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The Dissertation Committee for Dina Inman Ramgolam Certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

Time and Technical Impressions: Exploring the Relationships Between Temporal Experience, Communication Practices, and Impression Management in the Contemporary Workplace

Committee:

Dawna I. Ballard, Supervisor

Sharon Jarvis

Keri Stephens

Jorge Pena

Thomas Darwin

**Time and Technical Impressions: Exploring the Relationships Between
Temporal Experience, Communication Practices, and Impression
Management in the Contemporary Workplace**

by

Dina Inman Ramgolam, B.A.; M.A.

Dissertation

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Dedication

To Tito, Naia, and our Future.

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Time and Technical Impressions: Exploring the Relationships Between Temporal Experience, Communication Practices, and Impression Management in the Contemporary Workplace

Dina Inman Ramgolam, Ph. D.

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Supervisor: Dawna I. Ballard

The primary goal of this study is to explore the impact of dominant cultural patterns associated with the contemporary workplace on organizational members' experience of time. First, in order to investigate such potential relationships, three temporal factors—*varying levels of synchronicity*, *temporal compression*, and *temporal expansion*—are identified as contemporary dominant cultural patterns. Next, these dominant cultural patterns are isolated to reflect three growing communication practices: multicommuting, virtual work practices, and primary work location. With a review of the literature, these communication practices are tested with seven dimensions of time (*present time perspective*, *urgency*, *pace*, *flexibility*, *punctuality*, *separation*, and *linearity*). A secondary goal is to also examine both organizational members' temporal experience and communication practices with the impression management strategy, exemplification. Taken together, each goal and subsequent findings helps to inform our understanding of contemporary communication phenomenon.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The shift in work and communication patterns over the past two decades reflects the rapid and steep constitutive entanglement of our social need for perpetual connection and the material—the devices that help us realize such capabilities (Katz & Aakhus, 2002; Orlikowski, 2007). The results of this entanglement are reflected in communicative patterns that are as robust as the multitude of ways we currently are able to connect. Our long-held understanding that the adoption of new communication technologies increases the overall quantity of organizational communication (Rice & Case, 1983) continues to place importance on this issue as the capabilities embedded in advanced communication and information technologies (ACITs) multiply and use becomes more widespread among a variety of organizational members.

Previous communication research has examined how patterns associated with technology use often leads to communication and information overload (Cho, Ramgolam, Schaefer, & Sandlin, 2011; Hiltz & Turoff, 1985; Farace, Monge, and Russell, 1977), hampers organizational productivity (Rennecker & Godwin, 2005), and shapes organizational identity (Scott & Timmerman, 1999; Weisenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 1999). One area that has had limited exploration in communication research is the impact of mediated communication patterns on the experience of time among organizational members. This particular line of research is needed due to the often held assumption that increased usage of ACITs is altering how organizational members come to reconcile their experience of time (Gleick, 1999; Castells, Fernandez-Ardevol, Qui, & Sey, 2007). Popular press and academic research alike have repeatedly referenced how modern day

communication tendencies are increasing the amount of contacts and speeding up how we work and interact (Cameron & Webster, 2010; Castells, et al., 2007; Jackson, 2008; Mazmanian, Yates, & Orlikowski, 2006; Jarvenpaa, & Lang, 2005; Leccardi, 2003; Richtel, 2010; Sabelis, 2007; Turkle, 2008). Moreover, claims of “demented” workplace time commitments (Kuhn, 2006, p. 1) and an inability to disconnect from technical devices (Orlikowski, 2007; Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011; Stetler, 2011) calls into question the time pressures members may presently face (Baron, 2008; Menzies & Newsom, 2007; Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). However, no communication research to date has systematically linked specific mediated communication practices with temporal experience.

The goal of this research is to gain a better understanding of the relationship between mediated communication patterns, temporal experience, and other potential outcomes. Due to the recursive relationship time has with communication, this subject matter is especially important to consider in communication scholarship (Ballard & Seibold, 2003). Time is argued to be a communicative construct that is an outcome of practices and interactions (Ballard & Seibold, 2006). As such, when evaluating the experience of time, we gain additional insight and understanding into contemporary communication phenomenon (Ballard & Gossett, 2007). In addition, temporal experience lies at the heart of nonverbal communication (Bruneau, 1974). With regard to mediated communication, Walther (2006) notes more specifically the importance of temporal dynamics such as email time stamps and latency as powerful nonverbal cues. Therefore, the notion of capturing temporal experience for organizational members that

communicate via ACITs may also enhance our understanding of various cue-forming concepts discussed in previous research (Döring & Poschl, 2009; Kalman & Rafaeli, 2005; Walther & Tidwell, 1995; Walther, 2006).

