

**Clearing a Path Through the Management Fashion Jungle:  
Some Preliminary Trailblazing**

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**ABSTRACT**

Sixteen management fashions which emerged over the past five decades were identified and evaluated on eight criteria such as radicalness, broadness, and fear-induction. Analyses were conducted to examine the relationships among these criteria and fashion lifecycle, economic, and penetration variables to enhance understanding of fashion emergence, diffusion, and decline. Results suggest that fashions introduced in recent years as compared to those introduced in previous decades were more broad-based but had shorter life cycles. Contemporary fashions were more difficult for upper management to implement but appear to be abandoned more quickly than fashions of earlier times. Hypotheses relating fashions to economic variables were only partially supported. Unfavorable trade balance and mergers/acquisitions were positively correlated with broad-based, production-oriented fashions. Management consulting revenue was inversely related to people-oriented fashions. Labor cost, however, was uncorrelated with people-orientation but was positively associated with the broad-based criterion. Two potential explanations for the mixed results are offered.

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The management discipline is regularly bombarded with dramatic claims of new knowledge creation (Romei, 1995), not only from our profession's academic literature, but also from "gurus" promoting discourse on Aunique≅ and "revolutionary" techniques (Jackson, 1996). This stream of self-proclaimed innovations continues unabated despite the condemnation of journalists and popular press authors who seem to be writing with increasing frequency on management's surprising inability to resist such Afads≅ and Afashions≅ (e.g., AConsulting Firms,≅ October 20, 1998; O=Shea & Madigan, 1998). The profession=s tendency to tenaciously latch onto unproven conjecture (referred to by Drucker and Davenport (1997) as management being Afashion-consciousness≅), despite widespread experienced failure with previous fashions (Ashkenas, 1994) raises the question of whether managers are simply attempting to outsource critical thought. As a result, the anti-fad movement is gaining such momentum that fashion-bashing itself is becoming fashionable, leading an article in The Economist to question whether Afadless management≅ might be the next management fad (AInstant Coffee,≅ 1997). Similarly, management Afads≅ and Afashions≅ have recently been referred to as the *Af-words@* in business (Bamber, 1999). Yet, despite all the

rhetoric on management fashions, there has been surprisingly little systematic empirical inquiry into the area (cf. Worren, 1996).

One potential deterrent of investigations into this research stream may be the lack of collective agreement regarding what constitutes a management fad or fashion. Although these terms are often used in a pejorative sense to label evolving managerial practices, typical publications of this genre neither comprehensively define fad or fashion, nor specify criteria for inclusion of a fashion in their listings (see Ashkenas, 1994; Baillie, 1995a; Currie, 1999; Gordon, 1997; and Stipp, 1996 for a small sampling of research publications incorporating this approach).

As a result, conceptualizations of fads and fashions vary from something which is potentially useful (Bohl, Slocum, Luthans, & Hodgetts, 1996) to something which can be useless (Donaldson & Hilmer, 1998); from something trivial (Gordon, 1997) to something of significant importance (Dreilinger, 1994); and from something which has mass appeal (Abrahamson, 1991) to something which is adopted only by a frenzied few in a narrowly defined niche (Kieser, 1997).

For the purposes of this research, our definition of *management fashion* draws on a number of published interpretations, with the intent of offering a comprehensive, operational

explanation that can be used to distinguish between *Atransient* (our focal concept) and *Aentrenched* or *Ainstitutionalized* (Scott, 1995) management practices. Consistent with institutional theory (Klein & Sorra, 1996), entrenched practices are those that an enterprise is unlikely to abandon, even under external pressures (Zeitz, Mittal, & McAulay, 1999), because they are deeply embedded in the organization (Mohrman, Mohrman, Ledford, Cummings, & Lawler, 1990) and integral to its collective cognitive structure, psyche, and values.

*In contrast, management fashions* are defined as interventions which: (a) are subject to social contagion (Zeitz, Mittal, & McAulay, 1999) because they are novel (Tomei, 2000) and perceived to be *Aprogressive* (that is, preferable to preexisting fashions; Abrahamson, 1991); (b) are or are perceived to be innovative, rational, and functional (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999; Caleche & Lilien, 1986; Jackson, 1997); (c) are aimed at encouraging better organizational performance either materialistically or symbolically (through projecting an enhanced image; Nystrom & Starbuck, 1984); (d) are motivated by a desire either to remedy some existing operational deficiency or to prospectively capitalize on opportunities for improvement (Abrahamson, 1991); and (e) are considered to be of transitory value (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999; Aldag, 1997; Zeitz, Mittal, & McAulay, 1999), because despite a post-latency period of acceptance (Rogers,

1995), a lack of systematic and comprehensive research legitimizing their prolonged utility or generalizability emerges (Aldag & Fuller, 1993; Drucker & Davenport, 1997; Dunnette, 1966; Zucker, 1991).

Theoretically approaching the study of management fashions by incorporating this definition would parallel and be consistent with Koontz's (1961) contention that management theories should be: (a) useful in improving practice; (b) understandable to the practitioner; (c) directive; (d) manageable; and (e) recognized as a part of a larger body of knowledge (cf. Koontz, 1980). Further, clarification of the management fashion construct and definition may serve to dissuade some of the jungle warfare characterizing the management field by reducing semantic confusion and dismantling some communication barriers (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1976), particularly between academics and practitioners (Huff, 2000).

Indeed, this is important for as far back as the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century theoreticians have been lamenting over the disturbing proliferation of fads and fashions (Meyerson & Katz, 1957), and the inestimable amount of psychological research energy... dissipated in fighting brush fires spawned by faddish theories (Dunnette, 1966, p. 346). Finally, the formulation of an accepted definition of management fashions can contribute to

the call for Amore serious research on fads $\cong$  (Aldag, 1997, p.16), which is necessitated by the observation that far more managerial interventions introduced into organizations resemble transient fads than true programs of social change (Zucker, 1988).

The sixteen management fashions which comprised the central focus of this research are listed in Table 1. While each of these fashions meets the five criteria of the definition provided earlier, further evidence on their inclusion and validation is provided in the Methods section.

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Insert Table 1 about here

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Given the importance of fashions to both the professional engaging in and the scientist studying the discipline of management (Aldag, 1997), this research adopts as its objective an enrichment in understanding of the emergence, lifecycle, and demise of different types of management fashions through application of historical investigatory techniques. The possible benefits of pursuing this objective are numerous and consistent with the value of historiography (Carson & Carson, 1998). First, a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of management fashions may assist managers in detecting interventions which are likely to be undermined and/or unsuccessful in a given context (DeToro & McCabe, 1997). Second, data which can objectify the study of

management fashions may serve to dispel some myths, illuminate situations where false conclusions were prematurely reached, or expose research that has embodied an advocacy rather than an objective focus (Dreilinger, 1994; Letscher, 1994). And finally, reviewing the history of management fashions in a systematic manner may permit some forecasting with regard to future interventions which are likely to emerge and proliferate (Dunsing & Matejka, 1994), as well as aid organizations in future resource allocation decisions (Zeitz, Mittal, & McAulay, 1999).

