

# Experts' Judgments of Management Journal Quality: An Identity Concerns Model

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*Many lists that purport to gauge the quality of journals in management and organization studies (MOS) are based on the judgments of experts in the field. This article develops an identity concerns model (ICM) that suggests that such judgments are likely to be shaped by the personal and social identities of evaluators. The model was tested in a study in which 168 editorial board members rated 44 MOS journals. In line with the ICM, respondents rated journal quality more highly to the extent that a given journal reflected their personal concerns (associated with having published more articles in that journal) and the concerns of a relevant ingroup (associated with membership of the journal's editorial board or a particular disciplinary or geographical background). However, judges' ratings of journals in which they had published were more favorable when those journals had a low-quality reputation, and their ratings of journals that reflected their geographical and disciplinary affiliations were more favorable when those journals had a high-quality reputation. The findings are thus consistent with the view that identity concerns come to the fore in journal ratings when there is either a need to protect against personal identity threat or a meaningful opportunity to promote social identity.*

**Keywords:** *journal quality; journal lists; social identity; self-favoring bias*

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In recent years, the number of lists that rank the quality of journals in management and organization studies (MOS) has proliferated. For instance, journal quality lists are offered in as many as 200 journal articles ([www.aacsb.edu/research](http://www.aacsb.edu/research); [www.lib.uwo.ca/business/Rank.html](http://www.lib.uwo.ca/business/Rank.html)) as well as by many national institutions (e.g., Australian Business Deans Council, 2008), media outlets (e.g., *Financial Times* Business School Survey, 2006), and a substantial proportion of business schools (e.g., Lewis, 2008). This suggests that in spite of the debate over whether the journal can be regarded as a meaningful unit of analysis (Starbuck, 2005), there is a degree of consensus in MOS that these lists have a role to play in academic life. Although originally designed to inform decisions regarding journal subscriptions, journal lists are now one of the most important metrics of research quality. When used for the purposes of quality assessment, research evaluators regard the quality of a particular journal as a proxy for the quality of the articles found within it (Clark & Wright, 2007; Macdonald & Kam, 2007). As a result, journal lists can (and frequently do) determine the resources that accrue to researchers and their institutions (Clark & Wright, 2007; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Mitra & Golder, 2008).

However, the evaluation of a journal's quality is far from simple, and both the journals included in various MOS lists and their attendant quality ratings are highly variable and hotly contested (Lewis, 2008; Van Fleet, McWilliams, & Siegel, 2000). Moreover, currently, there are no theoretical frameworks that account for the variable perceptions of journal quality that appear to be at least partly responsible for the lack of consensus surrounding journal lists. To this end, the present article contributes the identity concerns model (ICM) of journal quality evaluation. The model makes two claims. The first is that MOS scholars' journal evaluations are a function of their identity concerns, such that they evaluate more favorably those journals that represent their identities as an individual (in terms of their prior publication record) and as a member of various social groups (as determined by editorial board membership, geographical affiliation, and disciplinary affiliation) than those that do not reflect these identities. The second claim is that MOS scholars' tendency to favor journals that represent their identities will be conditioned by consensual views of journal quality, such that this tendency will be strongest for journals with a low-quality reputation when the journals in question threaten their *personal* identity and will be strongest for journals with a high-quality reputation when the journals in question provide an opportunity to promote social identity in the context of meaningful *group-based* comparisons.

### *Evaluating Journal Quality*

Judgments of the quality of research appear to be somewhat in the eye of the beholder (Carter, 1966; Glick, 2009), evidenced by the relatively low levels of agreement between raters at the level of the individual article (e.g., Starbuck, 2005) and in the compilation of journal quality lists. In the latter case, both the journals that are deemed worthy of inclusion and their attendant quality ratings are the focus of considerable debate and disagreement. For instance, the 200 business schools that provided the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) with their lists mentioned 4,400 journals between them (Lewis, 2008; see also Van Fleet et al., 2000). Of these, over two-thirds appeared only within

a single list, and a further fifth appeared only in two lists, indicating a lack of consensus about which journals were worthy of rating. Further supporting this observation, the Association of Business Schools (ABS), a body representing U.K. business schools, recently observed that the correlations between the ratings that seven U.K.-based institutions assigned to management journals ranged from  $r = .52$  (moderately large) to  $r = .90$  (large), with a mean of  $r = .68$  (Harvey, Morris, & Kelly, 2007; for similar additional findings, see Johnson & Podsakoff, 1994). Although these figures indicate modest reliability, the average correlation falls below the  $r = .70$  threshold that is generally taken to be an acceptable indication of consensus (cf. Nunnally, 1978). Moreover, at the lower end of the distribution, little over 25% of the variance in one list is explained by the variance in the other list under comparison (see, e.g., the 2006 Aston Business School list vs. the 2006 Durham Business School list, as cited in Harvey, Morris, & Kelly, 2007). Clearly, therefore, there is sufficient unique variance across the various lists of MOS journals to warrant a more detailed investigation.

To understand the lack of consensus pertaining to journal quality lists, it is necessary to examine the processes that are involved in their construction. Typically, list construction is based on one of two different processes, either (a) surveys of the opinions of experts in the field or (b) the analysis of bibliometric data, especially citation and usage patterns (Tahai & Meyer, 1999). Importantly, although the relative merits of these two approaches are the subject of considerable dispute (e.g., Bensman, 2007; Tahai & Meyer, 1999), the correlations between journal rankings based on these different measures are generally large (greater than .50) and positive (Franke, Edlund, & Oster, 1990; Hodge & Lacasse, 2011; Lewis, Templeton, & Luo, 2007; Saha, Saint, & Christakis, 2003). This suggests that they tap into common underlying constructs (although the extent to which the constructs in question reflect journal quality is highly contestable). Nonetheless, as illustrated above, there is a great deal of residual variability in journal evaluations that requires explanation. Although the factors that introduce variability into journal lists on the basis of bibliometric approaches are well understood and have been thoroughly discussed elsewhere (e.g., Pendlebury, 2009), the factors that impact on perceptions of journal quality are far less understood. This lack of understanding is of particular concern given the assertion that personal perceptions of journal quality will come into play when formal lists are not used (Coe & Weinstock, 1984; Hodgkinson, 2008; Marsh & Hunt, 2006).

Several MOS authors have claimed that the background characteristics of evaluators play an important role in determining ratings of journal quality (Judge, 2003; Van Fleet et al., 2000), although to date there is very little empirical evidence to support this claim. One exception is the work of Extejt and Smith (1990), which found that academic members of the Academy of Management and the Industrial Relations Research Association tended to rate MOS journals in which they had published more favorably than those in which they had not. Extejt and Smith also observed that their respondents rated the quality of management journals that were directed to an academic audience more highly than those directed to practitioners or to a mixed audience (it could, of course, be argued that because management journals directed to academic audiences are more likely to employ a rigorous peer review process, they are in fact of higher quality).

If one looks outside of MOS, there is rather more evidence that evaluators' characteristics introduce systematic variability into journal evaluations. For instance, in the field of knowledge

management and intellectual capital, Serenko and Bontis (2011) found that researchers who reviewed for a given journal or belonged to the journal's editorial board gave the journal in question higher ratings than researchers who did not. In accounting, Lowe and Locke (2005) found that evaluators rated journals more positively if the journals in question published work that matched their preferred research paradigms. Finally, in a study of clinical neurology journals, Yue, Wilson, and Boller (2007) observed differences in journal evaluations as a function of raters' geographical locations. Given that this body of research covers a disparate array of fields and subfields, it is unclear to what extent the findings generalize beyond the confines of the specific samples and disciplinary contexts in which the work was undertaken to MOS. More importantly, none of these researchers has presented or tested a coherent theoretical model in order to account for the impact of board membership, research paradigm, and geographical location on journal evaluations. In the remainder of this article, we address this lacuna by developing and testing such a model—the ICM.

### *Identity Concerns in Judgments of Journal Quality*

The act of rating the quality of journals is likely to have implications for (and potentially threaten) scholars' sense of self, both as individuals and as members of particular social groups. This is because being associated with high-quality journals (whether as an individual or through social group memberships) will contribute positively to their self-concepts (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In the process, this association may also, of course, have material benefits—for example, in relation to their prospects of promotion or tenure. For this reason, we argue that in order to understand the dynamics of subjective journal evaluations it is essential to consider the motives that derive from scholars' sense of *who they are*.

On the basis of previous theorizing in the social identity tradition (e.g., Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994), we expect that judgments of journal quality will be shaped both by evaluators' *personal identities* and by their *social identities*, such that journals that reflect these identities will be evaluated more favorably than those that do not (see also Messick, Bloom, Boldizar, & Samuelson, 1985).