This project seeks to explore the intersection of time and mediated communication in first; it frames the discussion of contemporary patterns as being shaped by three temporally driven factors. Specifically, the factors *synchronicity*, *temporal compression*, and *temporal expansion* can be identified in distinct ways and are explicated to reveal specific characteristics representative of the contemporary workplace. For instance, regarding synchronicity, communication patterns have less predictable flow due to asynchronous electronic communication methods such as email (Rice, 1990). This sits in contrast to the continued need to connect synchronously or in ‘real’ time by using instant messaging (IM) or SMS (texting), which encourages shorter patterned conversations (Cameron & Webster, 2005; Quan-Haase, Cothrel, & Wellman, 2005; Rennecker & Godwin, 2005). The ongoing practice of these two interactive patterns (i.e., asynchronous and synchronous communication) leads many to try and do more in less time (Adam, 2004). Such practices have been referred to as polychronic communication, or multitasking, which reinforce fragmented moments where individuals jump from task to task and/or conversation to conversation (Turner & Reinsch, 2007; Stephens, Ballard, & Cho, 2012).

Regarding temporal compression, while it is evident that overlapping multiple conversations create compressed patterns, other patterns have simply expanded into times and spaces previously held private or restricted reflecting temporal expansion. For

example, the use of mobile devices and participation in alternative work arrangements (e.g., teleworking, flexwork, virtual work practices, etc.) now extend work-related communication far beyond the typical time and space structures of the traditional workplace (Hylmö & Buzzanell, 2002; Golden & Geisler, 2007). In sum, communication patterns can be described as having temporally based factors where the blending of synchronous with asynchronous and simultaneously compressed and expanded communication patterns best represents the characteristics of the contemporary workplace. Examination of these three temporal factors (i.e., levels of synchronicity, compression, and expansion) through the communication practices often associated with them is an area ripe for mediated communication research, in general, and organizational temporality, in particular.

Second, a discussion of related temporal dimensions and empirical examples are addressed to illuminate potential relationships. Temporal experience is identified across several dimensions and broadly includes the way members perform time (i.e., enactments) and how they interpret time (i.e., construals) (Ballard & Seibold, 2003). The experience of time along a variety of dimensions can be influenced differently depending upon one's enacted communication practices (Ballard & Seibold, 2004). Empirical evidence across several disciplines suggests that there may be a potential relationship between ACITs use and the particular temporal dimensions of: punctuality, urgency, present time perspective, linearity, separation, flexibility, and pace (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2005; Katz & Aakhus, 2002; Orlikowski, 2007; Stephens & Davis, 2009; Turner & Reinsch, 2007; Walther, 2002).

Third, this research isolates three communication and work practices in order to examine such potential influences: *multicommunication*, *virtual work practices*, and *primary work location*. These practices reflect the patterns and temporal characteristics often associated with the aforementioned temporal factors. For instance multicommunication, which is often facilitated by multiple media, is a practice where individuals engage in two or more ongoing conversations at a time (Reinsch, Turner, & Tinsley, 2008). The combining of several instant messaging (IM) conversations while on a telephone conference call, for example, reveals patterns that tend to be short and fragmented as there may be some short delay in responses for the IM conversations (Reinsch et al., 2008). Therefore, multicommunication exemplifies both synchronous and asynchronous communication and also, by having multiple ongoing conversations, patterns that are more compressed.

An additional growing communication practice is an organizational member's perpetual connection to their work and other members via virtual work practices enabled by ACITs (Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011). Virtual work practices are communication and work practices used by a variety of organizational members, via varying types of technology, to work across locational and temporal boundaries to accomplish a given work task. Virtual work practices describe the *discontinuities* from traditional work practices (Watson-Manheim, Chudoba, & Crowton, 2002) and the fluidity of connection over time and space elements. For instance, collaborating with others via Internet-based applications over different time zones and connecting to work while on travel through technical devices is an example of organizational members

utilizing virtual work practices. Due to the dynamic nature in utilizing virtual work practices, communication patterns reflect varying levels of synchronicity (e.g., email and video chatting), compression (e.g., working with mobile devices), and expansion (e.g., adapting communication to different time zones).

Accordingly, the role of organizational members' physical work location—where individuals primarily carry out their work responsibilities—is also considered in this investigation. Increasingly, members are by choice or necessity working outside the confines of the collocated, traditional brick-and-mortar workplace. The purpose of distinguishing primary work location in this project is to avoid assuming traditional work relationships when examining important issues associated with communicating in the contemporary workplace (Ballard & Gossett, 2007; Hylmö & Buzznell, 2002). Work locations such as the home office or company satellite office may have different ways of shaping temporal experience due to the varying levels of synchronicity involved when communicating from different locations as well as expanded communication patterns (e.g., working hours differ from other work members) and more compressed patterns (e.g., combining work-related conversations with personal conversations while working from home).