In undertaking this study, it is important to note that this manuscript differs from any other extant study of management fashions in the following ways:

1. No previous publication has considered as many different fashions (in this manuscript, 16 fashions are analyzed). In comparison, most extant empirical studies on management fashions examined only one or two fashions (e.g., Barley, Meyer, & Gash=s (1988) study on corporate culture; Abrahamson=s (1996) study on quality circles and employee stock ownership plans). The maximum number of different fashions examined in any previous empirical study was eight (in Palmer and Dunford=s (1997) article in New Zealand Strategic Management). In that particular study examining fashion adoption and penetration rate differences in private and public sector organizations, the eight fashions (e.g., disaggregation and boundary reductions) included all emerged

within the last decade.

2. No previous publication has traced such a large number of fashions over four to five decades as is done in this study. In fact, most published manuscripts on management fashions date back only to the late 1970s and early 1980s (Barley & Kunda, 1992), precluding a full historical tracing of the lifecycle of many fashions. The tendency to temporally limit the study period in fashion research is apparently driven by: (1) the need to examine only those time periods associated with the one or two specific fashions examined in the research project; and (2) the inability to electronically access literature search databases which catalogue publications prior to the late 1970s (in the absence of electronic searches, more time-consuming manual bibliographic techniques are required; Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999).

3. No previous publication has moved beyond analyzing a limited number of specific fashions to systematically characterizing fashions along established dimensions (such as difficulty in fashion implementation and the degree of fashion radicalness) for the purpose of generalizing and forecasting.

4. No previous publication has attempted to correlate the emergence of management fashions with specific macroeconomic indicators characterizing the external environment at the time of the fashion's introduction. Notably, much effort has been expended speculating and theorizing about reasons for the emergence and

adoption of management fashions (cf. Carson, Lanier, Carson, & Birkenmeier, 1999). For example, authors have proposed fashion diffusion is enhanced by factors including, but not limited to, social-psychological forces such as mimetic and normative isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), exogenous mechanisms such as regulatory influences (Zeitz, Mittal, & McAulay, 1999), self-reported environmental turbulence (Palmer & Dunford, 1997), long-waves of economic expansion and contraction (Abrahamson, 1996), and perceived performance gaps induced by global competition (Abrahamson and Fairchild (1999) examined the quality and penetration of Japanese automakers in the American market during the introductory era of quality management techniques). However, no previous research has attempted to test Abrahamson's (1996) proposition that management fashion emergence will be related to specific macroeconomic factors.

In essence, it is hoped that by continuing to advance the discussion of management fashions to a more scientific level (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999), the current popularity of "fashion-bashing" can either be legitimized when appropriate or discouraged when inappropriate (Aldag, 1997). Abrahamson (1996) notes that managers seek rational and progressive fashions. That is, fashions are rational in that they efficiently improve the organization, and they are progressive because they are newer and better than preexisting fashions. This is consistent with a

sociological conceptualization that proposes that a management fashion is used in a capitalist economy in order for organizations to outcompete each other (Kieser, 1997). This sociological perspective is adopted by the authors, as we assume that managers attempt to rationally acquire a competitive advantage through adoption of management fashions.

Abrahamson (1997) suggests that more careful empirical analysis of management fashions might help explain not only management's general tendency toward adoption, but also "why new employee management rhetorics emerge when they do, and what explains their post-emergence prevalence" (p.492). Addressing questions similar to these is the purpose of this manuscript.

### **Hypotheses Development**

Like products and industries, the pattern of management fashions' existence has been shown to follow a bell-shaped curve (Spell, 1998). Specifically, management fashions typically progress through an established lifecycle (cf. Ettorre, 1997), although, the length of time required for progression to each of these stages varies (Crainer, 1996, 1998). The stages in the lifecycle include: (a) invention (marginal awareness of fashion is created); (b) acceptance (implementation of fashion); (c) disenchantment (evaluation and frustration with the fashion); and (d) decline (cessation of the fashion).

One common refrain recited in both the academic and

practitioner literature on management fashions is that while the number of available fashions is increasing, the lifecycles of these fashions are simultaneously shortening (Spell, 1998). Researchers predict that interest in a fashion of the 1990s will span just three to four years (Zemke, 1997). Indeed, many proclaim "the cycle time of each succeeding fashion, as it goes through the now predictable pattern, appears to grow shorter" (Dreilinger, 1994, p.11), resulting in a continually declining half-life.

Anecdotal explanations of why more contemporary fashions are less likely to enjoy a longer lifecycle as compared to their earlier counterparts tend to revolve around some shortcomings of managers. Consistent with fundamental attribution error, environmental causes have been downplayed in favor of dispositional ones (such as managers are overly influenced by cunning consultants or they adopt fashions primarily for blame-diffusion; Baillie, 1995b; Laverty, 1996). But instead of looking to characteristics of fashion adopters, perhaps it would be useful to examine characteristics of fashions themselves and competitive environmental pressures to explore causes of the perceived lifecycle compression of management fashions.

The underlying theoretical basis of this manuscript relies on the idea that fashion adoption is stimulated by a desire to remain competitive in an environment where external pressures are

present. When such pressures exist, or increase in intensity, social psychologists have suggested that our temporal orientations may be altered (McGrath, 1988), such that a greater sense of urgency is created (see Conte, Landy, & Mathieu, 1995 for a review of micro-level time urgency). In essence, environmental pressures can cause overestimation in actual time elapsed, result in speedier judgements, encourage a quicker activity pace, promote mimetic responses, and favor change over continuity (Bornstein, 1979). Because the contemporary business environment is becoming increasingly complex (Kurzweil, 1999; Surface, 1999), and because there are many people in high-level management whose cognitive capacity...is simply not adequate to grasp all the data with which they must now deal (Levinson, 1988, p.121), anecdotal observations of the attenuated lifecycle of contemporary fashions are likely valid.

Hypothesis 1 is therefore advanced to assess whether lifecycles are actually shortening.

HYPOTHESIS 1: THERE WILL BE A CORRELATION BETWEEN THE YEAR IN WHICH A FASHION EMERGED AND THE LENGTH OF ITS LIFECYCLE, SUCH THAT FASHIONS INTRODUCED LATER IN THE STUDY PERIOD WILL HAVE SHORTER LIVES.

To the extent that demand for management fashions persists, it can be concluded that firms are not yet satisfied that they have developed optimal management tactics and techniques. It is plausible that the introduction of new management fashions may

signal a continued search for the perfect management elixir. In essence, then, it can be posited that new fashion adoption is compelled by recognition that previous fashions were, to some degree, failures (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999).

