communication areas (BCOM-business communication, OCOM-organizational communication, MCOM-management communication, CCOM-corporate communication, and TCOM-technical communication) occurs the most in each of the tiers.							

<b>Tier</b>		<b>Google</b>	<b>BCOM</b>	<b>OCOM</b>	<b>MCOM</b>	<b>CCOM</b>	<b>TCOM</b>
1.00	Mean	9690.75	3.25	25.50	4.50	3.25	10.00
	N	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
	Std. Deviation	5284.31	2.22	13.20	4.12	3.20	5.89
2.00	Mean	6056.20	5.20	6.60	3.20	1.80	2.40
	N	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
	Std. Deviation	8138.47	6.91	8.14	3.96	2.05	3.05
3.00	Mean	1456.00	4.20	13.30	6.90	5.70	3.00
	N	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
	Std. Deviation	2367.87	5.47	23.00	11.53	8.33	3.56
4.00	Mean	942.30	15.70	3.50	2.70	2.50	1.40
	N	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
	Std. Deviation	670.52	43.40	3.63	3.74	3.17	3.44
5.00	Mean	170.50	267.10	72.30	92.60	94.70	76.60
	N	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
	Std. Deviation	248.52	438.69	91.12	163.11	157.08	158.52
Total	Mean	2429.03	74.59	26.31	27.08	26.95	22.10
	N	39.00	39.00	39.00	39.00	39.00	39.00
	Std. Deviation	4481.15	243.26	53.90	88.66	86.55	83.77

**Line Chart 1: Representing Citations and Tiers based on Data in Table 1**



## Significant Hypotheses

Hypothesis  $H_1$  was rejected: Means differ ( $p < .000$ ) among the five tiers of journals when compared to the most cited Google Scholar article per journal within each tier. The Eta Squared of .471 shows a large effect, where  $\eta^2$  is interpreted in SPSS 19.0 using the Cohen (1988) rule that .01 ~ small, .06 ~ medium and .14 ~ large, which means 47.1 percent of the variance in the dependent variable (most cited Google Scholar article per journal by tier) was accounted for by the independent variable (journal tiers). ANOVA results for all six null hypotheses are shown in Table 3. These findings are very interesting for several reasons.

ANOVA			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Google Tier</b>	Between Groups	(Combined)	3.593E8	4	89823308.206	7.564	<b>***.000</b>
	Within Groups		4.038E8	34	11875715.887		
	Total		7.631E8	38			
<b>BCOM Tier</b>	Between Groups	(Combined)	499261.286	4	124815.321	2.426	.067
	Within Groups		1749438.150	34	51454.063		
	Total		2248699.436	38			
<b>OCOM Tier</b>	Between Groups	(Combined)	29991.408	4	7497.852	3.171	<b>*.026</b>
	Within Groups		80386.900	34	2364.321		
	Total		110378.308	38			
<b>MCOM Tier</b>	Between Groups	(Combined)	57835.569	4	14458.892	2.041	.111
	Within Groups		240867.200	34	7084.329		
	Total		298702.769	38			
<b>CCOM Tier</b>	Between Groups	(Combined)	61803.647	4	15450.912	2.358	.073
	Within Groups		222830.250	34	6553.831		
	Total		284633.897	38			
<b>TCOM Tier</b>	Between Groups	(Combined)	40161.590	4	10040.397	1.507	.222
	Within Groups		226528.000	34	6662.588		
	Total		266689.590	38			

Measures of Association		
	Eta	Eta Squared
Google * Tier	.686	<b>.471</b>
BCOM * Tier	.471	.222
OCOM * Tier	.521	<b>.272</b>
MCOM * Tier	.440	.194
CCOM * Tier	.466	.217
TCOM * Tier	.388	.151

Post hoc tests multiple comparisons, Tukey HSD, for Hypothesis <sub>1</sub> shows that mean differences are significant at the  $p < .05$  level for nearly every comparison. First and second tier management journals do not differ significantly when compared. Nevertheless, the lower tiers of 5, 4, and 3 show negative mean differences when compared to tier 1 and tier 2 management journals. And, when tier 5 is used as (I) in the comparison the mean difference is negative with every other tier and significantly negative with tiers 1 and 2. Notice in Table 4 the number of citations when tier 5 is (I), the citation differences precipitously decline as tier level declines. This evidence confirms the Bauer School of Business list to have construct validity if the criterion for a journal's placement in a tier is based in part on having published at least one super-cited seminal article. I will discuss the implications for this finding later.

Table 4: Post Hoc Tests Multiple Comparisons, Tukey HSD, on the Google Most Cited Articles across Five levels of Journal Tiers						
(I) Tier	(J) Tier	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	3634.55000	2311.72493	.525	-3022.1716	10291.2716
	3.00	8234.75000*	2038.74975	.003	2364.0733	14105.4267
	4.00	8748.45000*	2038.74975	.001	2877.7733	14619.1267
	5.00	9520.25000*	2038.74975	.000	3649.5733	15390.9267
2.00	1.00	-3634.55000	2311.72493	.525	-10291.2716	3022.1716
	3.00	4600.20000	1887.51550	.130	-834.9905	10035.3905
	4.00	5113.90000	1887.51550	.073	-321.2905	10549.0905
	5.00	5885.70000*	1887.51550	.028	450.5095	11320.8905
3.00	1.00	-8234.75000*	2038.74975	.003	-14105.4267	-2364.0733
	2.00	-4600.20000	1887.51550	.130	-10035.3905	834.9905
	4.00	513.70000	1541.14995	.997	-3924.1144	4951.5144
	5.00	1285.50000	1541.14995	.918	-3152.3144	5723.3144
4.00	1.00	-8748.45000*	2038.74975	.001	-14619.1267	-2877.7733
	2.00	-5113.90000	1887.51550	.073	-10549.0905	321.2905
	3.00	-513.70000	1541.14995	.997	-4951.5144	3924.1144
	5.00	771.80000	1541.14995	.987	-3666.0144	5209.6144
5.00	1.00	-9520.25000*	2038.74975	.000	-15390.9267	-3649.5733
	2.00	-5885.70000*	1887.51550	.028	-11320.8905	-450.5095
	3.00	-1285.50000	1541.14995	.918	-5723.3144	3152.3144
	4.00	-771.80000	1541.14995	.987	-5209.6144	3666.0144

**Table 4: Post Hoc Tests Multiple Comparisons, Tukey HSD,  
on the Google Most Cited Articles across Five levels of Journal Tiers**

(I) Tier	(J) Tier	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	3634.55000	2311.72493	.525	-3022.1716	10291.2716
	3.00	8234.75000*	2038.74975	.003	2364.0733	14105.4267
	4.00	8748.45000*	2038.74975	.001	2877.7733	14619.1267
	5.00	9520.25000*	2038.74975	.000	3649.5733	15390.9267
2.00	1.00	-3634.55000	2311.72493	.525	-10291.2716	3022.1716
	3.00	4600.20000	1887.51550	.130	-834.9905	10035.3905
	4.00	5113.90000	1887.51550	.073	-321.2905	10549.0905
	5.00	5885.70000*	1887.51550	.028	450.5095	11320.8905
3.00	1.00	-8234.75000*	2038.74975	.003	-14105.4267	-2364.0733
	2.00	-4600.20000	1887.51550	.130	-10035.3905	834.9905
	4.00	513.70000	1541.14995	.997	-3924.1144	4951.5144
	5.00	1285.50000	1541.14995	.918	-3152.3144	5723.3144
4.00	1.00	-8748.45000*	2038.74975	.001	-14619.1267	-2877.7733
	2.00	-5113.90000	1887.51550	.073	-10549.0905	321.2905
	3.00	-513.70000	1541.14995	.997	-4951.5144	3924.1144
	5.00	771.80000	1541.14995	.987	-3666.0144	5209.6144
5.00	1.00	-9520.25000*	2038.74975	.000	-15390.9267	-3649.5733
	2.00	-5885.70000*	1887.51550	.028	-11320.8905	-450.5095
	3.00	-1285.50000	1541.14995	.918	-5723.3144	3152.3144
	4.00	-771.80000	1541.14995	.987	-5209.6144	3666.0144

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Hypothesis  $_2$  was rejected: Means differ ( $p < .05$ ) among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of OCOM content within them. The Eta Squared of .272 shows a large effect, where  $n^2$  is interpreted in SPSS 19.0 using the Cohen (1988) rule that .01 ~ small, .06 ~ medium and .14 ~ large, which means 27.2 percent of the variance in the dependent variable (communication content occurring in the journals) was accounted for by the independent variable (journal tier). ANOVA results are shown in Table 3 above; nonetheless, means are the same for professional communication content across tiers except for OCOM. Tiers 4 and 5 differ on organizational communication with a significant negative mean difference indicating tier 4 management journals do not favor publishing OCOM content.

Post hoc tests multiple comparisons, Tukey HSD, for Hypothesis  $_2$  shows that mean differences are significant at the  $p < .05$  level for tiers 4 and 5 comparison only. This is interesting because when tier 4 is used as (I) the mean difference is negative. Notice in Table 5, tier 4 journals differ in published OCOM content, while all the other tiers of management journals do not differ statistically from the tier 5 specialized journals group, which one would think should be more prone to publish OCOM content than all the other tiers. However, I find this not to be the case.



**Table 5: Post Hoc Tests Multiple Comparisons, Tukey HSD,  
on Organizational Communication Appearances across Five levels of Journal Tiers**

(I) Tier	(J) Tier	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	18.90000	32.61816	.977	-75.0255	112.8255
	3.00	12.20000	28.76651	.993	-70.6345	95.0345
	4.00	22.00000	28.76651	.939	-60.8345	104.8345
	5.00	-46.80000	28.76651	.491	-129.6345	36.0345
2.00	1.00	-18.90000	32.61816	.977	-112.8255	75.0255
	3.00	-6.70000	26.63261	.999	-83.3899	69.9899
	4.00	3.10000	26.63261	1.000	-73.5899	79.7899
	5.00	-65.70000	26.63261	.122	-142.3899	10.9899
3.00	1.00	-12.20000	28.76651	.993	-95.0345	70.6345
	2.00	6.70000	26.63261	.999	-69.9899	83.3899
	4.00	9.80000	21.74544	.991	-52.8170	72.4170
	5.00	-59.00000	21.74544	.073	-121.6170	3.6170
4.00	1.00	-22.00000	28.76651	.939	-104.8345	60.8345
	2.00	-3.10000	26.63261	1.000	-79.7899	73.5899
	3.00	-9.80000	21.74544	.991	-72.4170	52.8170
	5.00	-68.80000*	21.74544	.025	-131.4170	-6.1830
5.00	1.00	46.80000	28.76651	.491	-36.0345	129.6345
	2.00	65.70000	26.63261	.122	-10.9899	142.3899
	3.00	59.00000	21.74544	.073	-3.6170	121.6170
	4.00	68.80000*	21.74544	.025	6.1830	131.4170

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

### Non-Significant Hypotheses

I did not reject  $H_3$ : Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of MCOM content within them.

I did not reject  $H_4$ : Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of CCOM content within them.

I did not reject  $H_5$ : Means do not differ among the five tiers of journals and the occurrences of TCOM content within them.

I did not reject  $H_6$ : Means do not differ among the five tiers of management journals and the occurrences of BCOM content within them.

### SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

When reviewing the related literature, no studies were found that directly compared mean differences among the tiers of management and specialty journals and the occurrences of the five communications as content within articles published in journals across tiers. I found that when I used ANOVA to compare the means of occurrences of the five communications (BCOM,

OCOM, MCOM, CCOM, and TCOM) with each of the respective journal tiers, differences existed across tiers. I also found among the five communications organizational communication differed between journal tiers 4 and 5. Tiers 3, 4 and 5 journals published more articles that included communication content than tiers 1 and 2. Tier 1 and 2 journals also had more super-cited seminal articles than tiers 3, 4, and 5. Although in the communication circles, several of the specialty journals that comprise tier 5 are considered top journals (Rogers, et al. 2007); they were not listed in the original Bauer list of 61 management journals.

<b>Exhibit 1: Number of articles in the Academy of Management Review, all issues 4 since 1976-2010</b>			
<b>AMR, Issues 4</b>	<b>Articles</b>	<b>AMR, Issues 4 (continued)</b>	<b>Articles</b>
Oct 2010; Vol.35, Iss.4	6	Oct 1992; Vol.17, Iss.4	23
Oct 2009; Vol.34, Iss.4	8	Oct 1991; Vol.16, Iss.4	26
Oct 2008; Vol.33, Iss.4	17	Oct 1990; Vol.15, Iss.4	15
Oct 2007; Vol.32, Iss.4	16	Oct 1989; Vol.14, Iss.4	10
Oct 2006; Vol.31, Iss.4	22	Oct 1988; Vol.13, Iss.4	12
Oct 2005; Vol.30, Iss.4	16	Oct 1987; Vol.12, Iss.4	15
Oct 2004; Vol.29, Iss.4	16	Oct 1986; Vol.11, Iss.4	13
Oct 2003; Vol.28, Iss.4	15	Oct 1985; Vol.10, Iss.4	16
Oct 2002; Vol.27, Iss.4	13	Oct 1984; Vol.9, Iss.4	15
Oct 2001; Vol.26, Iss.4	20	Oct 1983; Vol.8, Iss.4	17
Oct 2000; Vol.25, Iss.4	23	Oct 1982; Vol.7, Iss.4	12
Oct 1999; Vol.24, Iss.4	25	Oct 1981; Vol.6, Iss.4	16
Oct 1998; Vol.23, Iss.4	19	Oct 1980; Vol.5, Iss.4	15
Oct 1997; Vol.22, Iss.4	18	Oct. 1979; Vol.4, Iss.4	11
Oct 1996; Vol.21, Iss.4	32	Oct. 1978; Vol.3, Iss.4	16
Oct 1995; Vol.20, Iss.4	55	OCT. 1977; Vol.2, Iss.4	16
Oct 1994; Vol.19, Iss.4	40	OCT. 1976; Vol.1, Iss.4	15
Oct 1993; Vol.18, Iss.4	25		
$\Sigma$ 649 articles/35 issues 4 = a mean of 18.54; rounded up equals 19 articles per issue 4.			

Interestingly enough, journals comprising tier 4 and 5 have failed to produce any super-cited articles that can be said to have spawned a generation of research per article. The average number of citations for the entire list of 39 journals analyzed in this study was 2,429 citations. None of the tier 4 or 5 journals published an article that was cited more than the total mean of 2,429 but, AMLE, BS, CMR, HRM, HRMR had articles cited 1,145, 1,542, 1,102, 1,049, and 2,403 respectively. The HRMR came close to the total mean with its article "A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment" that was cited 2,403, as of October 03, 2011. In tier 3, HR and JOB had an article each with 7,798 and 2,468 citations respectively. Furthermore, shown in Exhibit 1 is the total number of articles that were published by the AMR from 1976 to 2010 in all of its issues 4.

