

Doctoral
seminar Series...

Third Degree

LECTURERS AS LEADERS

Are they “transformational?”

FUEL POVERTY

**Inevitability or avoidable
social ill?**

VIRTUAL LIVING

**Communication in the
internet era**

E-LEARNING

**An introduction to current
systems**

RETAIL AND SUPPLY

**Using accountancy
techniques for trust**

DESTRUCTIVE LEADERS

Where do they come from?

Doctoral *seminar* Series... Third Degree

February 2013

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February 2013 issue

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Welcome to *Third Degree*, the new termly publication of the *Doctoral Seminar Series*. *Third Degree* offers an opportunity for doctoral researchers within the University of Sheffield's Management School to disseminate their research, review the research of others, and for staff and doctoral researchers alike to engage fully with their doctoral community. As such, to make *Third Degree* a success we need contributions from both staff and doctoral researchers.

Writing for *Third Degree*

We welcome articles between 2,000 and 3,000 words written by doctoral researchers in relation to their research projects. If you would like to write an article please get in touch (details on this page).

Reviewing for *Third Degree*

Articles submitted to *Third Degree* are peer and staff reviewed prior to publication. If you would like to review submissions, and in doing so gain invaluable experience, we would love to hear from you.

Other ways to contribute

There are many ways to contribute to *Third Degree*. We welcome letters, advice columns (related to work, careers, and research), and any other contributions relevant to doctoral research and broader academia. To make a contribution of any kind please get in touch with Pete (pcrellin1@shef.ac.uk) or Rob (rmarchand1@shef.ac.uk) at any time.

We hope you enjoy reading the first issue!



Third Degree

February 2013

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Editorial



It is with great pleasure that I introduce the very first edition of *Third Degree*. The decision to create the publication stemmed from a shared vision of research collaboration and dissemination, not just within our own Management School, but between our Management School and the Management Schools and Business Schools of other universities. The aims of *Third Degree* reflect those of the *Doctoral Seminar Series* as a whole, which are: (1) to provide doctoral researchers with a platform for academic skills practice and constructive feedback, and (2) to offer a gateway for doctoral research dissemination and engagement.

The present (and first) issue of *Third Degree* sets us in good stead for those issues that will follow later. The working papers published here highlight a number of contemporary research concerns for management scholars of varying disciplines. Those interested in the quality of social experiences and their relevance to organisations, for example, will enjoy the articles focussed on virtual bullying (Sam Farley), destructive leadership (Peter Crellin), instructor leadership (Paul Balwant), and supplier-retailer trust (Richard Bruce). Those interested in knowledge sharing in the modern day will be pleased to read about

e-learning in current times (Uday Nair), whilst those with curiosity as to how government policy can impact on poverty will take pleasure in reading the discussion of fuel poverty in the United Kingdom (Robert Marchand).

Beyond the working papers we have invaluable advice from one of the Management School's experienced academics, Angela Carter, who talks about her experiences of media engagement. Angela's tips are also complemented with insights from first year doctoral researcher Stephen McGlynn, who shares lessons learned from an ESRC media training day.

Finally, we end the present issue by rounding up the term's doctoral seminars in the form of seminar abstracts. Over the term we have had talks covering a variety of topics such as destructive leadership, fuel poverty, information technology and supply chains, strategy and accounting, dietary habits when working away from home, and the food industry's response to changes in the global economic climate. All seminars have been very informative and wholly beneficial to all those staff and students who attended. We look forward to welcoming many more speakers and listeners to our future seminars.

It just remains for me to thank everyone who has helped bring *Third Degree* to fruition. Thanks go to our authors, our reviewers, our staff contributors, our seminar speakers, the staff who work behind the scenes to help things go as smoothly as possible, and the *Doctoral Seminar Series* team who have worked over the term to establish a good deal of what is included here. Thanks must also go to anyone who is taking

the time to read the publication - after all, it is you we do this for. A recurrent sentiment, but I hope everyone enjoys reading this and future issues.

Best wishes,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Pete', written in a cursive style.

Pete

Around the Management School

Crookesmoor Progress

Progress continues to be made on construction of the new Management School building in Crookesmoor, which is scheduled to open mid 2013. The £11.5m new building will boast three lecture theatres with capacities between 60 and 200 students, seminar rooms, an executive suite, an employability hub, academic offices, a cafeteria, and recreational gardens. To keep up to date with developments at the site of the new building please the web page (sheffield.ac.uk/management/about/new_facilities).



The envisaged Crookesmoor reception area

Stephen McGlynn Management School Student's Union Councillor

The Management School and Institute of Work Psychology's Doctoral Researcher Stephen McGlynn was elected as Management School Councillor to the Students' Union and Student Representative for the Faculty of Social Sciences on University Senate for the 2012-2013 academic year. Congratulations to Steve, who says he is looking forward to the challenge ahead.



Councillor Stephen McGlynn

Upgrades

Congratulations to all the doctoral researchers who successfully upgraded from MPhil to PhD at the start of the academic year. Those who underwent upgrade over the period August 2012 to October 2012 include:

- Andrew Timmis
- Claudia Henninger
- Cumali Uri
- Ehimen Ejodame
- Eyad El-Habel
- Paul Balwant
- Peter Crellin
- Robert Marchand
- Seyed Ebrahimi
- Stylianios Pourgoures
- Sylvia Acquah
- Uday Nair
- Usman Ladan
- Wei Xiang

PhD Successes

Our warmest congratulations go to the following individuals

who successfully defended their theses during 2012:

- Zazral Purewsuren
- Bannaga Ibrahim
- Olga Onoshchenko
- Ibtisam Al-Wahaibi
- Abdul Majeed Al-Sawafi
- Suzanne Hamlin
- Nicola Newman
- Ying Wang
- Noor Hashim
- Jinning Hong
- Meda Al Rowas
- Juliana Meira

Around the World

Conference Papers

The University of Sheffield Management School doctoral researchers have been busy getting their papers into conferences in many different places. During 2012, papers were accepted for presentation by **Legha Momtazian** at the *British Academy of Management 2012 Conference* in Wales and the *25th*

News and Events

European Business Ethics Network Annual Conference in Spain, **Peter Crellin** at the *British Academy of Management 2012 Conference* in Wales, by **Ehimen Ejodame** at the *Annual Symposium on Management and Operations* in Taiwan, **Rob Marchand** and **Liam Goucher** at the *9th International Conference on Supply Chain Management and Information Systems Conference* in China, **Qionglei Yu** at the *2012 Academy of International Business Southeast Asia Regional Conference* in China, and **Louise Patterson** at the *Asia Pacific Association of Business Communication Conference* in Korea, the *Allied Academies Spring 2012, International Internet Conference* in the USA, and the *5th Global Business and Social Science Research Conference* in China.

Journal Papers

Congratulations to **Louise Patterson** who has had papers accepted for publication in *Academy of Strategic Management Journal (ASMJ)* and *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict (JOCCC)*. Louise also has a paper under review with *Asia Pacific Business Review*.

Further congratulations are extended to all those successes that are not mentioned here directly.

White Rose

White Rose DTC 2012-2013 Launch Event

The White Rose Social Science DTC 2012-2013 got underway in October as The University of Sheffield hosted its second introductory conference for first year doctoral researchers. The event outlined the goals of the DTC and sought input from new researchers in terms of what they would like to see.

New researchers were also introduced to the *Doctoral Seminar Series* of both the University of Sheffield and the University of Leeds in a hope to encourage interest and collaboration in research activities being undertaken across the DTC as a whole.

The DTC will hold a number of further events hosted by all three of the participating universities throughout the academic year. Events will be concerned with building networks and training research skills. The DTC also plans to launch its own working paper series to encourage collaboration and development. For further information about the White Rose DTC and its upcoming events please visit the website (whiterose-social-science-doctoral-training-centre.ac.uk).



Doctoral Seminar Series.

DSS Methods

No one is better placed to talk about particular research methods than those who have tried and tested them. *Doctoral Seminar Series Methods* provides a platform to learn about the application of specific research techniques from those who use them in their own research.

October 2012

Interview Skills in Management Research

*Claudia Henninger
Doctoral Researcher
The University of Sheffield*

Claudia guided us through the use of interviews for collecting data in management research. Punctuated with examples from her own work and with a welcoming, no questions barred attitude, the talk was a great opportunity to explore one of the main research techniques used in management research with someone utilising it in their current work.

December 2012

Introduction to Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and Measurement Theory

*Paul Balwant
Doctoral Researcher
The University of Sheffield*

Paul's session entailed a brief overview of SEM including latent



White Rose
Social Science DTC

Universities of Leeds, Sheffield & York

News and Events

variables, importance of theory in developing models, and benefits of SEM compared to other multivariate techniques. As part of his session, Paul went through the first step of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step SEM process using an example. This step involves: (1) defining individual constructs, (2) developing the overall measurement model, (3) designing a study to produce empirical results, and (4) assessing measurement model validity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). The second-step of Anderson and Gerbing's two-step SEM process is scheduled to be covered in a separate session.

For more information about *DSS Methods* please contact either **Paul Balwant** (ecp11ptb@sheffield.ac.uk) or **Claudia Henninger** (cehenninger@sheffield.ac.uk).

DSS Engagement

Doctoral Seminar Series Engagement helps researchers to understand how they can engage with the wider community and demonstrate the real life importance of what they do.

November 2012 *Infographics and Public Communication*

Matt Bird
Senior Management
UKCES

Who does your research engage with? Are you speaking to the right people? How can you make your work speak to those it affects? Matt Bird from the UK Commission for Employment & Skills (UKCES) aimed to answer these questions with examples from work he has been involved with.

Matt used his interactive workshop to explain how to effectively utilise and engage with audiences. Whether those attending were interested in designing more thought provoking presentations, eye-catching posters, or simply putting messages across more effectively, they learned that knowing how you portray your story is the key to success. With examples of best practice learned from UKCES, top tips for applying the discussed principles to work, the opportunity to ask questions and to interact with a UKCES senior manager, the event was well worth attending.

For more information about *DSS Engagement* please contact **Zahra Shah** (eca06zs@sheffield.ac.uk), **Ciara Kelly** (c.kelly@sheffield.ac.uk), or **Andreana Drencheva** (ecp12amd@sheffield.ac.uk).

Doctoral Seminar Series 2013



Wednesday 16th January,
DSS Guest Seminar
Juliana Matos de Meira



Wednesday 27th February
DSS Research
Speakers TBC



Wednesday 30th January
DSS Research
Legha Momtazian
Christine Sprigg



Wednesday 13th March
DSS Engagement
Jenny Brown - BBC
Engaging the Media



Wednesday 13th February
DSS Methods
Peter Crellin
Experiments



Wednesday 27th March
DSS Research
Speakers TBC

Living in the Virtual World: Trials and Tribulations of Communicating in the Internet Era

Sam Farley

Institute of Work Psychology, Management School, The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom

Abstract

This paper explores the increasing preference of employees to communicate virtually rather than face-to-face. The globalisation of businesses has seen virtual communication become an essential aspect of everyday working life however the implementation of technology has come with certain costs. The article analyses the drawbacks of communicating *via* email, social networks and video conferencing. Suggestions are made on how to support their use in organisations.

Keywords: anti-social behaviour; cyber bullying; electronic communication; social media; video conferencing; virtual world

by the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service which found that 68% of employees would rather phone or email their colleagues than talk face to face, this article examines the costs of communicating virtually at work. The paper will begin by outlining the concept of media richness. Three different computer mediated communication (CMC) methods currently employed in the workplace will then be described, along with the problems associated with their use, and suggestions for how organisations can integrate communication technology without compromising working relations. Email, social media and video conferencing are analysed as these are the three most prevalent internet enabled mediums in modern organisations.

expression, voice tone, gesture and body language is available. In contrast leaner media lack certain communication cues and vary in their ability to convey personality, express language and provide immediate feedback (Daft & Lengel, 1986).

Rich methods of communicating are said to be the most effective in resolving ambiguity in complex tasks. In contrast lean media are said to be more effective for simple tasks, such as sharing documents. The volume of information available during face-to-face communication has led researchers to deem it the gold standard of communication (Rutter, 1984). Yet some have argued that computer mediated communication (CMC) offers advantages over face-to-face communication, such as the ability to manage impressions and achieve social and career goals (Walther, 1996).

Introduction

“I’m going out Sam” my housemate told me on a rare sunny evening in our flat. “Where are you going?” I replied. Keen to ensure that I wasn’t missing out on anything that would get me off the sofa.

“Just going on a date”

“With who?”

“This girl from the internet”

The girl did not turn out to be from the internet (she came from Rochdale) but we chuckled at the thought that she had come from all the way from a virtual world just to see Mark. Our conversation did however raise a thought about the ways people communicate in the 21st Century. In light of new research

Media Richness

Communication theorists have often sought to classify CMC methods in terms of how much information they transmit in comparison to face-to-face communication (Short, Williams & Christie, 1976). One of the most influential theories in this field is media richness theory proposed by Daft & Lengel (1986). Originally developed to inform managers on how to select appropriate communication media for a task, the theory states that communication methods differ in their levels of richness, which refers to the amount of information a communication channel can transmit in a given time. Face-to-face communication is considered the richest method as every type of information, including facial

Email Communication

From its inception in the late 1960’s the internet has transformed the world, spawning several of the most popular modern day communication methods. The oldest and most well-known is email, a purely textual form of communication between two or more communication partners. Email is now the most widely used communication tool in the business world (Royal Pingdom, 2012) and a recent survey found that 62% of the US adult population use it on a regular basis (Zickuhr & Smith, 2012). Although email has been classified as one of the leanest forms of communication

media (Daft & Lengel, 1986), it does offer advantages over face-to-face, as messages can be reviewed as often as desired and revised before sending (Friedman & Currall, 2003). Additionally emails can be sent without the attention of the communication partner, are cheap to produce and take little effort to send (Friedman & Currall, 2003).

Despite these advantages email is being misused in organisations. Rather than using it to support communication, employees have come to over rely on email when a simple phone call or short meeting would be more appropriate (Sarbaugh-Thompson & Feldman, 1998). The lack of social, non-verbal and feedback cues in text based messages also makes people less sensitive to the thoughts and feelings of others (Siegel, Dubrovsky, Kiesler & McGuire, 1986). This effect, known as deindividuation, can cause individuals to send emails without prior consideration of how they might be interpreted. Interview data recorded by Zuboff (1988) highlights this phenomenon:

‘When I discuss something on the computer, in the back of my mind I know somebody else is going to hear it, but it isn’t as obvious as if we were all in one room. It’s like I know the tape recorder is running, but I kind of block it out’ (in Kiesler & Sproull, 1992: 104).

The deindividuation process enables people to write things they might not say in face-to-face conversation. Although in some cases this is advantageous, such as sending the boss an email asking for a pay rise, it also makes it easier to write things that might cause offense to colleagues. Consequently Friedman and Currall (2003) have theorised that the characteristics of email enhance the probability of

conflict escalation. Similarly Byron (2008) argues that a neutrality and negativity effect occur in email communication, whereby employees perceive positively intended messages as emotionally neutral and neutrally intended messages as emotionally cold. There is a wealth of research which supports these claims. Academics have found that virtual teams like each other less and are less connected than face-to-face teams (Hinds, 2000; McGrath & Hollingshead, 1994). Furthermore, a study by Lim and Teo (2009) conducted in the Singapore financial service sector revealed that 91% of participants had experienced cyber incivility from their supervisor.

Numerous suggestions have been proposed to counter the ill effects of email communication. In cases where colleagues work in the same office, individuals should consider whether face-to-face might be more appropriate for a particular task (Daft & Lengel, 1986). In distributed work teams Axtell, Fleck and Turner (2004) propose that employees try to understand the perspective of their communication partner. Other strategies include selecting creative leaders with excellent communication skills and facilitating face-to-face communication as much as possible (Oertig & Buergi, 2006). A recent empirical study concluded that a competent project manager, clear communication rules and staff trained in using different technologies are needed if a virtual project is to be completed successfully (Verburg, Bosch-Sijtsema & Vartiainen, 2013).

Although email communication offers significant advantages for modern organisations, overreliance on the medium decreases efficiency and lowers staff morale. The deindividuation effect observed in computer mediated communication

highlights the need for employees to be aware that misunderstandings and conflict are more probable when using lean media such as email. Suggestions for improved email communication include perspective taking, clear communication rules and staff training. However a more radical idea is to implement an email free week once per year. An excellent study by Mark, Volda and Cardello (2012) cut off email usage for five days among 13 employees working in a scientific research organisation. Heart rate monitors showed that the employees were significantly less stressed during the period and had longer task focus.