While it seems paradoxical that a tradition of misguided fashion adoption would signal a tendency toward future adoption, there is evidence to support this case (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999). As Nohria and Berkley (1994) explain, "adopting 'new' ideas became a way for companies to signal to the world that they were progressive, that they had come to grips with their misguided pasts, and that they were committed to change"(p. 128).

When previously adopted fashions are viewed as being flawed to some degree, decision-framing theory would suggest that fashion adopters would become more risk-seeking (Whyte, 1991), demanding and embracing fashions which would be more transformational and comprehensive (McGill & Slocum, 1993). In fact, a review of the discourse produced on fashions of the 1980s and 1990s supports the notion that these fashions tend to be more revolutionary than those of earlier decades, in that they require organization-wide transformation initiated by upper management (Flamholtz, 1995).

It has further been suggested that, while managers seek such complex and broad-based fashions, they simultaneously desire control over them. As Jermier (1998), explains:

Recent technological changes, managerial interventions, and

organizational experiments, many of which have been hailed as revolutionary or paradigm-breaking in both the academic and popular press, are merely fads. They have received great fanfare largely because they disguise control in the rhetoric of emancipation and, therefore, seem more humanistic. But their substance lies in the unstated promise of providing more control for elites. (p.236)

It is consequently hypothesized that despite managers' migration toward more risk-seeking and control-taking behavior, contemporary management fashions will be more broad-based (organization-wide) and complex (difficult to implement).

HYPOTHESIS 2: THERE WILL BE A POSITIVE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE YEAR IN WHICH A MANAGEMENT FASHION WAS INTRODUCED AND: (1) THE DIFFICULTY OF THE FASHION, (2) THE BROADNESS OF THE FASHION, AND (3) THE DEGREE TO WHICH RESPONSIBILITY FOR FASHION IMPLEMENTATION RESIDES WITH UPPER MANAGEMENT.

It has been previously hypothesized that more contemporary management fashions will experience a shorter lifespan for reasons emanating from environmental pressures causing a shift in temporal orientations. If such is the case, it would seem that if these fashions are characterized as difficult, broad-based, and manager-dependent, a predictable outcome would be the imminent and expedient demise of modern fashions.

This assertion is derived from the following logic. If fashion adopters are generally less patient because of

environmental pressures, and contemporary fashions possess characteristics that will render realization of benefits a long-term proposition, then managers already predisposed to impatience will likely abandon the fashion prior to its logical conclusion (Bowie, 1991). Importantly, this proposition may appear contradictory, in that fashions which are more broad-based and difficult to implement would require greater forbearance from management allowing the fashions sufficient time to yield benefits. Instead, however, the interaction of environmentally-induced adopter impatience and fashion characteristics suggests Hypothesis 3.

HYPOTHESIS 3: THERE WILL BE A NEGATIVE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LIFESPAN OF A MANAGEMENT FASHION AND: (1) THE DIFFICULTY OF THE FASHION, (2) THE BROADNESS OF THE FASHION, AND (3) THE DEGREE TO WHICH RESPONSIBILITY FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FASHION RESIDES WITH UPPER MANAGEMENT.

Hypotheses 4 through 6 explore specific economic/environmental indicators of fashions, which may help managers to anticipate how external conditions may precipitate the emergence of fashions possessing defined characteristics. Although it is logical to expect that certain types of management fashions will arise coincidentally with certain types of economic indicators, such an analysis has not yet been undertaken. The only similar type of analysis has been an assessment of long-wave cycles of economic activities which reflect periods of peaks and

troughs (Abrahamson, 1996).

In this particular study, such economic cycles are statistically controlled for in order to isolate their overall effects while specific environmental indicators are investigated. Although economic variable selection is discussed in more detail in the Methods section, it is necessary to briefly review the specific indicators included prior to hypotheses development. Trade balance is included as an indicator of overall global competitiveness, corporate profits as a benchmark of organizations' financial health, and per-unit labor costs as evidence of efficiency. Further, information was collected on the number of mergers and acquisitions each year throughout the study period to reflect structural alterations. Finally, management consulting industry revenue statistics were gathered to potentially offer greater insight into the degree to which management fashion implementation may indeed be supply driven.

It is anticipated that an unfavorable trade balance, (reflecting a decline in competitiveness; Freeman, 1999; Porter, 1990) and high per-unit labor costs (indicating suboptimal efficiency; McCally, 1998) will stimulate interest in management fashions which are organization-wide (Kopelman, 1998) and production-oriented (cf. Burpitt & Rondinelli, 1998). Broad-based, organization-wide fashions which are production-oriented are most likely to be implemented under such conditions because

pervasive actions are likely to be required to enhance or restore competitiveness (Barley & Kunda, 1992; LaJeunesse, 1999). This argument is supported by the Aefficiency-wage $\cong$  hypothesis which states that depressed efficiency and corresponding conditions of declining competitiveness stimulate attention in innovative ways to enhance productivity (Ackerlof & Yellen, 1986). Thus, Hypothesis 4 is offered.

HYPOTHESIS 4: MANAGEMENT FASHIONS WHICH ARE BROAD-BASED AND PRODUCTION-ORIENTED WILL BE ASSOCIATED WITH CONDITIONS OF UNFAVORABLE TRADE BALANCE AND HIGH LABOR COSTS.

The positive relationship between investment in human resources and corporate profit has been extensively documented (cf. Katz, 1998; Lawler, 2000; Pfeffer, 1998) and well substantiated (Pickles, Bookbinder, & Watts, 1999). Conversely, however, there is also some evidence that high corporate profits may allow organizations to focus on interventions primarily designed to benefit the human resources of the firm (cf. Laabs, 1998; Pickles, Bookbinder, & Watts, 1999). As people-oriented fashions tend to be executed from within (Canback, 1999), and are perceived to require less technical assistance (Wickens, 1995), it is proposed that the management consulting industry revenue will vary inversely with widespread interest in people-oriented fashions. Hence, it is suggested:

HYPOTHESIS 5: MANAGEMENT FASHIONS WHICH ARE MORE PEOPLE-ORIENTED WILL BE ASSOCIATED WITH CONDITIONS OF HIGHER CORPORATE PROFITS AND LOWER MANAGEMENT CONSULTING INDUSTRY

REVENUE.

Research suggests that when independent enterprises combine, either through merger or acquisition, the integrated firm has a narrow span of only 14 months to successfully assimilate the two distinct entities (Hickins, 1999). Given this urgency, combined with the knowledge that 60% to 80% of all such unions fail to meet strategic and financial objectives (Marks & Mirvis, 2000), the transitional period is conducive to the implementation of organization-wide interventions aimed at coordinating, aligning, and benefitting both the people (Dessler, 1999) and the production systems (Ramaswamy, 1997) of the new pluralistic organization (Marks & Mirvis, 2000).