What this demonstrates is a very important element of critical mass of articles and that the chance of publishing a super-cited seminal article is greatly increased by increases in the

aggregate of articles. The tier 5 journals are especially vulnerable to shortages of a critical mass of articles because obviously they are publishing too few articles per issue which seems to be working against their ISI citation rankings. And the chance of them publishing a super-cited seminal article is greatly reduced when they publish only four or five articles per issue while, AMR is averaging 19 articles per all of its issues 4 since 1976 to 2010.

Tiers 4 and 5 journals will need to produce more super-cited articles (a seminal article spawns a generation of research many years after its publication) before they will move up in the journal rankings and are perceived as top journals by management faculty working in the top business schools. The evidence is compelling. The Bauer tiers appear to have construct validity if the argument of such ranking is in part based on higher tiers having more super-cited seminal articles than the lower tiers. Super-cited seminal articles help shape academic perceptions of the quality of management journals. Apparently, these type articles catapult a journal's reputation into the stratosphere, and not vice versa: a journal's reputation does not precede its having published seminal article.

It appears that among the 39 journals analyzed in this study the most reputable journals have super-cited articles that are at least 10-years-old. These articles tend to invoke in researchers a sort-of perfunctory or obligatory need to cite them. For example, in just 23 days, there was a large increase in new citations added to the most cited articles in the top tiers but a precipitous drop-off of new citations as a journal's tier decreased. Of nine articles representing tiers 1 and 2, seven are super-cited seminal articles. Notice in Exhibit 2 the differences in new citations for 10 articles over 23 days that represent the two most cited articles from each of the five tiers, based on two Google Scholar searches, one on October 3, 2011 and one on October 26, 2011. The titles for the 10 articles referenced in Exhibit 2 are highlighted in Appendix B.

<b>Exhibit 2: Differences in Increases in Citations of the Ten Most Cited Articles across Tiers over 23 Days*</b>										
	<b>Tier 1</b>		<b>Tier 2</b>		<b>Tier 3</b>		<b>Tier 4</b>		<b>Tier 5</b>	
	<b>AMR</b>	<b>ASQ</b>	<b>JIBS</b>	<b>JOM</b>	<b>HR</b>	<b>JOB</b>	<b>BS</b>	<b>HRMR</b>	<b>JBC</b>	<b>JMI</b>
<b>DATES</b>	(1989)	(1990)	(1977)	(1991)	(1954)	(1981)	(1999)	(1991)	(1997)	(1993)
10-26-2011	14592	13844	4395	20350	7805	2478	1547	2415	293	816
10-03-2011	14561	13842	4402	20325	7798	2468	1542	2403	293	816
Differences	31	2	-7	25	7	10	5	12	0	0
*Tiers 1 and 2 means are statistically the same. ( ) denotes publication date of each article.										

Tiers 1 and 2 combined gained 51 new citations and tiers 3, 4, and 5 combined gained 34 new citations. Tiers 1 and 2 compared to tiers 3, 4, and 5 represents 50% more ( $51/34 - 1 * 100 = 50\%$ ) new citations from October 3, 2011 to October 26, 2011—just 23 days! Tiers 1, 2, and 3 compared to tiers 4 and 5 represents 300% more ( $68/17 - 1 * 100 = 300\%$ ) new citations from

October 3, 2011 to October 26, 2011. Imagine how staggering these differences will be in just one year. Six of the 10 articles were published in the 1990's. Shown in Appendix B is the extended list of articles, journals, publication dates, and titles of articles, as of October 26, 2011.

### **Answers to the Aforementioned Research Questions**

Most important, however, since the means for the occurrences of the five communications are scientifically the same across tiers (except for tier 4 and 5 which differed at the  $p < .05$  level on OCOM) I can now answer the two aforementioned research questioned.

*Q1 Do the occurrences of the five communications as content differ in articles published across management journals, regardless of tiers?*

For the most part, no they do not differ except for tiers 4 and 5 on the OCOM subject. The negative mean difference is an indication that business communication professors should not be targeting journals listed in tier 4 on subjects that include OCOM as the crux of their research or theory building efforts.

*Q2 Can it be argued that the five communications occurring in articles published by both specialized journals and management journals support the proposition that communication is a management competency being explored by researchers and refined in the management literature?*

Yes communication is a true management competency because means for the most part are equal across tiers on the occurrences of the five communications. Clearly, since the means for four of the five communications are the same on all five tiers (except for tiers 4 and 5 on the OCOM variable) of journals this indicates management professors are including the five communications in their references as well as many of them publishing articles on the communication areas in many of these journals.

Just because the specialty (JBC, BCQ, MCQ, JBTC, and CC) journals are publishing more quantity of articles on the five communications this did not appear to show any scientific difference when means were compared, especially since top tier journals are showing statistically the same occurrences of communication as all the other tiers of journals. This is good news for business communication faculty and the five communications. Cyphert (2009, p. 271) writes:

*We spend more time arguing over the historical and institutional distinctions among management communication, business communication, professional communication, corporate communication, organizational communication, strategic communication, and technical communication than about the theories, concepts, and principles that might arise in any of them.*

According to Hellriegel, Jackson and Slocum (2005) “what it takes to be a great manager” is 1) Communication Competency, 2) Planning and Administration Competency, 3) Teamwork Competency, 4) Strategic Action Competency, 5) Global Awareness Competency and 6) Self-Management Competency. They express that a manager’s competency in communication is predicated on proficiency in formal communication, informal communication and negotiations skills.

In this study I found that communication has been incorporated into the published works of management researchers with little to no bias against any of the five communications overall. Thus, I find that the five communications should henceforth be considered a true competency of the field of management and that the five communications are occurring with such equality in the five tiers that it appears to be a management competency area which seems to be continually explored in the management literature. Differences in the occurrences of the five communications were insignificant from tier-to-tier.

To answer Cyphert’s (2009) question, “Who are we?” seems clear. The disciplinary identity of the five communications should be, or at least in part should be, that we are a management competency area.

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<b>APPENDIX A</b>	
<b>University of Houston Bauer College of Business' 2009 List of Management Journals by Tier</b>	
<b>Tiers</b>	<b>Bauer's 2009 List of 61 Management Journals by Tier</b>
1	Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)
1	Academy of Management Review (AMR)
1	Administrative Science Quarterly (ASQ)
1	Strategic Management Journal (SMJ)
2	Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS)
2	Journal of Management (JOM)
2	Journal of Management Studies (JMS)
2	Leadership Quarterly (LQ)
2	Personnel Psychology (PP)
3	Academy of Management Perspectives (AMP)
3	Corporate Governance (CG)
3	Human Relations (HR)
3	IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management (IEEEEM)
3	International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM)
3	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (JOOP)
3	Journal of Managerial Issues (JMI)
3	Journal of Organizational Behavior (JOB)
3	Organization Dynamics (OD)
3	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (PSPB)
4	Academy of Management Learning and Education (AMLE)
4	Advances in Strategic Management (ASM)
4	Asia Pacific Journal of Management (APJM)
4	British Journal of Management (BJM)
4	Business and Society (BS)
4	California Management Review (CMR)
4	Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education (DSJIE)
4	Group and Organization Studies (GOS)
4	Human Performance (HP)
4	Human Resources Management (HRM)
4	Human Resource Management Review (HRMR)
4	International Business Review (IBR)
4	International Journal of Innovation and Technology Management (IJITM)
4	International Journal of Innovation Management (IJIM)
4	International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)
4	Journal of Applied Behavioral Science (JABS)
4	Journal of Applied Social Psychology (JASP)
4	Journal of Behavioral Decision Making (JBDM)
4	Journal of Business Ethics (JBE)
4	Journal of Business Strategy (JBS)
4	Journal of Business Venturing (JBV)
4	Journal of Conflict Resolution (JCR)
4	Journal of Education for Business (JOEB)
4	Journal of Engineering & Technology Management (JETM)
4	Journal of High Technology Management Research (JHTMR)
4	Journal of International Management (JIM)
4	Journal of Management Education (JME)
4	Journal of Small Business Management (JSBM)
4	Journal of Vocational Behavior (JVB)

<b>APPENDIX A</b>	
<b>University of Houston Bauer College of Business' 2009 List of Management Journals by Tier</b>	
<b>Tiers</b>	<b>Bauer's 2009 List of 61 Management Journals by Tier</b>
4	Journal of World Business (JWB)
4	Law and Human Behavior (LHB)
4	Long Range Planning (LRP)
4	Management and Organization Review (MOR)
4	Management International Review (MIR)
4	Management Learning (ML)
4	Organization Studies (OS)
4	Public Personnel Management (PPM)
4	Research Policy (RP)
4	Research-Technology Management (RTM)
4	Sex Roles (SR)
4	Thunderbird International Business Review (TIBR)
4	World at Work Journal (WWJ)

<b>APPENDIX B</b>				
<b>Management Journals by Tier, Google Scholar Most Cited Article and Title with Publication Date</b>				
<b>Bauer Journal List</b>	<b>Tier</b>	<b>Google</b>	<b>Most Cited Google Scholar Search Article: 10/26/11</b>	<b>Date</b>
Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)	1	4155	The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance	1995
Academy of Management Review (AMR)	1	14592	Building theories from case study research	1989
Administrative Science Quarterly (ASQ)	1	13844	Absorptive capacity: a new perspective on learning and innovation	1990
Strategic Management Journal (SMJ)	1	6217	Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm	1996
Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS)	2	4395	The internationalization process of the firm—a model of knowledge development and increasing foreign market commitments	1977
Journal of Management (JOM)	2	20350	Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage	1991
Journal of Management Studies (JMS)	2	1860	The internationalization of the firm—four Swedish cases 1	1975
Leadership Quarterly (LQ)	2	182	Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective	1995
Personnel Psychology (PP)	2	3527	The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis	1991
Academy of Management Perspectives (AMP)	3	177	Why does affect matter in organizations?	2007
Corporate Governance (CG)	3	241	What do we mean by corporate social responsibility?	2001
Human Relations (HR)	3	7805	A theory of social comparison processes	1954
IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management (IEEEEM)	3	1430	Innovation characteristics and innovation adoption-implementation: A meta-analysis of findings	1982
International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM)	3	894	The death of the social? Re-figuring the territory of government	1996
Journal of Occupational and	3	828	Re-examining the components of transformational and	1999



<b>APPENDIX B</b>				
<b>Management Journals by Tier, Google Scholar Most Cited Article and Title with Publication Date</b>				
<b>Bauer Journal List</b>	<b>Tier</b>	<b>Google</b>	<b>Most Cited Google Scholar Search Article: 10/26/11</b>	<b>Date</b>
Organizational Psychology (JOOP)			transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership	
Journal of Managerial Issues (JMI)	3	97	Employee reactions to temporary jobs	1995
Journal of Organizational Behavior (JOB)	3	2478	The measurement of experienced burnout	1981
Organization Dynamics (OD)	3	9	Learning arossa living company: the shell companies experiences	1998
Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (PSPB)	3	1752	The social self: On being the same and different at the same time	1991
Academy of Management Learning and Education (AMLE)	4	1147	Bad management theories are destroying good management practices	2005
Advances in Strategic Management (ASM)	4	281	Integrating organizational behavior and strategy formulation research: A resource based analysis	1996
Asia Pacific Journal of Management (APJM)	4	406	Cultural dimensions in management and planning	1984
British Journal of Management (BJM)	4	499	Supply chain management: relationships, chains and networks	1996
Business and Society (BS)	4	1547	Corporate social responsibility	1999
California Management Review (CMR)	4	1104	If only we knew what we know: identification and transfer of internal best practices	1998
Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education (DSJIE)	4	91	The Determinants of Students' Perceived Learning Outcomes and Satisfaction in University Online Education: An Empirical Investigation	2006
Group and Organization Studies (GOS)	4	373	Behavioral norms and expectations: A quantitative approach to the assessment of organizational culture.	1988
Human Performance (HP)	4	764	Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time	1997
Human Resources Management (HRM)	4	28	Downsizing organisations: the dilemmas of change	2011
Human Resource Management Review (HRMR)	4	2415	A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment	1991
International Business Review (IBR)	4	686	The internationalization of born globals: an evolutionary process?	1997
International Journal of Innovation and Technology Management (IJITM)	4	33	Entrepreneurial intentions of business students: a benchmarking study	2004
International Journal of Innovation Management (IJIM)	4	253	Knowledge-intensive business services as co-producers of innovation	2000
International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)	4	564	Assessing knowledge assets: a review of the models used to measure intellectual capital	2001
Journal of Applied Behavioral Science (JABS)	4	790	Leadership: The management of meaning	1982
Journal of Applied Social Psychology (JASP)	4	1304	Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation to Use Computers in the Workplace1	1992
Journal of Behavioral Decision Making (JBDM)	4	753	The affect heuristic in judgments of risks and benefits	2000

<b>APPENDIX B</b>				
<b>Management Journals by Tier, Google Scholar Most Cited Article and Title with Publication Date</b>				
<b>Bauer Journal List</b>	<b>Tier</b>	<b>Google</b>	<b>Most Cited Google Scholar Search Article: 10/26/11</b>	<b>Date</b>
Journal of Business Ethics (JBE)	4	589	Corporate social responsibility theories: mapping the territory	1994
Journal of Business Strategy (JBS)	4	381	Postmerger integration	1986
Journal of Business Venturing (JBV)	4	994	The role of networks in the entrepreneurial process	1985
Journal of Conflict Resolution (JCR)	4	345	Conceptual and methodological considerations in the study of trust and suspicion	1970
Journal of Education for Business (JOEB)	4	157	The Relationship between Academic Dishonesty and Unethical Business Practices.	1993
Journal of Engineering & Technology Management (JETM)	4	406	Transferring R&D knowledge: the key factors affecting knowledge transfer success	2003
Business Communication Quarterly (BCQ)	5	41	Doing more to teach teamwork than telling students to sink or swim	1998
Corporate Communications (CC)	5	9	Environmental fate of Imidacloprid	2002
Journal Of Business Communication (JBC)	5	293	Face-to-face versus computer-mediated communication: A synthesis of the experimental literature	1997
Journal Of Business And Technical Communication (JBTC)	5	91	Learning to write professionally	1996
Journal Of Management Inquiry (JMI)	5	816	Culture and organizational learning	1993
Journal Of Organizational Culture, Communication And Conflict (JOCCC)	5	25	The effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of customer contact personnel	2007
Journal Of Communication Management (JOCM)	5	111	Do consumers really care about corporate responsibility? Highlighting the attitude—behaviour gap	2000
Management Communication Quarterly (MCQ)	5	265	Choosing the right words	1995
Strategic Communication Management (SCM)	5	37	Critical success factors for global virtual teams-A look at some of the critical success factors helping to improve the performance of global virtual teams	2005
Supervision (S)	5	17	It's not difficult to change company culture	2000

# THE IMPACT OF LONG COMMUTING ON THE WORKING INDIVIDUAL

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## ABSTRACT

*In the last century, commuting distances have remained constant, but the time spent traveling between home and work has increased. Thus, commuters are suffering the costs of commuting to attain the benefits of employment opportunities in harsh economic times. Factors such as gas prices and residential or workplace locations, play a huge role in the individuals' decisions to make trade-offs for personal, family, and community situations. The variety of choices due to economic conditions places a huge burden on the individual responses to long commutes. Studies have found that commuting can be a valued time for commuters to reflect or a transition between domains; however, some authors have noted otherwise. Long commutes have been linked to health implications, decrements in job performance, lifestyle choices, and stress. This paper will outline the economic factors that can help determine the commuter's reaction to the different commuting situations. The paper will discover the relation between commuting distances and the implications it imposes on working individuals, as well as introducing new ideas companies are implementing to reduce commuter stress and motivate employees.*

## INTRODUCTION

The term 'commute' is defined as the daily routine journey between home and work. In the last half century, motorization and the significant growth in the use of the private car have given people the freedom to work further from home. Thus, commuting has become an important part of work life for most Americans (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2008). According to the U.S. Department of Labor, Americans over the age of sixteen make up approximately sixty-four percent of the United States labor force (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). In the field of transport studies, commuting is "the cost that must be suffered to attain the benefits or utility of the activity at the destination" (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2008, p. 190).