Personal identities are associated with an idiosyncratic sense of self that is informed by factors unique to the focal individual (Turner, 1982). There is a great deal of empirical support for the idea that people's cognition and behavior are affected by their ideas about who they are as unique individuals. For instance, a wealth of research has shown that people have a self-favoring bias, tending to evaluate themselves and things associated with themselves more positively than they evaluate others and things associated with others (for a concise overview, see Roese & Olson, 2007). Possibly the most important way in which journals contribute to scholars' sense of themselves as unique members of their profession is through their publication records, since this is an important determinant of their professional reputations and career outcomes and provides an ongoing basis for social comparison and interpersonal (intragroup) competition (e.g., Clark & Wright, 2007; Mahoney, 1979). When researchers are asked to engage in a journal evaluation task, their publication records are thus likely to be highly salient. Hence, it follows that when evaluating the quality of journals, respondents should be motivated to enhance their professional reputations by enhancing the quality of the journals that they have published in, precisely as observed by Extejt and Smith (1990).

Accordingly, we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 1:* Scholars' ratings of a given journal's quality will be positively related to the number of times that they have published in that journal.

Yet in a great many social and organizational contexts, people's sense of self is informed not only by their idiosyncratic characteristics but also by those characteristics that they share with other members of a relevant ingroup (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1982; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987; Turner et al., 1994). Indeed, in many situations social identities are a primary source of self-definition and play a central role in shaping cognition and behavior. In the same way that people tend to be biased positively in their evaluations of their personal attributes (e.g., Messick et al., 1985), there is considerable evidence that they tend to rate their ingroups more favorably than their outgroups (Bezrukova, Jehn, Zanutto, & Thatcher, 2009; Cunningham, 2006; Tajfel, Flament, Billig, & Bundy, 1971; Terry & O'Brien, 2001). On this basis, we expect that scholars will evaluate journals more favorably to the extent that the journals in question contribute to the development and maintenance of social identities that are salient as well as meaningful in the journal evaluation context.

We argue that in the context of making judgments about the quality of journals three social identities are likely to be especially salient, namely, editorial board membership, disciplinary affiliation, and geographical affiliation. This is because these particular group memberships (e.g., as a board member for AMR, as a European, as a psychologist) are likely to be highly accessible for the scholar who is making the evaluations and are also likely to be perceived as relevant to (i.e., fit with) the task at hand (Bruner, 1957; Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994). In particular, the process of reflecting on journals is likely to render salient not only the editorial board memberships held by the evaluator but also the disciplinary or geographical community that each journal is seen to represent. In line with these assertions, there is some evidence that disciplinary and geographical group memberships may indeed shape the behavior of scholars in MOS and other fields (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Link, 1998; Lowe & Locke, 2005; Pfeffer, 1993; Serenko & Bontis, 2011; Whitley, 1984; Yue et al., 2007). Accordingly, we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 2:* Scholars will rate the quality of a given journal more highly when they are members of that journal's editorial board.

*Hypothesis 3:* Scholars will rate the quality of a given journal more highly when that journal reflects their primary disciplinary affiliation.

*Hypothesis 4:* Scholars will rate the quality of a given journal more highly when that journal reflects their geographical affiliation.

### *Social Reality Constraints on Judgments of Journal Quality*

However, the act of evaluating a given journal does not occur in a social vacuum. Rather, MOS scholars come to this task with an awareness of the views that others in their field hold about the quality of different journals. More specifically, we maintain that judges will recognize that there are *contours of consensus* surrounding perceived journal quality, such that some journals will be generally understood to be superior to others. Previous social

identity theorizing (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) suggests that knowledge of this consensus will moderate the extent to which personal and social identity factors come to the fore when evaluating journals. In other words, this shared understanding should operate as a *social reality constraint* that moderates the expression of the various identity concerns at play.

Importantly, the way in which consensual views of journal quality moderate the impact of identity on journal evaluations will depend on whether the identity in question is personal or social. In particular, we argue that, in the case of journal ratings, competition in terms of social identities affords more options for self-promotion than does competition in terms of personal identities. This is because the large number of scholars who have not published in high-quality journals will still be able to incorporate those journals into their self-concepts by virtue of their social identities. For example, to advance the case that sociology is a high-quality foundational discipline underpinning MOS, every single MOS scholar who is a sociologist could support this claim by pointing to high-quality journals such as *Administrative Science Quarterly*, but not all MOS scholars who are sociologists could claim to have published in such high-quality journals. As a corollary, competition in terms of social identities is less likely to invoke identity threat than is competition in terms of personal identities. For example, MOS scholars who are sociologists are unlikely to experience social identity threat as a consequence of the fact that there are some low-quality journals that publish sociologically oriented work pertaining to MOS (because they can point to others that are of high quality), but not every scholar will be able to avoid the personal identity threat that is associated with having published in such lower status journals. Consequently, we expect that *social identity dynamics* in the evaluation of journals will tend to be played out more intensively when the journals in question are generally regarded as high (rather than low) status, whereas *personal identity dynamics* will tend to be played out more intensively when the journals in question are generally regarded as low (rather than high) status.

The expectation that scholars will show favoritism toward ingroup journals to the extent that those journals are generally perceived to be of high quality (e.g., highly ranked within relevant lists) is consistent with Tajfel and Turner's (1979) claim that individuals are most likely to display such ingroup favoritism when a given comparison is meaningful (see also Haslam & Ellemers, 2005). In the present context, the ingroup journals that will enable scholars to make the most meaningful intergroup comparisons are those that are best able to support competitive claims about the strength of the ingroup's research: in other words, those ingroup journals with a reputation for high quality.

The forgoing *meaning account* of ingroup favoritism counters the belief, expressed in some of the journal evaluation literature (e.g., Lowe & Locke, 2005; Saha et al., 2003), that personal factors will play a greater role in evaluations of journal quality when evaluators are relatively unfamiliar with the journals in question. This alternative model, which we can term the *ignorance account* (Oakes & Haslam, 2001), suggests that judges only use identities as a basis for judgment in the absence of other (supposedly "superior") cues. In the present context, such cues would arise from firsthand knowledge of the journals in question. Since scholars will be most familiar with high-status journals (Lowe & Locke, 2005), which generally have the highest citation rates and readership (Saha et al., 2003), the ignorance account leads to the expectation that judges should show the least ingroup favoritism when judging such "top-tier" journals, whereas the meaning account predicts that they should

show the most ingroup favoritism when judging those journals. As well as enabling us to test our core hypotheses (Hypothesis 1–Hypothesis 4), the study reported below thus enabled us to also conduct a novel test of these competing accounts of ingroup favoritism.

On the basis of the meaning account of ingroup favoritism favored by Oakes and Haslam (2001), we expect to find that scholars will show the *most* ingroup favoritism in judgments of top-tier journals (whereas the opposite pattern of findings would support the ignorance account). In particular, we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 5:* Scholars' tendency to rate the quality of a given journal more highly when they are members of that journal's editorial board will be stronger if the journal in question has a higher reputation for quality.

*Hypothesis 6:* Scholars' tendency to rate the quality of a given journal more highly when that journal reflects their disciplinary affiliation will be stronger if the journal in question has a higher reputation for quality.

*Hypothesis 7:* Scholars' tendency to rate the quality of a given journal more highly when that journal reflects their geographical affiliation will be stronger if the journal in question has a higher reputation for quality.

Irrespective of which of the two accounts turns out to be correct, extrapolating from findings in the social psychology literature that motivations for self-enhancement are strongest when individuals face a threat to their favorable view of themselves (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999), we expect that personal identity concerns will only come to the fore to the extent that judges have published in journals that are widely recognized as being of lower quality. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 8:* The relationship between scholars' ratings of a given journal's quality and the number of times that they personally have published in that journal will be stronger to the extent that the journal in question has a lower reputation for quality.

## Method

### Overview

We contacted members of the editorial boards of 44 MOS journals (see Table 1) in mid-2007 and asked them to complete an online questionnaire. The journals were carefully selected so as to comprise a representative cross-section of English-language North American and European journals that publish organizational behavior research. We selected the organizational behavior domain because it contains clear disciplinary (psychology vs. sociology) and geographical (U.S. vs. European) splits that provide the opportunity for the hypothesized social identity effects derived from the ICM to play out. Our selection process started with the 160 journals with impact factors listed in the 2007 ABS journal guide (Harvey et al., 2007) under the categories of General Management, HRM & Employee Relations, Management Development and Education, Organizational Studies, Psychology, and Social Science. We pared this sample down to the final 44 journals incorporated in our study by



**Table 1**  
**Management and Organization Studies Journals, in Alphabetical Order, With Journal Quality Ratings (Z scores) and Rankings**