Adoption of management fashions during the transitioning process offers several potential benefits. First, implementation of a fashion during this period may be more acceptable to employees who have come to expect and anticipate large scale changes as a result of the union (Comeau-Kirschner, 1999). Second, certain management fashions may accelerate internal acceptance of the union by enhancing solidarity and commitment to an intervention not imposed by either of the partners but instead initiated by the new combined organization. Third, effective fashion implementation offers an immediate opportunity for the recently created organization to experience a rapid operational success (e.g., Masciarelli, 1998).

Mergers and acquisitions are difficult for organizations. As Tetenbaum (2000) describes, there are heavy tolls: disrupted work processes, defection of customers, diminished investor confidence, loss of key talent, demotivation and diminished performance of employees (p.24). People-oriented interventions may reduce morale problems and voluntary resignations which are commonplace during the post-merger period (Whitaker, 1999), and may assuage some of the concerns created by combining colliding cultures. Indeed, research suggests that most failed unions are attributed to inattention to the people element (Johnson & Rich, 2000).

In addition, production-oriented fashions may accelerate improvements in organizational capacity and strategic alignment of systems, preventing what has been labeled the post-merger drift.

This drift has been blamed for the 25% to 50% drop in productivity often following a merger, as well as for the negative correlation between merger activity and profitability (Tetenbaum, 1999). Importantly, however, for management fashions which are either people- or production-oriented to enhance value, the interventions must touch all aspects and areas of the new company (Hickins, 1999). Hence, it is proposed:

HYPOTHESIS 6: MANAGEMENT FASHIONS WHICH ARE BROAD-BASED AND BOTH PEOPLE-AND PRODUCTION-ORIENTED WILL BE ASSOCIATED WITH A LARGER NUMBER OF MERGERS AND ACQUISITIONS.

## **Method**

Selecting the Management Fashions

Recognizing the absence of a universally accepted compendium of management fashions, the authors carefully examined methodologies used in previous management fashion research to justify the fashion selection process. However, the subjective sampling techniques (Palmer & Dunford, 1999), as well as those which were driven by Apractical considerations≅ and methodological convenience (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999) were rejected in favor of the historiographic technique of *triangulation* (cf. Tomei, 2000)<sup>1</sup>. Triangulation recognizes that historians work with large quantities of diverse, contradictory, incomplete, and complicated assertions derived from sources of differing perspectives, and thus demands that sources be compared with others to enhance reliability and validity of incorporated information (Toner, 1993).

As noted previously, any candidate for consideration as a management fashion had to conform to our operational definition. Further, an organization had to be able to practically and

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<sup>1</sup> This decision was made to prevent the authors from allowing technological constraints to influence and impede our fashion identification process. Abrahamson (1999) writes Apractical considerations also drove us to focus on quality circles, because we could obtain data on a moderately sized, full wave of discourse in computer readable format...≅(p. 716). Given our research objective differed from that of Abrahamson (1999), it was critical for us to be as inclusive in the fashion selection process as possible.

theoretically implement the fashion (which would eliminate a concept such as Theory X and Theory Y, for example).

Using these guiding principles to direct our search, we used three unique sources to compile our final list of management fashions. These three sources are described below:

Source 1-->Recognition As a Management Fashion in Academic and Popular Business Press Publications

A comprehensive review of research was conducted to identify books, articles and proceedings papers on the topic of management fads and fashions. In many such publications, authors would provide examples of fashions/fads (e.g., Abrahamson, 1996; Ashkenas, 1994; Butler, 1998; Byrne, 1997; DeToro & McCabe, 1997; Donaldson & Hilmer, 1998; Fincham & Evans, 1999; Peak, 1997; Worren, 1996; Walston, Bogue, & Schwartz, 1999). In other cases, such articles reviewed management fashions of previous eras (e.g., Abrahamson, 1997; Malone, 1997; Spell, 1998). We also consulted and incorporated listings from popular-press books written specifically on management fashions (Micklethwait & Wooldridge, 1998; Shapiro, Shahro, & Baldwin, 1997; Stein & Yoskovitz, 1998; Wendel & Svensson, 1995). Inclusion in three such publications provided an initial source of evidence that interventions were perceived as management fashions.

Source 2--> Identification of Intervention as a Focus of Business Consulting Firm Activities During the Era of Its Introduction but

Not During Later Periods.

Because of the assertion that management fashion diffusion may partially be supply-driven by consultants (cf. Kieser, 1997), and that consultants certainly respond to environmental demands (cf. Bushko & Raynor, 1999), we believe it is important to ascertain consulting firm activities over the study period. Specifically, the researchers used annual reports and other published material from consulting firms to determine if such firms began emphasizing certain interventions in a time period which corresponded to the interventions' appearance in business literature. For example, Anderson Consulting's emphasis on reengineering following the publication of Hammer and Champy's (1993) original treatise on the subject contributes to the validation that business enterprises perceived reengineering to be a viable emerging intervention. To further assist in this effort, the consulting firm of Bain & Co. (also see Byrne, 1997; Graves, 1994; Rigby, 1998) regularly produces a listing of management buzzwords/fads/fashions. This source was also used.

Source 3--> Harvard Business Review's Anniversary Publication Entitled, "75 Years of Management Practice & Ideas."

In September-October of 1997, Harvard Business Review published a supplemental insert covering seminal management ideas, events and publications occurring between the years of 1922 and 1997. This comprehensive reference was used as the third source

in our triangulation strategy, such that fashions were retained on the list only when they were addressed in this publication.

The resultant list generated from these three sources was then trimmed, eliminating those fashions which did not warrant a major heading in Business Periodicals Index within a decade of their introduction into the management domain. Examples of fashions that were discarded at various stages of the selection process include human resource accounting, one-minute managing, broadbanding, and intrapreneurship.

#### Collecting Information on the Management Fashions

Having identified the fashions, data were collected concerning the number of articles in which the fashion was the main subject. To clarify the conditions under which the fashion would constitute the main subject of the publication, an example would be the inclusion of an article which investigated the magnitude of reengineering-induced layoffs. Yet, an article which concerned the optimal provision of outplacement services to those laid-off as a result of reengineering would be excluded. Similarly, an article on optimal duration of quality circles would be included, but one which cursorily recommends quality circles as a technique for overcoming production defects would be excluded.

The data collected resulted from a manual search/count of Business Periodicals Index annually for the period of the mid-1950's to the late-1990's. This longitudinal bibliometric data-

collection technique has been praised by management scientists (Chen, Chong, & Tong, 1994) as well as by management fashion theoreticians (Abrahamson, 1996; Abrahamson, 1997) as being appropriate for the investigation of the cyclic influences of managerial innovations. Further, the manual technique was judged to be preferential to electronic searches, as automated systems will count, as a hit, any article in which the fashion was identified as a keyword, even if the fashion is not the primary or even major subject of the article.