Commuting is the outcome of the physical separation from home and work prompted by people's wishes to seek economic opportunities elsewhere (Rouwendal & Nukamp, 2004). Gallup's Annual Work and Education Survey from 2007 found that Americans on average report spending 46 minutes commuting to and from work every day (Carroll, 2007). Commuters in the United States' large metropolitan areas and small towns are spending even more time commuting, which has been steadily increasing. Approximately one out of twelve U.S. workers

in 2001 (5.3 million workers) spent an hour or more commuting compared to one out of twenty in 1995 (3.4 million workers) (U.S. Department of Transportation, November 2006). Since 1995, the number of hour-long commutes has substantially increased, not typically because workers live further from work, but because the same commutes are taking longer due to congestion, which will be discussed in a later section. Commutes of all distances are taking longer, which accounts for increased time away from family, personal, and community needs; and decreased recreational activities for individuals (U.S. Department of Transportation, 2006).

While commuting is not stressful for a vast majority of workers, workers with longer round-trip commutes are more likely to find their commute stressful (Carroll, 2007). Commuting can be viewed as “a stressful, costly, time-wasting experience from the individual perspective” (Ory, et al., 2004, p. 334). However, some research has proven that commuting can provide benefits for the individual, serving as a transition between home and work life. This paper will begin with a breakdown of the demographic difference in commuting behavior between men and women. Secondly, the paper will investigate the various commuting costs on the working individual, including gas prices, availability of public transportation, and residential/work locations. The paper will also reveal the benefits and implications that can arise from commuting for individuals, as well as the main factors for the stressors and how companies can help. The goal of this paper is to discover the relation between commuting distance and the impacts it can have on the working individual’s physical, social, and psychological framework.

### **Demographic Differences in Commuting Behavior**

The average distance for people’s travel to and from work has steadily increased since the 1990s. Women on average have a shorter commute than men in distance and duration, but involve more non-work trips. Virtually the gender differences in commuting lengths exhibit women’s shorter trips due to women’s role in society. Since women traditionally absorb the majority of childcare and housework responsibilities, long commutes can be more troublesome for women than for men (Rouwendal and Nijkamp, 2004).

According to Rosenbloom (2006), the difference in commute length by men and women is the smallest for women between the ages of 16 to 25 years, in which women have 24 percent shorter trips (Crane, 2007, p. 307). The largest gap between men and women was between the ages of 46 to 55 year olds, in which women have 37 percent shorter trips (Crane, 2007, p. 307). The study also noted that the longer commutes are typically among married women and the shortest commutes are by single men. However, growth rates vary amongst men and women. Single women with and without children, as well as married women with children, had their commute increased by 30 percent to 34 percent over the two decades. Moreover, married men with children experienced half that growth (Crane, 2007, p. 307). The addition to children in any household appears to add length to men and women’s commutes due to childcare duties. However, one study performed by Ericksen (1977) and White (1986) found that married men

have longer commutes than single men and married women have shorter trips than single women (Crane, 2007). One explanation is that married women have added family responsibilities which encourage them to work a shorter distance from home. Another explanation is that married women have part-time jobs which generate shorter commutes to justify lower hourly pay and transportation costs (Crane, 2007). Labor and family responsibility dynamics run the gamut for men and women's preferences to travel greater distances between home and work.

Men tend to travel alone in a car, whereas women are twice as likely as men to travel to work with public transportation (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2008). Walking and bicycle trips are the shortest in time and distance, followed by bus, subway, and car trips. As stated in the previous section, women have on average shorter distances and duration of trips than men indicating the use of public transportation as more suitable for the shorter commutes.

### **COMMUTING COSTS AND ECONOMIC REASONING**

Commutes of all distances are now taking significantly longer which causes workers to prepare to trade off time for other objectives such as residential or work locations. This next section uncovers the possible reasons for longer commutes to and from work. The economy, including rising gas prices and location of employment opportunities, along with proximity of residential living, places a huge burden on individuals and is often the deciding factor for most workers. A tough economy combined with other similar factors can cause enough stress to both workers and employers in deciding the location of their employment and housing. According to the standard monocentric model of urban economics, workers who dislike commuting must be willing to accept residential locations that can be further from their employment site (Rouwendal & Nukamp, 2004). It is impossible for all workers to live close to their jobs due to limited residential space available in close proximity to their employment site (Rouwendal & Nukamp, 2004). The greater the distance individuals live from their worksite, the more pain people can suffer at the pump. In the following section, the category of rising gas prices will be analyzed in reference to the impact long commutes have on the working individual.

#### **Rising Fuel Prices**

Fuel prices are hovering around four dollars a gallon nationwide in the United States and the prices are reaching a tipping point for some Americans. U.S. government data has found that nearly nine out of ten Americans drive to work, most of which (8 of 10) are driving alone (Kiger, 2008, p. 24). The daily commutes can be costly based upon lengthy trips to workplace locations that remain in place from a cheaper gas price era. Twenty-two percent of commuters travel six to ten miles each way, 27 percent travel 11 to 20 miles, and 23 percent travel more than 20 miles each way. The remaining two percent is made up of "extreme commuters" that spend over 90 minutes or more on their daily commute (Kiger, 2008, p. 24). The cost of filling up a tank of gas

is consuming a majority of people's paychecks, which is causing major financial crises. According to a Gallup survey, 15 percent of Americans report that they can no longer afford the cost of the commute because of gas prices. People are being compelled to make cutbacks in leisure activities and in their lifestyle habits so that they can afford to drive to and from work each day (Kiger, 2008, p. 24).

Research has connected worker's stress over gas prices to poor workplace productivity and is leading to people having to re-evaluate their career priorities (Kiger, 2008). Recruiting consultants have found that people will turn down or quit a job based on the length of commute and will look for jobs with a shorter commute that may not involve a salary increase or professional advancement. The potential impact on U.S. companies has made major corporations re-evaluate and create ways to alleviate commuters' pain. Companies are beginning to reimburse their employees for some of their gasoline costs or will contribute to some of the cost of purchasing a fuel-efficient car, which will be discussed in more detail in a later section (Kiger, 2008).

### **Public Transportation**

Individuals have found that substituting cars for a form of public transportation is not practical for running errands. Therefore, individuals still prefer driving their own cars to work or other means of transportation, such as carpooling or vanpooling. Public transportation options are only suitable for individuals living in large metropolitan areas where the opportunities are available. The workers with commutes of less than 20 miles tend to travel on transit, but for trips over 20 miles, commutes are taken by private vehicles (U.S. Department of Transportation, November 2006). Studies have found that only five percent of workers take the bus or train and four percent walk or bike the distance to work (HR Briefing, 2001). In contrast, the switch from driving to work to riding the train can be beneficial time for doing work assignments, but can be stressful during times of overcrowding or bad weather (HR Briefing, 2001). Public transportation is an option for workers in close proximity to metropolitan areas; therefore, the placement of residential housing in relation to workplace locations is a large deciding factor when considering commuting costs.

### **Residential Factors**

From an economic standpoint, commuting inflicts a burden on not only workers, but their employers. The location of houses and employment at different areas on the geographic map implies the high costs of transport that is prompted by expensive infrastructure. Therefore, commuting costs are at the heart of people's home-work decisions. It is impossible for all workers to live close to their jobs due to the limited space available in the close parameter of the employment location (Rouwental & Nukamp, 2004).

The commute is largely determined by “the spatial or temporal reach of individuals’ access to employment opportunities,” which can shape housing and employment markets (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2008, p. 189). The decision for residential placement is not only influenced by the voyage to work, but by the “cost and quality of housing, the quality of the neighborhood, the absence of crime, and access to schools, family, and friends; and a trade-off will be made between the factors” (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2008, p. 188). The long home-work distances may be unsatisfactory for workers, but will not cause them to exchange their jobs or residential location with other workers because of the transaction costs involved. Workers dislike their long commutes, but the cost of moving or finding another employer is higher; which can be balanced out by their enjoyment for the non-work components of urban life (Rouwendal & Nukamp, 2004).

Commuting time is a huge fraction of total commuting costs, but travel savings are not valued by commuters. According to Calfee and Winston (1998), people are less willing to pay for a reduction in travel time. A possible explanation for this finding is that the respondents have adapted their life to the congestion and lack of reliability of travel times to their commute. They have arranged their activities, so that a slightly longer or shorter commute does not have a major impact on their life. However, commuters do value reliability of travel times in response to departure times. Arriving to work near the desired time is possible only at the cost of spending time on the commute (Rouwendal & Nukamp, 2004). Therefore, distance between the journeys from home to work is a large factor in the decision of a worker’s residential location in relation to their employment opportunities.

### **THE VALUE OF COMMUTING TRAVEL TIME**

Some individuals do not consider their commute to work to be all that bad, but instead reap the benefits. People begin to accept the commuting costs over time as their incomes and mobility expectations rise (Ory et al., 2004). Based on the ‘rational locator’ theory, workers adjust home and workplace locations to maintain a constant commuting travel time, which can allow individuals to view travel time as a gift (Lyons and Chatterjee, 2007). According to an analysis by Ory et al.:

*For many people, commuting is not as burdensome as one would be inclined to think on the basis of analyses that stress the resistance against traveling as the shaping force of the spatial organization of metropolitan areas. The commuting trip may instead be viewed as the time during which one is free from the duties from work of family. This work suggests that commuting may have important functions in social life that may change assessment of travel time as a burden (Rouwendal and Nijkamp, 2004, p. 299).*

The excerpt above demonstrates that though some individuals may view commuting as a constraint in their life, some people view the time as free time away from their work and

household duties. Commuters with long distances to work are beginning to adopt new strategies to help make their commute less stressful or more productive. Workers utilize the travel time as a source to think, converse, listen to music, read or even sleep (the latter examples by mass transit options). Individuals also argue that they enjoy the variety of speed, or movement and the opportunities to reveal a skill, or parade their status vehicle, or to simply escape the daily struggles of life (Ory et al., 2004). For some people, the commute can also be an opportunity to return phone calls, relax, and enjoy the scenery. Commuting also provides the benefit as a buffer between work and family as a “transition from one domain to the other” (Tompkins, 2009, p. 47). The transition time can be a way for people to “experience crossing space physically in time to achieve the sense of distance and difference; and the temporal opportunity to translate, adjust or prepare oneself for a different social setting and social identity at the destination” (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2007, p. 194). Regardless of the type of commute, traveling can be a ‘protected space’ or alone time away from the surrounding chaos (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2007).

In larger households, people tend to enjoy commuting; however, people who value time spent with their families tend to dislike commuting according to Ory et al. (2004). While there are several possible benefits of long commutes, there are potentially three types of beneficial activities generated from long distance traveling including: adventure of reaching the destination, benefit of alone time during travel, and the joy of traveling itself. While the time during travel can be noted as an ‘anti-activity’ time, it is the ability for workers to use the time for relaxing or thinking, including “shifting gears mentally between origin and destination activities and roles” (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2007, p. 190). The art of traveling itself can create “the sensation of speed, movement through and exposure to the environment, the scenic beauty or other attraction of a route” (Lyons & Chatterjee, 2007, p. 190). Travel time is a gift for some, but can be a sacrifice and provide potential stress factors for other commuters.

### **THE STRESS OF LONG COMMUTES**

Commuting has been proven by studies to provide benefits to the individual as a transition between home and work; however, authors have also noted that commuting is popularly viewed as a “stressful, costly, time-wasting experience” (Ory et al., 2004, p.334). The consequences of commuter stress are individual and varied, but the following conditions have been linked to several negative outcomes, such as “increased blood pressure and heart rate, negative mood, emotional arousal, poor concentration levels, driving errors, lapses, and violations; traffic offenses, traffic collisions, and aggression” (Hennessy, 2008, p. 2317). The impedance model is an evaluated model that is used to compare the commute characteristics with a consequence. The impedance model suggests that commuting induces stress, and the stress can be defined as any factor that interrupts the goal towards arriving at the destination, which can cause “health problems, decrements in performance, and negative attitudes towards the experience of commuting” (Kluger, 1998, p. 148). The first proposition of the impedance model indicates that some commute characteristics can strain the individual (Kluger, 1998). The



following sections will describe the different stress long-distance commuting can have on the individual including lifestyle costs, stress and fatigue, health impacts, and job performance.

### **Lifestyle Costs**

According to the U.S. Department of Transportation, people on average make 4.3 trips each day within their commute with the extra trips of dropping off children at school, picking children up from school, grocery shopping, and other miscellaneous tasks. Add the additional trips to the commute, plus heavy traffic, and the stress level of an employee's commute begins to increase (HR Briefing, 2001). Furthermore, the greater the distance an individual lives from work can increase direct transportation and time costs related to the commute. In addition to the distance-related constraints, commuters face restrictions like prices, wages, time, and the probability of finding employment. The remoteness of living in rural settings can exert two offsetting effects: "a negative effect through directly (negatively) affecting commuting costs to urban employment and a positive effect through indirectly affecting the structure of the local economy (i.e., greater job loss) that increases the need to commute" (Partridge, Ali, & Olfert, 2010, p. 322). The lifestyle choices by the individual play a role in the type of stress commuters face on their journey to and from work.

### **Stress and Fatigue**

Studies have found that some of the stress in workers' lives may not be by their responsibilities at work, but the commute to and from work that can cause stress (HR Briefing, 2001). The stress experienced from the long commutes is a combination of tension from work, home, and leisure that seeps into the driving environment. Furthermore, unresolved hassles, including poor weather, sleep problems or conflicts at home or work, can increase the traffic environment stress (Hennessy, 2008). Therefore, commuter stress is not just limited to the strain of the traffic situation, but can be a combination of other daily hassles that have accumulated over time.