Journal	n	Rating Z Scores <i>M(SD)</i>					Rankings						
		Discipline			Geography		Overall	Discipline		Geography			
		Psychology	Sociology	B&M	U.S.	Non-U.S.		Psychology	Sociology		B&M	U.S.	Non-U.S.
<i>Academy of Management Executive/Perspectives</i>	3	-0.12 (0.76)	-0.06 (0.62)	-0.28 (0.65)	-0.10 (0.81)	-0.08 (0.74)	-0.17 (0.69)	24 =	22	34	23	19	30 =
<i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	5	1.12 (0.71)	1.11 (0.66)	0.77 (0.79)	1.19 (0.60)	1.18 (0.61)	0.97 (0.75)	2	2	3	2	2	3
<i>Academy of Management Review</i>	9	1.06 (0.73)	1.02 (0.59)	0.66 (0.78)	1.13 (0.74)	1.05 (0.70)	1.03 (0.67)	3	4	4	3	4	2
<i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i>	7	1.16 (0.68)	1.04 (0.67)	1.09 (0.53)	1.19 (0.70)	1.17 (0.66)	1.06 (0.67)	1	3	1	1	1	1
<i>Applied Psychology: An International Review</i>	5	-0.20 (0.68)	0.03 (0.53)	-0.34 (0.71)	-0.27 (0.64)	-0.19 (0.57)	-0.06 (0.66)	24 =	17	33	30	25 =	24
<i>British Journal of Industrial Relations</i>	6	-0.11 (0.80)	-0.28 (0.64)	0.26 (0.68)	0.03 (0.82)	-0.21 (0.66)	0.25 (0.80)	20 =	31	9	19 =	28	14
<i>British Journal of Management</i>	9	-0.09 (0.66)	-0.13 (0.58)	-0.07 (0.75)	0.04 (0.59)	-0.11 (0.55)	0.11 (0.64)	20 =	25 =	22	19 =	22 =	18 =
<i>California Management Review</i>	2	-0.11 (0.71)	-0.18 (0.68)	-0.17 (0.48)	0.03 (0.67)	-0.10 (0.64)	-0.04 (0.68)	22	25 =	25	17 =	20	23
<i>European Journal of Industrial Relations</i>	3	-0.38 (0.65)	-0.44 (0.56)	-0.24 (0.63)	-0.27 (0.62)	-0.44 (0.50)	-0.13 (0.69)	35	38 =	26	31 =	36 =	28
<i>Gender, Work and Organization</i>	3	-0.45 (0.65)	-0.56 (0.53)	-0.26 (0.70)	-0.42 (0.70)	-0.50 (0.59)	-0.35 (0.72)	39 =	42	31 =	37	38 =	41
<i>Group and Organization</i>	8	-0.31 (0.60)	-0.15 (0.53)	-0.40 (0.61)	-0.23 (0.61)	-0.16 (0.54)	-0.31 (0.62)	28	24	35 =	27	22 =	35 =
<i>Harvard Business Review</i>	1	0.13 (0.81)	0.11 (0.77)	0.06 (0.74)	0.19 (0.82)	0.14 (0.79)	0.18 (0.78)	13 =	12	14	14	11	16
<i>Human Performance</i>	6	-0.25 (0.69)	0.14 (0.66)	-0.57 (0.56)	-0.39 (0.56)	-0.19 (0.59)	-0.22 (0.74)	26	13	43	38	24	29
<i>Human Relations</i>	14	0.19 (0.72)	0.07 (0.63)	0.12 (0.60)	0.29 (0.76)	0.07 (0.66)	0.42 (0.67)	11	14 =	12	11	14 =	8

(continued)



**Table 1 (Continued)**

Journal		Rating Z Scores <i>M(SD)</i>					Rankings							
		Discipline			Geography		Discipline			Geography				
		<i>n</i>	Overall	Psychology	Sociology	B&M	U.S.	Non-U.S.	Overall	Psychology	Sociology	B&M	U.S.	Non-U.S.
<i>Human Resource Management</i>		3	-0.05 (0.64)	-0.02 (0.67)	-0.14 (0.61)	-0.04 (0.62)	-0.12 (0.58)	0.10 (0.59)	18 =	20	27	21	20	22
<i>Industrial and Corporate Change</i>		2	-0.44 (0.68)	-0.60 (0.49)	-0.01 (0.63)	-0.29 (0.68)	-0.46 (0.64)	-0.24 (0.60)	37 =	43	21	31 =	38 =	35 =
<i>Industrial and Labor Relations Review</i>		3	0.15 (0.77)	-0.01 (0.68)	0.41 (0.68)	0.23 (0.78)	0.17 (0.71)	0.18 (0.78)	15	19	7	13	12	15
<i>Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society</i>		4	-0.15 (0.79)	-0.21 (0.65)	0.23 (0.62)	-0.15 (0.80)	-0.22 (0.65)	0.09 (0.80)	23	28	10	26	27	21
<i>International Journal of Human Resource Management</i>		8	-0.33 (0.64)	-0.34 (0.51)	-0.39 (0.64)	-0.27 (0.63)	-0.40 (0.55)	-0.15 (0.60)	36	34	35 =	35	35	30 =
<i>Management International Journal</i>		7	-0.48 (0.69)	-0.45 (0.57)	-0.53 (0.66)	-0.39 (0.70)	-0.52 (0.58)	-0.25 (0.71)	39 =	37	39	39	41	40
<i>Reviews of Management International Journal</i>		8	-0.49 (0.66)	-0.18 (0.63)	-0.67 (0.69)	-0.59 (0.58)	-0.44 (0.61)	-0.42 (0.69)	39 =	25 =	44	43	34	43
<i>Assessment of Selection and Psychology Journal of Applied</i>		12	0.91 (0.83)	1.18 (0.67)	0.49 (0.70)	0.79 (0.79)	1.07 (0.68)	0.64 (0.84)	4	1	6	4	3	5
<i>Journal of Applied Social Psychology</i>		2	0.10 (0.72)	0.18 (0.62)	-0.01 (0.71)	0.13 (0.79)	0.18 (0.70)	0.08 (0.69)	16	11	19	15	10	17
<i>Social Psychology Journal of Behavioral Decision Making</i>		5	-0.29 (0.68)	-0.11 (0.72)	-0.41 (0.51)	-0.36 (0.62)	-0.30 (0.63)	-0.20 (0.68)	29	21	35 =	33	29	26
<i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i>		5	-0.53 (0.59)	-0.44 (0.56)	-0.47 (0.67)	-0.50 (0.51)	-0.49 (0.51)	-0.42 (0.60)	42	38 =	40	40	38 =	42
<i>Journal of Economic Psychology</i>		9	-0.35 (0.64)	-0.31 (0.65)	-0.30 (0.62)	-0.35 (0.60)	-0.39 (0.56)	-0.19 (0.67)	33 =	32 =	30	36	33	30 =
<i>Psychology Journal of Management Inquiry</i>		8	0.42 (0.70)	0.42 (0.72)	0.14 (0.72)	0.46 (0.66)	0.47 (0.68)	0.30 (0.71)	9	9	13	7	8	12
<i>Management Inquiry</i>		7	-0.32 (0.69)	-0.39 (0.56)	-0.21 (0.67)	-0.26 (0.73)	-0.30 (0.64)	-0.30 (0.69)	32	35	29	28	31	38

(continued)

Table 1 (Continued)

Journal	Rating Z Scores <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )							Rankings					
	<i>n</i>	Discipline			Geography		Overall	Discipline			Geography		
		Overall	Psychology	Sociology	B&M	U.S.		Non-U.S.	Psychology	Sociology	B&M	U.S.	Non-U.S.
<i>Journal of Management Studies</i>	11	0.17 (0.84)	-0.16 (0.76)	0.35 (0.74)	0.39 (0.74)	0.01 (0.75)	0.49 (0.75)	12	23	8	8	17	6
<i>Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology</i>	9	0.09 (0.71)	0.34 (0.61)	-0.10 (0.68)	-0.01 (0.67)	0.05 (0.59)	0.30 (0.73)	13 =	10	20	17 =	14 =	10 =
<i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>	9	0.40 (0.67)	0.52 (0.63)	0.19 (0.61)	0.38 (0.64)	0.43 (0.60)	0.40 (0.67)	8	8	11	9	9	9
<i>Leadership Quarterly</i>	3	-0.08 (0.73)	0.11 (0.66)	-0.37 (0.64)	-0.15 (0.69)	-0.04 (0.69)	-0.13 (0.68)	18 =	14 =	38	22	18	27
<i>Management Learning</i>	12	-0.52 (0.73)	-0.54 (0.60)	-0.40 (0.71)	-0.53 (0.69)	-0.62 (0.58)	-0.29 (0.71)	43	41	31 =	42	43	35 =
<i>MIT Sloan</i>	6	0.01 (0.69)	0.04 (0.62)	-0.11 (0.52)	0.05 (0.69)	0.01 (0.62)	0.05 (0.66)	17	16	23	16	16	20
<i>Management Review</i>	1	-0.64 (0.59)	-0.65 (0.49)	-0.55 (0.55)	-0.62 (0.55)	-0.73 (0.51)	-0.42 (0.56)	44	44	42	44	44	44
<i>New Technology, Work and Employment</i>	5	-0.23 (0.76)	-0.34 (0.58)	-0.18 (0.62)	-0.12 (0.75)	-0.32 (0.59)	-0.02 (0.75)	30	32 =	24	25	32	25
<i>Organization</i>	4	0.74 (0.72)	0.54 (0.72)	0.88 (0.48)	0.80 (0.60)	0.72 (0.64)	0.71 (0.70)	5	7	2	5	6	4
<i>Organization Science</i>	7	0.24 (0.74)	-0.02 (0.57)	0.43 (0.51)	0.37 (0.66)	0.13 (0.60)	0.44 (0.66)	10	18	5	10	13	7
<i>Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes</i>	8	0.56 (0.83)	0.90 (0.69)	0.09 (0.72)	0.51 (0.82)	0.79 (0.72)	0.30 (0.81)	6	5	15 =	6	5	10 =
<i>Decision Processes Organizational</i>	8	-0.24 (0.64)	-0.24 (0.61)	-0.26 (0.55)	-0.17 (0.63)	-0.20 (0.62)	-0.20 (0.58)	27	29	28	24	25 =	33
<i>Dynamics</i>	12	0.44 (0.93)	0.83 (0.77)	0.04 (0.78)	0.24 (0.89)	0.61 (0.83)	0.19 (0.91)	7	6	17	12	7	13
<i>Personnel Psychology</i>	3	-0.28 (0.72)	-0.37 (0.56)	0.08 (0.63)	-0.24 (0.76)	-0.25 (0.68)	-0.22 (0.68)	31	36	18	29	30	34
<i>Work and Occupations</i>	3	-0.47 (0.64)	-0.26 (0.57)	-0.58 (0.69)	-0.54 (0.58)	-0.48 (0.55)	-0.33 (0.65)	37 =	30	41	41	36 =	39
<i>Work and Stress</i>	9	-0.33 (0.78)	-0.50 (0.56)	0.11 (0.77)	-0.29 (0.80)	-0.54 (0.57)	0.08 (0.79)	33 =	40	15 =	34	42	18 =
<i>Work, Employment and Society</i>													