Last, preliminary research by the author found a positive relationship between the temporal dimension punctuality and virtual status (Ramgolam, 2007). This finding was attributed to potential impression management behaviors. However, a more direct relationship needs to be assessed consistent with other scholarship that examines temporal elements and impression management in mediated communication (Katz, 2006;

Walther, 2006). More specifically, this study investigates the relationship between specific communication practices, temporal experience and the impression management strategy, *exemplification*. Exemplification is a strategy whereby individuals continuously aim to demonstrate an image of dedication (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Behaviors often highlighted in the literature describe members' preoccupation with speed and a strong inclination to respond to messages in a timely fashion (Orlikowski, 2007; Stephens & Davis, 2009b). One explanation may point to members' need to convey trustworthiness, commitment, and dedication to their job. Therefore, this project also seeks to build upon previous research linking nonverbal aspects of impression management in mediated communication (Dubrin, 2001; Gardner, Martinko, & Peluchette, 1996; Kersten, & Stephen, 1992; O'Sullivan, 2000; Sosik & Jung, 2003; Walther, 2006; Westerman & Westerman, 2010).

This dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter 2 begins with the theoretical underpinning of the study by providing a brief summary of organizational temporality (Ballard & Seibold, 2003) and the sociomaterial perspective (Orlikowski, 2007). Then, three temporal factors reflected in contemporary dominant cultural patterns which include *varying levels of synchronicity*, *temporal compression*, and *temporal expansion*, are addressed in order to frame the project and explain the potential experience of time for organizational members. These factors are also linked to literature highlighting seven temporal dimensions (i.e., *flexibility*, *separation*, *pace*, *linearity*, *present time perspective*, *urgency* and *punctuality*). Chapter 3 introduces the communication practices associated with *multicommunicating*, *virtual work practices*, and *primary work location* that

demonstrate, more specifically, the three temporal factors at play in the contemporary workplace. Next, the impression management strategy of *exemplification* is discussed in light of its nonverbal aspects in mediated communication. Research questions are offered throughout Chapter 3. Chapter 4 will explain the procedure used for data collection and the measures used in the study. Chapter 5 includes the statistical results of each research question. Finally, Chapter 6 includes a discussion of the results as well as the theoretical contributions of this study.

Summary of Rationale

Popular press and academic research repeatedly refer to the challenges facing organizational members due to the speed and increase in contacts that intensify communication networks and patterns. At the heart of this discourse is how the impact of technology is facilitating this increase in speed and changing the way we relate to time (Gleick, 1999; Castells et al., 2007). As a result, organizational members often imply that time while working has new rhythms and is in constant motion leaving them with a continued sense of urgency, for example (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005; Reinsch et al., 2008). However, little research has explored the relationship between specific communication practices and key temporal dimensions that might demonstrate a more direct link. Further, because this discourse is occurring at a national level and across a variety of work occupations, it is important to address this problem at a macro level. Such an approach will provide research with a better indication behind claims that time is experienced in particular ways as a result of our interactions in technology rich work environments. Therefore, the overall goal of this study seeks to address the overarching

questions: Is our experience of time changing? Or, more specifically, when you use particular mediated communication practices, do you refer to time in particular ways? Additionally, this project explores as a potential outcome, the impression management tactic—exemplification—in order to address the relationship between contemporary communication practices and key temporal dimensions. This is an important factor that may help indicate reasons why technology related communication practices continue to increase and the role that time might play.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

There are two theoretical perspectives used here to underscore the discussion of time, technology, and their subsequent influence on in the contemporary workplace. First, I draw on the work of Orlikowski (2007), as she uses the notion of sociomaterial practices to describe the constitutive entanglement of social practices and the material aspects of organizing and technology. This perspective helps to explain how the entangled use of media devices in organizational work is shaping communication practices. Second, I refer to Ballard and Seibold's (2003) meso-level model of organizational temporality to discuss how dominant cultural patterns in Western (post) industrial society continue to shape temporal experience. Three specific dominant cultural patterns are then identified as *varying levels of synchronicity*, *temporal compression*, and *temporal expansion*. The last section in this chapter presents a review of literature that highlights seven temporal dimensions often referred to in technology-related literature.