Social Media

In the social world email has been supplanted by social networking sites as the most popular way of communicating (Qualman, 2009). It may not be long before a similar thing happens in organisations as the implementation of social networking in businesses is increasing (Huy & Shipilov, 2012). Kaplan and Haenlein (2010, p.61) define social media as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of user generated content”. Here Web 2.0 refers to sites that offer an interactive, collaborative and participatory experience for web users (Solis & Breakenridge, 2009). The most prevalent examples include Twitter, Facebook and MySpace, sites that allow users to share their identity through the posting of web links, opinions and pictures.

It is predicted that in 2012 the number of social media users worldwide will reach 1.43 billion, a figure representing more than one fifth of the world’s population

(eMarketer, 2012). Although it may seem that these sites are unstoppable juggernauts that spread across continents turning people into internet zombies, social media has enriched the lives of millions and it has organisational advantages. A survey of 1,060 executives found that 50% worked in firms that had adopted social media. Of these, 60% said that the integration had a positive impact (Huy & Shipilov, 2012). This may be because employees use tools such as blogs and wiki's to discover new corporate information (Kim, Lee & Hwang, 2008).

Interview data on the use of social media at work has revealed that networking sites may be advantageous for building ties and advancing careers. A qualitative study conducted on twitter users in a large IT company found that the adoption of social media at work allows users to keep in touch with colleagues, share work related information and find common ground (Zhao & Rosson, 2009). Experimental research at IBM seems to confirm these views. The study found that employees utilised the organisations social network Beehive to connect with colleagues less known to them and advance their careers by strategically connecting with decision makers (DiMicco, Millen, Geyer, Dugan, Brownholtz & Muller, 2008). Moreover DiMicco *et al.* (2008) highlight the fact that organisations can use data on employee's connections, interests and activities to better understand their workforce.

The social media revolution does however come with a number of bugs which need to be addressed. Using social media to connect with colleagues during work time can be unproductive, one executive described the use of social networking

sites at work as a 'productivity killer' (Skeels & Grudin, 2009, p6). There is also a lack of clarity over the rules which govern social media usage. A qualitative study by Skeels and Grudin (2009) revealed that participants experienced difficulties when mixing their professional and personal lives on Facebook, particularly in respect to what content their superiors could view. One participant revealed the problems of combining the professional and private through two postings on his Facebook page (p.102):

August 14: having to decide between two great job offers -- any advice is appreciated.

August 16: just re-remembering that everyone can see my status message.

In this instance the participants colleagues were able to see that he was considering other job offers, a sensitive subject that he would have preferred to keep from them. This problem is similar to one experienced by victims of cyberbullying as the prevalence of technology at home makes it harder to escape the views and opinions of colleagues (Patchin & Hinduja, 2006).

Misuse of social networking sites can also result in termination and disciplinary procedures. Two domino's pizza employees were dismissed for posting a video on YouTube showing them preparing food by putting it up their noses (Clifford, 2009). It seems that the problem with the posting of opinions or photos on the internet is that, unlike in face-to-face or telephone conversation, once something has been stated in cyber space it is very difficult to remove.

This has implications for employees posting potentially sensitive

information at work, as a significant organisational problem with networking websites concerns the leaking of confidential information (Sanchez Abril, Levin & Del Riego, 2012). The blurring of private and public boundaries can result in damaging publicity and reduced competitiveness. For example, Premier League football clubs have banned their players from posting information that may be useful to their competitors, such as injuries to teammates and tactical intelligence.

The rise of social networking has resulted in a new generation of tech savvy employees. Organisations are seeking to capitalise on the popularity of social media, as potential benefits include new methods of organisational learning, a more connected workforce and a greater understanding of employee's interests and skills. If organisations wish to install networking sites it has been suggested that clear policies are outlined prior to implementation (Sanchez Abril *et al.*, 2012) and that new users should take the time to learn about the basic rules of a site before participating (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). Yet the problems associated with social media do not seem a viable method of connecting employees at work. Not only would implementation reduce productivity levels but the creation of a unique social networking site to be used solely by an organisation would come at a great financial cost. Whereas allowing employees to communicate through publically available sites would increase the potential for confidential information leaks and misuse of work time.

Video Conferencing

Video conferencing technology has existed in organisations for decades, however the development of high speed internet connection

and cheap software means that most organisations can adopt the technology if they so wish. Video conferencing allows communication partners to see one another when communicating and it provides a shared workspace, enabling colleagues to sense environmental cues, thus adding meaning and context (Whittaker & O'Connell, 1997). These facets make it one of the richest forms of CMC and the closest to face-to-face communication (Townsend, Demarie & Hendrickson, 2001).

Businesses are choosing to adopt video conferencing for a multitude of reasons. The most obvious is that having a video conference eliminates the need to pay travel costs and saves employee time (Sakthivel & Chang, 2010). Research also indicates that video conferencing possesses several benefits over other CMC methods. A study by Daly-Jones, Monk and Watts (1998) that compared high quality audio conferencing with high quality video conferencing found that video conferencing enabled more fluent conversation. Furthermore, the use video communication has advantages over and above those associated with organisational performance as having a video conference instead of travelling to a business meeting results in 80% fewer carbon emissions (Takahashi, Tsuda, Nakamura & Nishi, 2006).

Though video conferencing is a richer medium than email and social network communication, there are still a number of problems that make face-to-face a more desirable method. Firstly it is much harder to develop relationships through video conferencing. A study that looked at whether psychologists would use the medium for psychotherapy revealed concerns that relationships would not be as warm, empathic,

sensitive or understanding when therapy was conducted through a computer (Wray & Rees, 2003). Empirical evidence supports these claims as research has shown that it takes longer for video conferencing teams to develop trust than face-to-face teams (Bos, Olson, Gergle, Olson, & Wright, 2002). This may be because there is a greater chance of misunderstandings and conflict when using conferencing. Olson and Olson (2000) described a misunderstanding between a virtual team based in the United States and Europe. In their desire to save money on the video call the United States team members hung up without giving the European team a proper farewell. The misunderstanding was due in part to the Europeans lack of knowledge regarding the pressure the Americans faced in cutting costs by hanging up early, and partly due to the Americans lack of knowledge over what constituted a proper good bye.

It is not just interpersonal relations which suffer when video conferencing is chosen over face-to-face communication. Experimental research on undergraduate students found that the face-to-face condition was significantly more productive than the video conferencing condition when collaborating on a software design task (Andres, 2002). Communicating *via* video also takes longer (Doherty-Sneddon *et al.*, 1997) and is less satisfying than face-to-face working (Nowack, Watt & Walther, 2009). Evidence even suggests that the use of video conferencing can result in cognitive overload (Hinds, 1999) and that although high quality video provides more information, employees prefer low quality video as it is less distracting when completing a task (Matarazzo and Sellen, 2000).

As organisations continue to globalise

video conferencing will become an essential tool for connecting employees. Advances in technology have made it a rich and affordable method of communicating that offers significant organisational benefits. Although colleagues using conferencing develop trust at a slower rate than face-to-face teams, research suggests that if employees are trained to use video conferencing and given an easy-to-use document sharing system they can complete tasks in less time than face-to-face groups (Sakthivel & Chang, 2010). A strategy proposed by Rusman, Van Bruggen, Sloep and Koper (2010) involves providing virtual team members with information about one another to augment trust. Similarly meeting face-to-face regularly has been shown to moderate the relationship between team empowerment and process improvement (Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2004). A final point is that like co-located teams, virtual teams must have a common goal to keep them cohesive as without a shared purpose, team members have no reason to communicate (Lurey & Raisinghani, 2001)

Conclusion

This essay has analysed the benefits and problems of using email, social media and video conferencing to communicate in the modern organisation. Arguments have been put forward as to why face-to-face communication remains the gold standard of communication and suggestions have been proposed for how virtual correspondence can be used to support this method. The article has only focussed on three CMC methods, but it should be noted that phone calls, text messaging and instant messaging have their own unique advantages and costs in the workplace. The benefits of computer mediated

communication methods are vast and organisations will need to continue to exploit them to remain competitive. Future research should focus on how an overreliance on CMC impacts on the quality of face-to-face communication and how new media, such as networking sites, can be implemented successfully. In conclusion Ned Kock (2004) makes the point that humans have evolved to communicate face-to-face, therefore this is the most natural and effective way of communicating. However he points out that where people adapt to a communication method and use it continuously over time, it becomes a more natural method than face-to-face. If we continue to rely on virtual communication this suggests a future in which employees are only comfortable communicating through machines, though we may have reached this point already.

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CYBERBULLYING RESEARCH STUDY PARTICIPANTS NEEDED

Participants are needed for a study
on cyberbullying in the workplace.
Cyberbullying is a novel form of workplace
bullying and to better understand its nature
and impact, your opinions are needed.

If you would like to take part in this
research please contact Sam Farley, doctoral
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A brief introduction to current E-learning systems

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Abstract

Research in the field of e-learning systems has been going on for the last five decades. But over this period, implementation of an effective and affective learning system within Universities in UK have not been up to date, with the changing technological trends, and the growing needs of its users/learners in the 'information age'. This paper tries to theoretically look at some of the contemporary e-learning system practices used in the education sector and tries to highlight some of the criticisms towards these practices, pointing out the need for Universities to explore the potentials of the existing VLE's to its fullest than to use it merely as a data repository.

Keywords: e-learning; education; electronic systems; multimedia; technological advancement; technology

Research has been undertaken in the field of e-learning for the last 50 years as a result of which the area has transformed all forms of education, learning and training encountered during the 21st Century (Brown, 2000; Garrison *et al.*, 2003). But the last three decades of e-learning can be summarized as follows: in the 70's, people focused on corporate education and in-house training. Courseware content was mostly designed in a top-down manner, and was well-managed by incorporating trainee performance databases. In the 80's, the focus was on personal education: some systems provided user modeling and tutoring capabilities, and/or micro-world environments. In the 90's and the first half of that

decade, they focused on Web-based e-learning for a number of reasons: (1) easy and standard authoring of learning contents in HTML or *via* Apple's HyperCard system, (2) publication and sharing of learning contents and their components, (3) ease of forming user- and/or author-communities, (4) easy delivery of learning content, and (5) easy development of distributed e-learning environments (Tanaka, 2005). Today the increased use of Internet technologies for delivering training, education and learning has been heralded by some as the 'e-learning revolution' (Welsh *et al.*, 2003).

We can define e-learning in broader terms as on-line learning that takes place in a formal context and uses a range of multimedia technologies (Garrison *et al.*, 2003). In addition E-learning can also be defined as the use of computer networking technology, primarily *via* an intranet or through the Internet, to deliver information and instruction to individuals (Welsh *et al.*, 2003).

Over a period of time, e-learning systems have tried to adopt the goal of trying to blend diversity and cohesiveness into a dynamic and intellectually challenging learning environment. E-learning and the technologies used in the design of such environments have been able to progressively remove the barriers of space and time, thereby possessing the capacity of being able to deliver knowledge/information anytime and anywhere (Welsh *et al.*, 2003). With some help coming in from mobile telecommunications technology. E-learning systems have developed the ability to bring together the different learning

features of independence and collaboration, and have also created the potential to support/be supported by both synchronous and asynchronous communications using different formats, ranging from text to voice to video.

Despite previous research advances concerning the potential benefits of using e-learning (Welsh *et al.*, 2003) by using the above stated definition of e-learning, we can sense the broader potentials and scope of enrichment among e-learning systems deployed in the training, teaching and learning domains. There are some concerns and questions that have been raised over a period of time. Brown (2000) tries to ask what e-learning's relative advantages and whether they are compelling enough to force a re-conceptualization of the teaching and learning transaction? Garrison *et al.* (2003) strongly points out developer/designer/users inability to come to grips with this new learning ecology and also states that the existing education, teaching and learning environment remains unchanged by computer based communication technology, which in addition to the power of social networks has transformed society in many ways. Ravenscroft (2001) raises the question of whether we are simply replicating and augmenting 'conventional' approaches to teaching and learning, locally or at a distance, to answer which Garrison *et al.* (2003) point out that the influence of e-learning in traditional educational institutions has been weak, in reality, being little more than just an enhancement of current practices. Looking at the questions raised here, Garrison *et al.* (2003) argues that the e-learning

experience in the 21st Century exists only in basic form, and has much to learn from its inherent capabilities when creating a new 'learning ecology'. In addition he also points out that the true value of e-learning lies in its capacity to facilitate communication, thinking, information provision and thereby the construction of a setting for meaning and knowledge. But upon reflection, it should come as no surprise that most research concerned with the application of technology to education, training and learning purposes has shown no significant difference in learning outcomes between traditional and technically advanced e-learning platforms and systems. This viewpoint is supported by Acampora (2011) who goes on to state that e-learning systems tend to focus almost entirely on the management and measurement of training processes. They add little or no value to the learning process, without giving much importance to the content and design of the content as learning outcomes using the wide array of technologies available. We could add here that e-learning systems should be looked on as a provider of content, creator of knowledge, and an enhancer of competence, all of which would have an impact, at some point or another within the community of its users, and on society at large.

In addition to the questions raised and concerns expressed above, consensus has been reached regarding critical issues raised around the design of the environment, to which Garrison *et al.* (2003) say that creating an e-learning environment involves 'a serious commitment' to understanding the very different features of these advanced technological mediums and the ways in which they could be used most advantageously to impact learning and bring about the best in such approaches. To which

Chandler (1995) points out that educator/users/trainers have not understood or capitalized on the blend of symbol systems, such as multimedia based communication systems that create new modes of expression and communication.

Furthermore, Garrison *et al.* (2003) points out that one of the grave challenges encountered with e-learning systems is in supporting reflective multimedia based interaction, independent of time and the constraints of distance. Adding to which he tries to make it clear that the value add in a knowledge based future will be a learning environment that develops and encourages the ability to think and learn both independently and collaboratively. It should provide critical and self-directed learners with the motivation and ability to be both reflective and collaborative.

Adding to the discussion, Ismail (2002) states that many e-learning solutions provide a simple 'digitalization' of the teacher-student approach in an educational context and, in most cases, they are remote learning software platforms, where focus is on the educational resources (content), that is only an input of the whole learning process, and on their presentation. Such e-learning solutions try to superimpose on to learners how they have to learn without taking into account learners dispositions or preferences, and also attempt to constrain learners to learn and teachers to teach following a predefined approach, entering the so-called knowledge society (Acampora, 2011).

Some of the other issues raised in the use of e-learning systems revolves around its effectiveness (does e-learning stimulate learning?), efficiency (to what degree do these programs use resources efficiently?), attrition (what are the dropouts

levels?), appeal (how do the learners react?) which is suggested by the work done by Welsh *et al.* (2003) in detail whereby she and her colleagues have carried out, an empirical analysis of e-learning systems available in the market and the usage of them across different organization (N=22) viewing them through the four lenses of effectiveness, efficiency, attrition and appeal. The findings of this research states that even though e-learning systems are better received than classroom ones, the findings cannot be certain as they are situational and variable based, with Welsh *et al.* (2003) suggesting that these findings should be accepted with caution. In addition to these findings Acampora (2011) goes on to argue that e-learning systems do not provide any means to support internal content production processes, relying instead on commercial courseware like Moodle, BlackBoard, etc. These 'Learning Management Systems' (LMS) were seen to be nothing more than launch pads for third party content that the organization would purchase or outsource. The current generation of e-learning products were never designed to help organizations collect, organize, manage, maintain, reuse, and target instructional content. These products are just seen as content repositories and data sources by their creators and users respectively (e.g. teacher and students).

Even after all the advancements, in the area of computer based communication technologies Welsh *et al.* (2003) point out that further R&D is needed to precipitate these technological gains onto e-learning. Some of the areas to look at are around the growth of synchronous learning, exploring the potential of blended solutions, improved technology access which would enable synchronous and asynchronous design of learning

experience possessing the elements of real world relevance, problem solving, sustained investigation, deriving information from multiple data sources and multi-perspectives, collaborations, reflective thinking, interdisciplinary perspectives, integrated assessments, multiple integration and outcomes irrespective of time and distance (Lombardi, 2007). Hence it could be said that e-learning solutions must second a real evolution wherein the main efforts should be devoted to systemically supporting the whole learning process, and not only specific parts of it (i.e. content management, resource delivery, etc.) (Ismail, 2002), but also looking into its inter-dependencies (Checkland, 1981). It is very important to design and develop suitable models and processes that dynamically and intelligently create e-learning experiences (i.e. a structured collection of content and services able to facilitate learners in acquiring a set of competencies about a specific domain) adapted to learner expectations and objectives in the new Web powered environment (Acampora, 2011).