Note: Bold and italic numbers in the cells indicate a lack of consensus across disciplinary or geographical subgroups in the rankings of journals. For numbers in italics, the ranks differ by 6 or more; for numbers in bold, the ranks differ by 12 or more. *n* = number of participants responding from each journal; B&M = business and management. Where two or more journals have the same rank, this is indicated by an equals sign.

selecting journals that were known to embrace sociological and psychological perspectives, that represented U.S. and/or European geographical subgroups, and that had received a range of quality evaluations (10 of the journals selected for incorporation in our study were classified by the ABS guide as fourth—bottom—tier, 7 as third tier, and 11 as second tier, while the remaining 16 were classified as top tier). Notwithstanding our restricted focus, our list overlaps considerably with those adopted in previous studies of journal quality (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Bacharach, 2008).

Participants were not expected to be familiar with all of the journals; rather, we asked that they be willing to rate at least 41 of the list of 44. We instructed participants that where they were not familiar with any particular journal, they simply gave their best estimate of its quality. This requirement was intended to mimic more closely the construction of journal rating lists as undertaken on a formal basis by institutional decision makers, where typically a small number of experts are required to generate ratings for a large number of journals and all too often they lack familiarity with many of the journals in question.

The questionnaire asked participants to rate journal quality on three dimensions: (1) overall quality, (2) variability in quality, and (3) tier. For each of these dimensions, participants were presented with the list of 44 journals and required to provide ratings for at least 41 of them before they were permitted to progress to the next dimension. The questionnaire then asked participants to indicate the number of articles that they had published in each outlet. The order of the journals in the list was randomized for each measure across participants. Next, participants were asked to indicate their familiarity with, and comfort in rating, the set of 44 journals, before providing demographic information (including disciplinary and geographic orientation). In exchange for participation, we offered participants a summary of our findings and a small donation (about US\$ 3.50) to their preferred charity (from a list of six).

### *Participants*

We selected a random sample of 30 editorial board members from each editorial board and attempted to find their e-mail addresses using Internet search tools. Where this was not possible (fewer than 15% of cases), we replaced them with the next name on the list. We continued until we had either obtained e-mail addresses for 30 members or exhausted the list. We emailed a total of 1,179 board members: 274 (23%) completed the questionnaire in part. Respondents were representative of the pool of potential participants (i.e., those we e-mailed) in terms of disciplinary and geographical orientations.<sup>1</sup> Table 1 lists the number of respondents from each journal.

The main substantive analyses reported below were performed on the data obtained from the 168 participants who provided a full set of ratings for at least 41 journals and who completed all other measures. Of these 168 participants, the majority were male (125); the average age was 50 years; 117 participants had a background in management, 73 in psychology, 24 in sociology, and 16 in another, nonspecified discipline; 90 participants lived in the United States, 59 in Europe, and the remainder were distributed around the world; 86 participants were born in the United States, 59 in Europe, and the remainder elsewhere; and 104 participants gained their PhDs in the United States and 53 in Europe. The remaining participants gained their PhDs elsewhere.

## Measures

*Perceived journal quality.* The participants were asked to rate each of the journals on three variables: overall quality (1 = *very low*, 7 = *very high*), variability in quality (1 = *very uniform*, 7 = *very variable*), and journal tier (1 = *top tier*, 4 = *bottom tier*). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to check the unidimensionality of the scale formed on the basis of these three items. Because respondents rated multiple journals, CFA was performed using the robust methods developed by Satorra and Bentler (1994); unlike conventional CFA techniques, these methods do not demand that the data represent independent observations. CFA indicated that a one-factor solution adequately fitted the data (normed fit index [NFI] = 0.98, nonnormed fit index [NNFI] = 0.94, comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.98, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.09). All of the estimated loadings were significant (all  $ps < .01$ ) and in the hypothesized direction. The items were coded such that greater scores reflected higher quality; these scores were standardized, summed, and divided by three to produce an index of overall quality (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .73$ ).

*Editorial board membership.* Each board member received a link to the questionnaire that referenced the journal to which he or she belonged, which allowed us to code for board membership (0 = *no*, 1 = *yes*), although it did not allow us to identify individuals. It is worth noting that respondents (who were not told which board they were recruited from) may have belonged to several boards and thus displayed bias toward multiple journals. We adopted this approach in order to alleviate demand characteristics (Orne, 1962). Specifically, we did not want participants to engage in overly strategic responding or, indeed, to purposefully reduce ingroup favoritism toward their favored journals. Importantly, the fact that we were not able to attain information about board membership with more than one journal can only serve to attenuate any differences in the ratings of journals as a function of our coding of board membership. Hence, our approach provided conservative tests of Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 5 concerning editorial board membership.

*Number of articles published in each journal.* Participants were asked to indicate the approximate number of articles that they had published in each journal.

*Disciplinary affiliation of scholar.* Participants were asked to indicate their disciplinary backgrounds by choosing as many descriptors as applied to them from a list of five (management, psychology, sociology, business, other). For the purposes of this study, respondents were coded as having a background in psychology (0 = *no*, 1 = *yes*) or sociology (0 = *no*, 1 = *yes*). Only one participant indicated that he or she had a background in both disciplines. This left the remaining business and management participants and a small number of participants who indicated an unspecified "other" background. Because the disciplinary identities of interest (psychology and sociology) were irrelevant to all of these remaining respondents (and hence, should not affect their journal ratings), we identified them as sharing a business and management background.

*Geographical affiliation of scholar.* Participants were asked to indicate their country of birth, the country where they gained their PhD, and their country of residence. Each answer that corresponded to the United States was given a score of 1, while each answer that was non–United States was given a score of 0. CFA indicated that these scores loaded on a single factor (NFI = 1.00, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00). Robust estimation was used because the items were dummy variables (Byrne, 2006). All of the estimated loadings were significant (all  $ps < .01$ ) and in the hypothesized direction. The unit-weighted items provided a reliable scale (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .91$ ). However, because the scale was bimodal, participants who had any U.S. affiliation were given a score of 1; otherwise, they were given a score of 0. Again, our scoring procedure provided conservative tests of the substantive hypothesis under investigation, in this case pertaining to the impact of geographical affiliation on journal evaluations (Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 7); since some of the participants coded as North American may not self-identify as such, our coding scheme would thus attenuate differences in journal ratings as a function of geographical affiliation.

*Disciplinary affiliation of journal.* This variable was assessed by means of a composite measure derived from the following indicators: (1) the average contribution of researchers affiliated with a sociology or labor relations department to articles published in each journal in 2007, as extracted from Web of Knowledge by the first author; (2) the average contribution of researchers affiliated with a psychology department, as extracted from Web of Science by the first author; (3) two of the authors' ratings of the sociological affiliation of each journal; and (4) two of the authors' ratings of the psychological affiliation of each journal (the raters have served in editorial, associate editorial, and board member roles in relation to 12 of the U.S.-based and European-based journals incorporated in the study). The raters indicated each journal's psychological orientation (1 = *not at all psychological*, 7 = *entirely psychological*) and sociological orientation (1 = *not at all sociological*, 7 = *entirely sociological*). The raters were generally in high agreement ( $rs$  ranged from .81 to .86) and resolved their differences through discussion. In line with our expectations, CFA confirmed that all four indicators loaded on one factor (NFI = 0.96, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.10). All of the estimated loadings were significant (all  $ps < .01$ ) and in the hypothesized direction. In order that higher scores indicated a stronger psychological affiliation, where appropriate the standardized items were reverse scored. The item scores were then summed and divided by four to produce an overall index of disciplinary affiliation (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .90$ ).