Sociomaterial Practices

Orlikowski (2007) introduced the concept of sociomaterial practices to explain how the material aspects of organizing technologies—such as that of a mobile phone (i.e., “any handheld IT artifact that encompasses hardware (devices), software (interface and application), and communication (network services) (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005, p. 8)—are not to be treated as distinct from related social practices in an organization. Rather, she

argues that the materiality of a mobile or technical device and the social practices that surround it are *constitutively entangled*—meaning, “they are inextricably related—there is no social that is not also material, and no material that is not also social” (p. 1437). According to Orlikowski (2007), this depiction takes the focus away from a *human-centered* perspective, which has been known to treat technical devices as simple blackboxes that have common meanings and uses for all that use the device.

As an example, the sociomaterial practices of mobile communication include the constitutive entanglement of individual choices and activities, which then reflects how the device is configured and designed (Orlikowski, 2007). Therefore, the features that often describe mobile devices as enabling more communication are actually a reflection of the inextricable link of this capability and the individuals’ willingness, and often desire, to increase their communication (Castells, 2001; Katz, 2006). Orlikowski (2007) uses the ‘push email’ capability to help illustrate this notion:

...the capability inscribed into the software running on the servers has become entangled with people’s choices and activities to keep devices turned on, to carry them at all times, to glance at them repeatedly, and to respond to email regularly. (p. 1444)

This constitutive entanglement is what suggests a change in communication practices and subsequent patterns. For example, organizational members today stay more connected than in the past not only because of advancements in technological features but also because of an increase in the global nature of members’ contacts (Sabelis, 2007).

Organizational Temporality

In Ballard & Seibold's (2003) meso-level model of organizational temporality, they identify dominant cultural patterns as influencing the experience of time for organizational members. Although time is experienced as subjective (i.e., individual characteristics) and objective (i.e., external pacers), it is also experienced as intersubjective where large, dominant cultural norms come to shape the practices and values of organizational members (Ballard, 2009). Dominant cultural patterns include a combination of "national, regional, local, and ethnic" influences (Ballard & Seibold, 2003, p. 393). As a macroorganizational structure, dominant cultural patterns "enable and constrain members' actions and interactions in the organizational context" (Ballard & Seibold, 2006, p. 319). A review of literature highlights three factors: *levels of synchronicity*, *temporal compression*, and *temporal expansion*—in contemporary US culture, more broadly, that also have unique influence on the experience of time for organizational members in particular. The first, levels of synchronicity refers to the variability in speed, rehearsability, and reprocessability across messages in mediated communication and is the overarching factor that demonstrates a general trend in communication patterns (Burgoon, Bonito, Ramirez, Kam, Dunbar, and Fischer, 2002). The latter two, temporal compression and temporal expansion, represent the underlying dynamics at play within the varying levels of synchronicity. Temporal compression refers to an increase in activity within the same unit of time (Adam, 2004) whereas temporal expansion refers to the reach of communication into times and spaces previously deemed

private or restricted. The following section further addresses the role of synchronicity, compression, and expansion.

Varying Levels of Synchronicity

In order to identify the patterns involved when working in the contemporary workplace, it is important to consider the level of synchronicity associated with particular communication media. Technologies carry varying levels of synchronous properties—temporal aspects that describe the level of speed interaction, rehearsability, and reprocessability (Burgoon, et al., 2002; Carlson & George, 2004; Dennis, Fuller, & Valacich, 2008). These properties reveal the basic shape and rate of overall general communication patterns among varied interactions. To further illustrate, Dennis and colleagues (2008) categorize and compare a variety of media based on the delivery speed of a message to a receiver (transmission velocity), the time an individual has to encode that message before providing feedback (rehearsability), and the ability an individual has to review previous information at their convenience (reprocessability). These factors help us identify ranges in synchronicity (i.e., low, medium, or high synchronicity) across media. Low synchronicity (e.g., email), often referred to as asynchronicity, will have low to medium transmission speed, high rehearsability, and high reprocessability. Medium synchronicity (e.g., instant messaging) will have medium transmission speed, medium rehearsability, and medium-to-high reprocessability. High synchronous media (e.g., face-to-face or video conferencing) will have high transmission speed, low rehearsability, and low reprocessability. The three categories indicate the shape of patterns by considering the potential time intervals involved within each (McGrath & Kelly, 1992), which then

reflects simultaneous communication or slightly imprecise communication as in *simultaneous sequentiality* (Monge and Kalman, 1996).