As mentioned above, the 21st century e-learning environment should be able to develop and push a learner's ability to think (inside out and vice versa) both independently and collaboratively. It should also provide some level of motivation, enthusiasm and ability to take command over their own learning outcomes, at the same time providing them with tools to experiment in different ways and use different approaches to learning in a reflective and collaborative fashion from the beginning. Lombardi (2007) states that new e-learning systems should be able to develop the skills of teamwork, critical thinking/reasoning, assembling/organizing information and innovative thinking/creativity in

addition to subject based learning. These competencies are very much essential to be able to tackle problems and implement/test their own learning's within the structures of ill-defined messy organizations, of the real world.

Looking at some of the criticisms and concerns raised above, we invite readers to consider the following: even though the world has experienced a rapid development and advances in the area of electronic communications, digital networks, mobile computing, handheld devices, social networks, resulting in a tremendous transformative effect on the way we work; with these technological leaps having completely reshaped our personal and/or social communication and entertainment, we should consider whether this effect has transcended into learning, education and training domains. The answer to this question is yes and at the same time no. It would be argued by me through my research that e-learning has not yet explored all the vast potentials of such technologies.

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Use of accounting techniques to improve trust between FMCG suppliers and multiple retailers in the UK

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Abstract

The nature of the relationship between suppliers and the multiple retailers in the UK is of great importance to the social world. It has a bearing upon the economic performance of many related businesses based in the UK and elsewhere and on the consumer, as availability and price of goods on sale in the multiples are both affected by the relationships that suppliers and retailers experience. This paper looks at whether the adoption of certain accounting techniques could enhance the levels of trust between suppliers and retailers with resulting cost reductions and reduced greenhouse gas emissions.

Keywords: accounting techniques; FMCG suppliers; open book accounting; supplier-retailer relationships; supply chains; trust

Introduction

The UK Government has had concerns over many years about the nature of the relationship between suppliers and retailers. The Draft Groceries Code Adjudicator Bill of 2011 (Cm 8080) included in its preamble “Eleven years ago, the Competition Commission published a report which raised concerns about the relationship between large supermarket chains and their suppliers, who include farmers and small-scale producers. The report showed that suppliers felt that some practices carried out by these large retailers could reduce the incentives and ability of suppliers to invest and innovate in

new product lines or production processes. The concerns raised by the Competition Commission included retailers demanding retrospective charges from suppliers and altering contractual arrangements.”

A number of steps were taken but more was felt to be needed and the Groceries Code came into effect on 4th February 2010. However, the Competition Commission “... considered that the Groceries Code would be more effective with an ombudsman or adjudicator in place to enforce it – in effect, to act as a referee and police the new rules. This was because many small suppliers were worried that raising disputes against retailers would jeopardise future commercial agreements with those companies.” (Cm 8080 p7)

The involvement of legislation in this way illustrates how deep set and intractable are the tensions between suppliers and retailers in the UK food and FMCG sectors. Restoring trust between the parties would be of great social and economic benefit and could aid the survival of many smaller –scale producers and processors.

The author of this paper has over 20 years’ experience of that dyadic interface and through the research study that has just begun seeks to critically explore those relationships and to consider how improvements in the relationships could be encouraged. The primary research question that this background leads to is whether the adoption of certain accounting techniques could lead to greater levels of trust between

suppliers and multiple retailers in the UK with a commensurate reduction in operating costs through a more efficient supply chain operation.

In order to understand how accounting techniques could have an impact on the dyadic relationship described above it is necessary to consider how any improvement in trust could be measured. The obvious measure is an economic improvement through a reduction in food miles and a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions, but there could be other, less immediately tangible improvements, for example in the working practices of the two players. Ways in which the measurement of improvements in trust between two or more parties are explored later in this paper.

Is the supplier to retailer relationship dyadic? In simple terms it is, a supplier sources or makes goods and sells them to a retailer – a dyadic relationship. However, the goods will need packaging, a logistics company will deliver the goods, and a number of other suppliers will be involved in the manufacturing or growing of the goods or products – hence a network relationship.

This paper seeks to identify the issues affecting the supplier-retailer relationship and to set that in the context of (a) existing accounting techniques that could be used to enhance the supplier-retailer relationship; (b) the nature of trust in the supplier-retailer relationship; (c) whether the supplier-retailer relationship is dyadic or a network relationship; and (d) the research

methodology that is being used to investigate these issues further.

Existing accounting techniques that could be used to enhance the supplier-retailer relationship

The way in which accounting techniques can be used in supply chains to the commercial benefit of suppliers and retailers has been researched in the last two decades by authors such as Adler & Borys (1996) who introduce the concept of enabling or coercive behaviour, Ahrens & Chapman (2004) who seek to apply Adler and Borys's work to management control systems and performance in a restaurant chain, and Free (2007 & 2008) who in his 2007 paper examines the nature of the supplier-retailer relationship, and takes that further in 2008 by seeking to relate the adoption of accounting techniques to the level of trust between suppliers and retailers.

Supply chains have many different levels of cooperation between the supplier and the retailer. Lamming (1993) postulated a four stage hierarchical development of the relationship through a traditional approach based solely on price, to a stress phase where investment in developing the supply chain with the aim of reducing cost, through a collaborative third phase he termed resolved, to the highest goal he envisaged, that of real partnership between the parties. These stages in development as adapted by Berry *et al.* (1997) and Lockamy and McCormack (2004) form what has become known as the supply chain maturity model, reproduced at Figure 1.

As organisations move up the table towards real partnership, they may explore the adoption of Open Book Accounting (OBA). Kajuter and Kulmala (2005) studied OBA in

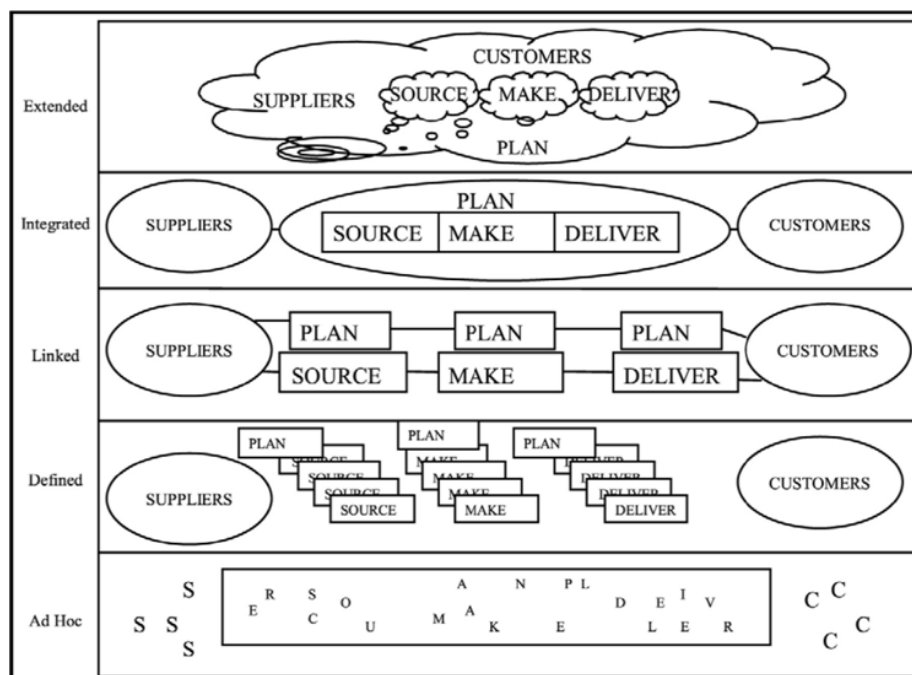


Figure 1. The Supply Chain Maturity Model (reproduced from Lockamy and MvVormack, 2004).

networks and state that it "... has been mentioned both as a means of improving the cost efficiency of supply chains and as a tool for building trust into customer-supplier relations. However, there is little empirical evidence of how to make OBA work and avoid potential pitfalls."

Cullen and Meira (2010) state that OBA "appears to be the most complete and, though logically simple (Kraus and Lind 2007), the most complex technique to apply in inter-organisational settings". In its simplest form, it requires the sharing of the supplier's financial and accounting information to their customer with the aim of taking cost out of the supply chain through improving working practices (Håkansson and Lind 2007; Kraus and Lind 2007).

Which comes first, OBA or trust? If high levels of trust already exist within a business relationship the sharing of data is seen as low risk, so in that case the adoption of OBA flows from the existing high trust levels. Equally, the adoption of OBA through fair negotiations can

lead to an enhanced level of trust between the parties. Kajuter and Kulmala (2005)

Other tools and accounting practices are relevant to the level of trust in the supplier-retailer relationship. Reverse logistics can play a significant part in reducing cost and improving the environmental impact of supply chains. Bernon, Rossi and Cullen (2011) conclude their study of reverse logistics thus "Understanding the need for a holistic approach and the dimensions that make up that holistic approach should enable managers to both improve their bottom line and improve customer service. Also, managing the reverse logistics process can make a significant impact in terms of greening the supply chain."

The nature of trust in the supplier-retailer relationship

The crucial barrier to greater sharing of data and closer working practices between suppliers and their customer retailers is succinctly presented by Dekker (2003) when he states "... cost management practices for interfirm coordination will only occur in interfirm relationships in

which partners, by having sufficient trust or control, are confident about each other's intentions." Dekker develops this thinking in his 2004 paper in which he seeks to explore the relationship between trust and control, in particular "... whether (goodwill) trust is a substitute or a complement for formal control mechanisms ...".

To be effective and durable, trust must be created in a legitimate manner. Connelly, in referring to legitimacy in rural governance states "Legitimacy is clearly a necessity for any system of democratic government, allowing the exercise of power without coercion." (Connelly, *et al.* 2006). Transpose government with organisations and the principle holds true.

The adoption of category management by retailers "has been presented as a catalyst for the formation of 'new' retailer-supplier relationships and is a useful focus around which to explore the management accounting practices in 'deep' retailer-supplier relationships where trust may be expected to play a role." Free (2008).

However, the coercive nature of the supplier-retailer relationship is frequently seen. Free quotes an account manager about his retailer customer "You hear (their) talk and then look at some of the things they're trying to do to get a better deal. They're not walking the talk." Free (2008)

Attempts have been made to measure trust levels. Leach and Sabatier (2005) conducted a quantitative analysis of watershed agreements in California and sought to identify "the precursors of interpersonal trust in high-stakes disputes where opposing sides have long histories of animosity and differ on fundamental

values and perceptions" They claim that their work "may be the first to empirically link trust to devil shift-the perception that one's opponents are more powerful than one's allies... One of the purposes of adopting a consensus-based decision rule, as most partnerships do, is to help level the balance of power within the partnership itself."

This imbalance between the powerful and well equipped retailers and the less powerful and generally weaker suppliers is borne out in an interview with a former account manager of a polymer supplier to the multiples retailers who commented:

Well I think, well, trust between all parties, like OBA, the competitive environment makes it difficult, we weren't sole suppliers so that makes it harder. So its trust and security of the supply side, thread of insecurity running though the business all the time. Bridges never got built between all the parties. Culturally deferential, we were. Some buyers were more reasonable than others. It took us many years to employ the professional staff to deal properly with the supermarkets

(A. Geddes, personal communication, November 16, 2012)

This personnel imbalance would appear to be the cause of some of the tensions between suppliers and retailers coupled with an imbalance in the sharing of data even in OBA trading. This is underlined by Bremmers (2006) who aimed to develop a set of principles for accounting in supply chains and concluded with "...three proposed accounting standards for cooperative supply chains: Reciprocity in information access; Equivalent cash flows, and Matching risks and returns. These three rules of reciprocity cause and are an effect

of creating a transparent supply-chain policy and performance measurement. Transparency will replace (or at least will have to supplement) trust as a measure for relational quality."

Whether the supplier-retailer relationship is dyadic or a network relationship

Although superficially a supplier to customer (retailer) relationship may seem to be dyadic in nature, the various related elements involved in the supply chain create a network relationship of closely woven elements which are all highly inter-dependent.

A well-documented supply-chain failure in 2005 by Wagner (2006) illustrates the dyadic vs network nature of many supplier-customer relationships. Motor manufacturers including Audi, Daimler Chrysler and BMW sourced fuel injection pumps from Robert Bosch GmbH: a dyadic relationship. However, the product failure that occurred in 2005 when pump failure caused car engines to stop running was down to a component of the pump that was made by a sub-contractor Federal Mogul. In turn, they sourced the Teflon coating for that component from DuPont. It was the Teflon coating that had failed. That supply chain thus is more correctly a network of inter-related organisations, rather than a simple supplier-customer dyadic relationship.

It is not always clear at the outset whether the relationship is dyadic or of a network nature. Cullen and Meira (2010) state that "It is important to recognise, however, that in some cases, the distinction between dyads and networks might be problematic."

The research methodology that is being used to investigate these issues further

A qualitative approach is proposed for the data collection phase of this research. The nature of the industry with the four major supermarkets providing 76.4% of the grocery market in the UK (Tesco 31%, Asda 17.5%, Sainsbury's 16.5% and Morrisons 11.4%) (Source - Retail Week) dictates that a quantitative approach would neither be suitable nor possible. The approach that is being considered is that of case studies looking at two of the major multiple retailers (Tesco, Sainsbury's, ASDA and Morrison's) with qualitative interviewing of a range of suppliers to the multiples as well as key players in the multiples as part of the case studies.

Jennifer Mason's view of qualitative interviewing is of an "... in-depth, semi-structured or loosely structured form(s) of interviewing" Mason, J (2002). Mason continues "... you may wish to explain something about ... social organization... [which] requires an understanding of depth and complexity in, say, people's situated or contextual accounts and experiences, rather than a more superficial analysis of surface comparability between accounts of large numbers of people." Baker (2012) in her editorial collection of researchers' views on how many qualitative interviews should be undertaken summarises the tensions that this question raises in her helpful introduction "... varied methodological and epistemological approaches to the question of 'how many' in part derive from the range of disciplinary backgrounds of the authors included in this Review paper. In this regard, Abdrea Doiucet and Kathy Charmaz each suggest that students and researchers need to become familiar with their epistemic

communities to successfully answer the question of 'how many'.

The writer has been involved in the food industry working strategically with retailers and suppliers for over 20 years and avers that he is well aware of the epistemic community that forms the supplier-retailer industry in the UK.

On the supplier-side, a decision yet to be made is whether to survey a range of differently sized suppliers across a number of sectors, or to select a couple of sector streams and follow them through from primary production to sale to the retailer.

Conclusions

Issues have been raised in this article about ways in which the nature of relationships between suppliers and retailers in the food and FMCG sectors in the UK could be improved though the adoption of certain accounting techniques leading to enhanced levels of trust.

Open Book Accounting has quite wide awareness in the sector, and it has been demonstrated that OBA can flow from a trusting relationship where there is little concern that the exchange of data could be used against one party by the other. Using OBA to help create new levels of trust is a more tricky proposition requiring some initial level of trust to be established such that the provision of data (usually by the supplier, rarely by the retailer) is not seen as high risk.

The research project that is taking place to explore these issues has only just begun, and this paper is very much a first draft of an embryonic literature review. It is entirely my own work so all criticisms must be directed to me alone.

I would like to gratefully thank my two supervisors (Professors John Cullen and Lenny Koh) for their more general help with my research studies, and their clear enthusiasm for this research project.

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Accounting with Trust



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The development of a parsimonious measure of transformational instructor leadership

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Abstract

Due to increasing demands to improve the quality of services offered by higher education institutions, teaching quality has been placed in the spotlight. While research in education, communication, and psychology has examined ways of improving teaching quality, leadership researchers offer an alternative but complementary perspective labeled instructor-leadership. Research on instructor-leadership has focused heavily on transformational leadership theory and a few exploratory studies were conducted in this area. Most of these studies relied on the Multifactor-Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to conceptualize and operationalize transformational-instructor-leadership (TIL). This study highlights some of the limitations of the MLQ in defining TIL, and proposes a more context-specific measure by adopting a similar approach used by Baba and Ace (1989).

Keywords: higher education; instructor leadership; measure development; teaching quality; teaching-learning environments; transformational leadership

Introduction

With changing socio-economic conditions, universities have become increasingly aware of their need to provide high quality services to attract and retain students. If students are dissatisfied, enrolment figures fall and this, in turn, negatively influences funding and

job security (Canic & McCarthy, 2000). Therefore, the question arises, how do higher education institutions improve their service to its student-customers? Research by Douglas *et al.* (2006) has shown that teacher ability, quality, and approachability are considered by students to be some of the most important aspects of service. Evidently, while there are various ways to increase student satisfaction *via* service, the most fundamental source is through teachers and the learning environment that they create for students.