*Geographical affiliation of journal.* This measure comprised two indicators: (1) the average contribution of researchers affiliated with a U.S.-based institution to articles published in each journal in 2007, as extracted from the Web of Science by the first author, and (2) ratings of each journal's U.S. orientation (1 = *not at all U.S.-centric*, 7 = *entirely U.S.-centric*). Both indicators were completed by the same two authors who rated the disciplinary affiliation of each journal. Once again, the raters had a high level of agreement ( $r = .78$ ) and resolved differences through discussion. The standardized items

were summed and divided by two to produce an overall index of geographical affiliation, with high scores indicating a primarily U.S. affiliation (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .88$ ).

*Journal quality reputation.* We used Mingers and Harzing's (2007) management journal quality grading system. This system assigns journals in the management field a quality grade, ranging from 1 (*lowest quality*) to 4 (*highest quality*), based on a cluster analysis of several other lists of journal ratings and bibliometric data. The majority of these lists are based in part or entirely on expert ratings of journal quality, and they have a median publication date of 2005. Because the grading system draws on a number of the lists that will have informed researchers' perceptions of consensual views of journal quality in MOS at the time that the present study was conducted, it was used as a proxy for those perceptions.

*Control variables.* The following were used as controls: gender (0 = *female*, 1 = *male*), date of birth, familiarity with the journals rated, and journal influence bibliometrics. The journal familiarity measure comprised our respondents' indications of the percentage of journals with which they were familiar and the percentage of journals that they felt comfortable rating (both items were rated on identical 11-point scales, rising in 10% increments from 0% to 100%, and were highly correlated:  $r = .91$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Overall familiarity scores were calculated as the mean of the standardized items (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .95$ ). On average, participants were familiar with 57.63% ( $SD = 21.89$ ), or approximately 25, of the 44 journals.

We controlled for bibliometric measures of journal influence in our analysis. Journal bibliometric influence is composed of a journal's impact (assessed by ISI Web of Knowledge impact factors) and its productivity (i.e., total numbers of articles published), and it has been found to predict positively experts' evaluations of journal quality (Franke et al., 1990; Hodge & Lacasse, 2011; Lewis et al., 2007). We assessed the bibliometric journal influence of each journal by summing the standardized scores pertaining to its two-year and five-year impact factors and the total number of citations of the journal in question and dividing the total by three (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .95$ ). Generally, all values were taken from the year the survey was conducted. In one case, however, the relevant journal did not attain a five-year impact factor until the subsequent year. Accordingly, in this one instance, we used the five-year impact factor of the subsequent year. CFA confirmed that these indicators loaded on one factor (NFI = 0.99, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00). All of the estimated loadings were significant (all  $ps < .01$ ) and in the hypothesized direction.

Previous research (Franke et al., 1990; Hodge & Lacasse, 2011; Lewis et al., 2007) leads us to expect that we will find a positive relationship between our measure of bibliometric journal influence and the Mingers and Harzing system (which is strongly informed by expert opinion). However, by drawing on published journal rankings based on expert opinion that have likely informed perceptions of consensual views of journal quality, the Mingers and Harzing (2007) gradings are a more immediate proxy of journal quality reputation. For this reason, we used the Mingers and Harzing system rather than our measure of bibliometric journal influence to examine the impact of journal quality reputation on participants' journal evaluations.

## *Analysis*

The data had a cross-classified hierarchical structure in which ratings were nested both within journals and raters. Therefore, a cross-classified random effects regression model was fitted to the data, using HLM-6 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Cheong, Congdon, & du Toit, 2004). Due to a number of missing values, the model was based on a total of 7,205 from a potential maximum of 7,392 ratings.

Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 were operationalized as main effects. To test Hypothesis 1, the number of articles each participant had published in each journal was centered at the mean for each participant; that is, the average was represented at the individual level. Centering this variable in this way allowed us to separate out the unique effects of publishing in a particular journal from the general experience of publishing (see Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). To test Hypothesis 2, the dummy variable indicating whether or not a given participant was on the editorial board of a particular journal was left in its raw metric because this variable could take on a value of 1 for one journal only.

For Hypotheses 3, 4, 6, and 7, all of the main effects were analyzed at the level of the participants or the level of the journal, as appropriate to the variables in question. For the three-way interactions used to test Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7, all of the constituent two-way interactions were calculated. The constituent two-way interactions between perceived journal quality and the disciplinary and geographical affiliations of the journal were analyzed at the journal level. More specifically, Hypotheses 3, 4, 6, and 7 were operationalized as cross-classified interactions reflecting differences between journals and differences between participants. Cross-classified interactions were calculated as the product of each variable and treated at the same level of analysis as each participant's rating of each journal (Han, 2005). As with each participant's rating of each journal, the interactions calculated from participant and journal variables are unique to each participant/journal combination. In line with Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken's (2003) recommendations, all continuous variables were centered to have a mean of zero. Dummy variables were left in their raw metrics. To test Hypothesis 3, cross-classified interactions were calculated between the disciplinary affiliation of the journal and the psychological affiliation of the participant, and between the disciplinary affiliation of the journal and the sociological affiliation of the participant. This particular approach is appropriate for interactions between continuous and categorical variables, as it represents the categorical variables as dummy variables (Cohen et al., 2003). To test Hypothesis 4, cross-classified interactions were calculated between the geographical orientation of the journal and the geographical orientation of the participant.

Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 8 were operationalized as cross-level interactions. To test Hypothesis 5, journal quality reputation was regressed onto the regression slope showing the relationship between the dummy variable indicating whether or not a given participant was on the editorial board of a particular journal and perceived journal quality. To test Hypothesis 8, consensual journal quality reputation was regressed onto the regression slope of the number of articles published in a given journal and perceived journal quality.

Except for cross-level interactions, the models reported below were estimated using fixed-effects analysis in which regression slopes were constrained to be invariant across all raters



and all journals. However, it is noteworthy that the reported findings were replicated in analyses using a range of different modeling options, including unconstrained regression slopes (details available on request).

## Results

### *Journal-Level Descriptive Statistics*

Table 1 presents the rank orders that were assigned to the journals based on their mean quality ratings for the entire sample and the specific disciplinary and geographic subgroups. This table clearly points to a lack of consensus across the different disciplinary subgroups concerning the evaluation of relative journal quality. For 31 of the 44 journals, there was a difference in rankings across the disciplinary subgroups of 6 or more. Moreover, in the case of 14 of the journals, rankings across those groups differed by 12 or more. Although the different geographical subgroups were more consensual in their rankings of the journals, there were still some marked between-subgroup differences. Of interest is not just dissensus in how the journals were ranked on the basis of their average ratings but also dissensus in the ratings themselves. There was a positive correlation between the journals' mean quality ratings and the standard deviations of those rating ( $r = .50, p < .01$ ), indicating there is greater variability in the quality ratings pertaining to those journals that tend to be ranked more favorably. This is corroborated by the results reported in Table 1, where it can be seen that dissensus in the ratings of journals by different subgroups tends to be largest among the top-ranked journals.

### *Model Testing*

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for each of the variables incorporated in the study. Table 3 shows the results of the cross-classified regression analysis. This was run in a stepwise fashion so that we could examine the effects of adding increasingly complex blocks of variables. It is possible to test the contribution of a set of variables to the explained variance in a given model by using a deviance statistic, which is evaluated in relation to the chi-square distribution. In Step 1, we entered the baseline model, which incorporated all the control variables. In Step 2, we added the number of articles published in each journal and editorial board membership pertaining to each journal, thus testing Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2. This step led to a significant improvement in the explained variance ( $\chi^2 = 712.86, df = 12, p < .01$ ). In Step 3, we added the two-way interactions between the disciplinary affiliation of the participant and the journal and the geographical affiliation of the participant and the journal, thus testing Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4. This step also led to a further significant improvement in the explained variance ( $\chi^2 = 214.86, df = 3, p < .01$ ). In Step 4, we added the two-way interactions that were not subject to hypothesis testing but that were necessary for testing the three-way interactions that relate to Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7 ( $\chi^2 = 17.26, df = 5, p < .01$ ). Finally, in Step 5, we added the two-way interactions of the moderating impact of consensual journal quality on participants' expressions of board

**Table 2**  
**Descriptive Statistics: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations**

Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Rating-level data <sup>a</sup>															
1. Perceived journal quality	0.00	1.00	–	–.09	.08										
2. Number of articles published in journal	0.31	1.40	.21	–	.04										
3. Journal board membership	0.02	0.15	.14	.26	–										
Participant-level data <sup>b</sup>															
4. Psychology affiliation of academic	0.43	0.50	–.02	–.09	.18*	–									
5. Sociology affiliation of academic	0.14	0.35	–.05	.03	–.15	–.32**	–								
6. U.S. affiliation of academic	0.64	0.48	–.13	–.07	.20*	.15*	–.19*	–							
7. Gender	0.74	0.44	.01	.02	.18*	–.04	.05	–.12	–						
8. Date of birth	1958	10.73	–.15*	–.24**	–.31**	.01	.16*	–.12	–.13	–					
9. Familiarity with journals	0.00	0.98	.20**	–.15	.18*	.14	.13	.06	.07	.07	–				
Journal-level data <sup>b</sup>															
10. Psychology affiliation of journal	0.00	0.85	.21	.35*	.18	.19	–.42**	.23	–.06	–.40**	.18	–			
11. U.S. affiliation of journal	0.00	0.95	.58**	.43**	–.09	.25	–.34*	.46*	.07	–.37*	–.22	.46**	–		
12. Consensual journal quality	2.90	0.70	.77**	.53**	.18	.07	–.25	.04	.07	–.30*	.02	.14	.46**	–	
13. Bibliometric journal influence	0.00	2.85	.90**	.66**	.03	.08	–.16	.16	.16	–.42*	–.13	.20	.46**	.67**	–

*Note:* *N* = 168; number of ratings = 7,205; number of journals rated = 44.