Previous research has examined the impact of synchronicity on organizational members and work. For instance, Berry (2007) argues that asynchronous communication requires more time to read, comment, and process data. However, he also notes that the time required is often offset by the “24/7 nature” of asynchronous communication since media such as email does not require instantaneous response and be done at one’s convenience (Berry, 2006, p. 360). Asynchronous communication has also been linked to organizational identification. Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, and Garud (1999) found that email was a strong predictor of organizational identification among virtual workers. The combined use, or successive use of synchronous and asynchronous communication media, may also lead to an increase in overall communication received (Stephens, 2007). This may result in patterns that are compromised because individuals have a more difficult time attending to all messages leading to delays as initial senders wait on responses (Rennecker & Godwin, 2005). Because response times can vary, research on email latency has addressed how asynchronous communication potentially leads to nonverbal cue forming as users attempt to assign meaning to response times (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2005; Kalman, Ravid, Raban, & Rafaeli, 2006a; Rice, 1990; Cramton, 2001).

It has been highly debated whether high synchronous or low synchronous communication is more advantageous. Previous theoretical work has placed more value on highly synchronous communication. Daft, Lengel, and Trevino (1987) argue that rich communication channels are highly synchronous. In a similar way, Kock (2005) posits

that, from a biological perspective, it is our natural inclination to favor communication that is highly synchronous. However, asynchronous communication has become a norm, and sometimes a requirement, in organizational work because its ease and convenience is preferred or needed due to distributed working conditions (Berry, 2006). For instance, it was found that distributed work group members that communicate synchronously are more satisfied than those that communicate asynchronously (Burgoon, Burgoon, Broneck, Alvaro, & Nunamaker, 2002). Despite such debates, individuals are using a variety of communication media in succession (Stephens, 2007) and, at other times, concurrently (Turner & Reinsch, 2010). As such, synchronous and asynchronous communication patterns are robust and overlapping and results in what Castells and colleagues (2007) argue is the “desequencing of social action” which is caused by the “random ordering of the moments of the sequence” (p. 171). Therefore, patterns of varying levels of synchronicity are a fundamental temporal characteristic in mediated communication that is potentially shaping temporal experience.

Temporal Compression

Whereas varying levels of synchronicity provide an understanding of basic communication patterns, the following two factors provide a more detailed understanding of the underlying temporal dynamics at play within synchronous communication. The first of the two is temporal compression, which Adam (2004) describes in the following manner:

“...time compression has been achieved by a number of means: by increasing the activity within the same unit of time (through machines and

the intensification of labor), reorganizing the sequence and ordering of activities (Taylorism and Fordism), using peaks and troughs more effectively (flexibilization), and by eliminating all unproductive times from the process (just-in-time system of production, delivery, consumption)” p. 128.

As Adam (2004) points out in this multifaceted definition, temporal compression is a key component in how communication patterns are potentially saturated (i.e., multiple activities conducted within one unit of time), fragmented (i.e., short or incomplete messages), and desequenced (i.e., randomly ordered messages). Further, Adam (2004) argues that the high economic value placed on speed translates into temporal compression. Therefore, the notion that time is money makes it quite tempting for individuals to not only increase their pace but, to try and achieve efficiency by fitting as much as possible into any one unit of time (Sabelis, 2007).

Present-day examples of temporal compression are visible in multitasking, multicommuting, and mobile phone use. For instance, multitasking in organizational work centers on the practice of electronic multitasking (Stephens & Davis, 2009a) and multicommuting (Reinsch, et al., 2008). Electronic multitasking often involves the use of mobile devices such as cell phones, laptops, or electronic tablets, which enables users to check and respond to email, instant message colleagues, and/or work on tasks while simultaneously attending to organizational meetings or conference calls (Stephens & Davis, 2009a). Multicommuting (discussed at length below) is the juggling of two or more interactive conversations at the same time (Reinsch et al., 2008). These

conversations can be carried out over the phone (e.g., conference calls), IM, SMS, or face-to-face. When these types of multitasking behaviors are performed (i.e., simultaneous multitasking) it is often due to the goal of increasing one's pace due to a large workload (Stephens et al., 2012).

Additional empirical studies have also helped to showcase temporal compression at work. For instance, in a study identifying the paradoxes of mobile technology (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005), one participant described their attempt to increase their level of productivity:

Sometimes while driving, I feel like instead of relaxing, I should be more productive, like calling people back, calling my customers back. Sometimes it's good that people I am working with can reach me 24 hours, 7 days a week. Sometimes, however, it might be destructive; it makes me feel I should be working more than I am (p. 11).

The excerpt from this participant exemplifies how efficiency, or even boredom, in addition to a focus on pace, is also at play; thus, revealing the type of temporal compression that Adam theorizes. Such empty spaces (e.g., driving, waiting, etc.) provide users with the opportunity to revive useless moments in time and make them economically productive (Baron, 2008). In sum, the goal of these behaviors centers on getting more things done at a faster speed (Bluedorn, 2002), which is the essence of temporal compression. Hesse and colleagues' (1988) work also helps to clarify the importance of pace, and thereby temporal compression, in mediated communication by defining what they refer to as objective pace where there is "activity density or rate at

which events pass in a specified unit in time” (p. 155). A more subjective view, they argue is that the greater the degree of change that individuals perceive, the faster these individuals perceive the pace in activities. For reasons similar to this, the pace surrounding the temporal compression relevant in multitasking and mobile phone use encourages saturated, fragmented, and desequenced patterns (Castells et al., 2007; Green, 2002; Sabelis, 2007).