Commuter stress can have both physical and psychological consequences to the individual that may force individuals to interpret workplace limitations as more demanding and stressful, which increases the probability of aggressive reactions (Hennessy, 2008). As the length of the commute increases, the frequency of expressed hostility and obstructionism also increases, but only among male employees. The driving environment, particularly in frustrating situations, is a large factor because it can stimulate elevated levels of stress and arousal. Broome (1985) suggests there are multiple stimuli that may be interpreted as stressful including goals towards reaching the destination. The created time urgency can magnify and cause greater stress with commuting deadlines and pressures (Hennessy, 2008). Job stress increases as the severity of the traffic stress increases due to high congestion conditions. In higher congestion,

commuters tend to be more focused on other potential hassles (e.g., previous work issues) and the only stress experienced is from the traffic environment alone (e.g. greater amounts of traffic, closer vicinity of other vehicles, and slower paced driving). In times of low congestion there are less sources of immediate stress from the traffic itself and the stress results from spillover from the workplace. The findings confirm that stress has the opportunity to carry over to traffic situations, but the environment itself (in relation with individual factors) tends to influence the spillover of stress (Hennessy, 2008).

In contrast to car commuters, public transportation commuters find their journey to work as boring, not stressful (Lyons and Chatterjee, 2007). Public transportation commuters are less active participants in the commute and tend to experience less strain. However, public transportation commuters experience different types of stresses such as, train commuters who board at the first stop (longer commutes) tend to excrete lower levels of adrenaline than train commuters that board at mid-station. Moreover, the more commute stages (changes in bus/train times or modes of transportation) are positively correlated with absenteeism than actual time traveled (Kluger, 1998). Evans et al. (2002) studied rail commuters in New York and discovered “those who perceived their commute as more unpredictable felt greater levels of stress and had evidence of higher elevations of salivary cortisol (secreted by the body in response to physical and physiological stress) but did not have lower motivations in task performance” (Lyons and Chatterjee, 2007, p. 185). Commuters tend to be more stressed when they have no control over traffic volumes, delays, or unreliability of services. Thus, for public transportation users, the stress experienced is not due to the length of the commute, but by different factors that interrupt a routine trip.

## **Health Impacts**

Longer commutes create additional opportunities for both positive and negative health impacts for the individual beyond stress and fatigue. Various commuting characteristics play a role in the health deficits that result from a lengthy commute to and from work. Driving at slow speeds has been found to positively correlate with systolic and diastolic blood pressure. The commute length can also have an impact on the physiological outcomes of the individual including elevated risk of acute herniated lumbar intervertebral disk stress, cardiovascular stress, and possible associations with different forms of cancer. For example, the vibrations from the car have been linked to herniated lumbar intervertebral disks and elevated heart rates have been linked with pollutants inhaled from the air by drivers (Kluger, 1998).

One out of three Americans with a commute time over 90 minutes report to having neck or back pain, whereas the pain drops for people with less than a 10-minute commute to one-in-four people (Crabtree, 2010). The chances of a commuter suffering a heart attack within the next hour of the commute time nearly triples for commuters enduring heavy traffic. For women, the chances for a heart attack are almost five times higher than the norm (Tompkins, 2009, p. 47). In

addition to slow speeds and increased travel time, other characteristics such as, routine routes and changes in driving situations, can cause systolic and diastolic blood pressure, as well as concurrent cardiovascular stress (Kluger, 1998). Long commutes for the individual increase the chance for the employee to experience negative consequences in health and even job performance.

### **Job Performance**

In addition to the commuting costs, stress, and health factors of commuting, long commutes to work can impact workplace performance. Studies have found that the length of a worker's commute is positively correlated with employment consequences including absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, and job dissatisfaction (Kluger, 1998). The longer the driving distance and the higher traffic congestion, the more negative the evaluations of workplace behavior. As expected, drivers with stressful commutes had subsequent forms of workplace aggression, but only by males in the form of expressed hostility and obstructionism. According to Hennessy (2008), males were found to be more aggressive as a result of their daily hassles, but not because of aggressive personalities or stress load. Commuter stress is a serious issue that can harm workplace performance. The excessive stress from traffic conditions may exhaust coping mechanisms that workers need in order to deal with stressors in the workplace. Instead workers will begin to "construe workplace constraints as more demanding and stressful," which stimulate aggressive reactions (Hennessy, 2008, p. 2325).

## **MAIN FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO STRESS**

### **Congestion**

Congestion is a state of the environment in which individuals are exposed to high volumes of traffic and commuters exposed to it have diverse reactions (Casas & Kwan, 2007). Congestion is the number one major urban transportation problem that "reduces mobility, increases auto-operating costs, adds to air pollution, and causes stress" (US Department of Transportation, May 2006, p. 1). Individual responses vary to the concern of congestion depending on individual characteristics, as well as, the type of trip, level of congestion, available alternatives, and time constraints. Congestion is an overall issue that affects society and the environment as a whole, not just the individual (Casas & Kwan, 2007).

For the 439 urban cities in American, congestion in 2010 caused American commuters to travel "4.8 billion hours more and to purchase an extra 1.9 billion gallons of fuel for a congestion cost of \$101 billion" (Schrank, Lomax, and Eisele, 2011, p. 6). According to the National Household Travel Survey performed by the U.S. Department of Transportation (May 2006), nearly half of all Americans live in large metro areas, in which four out of five commuters find

congestion as a problem. Congestion is even worse for commuters during the peak period or “rush hour” and accounted for a yearly average delay of 34 hours in 2010, up from 14 hours in 1982 (Schrank, Lomax, and Eisele, 2011, p. 10). However, not all drivers during rush hour are heading to work; in fact, less than half of the vehicle trips in the peak periods are direct trips to and from work (U.S. Department of Transportation, May 2006). Since 1995, 25 percent of commuters made additional trips during their commute between home and work. Non-work travel has increased with the added trips during their commute to and from work for shopping, family errands, recreational activities, grocery shopping, etc. Congestion impacts time spent away from family and friends, but can benefit people by adding time to eat a meal (for public transportation users only) or talk on the cell phone (U.S. Department of Transportation, May 2006). Congestion over the past century has increased substantially, becoming a major factor in causing stress and added hassle for commuters (Schrank, Lomax, and Eisele, 2010).

### **FLEXTIME PROGRAMS**

Employees today have longer commutes than previous years and are feeling the strain from high gas prices, congestion, and other factors. The escalating gas prices have employers rethinking their benefits packages to ease employee’s commuting costs, similar to health insurance and childcare benefit packages. The stress of high gas prices has harmed worker’s productivity and is leading individuals to rethink their career choice. About half of U.S. employers have implemented programs to ease the stress of high gas prices to keep employees happy or attract new talent (Kiger, 2008). For example, Principal Financial imposed a deal with the local public transit in Des Moines to allow its 8,000 employees to ride the buses for free with a valid company ID. For the employees in which public transit is not an option, Principal Financial contributes \$35 a month for any employee that participates in a vanpooling program. The company also eased the multi-trip commute by adding a pharmacy, dry cleaning, and childcare center on site (Kiger, 2008). In addition, David Lewis, CEO of OperationsInc based out of Stamford, Connecticut, distributed American Express cards to his employees that drove to work and allowed them to charge up to \$100 a month in gasoline purchases. The thought of people re-evaluating their career priorities due to gas prices alone has pushed U.S. companies to find ways to ease the pain at the pump for the commuters within the industry (Kiger, 2008).

In addition to reimbursing employers for gasoline costs, companies all across the United States are beginning to institute flextime programs. Workplace flexibility is “the degree to which organizational features incorporate a level of flexibility that allows them [organizations] to adapt to changes in their environment” (Hill et al., 2008, p. 150). The flexibility program is largely in favor of the individual, but can also benefit communities by allowing employees to have a flexible schedule to arrange community service time. Workers are able to rearrange core aspects of their job in regards to where, when, and for how long they work. The central idea for

workplace flexibility is that “workers are human resources, whole persons with essential life needs outside of work” (Hill et al., 2008, p. 151).

In the flextime programs, workers are more motivated, loyal, and engaged when they perceive their job is more flexible to meet their underlying needs on and off the job. The organizations look at the workplace flexibility program as a way to rapidly change internal and external demands placed on the organization. Workplace flexibility enhances workers’ ability to serve their personal, family, occupational, and community needs. Prior to the program, organizations viewed workers’ needs as secondary to the needs of the organization, but individual’s needs are the essential means for the organization to reach their goals (Hill et al., 2008).

The program is set up to allow employees and supervisors the opportunity to have some choice in the decision as to when, where, and how they work. First, workers have the ability to arrange core aspects of the day to modify their work schedules. Employees can arrange when they arrive and leave work, as long as they work the core hours of 9:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m. Employees can also compress their work week, which means work the weekly hours in a four-day week rather than the standard five-day work week. Employees can also have the option of working from home by telecommuting or virtual office. The two options mentioned provide employees with the freedom to meet business and personal/family needs in a portable sense. According to Glass and Finley (2002), flexible work schedules have been positively correlated to improve employees’ productivity, organizational commitment, retention, morale, and satisfaction (Hill et al., 2008). The flextime program has also been connected to reducing employee’s morning stress, concerns over childcare, and physical strain. Commuters under the program had lower commuting stress and time urgency than employees without the program. With commute stress linked to problems at work, sleep quality, and health; flextime programs can lead to other beneficial results in employee job performance (Lucas and Heady, 2002). The flexible work program is the most powerful driver in engagement and retention amongst employees and is linked to higher levels of productivity. Even though workplace flexibility can be difficult for companies to arrange, the outcomes of the program prove that the benefits of flexibility can help an organization reinvent its culture.

## CONCLUSION

The implications of long commutes on individuals are evident, but the reaction to the situation is individual and varied. Commutes on average are a longer time commitment, rather than a distance issue, and cause workers to consider trade-offs in factors such as residential or work locations. From an economic standpoint, the availability of land in close proximity to workplace locations is limited; therefore, workers have to suffer the cost of the commute for employment opportunities. Gender differences are evident for women who have been found to have shorter commutes than their male counterpart due to their role in society as the main

contributor to childcare and household duties. Commuting costs are increasing for workers with longer commutes to and from work every day. The rising gas prices are causing individuals to make cutbacks on leisure activities so they can afford the commute. The rising gas prices and commuting costs are causing people to consider public transportation, but it is not available for people living outside the metropolitan area. The placement of an individual's house in relation to their employment location can be a large factor in considering if the commuting distance is worth the costs suffered.

For some commuters, the travel time between work and home can be valued as free time to think, converse, sing, escape, or as a transition between work and home. The art of traveling can be a gift to some commuters, but can be a sacrifice for other commuters. Commuting can be viewed for some travelers as a stressful or costly experience and produce negative outcomes physically for the individual and impact job performance. The stress experienced during the commute is largely due to exposure to high volumes of traffic, so some employers have taken action to implement flextime programs and other means to alleviate commuting costs. In conclusion, commuting can be viewed as a stressful or a costly experience, but overall, the commuter has the opportunity to choose the travel time experience of commuting.

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# TERRITORY AND PRIVACY IN ACADEMIC WORKSPACES

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## ABSTRACT

*According to psychologists, humans are territorial creatures (Ardrey, 1966, Lorenz, 1969; Brown, 2009). People tend to claim spaces and objects, mark them as “theirs” using verbal and nonverbal means, and defend them from the encroachments of others. One of the goals of claiming territory in the workplace is to ensure privacy—often regarded as necessary to ensure productivity, creativity, and quality in one’s work. Brown (2009) showed that, in the private-sector workplace, territorial behaviors are ubiquitous and inescapable. The current study aims to see how common such behaviors are in the academic workplace. Academia as a place of employment is distinct from private-sector employment in numerous ways; as such, one can expect that territory will be defined and communicated differently. This study found that in regards to territoriality and privacy, the academic workplace did indeed diverge from the business workplace. The behaviors identified by Brown were largely absent; however, they have been replaced by other, more subtle displays of territorial impulses unique to the academic environment. While faculty believe they have complete control over their offices—and administrators and co-workers claim to respect those boundaries—faculty still feel the need to mark, claim, and defend their spaces. Finally, in spite of the fact that they can close their office doors, faculty report a pervasive lack of privacy which drives many of them out of their offices altogether.*

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Psychologists and human behaviorists have long noted the tendency of humans to claim and defend territory (Ardrey, 1966, Lorenz, 1969; Brown, 2009). Employees tend to lay claim to both spaces (e.g., offices and cubicles) and objects (computers, phones, office supplies, files, etc.), and they communicate their possession of these places and items in verbal and nonverbal ways. Co-workers are expected to respect an employee’s territory by, for example, asking permission before using a claimed object or knocking on a door or other permanent item (such as a cubicle wall or desk) before entering another’s workspace. Employees also view their spaces as extensions of their identities and often arrange or decorate the spaces to communicate those identities to others.

Businesses, too, lay claim to the spaces and objects within their walls, viewing them as belonging to the organization and not to individual employees. In these cases, it is the business itself, through its management staff, that controls the assignment, use, appearance, and arrangement of spaces. Some businesses have introduced shared workspaces to increase efficiency or decrease costs; others have introduced “open” workspaces to encourage employee collaboration and creativity. Both of these types of workspaces complicate how individual employees can define which spaces are “theirs” and which are not. Even in traditional workspaces, where employees have their own offices or cubicles, employers declare their right to manage employees’ territories by limiting the amount or kinds of modifications (e.g., decoration, arrangement) employees can make on the spaces in which they work; many also enforce standards of cleanliness or orderliness. Nearly every business faces a continual process of territorial negotiation between employees and management; in other words, they are constantly asking (and answering), “Whose space is it, anyway?”

One example from the early 1990s shows just how difficult it can be for managers and employees to negotiate their respective territories—and how badly things can go awry if a working balance is not found. In 1993, Jay Chiat, CEO of Chiat/Day Advertising, declared that the company’s offices in Los Angeles and New York would become completely “virtual.” No more would employees have their own offices, cubicles, computers, phones, or file cabinets; instead, the Chiat/Day building would be “a freewheeling place where employees checked in each morning to get a workstation, then carried around laptops and cellular phones, plugging in wherever it felt right” (Pearson, 1999). Each morning, employees would check out Powerbooks from a concierge window, then receive a programmable portable phone from the company “store.” All equipment was to be returned at the end of the day (Berger, 199, para. 19). A few large conference rooms remained, though exclusively for meeting with clients. The only personal space employees had were lockers, housed in a separate area of the building, where they could keep personal items and put up, in Chiat’s words, “their dog pictures, or whatever” (Berger, 1999, para. 17). Chiat’s goal was to free employees from “cubicle bondage” and thereby encourage creativity, out-of-the-box thinking, and productivity. When his managers voiced the need for private space “to think,” Chiat replied, “You will be able to think because you’ll have *private* space—it just won’t be *personal* space” (Berger, 1999, para. 13).

Chiat’s experiment quickly encountered practical and psychological road blocks. Without offices and desks, employees had to haul papers, contracts, and storyboards around with them. One employee even used a child’s red wagon for this purpose, while others stored files in their cars. Employees were not allowed to sit in the same space more than one day at a time; Chiat himself would make them move if they did. The constant changing of phones and seating arrangements meant that much time was wasted trying to locate people and things; in one case, a manager spent two days vainly searching for the staff in his department. In addition, Chiat had ordered fewer laptops and phones than there were employees, so turf battles arose over

equipment, with some employees refusing to check the items back in at the end of the day or sending support staff in before 6 a.m. to check equipment out (Berger, 1999).