<sup>a</sup>Correlations between rating-level data are shown below the primary diagonal. Correlations between rating-level data aggregated at the level of the participants are shown above the primary diagonal. Significance tests not appropriate for rating-level data because of nonindependence of observations.

<sup>b</sup>Correlations between rating-level data and participant- (journal-) level data are based on rating-level data aggregated at the participant (journal) level. Correlations between participant- and journal-level data are shown above the diagonal aggregated at participant level and below the diagonal aggregated at journal level.

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

**Table 3**  
**Cross-Classified Random Effects Regression on Perceived Journal Quality**

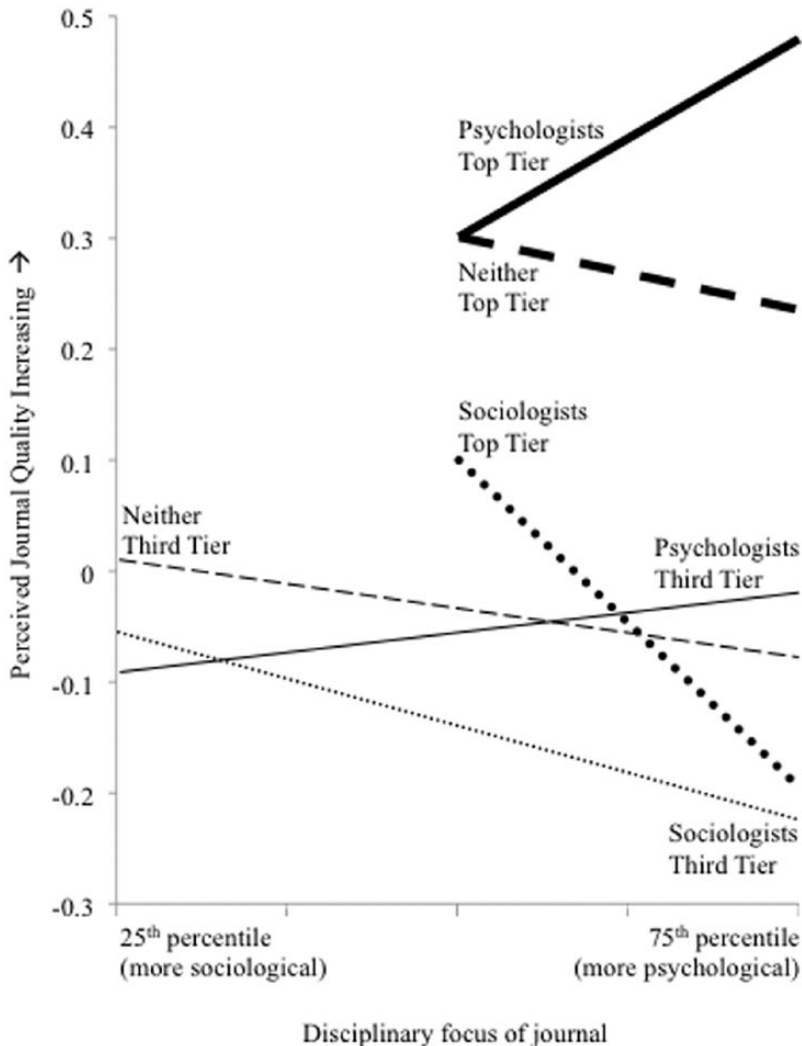
Regression Coefficients	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Rating-level variables			
Number of articles published in journal	0.18	0.02	10.06**
Journal board membership	0.39	0.06	6.60**
Participant-level variables			
Participant's mean number of published articles	-0.23	0.08	-2.83**
Psychological affiliation of academic	-0.04	0.05	-0.88
Sociological affiliation of academic	-0.11	0.07	-1.59
U.S. affiliation of academic	-0.13	0.05	-2.50*
Gender	-0.02	0.05	-0.38
Date of birth	-0.01	0.00	2.87**
Familiarity with journals	0.09	0.02	3.92**
Journal-level data			
Psychological affiliation of journal	-0.07	0.03	-2.33*
U.S. affiliation of journal	0.00	0.03	0.14
Consensual journal quality	0.17	0.05	3.42**
Bibliometric journal influence	0.10	0.01	7.07**
Psychological Affiliation × Consensual Quality	-0.01	0.05	-0.23
U.S. Affiliation × Consensual Quality	-0.03	0.06	-0.46
Cross-level interactions			
Number Articles Published × Consensual Quality	-0.05	0.02	-2.44*
Journal Board Membership × Consensual Quality	-0.02	0.09	-0.17
Cross-classified interactions			
Psychological Affiliation of Academic × Psychological Affiliation of Journal	0.17	0.02	9.99**
Sociological Affiliation of Academic × Psychological Affiliation of Journal	-0.11	0.02	-4.52**
U.S. Orientation of Academic × U.S. Affiliation of Journal	0.13	0.02	7.46**
Psychological Affiliation of Academic × Consensual Quality	0.00	0.02	-0.23
Sociological Affiliation of Academic × Consensual Quality	-0.05	0.03	-1.83
U.S. Affiliation of Academic × Consensual Quality	0.01	0.03	0.24
Psychological Affiliation of Academic × Psychological Affiliation of Journal × Consensual Quality	0.08	0.02	3.40**
Sociological Affiliation of Academic × Psychological Affiliation of Journal × Consensual Quality	-0.09	0.03	-2.90**
U.S. Affiliation of Academic × U.S. Affiliation of Journal × Consensual Quality	0.08	0.02	3.66**
Variance Components	Participant	Journal	
Intercept	0.08**	0.02**	
Rating-level variables			
Editorial board membership of journal	0.07**	0.03**	
Number of articles published in journal	0.02**	0.01**	

Note: *N* = 168; number of ratings = 7,205; number of journals rated = 44.

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

membership and publication record identity concerns in their journal ratings, thus testing Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 8, and the three-way interactions of the moderating impact of consensual journal quality on participants' expressions of disciplinary and geographical

**Figure 1**  
**The Impact of Interactions Between Disciplinary Affiliation of Academic and Journal on Perceived Journal Quality**

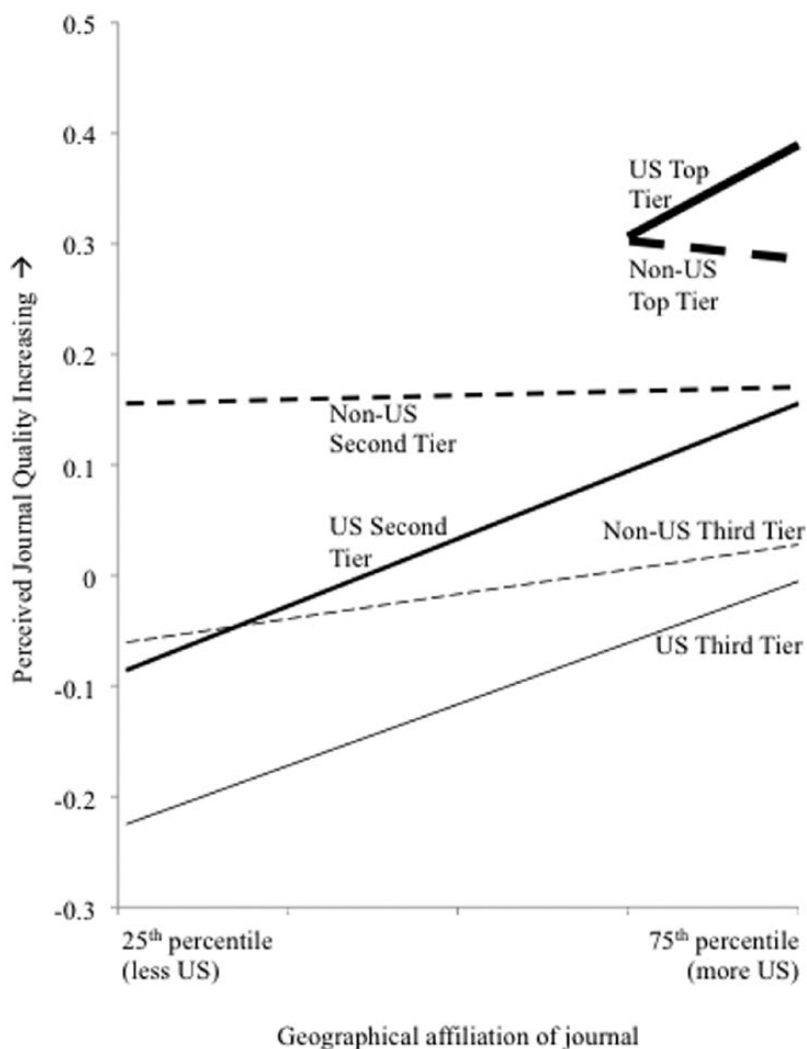


*Note:* The line for those with both a psychological and sociological affiliation is excluded because only one participant fell into this category. Slopes for higher quality journals truncated to be within range in the sample.