Temporal compression has also been at the forefront of discussions involving contemporary temporal experience that centers on pace and efficiency. Hassan (2007), for example, argues that temporal compression is experienced as *chronoscopic time* (i.e., compressed clock time). He relates chronoscopic time to an increase in pace by recognizing that temporal compression, when experienced, is “fast, but still multidurational and multipatterned, etc.” (p. 49). When describing *timeless time*, Castells and colleagues (2007) point to mobile communication technology use in driving temporal compression because the technological affordances offer opportunities to fill idle time (e.g., standing in line at the bank) with communication (e.g., speaking with a co-worker about a meeting). Similarly, Green (2002) argues that mobile technologies encourage ‘mobile times,’ which are unique rhythms made up of short durations. These short durations encourage the continued sense of fitting as many messages as possible into one mobile unit of time.

Temporal Expansion

In contrast to a focus on the saturated and fragmented aspects of temporal compression, temporal expansion reflects how communication patterns now reach far into times and spaces previously deemed private or restricted. The notion of temporal expansion is similar to what Hesse and colleagues (1988) refer to as increasing temporal scale, which refers to the scope and length of communication behavior. However, temporal expansion more specifically focuses on the flexible nature of these patterns due to the use of mobile technologies and alternative work methods. Temporal expansion can also be understood as a focus on task orientation rather than clock-based orientation (O'Malley, 1992). These descriptions demonstrate the lack of temporal and spatial boundaries involved with mediated communication patterns.

Mobile communication technology is a critical component in temporal expansion. Research has found that when members are issued cell phones by their organization, they feel more inclined to connect past typical work hours (Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011). Towers and colleagues (2006) argue that mobile communication uses are 'time thieves' and 'space invaders' and that the use of such devices extends the working day. Of those sampled in their study, nearly half (40%) reported that they were *never off duty* and *could be reached at all times*. Prasopoulou and colleagues (2005) had similar findings when they identified how members who had previously resisted contacting members after working hours, now chose to text coworkers because they found it to be "less" intrusive than a phone call. Temporal expansion is evident in mobile

communication technology use as the inclination to work and communicate during times usually reserved for family, friends, and rest resemble patterns that are intermingled with work.

Similarly, working in alternative work arrangements also extends working times and therefore communication patterns shift (Golden & Figart, 2000; Rubin, 2007; Steward, 2000). Communicating via ACITs such as mobile devices, using email and IM when working in alternative arrangements, encourages a sense of flexibility in how organizational members choose to communicate (Ballard & Gossett, 2007). Specifically, Hylmö and Buzzanell's (2002) research on teleworkers found that members fit in one of two categories "fluid space/fixed time" or "fluid space/fluid time" (p. 339). The members that fell into the first category felt compelled to stay on schedule and work within typical, standard working hours (i.e., '9-to-5'). Although these members were determined to conform to more rigid clock-time schedules, it has been argued that such attempts will be unsuccessful due to asynchronous communication (Berry, 2006; Lee & Liebenau, 2002a). This is what Ballard and Gossett (2007) refer to the flexibility-separation dialectic where flexibility is allotted although members are unable to ever truly escape their work. This is the essence of temporal expansion.

Temporal expansion is also indicative of the shift from clock-time orientation to task orientation. Clock-time orientation, initially described by Thompson (1967), began with the introduction of factory work where clocking in and out of work structured one's day as well as communication with their respective employer. However, task orientation entailed working with the natural rhythms of the farm where work was done according to

the task—not a specific hour or second (Thompson, 1967). With the proliferation of ACIT use, it is evident that we are returning to task orientation (Rubin, 2007). The focus now turns to task completion rather than the clock fulfillment. Consequently, this orientation leads to working longer hours and communicating with colleagues outside working hours (Orlikowski, 2007; Rubin, 2007). Thus, task orientation and temporal extension draw out patterns that were typically confined to the previous temporal “9-to-5” barrier. The following section reviews empirical studies that demonstrate the potential these dominant cultural patterns pose by highlighting specific temporal dimensions.