The majority of research on improving teaching quality in higher education has been offered in disciplines such as education, communication, and psychology. An alternative route of tackling teaching quality may also lie in the leadership literature. According to Deming (2000, p. 6), “improvement of education, and the management of education, require application of the same principles that must be used for the improvement of any process, manufacturing, or service. Innovation and improvement of education will require leaders”. Given this need for leadership in improving teaching quality, some contributions have been given in the leadership literature *via* the concept of classroom-leadership also referred to as instructor-leadership (see for example Baba & Ace, 1989; Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Dawson, Messe, & Phillips, 1972; Gill *et al.*, 2010; Harrison, 2011; Harvey, Royal, & Stout, 2003; Ojode, Walumbwa, & Kuchinke, 1999 as cited in Pounder, 2006, 2008; Walumbwa, Wu, &

Ojode, 2004). Instructor-leadership can be defined as the process by which instructors direct classroom activities so as to influence students’ engagement and achievement.

Recent studies on instructor-leadership have examined the usefulness of transformational leadership theory. A transformational leader can be defined as one “who is capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on their followers” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 452). Transformational leaders “pay attention to the concerns and developmental needs of individual followers; ... change followers’ awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in new ways; and ... are able to excite, arouse, and inspire followers to put out extra effort to achieve group goals” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 453). Hence, instructors who use such a leadership style are likely to inspire students to be more involved in the classroom and may influence students’ task accomplishment. Additionally, it is likely that these leaders can promote student engagement and achievement by stimulating attention, offering adequate feedback, using empowerment, encouraging interaction, and building genuine relationships.

The foundations of transformational leadership theory have been developed by Bass (1990) who describe a transformational leader in terms of four dimensions. Perhaps the most prominent dimension of transformational leadership, as evidenced by its synonymy with

Table 1

Item List for ETLQ Items Pertaining to Teaching

Item	Description
exp1	It was clear to me what I was supposed to learn in this course unit.
exp2	The topics seemed to follow each other in a way that made sense to me.
exp3	We were given a good deal of choice over how we went about learning.
exp4	The course unit was well organized and ran smoothly.
exp5	We were allowed some choice over what aspects of the subject to concentrate on.
exp6	What we were taught seemed to match what we were supposed to learn.
exp7	We were encouraged to look for links between this unit and others.
exp9	The handouts and other materials we were given helped me to understand the unit.
exp10	On this unit, I was prompted to think about how well I was learning and how I might improve.
exp11	I could see the relevance of most of what we were taught in this unit.
exp12	We weren't just given information; staff explained how knowledge is developed in this subject.
exp13	The teaching encouraged me to rethink my understanding of some aspects of the subject.
exp14	The different types of teaching (lectures, tutorials, labs, etc.) supported each other well.
exp15	Plenty of examples and illustrations were given to help us to grasp things better.
exp16	This unit has given me a sense of what goes on 'behind the scenes' in this subject area.
exp17	The teaching in this unit helped me to think about the evidence underpinning different views.
exp18	How this unit was taught fitted in well with what we were supposed to learn.
exp19	This unit encouraged me to relate what I learned to issues in the wider world.
exp20	The webpages provided by staff helped me to understand the topics better.
exp23	Staff tried to share their enthusiasm about the subject with us.
exp25	Staff were patient in explaining things which seemed difficult to grasp.
exp27	Students' views were valued in this course unit.
exp28	Staff helped us to see how you are supposed to think and reach conclusions in this subject.
exp30	This course unit provided plenty of opportunities for me to discuss important ideas.
exp31	It was clear to me what was expected in the assessed work for this course unit.
exp32	I was encouraged to think about how best to tackle the set work.
exp33	I could see how the set work fitted in with what we were supposed to learn.
exp34	You had really to understand the subject to get good marks in this course unit.
exp35	The feedback given on my work helped me to improve my ways of learning and studying.
exp36	Doing the set work helped me to think about how evidence is used in this subject.
exp37	Staff gave me the support I needed to help me complete the set work for this course unit.
exp38	To do well in this course unit, you had to think critically about the topics.
exp39	The set work helped me to make connections to my existing knowledge or experience.
exp40	The feedback given on my set work helped to clarify things I hadn't fully understood.

Note. All items used a 1-5 Likert scale ranging from Disagree to Agree.

transformational, is charisma (also referred to as idealized influence). Charismatic behaviours are usually described as being unconventional, innovative, self-sacrificial, inspirational, and dynamic (Yukl, 2009). A second dimension of transformational leadership, which is quite similar to charisma, is inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation “involves the communication of visions that are appealing and inspiring to followers” (Johns & Saks, 2007, p. 315). Thirdly, individualized consideration is the treatment of followers as unique individuals, giving specialized attention to their needs and lending support when necessary so that they can realize their full potential (Johns & Saks, 2007; Yammarino & Bass, 1988). The final dimension of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation. Intellectually stimulating leaders “are willing and able to show their employees new ways of looking at old problems, to teach them to see difficulties as problems to be solved, and to emphasize rational solutions” (Bass, 1990, p.21).

Studies have used Bass’ (1990) transformational leadership dimensions to conceptualize and operationalize TIL (for example, Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Harvey *et al.*, 2003; Pounder, 2008; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2004). Even though these studies have found promising outcomes, such as improved students’ effort, effectiveness, satisfaction, cognitive learning, affective learning, and instructor’s performance ratings, they are marred by a fundamental flaw in research design. To date, almost all of the studies on TIL were conducted using an organizationally developed instrument called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). In addition to the general criticisms levied against the MLQ (see Den

Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Edwards, Schyns, Gill, & Higgs, 2012; Heinitz, Liepmann, & Felfe, 2005; Tejada, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001), its usage in measuring TIL was seen as questionable since the classroom setting, while similar to the organization setting, is not identical. That is, student-followers in a classroom setting may have (a) less frequent contact with their leader (b) advanced awareness of the relatively short-term length of their relationship with their leader (c) less accountability to their leader and (d) a greater sense of entitlement from their leader since they pay for tuition. Moreover, the MLQ may not capture certain teacher-student interactions that are specific to the classroom context. Because of these meaningful differences, future research on TIL should shift towards a measure which is more specific to the classroom context.

Two key studies in higher education classrooms pave the way for a more context-specific measure of TIL. Bolkan and Goodboy’s (2011) study suggests likely connections between transformational leadership theory and communication behaviours that teachers display. Through the use of content analysis, their study revealed that TIL can be operationalized as three dimensions including charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Adopting a similar stance to Bolkan and Goodboy (2011), Baba and Ace (1989) showed that traditional instructor-leader dimensions can emerge from non-explicit measures of leadership, i.e., feedback from students on teacher’s classroom performance. Taking cues from Bolkan and Goodboy’s (2011) work and mirroring Baba and Ace’s (1989) approach, the aim of this study is to establish an empirical link between an instrument which was not overtly designed to measure

leadership; the instrument was based on students’ evaluation of teaching.

Data was gathered from a large-scale dataset derived from the ‘Enhancing Teaching-Learning Environments in Undergraduate Courses’ (ETL) project. One of the questionnaires used in creating the dataset was The Experiences of Teaching and Learning Questionnaire (ETLQ). A section of the ETLQ described effective teacher-student interactions (see Table 1 for ETLQ items used in this study) and was preceded by a short paragraph asking students to rate their experiences of teaching and learning for the specific course unit or module they were attending during questionnaire completion. Hence, the questionnaire served the purpose of this study to explore TIL using a ground-up approach. A key advantage of using this large dataset was that it provided a sample that was markedly larger and more representative of students across universities and disciplines than in previous studies on TIL.

The core of the ETLQ is a set of question items designed to describe students’ perceptions of the teaching-learning environment in a particular course. Baba and Ace (1989, p. 511) embrace the stance taken by Baird (1973) and assert that this “perceptual method is better than other techniques because it [relates] directly to students’ classroom experiences, that is, teacher behaviour as it is received and interpreted by the student”. In particular, the ETLQ captures perceptions of service quality deemed to be of utmost importance to students, such as availability of materials, lecture coverage, and instructor’s feedback on set work (Banwet & Datta, 2003). Overall, the use of the ETLQ helps to conceptualize TIL using a more context relevant instrument.

Given that TIL is a relatively unexplored concept and that transformational leadership researchers propose varying numbers of components, no specific number of behavioural dimensions was hypothesized. But, if any dimensions emerged, they were expected to describe some aspect of goal accomplishment, i.e., intellectual stimulation and consideration. Transformational leadership dimensions that entice followers to the leaders' vision may be represented as well, i.e., charisma and inspirational motivation. Though, these two latter dimensions have been reworked in recent literature on transformational leadership (see Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2005; Beauchamp *et al.*, 2010; Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011). As such, the discovered dimensions may not be represented under the traditional labels. In addition to the traditional transformational leadership dimensions, newer dimensions of transformational leadership may also be applicable to the classroom environment. These may include impression management/valuing individuals, acting with integrity (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2005; Pounder, 2003), or personal recognition (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

For any discovered dimensions, the dimensionality of the constructs will also be examined. Leadership researchers are divided on the issue of whether the highly interrelated dimensions of transformational leadership should be examined as a single construct, or as individual dimensions. Hence, it would be useful to compare both frameworks to determine whether the study of individual, but usually highly interrelated, transformational leadership constructs is a valid approach in the classroom setting. The results would be of importance

considering that there is only one study on TIL that examines the outcomes of the individual dimensions (see Harvey *et al.*, 2003). Since the aim was to understand the underlying structure of a set of socially constructed variables, factor analysis was chosen as the most appropriate technique to explore the following questions:

1. Can transformational leadership dimensions emerge from a student feedback instrument not explicitly designed to capture leadership dimensions?
2. Is the framework comprising of the individual dimensions of transformational instructor- leadership a superior approach to that which conceptualizes transformational instructor- leadership as a single construct?

Method

Participants. The total sample of this study consisted of 2,707 students from five contrasting subject areas including Economics (n = 580, 21.4%), Media and Communications (n = 84, 3.1%), Engineering (n = 414, 15.3%), History (n = 742, 27.4%), and Biological Sciences (n = 887, 32.8%). These subject areas spanned 30 course settings. The subjects were selected due to the substantial student intakes in these areas and the diversity of the disciplines. This nonrandom sample included 1,339 males (mean age of 1,331 males = 21 years) and 1,334 females (mean age of 1,328 females = 20 years). Twenty four students did not give any information regarding their sex (0.89% of the sample) and 43 students did not reveal their age (1.59% of the sample).

The large sample allowed for split sample validation by randomly splitting the sample into two halves using the SPSS uniform function.

One half will be used as a test sample and the second holdout portion will be used to validate the derived factor model.

Materials

The Experiences of Teaching and Learning Questionnaire. Students' feedback on teaching was measured by one section of the Experiences of Teaching and Learning Questionnaire (ETLQ). The ETLQ was specifically developed as part of the ETL project and was created by a research team comprising of staff from three universities including Edinburgh, Coventry, and Durham. To create the questionnaire, the team triangulated information from literature reviews on general aspects of teaching and learning environments with interview feedback from both staff and small groups of students (Entwistle, 2005). The inventory consisted of 40 Likert items that are represented on a 5-point continuum (✓ = agree; ✓? = agree somewhat; ?? = unsure; ×? = disagree somewhat; ×× = disagree) with higher scores indicating positive evaluation of teaching and learning environments for a particular course unit. In the ETL final project report, 25 of the 40 items were used. Even though the number of subscales vary depending on the report (McCune, 2003, used interim findings from a course unit, i.e. Biosciences), eight subscales were identified on the questionnaire cover page: (a) Aims and congruence (5 items), (b) Choice allowed (2 items), (c), Teaching for understanding (5 items), Set work and feedback (5 items), Assessing understanding (2 items), Staff enthusiasm and support (2 items), Student support (2 items), and Interest and enjoyment (2 items). These eight subscales closely resemble those used by McCune (2003) and, in those reports, coefficient alphas were good (ranging from .73 to .84

for six subscales).

Procedures

Participants were sought from universities that clustered around those of the research team (i.e. Edinburg, Durham, and Coventry) (Entwistle, 2002). Various types of British universities were selected including ancient, pre-1960s, 1960s, and post 1992; as well as different degree types, including both academic and professional. The aim of the sampling frame was to give good representation of teaching and learning environments in British universities.

The inventory was distributed to students at the end of a course unit and the survey took place over the period 2003 to 2004 (Entwistle, 2005; McCune, 2003). The end of semester timing for data collection mimics that used by studies on instructor-leadership. This timing ensured that students had sufficient familiarity with teachers and the learning environments created over the semester. To complement this approach, the study focused on teachers who were teaching units at the beginning and the end of a course.

Before answering the questionnaire, students were presented with an instruction sheet. The first section gave a brief introduction to the ETL project and a description of question items regarding the approaches to studying as well as the experiences of teaching and learning. Secondly, to ensure confidentiality of individual responses students were asked to complete a declaration according to the Data Protection Act. The final section of the instruction sheet solicited background information including programme of study, age, year of study, and sex.

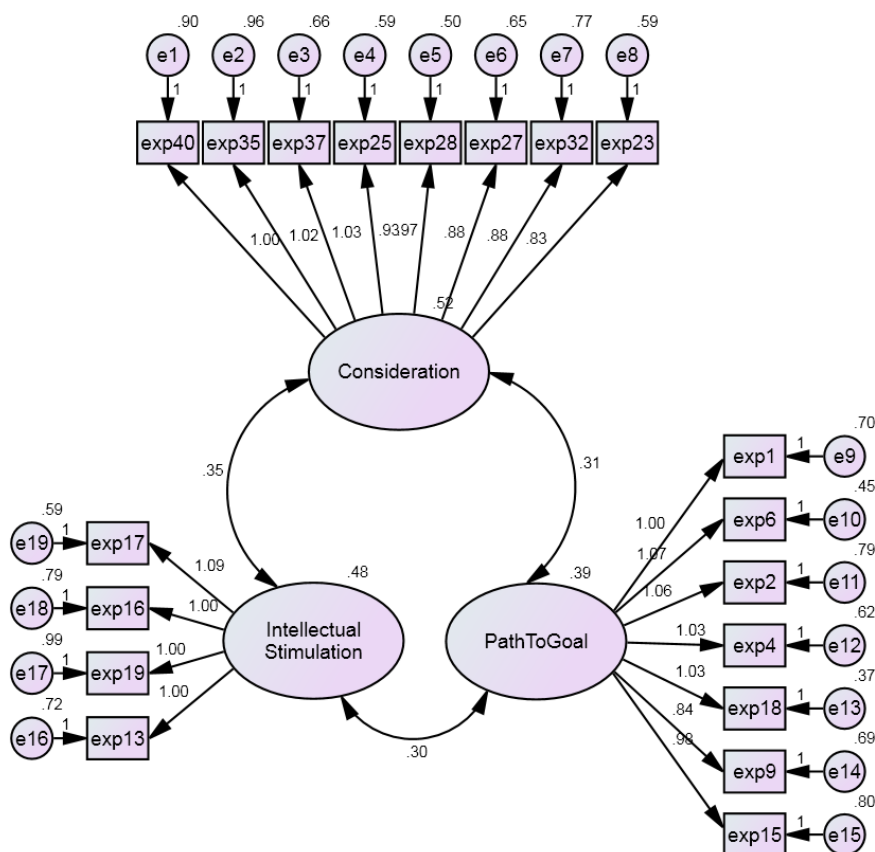


Figure 1. Measurement model for 19-item solution, unstandardized coefficients.

The principal investigators for the ETL study were Hounsell and Entwistle (2001) and their study was sponsored by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC). The collected data from the ETLQ was used along with data sourced from another instrument, several interviews, and literature reviews to produce varied project outputs. On completion of the project, the dataset was made available by the Economic and Social Data Service (ESDS).

For the purpose of this study, the portion of the dataset pertaining to the teaching-student environment of the ETLQ was analyzed. The subscales established for the 25 items in the ETL projects are “potentially amenable to investigation *via* inventory methodology” (McCune, 2003, p. 8). Furthermore, unlike the ETL projects, this study initially examined 34 of the 40 questions.

Of the excluded questions, three pertained to student influence (items 21, 24, and 29) and three described student outcomes including satisfaction and interest (items 8, 22, and 26). Thus the content of excluded items do not represent any dimension of TIL.

Results

Due to space considerations and submission of this document as a working paper, full details of results are not given here and no discussion section is included; instead a very brief description of results follows.