Also recorded was the number of pages in each annual issue of the Business Periodicals Index, as this information was used as a proxy to control for the enormous explosion in publication outlets throughout this period (i.e., partial correlations were computed controlling for number of pages). The fashions examined were introduced between the decades of the 1950s and 1990s, a period in which observers claim the number of fashions grew exponentially (Shelley, 1996; Wartenberg, 1996).

While the number of articles penned regarding a specific management fashion is an imperfect proxy for degree of implementation, it is used because: (a) it is the most reliable proxy for implementation available; (b) it has been widely used, and thus permits comparison with extant empirical manuscripts on management fashion; (c) even if not a direct gauge of implementation, it certainly measures interest in the fashion

(Abrahamson, 1991); and (d) fashion discourse and adoption have been empirically shown to coevolve (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999).

### Evaluating the Management Fashions

Having identified the fashions and the number of articles in which the fashions were the primary subject, the next step involved evaluating each fashion on several criteria to determine its core characteristics. Each of the criteria used has been recognized in the extant literature as an important distinction among types of fashions. Criteria assessments were made by three of the authors of this manuscript in addition to an outside expert judge. Each of the raters had terminal degrees in management and had been teaching management theory a minimum of seven years. Final ratings were made through traditional consensus building following each judge making an independent assessment (interrater reliability estimates on the eight criteria ranged from  $\alpha=.81$  to  $\alpha=.94$ ). In only three of the 128 assessments (i.e., eight criteria assessments for each of the 16 fashions) was there more than a two-digit difference among individual ratings. To ensure each rater had an accurate and comprehensive understanding of the evaluated fashions, articles on the original formulation of the fashions as well as more contemporary articles on their applications and implementations were reviewed (and discussed in

cases of disagreement)<sup>2</sup>.

The eight criteria upon which each of the fashions was rated are described below (the means and standard deviations of the ratings are also included to demonstrate appropriateness of distribution).

Difficulty in Implementation (1 = easy; 5 = hard;  $\bar{m}$  = 3.0;  $\bar{sd}$  = 1.4). This criterion assesses the degree to which implementation of the fashion in organizations is difficult.

Degree of Radicalness (1 = not at all radical; 5 = extremely radical;  $\bar{m}$  = 2.6;  $\bar{sd}$  = 1.1). This criterion represents the degree to which the fashion encourages divergence from established management thinking.

People-Oriented (1 = not at all; 5 = extremely;  $\bar{m}$  = 2.4;  $\bar{sd}$  = 1.6). Consistent with Abrahamson's (1997) explanation of normative rhetoric, this criterion represents the degree to which the fashion considers the needs, concerns, and motivations of the

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<sup>2</sup> The methodological decision to use consensus building over averaging or democratic processes for the determination of fashion criteria assessments was based on a review of the decision-making (e.g., Dooley & Fryxell, 1999; McGrath, 1999) and other relevant literature (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999). This review indicated the circumstances and objectives of the group decision-making process were conducive to consensus mapping. These circumstances included a small number (4) of expert judges, experience with the subject matter, equality of authority, subjective topic, limited response variability, shared understanding of facts, agreement on procedural issues, opportunity for face-to-face discussions, and availability and willingness to spend time in the deliberation process (Gear, Minkes, & Read, 1999; MacLean & Beckley, 2000; Walsh & Wood, 1992).

staff.

Production-Oriented (1 = not at all; 5 = extremely;  $\underline{m}$  = 3.8;  $\underline{sd}$  = 1.3). Recognizing that some management fashions may simultaneously be people- and production-oriented, these two variables were not treated as a single continuum and were evaluated separately. Consistent with Abrahamson's (1997) explanation of rational rhetoric, this criterion represents the degree to which the fashion focuses on enhancing the output and productivity of the organization.

Management Seen as Blameless (1 = fashion blames management; 5 = fashion holds management blameless;  $\underline{m}$  = 2.9;  $\underline{sd}$  = 1.2). This criterion represents the degree to which the fashion holds management responsible for the creation of organizational ills that have given rise to the need to adopt the fashion.

Fear-Inducing (1 = not at all anxiety-provoking; 5 = extremely anxiety-provoking;  $\underline{m}$  = 2.7;  $\underline{sd}$  = 1.3). This criterion relates to the degree to which the fashion is likely to create apprehension, anxiety, and consternation among the members of the organization.

Breadth of the Fashion (1 = narrow; 5 = organization-wide;  $\underline{m}$  = 3.7;  $\underline{sd}$  = 1.4). This criterion assesses the degree to which the fashion targets (or affects) specific people, project teams, or departments (more narrow) as opposed to targeting the entire organization consistent with a systems perspective (more broad).

Burden of Implementation on Management (1 = more on lower levels;

5 = more on management;  $\underline{m}$  = 3.5;  $\underline{sd}$  = 1.2). This criterion focuses on whether successful implementation of the fashion demands more effort, responsibility, and persistence from upper management versus those lower in the hierarchy.

### Economic Indicators

The primary economic indicators utilized in this study were trade balance, corporate profits, and labor costs. These three were selected after an assessment and review of the Council of Economic Advisers Economic Reports of the President. This annual report summarizes data on economic indicators deemed most trackable and indicative of the nation=s economic health. The report is divided into nine major sections.

It was believed that a primary indicator from three of these sections was significant and relevant to this study: (a) International Statistics (represented by Trade Balance); (b) Corporate Profits and Finance (represented by Corporate Profits); and (c) Production and Business Activity (represented by Per-Unit Labor Costs). The remaining six areas, which were not considered relevant to the theoretical formulation of study hypotheses, include Agriculture, Government Finance, Money Stock, Population, National Income, and Prices.

For reasons clarified previously in the manuscript, data on Management Consulting Industry Revenue and Number of Mergers and Acquisitions were also collected. Historical data on the economic

indicators were collected from the Statistical Abstract of the United States, Historical Statistics of the United States: Colonial Times to 1970, and the Economic Report of the President for each year of the study. To temper the potentially confounding effect of temporal cyclical fluctuations in basic economic cycles, historical data on U.S. Business Cycle Fluctuations were also collected from these sources and controlled for when empirically investigating the economic variables reviewed above.

### Results

Table 2 shows assessment scores and Table 3 reports inter-correlations among the criteria used to evaluate the fashions.

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Insert Tables 2 and 3 about here  
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Table 3 demonstrates that fashions rating higher in radicalness also tend to be more difficult to implement ( $r = .37$ ,  $p \leq .10$ ) and more fear-inducing ( $r = .66$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ). Radical fashions also tend to be the ones which levy blame on management for existing organizational ineptness ( $r = -.44$ ,  $p \leq .10$ ), while this latter characteristic also correlates with the criterion of fear-induction ( $r = -.82$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ). There is a strong inverse correlation between the characteristics of people- and production-orientation ( $r = -.89$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ), with production-oriented fashions

tending to be the ones in which management is blamed ( $r = -.48$ ,  $p \leq .10$ ). People-oriented fashions appear less broad in scope ( $r = -.44$ ,  $p \leq .10$ ), although fashions which are more broad place the burden of responsibility for implementation on management ( $r = .66$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ), and are more difficult to implement ( $r = .73$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ).