Summary

This first section in Chapter 2 discusses two theoretical perspectives—Orlikowski’s sociomaterial practices and Ballard and Seibold’s (2003) dominant cultural patterns. Each perspective is used to understand the placement of technology and time in this study. What followed from this explanation was an introduction of three temporally driven dominant cultural patterns relevant in a review of the literature: *levels of synchronicity*, *temporal compression*, and *temporal expansion*. These three factors frame the broader national influences (i.e., dominant cultural patterns) on the contemporary workplace. The second half of this chapter will narrow the discussion by drawing on seven temporal dimensions that are often highlighted in contemporary technology-related literature.

Specific Temporal Dimensions Apparent in Mediated Communication Research

With a review of the three temporally driven dominant cultural patterns, this study now turns attention to previous research on ACITs that helps to identify the types of temporal experiences organizational members potentially encounter. Based on Ballard and Seibold's (2003) work on organizational temporality, this project draws on seven dimensions as being particularly relevant. The first set of dimensions includes the way members perform time (i.e., temporal enactments) and the second set involves dimensions that reflect how members interpret time (i.e., temporal construals) (Ballard & Seibold, 2003). More specifically, this review of literature highlights the temporal dimensions: *punctuality, separation, pace, flexibility, linearity, urgency, and present time perspective.*

Punctuality

Arguments surrounding the relevance of punctuality in today's network society have recently surfaced (Lee & Liebenau, 2002b; Hall, 2009; Wax, 2008; Katz, 2006). For example, with the use of mobile devices there are some that point to the improvisational aspect of phoning or using SMS with a last minute message of delay as way to mitigate one's tardiness (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005; Prasopoulou, et al., 2005). In an article in *Readers Digest* it was claimed "cell phones let us turn being late into being on time" (p. 12). This train of thought implies that punctual conduct is becoming irrelevant in the contemporary workplace. However, as argued above and elsewhere, *timing* and *efficiency* are persistent forces in the workplace, which means that punctual behavior will never "go

out of style” (Hall, 2009). Orlikowski’s (2007) study echoes this importance as members who used mobile devices often developed feelings of a strong obligation to check email and respond—which, can also be seen as a need to be punctual in work matters.

In practice, organizational members that use ACITs make choices that reveal one’s timing. Ballard and Seibold (2004) define punctuality as the “timeliness regarding work-related tasks or responsibilities” and also describe punctuality as it “centers around measures of precise timing—at the macro level, getting the job done on time, or at the micro level, arriving at the appropriate place on time” (p. 158). Viewing punctuality as having both macro and micro properties is another way of characterizing it as having both clock time (i.e. precision) and event time (i.e. imprecise) qualities (Bluedorn, 2002; Bruneau, 1974; Shaw, 1994). Clock time is most often associated with precision (Clark, 1985) and, subsequently, with what it means to be punctual. For example, the precision in clock time reveals time as specific such as a 10:00am required for work arrival. The need for *precise* time developed an adherence to the clock, which then encouraged the documentation of time (Thompson, 1967). This means that punctuality soon became a way to document presence, commitment, and actual work.

During the days of industrial capitalism, the documentation of punctuality was represented by time sheets or time clocks that punched members in and out of work. However, today with mediated communication, physical presence is not always a requirement. Therefore, the need for documentation of punctual work will often fall upon the use of various ACITs, which are capable of providing a clear and often reliable means for documentation (Stephens, Sornes, Rice, Browning, & Saetre, 2008). As a result, the

electronic time stamp that often automatically accompanies an email or other electronic messages has replaced time sheets as a modern day measure and form of documentation for punctuality.

Accordingly, time stamps are used as cues that come to represent matters beyond the work at hand because punctuality can be used as a symbolic (Ballard, 2009) nonverbal cue and an intentional tactic for self-presentation (Goffman, 1959; Döring & Poschl, 2009). Previous studies have demonstrated how users refer to the time an email was sent (i.e. time stamp) to help determine when they might receive a reply (Rice, 1990). Time stamps also provide proof for demonstrating if someone has met a deadline (e.g. an email was sent by the predetermined time) and, in turn, aid the recipient in determining whether punctual behavior was performed.

In addition to viewing punctuality as time preformed and monitored in a precise way, punctuality is also imprecise (Ballard & Seibold, 2006; Brueneau, 1974; Bluedorn, 2002). As a social construction, punctuality is often context dependent (Levine, West, Reis, 1980), which means that punctuality can be performed according to specific events or situations (Bluedorn, 2002; Bruneau, 1974) that serve as reference points (Ancona et al., 2001). These event-based times describe more of what occurs when communicating via ACITs. For example, a simple request via email that is retrieved via a mobile device will often lack specificity in what time the request is to be fulfilled (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2005). Such ambiguity, especially from a manager or supervisor, may encourage a punctual response, which connotes presence (e.g., I am here and working) and submissiveness (Döring & Poschl, 2009; Walther & Tidwell, 1995).