identity concerns in their journal ratings, thus testing Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7. This step again led to a significant improvement in the explained variance ( $\chi^2 = 49.00$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

Consistent with Hypothesis 1, participants tended to give higher quality ratings to journals in which they had published more articles ( $B = 0.18$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This tendency is qualified by

**Figure 2**  
**The Impact of Interactions Between Geographical Affiliation of Academic and Journal on Perceived Journal Quality**



a significant cross-level interaction between the number of articles published in a given journal and that journal's quality reputation. In line with Hypothesis 8, this interaction is negative ( $B = -0.05, p < .05$ ), indicating that participants' tendency to evaluate a given journal more positively the more articles they had published in it was strongest among lower tier journals. However, even for the highest ranked journals, a simple slopes analysis (Bauer &

Curran, 2005) indicated there was still a positive relationship between the number of articles published in a given journal and the perceived quality of that journal ( $B = 0.12, p < .01$ ).

In line with Hypothesis 2, participants who belonged to the editorial board of a given journal tended to rate the quality of that journal more highly on average than the other journals incorporated in the study ( $B = 0.39, p < .01$ ). There was also support for Hypothesis 3 in that perceived journal quality was related to the product of the psychological affiliation of the researcher and the psychological affiliation of the journal ( $B = 0.17, p < .01$ ) and the product of the sociological affiliation of the researcher and sociological affiliation of the journal ( $B = -0.11, p < .01$ ). These findings demonstrate that researchers with a psychological affiliation evaluated journals with a stronger psychological affiliation more positively, whereas researchers with a sociological affiliation showed the opposite tendency. There was also support for Hypothesis 4 in that perceived journal quality was related to the product of the geographical affiliation of the researcher and the geographical affiliation of the journal ( $B = 0.13, p < .01$ ), indicating that U.S.-affiliated researchers evaluated journals with a stronger U.S. affiliation more positively than journals with a weaker U.S. affiliation.

There was no support for Hypothesis 5, which predicted an interaction between participant board membership and journal quality reputation ( $B = -0.02, ns$ ). However, as predicted by Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7, the interactions between participant and journal disciplinary affiliation (Hypothesis 3) and participant and journal geographical affiliation (Hypothesis 4), reported above, were further qualified by interactions with journal quality reputation (range of  $B$ s  $|0.08|$  to  $|0.09|$ , all  $ps < .01$ ). The form of these three-way interactions is shown in Figures 1 and 2, with values plotted at the 25th and 75th percentiles of the distributions pertaining respectively to the journals' disciplinary and geographical affiliations. Only one journal fell into the lowest category of quality on the Mingers and Harzing index of journal reputation, which is unsurprising as journals were required to have an impact factor in order to be selected. As a result, although the lowest quality category was included in the analyses, it was omitted from both figures to aid clarity.

Figure 1 illustrates the form of the three-way interaction with regard to disciplinary affiliation. It shows that psychologists tended to give more favorable ratings to psychologically oriented journals, whereas sociologists tended to give more favorable ratings to sociologically oriented journals (since only one member of the sample reported affiliations with both disciplines, this participant's data were omitted from consideration). In line with Hypothesis 6, these effects are even more pronounced for the higher quality journals.

Using the procedures outlined by Aiken and West (1991) for simple slopes analysis, we found that for journals in the second lowest quality band (i.e., the 3rd tier), there was no evidence of journals being rated more favorably on the basis of disciplinary affiliation for psychologists ( $B = 0.05, ns$ ) or sociologists ( $B = -0.11, ns$ ) or for those with no affiliation to either discipline ( $B = -0.07, ns$ ). However, for journals in the second highest quality band (not shown in Figure 1, for clarity), there was evidence of ratings being influenced by disciplinary affiliation, with psychologists rating psychology-oriented journals more favorably ( $B = 0.11, p < .01$ ), sociologists rating sociology-oriented journals more favorably ( $B = -0.21, p < .01$ ), and those with neither disciplinary affiliation rating sociological journals more favorably ( $B = -0.08, p < .01$ ). Within the highest quality band, these effects were repeated and strengthened for psychologists ( $B = 0.18, p < .01$ ) and for sociologists ( $B =$

$-0.31, p < .01$ ). The slope for those with no affiliation to psychology or sociology was not significant ( $B = -0.09, ns$ ). Although the size of the regression coefficient for those with no affiliation to psychology or sociology was approximately the same in the highest ( $B = -0.09, ns$ ) and second highest ( $B = -0.08, p < .01$ ) quality bands, the null relationship in the highest quality band may simply reflect the fact that only a small number of journals were incorporated within the highest quality band. In summary, in line with Hypothesis 6, we found that academic judges showed the greatest ingroup favoritism for journals that were consensually viewed as being of higher quality.

Figure 2 shows that although U.S.-affiliated scholars rated U.S.- and non-U.S.-affiliated journals about the same in the lowest quality band ( $B = 0.09, ns$ ), they rated non-U.S.-affiliated journals more harshly than U.S.-affiliated journals in the second highest quality band ( $B = 0.14, p < .05$ ). This effect was repeated and strengthened in the highest quality band ( $B = 0.20, p < .01$ ). In contrast, non-U.S.-affiliated scholars tended to rate U.S. and non-U.S. journals about the same, irrespective of the quality band. This was confirmed in the analysis of simple slopes for non-U.S. scholars (across journal quality bands, range of  $B$ s =  $|0.00|$  to  $|0.03|$ , all  $ns$ ). The form of the interaction is thus consistent with Hypothesis 7 because the tendency for U.S.-oriented researchers to favor U.S.-affiliated journals (as predicted by Hypothesis 4) was strongest when consensual judgments of journal quality were highest.

## Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to test a new theoretical model of journal quality evaluations: the ICM. In line with the main predictions of this model, we found that when asked to judge the quality of MOS journals, scholars who work in the field do so in ways that reflect positively on their personal and social selves (Messick et al., 1985; Tajfel et al., 1971). Specifically, researchers were found to evaluate a given journal more favorably when they had published more articles in it (Hypothesis 1), when they were a member of that journal's editorial board (Hypothesis 2), and when that journal reflected their disciplinary (Hypothesis 3) and geographical (Hypothesis 4) affiliations.

Also in keeping with the predictions of the ICM, we found that researchers' tendency to evaluate a given journal more favorably was moderated by social reality constraints—reflecting the fact that some journals are generally perceived throughout the MOS field as being of higher quality than others. In the case of judgments that pertained to social identity, researchers rated journals that reflected on their geographical and disciplinary affiliations more favorably to the extent that journal quality lists indicated that those journals were of *higher* quality (in line with Hypotheses 6 and 7). This finding supports the meaning account of ingroup favoritism (Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Oakes & Haslam 2001; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) but contradicts the opposing ignorance account. In other words, whether or not people's judgments reflected social identity concerns seems to have been determined by the capacity of those judgments to provide a meaningful basis for intergroup comparisons, not by the absence of intimate knowledge relevant to the judgments in question. Further, in keeping with our earlier theorizing that *personal identity dynamics* will tend to be played out more



intensively when the journals in question are generally regarded as low (rather than high) status (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999), our findings also show that judges tend to rate journals in which they have published especially favorably when those journals are generally agreed to have a *lower* quality reputation, thus supporting Hypothesis 8. Together, these findings reinforce the utility of incorporating personal and social identity concerns within a single framework, as doing so enables us to develop a deeper understanding regarding the different conditions under which personal and social identity concerns come to the fore. The ICM is, to our knowledge, the only model to explicitly address personal and social identities in this way.