After checking the test sample for missing data, outliers, and statistical assumptions, a principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 34 items with oblique rotation (Promax). Various tests were used to determine the number of factors to extract (including

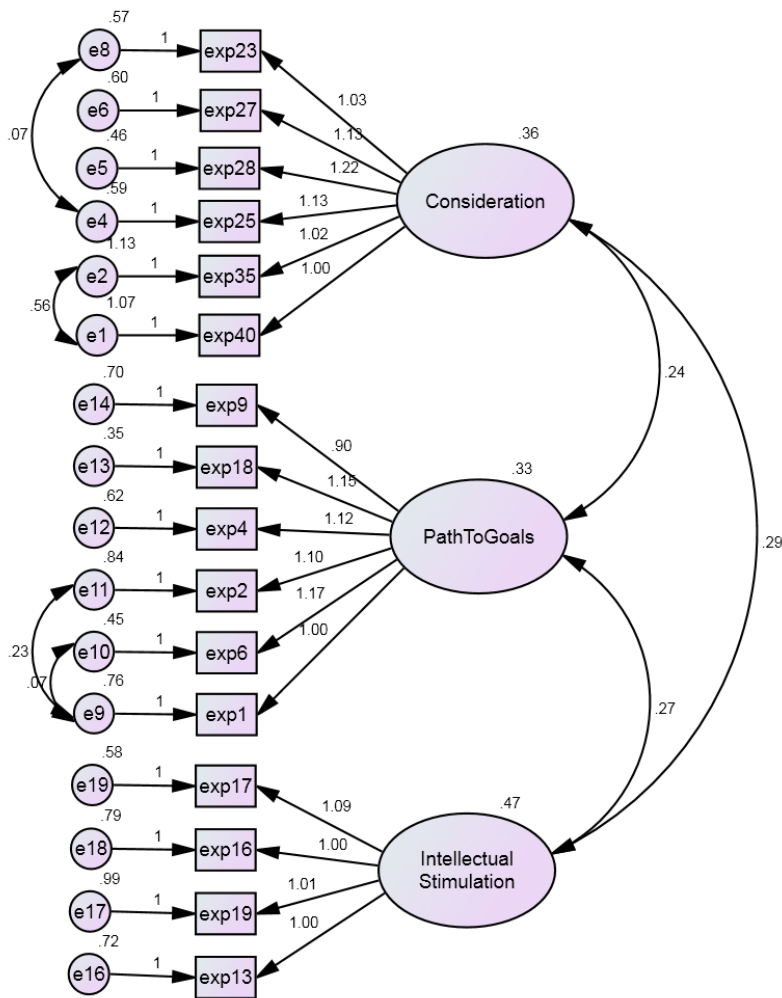


Figure 2. Measurement model for 16-item solution, unstandardized coefficients.

Kaiser's criterion, Velicer's Revised Minimum Average Partial (MAP) test, and Horn's parallel analysis). With no consensus between the tests, 3, 4, 5, and 6-factor solutions were tested. A 3-factor structure produced the clearest structure with stronger components than the other alternatives and was seen as theoretically similar to the structure proposed by Bolkan & Goodboy (2011). As part of the PCA, several re-specifications were conducted and 14 items were deleted in an iterative process due to poor representation by the factor structure.

The 20-item exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was then validated using the holdout portion of the sample and one cross-loading issue with item 39 led to its removal. Overall, the validation sample

showed very good support for the factor structure that was derived from the test sample (the factor structure for both the test and holdout samples are presented in Tables 2 and 3) and the factors were named as follows:

Factor 1

Consideration: The questions that load on this factor relate to constructive feedback and support given on assessments; staff's support in teaching including patience and helping students to think; valuing students' views; and sharing enthusiasm with students.

Factor 2

Path to Goals: The questions on this factor relate to the exposition of

clear learning goals and the teaching of topics in a sensible and organized manner so as to accomplish these goals. Clarifying the path to learning goals involve the use of examples and provision of handouts and other materials.

Factor 3

Intellectual Stimulation: The questions that load on this factor contain some element of students being encouraged to think and be aware of varying evidence and issues in the subject matter. Students are also encouraged to not only apply their learning to the wider world, but also to challenge their understandings of subject aspects.

The items for each of the three factors clearly matched the descriptions of key aspects of transformational leadership. The derived 3-factor structure was then tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using SPSS Amos. Using maximum likelihood, the measurement model is estimated and a visual diagram of the model is illustrated in Figure 1.

In assessing the measurement model, modifications were made for statistical and theoretical purposes. Overall, the CFA procedure led to the dropping of 3 items from the original 19. The final measurement model is given in Figure 2 and details follow in Table 4. With the exception of the χ^2 statistic of 450.573 (97, p-value = .000) all of the fit indices indicated good model fit ($\chi^2/df=4.645$, RMR = .032, CFI = .974, TLI = 0.968, RMSEA = .037, GFI = .98, AGFI = .972, PCFI = .787). In addition, the measurement model comprising of one higher order construct also yielded the same model fit results with a χ^2 statistic of 450.573 (97, p-value = .000) (see Figure 3, p. 32). Due to the minor modifications, the

Table 2

Factor Loadings and Communalities for Test Sample's EFA with Promax Rotation of Transformational Instructor-Leadership, exp39 Deleted

Item descriptions	Component			Communality
	1	2	3	
The feedback given on my set work helped to clarify things I hadn't fully understood	.894			.618
The feedback given on my work helped me to improve my ways of learning and studying	.874			.595
Staff gave me the support I needed to help me complete the set work for this course unit	.819			.599
I was encouraged to think about how best to tackle the set work	.570			.395
Staff were patient in explaining things which seemed difficult to grasp	.503			.429
Staff helped us to see how you are supposed to think and reach conclusions in this subject	.480			.481
Students' views were valued in this course unit	.461			.395
Staff tried to share their enthusiasm about the subject with us	.400			.384
It was clear to me what I was supposed to learn in this course unit		.878		.570
What we were taught seemed to match what we were supposed to learn		.810		.604
The topics seemed to follow each other in a way that made sense to me		.805		.536
The course unit was well organized and ran smoothly		.631		.464
How this unit was taught fitted in well with what we were supposed to learn		.592		.565
The handouts and other materials we were given helped me to understand the unit		.473		.363
Plenty of examples and illustrations were given to help us to grasp things better		.396		.375
The teaching in this unit helped me to think about the evidence underpinning different views			.821	.607
This unit has given me a sense of what goes on 'behind the scenes' in this subject area			.770	.545
This unit encouraged me to relate what I learned to issues in the wider world			.756	.465
The teaching encouraged me to rethink my understanding of some aspects of the subject			.656	

Note. Loadings less than .300 are not shown and variables are sorted by highest loading.

Table 3

Factor Loadings and Communalities for Validation Sample's EFA with Promax Rotation of Transformational Instructor-Leadership, exp39 Deleted

Item descriptions	Component			Communality
	1	2	3	
Staff were patient in explaining things which seemed difficult to grasp	.777			.594
Students' views were valued in this course unit	.713			.490
Staff tried to share their enthusiasm about the subject with us	.710			.497
The feedback given on my work helped me to improve my ways of learning and studying	.690			.536
Staff helped us to see how you are supposed to think and reach conclusions in this subject	.685			.566
The feedback given on my set work helped to clarify things I hadn't fully understood	.673			.500
Staff gave me the support I needed to help me complete the set work for this course unit	.662			.494
I was encouraged to think about how best to tackle the set work	.500			.414
It was clear to me what I was supposed to learn in this course unit		.792		.556
What we were taught seemed to match what we were supposed to learn		.744		.570
The topics seemed to follow each other in a way that made sense to me		.730		.516
The course unit was well organized and ran smoothly		.629		.482
How this unit was taught fitted in well with what we were supposed to learn		.596		.551
The handouts and other materials we were given helped me to understand the unit		.480		.350
Plenty of examples and illustrations were given to help us to grasp things better		.356		.363
This unit has given me a sense of what goes on 'behind the scenes' in this subject area			.770	.563
The teaching in this unit helped me to think about the evidence underpinning different views			.741	.606
This unit encouraged me to relate what I learned to issues in the wider world			.713	.523
The teaching encouraged me to rethink my understanding of some aspects of the subject	.303		.462	.466

Note. Loadings less than .300 are not shown and variables are sorted by highest loading.

Table 4

Factor Solution for 16-item Measure of Transformational Instructor-Leadership

Variables	Constructs				Delta
	PTG	C	IS	IR	
It was clear to me what I was supposed to learn in this course unit	.548			0.300	0.700
What we were taught seemed to match what we were supposed to learn	.705			0.497	0.503
The topics seemed to follow each other in a way that made sense to me	.566			0.320	0.68
The course unit was well organized and ran smoothly	.630			0.397	0.603
How this unit was taught fitted in well with what we were supposed to learn	.745			0.555	0.445
The handouts and other materials we were given helped me to understand the unit	.527			0.278	2.347
The feedback given on my work helped me to improve my ways of learning and studying		.498		0.248	0.752
The feedback given on my set work helped to clarify things I hadn't fully understood		.501		0.251	0.749
Staff were patient in explaining things which seemed difficult to grasp		.662		0.438	0.562
Students' views were valued in this course unit		.658		0.433	0.567
Staff tried to share their enthusiasm about the subject with us		.631		0.398	0.602
Staff helped us to see how you are supposed to think and reach conclusions in this subject		.733		0.537	2.306
The teaching in this unit helped me to think about the evidence underpinning different views			.704	0.496	0.504
This unit has given me a sense of what goes on 'behind the scenes' in this subject area			.611	0.373	0.627
This unit encouraged me to relate what I learned to issues in the wider world			.573	0.328	0.672
The teaching encouraged me to rethink my understanding of some aspects of the subject			.630	0.397	1.594
Variance extracted	39.12%	38.43%	39.85%		
Construct reliability	.791	.786	.725		

Note. PTG = Path-to-goals; C = Consideration; IS = Intellectual stimulation; IR = Item reliabilities. Item reliabilities represent communalities and are calculated using squared factor loadings. Delta is also referred to as the standardized error variance and is calculated as 1 minus the item reliability.

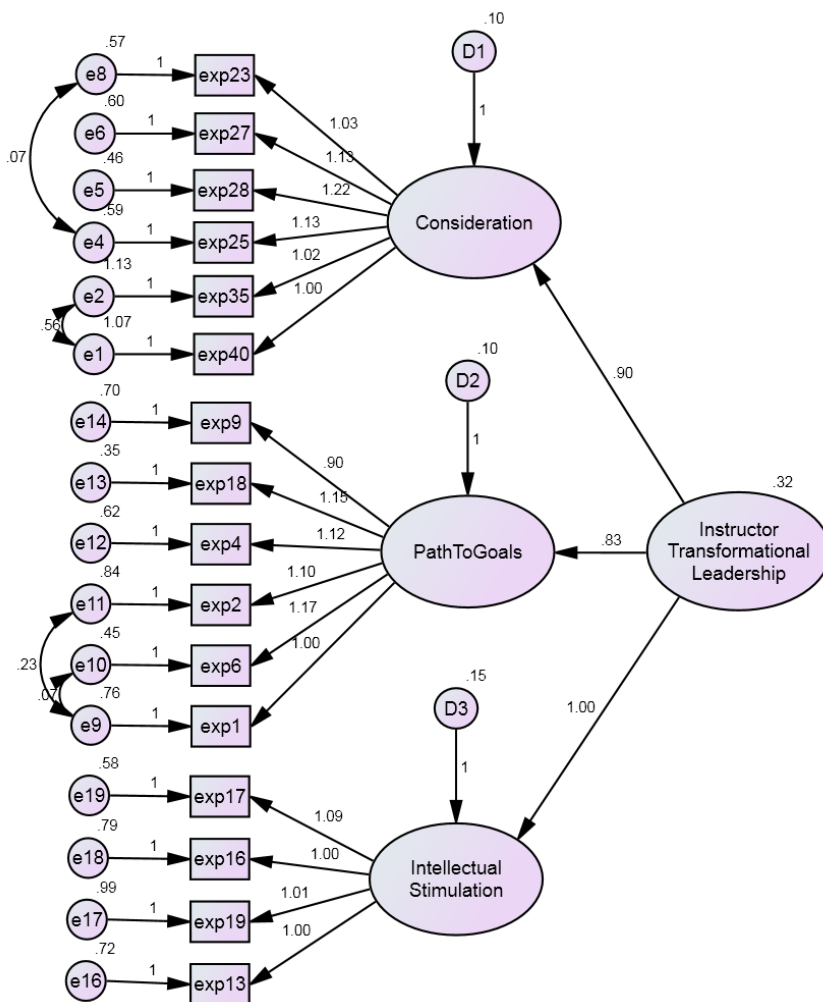


Figure 3. Higher-order factor structure for 16-item solution of transformational instructor-leadership.

final measurement model was not seen as a major departure from what was being tested. Also, the final estimated model reproduced the sample covariance matrix reasonably well.

As part of this study, a small-scale validation study is in the process of being conducted. This study will compare the emergent 16-item instrument with the version of the MLQ used by Harvey *et al.* (2003), Rafferty and Griffin's (2004) 15-item measure, and Beauchamp *et al.*'s (2010) Transformational Teaching Questionnaire (TTQ).

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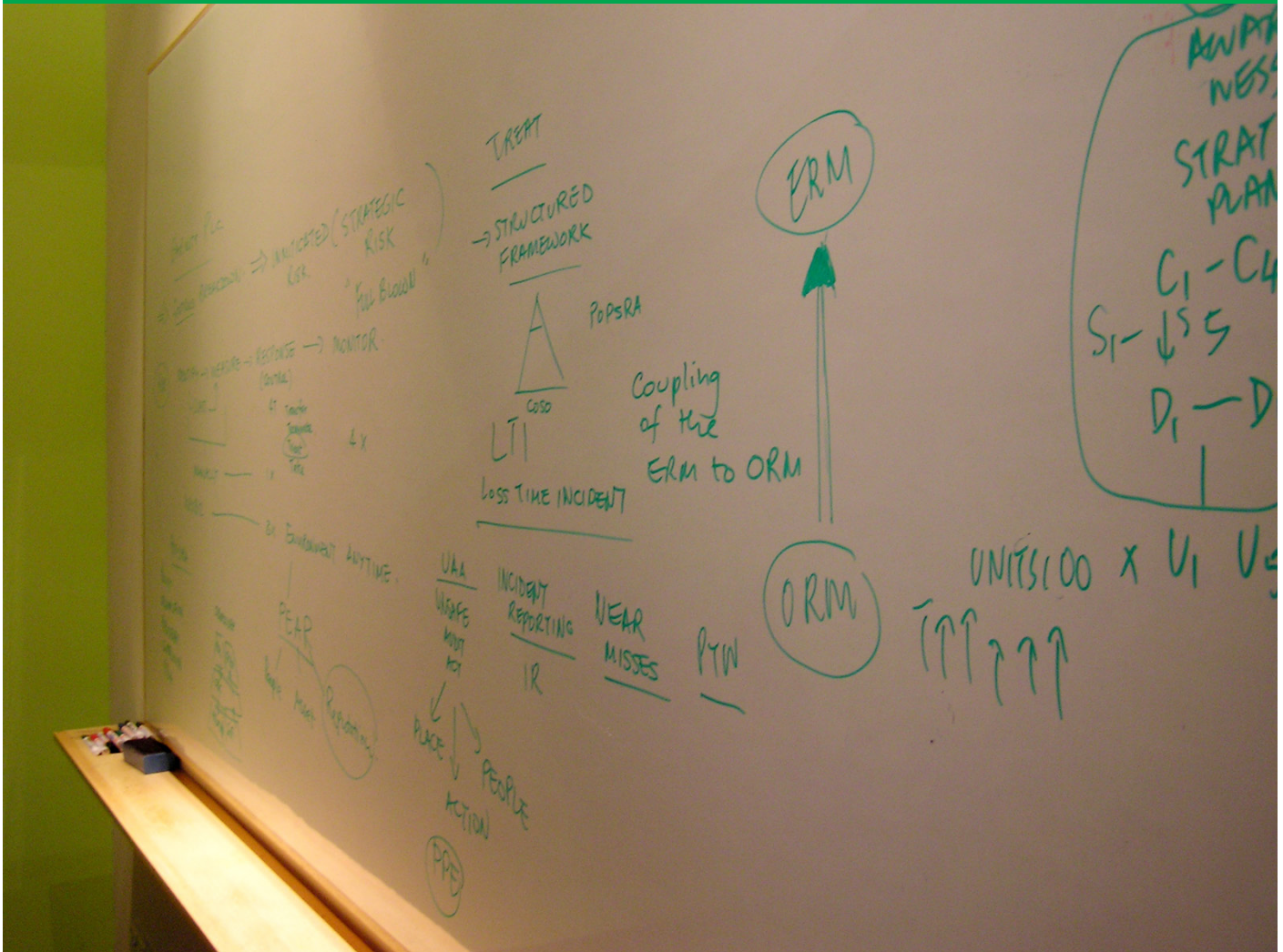
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Transformational Instructors: Leading the Way



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Fuel Poverty in England: Historical inevitability or avoidable social ill?