Faced with the complete removal of all that was “theirs,” employees became even more territorial. They started “staking out particular spaces for themselves”, even in the conference rooms that were supposedly for clients only. Employees would claim a chair, then say to others, in the words of one freelancer, “Get out—this is mine” (Pearson, 1999). Eventually, the Los Angeles office resorted to sign-up sheets to manage the use of spaces in the conference rooms (para. 32). One upper-level manager even took over an entire meeting room, asserting that it was “his” office “until somebody fires me” (Berger, 1999, para. 31). Within months, the experiment unraveled; before a year was out, makeshift desks, desktop computers, and personal workspaces had reappeared.

The failure of the Chiat/Day experiment shows both the emotional and practical consequences that arise when ordinary territorial impulses are not properly channeled or respected. In the end, even Jay Chiat himself acknowledged what he called employees’ “nesting requirement.” “It’s not so much having an office,” he said in an interview, “as having a place” (Pearson, 1999, para. 16). While this example is extreme, territorial behaviors make a regular appearance in nearly every workplace. Brown (2009) classified these behaviors into four categories: *identity-oriented marking*, *control-oriented marking*, *anticipatory defending*, and *reactionary defending*. *Identity-oriented marking*, also known as *personalization*, refers to the deliberate decoration or modification of an object or space by its owners to reflect the owner’s identity (Wells, 2000). Examples of identity-oriented marking in the workspace include displaying favorite knickknacks, travel souvenirs, or photos of family members. When people use modifications or objects to discourage others from accessing or using a space or object, they are involved in *control-oriented marking*. Some examples of this would be putting a sign with one’s name on it on one’s door or marking one’s lunch with a Post-It note in the office refrigerator .

Neither identity-oriented nor control-oriented marking ensure that co-workers or managers will not encroach upon what an employee sees as his or her territory. When people sense that others may be infringing on their territory, they often engage in defensive behavior. *Anticipatory defending* refers to behavior that is intended to prevent infringement before it happens. An example of this could be shutting or even locking an office door; the message to others is to keep out of the space. If an encroachment has already occurred, an individual may engage in *reactionary defending* to regain the lost territory. Examples of this kind of behavior include glaring and other expressions of irritation, seeking the support of co-workers in asserting their claims to territory, or filing formal complaints with management (Brown et al., 2005).

In 2009, Brown developed and administered a survey for measuring the nature and extent of workplace territorial behaviors. The survey presented the four categories of territorial behaviors with a list of sample behaviors under each category; respondents were asked to indicate on a seven-point Likert scale how often they had engaged in or witnessed the identified

behaviors. The survey was sent to 5,000 individuals in a variety of professions; of the 867 response, Brown identified 663 who worked with at least two other individuals. Of these, managers/supervisors (27%) and clerical/office staff (15%) made up the largest categories. The majority were female and had worked with their current companies an average of more than nine years (Brown, 2009).

The results of Brown's survey show that territorial behaviors are extremely common in the workplace. The incidence rates for the identified behaviors can be found in Table 1.

Category	Behavior	Incidence Rate (%)
Identity-Oriented Marking	Brought in personally meaningful photographs (e.g., friends, family, pets, activities you enjoy)	88
	Displayed artwork in my workspace	75
	Brought in work-related items (coffee mug, books)	91
	Decorated the space the way I wanted	86
	Put things in the workspace that represent my hobbies and interests	74
	Brought in items or changed the workspace to make me feel at home	83
Control-Oriented Marking	Created a border around my workspace	53
	Told people about the boundaries of the workspace	39
	Wrote my name all over the workspace	34
	Used signs to communicate that the workspace has been claimed	43
	Told people the workspace is mine	43
Anticipatory Defending	Delayed allowing others to use my workspace until it is clear to everyone that it is mine	28
	Enlisted support of others to protect my space when I am not there	29
	Developed formal rules to protect workspace	26
	Avoid leaving my workspace unattended	34
	Had authorities in the organization identify the workspace as mine	35
	Used locks and passwords so others cannot access my workspace	44
Reactionary Defending	Used facial expressions to express disagreement or dislike towards the infringer	64
	Avoided working with or interacting with the infringer in the future	44
	Explained to the infringer that the workspace was already claimed	53
	Devised a strategy to get back your workspace from the infringer	37
	Displayed hostility towards the infringer	43
	Complained to your supervisor about the infringement	49

The ability to exercise territorial behaviors—particularly marking behaviors—has a profound impact on individual employees as well as on the organizations they work for. Many researchers have noted that allowing identity-oriented marking or personalization in the workplace increases employee satisfaction and the level of commitment to the employer (e.g., Wells et al., 2007). Approximately 70% of U.S. workers personalize their workspaces (Wells &

Thelen, 2002), which makes them feel like “individuals” rather than “cogs in a machine” (Wells, 2000, p. 240). Personalization also helps workers cope with job stress and reminds them of positive aspects of their lives outside the office (Wells, 2000; Harris, 1991). The ability to put their mark on workspaces increases both job satisfaction and performance (Scheiberg, 1990; Donald, 1994; Wells, 2000). Even when companies have policies that forbid personalization, employees will find ways to do it anyway (Donald, 1994). Thus the ability to define territory—and to communicate the boundaries of that territory to others—plays a profound role in employee well-being.

Another important effect of having one’s own territory at work is the increased potential for privacy. Privacy has been shown to be a necessary element for creativity, innovation, and productivity. In the mid-1980s, Tom DeMarco and Timothy Lester, private management consultants, organized the Coding War Games, an annual productivity exercise for computer programming professionals. More than 600 developers from 92 companies competed in a series of coding and testing tasks to see which team was the best. In the end, there was an enormous gap between the competitors; the best outperformed the worst by more than 10:1. Years of experience, salary, programming language, and the number of defects had no impact on this outcome. Those who performed the best—defined as being in the top quartile—worked in spaces that were larger, more private, quieter, and freer from interruption than the spaces of those in the bottom quartile (DeMarco & Lister, 1999). In short, those programmers who had more clearly defined and respected territories performed best.

Unfortunately, trends in the modern workplace allow for less and less privacy and personal territory for employees. By 2000, about half of all businesses in the U.S. were organizing employees into work teams; that number has continued to increase dramatically (Cain, 2012). An overwhelming majority—about 90%—of managers support that approach; teamwork, they believe, increases both creativity and productivity among employees. Many businesses are moving to an “open office plan,” in which desks are clustered according to teams and in which cubicle walls have been removed so employees can see, hear, and interact with each other freely. Makers of furniture and other office supplies and systems are re-tooling to fit this trend. As James Hackett, CEO of Steelcase, a leading office furniture manufacturer, said, “Employees used to work alone in ‘I’ settings. Today, working in teams and groups is highly valued. We are designing products to facilitate that” (Cain, 2012, p. 76).

One realm that provides a striking exception to this—at least, in the minds of those who inhabit it—is the academic workplace. While many faculty engage in and espouse collaboration and teamwork with fellow faculty, as a rule they expect to have and control their own workspaces. T. Caesar (2004) expresses a common sentiment among faculty:

We are . . . bounded by our offices, and, once inside, a more sovereign realm exists for us, especially after office hours . . . In our offices, we need do nothing. Walls go all the way to the ceiling. There are doors! Arms outstretched, we can

dream away, about the students who will come, or the students who will never come, or the ideas we can try to write, or the ideas somebody else has already written. At least we're academics. At least we don't have cubes (p. 19).

The authors of the current pilot study believed that the academic work environment would cause its inhabitants to define their territories in ways not seen in other professions. In light of this belief, and the fact that there is a lack of literature on this issue, they set out to determine the nature and extent of territorial behavior among instructional faculty in university settings.

## METHODOLOGY

Twelve respondents—all full-time instructional faculty at five four-year institutions—were chosen to participate in individual interviews. To begin, these respondents were presented with Brown's four categories (identity-oriented marking, control oriented marking, anticipatory defending, and reactionary defending) and asked to provide examples of these behaviors they had observed or engaged in during the previous year.

All but one of the faculty members are tenured or tenure-track; the remaining faculty member is a full-time, permanent lecturer. They represent a range of fields in liberal arts, social sciences, business, and professional programs. Each of the respondents has his or her own office; none shared a workspace with anyone else. Each office had a locking door, and each faculty member was in possession of a copy of the key. Some of the offices had narrow windows running vertically alongside the door.

In addition to identifying behavior from Brown's four categories, the respondents were asked open-ended questions to solicit thoughts about the boundaries of their territories, the extent to which others may infringe on those territories, and how they manage privacy in their workspace. A copy of the survey can be found in Appendix A.

The respondents were also asked for demographic information, including their current position (tenured/tenure-track/non-tenure track, etc.), the length of time in their current position and at the institution, and previous or current status as an administrator. Responses to the survey questions were reviewed for common themes and were compared to the results of Brown's 2009 survey. The results of are presented below.

## RESULTS

The results of the current study show some both some commonalities with Brown's original study as well as some startling divergences. Many of the differences, the authors believe, reflect the unique nature of the academic workplace and lifestyle. The results also reflect differences in the cultures of individual departments, programs, and colleges.

### **Identity-Oriented Marking**

Brown reported that between 74% and 91% workers in non-academic workspaces engage in some form of identity-oriented marking. The same pattern appears in the academic workspace. All of the surveyed faculty members engage in identity-oriented marking to varying degrees. They bring photos, artwork, awards and plaques, collections (e.g., autographed baseballs), rugs, furniture, etc. to decorate their spaces and, in the words of one respondent, “make things more comfortable.” Many respondents also report that they or their co-workers decorate their doors with posters, cartoons, cards, and other items of personal interest. All of the respondents believed that their offices were representations of their chosen identities as individuals and professionals; one faculty member, a current department chair, even delayed moving into to the chair’s office until after his official appointment to that position to avoid inappropriately “marking” that office.

Unlike non-academic workers cited in the literature, none of the faculty members have ever felt pressure from administrators or department chairs to arrange or decorate their space in certain ways, or to tidy up a disorganized office or workspace. All of the faculty members even stated that it would be inappropriate—an infringement on their own territories—for an administrator to do so. One said, “The only thing anyone has ever told me about my space is that I can’t have a heater, and that I can’t shut the door when a student is in the office.” (Interestingly, this same faculty member has a heater in her space, but “no one has said anything” even though her department chair knows about it.) In short, their offices are “theirs,” and others have very limited say in what happens within that space.

### **Control-Oriented Marking**

According to Brown’s survey, between 34% and 53% of workers engaged in or observed control-oriented marking behaviors. In comparison, control-oriented marking was relatively rare in the academic workspace. All of the faculty members had nameplates on their office doors. Beyond that, none reported witnessing any of the behaviors indicated on Brown’s original survey. In fact, many of the respondents mention that co-workers in particular are very respectful of territorial boundaries. For example, when one faculty member stops by to chat with another, the visiting faculty member will often stand in the doorway of the office. They do not cross the threshold of the office and do not come in to sit down unless specifically invited. One faculty member said, “Sometimes they’ll stand in my door chatting for an hour!”

### **Anticipatory Defending and Privacy**

At least a quarter of Brown’s respondents reported engaging in or witnessing anticipatory defending in the workplace. While the behaviors he reported were relatively rare in the academic workplace, some anticipatory defending behaviors unique to academia did appear. These unique

behaviors centered around the closing or labeling of office doors, as well as the possession and use of office keys.

The closing of doors when a faculty member is present in his/her office is one of the most interesting behaviors in the current study. Certainly, closing a door is a means of anticipatory defending, intended to prevent others from entering or seeing into the space and to reduce noise and visual distractions. A third of the faculty members reported that it was expected for them to keep their doors open when they were present in their offices. These respondents mentioned that it was “rude” to shut a door when in the office. One respondent told of a faculty member who, before closing her door to make a private phone call, apologized to colleagues who were talking loudly in the hallway.

This pressure to keep the doors open has implications for these faculty members’ privacy. One respondent complained of the “racket” that happens as other faculty members and students engage in conversations in the hallway. Others complain of the tendency to get “swept up in conversations,” “interrupted by students,” or simply “distracted” by the activities of others in the office suite. In nearly all cases, the faculty members had a solution to this infringement on privacy: working at home. One respondent reported that she never plans to do anything “constructive” while she is in her office on campus; if she wants to do “serious” work, she stays home. Another respondent said that she spends no more than five hours a week in her actual office on campus; she teaches online classes and is allowed to have online office hours, which she monitors from home. The “noise and busy-ness” of the office are distracting to her, so she does her grading, curriculum planning, and other work at her home as well. Being in the office so few hours is the exception among surveyed faculty members, but this example illustrates a common behavior among those who feel pressure to keep their office doors open. It is, in a sense, the ultimate defending behavior—instead of engaging with others to establish the boundaries of territory or ensure privacy, the individuals simply leave.

In the remainder of the cases, faculty members reported that shutting a door was a common and accepted practice in their departments. At one institution, faculty members are required by contract to be on campus five days a week; thus, faculty members must do their own work (research, writing, and curriculum planning) while in the office. To encourage quiet and discourage interruptions, faculty members in this department close their doors as a way of “screening” interruptions “when you’re busy.” One of these respondents did report some ambiguous feelings about those closed doors, however; to them, the shut door meant “leave me alone,” which was “not necessarily the message we should send” to students.

Closing doors does not ensure privacy, however. Several of the offices have narrow windows running vertically alongside the door. One respondent reported that the window made her feel like she was “in a fishbowl.” Two of the institutions had policies mandating that these windows remain clear; however, faculty at these universities still covered them with curtains, paper, or other items. Faculty were well aware of the nonverbal messages sent by closed doors and covered windows and were conscious of the need for openness during office hours. One



said, "If a window is curtained and the light is off during office hours, that's the wrong message." Students rarely knock on a closed door, even during a professor's scheduled office hours, interpreting the closure as an indication that they should stay away.

One faculty member, a current department chair, devised a series of signs to clarify the message being sent by the closed doors. When working in his office, he posts a colored sign with text indicating how much privacy he requires at that particular time. A green sign indicates (text is paraphrased) "I am available; come right in." A yellow sign means, "I'm busy, but you may come in;" red means "I am busy; come back another time; and blue signifies, "I'm not in my office, but I'm somewhere close" and therefore available. With these signs, he can ensure that he is protected from noise and other distractions, and he also reduces the number of casual interruptions.

Another interesting issue arose around the possession of office keys. All respondents had keys to their own offices, the office suite (when one existed), and the building. The one lecturer reported, however, that a former department chair had tried to take her keys away; the chair believed that the lecturer was not truly "part" of the department and therefore did not deserve keys to the department's territories. In another, contrasting example, one respondent reported that a master key to all offices was readily available in a faculty common area; this was in a department where faculty members frequently closed their doors. Faculty members in this department regularly used the master key to put items in other faculty's offices or to borrow books or equipment. None of the faculty members of this department reported any discomfort with this practice. Interestingly, in an environment where faculty freely close off their space from the intrusions of others, these same individuals don't seem to mind co-workers coming into their spaces when they are not present.