It is worth noting that although our participants rated journals more positively when they belonged to the journals' editorial boards, this was not qualified by consensual quality evaluations (thus not supporting Hypothesis 5). Although caution should always be exercised when interpreting null effects, it is possible that this finding is indicative of some meaningful difference between geographical and disciplinary affiliations on one hand and board membership on the other hand. In particular, while researchers are likely to enact group memberships based on geographical and disciplinary affiliations with reasonable frequency (e.g., by attending conferences) and on an ongoing basis (e.g., by attending the same conferences year after year), this is less likely to be the case when it comes to editorial board membership, where membership is typically enacted through individual activities, such as reviewing articles. The fact that board membership is not associated with meaningful group-based behavior may mean that it is not a basis for the contested intergroup comparisons that were observed when judgments were informed by geographical and disciplinary social identities. This inference is necessarily speculative, but it merits attention in future research.<sup>2</sup>

It is also interesting to note that ingroup favoritism on the basis of geographical social identity seemed to be primarily driven by U.S.-affiliated scholars, who displayed more favoritism toward U.S. journals relative to their non-U.S. counterparts. Although the non-U.S. participants rated non-U.S. journals more favorably than did the U.S. participants, they did not rate non-U.S. journals more favorably than U.S. journals. This pattern of findings is similar to those observed in a study of medical researchers by Link (1998), which found that U.S. scholars rated U.S. journals more positively than non-U.S. journals, whereas non-U.S. scholars rated them equivalently. Taken together, the findings of the present study and this earlier work indicate that there is a degree of consensus regarding the dominance of U.S.-based researchers and institutions that seems to generalize across academic fields. Social identity theorists (e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1979) maintain that where there is such agreement concerning the relative superiority of one group over another, group members may well display outgroup favoritism because there is no basis for contesting social reality (see also Oakes et al., 1994). It is possible, therefore, that in both the present study and in Link's (1998) previous research, the non-U.S.-affiliated judges were acknowledging consensual beliefs regarding the relative strength of U.S. journals.

It is important to acknowledge several potential limitations of the present study. First, although for the most part our findings are consistent with our theorizing, further research is required to ascertain its generalizability beyond the confines of the particular subset of journals, disciplines, and individuals that formed the focus of our work. Given the constraints of data collection, inevitably our study omitted many MOS journals, including some highly

prestigious ones. Although we do not think that a different sample of journals or participants would have changed the essence of our findings, it would be worthwhile to increase the number and range of journals and participants investigated beyond the disciplinary confines of psychology and sociology and the geographical confines of North America and Europe. In future work, it would also be worth taking a more ethnographic or qualitative approach in order to understand the way in which these processes play out in practice. It may be that identity concerns are most likely to emerge in certain circumstances (such as when disciplinary groups are competing over scarce resources) or that they are more likely to emerge among certain groups (such as junior scholars, those with no editorial board memberships, or particularly productive researchers).

A second potential limitation of the present work concerns the possibility of common method variance (CMV). The fact that our participants' responses formed the basis of several of the independent variables incorporated in our study, as well as the dependent variable of journal quality perceptions, raises the possibility that some of the relationships obtained could be the result of CMV. In mitigation, however, the majority of indicators that served as independent variables consisted of factual information (i.e., geographical affiliation, disciplinary affiliation, date of birth, and gender), which was obtained after our participants had completed the self-report questions pertaining to journal quality. Moreover, the response scale formats of the two remaining independent variable indicators (journal familiarity and publication record) differed substantially from those employed to elicit the ratings of journal quality. These design features greatly reduce the likelihood that CMV could have biased our findings (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Given the difficulties in obtaining significant interaction effects from data sets that suffer from CMV (Siemens, Roth, & Oliveria, 2010), the fact that we found support for five of our six hypothesized interactions provides a further indication that it is unlikely to have posed a significant threat to our substantive findings.

A final potential limitation concerns the absence of a measure of board members' familiarity with each individual journal. Although we controlled for familiarity with the entire set of journals, this does not remove the possibility that there was a confound between editorial board membership and journal familiarity, such that part of the reason that board members rated those journals that reflected on their personal and social identities more positively could be that they were more familiar with those particular journals. However, it is important to note that familiarity per se cannot explain our main findings because, as demonstrated in relation to Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7, respectively, scholars' tendencies to rate the quality of a given journal more highly when that journal reflects their disciplinary and geographical affiliations is significantly stronger when the journal in question has a higher reputation for quality. In other words, the greatest ingroup favoritism was observed for those journals that are consensually highly evaluated, that is, the journals most likely to be familiar to all participants, irrespective of board membership. Nevertheless, in future research it would be desirable to investigate this potential confound directly.

The above potential limitations notwithstanding, the general pattern of our results indicates that the value of MOS research is very much in the eye of the beholder (see also Glick, 2009). Hence, attempts to construct *definitive* lists of journal quality are likely to be highly contentious, provoking strong objections from scholars whose identity concerns differ from those of the lists' compilers. This observation is borne out by the continuing

proliferation of new lists in MOS, the purpose of which is to correct the perceived limitations of previous ones.

Yet despite the inherently contentious nature of journal lists, they remain extremely important for scholars and institutions (Ashkanasy, 2007). The question of how the process of list construction might be improved, therefore, continues to be hotly debated. As discussed above, our results indicate that such contention is likely to be concentrated among the most highly regarded journals—an observation that is borne out by the debate surrounding the decision to omit the *Journal of Applied Psychology* from a list of top management journals (Judge, 2003). Indeed, given the strength of our findings, it is rather surprising that the issue of ingroup favoritism (or “bias”) has not occupied a more prominent position in the formal discourse and literature pertaining to questions of journal quality more generally. In this regard, one very straightforward implication of our findings is that if significant headway is to be made in addressing the practical challenges that the measurement of journal quality presents, then the role of identity concerns needs to take center stage—as does the task of managing those concerns in ways that are (understood to be) constructive, open, and fair. In the light of our findings, we maintain that a plurality of journal lists, reflecting a rich diversity of identity concerns, should be not only tolerated but also actively encouraged, with the caveat that the identity concerns of those who construct such lists are declared openly and acknowledged explicitly.

This is not to say that all identity concerns are equally valid. On the contrary, while endorsing listings of journal quality that reflect recognized social identity concerns (e.g., those based on geographical and disciplinary background), such lists clearly have the potential to be problematic if they are constructed in ways that reflect the idiosyncratic, personal biases of their constructors (which, as we have shown, are present for all journals but especially those that have lower consensual quality ratings). In the final analysis, it is only by making the intra- and intersubjective perceptions that lie behind the construction of journal quality lists explicit that such lists can be used to create a more level playing field for scholars and institutions competing for scarce rewards and resources (Hodgkinson, 2008).

## Notes

1. To check that the board members who responded were representative of the pool of potential participants (i.e., those that we e-mailed), we used repeated measures ANOVA to compare the proportion of actual and potential participants affiliated with each editorial board who were located in the United States and who had a psychology, sociology, or business and management orientation. With regard to geographical background, 59% of actual participants (i.e., those individuals who opted to participate) reported an affiliation with the United States, which did not differ significantly from the 57% of potential participants (i.e., the percentage of the total number of individuals who were invited to participate) who were coded as working at a U.S. institution,  $F(1, 43) < 1$ . With regard to disciplinary background, 20% of actual participants reported a psychology-only background, which did not differ from the 20% of potential participants who were coded as working in a psychology department,  $F(1, 43) < 1$ . Similarly, the 13% of actual participants who reported a sociology-only background did not differ significantly from the 6% of potential participants who were coded as working in a sociology department,  $F(1, 43) = 3.27$ , *ns*, and the 66% of actual participants who reported having a business and management background did not differ from the 73% of participants who were coded as working in a management department or business school,  $F(1, 43) = 2.92$ , *ns*. Overall, the board members who responded to our questionnaire were thus representative of the broader population of board members in terms of geographical and disciplinary orientations.

2. An anonymous reviewer suggested that, because some journals hold editorial board meetings, editorial board membership of such journals is more of a social activity than is the case for those journals that do not hold board meetings. Based on this suggestion, we were able to obtain estimates of the proportion of editorial board members attending board meetings from 31 of the 44 journals sampled. Supplementary analysis by means of multilevel modeling revealed that the level of attendance at board meetings does indeed qualify the positive relationship between editorial board membership and quality rankings ( $B = 0.20, p < .001$ ), such that the board members of journals with better attended board meetings tend to rate their journals especially favorably. At the same time, there was a significant main effect for editorial board membership on quality ratings ( $B = 0.72, p < .001$ ), and an analysis of the simple slopes indicates that editorial board members are more likely to rate their journals favorably even if those journals do not have well-attended editorial board meetings ( $B = 0.49, p < .01$ ). However, there was no evidence that the proportion of members attending editorial board meetings moderated the interaction between editorial board membership and consensual journal quality. Although only limited inferences can be drawn from these additional analyses, they are nevertheless supportive of our suggestion that whether social identities are enacted collectively or individually may have implications for identity-related behavior. In particular, social category membership may be more likely to provide a basis for intergroup (rather than interindividual) competition when the category is associated with meaningful group-based behavior.

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