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Abstract

Fuel Poverty, namely the inability for a household to maintain the home at an adequate level of warmth and at a reasonable cost, has only recently been formally accepted and adopted by the English government. The definition itself has grown from initial work in the late 1970's and the seminal research of Brenda Boardman in the late 1980's and early 1990's. It wasn't until the Labour party were elected in 1997 that the term was acceptable parlance within government and only in 2000 was any legislation introduced to tackle this social issue. Many of the drivers of fuel poverty, particularly the energy inefficiency of the English housing stock find their roots in social attitudes and policy failings dating back to the industrial revolution, with potential issues highlighted to government in 1946. We consider the development of the concept of fuel poverty and its drivers in order to explore whether the current prevalence of fuel poverty in England was an inevitable side-effect of our historical public health and housing legacy or a result of government social policy inaction. Our analysis of the extant literature shows that a combination of both of these factors is likely to have resulted in the current fuel poverty picture, however government inaction has served to unnecessarily exacerbate the current figures in England.

Keywords: energy efficiency; fuel poverty; health; housing; social policy; public policy

Whilst the challenge of maintaining an adequately heated home at a manageable outlay to the household is likely to have long been a matter of concern for UK households, the concept of fuel poverty and its formal definition is a post-industrial, 20th century invention. Despite the relatively recent acceptance of the term within common parlance, the roots of the issue can be traced back as far as the population growth and migration of the industrial revolution and associated public health policies, attitudes and beliefs.

This paper seeks to explore the emergence of fuel poverty as a concept in the English public policy sphere, and its historical drivers in an attempt to understand whether the current levels of fuel poverty could have been avoided, or were an inevitable outcome of public policy decisions made over 100 years ago.

The Emergence of Fuel Poverty

Political Attitudes to Fuel Poverty Prior to 1997

Two significant reports to government, from Simon in the immediate aftermath of World War Two in 1948 and Parker Morris in 1961, both of which highlighted concerns over heating standards in the home with a particular focus on social housing (Boardman, 1991) failed to convince the UK government of the need to address fuel poverty.

The oil crisis of 1973 – 1974, combined with the decision to phase

out state subsidy of the electricity and gas industries (Johnson & Rowland, 1976) provided the impetus for fuel poverty to finally be recognised as a problem (Owen, 2010) that needed attention and a solution. Recognition was however restricted to special interest and campaign groups, whilst the UK government continued not to acknowledge the existence of fuel poverty. This was the de facto position of the political establishment courtesy of the Conservative party domination of UK politics from 1979 until 1997 who also chose to introduce value added tax (VAT) on household energy bills, to significant public criticism (Boardman, 2010).

Development of the Fuel Poverty Definition

Victims of fuel poverty were first identified by Isherwood and Hancock in 1979, as “households with high fuel expenditure as those spending more than twice the median (i.e. 12%) on fuel, light and power” (Isherwood and Hancock (1979) cited in Osbaldeston, 1984, p. 368). Little attention was paid to fuel poverty over the next decade (Liddell, Morris, McKenzie, & Rae, 2012) with only some work in framing fuel poverty as a social problem (Bradshaw & Hutton, 1983) and developing a further basic definition, as the inability to afford adequate warmth in the home (Lewis, 1982, p. 1). A slightly more specific definition was offered by Richardson, “...the situation where following recent fuel price increases, people are unable to afford the fuel they need for heating,

lighting and cooking” (1980) cited in (Osbaldeston, 1984, p. 368).

The formal quantification and definition of fuel poverty was driven forward by the work of Brenda Boardman. Building on the work of her doctoral thesis (Boardman, 1988), Boardman’s now seminal work (Boardman, 1991), clarified and confirmed the first quantifiable definition of fuel poverty. In it Boardman states that fuel poverty should be defined as “...the inability to afford adequate warmth because of the inefficiency of the home” (Boardman, 1991, p. 221).

This definition moved forward the previously widely accepted ‘negative definition of fuel poverty’ (Boardman, 1991, p. 200) which did not include any reference to the inefficiency of the home. In proposing this definition, Boardman made an important distinction between the definition of fuel poverty and that of general poverty, and in doing so sought to respond to the repeated assertions of government ministers who argued that fuel poverty did not exist; as demonstrated by John Major in this statement to parliament:

I must take issue with the hon. Member for Ceredigion and Pembroke, North about the term “fuel poverty”. It is a phrase which is often used these days, and upon examination it is a rather curious concept... We do not hear a great deal about clothes poverty, or food poverty, but fuel poverty appears in a rather curious fashion to have developed a life of its own... but it is often misleading to talk about fuel poverty as if it were some special breed of poverty that necessarily requires different measures from those that are generally used to support the less well-off.
(HC Hansard, 1985)

Returning to Boardman’s definition, she sought to define what was meant by the term ‘affordability’. One of the important considerations in this definition was the reference to affording warmth rather than affording fuel. The decision to focus on warmth recognised that simply affording fuel would not necessarily lift a household from fuel poverty and steered the debate from a solely income support solution. Boardman emphasised that warmth requires interventions to ensure the energy efficiency of both the house itself and the heating system it employs. In making this distinction, Boardman demonstrated that it is possible that those who are fuel poor may not also be considered economically poor.

Defining affordable warmth was a challenge that had received little attention (Boardman, 1991). Whilst the definition of fuel poverty moved the debate away from the ability to afford fuel to the ability to afford warmth, the need to provide a practical measure of fuel poverty necessitated a return to the ability to afford the necessary expenditure on fuel that delivered the required warmth.

Boardman’s research found that “... the poor spend twice as much [on fuel], as a proportion of income, as the rest of the population” (Boardman, 1991, p. 201). She concluded that the only way to reduce the poor’s expenditure on fuel below their current mean expenditure of 10% of income would be to double their income, which would mean a costly support programme. Through consideration of two alternative proposed measures of affordable warmth for low income households Boardman identified the normal average expenditure on fuel at 6% of income. This study also found that if additional money was not available to a low income

household, the minimum standard of heating would not be realisable when spending only 10% of income. For this reason, affordable warmth was set at 10% of total household income. Interestingly this figure was similar, though slightly lower than that identified by government economists Isherwood and Hancock, who had identified in 1979 the mean expenditure on fuel was 6% of income, and defined affordability at 12% (Osbaldeston, 1984).

As well as defining what was meant by affordability, a definition of ‘adequate warmth’ was also necessary. Boardman’s work considered multiple studies in an area that was receiving wide spread attention and finally proposed that the kitchen and bathroom should be kept at 21°C for 13 hours a day for the first occupant with a further room added for each subsequent occupant when present. At night the recommendations were more complicated suggesting 16°C for bedrooms and 14°C for all other rooms. This suggested regime would achieve a mean indoor temperature of 18°C. Boardman’s suggestions showed some similarities to those of the World Health Organisation (WHO) (World Health Organisation, 1987) although it should be noted that the night time temperatures are lower than those recommended by WHO.

Whilst the work of Boardman is now widely cited and accepted by academics and practitioners, the Conservative party led governments of the early nineties continued to deny the existence of this separate form of poverty. Official reports circumvented this position by instead referring to affordable warmth, a phrase first used in government documents in the English House Condition Survey (EHCS) of 1991

(Boardman, 2010).

Governmental adoption of a fuel poverty definition

With the ascension to government of the Labour party in 1997, fuel poverty was finally adopted in government terminology (Owen, 2010) and was officially recognised as a problem by the administration (Boardman, 2010). Whilst government policy was to tackle fuel poverty, it was a private members bill, the Warm Homes and Energy Conservation Act (2000) (WHECA) that brought legislative requirements to ensure that fuel poverty was ended “as far as is reasonably practicable” by 2016 (Boardman, 2010). In November 2000 the Warm Homes and Energy Conservation Act became law, requiring the Secretary of state for England and the National Assembly of Wales “to publish and implement a strategy for reducing fuel poverty; to require the setting of targets for the implementation of that strategy; and for connected purposes” (Warm Homes and Energy Conservation Act, 2000, p. 1). The publication of the UK Fuel Poverty Strategy in November 2001 (DEFRA & DTI, 2001) allowed the UK government to meet this requirement and for the first time fuel poverty was recognised in legislation and government strategy (Fahmy, Gordon, & Patsios, 2011).

Emerging in the mid 1970’s, it took over 20 years for fuel poverty to be acceptable parlance within the UK government and almost 30 years for legislative action to be enacted for its eradication. Whilst the term found prominence amongst campaign groups in the 1970’s, and increasing academic support through this period to the modern day, Boardman rightly points out that “[f]uel poverty was the new name for an

old problem” (Boardman, 1991, p. 25). As demonstrated in Figure 1, the definition of fuel poverty developed from one focussed on cost, to one which recognised the impact of an inefficient home. It was this recognition that was the first to consider the effects of drivers other than price upon the existence of fuel poverty within the UK.

Drivers of Fuel Poverty

Although governmental recognition and legislative requirement for effective eradication of fuel poverty is only twelve years old, there is significant evidence to suggest that many of the root causes of fuel poverty are found much further back in Britain’s heritage than even the work of campaign groups in the mid nineteen seventies.

Rudge (2011) builds upon the work of Boardman (1991), identifying 4 drivers of fuel poverty that are peculiar to Britain, the mild climate, the domestic building heritage, the nation’s historical preference for open fires and fresh air, and evolving thermal expectations amongst the British public.

Britain’s Mild Climate

Britain’s climate is considered to be generally mild (Rudge, 1996) although the effects of the Gulf Stream and Atlantic winds contribute to significant variability between the regions (Rudge, 2011). This regional variability can be demonstrated through consideration of heating degree days across the country. Heating degree days are calculated as the extent to which the external temperature falls below a base level (Rudge, 2011), which is usually 15.5°C in Britain on the basis that incidental gains in the house are around 2.8°C giving an internal temperature of 18.3°C

(Boardman, 1991). This can result in an average of 2623 degree-days in the south-west of England compared with 3900 degree-days in north-east Scotland when 18°C is taken as the base level (Rudge, 2011). Orton (1988) defines a cold climate as one with more than 3000 degree-days per year demonstrating significant regional variation in the British climate, although the majority of the UK would be considered mild as opposed to cold. As can be seen in figure 4.1 below, there was a broad north-south divide in heating degree days between 1971 and 2000.

The relatively mild climate and low seasonal variation in temperature, in contrast with Europe has been cited as a traditionally strong driver for the slow development of energy efficiency regulations in the UK (Rudge, 2011) which were seen as unnecessary until recently. Yet the UK has a relatively long heating season, commonly regarded as running from September till May (Page & Lebens, 1986). When this is considered in parallel with the other drivers of fuel poverty identified by Rudge (2011) it seems surprising that the UK has taken so long to introduce stringent building legislation to reduce heat loss through inefficient building fabric.

Domestic Building Heritage

The structural flaws of a typical UK house that made it hard for them to maintain warmth were documented by German architect Hermann Muthesius as early as 1904 (translated in 1979). “... the insubstantial structure of the English house, especially the meagre thickness of the walls, the absence of cellars, of double glazed windows” (1979, p. 67)

His critique is not surprising given that UK legislation did not tend to

focus on warmth. The first Public Health Act (Great Britain, 1848) focussed primarily on provision of sanitation and lighting, avoidance of damp and ensuring suitable ventilation with regards to homes (Boardman, 1991). These priorities remained the focus of subsequent housing legislation, particular that with regards social housing (Boardman, 1991). The 1948 report ‘Domestic Fuel Policy’ (Ministry of Fuel and Power, 1948) substantiates this finding, noting that:

In this country the principal faults of the past have been to neglect heat insulation in the construction of the house and to limit space heating to one or two rooms...In cold weather the British home is the smallest in the civilised world. (Ministry of Fuel and Power, 1948, p. 50)

Despite these warnings and those in the subsequent “Homes for today and tomorrow report” (Ministry of Housing and Local Government, 1961) chaired by Sir Parker Morris, there were no national building regulations prior

to 1965 and insulation was only required within the building fabric from 1974 (Boardman, 1991). The focus on damp reduction, space and air movement up until 1974, rather than warmth has had a significant impact upon the current British housing stock, with much of the population living in potentially thermally inefficient houses.

According to the English Housing Survey headline report 2010 – 2011 (DCLG, 2012) 58.1% of English homes were built prior to the introduction of the first building regulations in 1965, with just over a fifth of the total English housing stock having been built prior to 1915 (see Table 1). Unless significant renovation and improvement has been undertaken on these properties, there is no requirement for these homes (in the private sector) to have been brought in line with any subsequent thermal or building regulations, indicating that the English housing stock is, as suggested by the Environmental Change Institute, “one of the oldest and least efficient housing stocks in

Europe” (Boardman *et al.*, 2005, p. 38).

Blame cannot be solely aimed at the inadequacies of legislation. The industrial revolution brought mass population movement towards the new industrial centres, necessitating a move away from traditionally well built houses, to economically driven construction. This resulted in reduced building standards, thinner walls compared with pre-industrial building techniques, poorer quality components and ill-fitting windows and doors which led to potential for draughts and lack of air-tightness (Rudge, 2011). As previously noted, the movement of air around the house and the presence of fresh air in the house was considered important for public health reasons (Boardman, 1991), suggesting that lack of air-tightness and ill-fitting components were unlikely to be of major concern to the government.

Historical preferences for open fires and fresh air

Muthesius (1979) hypothesised that fireplaces were used in British homes more as a means of ventilation than a form of heating, noting that although almost all rooms in the houses of that period had a fireplace, the fires were rarely lit. The government advised that flues were useful as a source of ventilation as late as 1927 and rooms that did not have a means of permanent ventilation often suffered from damp and condensation (Rudge, 2011).

It has not been established why largely unused fireplaces were installed, but prior to the introduction of off-peak electricity tariffs in 1950 (Boardman, 1991), houses were primarily heated by solid fuels (Rudge, 2011). Solid fuels require significant ventilation

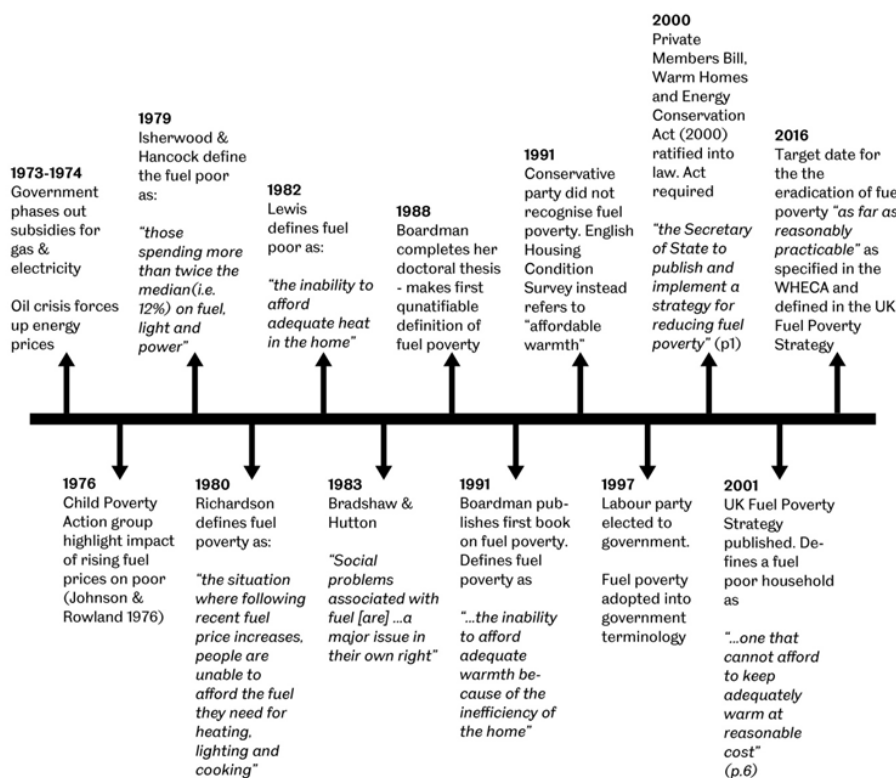


Figure 1. A timeline of the development of the fuel poverty definition.

provision, which was commonly provided, though not through deliberate design, as a feature of the sub-standard construction of industrial revolution housing, though as noted by Wright (1964) this meant that the efficient stoves that were common for home heating in Europe, would not provide suitable heating in Britain.