Hypothesis 1 suggested that fashions introduced later in the study period would have shorter lives. Corroborating evidence that this is the case is provided in both Figure 1 and Table 4.

Figure 1 depicts that PERT, a fashion of the 1950s, appears to have experienced a much lengthier lifecycle than did quality circles, a fashion of the 1970s, or reengineering, a fashion of the 1990s (although reengineering had not yet peaked as a fashion during the data collection years).

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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The graphic also depicts that the peaks of fashions in latter decades are spiking more sharply. This pattern is consistent with previous research plotting the number of publications on a specific management fashion on one axis and time on the other. Such investigations have revealed that "while the cycles of the management fashions are getting shorter...at the same time their peaks are getting higher" (Kieser, 1997, p.51), meaning that there

appears to be more widespread interest in and/or communication about fashions today than in previous decades. Yet, the final column of Table 4 indicates that, after controlling for the significant proliferation in publication outlets, this does not appear to be the case. Hence, it cannot be concluded that there is any more significant interest in management fashions today than there was earlier in the century.

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Insert Table 4 about here  
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Table 5 offers further evidence on the relationship between the era in which a fashion was introduced and its lifecycle.

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Insert Table 5 about here  
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There was a strong negative correlation ( $r = -.99$ ,  $p \leq .01$ ) between the year in which a fashion was introduced and the number of years in its lifecycle. Importantly, computation of fashion lifecycle deserves elaboration. Whenever possible, life was computed as the difference between the year an article was first published on the fashion and the year in which publications on the fashion dropped to zero for one year. Only those management fashions which had actually peaked by the conclusion of the study period were included in this analysis and in any analysis where

year of peak or lifespan was assessed. When computing life for ongoing management fashions, again only those fashions which had actually peaked (all management fashions through the 1970s and...Culture--80s, TQM--80s, ISO--80s<sup>3</sup>, Benchmarking--80s, Empowerment--90s, Horizontalizing--90s, and Vision--90s) were included in the analysis.

In such cases, the fashion was assumed to have a lifespan equal to the number of years difference between the end of the study period and the first year of its introduction into the management literature. It is recognized, however, that this methodology may strengthen the correlations between year of introduction (YI) and fashion lifecycle (LIFE;  $r = -.99$ ). To assess the effect of this methodological decision, additional computations were conducted with different criteria used to

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<sup>3</sup> We would like to thank an anonymous reviewer for recognizing that ISO may be perceived as having matured beyond a fashion and progressed to a more entrenched phase. However, it was included in the present study because: (a) it met our comprehensive criteria for inclusion; (b) ISO has been labeled in the literature as being a fashion (Ashkenas, 1994; Larson, 1999); and (c) while in some industries (such as the automotive industry) ISO-type standards may be entrenched, it is used voluntarily in others (such as municipalities) where the approach is still novel (see Lawler, 1996, p.256 for how an intervention may be a fashion at the industry level but not at the societal level). Another potential difference between ISO and the other 15 fashions is that ISO activities are often motivated by external regulatory pressures (Zeitz et al, 1999), referred to as coercive isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p.66). Nevertheless, such a reason for adoption does not invalidate its inclusion because it still conforms to our definition and guidelines.

determine life.

When the end a management fashion=s lifecycle was determined by the year in which the number of publications was 10% or less than the peak number, the correlation between year of introduction and life dropped to  $\underline{r} = -.92$ . When end of life cycle was computed as the year in which the number of publications dropped to 50% or less as compared to the peak year, the correlation further dropped to  $\underline{r} = -.78$ . However, in all three cases the correlation remained significant. And, other sources of validation (Figure 1 and Table 4) provide further corroboration for support of Hypothesis 1. That is, it appears that contemporary fashions reach the decline stage much faster than earlier fashions. Additionally, the data in Table 5 show that earlier fashions peaked later ( $\underline{r} = -.73, p \leq .01$ ), and that there is a strong correlation between peaking quickly and a shorter lifecycle ( $\underline{r} = .74, p \leq .01$ ).

Hypothesis 2 speculated that those management fashions introduced more recently would be more difficult to implement, more broad-based, and would require more substantial implementation efforts from upper management. Table 6 indicates this hypothesis was supported ( $r = .53, p \leq .05$ ;  $r = .69, p \leq .01$ ;  $r = .53, p \leq .05$ , respectively).

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Insert Table 6 about here

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Data from Table 6 also provide support for Hypothesis 3, which suggested a negative correlation between the lifespan of a management fashion (measured two ways: (1) by the number of years it took the fashion to peak, and (2) by the number of years in the fashion's lifecycle) and the difficulty in implementation of the fashion ( $\underline{r} = -.42, p \leq .10$ ;  $\underline{r} = -.54, p \leq .05$ , respectively), the broadness of the fashion ( $\underline{r} = -.59, p \leq .05$ ;  $\underline{r} = -.69, p \leq .01$ , respectively), and the degree to which responsibility for implementation of fashion resides with upper management ( $\underline{r} = -.43, p \leq .10$ ;  $\underline{r} = -.58, p \leq .05$ , respectively). These data serve to reinforce the notion that while contemporary fashions, because of their characteristics, demand long-term commitment and persistence, such fashions do not appear to be given the time necessary to ensure positive outcomes.

Not proposed but reported in the table is that later management fashions also tend to be more production-oriented ( $\underline{r} = .49, p \leq .10$ ) and less people-oriented ( $\underline{r} = -.50, p \leq .05$ ) than those of earlier eras, and people-oriented fashions tend to experience a much longer lifecycle (number of years it took the fashion to peak and number of years in the fashion's lifecycle;  $\underline{r} = .64, p \leq .01$ ;  $\underline{r} = .46, p \leq .10$ , respectively) than do production-oriented fashions ( $\underline{r} = -.57, p \leq .05$ ;  $\underline{r} = -.44, p \leq .10$ , respectively). Table 6 further indicates in the final column that there has been more interest in difficult, radical fashions

( $r = .51, p \leq .05$ ;  $r = .62, p \leq .01$ , respectively). Consequently, it appears that management has been willing to try but less willing to persevere in their commitment to fashions which offer more distant payoffs.

The final three hypotheses relating to the economic variables received mixed support, as indicated in Table 7.