### **Reactionary Defending**

Few examples of reactionary defending were reported by the faculty members, and all involved classrooms, not individual offices. In one case, a faculty member from another department was using the classroom belonging to one of the respondents' departments. This faculty member would rearrange furniture and equipment without returning it to its original order. This was considered an infringement on the department's territory; teachers were supposed to "erase" their presence after a class was over. Eventually, the department chair had to report the behavior to the dean of the college in order to compel the outside faculty member from rearranging the space.

## CONCLUSIONS

When compared to the workplaces surveyed by Brown, territorial behaviors are relatively rare in the academic workplace because an individual faculty member's territory tends to be clearly defined. It is also respected by others (including department chairs, the academic version of a supervisor) to an extent not seen in other professions. Faculty members believe that they have complete control over their offices, and chairs, administrators, and co-workers generally claim to respect that control. Having a defined and recognized territory, however, has not eliminated territorial impulses. These impulses are strong in academia, though they are expressed in different and more subtle ways than, for example, the ways in which they are expressed in the private-sector workplace.

In addition, having a clearly defined and respected territory does not mean that faculty members have privacy. The unofficial "open-door policy" in play in some respondents' departments means that, in the view of the faculty members themselves, they have to leave the office in order to ensure that they can work privately. In other departments where a shut door is acceptable, there are still certain rules that faculty must follow in order to avoid sending the "wrong message" to students. Thus, while the literature espouses a clear connection between having personal territory and having privacy, the connection is not as direct in faculty workspaces. The ability to separate oneself from an external environment—through the walls and closed door of an office—does not mean that privacy will necessarily follow.

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## Appendix A Interview Script

- Position
- Tenured
- Not tenured
- Years in position
- Years at institution
- Years in academia
- Are you currently an administrator?
- Have you ever been an administrator?
- Field

1. Briefly describe your office.
2. Are you satisfied with your office space? Why and/or why not?
3. What do you consider your territory at work?
4. Do you have adequate privacy in your workspace? Explain.
5. What are your privacy issues?
6. If there are issues, ask, "How do you solve your privacy issues?"
7. If there are no privacy issues, what do you do to ensure your privacy?
8. What do you need privacy for?
9. How would you rate the acoustic privacy of your office? (incoming or outgoing)
10. Visual privacy: can others see into your office when the door is shut? How do you feel about/dealt with this?

We've talked about privacy issues related to your workspace, and now we want to bring in the issue of territoriality. I will give you four general categories of behavior. Tell me if you have observed or participated in these behaviors in the past year.

- Identity-oriented marking, also known as personalization, refers to the deliberate decoration or modification of an object or space by its owners to reflect the owner's identity.
- Control-oriented marking refers to instances when people use modifications or objects to discourage others from accessing or using a space or object.
- Anticipatory defending refers to behavior that is intended to prevent infringement before it happens. (Also ask: what do you consider an infringement?)
- Reactionary defending refers to behaviors that people engage in when an infringement has already occurred.



## CULTURE PREDICTING LEADERSHIP

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### ABSTRACT

*In this age of globalization, one of the most important challenges that face organizations is acknowledging and appreciating the different cultural values and practices that exist in different parts of the world. Project GLOBE initially began with 21 primary dimensions of outstanding leadership that were subsequently reduced to six global leadership dimensions, which have come to be referred to as the culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory (CLT) behaviors. In addition to its research on leadership, the GLOBE research project provided empirical findings of the nine cultural dimensions (performance orientation, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, individualism, collectivism, power distance, humane orientation, and uncertainty avoidance).*

*In the current study, 852 working adults completed the Project GLOBE Questionnaire. For each question, the participant was asked to rate to what degree that behavior or characteristic inhibits or contributes to outstanding leadership. Participants were recruited from a variety of social networking sites. In the analysis, the two dimensions of leadership valued worldwide – charismatic/value based leadership and team-oriented leadership – were used as dependent variables. Two separate multiple regressions were run using the nine cultural preferences as primary predictor variables and the participants' age, gender and years of leadership experiences as control variables. Results of the predictors of preference for charismatic leadership indicated that six cultural dimensions were significantly related to charismatic/value-based leadership. Findings revealed that uncertainty avoidance, humane orientation, and power distance were inversely related, while gender egalitarianism, in-group collectivism, and institutional collectivism were positively related. The control variable of gender was a significant predictor of preference for Team-Oriented leadership. The more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to emphasize gender equality, reward collective distribution of resources and collective action, and are assertive, dominant and demanding in their relationships with others the more they wanted a team-oriented leader. The more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to rely on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events; to encourage and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others; to reward group members for performance*

*improvement and excellence; and for power to be distributed equally the less they wanted a team oriented leader.*

## INTRODUCTION

When conducting research in the field of leadership many options exist. Some researchers, for example, perform focus group interviews or case studies. The information garnered in these types of studies is very rich. However, typically these types of studies are conducted with small samples, which limit the ability to generalize their results. Additionally, even with methods of triangulation, these types of studies tend to lack something equivalent to an alpha level for establishing significance. They are primarily very rich, but descriptive information.

Many quantitative leadership studies tend to use the survey method. Generally, these types of studies fall into one of three designs. In *Leader-Only* types of studies, researchers ask leaders to complete self-assessments of how they lead. Demographic comparisons are often made, such as self-assessed leadership styles of women versus men. Leaders might also take a second instrument such as a personality assessment to assess the relationship between the constructs measured. For example, a researcher might explore relationships between leaders' personality scores and self-assessed leadership scores.

Leader-Only types of studies suffer from the problem of leader self-perception. Any working adult has encountered at least one leader who was a megalomaniac. The followers of that particular leader believed she/he was a very poor leader. Yet, the leader's inflated sense of self would result in that leader completing a self-assessment that would indicate she/he was an extraordinary leader. To some degree, the law of large numbers eventually accounts for some of this self-assessment bias, but it will still be present in leader-only types of studies.

In an *Other-Than-Leader* type of study, some combination of stakeholders assesses how the leader leads. Often these raters are the leader's followers, but they can also be peers, the leader's own boss or some other stakeholder group. This type of assessment provides a more realistic assessment of how the leader actually leads than does a leader-only study. One challenge to an other-than-leader study, however, is co-variation. While not absolute, in a large percentage of these types of studies follower independent variables such as age, experience and education often co-vary with the leader.

For example, a 60 year old leader who holds a masters degree and has been leading for 20 years "typically" is at an elevated level of an organization, compared to a leader who is 22, holds a bachelors degree and who is in her/his first year as a leader. More times than not, the followers who work directly for the 20 year veteran are also likely to have many years of leadership experience, advanced education, and so forth (Hang, van den Brink, & Groot, 2009). Conversely, the followers of the younger, new leader, more than likely hold educational credentials of college

or less and have more than likely had limited leadership experiences themselves (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Reeves, Culbreth, & Greene, 1997). These co-variations between leader and follower demographics can be, to some degree, controlled for statistically, but a large number of other-than-leader types of studies do not report the results of the many spurious follower variables that might influence ratings of the leader.

A third type of study is often called *Implicit Leadership*. In this type of study, no “actual” leader is rated. Rather, the concept of desired or outstanding *leadership* is measured. In these types of studies, participants complete a survey concerning their prototypes of what constitutes outstanding leadership. There may be a second instrument, such as personality, as well, in order to look at associations between the second construct and participants’ implicit views of what constitutes outstanding leadership, or the leadership scores obtained may be analyzed for participant demographics.

To date, the largest study of implicit leadership was the GLOBE Research Project (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, & Gupta, 2004). This study surveyed over 17,000 participants worldwide about what contributed to the participants’ concepts of outstanding leadership. The 17,000 participants were from 62 countries/societies.

The primary focus of the GLOBE study was to analyze how cultural preferences predicted leadership preferences. While the study added significantly to the body of literature related to implicit leadership, the study did not report how participants’ gender and education moderated their views of leadership. The present study builds upon the findings of the GLOBE Study by analyzing how participant variables of education, gender, age and leadership experience impact implicit leadership views.

## PREVIOUS STUDIES

### Project GLOBE

Although the pioneering work of Geert Hofstede in measuring the dimensions of leadership is seminal, over the last decade, a global study of culture and leadership in 62 societies has been published as Project GLOBE (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004, p. xv). The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project consisted of 17,370 middle managers from 951 organizations in three industries (finance, food processing, and telecommunications), making it the “most ambitious and large-scale international management research project that has ever been taken” (Morrison, 2000, p. 126; Leung, 2008, p. xiii). Its goal was to propose and validate an integrated theory of the relationship between culture and societal, organizational, and leadership effectiveness.

As defined by Project GLOBE, leadership is “the ability to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which

they are members” (House, Javidan, Dorfman, & de Luque, 2006, p. 102; Graen, 2006). Empirical evidence indicates that leader attributes, behavior, status, and influence vary as a result of the cultural forces in the countries or regions where leaders work. In addition, leadership differences may be the result of a person’s implicit assumptions regarding requisite leadership qualities. This assumption, developed by Lord and Maher (1991), would eventually come to be known as the implicit leadership theory (ILT) and helped guide the GLOBE research project. Using the implicit leadership theory, the GLOBE researchers set out to show that societal and organizational culture influences the type of leadership found to be acceptable and effective by people within that culture. Project GLOBE initially began with 21 primary dimensions of outstanding leadership that were subsequently reduced to six global leadership dimensions, which have come to be referred to as the culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory (CLT) behaviors (Javidan, Dorfman, Howell, & Hanges, 2010). These six leadership dimensions, which include team-oriented leadership, charismatic leadership, humane-oriented leadership, self-protective leadership, participative leadership, and the autonomous leadership style, reflect the ways in which managers worldwide differentiate between effective and ineffective leadership. Additionally, the data from this research also help present which leadership attributes are globally regarded as positive and negative, and which differ from one societal culture to another.

### **Culture and Leadership**

In this age of globalization, one of the most important challenges that face organizations is acknowledging and appreciating the different cultural values and practices that exist in different parts of the world. In addition to its research on leadership, the GLOBE research project contains crucially important findings for the cross-cultural field, particularly with the two aspects of culture that are frequently discussed in literature: generalizable cultural aspects that are common to all cultures to some extent and culturally specific aspects that occur in only some cultures and are not comparable across all cultures. The GLOBE research provided empirical findings of the nine cultural dimensions (performance orientation, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, individualism, collectivism, power distance, humane orientation, and uncertainty avoidance, House et al., 2004). Each cultural dimension was measured from two perspectives and at two levels; the extent to which they *valued* each of the nine cultural dimensions, followed by the extent to which they *practiced* each of the nine cultural dimensions.

As defined by Project GLOBE, culture is “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House et al., 2004, p. 15). The findings in Project GLOBE help identify the significant differences in values and practices for each of the nine cultural dimensions among the following ten global societal clusters; Eastern



Europe, Latin America, Latin Europe, Confucian Asia, Nordic Europe, Anglo, Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia, Germanic Europe, and the Middle East (House et al., 2004, p. 494-495).

### **Gender and Leadership**

Elsesser and Lever (2011) analyzed responses from 60,470 women and men who participated in a survey on the MSNBC web site. Among the findings were that men judged their female bosses slightly more favorably than their male bosses, and women judged male bosses slightly more favorably than their female bosses. When analyzing the relationships for leader sensitivity, no differences were found in the relationship quality of sensitive male and female bosses. Direct male bosses, however, had better relationships with their subordinates than direct female bosses. No differences in the relationship quality between bosses and followers were found for bosses judged to be highly competent as a result of the gender of the highly competent boss. However, male bosses considered to be low on competence had better relationships with their followers than female bosses considered to be low on competence.

In the seminal meta-analysis of gender and leadership, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and van Engen (2003) meta-analyzed 45 studies which compared men and woman on measures of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (passive-avoidant) leadership styles. The studies were conducted with people occupying leadership roles who were rated by their subordinates, peers, and superiors using the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. The results of the meta-analysis revealed that female leaders were more transformational and scored higher on the subscales of charisma, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration than their male counterparts. Female leaders also scored higher than males on the first subscale of transactional leadership, contingent reward. Male leaders scored higher on the subscales of management by exception active and management by exception passive. The study also found that women surpassed men in areas of leadership styles that were positively related to effectiveness while men's leadership styles had a negative relationship to follower effectiveness.

### **Age and Leadership**

While there are many studies that report leadership style and age, the vast majority of those studies are leader self-assessment studies in which leaders report how they believe they lead, rather than studies in which followers actually rate their leaders. Several, large sample studies, however, in which the leadership ratings are those of the followers do exist (Ng & Feldman, 2010). The overall findings of this body of literature seem almost stereotypical. Older leaders tend to be rated higher on dimensions of leadership, such as being calm, conservative, considerate, cooperative, and deferent to authority. Younger leaders tend to be rated higher on

being energetic, exciting, and friendly, but tend to emphasize short-term results, have a production focus, and are somewhat self-focused.

In one of the largest studies performed, Sessa, Kabacof, Deal and Brown (2007) analyzed 79,866 direct report ratings of leaders using the *Leadership Effectiveness Analysis* instrument. Participants came from more than 6,000 North American companies in 23 industries across 48 states. Older leaders were rated as more calm and as using a more considered approach that draws on the skills and abilities of others. Younger leaders were rated as more energetic. They were also seen as focused on attaining short-term results and were more self-centered.

Kabacoff and Stoffey (2001) administered the *Leadership Effectiveness Analysis* to 640 managers in the 25 – 35 year range and 640 managers in the 45 – 55 year range. Each manager underwent 360-degree evaluations from followers, peers and supervisors. Participants were from 282 North American companies. Older managers were rated higher on leadership that emphasized being conservative, practicing restraint, cooperation and deference to authority. Younger leaders were rated higher on strategic thinking, excitement, having a tactical, management focus and emphasizing production.

In a study of 285 team members and 21 team supervisors in the pharmaceutical industry, Kearney and Gebert (2008) found that the relationship between transformational leadership and team performance was positive when the leader was older than the other team members, but non-significant when the leader's age was closer to the mean age of the team members

Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin and Marx (2007) used the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* with 234 followers of 56 leaders from a variety of organizations. The 46+ age group was rated the highest for transformational leadership including the subscales of idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and effectiveness. The lowest ratings were given to the 36–45 age groups for intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Gilbert, Collins, and Brenner (1990) asked 1,634 employees to rate their immediate supervisors on 12 dimensions of leadership. Significance for leader age was only found on four of the 12 dimensions. Older leaders tended to delegate more effectively than younger leaders, while younger leaders were rated higher in the leadership dimensions of being a calming influence, being friendly and enjoyable.

## **Experience and Leadership**

The literature on experience is mixed. Several studies have found no relationship between leadership experience and ratings of leadership. Laurent and Bradney (2007), for example, in a study of 238 athletic training leaders, found no relationship between years of leadership experience and any of the five measures of the *Leadership Practices Inventory*. Corona (2010) found no relationship between years of professional experience, and emotional intelligence

among a population of 103 individuals from a national Hispanic American business organization. In a study of 870 elementary school principals. Eren and Kurt (2011) found no relationship between the experience of the principals and their technological leadership behaviors. Juras and Hinson (2008) analyzed differences in financial performance of top performing and worst performing bank holding companies as a result of a series of board of directors' characteristics. No differences were found in the companies' Return on Assets or Return on Equity as a result of the average tenure of the board of directors of the companies.