Despite significant attention being paid by the sciences to improve the thermal efficiencies of open fires and the stove from the eighteenth century onwards (Shove, 2003), Britain tended to resist their adoption (Rudge, 2011). There were concerns that bringing pre-heated air into rooms was harmful (Wright, 1964) and the affordability of cheap servants who could maintain a fire throughout the night prevented the need for British homes to adopt a change of heat provision (Rudge, 2011).

Following the Clean Air Act 1956, the conversion to less polluting fuels, combined with the introduction of off-peak energy tariffs and subsequent development of domestic gas provision saw a move towards central heating in the home, particular in non-traditional local authority homes built to accommodate the increasing numbers of households (Boardman, 1991). In 1964, central heating only existed in 13% of UK homes, though by 1996 it had spread to 88% of homes (Rudge, 2011). Whilst central heating grew in popularity, thermal insulation standards developed slowly (Boardman, 1991), which has today resulted in a large proportion of UK homes that have the means to heat their rooms, but often at significant cost with historically energy inefficient homes.

Evolving thermal expectations

Thermal conditions inside the home have changed significantly over the past 100 years (Shove, 2003). In 1880, temperatures of between 12°C and 20°C were recommended in living rooms and a minimum of 4°C was considered acceptable in the bedroom (Rudge, 2011). Internal temperatures have gradually increased since this time, with a corresponding decrease in amount of clothing worn by householders, demonstrating that whilst British people do value warmth, and whilst technology has made it cheaper to heat homes (Rudge, 2011) benefits are not always taken in reduction of energy expenditure. Instead, rebound effects often deliver increased internal temperatures at the expense of Green House Gas (GHG) and energy consumption reduction (Druckman, Chitnis, Sorrell, & Jackson, 2011; Hong, Gilbertson, Oreszczyn, Green, & Ridley, 2009).

Thermal comfort is a component of a number of factors, both physical and psychological (Ormandy & Ezratty, 2012), thus it is not surprising that internal temperatures have increased in both centrally heated and non-centrally heated homes (Rudge, 2011), with possible social effects and expectations driven through experiences in workplaces and other homes. WHO guidelines now suggest a temperature of 21°C in living areas and 18°C in bedrooms (World Health Organisation, 1987), but have received criticism for their lack of transparency as to their provenance (Ormandy & Ezratty, 2012).

Despite these criticism, the temperature ranges suggested are similar to the widely cited work of Collins (1986) who suggested that an indoor temperature range

between 18°C and 24°C was comfortable and would provide no risk to health. His work also noted that temperatures below 18°C increased the risk of respiratory illness, below 12°C could result in temporary blood pressure increases and below 9°C could increase risk of hypothermia after two hours. These findings have been widely corroborated in other research (Clinch & Healy, 2003) and also provide some justification for the increased thermal expectations of the British public, demonstrating the association of low indoor temperature with potential health risks.

Conclusion

The evolution of building regulations and improvements in thermal technologies such as central heating and insulation has not run in tandem with the evolution of the British home. An outdated housing stock, characterised by a lack of air-tightness fails to enable modern technologies to operate at their most efficient. When combined with the British climate which necessitates a long heating season, though fails to experience the extremes that occur elsewhere in Europe, it is apparent that our failure to instigate thermal legislation as early as was the case in Scandinavia (Rudge, 2011), to re-develop our housing stock, and the increased evidence of the benefit of warm homes, have combined to provide Britain with a legacy of thermally inefficient homes - and thermal expectations - that only serve to exacerbate the current problem of fuel poverty.

Reports to government as far back as 1946, and commentary by European architects in 1904 highlighted the problems with the English housing stock, yet 20 years of denial from the Conservative

Table 1

English housing stock profile. This table describes the breakdown of the UK housing stock by age, ownership and housing sector in 2010 (DCLG, 2012, p. 53).

Dwelling age	Private sector			Social sector				all dwellings
	Owner occupied	Private rented	All private sector	Local authority	Housing association	All social sector		
pre 1919	21.0	40.0	24.8	3.8	9.4	6.7	21.7	
1919-44	19.0	12.3	17.6	16.1	9.3	12.5	16.8	
1945-64	18.9	10.7	17.3	38.0	24.7	31.0	19.6	
1965-80	20.0	13.6	18.8	34.8	24.4	29.3	20.6	
1981-90	8.4	7.4	8.2	6.1	12.5	9.5	8.4	
post 1990	12.6	15.9	13.3	<i>1.3</i>	19.8	11.1	12.9	
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

administration did nothing to tackle the issue of fuel poverty. The adoption of a formal definition of fuel poverty in 2000 brought a legislative framework for tackling the issue, but in 2012 it seems unlikely that we will have eradicated fuel poverty by 2016. The combined effects of our historical housing legacies and prolonged periods of government inaction have resulted in this challenging position. Whilst our housing legacy has not helped the fuel poverty picture in England, had successive governments heeded the warnings of experts earlier, we would almost certainly be in a more positive position than we currently find ourselves.

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From Injustice to Destructive Leadership: Follower Attitudes and the Creation of Destruction

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Abstract

Models of destructive leadership to date have conceptualized negative follower attitudes as products of destructive leadership. The present paper explores the extant literature in the areas of justice, social influence, and social conflict to redefine negative follower attitudes as potential causes of destructive leadership, contrary to ideas presented elsewhere. Destructive leadership is suggested to be a consequence of a process which begins with follower perceived injustice. Following perceptions of injustice, assignment of legitimacy to the organization, its selection process, and the newly selected leader is impacted cumulating in the ostracism of the leader and difficulties establishing control. Destructive leadership, therefore, is suggested to emerge initially as a means to both retaliate and to regain control.

Keywords: destructive leadership; injustice; ostracism; social conflict; social influence; power

Introduction

The leader selection process within an organization is highly important. When an organization decides to make an individual a leader they are taking a decision to assign a degree of power,

and therefore influence, to that individual. An ability to influence followers is paramount to leader's position (Yukl, 2006); however, the degree of influence a leader ultimately holds over followers is outside of the organization's control as it is the followers who will have the final say as to the degree of influence available to the leader. A sense of injustice can emerge in the minds of followers prior to or during the leader selection process and serve to undermine both the selection process itself and the power of the selected leader (Crellin, Sprigg, & Patterson, 2012). As a result of perceived injustice, the newly appointed leader faces ostracism by the follower group and diminished influence.

The present paper explores temporally how and why followers may come to perceive injustice prior to and during leader selection and how such perceptions result in the delegitimizing of the selection process and its chosen leader, followed ultimately by the ostracism of the leader by the follower group – a process referred to here as the “injustice-delegitimize-ostracize” (IDO) process (Figure 1). Current conceptualizations of destructive leadership that view follower behavioral, emotional, and cognitive changes as outcomes of destructive leadership are challenged (Schyns & Schilling, 2012) in so far as the

present paper views all such things as potential causes of destructive leadership. The extant literature on organizational justice is reviewed prior to linking injustice phenomena to legitimacy and ostracism and finally discussing how each is related to destructive leadership.

Justice

Organizational justice has been traditionally divided into two distinct types: “distributive” and “procedural” justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Distributive justice relates to the fairness of outcomes that result from a decision, and procedural justice to the fairness surrounding the decision process itself. A further type of justice - namely “interactional” justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) - has also been proposed and relates to the perceived fairness of social interactions with decision makers. The three types of justice have been categorized as either “structural” (distributive and procedural) or “social” (interactional) (Greenberg, 1993a), and both categories are relevant to the leader selection process, a formal process involving social interactions and which result in a definite outcome (Bauer *et al.*, 2001; Gilliland, 1993; Truxillo, Steiner, & Gilliland, 2004).

Theoretically, during leader selection a magnification of perceived

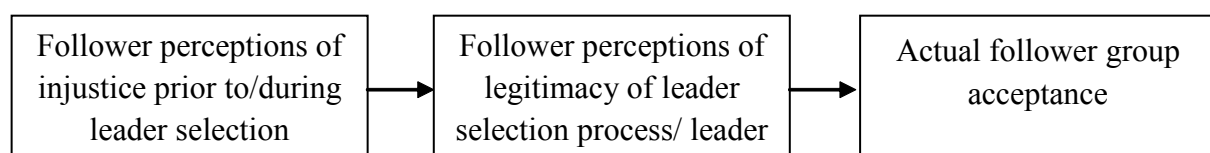


Figure 1. Constituent factors of the IDO process.

injustice can occur *via* the principle of social proof which suggests that things (behaviors or objects) which are attractive to a number of individuals are assigned a higher value (Cialdini, 2007). As such, high competition for a leadership position has potential to magnify the perceived value of that position. Blocking the acquisition of a reward or goal, particularly one assigned high value, causes frustration, aggression, and anger (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Spector, 1997), and anger is an emotion that both precedes and follows perceptions of injustice (Harlos & Pinder, 2006; Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998). Furthermore, each candidate internal to the organization will believe that they, based on their credentials (that is, their experience and social ties within the organization), are entitled to the position and will compete with other internal, and external, applicants.

As a competition the selection process is one inescapably tied to intentional influence strategies used to gain an advantage. Although research in the area has not come to the author's attention, the author assumes that candidates internal to the organization, having learned its idiosyncrasies and having invested resources in establishing social bonds, will have developed a strong case in their own minds for their selection over any other candidates, particularly those who are external. An individual who has enjoyed long tenure with the organization and who has been positioned within the same team for some time will, for example, be convinced of their entitlement to the position within that team. Such a scenario presents two potential pathways for injustice perceptions: (1) *via* the selection of an individual internal to the organization yet external to the team and (2) *via* the

selection of an individual external to the organization. The first and second pathway may differ in terms of the severity of the perceived injustice due to the differential expertise and liking assigned to the selected individual by the losing candidate (expertise and liking will later be discussed in terms of "power"). An individual internal to the organization, for example, may already be known and therefore seen as more expert and liked. Equally, they could be seen as incompetent and disliked, competent and disliked, or incompetent yet liked. If two positives are assigned to the winner (competent and liked) we can assume that the losing individual will be less likely to see the decision as unfair. Where a negative exists (for example, liked but incompetent) injustice would be more likely to occur. The greatest degree of injustice would logically be perceived where the winning individual is both seen as incompetent and is disliked. Where the competition presents externally there is equal likelihood of preconceptions. If the candidate is reputable, for example, the internal, losing individual may have knowledge of their expertise and may have identified with them from afar. As with the internal situation, the assignment of expertise and liking could be negative or positive, differentially affecting the occurrence and magnitude of perceived injustice. Both pathways clearly allow for perceptions of injustice to occur, but the external applicant may be seen internally as less suitable for the role due to their lack of experience within the particular organization.

Although attention here has mainly been given to injustice during the leader selection process, perceived injustice can occur prior to or following the selection process. The previous leader, for instance,

may have been made redundant in a manner that followers perceive as unfair (Brockner *et al.*, 1994). Alternatively, enacted and envisaged changes to the follower work scenario in some way may be viewed as unfair (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). Either way, injustice occurring prior to, during, or after the leader selection process has implications for how followers view the organization, its formal procedures and statutes, and its selected leader.

Legitimacy and power

The role of the organizational leader is to guide followers toward realizing organizational goals. The means through which leaders achieve goals relates to the power that is available to them. Power has been defined as potential influence and categorized dichotomously as "position" and "personal" power (French & Raven, 1959). As the name suggests, position power is the power held by the individual by merit of their formal role, be that subordinate, manager, or CEO. Personal power, however, relates to the power the individual has based on their personal characteristics and social relationships. Being liked by others, for example, is a type of personal power (known as "referent power"), as is being viewed as an expert ("expert power"). Both categories of power are highly interdependent meaning that the level or fluctuation of one will impact the other. Upon being selected for the leader position the individual will have at their disposal an extent of position power in the way of control of rewards, punishments, environment, information, and the degree of follower perceived legitimacy with which the leader holds their position. Such sources of power are known as "power bases," and of them legitimate and referent power are of particular interest to the present

discussion. Assumptions are made that (a) the perceived legitimacy of the newly appointed leader is directly linked to the perceived legitimacy of the process which led to that appointment, (b) that follower perceived injustice serves to undermine the legitimacy of the process, and, as was noted earlier, (c) that perceptions of injustice can occur for a number of reasons prior to or during the process. Power, therefore, is assumed to be linked to, even determined, by events that occur during leader selection, something which can be illustrated best through an example.

Using the previous example, the leader candidate who applied from within the work team and who was convinced of their entitlement to the position will experience anger, envy, and frustration at not having been selected (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Spector, 1997). To the unsuccessful candidate, not being selected represents both (i) a form of social rejection and a psychological contract breach by the organization (Robinson, 1996; Sias, 2009) undermining the referent power assigned to the organization and its selected leader by the rejectee (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004), and (ii) a display of poor judgment on the part of the organization undermining the expert power held by the organization and its chosen leader. Put differently, the individual's trust toward the organization is diminished, they no longer like the organization (or indeed, certain individuals who have particular influence in the selection process), and they question its ability to make sound, legitimate decisions. The experience of contract breach and rejection also fosters in the individual a motivation to retaliate and to restore justice through aggressive behavior

(Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Olson, Nelson, & Parayitam, 2006; Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001). The individual can attempt to achieve a sense of restored justice by influencing the attitudes of other team members such that perceived legitimacy is diminished across the team. Indeed, team attitudes may be easily swayed – if they were not already congruent – due to a collective belief that the current team member should have been selected; that is to say, collective perceptions of injustice produce counter-productive, anti-organization and anti-leader attitudes, attitudes which include behaviors, cognitions, and affective responses (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; De Cremer & Alberts, 2004; Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010). A group of individuals who are similar to one another, who work towards shared goals, and who like one another constitute a psychological “ingroup” (Allport, 1954; Brewer, 1979). The shared perceptions of injustice within the work team stem from the fact that psychological ingroup members will look after and root for one another, will be rejecting of perceived “outgroup” members, and will be less convinced by their persuasive arguments (Terry & Hogg, 2001). Effectively, the result is a contagion of anti-organizational and anti-leader attitudes with a collective delegitimizing of the selection process, its organizers, and its selection, all of which results in the new leader being ostracized by the follower group (Crellin, *et al.*, 2012).

Ostracism

The fate of the delegitimized leader is far from positive. As has been mentioned, the perceived injustice which led to them being delegitimized is strongly linked

to affective responses. Those same responses have a second implication: they also reduce liking for the new leader. Past research has established that an individual can be ostracized by their work team if they are thought to receive preferential treatment from the team supervisor (Sias, 2009). There is sufficient reason, therefore, to suspect that the same is true of a supervisor who is given preferential treatment by the organization. If a unitarian harmonious work team is conceptualized as a functioning psychological ingroup then the work team which results following perceptions of injustice is not of such a variety. What emerges is a pluralistic clash between a follower ingroup and an organizational outgroup (a “them and us” mentality). Effectively, the new leader constitutes a representative of the outgroup. Cast as an outgroup member, leader differences to the follower ingroup are made salient to the followers and the social divide between the two parties becomes stronger (Turner, 1982).

The IDO process does not, however, lead to a simple bipartite arrangement of follower ingroup and leader outgroup. Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) posits that the quality of relationships between leaders and followers is unequal. Some followers enjoy close and rewarding relationships with their leader while others are less close and less rewarded. LMX classifies followers broadly as either enjoying ingroup or outgroup status with the leader. (Note that the difference between the psychological ingroup and the LMX ingroup lies in the sense that the former refers to a group of individuals who are similar, whereas the latter refers to individuals who are “in” with their leader, that is to say, they enjoy a close relationship

with them based on rewarding transactions.) Following the IDO process a leader may enjoy a different quality of relationship with each follower, some of whom may sympathize with the leader more than others. Indeed, there may be followers who have a pro-leader attitude, however, their overt expression of such an attitude may be inhibited by influence forces exerted by the follower alpha (a legitimate authority within the follower social group) and the rest of the follower group (Asch, 1956; Milgram, 1963; Sias, 2009), even preventing anti-social behavior toward the leader being reported or intervened with (Latané & Darley, 1970; Miller & McFarland, 1991; Sandstrom & Bartini, 2010). With that said, certain circumstance may see pro-leader followers openly defect to the leader's side, themselves facing ostracism by a follower majority ingroup. Overall, a scenario is created in which individuals face anxiety and dissonance due to incompatible attitudes between them, and such social and emotional conflict creates an environment conducive to the emergence of destructive leadership.