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Insert Table 7 about here

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Hypothesis 4 was partially supported, as an unfavorable trade balance was indicative of interest in fashions which are production-oriented ( $r = -.57, p \leq .05$ ), and broad-based ( $r = -.67, p \leq .01$ ). Similarly, labor costs were positively correlated with broadness of the fashion ( $r = .62, p \leq .05$ ), but not with production-orientation. Hypothesis 5 was partially supported, as management consulting industry revenue was inversely related to people-oriented fashions ( $r = -.50, p \leq .05$ ). However, corporate profits were also inversely related to people-oriented fashions ( $r = -.51, p \leq .05$ ), indicating that in years of greater net income, people-oriented fashions are unlikely to flourish. Instead, there were positive relationships between corporate profits and production-oriented ( $r = .50, p \leq .05$ ), broad-based fashions ( $r = .61, p \leq .05$ ) in which management assumed responsibility for implementation ( $r = .51, p \leq .05$ ). Finally, Hypothesis 6 was

partially supported as the number of mergers and acquisitions was positively related to broad-based ( $r = .57, p \leq .05$ ), production-oriented fashions ( $r = .64, p \leq .01$ ). But, mergers and acquisitions were inversely related to people-oriented fashions ( $r = -.62, p \leq .05$ ).

### Discussion

Results suggest that management fashions introduced in recent years have shorter lifespans than their earlier counterparts. However, these contemporary fashions are more broad-based and require substantially greater implementation efforts from management. Simultaneously, organizations appear to rather quickly abandon such difficult interventions. This alteration in management's orientation toward fashions, as suggested by this research, requires future examination as the field continues its focus on management practices in the new age.

When the Academy of Management identified research imperatives for the next millennium, one recommendation was to assess environmental developments and their impact on managerial practice over time ("Special Research Forum Call For Papers," 1998). In following this mandate, by examining relationships between fashion types and economic variables, some interesting insights emerged. While the hypotheses were generally supported, relationships between fashion archetypes and economic variables were relatively weak and non-pervasive.

There are at least two potential explanations for this lack of findings. First, it may be possible that other types of indicators, rather than the economic ones included in this study, covary more closely with penetration of management fashions. For example, indicators of social climate (such as crime rates, drug usage statistics, or defense spending data; cf. Bauer, 1966) might be useful for predicting the emergence of management fashions (Digh, 1998). Alternatively, demographic statistics, such as education, may forecast evolving management fashions such as "learning organizations" or "emotional intelligence." Finally, labor force statistics may offer insights. To demonstrate, unemployment statistics were gathered for select years and a preliminary analysis-of-variance revealed that difficult fashions were most pervasive in years where unemployment was significantly higher (7.8%) than in other years when simpler management fashions dominated (5.6%). This may be interpreted as an organizational recognition that fashions difficult to implement take a toll on the labor force and are not undertaken unless labor replacements are readily available.

A second possibility is that environmental indicators need to be lagged and/or led to provide insight into management fashions.

For example, a low level of unemployment or high labor turnover this year may not immediately translate into implementation of people-oriented fashions. But correlating last year's employment

with this year's interest in a people-oriented fashion may render a significant positive finding. Relatedly, the prevalence of interest in people-oriented fashions today may, in future years, result in a greater output-per-manhour statistic. This type of analysis can render insight into how effective a management fashion is, how long it may take before benefits of the fashion are realized, and how long after interest in the fashion declines will positive benefits still accrue. Future research needs to investigate such issues, as doing so may aid both academics and practitioners in building upon the considerable management wisdom produced in the last century.

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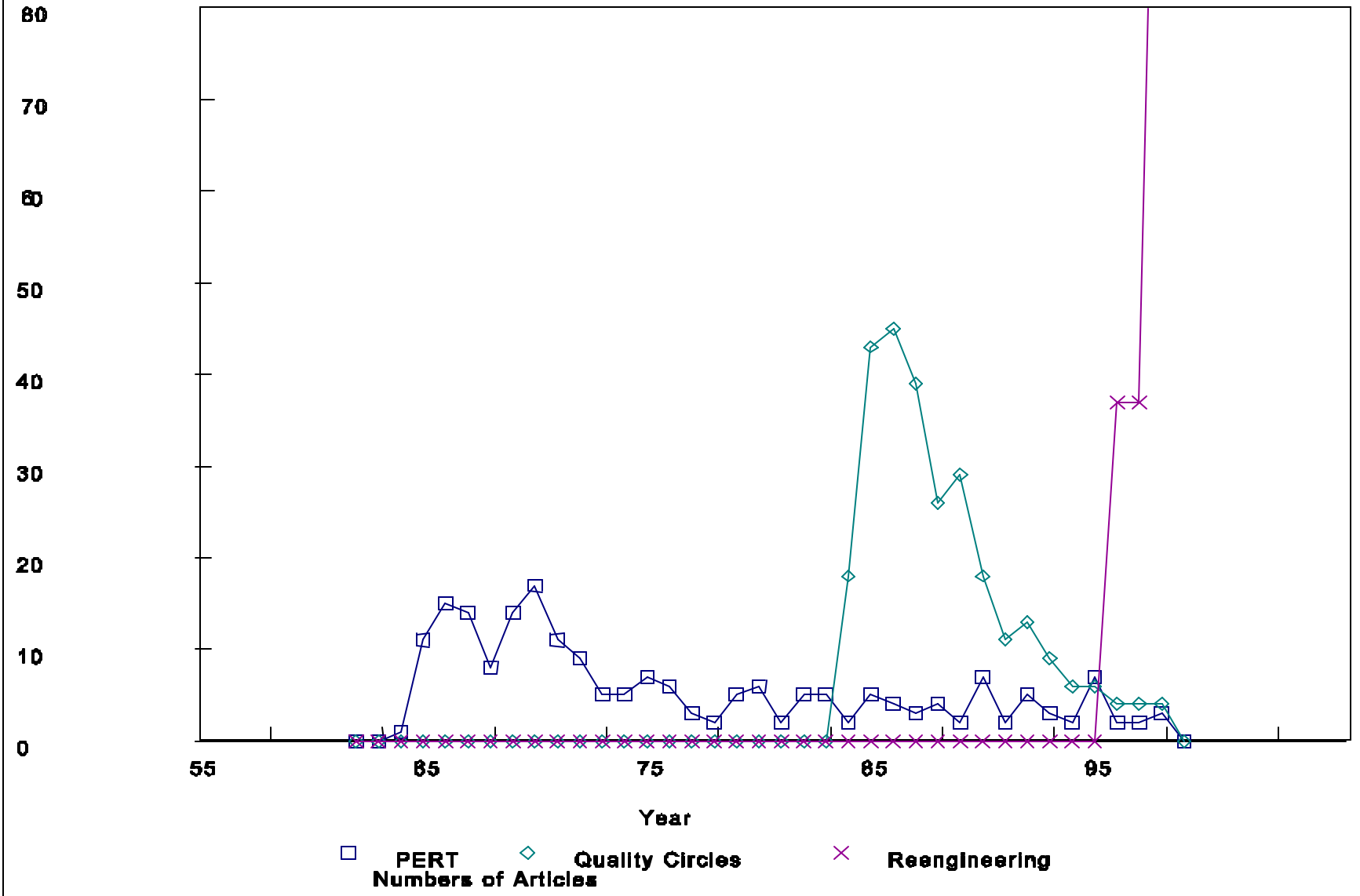
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# Life Cycle of Management Fashions