Other studies have found limited relationships between experience and leadership. In a meta-analysis of 64 independent samples representing 10,884 leader-member dyads, Sin, Nahrgang, and Morgenson (2009) found that the length of the leader-follower relationship was positively related to leader-member-exchange (LMX) loyalty, but unrelated to LMX affect, contribution and professionalism. In a study of 3,900 teachers from 81 schools, Williams (2009) found that the tenure of the principal was unrelated to student achievement, negatively related to the number of disciplinary incidents on campus and positively related to campus culture. Ejaz, Rehman, and Zaheer (2009), in a study of 93 respondents from the Pakistani banking system, found that experience was positively related to the leadership dimensions of developing others, developing self, supporting team, pursuit of excellence and accountability but was not related to the leader's ability to identify follower pain, business acumen, commitment or interpersonal skills.

## **PARTICIPANTS**

In this study, 852 working adults completed the *GLOBE Research Questionnaire*. Participants were recruited from a variety of social networking sites. There were 260 male and 592 female participants. The participants' ages ranged from 21 to 72 with a mean of 43. Management or leadership ranged from 0 to 36 years. The mode was 1 year of experience, the median was 3, and the mean was 5.

## **INSTRUMENT**

The instrument used was the *Project GLOBE Leadership Questionnaire*. This instrument has been used by over 20,000 participants worldwide. To develop the instrument, two empirical pilot studies were conducted in 28 countries to assess the psychometric properties. In the first pilot study, the survey was distributed in 28 countries to people who had full-time working experience as a white-collar employee or manager. Exploratory factor analysis, aggregation analysis, reliability analysis, and intra-class correlations were then conducted on the results of the surveys. A second pilot study was conducted in 15 countries that did not participate in the

first pilot study in order to replicate the scales in a different sample. The results confirmed the findings from the first pilot study and verified through aggregation tests their target level of analysis.

The instrument consists of 112 questions. For each question, the participant is asked to rate to what degree that behavior or characteristic inhibits or contributes to outstanding leadership. The rating scale ranges from one to seven. The instrument measures six second-order dimensions of leadership and nine dimensions of culture.

### **CONSTRUCTS MEASURED**

**Power distance:** The degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally. Followers are (should be) expected to obey their leaders without question.

**Uncertainty avoidance:** The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules & procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events. Most people lead (should lead) highly structured lives with few unexpected events.

**Humane orientation:** The degree to which a collective encourages & rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others. People are generally (should be generally) very tolerant of mistakes. Aging parents generally live (should live) at home with their children.

**Institutional Collectivism:** The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action. Leaders encourage (should encourage) group loyalty even if individual goals suffer.

**In-Group Collectivism:** The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations or families. Aging parents generally live (should live) at home with their children.

**Assertiveness:** The degree to which individuals are assertive, dominant and demanding in their relationships with others. People are (should be) generally dominant.

**Gender egalitarianism:** The degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality. Boys are encouraged (should be encouraged) more than girls to attain a higher education. (Scored inversely.)

**Future orientation:** The extent to which a collective encourages future-oriented behaviors such as delaying gratification, planning & investing in the future. More people live (should live) for the present than for the future. (Scored inversely.)

**Performance orientation:** The degree to which a collective encourages & reward group members for performance improvement & excellence. Students are encouraged (should be encouraged) to strive for continuously improved performance

Charismatic/value-based leadership – ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values.

Team-oriented leadership – emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members.

## METHOD

In this analysis, the two dimensions of leadership valued worldwide – charismatic/value based leadership and team-oriented leadership – were used as dependent variables. Two separate multiple regressions were run using the nine cultural preferences as primary predictor variables and the participants' age, gender and years of leadership experiences as control variables.

## RESULTS

### Predictors of Preference for Charismatic/Value Based Leadership

The control variables of age, gender and years of management experience were entered as block one in the regression, using the stepwise method. None of the control variables were significant predictors. Block two contained the nine ratings of organizational cultural preference. As shown in Table 1, using the stepwise method, six cultural preferences were significant.

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change	Beta Weight	Partial Correlation
1 GE	.163 <sup>a</sup>	.026	.026	20.732	.000	.132	.126
2 UA	.228 <sup>b</sup>	.052	.026	20.594	.000	-.155	-.140
3 IGC	.242 <sup>c</sup>	.059	.007	5.256	.022	.230	.151
4 HO	.294 <sup>d</sup>	.087	.028	23.304	.000	-.305	-.199
5 PD	.308 <sup>e</sup>	.095	.008	7.088	.008	-.122	-.112
6 INC	.317 <sup>f</sup>	.100	.005	4.485	.035	.083	.077

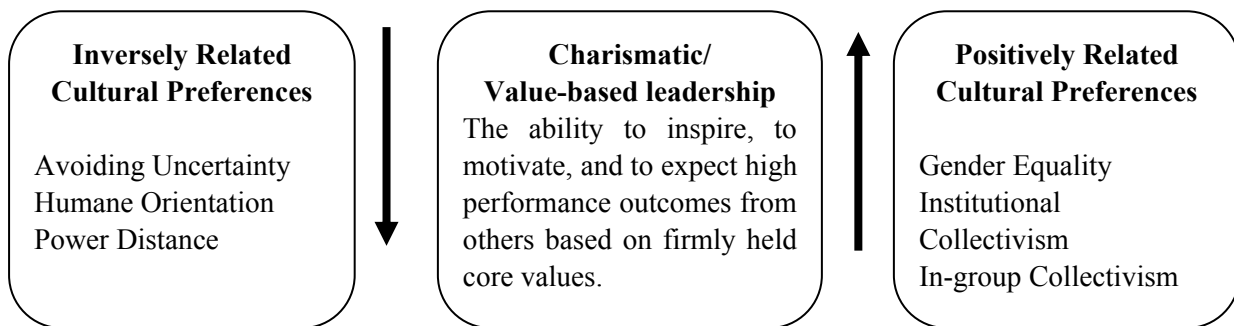
Predictors: 1) Gender Egalitarianism (GE), 2) GE, Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), 3) GE, UA, In-Group Collectivism (IGC), 4) GE, UA, IGC, Humane-Orientedness (HO), 5) GE, UA, IGC, HO, Power Distance (PD), 6) GE, UA, IGC, HO, PD, Institutional Collectivism (INC)

Using both the beta weights and partial correlations for interpretation, the more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to emphasize gender equality, express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations and reward collective distribution of resources and action

collective action, the more they wanted a charismatic leader who inspires, motivates, and expects high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values and a team oriented leader who emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members

The more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to rely on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events; to encourage and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others; and for power to be distributed equally the less they wanted a charismatic leader.

**Figure 1. Cultural predictors of charismatic/value-based leadership.**



### **Predictors of Preference for Team-Oriented Leadership**

The control variables of gender was a significant predictor of preference for Team-Oriented leadership ( $R^2 = .01, p = .03$ ). Female participants ( $M = 5.86$ ) rated team oriented leadership as slightly more important to being an outstanding leader than did male participants ( $M = 5.72$ ). As shown in Table 2, using the stepwise method, seven cultural preferences were significant.

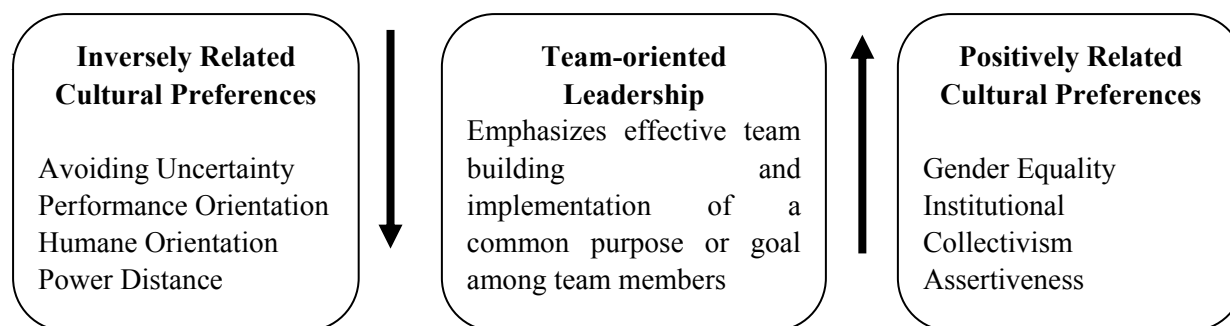
Using both the beta weights and partial correlations for interpretation, the more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to emphasize gender equality, reward collective distribution of resources and collective action, and are assertive, dominant and demanding in their relationships with others the more they wanted a team-oriented leader who emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members.

The more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to rely on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events; to encourage and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others; to reward group members for performance improvement and excellence; and for power to be distributed equally the less they wanted a team oriented leader.

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change	Beta Weight	Partial Correlation
1 G	.089 <sup>a</sup>	.008	.008	6.115	.014	.031	.032
2 GE	.180 <sup>b</sup>	.033	.025	19.359	.000	.108	.101
3 UA	.216 <sup>c</sup>	.047	.014	11.288	.001	-.130	-.118
4 INC	.243 <sup>d</sup>	.059	.012	9.941	.002	.311	.182
5 PO	.274 <sup>e</sup>	.075	.016	13.356	.000	-.182	-.097
6 PD	.293 <sup>f</sup>	.086	.010	8.517	.004	-.125	-.116
7 AS	.301 <sup>g</sup>	.091	.005	4.259	.039	.079	.080
8 HO	.310 <sup>h</sup>	.096	.005	4.474	.035	-.135	-.077

Predictors: 1) Gender (G), 2) G, Gender Egalitarianism (GE), 3) G, GE, Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), 4) G, GE, UA, Institutional Collectivism (INC), 5) G, GE, UA, INC, Performance Orientation (PO), 6) G, GE, UA, INC, PO, Power Distance (PD), 7) G, GE, UA, INC, PO, PD, Assertiveness (AS), 8) G, GE, UA, INC, PO, PD, AS, Humane-Orientation (HO)

**Figure 2. Cultural predictors of team-oriented leadership.**



## DISCUSSION

Results of the predictors of preference for charismatic leadership indicated that six cultural dimensions were significantly related to charismatic/value-based leadership. Findings revealed that uncertainty avoidance, humane orientation, and power distance were inversely related, while gender egalitarianism, in-group collectivism, and institutional collectivism were positively related.

With regard to uncertainty avoidance, results indicated that the more respondents wanted to avoid uncertainty avoidance, the less they desired a charismatic leader. In other words, the more the respondents wanted their workplace culture to rely on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events, the less they wanted a charismatic leader. This coincides with results of the GLOBE Study, which found charismatic leadership to be less likely to be a part of the shared leadership belief system in societies reported to espouse uncertainty avoidance values (House et al., 2004, p. 642-643).

Results indicated that the more respondents wanted a humane-oriented workplace, the less they wanted a charismatic leader. In short, the more respondents wanted their workplace culture to encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others, the less they wanted a charismatic leader. These results did not coincide with results of the GLOBE Study, which showed a positive relationship where charismatic leadership was more likely to be a part of the shared leadership in organizations reported to espouse humane orientation values (House et al., 2004, p. 594). It is important to note that societal and organizational values will be more strongly related to CLT leadership dimensions than societal and organizational practices. With regard to humane orientation, all of the explained variance was associated with forces at the organizational level of analysis only. Thus, only the organizational (and not societal) humane orientation value scores were positively related to the charismatic dimension in the GLOBE Study. This may explain why our results do not match those of the GLOBE Study.

With respect to power distance, results indicated that the more respondents wanted more power distance in the workplace, the less they wanted a charismatic leader. To further enumerate, the more respondents wanted power to be distributed equally in the workplace, the less they wanted a charismatic leader. These conclusions correspond with those of the GLOBE Study, which found charismatic leadership to be part of the shared leadership belief system in societies reported to espouse power distance values (House et al., 2004, p. 552).

Concerning gender equality, the more respondents wanted their workplace to emphasize gender equality, the more they wanted a charismatic leader. These results agree with those of the GLOBE Study, which found that charismatic is more likely to be part of the shared leadership belief system in societies with high gender egalitarianism value scores (House et al., 2004, p. 382).

In relation to institutional collectivism, results indicated that the more respondents wanted a more collectivistic environment, the more they wanted a charismatic leader. In other words, the more respondents wanted their organization to express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness, the more they wanted a charismatic leader. These results were similar to those of the GLOBE Study, which found that charismatic leadership is more likely to contribute to



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effective leadership in organizations with high institutional collectivism practices and values (House et al., 2004, p. 496-497).

Lastly, in reference to in-group collectivism (individualism), results indicated that the more respondents wanted a more individualistic workplace, the more they wanted a charismatic leader. To elaborate, the more respondents wanted a workplace that rewards the collective distribution of resources and collective action, the more they wanted a charismatic leader. These results coincide with those of the GLOBE Study, which found that charismatic leadership is more likely to contribute to effective leadership in organizations with high in-group collectivism value scores (House et al., 2004, p. 498).

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## **SOCIAL MEDIA: A LEADERSHIP CHALLENGE**

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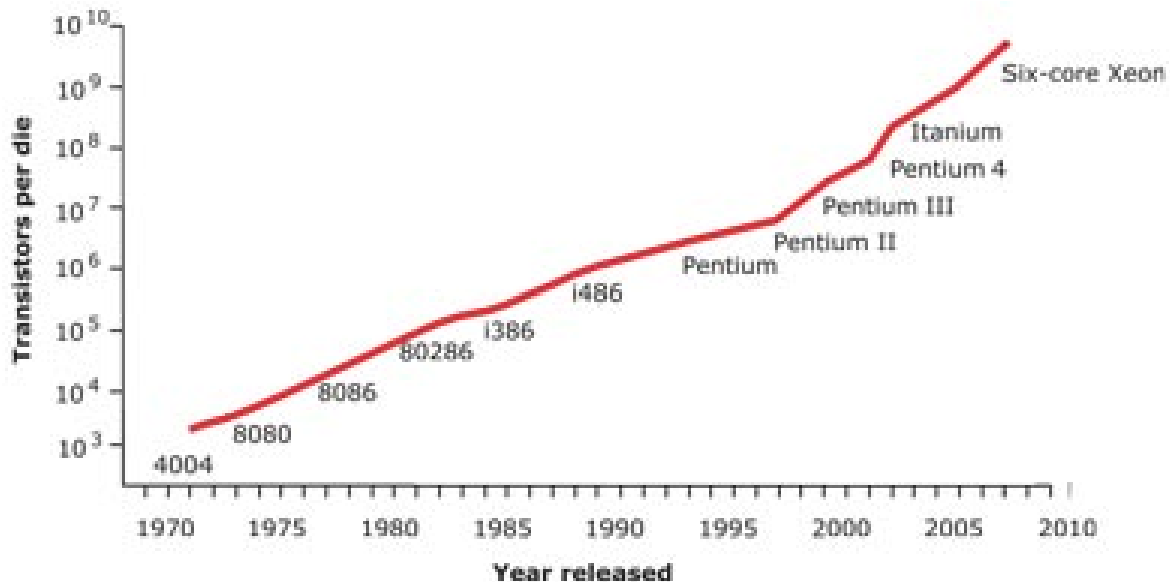
### **ABSTRACT**

*Global technological explosion is impacting social learning in organizations at an alarming rate. Over the last decade, communication tools have facilitated social learning, making employees better informed and encouraging broader perspectives and better decisions. Research indicates that generational differences may cause significant challenges among employees where Baby Boomers and Gen-Xers tend to avoid new technologies while Millennials and Gen Z tend to expect them. Bingham and Connors (2010) argue that leaders and critics have several concerns regarding new social learning technologies. Concerns include beliefs that organizations will never embrace social media, employees will post inappropriate things, employees will post incorrect information, and social media systems will compromise sensitive information. Incorporating Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership can help leaders leverage new social learning technologies for both personal and corporate benefit.*

### **INTRODUCTION**

Today we are witnessing a rapid cultural shift in how people communicate both on and off the job. Standard telephone landlines, mail, and even email to an extent are vast becoming obsolete to a technological shift that is taking place with social media. Not only is this *social media* expedited through devices such as hard-wired phones and computers, but through even more accessible Wi-Fi enabled devices such as personal computers (PC) and mobile phones also. Social media hand-held devices such as smart phones (many have quadrupled the computing power of yesterday's computers) that use mobile computer software operating systems (e.g., Apple's I-Phone and Blackberry phones), combine functions of high-resolution touch-screens, computing web browsers, compact digital cameras, pocket video cameras, and GPS navigation systems are changing how fast one can gain access to information and increased communication possibilities. Also, collaborative social media tools (e.g., wikis), community websites (e.g., organizational blogs), corporate intranets, knowledge management systems, and personal note taking services allow creation and editing of any number of interlinked web pages via a web browser. The rate at which these "smart technologies" are becoming available to the consumer is increasing exponentially.