Destructive leadership

Destructive leadership is a broad term that has been defined elsewhere as a style of leadership which encompasses anti-follower and anti-organizational behavior (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007) and is marked by a favoring of dominance, coercion, and manipulation, a selfish orientation, and outcomes that compromise follower and quality of life and detract from organizational goals (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). Destructive leadership, therefore, has been conceptualized as leadership which has negative consequences for followers and organizations alike. Examples of the destructive leader style include

verbally or physically abusing staff, purposely sabotaging organizational goals, and stealing from organizations (Einarsen, *et al.*, 2007). Since influence underpins leadership, Schyns and Schilling (2012) draw a distinction between “destructive leadership” (DL) – which is follower focused influence behavior – and “destructive leader behavior” (DLB) – which encompasses behaviors which are detrimental to followers and the wider organization and are not necessarily related to the task of leading. Verbally abusing followers, for example, could be done to motivate progress toward an organizational goal and would therefore be related to the leadership task; drinking on the job, however, whilst damaging to organizational goals, is not directly linked to the task of leading (Schyns & Schilling, 2012). The present paper assumes the same distinction as Schyns and Schilling (2012); however, unlike those authors - who focus solely on DL - the present paper concerns itself with both DL and DLB.

The present line of reasoning implicates follower attitudes and, specifically, behavior as antecedents to destructive leadership (see also Crellin, Sprigg, & Patterson, 2012). Previous studies have found negative relationships between destructive leadership, follower resistance, follower counter productive work behavior, follower perceived justice, and follower attitudes toward the leader (Schyns & Schilling, 2012); however, such relationships are mainly assumed to lie causally from leader behavior to follower outcome, although the possibility of causation operating in the opposite direction (that is, follower attributes causing destructive leadership) has been recognized by Schyns and Schilling (2012). The present theoretical stance implicates the latter line of thought by suggesting that follower

attitudes are responsible for the emergence of DL and DLB. The assumptions underpinning such thought are based on previous work within the field of psychology which demonstrate that (a) ostracized individuals have a propensity to behave aggressively (Twenge, *et al.*, 2001), (b) that the relationship between ostracism and aggression is related to control (Warburton, Williams, & Cairns, 2006), and that control (or influence) is a requirement of leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2012; Yukl, 2006). Following the IDO process a domino effect of power loss occurs across the power bases available to the leader and, having been ostracized, the leader will be inclined to behave aggressively by favoring coercion as a means of re-establishing control. The IDO process is not limited to just DL, however: where the leader places blame for the loss of control toward followers and/or the organization, their previously learned strategies for gaining social acceptance and influencing (for example, collaborate with targets at the expense of the organization), and their personality (for instance, dispositional need for control) will all interact to produce destructive behavior that is both follower influencing in nature - and therefore related to the leadership task - and that is retaliatory and not related to the leadership task. Ultimately, the reception a leader receives to their new work team will determine their subsequent attitude toward that team and the organization, which gives rise to the possibility of both DL and DLB from the outset.

Conclusion

The importance of the leader selection process within organizations cannot be understated. The decision to appoint a leader is the decision to give an individual power and

a chance at control. The actual influence a leader has over followers, however, rests with the followers. Follower perceived injustice during the selection of a new leader can undermine both the authority of the selection process itself and the power of its chosen leader (Crellin, *et al.*, 2012). Any leader new to a follower group may face ostracism by the follower group and limited influence as a result of the perceived injustice, a process referred to here as the “injustice-delegitimize-ostracize” (IDO) process. Extant models of destructive leadership have seen follower attitudinal changes as outcomes of destructive leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2012); however so the present paper has presented follower attitudes as potential causes of destructive leadership. That is to say, destructive leadership emerges as a consequence of destructive follower attitudes, an ensuing struggle for influence, and a need to restore justice on all sides of the leader-follower-organization relationship.

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Destructive Leadership: What It Is, Where It Is, and Why It Matters



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Speaking from Experience



Dr. Angela Carter

Engaging with the Media

This issue we asked Dr. Angela Carter to share some of her thoughts about engaging with the media based on her experience.

Being contacted by the media can be both exciting and flattering for a researcher, but what things should we be cautious about?

Getting the brief right and knowing where they are coming from - and if you agree with their position making an agreement about what you are going to say (trying to reduce surprise questions) as well as knowing who the audience is.

How important do you think media engagement is for researchers?

Very important: if you can get your message over simply and clearly to the media this is great for dissemination and it will be picked up more frequently than in the academic literature. Get some media training though: it really helps!

Which types of media have you engaged with over the course of your career?

Most with the exception of TV - although I did try out for a couple of programmes so I do know how that is done.

How would a researcher get media (national and otherwise) interested in their work?

Press release your work - use university and professional bodies. Get to know your local media and be helpful, proactive, and seek links with media, for example, I know Jenny Murray from *Woman's Hour* is in Manchester every Friday - looking for good stories (about women). Find out what media presence is at the conference you are attending and ask to be press released - the Division of Occupational Psychology is great whilst others are less good.

I like being in the *Guardian*, *Financial Times*, *Evening Standard*, and Sunday's *Daily Mail* (even if it is not my sort of paper) as it is widely read.

And your favourite magazine...?

A few: *Division of Occupational Psychology* publications, women and men's mags - *Cosmo*, *Red*, *Marie Claire*. Hard to get into mags are *Psychologies* and *Men's Health*.

Stephen McGlynn, who recently attended an ESRC hosted media training event, provides the following additional tips:

If you're aiming to get your research covered by the media, it helps to be proactive. Journalists and producers are always interested in a good story, but they will often have limited time, so may often appreciate you taking the initiative to contact or develop relationships with them, and help them quickly decipher the value in your research.

Don't underestimate the power of online media either. Having a good and reliable online presence is important: if a journalist Googles you, what do they see? Social media can also help you make an impact. Many newsrooms and production teams now regularly trawl Twitter and blogs for interesting stories, or to find experts willing to provide views and evidence to a particular topic. It's an easy way to get yourself out there.

The ESRC has a fantastic resource online, which gives tips and guidelines on how to use and succeed with different media channels. You can find out more at www.esrc.ac.uk/funding-and-guidance/tools-and-resources/impact-toolkit/

Antecedents to Destructive Leadership: A Theoretical Framework of Ostracism and Control

(September 2012)

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Abstract

Organisational leadership literature has enjoyed a rich history of theory and investigation. The field has changed over time, shifting its focus from leader traits to leader behavioural tendencies, and from leader behavioural tendencies to contextual influences. Having explained a good deal about positive (constructive) leadership, scholars now look to explain the negative side of leadership, dubbed “destructive leadership.” Researchers have necessarily focused on the antecedents, processes, and outcomes associated with destructive leader behaviour (DLB) in order to gain a fuller understanding of the phenomenon and to move toward an agreed and workable definition. The result of such researchers’ efforts is a broad definition of DLB which views it as any behaviour that is damaging to the organisation or its employees. Further, proposed antecedents to date have included leader characteristics, follower characteristics, and workplace characteristics; however, emphasis has largely been placed on leader characteristics - with explanations centering on personality traits such as narcissism and mental disorders such as psychopathology – which predispose certain individuals to become destructive.

The present research seeks to expand our understanding of DLB by exploring the interactions that occur between leader, follower, and workplace characteristics, suggesting that DLB can occur in any individual if the context dictates. The proposed theoretical framework posits that power and influence are crucial to the organisational leader’s role; however, unlike emerging leaders in naturally occurring social hierarchies, questions as to the leader’s legitimacy can arise within

organisational follower groups due to aspects of the leader selection process. That is to say, follower perceptions of injustice during leader selection will serve to reduce the legitimacy of the selection process and its chosen candidate. Hostile emotions triggered by the perceived injustice will also create a sense of disliking toward the new leader and a lack of respect for their expertise. Ostracized by the follower group and having reduced power the new leader must establish control by using the resources available to them. Given a choice of reward or coercion, the ostracized leader will favour aggressive coercive influence strategies over reward strategies, and will use control of information and environment in negative ways. Continued use of coercive power - alongside negative use of informational and ecological power - will further reduce liking for the leader, who will simultaneously learn that coercive and aggressive behaviour can be used to effectively influence followers. DLB will thus be reinforced and perpetuated, and will potentially spill over through vicarious learning processes to form a culture of DLB.

The present research will investigate the proposed assumptions using a mix of qualitative interview, quantitative experimental, and quantitative survey data. The findings of the present research will have implications for the prevention, detection, and remedying of the negative outcomes to employee wellbeing and organisational performance associated with DLB.

Keywords: destructive leadership; injustice; ostracism; power; social conflict; social influence

Towards a Socio-Technical Measure of Fuel Poverty in the United Kingdom

(September 2012)

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Abstract

Fuel poverty is a distinct and growing problem that is predicted will affect 3.9 million households by the end of 2012. Whilst the Warm Homes and Energy Conservation Act (WHECA) called for the effective eradication of fuel poverty in England by 2016, current estimates suggest that there will be between 2.6 million and 9.2 million households in fuel poverty when this deadline is reached.

The recent publishing of the final report of the Hills review into fuel poverty marked the first large scale investigation into the suitability of the UK fuel poverty measure since its inception into government policy over a decade ago. The current measure, building on the definition of fuel poverty provided in Brenda Boardman's seminal book, has many benefits. It is based on modelled energy needs rather than actual energy consumption, is utilised in an increasing range of countries, is relatively straightforward and is an official national statistic.

Both the current measure of fuel poverty and the alternative proposed in the Hills fuel poverty review take a broadly economic and technological approach to measuring fuel poverty. Yet fuel poverty is associated with a much broader range of social as well as economic problems, with impacts not only upon the individual in terms of health and the inability to sufficiently heat the home, but also upon a broader range of stakeholders and wider society. It can be seen that policy founded upon an inaccurate measure of fuel policy has done little to reduce this social ill over the past decade and immediate action is required if there is to be any hope of reducing fuel poverty significantly by the end of the decade.

This thesis seeks to investigate the shortcomings of the current measure of fuel poverty utilised in the UK and

the alternatives offered by Prof. John Hills and by The Townsend Centre for International Poverty Research by creating a new measure of fuel poverty that draws upon both subjective experience and objective understanding of fuel poverty, taking into account both the individual and broader social influences upon the existence of the problem.

The project utilises a four stage research approach, examining the extant data, development of fuel poverty variables and theoretical model, model testing and confirmation, and implications for the UK fuel poverty figures. The research is organised across two separate but interlinking streams, objective data sources and subjective data sources.

There is significant evidence in the existing literature that the inadequate targeting of current and previous policies has been as a result of inadequate identification of the intended audience, and this is often attributed to the inadequacies of the current fuel poverty measure. It is the intention that the model of fuel poverty resulting from this research will provide practitioners, policy makers and academics with a more accurate picture of the scale and location of fuel poverty within the United Kingdom, whilst developing a composite indicator along OECD guidelines that can be utilised for future international comparison.

Keywords: fuel poverty; health; objective measurement; social practice theory; stakeholder theory; subjective measurement

The Relationship Between Strategy and Accounting through the Lens of Practice Theory

(October 2012)

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Abstract

A considerable amount of research has been done to investigate the relationship between accounting and strategy. Much of this research has adopted a positivist approach: strategy is considered the province of top management and is assumed to be stable over time (Chua, 2007). Moreover, accounting is regarded as subservient to strategy. Positivist researchers seek to identify which accounting systems fit specific types of strategy most efficiently. According to Jarzabkowski and Spee (2009), however, strategy is a dynamic process that involves different levels of management and evolves over time. Chua (2007) argues that strategy should not be considered an “abstract noun” but rather a “levied verb” (p. 489) - strategizing. Accounting can play an active role in the strategizing process; as Jorgensen and Messner (2010) argue, it can shape and reshape strategies.

This thesis aims to contribute to the literature by bridging the gap that exists in regard to the relationship

between accounting and strategy as situated social practices within supply chains, and by investigating the “outcome” of these practices. In today’s business world the competition is not between one organization and another, but between supply chains. This thesis will contribute to the body of interpretive research into supply chain accounting by introducing three concepts: “the situated functionality of accounting” (Ahrens and Chapman, 2007), strategy-as-practice (Whittington, 2007) and Schatzki’s (2002) practice theory. The research is qualitative, and the chosen research strategy is the single case study – the subject is Panda, a Saudi retail company.

Keywords: accounting; interpretive research; practice theory; situated social practices; strategizing; supply chains

Information Technology and Supply Chain Management

(October 2012)

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Abstract

The corporate philosophy of modern warfare holds that air power is an indispensable aspect of contemporary warfare; and the control of the air is a determinant for victory in any war. In addition to serving as a form of deterrence to probable aggressor states, air power is an invaluable tool for diplomatic bargaining (Olsen, 2007). Events in the past decades have shown that air power is inherently dependent on effective Supply Chain Management (SCM) (Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1998; Yoon, Kim & Sohn 2007). On the other hand, Information Technology (IT) is required as an essential catalyst for managing SCM multiple relationships.

Several Information Technology (IT) efforts aimed to enhance SCM functions have notably failed while concentrating on the technical aspects and neglecting the softer (or human) aspects. The human aspects which are the critical determinant for performance enhancement exhibit untold complex interactions.

The vast articles on IT and SCM have not been able to capture the pertinent factors that would enable the effective implementation of IT to enhance SCM (Olorunniwo & Xi, 2010; Maguire & Redman, 2006; Gunasekaran & Ngai 2003). There are some drawbacks in the conceptualisation and analysis of SCM; compounded by the limited understanding of the complex human aspect interactions involved. There is thus a substantial gap between the theory and practice of IT in SCM.

This research hopes to address these shortcomings by undertaking a study on the interactions of the soft

(human) factors of IT implementation with a view to developing a management framework that will enhance SCM functions in support of air power operations. The study employs a constructivism and interpretive research paradigm action research; focusing on human activity to gain understanding from the perception of people in the cases. The research employs a synergic application of concepts of Soft Systems Methodology (SSM), Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) and the Effective Technical and Human Implementation of Computer-based Systems (ETHICS). The unique approach facilitates sense making of the complex situation which involves different views from varied stakeholders. It takes into cognisance the need to eliminate all forms of works that do not add value to the SCM process rather than simply automating with IT. It also accounts for the need for technology to fit with social and organisational factors (Checkl & Scholes, 1990; Williams, 2005; Lewis, 1994; Mumford, 1995; Hammer & Champy, 1993; Gunasekaran & Nath, 1997).

The research hopes to contribute to policy and practice in enhancing IT implementation and SCM functions in the cases. It will invariably contribute in the theory of enabling precise thinking and intervention of IT implementation and SCM functions as well as in the methods for conceptualising and analysing supply chains to improve performance and impact.

Keywords: action research; air power; human factors; information technology; soft issues; supply chain management

An investigation into how working away from home affects the way you eat: a management consultant's view

(November 2012)

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Abstract

This qualitative investigation was aimed at understanding how eating habits were affected by working away from home. There is an increasing trend for management consultants to spend time away from home for prolonged periods of time (Singh, 2008), therefore highlighting the need to understand how diet is affected in these circumstances. The present study found two super-ordinate themes, identity and balance, and by analysing these using self-determination theory it was possible to see that perceived behavioural control could be affected

through the need to achieve autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2008). These findings extend knowledge into the area of food and work and highlight the importance of the work environment and its influence upon diet. The limitations of the existing study have been discussed as well as highlighting how gender differences may be an important influence.

Keywords: consultancy; eating; food; home; motivation; work

The response of the food industry to changes of the global economic climate

(November 2012)

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Abstract

David's research has focused on the economic and supply chain activity of the food sector for over 20 years. Primarily, this has examined the creation of and demand for, externalities of food production. Initially based on the land use sector, this has expanded to examine the wider food supply chain although much of his research remains focused on environmental sustainability within the sector. The research discussed in this presentation is a review of the current pressures on the food sector during the economic downturn and the consequences for retailers, consumers, mid-stream suppliers and primary producers. The presentation will show how consumer shopping behaviour, as a driver of production, has changed in the last few years and how retailers have responded with different signals up the supply chain.

It will also discuss how in addition to significant price pressure, the sector is facing considerable churn in consumer purchasing loyalty and input costs and the priorities for food supply management are changing as well as the models of operation. The paper uses sector level data to present a picture of how business models within the industry are changing and outlines a summary forward look at the sector and how practice might need to respond to continuing pressure for compliance whilst feeding an increasing population.

Keywords: economic downturn; food sector; purchasing loyalty; supply chain; supply models; upstream consequences



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