Fashions of the 1950s, 1970s, and 1990s



**Table 1: Management "Fashions" Tracked Throughout the Past Five Decades**

Decade of the 1950s	Decade of the 1960s	Decade of the 1970s	Decade of the 1980s	Decade of the 1990s
Management-by-Objectives  Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT)  Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs)	Sensitivity Training and T-Groups	Quality-of-Worklife Programs  Quality Circles	Corporate Culture  Total Quality Management (TQM)  ISO (International Standards Organization) 9000  Benchmarking	Employee Empowerment  Horizontal Corporations  Vision  Reengineering  Agile Strategies  Core Competencies

**Table 2: Assessment of the Management Fashions on 8 Criteria**

MANAGEMENT FASHION	Difficulty in Implementation	Degree of Radicalness	People-Oriented	Production-Oriented	Management Seen as Blameless	Fear-Inducing	Broadness of Fashion	Burden of Implementation on Management
MBO	3	2	2	4	2	3	4	3
PERT	1	1	1	5	3	2	2	2
EAPs	1	3	5	2	4	2	1	1
Sens Trng/T-Grps	1	4	5	2	2	4	2	4
Qual-of-Worklife	4	2	5	2	5	1	4	5
Quality Circles	3	3	2	4	4	2	3	3
Corp Culture	5	2	3	3	3	3	5	4
TQM	5	5	3	5	2	3	5	3
ISO	4	2	1	5	3	2	4	4
Benchmarking	2	2	2	5	2	3	2	3
Empowerment	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3
Horizontal Corporations	4	4	1	5	1	5	5	5
Vision	2	1	2	3	3	1	5	5
Reengineering	5	4	1	5	1	5	5	3
Agile Strategies	3	2	1	5	3	3	4	3
Core Competencies	2	2	1	5	4	1	5	5

**Table 3: Intercorrelations Among the Criteria Used to Evaluate the Management Fashions**

	DIFFICULTY	RADICAL	PEOPLE	PRODUCTION	BLAME	FEAR	BROADNESS	BURDEN
DIFFICULTY IN IMPLEMENTATION	1.0000							
DEGREE OF RADICALNESS	.3697*	1.0000						
PEOPLE-ORIENTED	-.1827	.2487	1.0000					
PRODUCTION-ORIENTED	.2668	.0294	-.8903**	1.0000				
MANAGEMENT SEEN AS BLAMELESS	-.2465	-.4430*	.4082*	-.4757*	1.0000			
FEAR-INDUCING	.3394	.6565**	-.1314	.2453	-.8192**	1.0000		
BROADNESS OF FASHION	.7320**	.0913	-.4399*	.3463	-.2416	.0961	1.0000	
BURDEN OF IMPLEMENTATION ON MANAGEMENT	.2858	-.1006	-.1306	-.0233	.0000	-.1155	.6617**	1.0000

NOTE:

\*\*  $p < .05$

\*  $p < .10$

**Table 4: Relationships Between Management Fashion Emergence, Timing, and Lifecycle Variables**

Decade During Which the Fashions Emerged	Average Number of Years Between Fashion Introduction and Fashion Peak	Average Number of Articles on Fashion During Peak Year	Average Number of Articles on Fashion During Peak Year Divided by Average Pages in BPI
1950s-1970s	14.8 years	44 articles	3.06
1980s	7.5 years	121 articles	5.14
1990s	2.6 years	130 articles (for fashions which had peaked by the end of the study period)	4.70

**Table 5: Correlations Between Management Fashions Emergence and Lifecycle**

YEAR IN WHICH THE FASHION WAS INTRODUCED (YI)	NUMBER OF YEARS IT TOOK THE FASHION TO PEAK (PEAK)	NUMBER OF YEARS IN THE FASHION'S LIFECYCLE (LIFE)	NUMBER OF ARTICLES ON THE FASHION IN THE YEAR IT PEAKED (NUMBER)
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YI	1.0000			
PEAK	-.7302*	1.0000		
LIFE	-.9946*	.7459*	1.0000	
NUMBER	.1516	.1022	-.1304	1.0000

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NOTE:

\*  $p < .01$

**Table 6: Correlations Between Management Fashion Criteria and Lifecycle Variables**

	YEAR IN WHICH THE FASHION WAS INTRODUCED	NUMBER OF YEARS IT TOOK THE FASHION TO PEAK	NUMBER OF YEARS IN THE FASHION'S LIFECYCLE	NUMBER OF ARTICLES ON THE FASHION IN THE YEAR IT PEAKED
DIFFICULTY IN IMPLEMENTATION	.5256**	-.4208*	-.5374**	.5055**
DEGREE OF RADICALNESS	.0546	.2767	-.0483	.6247***
PEOPLE-ORIENTED	-.4978**	.6359***	.4552*	.0879
PRODUCTION-ORIENTED	.4854*	-.5656**	-.4442*	.1992
MANAGEMENT SEEN AS BLAMELESS	-.1837	.0459	.1402	-.3784
FEAR-INDUCING	.1473	.0646	-.1198	.3447
BROADNESS OF FASHION	.6857***	-.5896**	-.6891***	.2121
BURDEN OF IMPLEMENTATION ON MANAGEMENT	.5294**	-.4274*	-.5766**	-.2390

NOTE: \*\*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*  $p < .05$ ; \*  $p < .10$

**Table 7: Correlations Between Management Fashion Criteria and Economic Indicators**

	TRADE BALANCE	PER-UNIT LABOR COSTS	CORPORATE PROFITS	MANAGEMENT CONSULTING INDUSTRY REVENUE	NUMBER OF MERGERS AND ACQUISITIONS
DIFFICULTY IN IMPLEMENTATION	-.6155*	.4581	.3602	.2279	.3940
DEGREE OF RADICALNESS	-.2884	.0644	.1379	.0384	.1740
PEOPLE- ORIENTED	.4484	-.4965	-.5131*	-.4994*	-.6176*
PRODUCTION- ORIENTED	-.5679*	.4879	.5043*	.4683	.6377**
MANAGEMENT SEEN AS BLAMELESS	.2540	-.1743	-.2680	-.2576	-.3350
FEAR-INDUCING	-.1187	.1504	.2444	.2294	.2394
BROADNESS OF FASHION	-.6687**	.6180*	.6082*	.4823	.5704*
BURDEN OF IMPLEMENTATION ON MANAGEMENT	-.4260	.4631	.5143*	.3967	.3895

NOTE:

\*\*  $p < .01$ \*  $p < .05$

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