Figure 1: Moore's Law (Kuniavsky, 2010)



Moore's Law states that the number of transistors per square inch on integrated circuits have doubled approximately every 18 months (See Fig. 1) since their invention (Investopedia, 2011). This phenomenon can be witnessed with the inventions of the most recent technological advances such as hand held phones with up to 64 gigabytes of storage space, 1 gigahertz dual core processors, 1080P video, and 5 to 8 mega-pixel camera. You can get a hand-held device that has more computing power than most desktop or laptop computers and includes gaming, a camera, and ability to take videos for under \$600. Over the last decade, the number of Americans who purchased cell phones has grown from an estimated 128.5 million in 2001 to an estimated 298.4 million in 2011 (WolframAlpha, 2011), which equates to 232% growth of cell phones purchased over the last 10 years. The United States ranks third in the world with India second at 525.1 million and China at number one with 747 million cell phone users (WolframAlpha, 2011). These technological advances, along with generational shifts in our workforce, are keeping our businesses and organizations in constant flux locally and globally.

### GENERATIONAL COMPARISONS IN THE WORKPLACE

Demographic shifts in the workplace are significantly impacting our organizations. It has been estimated that by 2014, half the workforce will consist of Millennials (a.k.a. Generation Y; 1981-1997) (Bingham & Conner, 2010). Unlike Generation X and the Baby Boomers that preceded them, Millennials are more comfortable with the current explosion of technology over the last decade and are more adept at using it. Chulik (2011) mentions that it's not so much that Millennials are tech savvy, rather than *tech dependent*. As Generation Z (born after 1997) enters the workforce in the near future, they will have an even better grasp of technology and will most likely scoff at the technology we are using today.

Baby Boomers are most likely to rely on television news and newspapers while both Generation X and Y tend to use the internet just as much (if not more) for news. Over 75 percent of Generation Y has profiles on social networking sites (Pew Research, 2010). Dickey (2010) found that 97 percent of Generation Y participants studied used Facebook at least once each week. A study by Riley and Obermayer (2008) found that phone texting was an effective method for providing cessation interventions to Generation Y smokers. Richardson and Lenarcic (2008) found that mobile texting was the most effective way to communicate with college students. Rettie, Grandcolas, and Deakins (2005) analyzed text messaging advertising as a new tool in marketing communications. Short messaging service (SMS) was found to be an effective interactive tool that combines the impact of telemarketing, email, and mobile commerce, especially for Generation Y. Beaubien (2008) found that Generation Y job hunters have grown accustomed to the jargon and abbreviation of text messaging that they are using the same language and abbreviations on important email scripts even when emailing prospective employers.

Another demographic shift in the workforce that has the potential to increase the use of social media is that of females in the workforce. Currently, women make-up approximately 49% of the nation's total work force; however, it's predicted that, within the next decade, 60% of the total work force will be female, a group with more potential to use social media networking for communicating than males (Bingham & Conner, 2010).

### **Generational Work Values**

Greenberger (2008) found that Millennials demonstrated a sense of entitlement to good grades which was not related to their actual academic abilities. Erickson (2009) found that members of Generation Y also wonder why they do not receive pay raises and promotions after six months on the job. A recent study conducted by Price-Waterhouse-Coopers (2008) found that corporate responsibility is critical to Generation Y, and the great majority (88%) indicated that they will seek an employer whose related values match their own. In a study of over 19,000 members of Generation Y, Ng (2010) found that more than two-thirds (68.5%) of respondents expect to be promoted within the first 18 months in their first job. They rated opportunities for advancement as the most important of 16 job attributes.

Smola and Sutton (2002) found that Gen-Xers in comparison to Baby Boomers wanted to be promoted more quickly than their older counterparts, were less likely to feel that work should be an important part of one's life, and were generally found to be less loyal to the company and more "me" oriented. Gen-Xers and Baby Boomers have also been found to differ with regard to their desire for fulfillment, desire for flexibility, and focus on monetary benefits. Gen-Xers want challenging tasks accomplished within the workday whereas Baby Boomers want their challenging tasks to be accomplished over several days; Gen-Xers want to have flexible hours whereas Baby Boomers prefer regularly scheduled hours; and Gen-Xers want a portable 401K with lump sum distribution whereas Baby Boomers want retirement plans with benefits (Rodriguez, Green, & Ree, 2003).

## Generational Differences in Perceptions of Leadership

Arsenault (2004) found that Baby Boomers ranked honesty as more important in effective leadership than Gen-Xers and Millennials did. Boomers also ranked caring as more important, whereas Gen-Xers and Millennials ranked determination and ambition as more important. Baby Boomers and Gen-Xers ranked competence more important than Generation Y.

Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, and Brown (2007) analyzed 447 responses on the *Leadership Descriptive Sort*. Baby Boomers rated credibility, trustworthiness, listening well and being farsighted as the most important leadership attributes. These were generally shared with Generation X who ranked leader credibility, trustworthiness and farsightedness as the most important leadership attributes. While Millennials rated listening well as a top attribute, their other top choices, however, differed. Millennials rated leader dedication, focus, optimism and as their other most important leader attributes. Sessa et al. summarized the differences by indicating that Boomers value attributes that suggest a politically astute leader with experience and a big-picture orientation and a desire for a global leadership image and education. Gen-Xers value attributes that suggest an optimistic and persuasive leader with experience. Millennials want a dedicated and creative leader who cares about them personally.

Warner and Sandberg (2010) found that those leading Generation Y should create room for as much autonomy as possible and should set broad and challenging targets and milestones. Gibson, Ian, Albeion, Peter, and Gutke (2010) found that Generation Y workers embrace collaboration through a shared leadership model. Gen Y employees seek change and challenge and they want managers to create clear, timely career paths. They value communication and prefer an environment of transparency and respect for staff (Health by Design, 2008).

	GENERATION Y	GENERATION X	BABY BOOMERS
PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP	Dedication Focus Optimism Follower Autonomy Clear Career Paths Transparency	Credibility Trustworthiness Far-sighted	Honesty, Credibility Trustworthiness Listening well Far-sighted
WORK VALUES	Expectation of promotion Concern for corporate responsibility	Work to Live Job mobility Flexibility	Live to Work Company loyalty
USE OF TEXTING	Seen as a part of life	Used regularly	Often seen as an interruption
USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA	Seen as a part of life	Used regularly	Increasing in use

## NEW TECHNOLOGIES

These new technologies are providing a platform to accelerate learning potentials in the workplace. The workplace is trying to keep pace with these rapidly evolving technologies, but is leadership ready for this change? Social media is fast becoming a viable vehicle for learning.

Technological advances that impact how we communicate are impacting the normal learning curve in most organizations (Bingham & Conner, 2010). Organizations that encourage workplace learning and allow their employees to have social media access have the potential to increase the organization's competitive advantage. Senior leaders, especially in innovative company's such as Google, IBM, Apple, etc, are always looking for cutting edge technology to support learning and give the company a competitive edge (Bingham & Conner, 2010). Social media has the potential to help employees, partners, teams, and customers work together more effectively across departments and within organizations to accelerate and broaden individual and organizational reach (Bingham & Conner, 2010). Bingham and Conner (2010) describe this phenomenon as *social constructivism*; "the theory of knowledge that seems to best describe how people learn together, whether in person or online."

### **A LEADERSHIP MODEL**

The abundance of challenges that these new technologies present for organizations is inevitable. How leadership responds to these challenges will determine how successful organizations will be in integrating new technologies and bridging generational differences. There are many leadership models; however, one that is popular and focuses on creating change within organizations through a transformational approach is Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership: 1) Model the Way, 2) Inspire a Shared Vision, 3) Challenge the Process, 4) Enable Others to Act, and 5) Encourage the Heart. Leadership is action-oriented and about *behavior*. If modeled correctly and applied consistently, these leadership practices can help create an environment where social media concerns are proactively assessed and integrated, employees feel included as part of the solution, and change is more acceptable.

#### **Organizational Concern 1: Organizations Will Never Embrace Social Media**

##### **The Concern**

Although social constructivism seems great in theory, Bingham and Conner (2010) discuss four organizational concerns impacting leadership. The first is that leaders believe that their organizations will never embrace social media (Bingham & Conner, 2010). If social media is allowed in the workplace, leaders are concerned that only a few will use it, and it will be almost impossible to control or measure (Bingham & Conner, 2010).

##### **The Benefits**

Bingham and Connor (2010) state that social media is a set of Internet-based technologies designed to be used by three or more people and is shaping how people communicate (e.g., microsharing). Microsharing is social networking tools and systems that enable communication and collaboration between people through multimedia content. These new social learning tools can be implemented for free and can be used for information-sharing, corporate training,

collaboration, and co-creation of documents and informal information (Bingham & Conner, 2010).

### **The Leadership Required**

Using Kouzes and Posner's model (2007), leaders can *model the way* by clarifying and affirming why it is important for the organization to use social media systems and setting an example by using social media systems to communicate. Leaders can also *inspire a shared vision* within the organization by envisioning exciting possibilities for the future and creating a common vision among employees by appealing to shared aspirations; thus, creating buy-in (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Leaders can also enable others to act by fostering collaboration in using social media by building trust and developing teams that encourage use; thus developing new competencies (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Leaders can also *encourage the heart* of employees by praising employees for using the social media systems and communicating the positive impacts these systems have had on the organization; thus creating an anchoring effect for change (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

## **Organizational Concern 2: Employees Will Say or Post Inappropriate Things**

### **The Concern**

Leaders worry that allowing employees to use social media in the workplace is too risky because employees will say or post inappropriate things related to the organization (Bingham & Conner, 2010). Wikis or blogs (via intranet) allow employees to post things as they happen; however, news breaks much faster via popular social networking sites such as Facebook, LinkedIn, or microsharing sites like Twitter. Corporate fear may stem from the rising potential and opportunity for employees to post messages about the organization via a social media platform such as Twitter. Leaders are concerned that employees may say things that belittle or degrade management or the entire company, which has the potential to hurt the company's reputation. Even big news-breaking giants such as CNN and Fox News search Twitter for the most current info.

### **The Benefits**

Social media tools can be highly effective for collaboration and learning as long as people are educated in their proper use. Many organizations enforce standards of conduct, proper use of phones, email etc, which helps instill a corporate set of values and expectations. Microsharing is a powerful way to connect people to one another for corporate benefit.

### **The Leadership Required**

By *modeling the way*, leaders can inform employees of what is expected in the use of social media in the workplace and hold them accountable for their actions. Intranet blogs and



wikis can be controlled where only employees can access the information. When they post a comment or question, it is linked to an employee number or name that will control for negative postings. These controls will significantly decrease the potential of an employee posting something negative about the organization or other employees.

### **Organizational Concern 3: Employees Will Post Incorrect Information**

#### **The Concern**

Leaders are also concerned that employees will post incorrect information; thus eluding to the notion that social media cannot be governed (Bingham & Conner, 2010). Many believe that a finished product is more valuable because it has most likely gone through the system, reviewed, and checked.

#### **The Benefits**

A living document, such as one posted on a wiki or blog is updated, revised, and reviewed continuously where the most current data can be incorporated on the fly. Bingham and Conner (2010) say that this has the potential to eliminate re-accomplishing documentation that becomes obsolete by the time it has been reviewed, changed, and approved through a normal bureaucratic process.

#### **The Leadership Required**

According to Kouzes and Posner (2007), leaders must *challenge the process* by challenging the status quo and looking for innovative ways that social media can improve the current processes. This requires leaders to experiment with new social media systems (e.g., wikis) and take risks by generating small wins and ensure everyone learns from the experience.

### **Organizational Concern 4: Social Media Systems Compromise Sensitive Information**

#### **The Concern**

Leaders who work in organizations with highly competitive markets, where information is viewed as unique, or that deal with classified information are concerned social media systems will compromise competitive, classified, or privileged information (Bingham & Conner, 2010).

#### **The Benefits**

Practicing good governance of social media systems and encouraging employees to participate knowing they bear responsibility for protecting sensitive information will allow “living intelligence” to permeate the organization. This increases the efficiency and effectiveness of a corporate intranet verses a company’s internet site.

## The Leadership Required

Leaders can *model the way* by setting up and using intranet wikis or blogs that are only visible and accessible to the organization itself. These procedures, along with the previous controls mentioned, can allow companies or organizations to control what is posted and to whom. This will *encourage the hearts* of employees to utilize social media for sensitive information and *inspire a shared vision* throughout the organization.

## SUMMARY

In summary, the use of new social learning systems is permeating organizations at an unprecedented rate. With Generation's Y and Z in line to run organization in the near future, it is more advantageous for leaders to embrace this opportunity than avoid it. Training and discussions on the proper use of social media and individual responsibility and accountability is essential for organizations to embrace the learning power of social media. Leaders can use Kouzes and Posner's Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership to help transform their organizations into social media-savvy organizations that promote timely and up-to-date information-sharing and learning; thus creating a future-oriented organization. Bingham and Connor (2010) state *this new approach to social learning transcends social media, training, and workplace learning practices of the past*. It offers more information sources, more dissemination points, and an open approach to a wide network of communicators and collaborators who can help work flow better (Bingham & Connor, 2010).

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