Research on response time and response latency (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2005; Kalman, Ravid, Raban, & Rafaeli, 2006a, 2006b; Döring & Poschl, 2009), sometimes referred to as chronemics, reveals the importance individuals place upon timeliness or the lack thereof. Kalman and colleagues (2006b) found that the majority of email responses fall under a category of ‘quick to average’. This finding supports the notion that, for the most part, organizational members want to be considered punctual in work-related matters and tasks. This becomes more evident when someone who is delayed in their response (i.e., response latency) will often apologize for one’s tardiness at the beginning of an email message (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2005). Many of the emails that Kalman et al. (2006b) evaluated that were considered late included apologies (e.g., “sorry it has taken me so long to write”), explanations (“I just got back from almost three weeks vacation yesterday and am back at work”), and even humor (e.g., “Only took me three weeks to respond. That’s pretty good for me. I think things started collapsing the day I got your original email”) all in an attempt to assuage a lack of punctuality (p. 13). These examples reveal how punctual expectations in the contemporary workplace still persist. With the use of ACITs, one’s reasons for delay become less believable or acceptable due to the assumption that everyone carries and monitors their mobile device in a habitual manner (Mazmanian, Yates, & Orlikowski, 2006; Stetler, 2011; Turkle, 2008; Light, 2009). Therefore, to avoid having to provide explanations and potentially diminish trust (Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998; Ramgolam, 2007) due to a delayed response, members continue to gravitate toward punctual behavior.

Separation

Temporal separation is defined as the “degree to which extraneous factors are eliminated (or allowed) in the completion of a work task” and this is “evidenced in members’ physical and psychological protection (or availability) of their time (and often) space (Ballard & Seibold, 2004, p. 157). Much of what the temporal enactment of separation involves within the context of mediated communication is the *lack* of temporal separation one has with their work. This is often what research on mobile communication refers to as *constant availability* or *perpetual contact* (Katz & Aakhus, 2002) that occurs when using mobile devices. When there are low levels of separation, high levels of connectivity persist and there are less restricted spatio-temporal norms (Ballard & Ramgolam, 2009). It is also argued that mobile devices such as the Smartphone have come to signify the contemporary version of the *open door* policy, which provides members with renewed permission to constantly connect with others (Ballard & Ramgolam, 2009).

The lack of temporal separation between work and life is well documented in much of the literature on virtual work (Chidambaram, & Zigurs, 2001; Tietze & Musson, 2002), telework (Baruch, 2000; Duzbury, Higgins, & Neufeld, 1998; Ellison, 1999), and mobile communication (Castells et al., 2007; Katz & Aakhus, 2002). While the emphasis on mobility connotes both time and space, it is the flexibility afforded by mobile technology that removes elements of space but not so much time: “for these technologies, time *is* space”(Caporael, & Xie, 2003, p. 228, emphasis added). This reasoning helps

explain findings surrounding low temporal separation in that high connectivity comes to replace close physical proximity. In a study of a small private equity firm, participants describe how their use of the BlackBerry mobile device was often referred to as a ‘CrackBerry’ due to the constant availability and use they encountered (Mazmanian et al., 2006; Orlikowski, 2007). The firm, which promoted a work/life balance, provided its members with mobile devices as a way to handle the flexible and autonomous aspects of their job. However, much of what was discovered in this study was how members were unable to *disengage with the device*. One participant from this study described this enactment by stating:

One of the things that I’ve noticed more and more is that people will BlackBerry me in the evening, you know, after 8:30 in the evening. I’m pretty much settled in and people know that it [BlackBerry] sits next to me, my cup of tea is there, my knitting is in my lap, something’s on television and I just take care of business. “Linda, do you think you can order this, this and this for me?” Fine. Sure. (Orlikowski, 2007, p. 1442)

Although “being networked” can be seen as an extension of the bureaucratic organization (Sabelis, 2007), many of the participants of this study claimed that their BlackBerry use was based on individual choice. Additionally, the low levels of separation might also explain some of the reports of stress and burnout encountered as a result of their BlackBerry use.

Communicating via ACITs provides members with the freedom to choose when and where to work; however, a lack of clear boundaries often encourages members to

work extended hours (Ballard & Gossett, 2007; Towers, Duxbury, Higgins, & Thomas, 2006). When users make the choice to purchase expensive mobile devices as a way to combat spending so much time at work (at an actual physical locale), what they seem to be doing is simply transferring their work locale to all of the places they go outside of work (e.g. home, children's baseball practice, the airport, etc.). This fuels expectations that accompany mobile technology use. For instance, Towers and colleagues (2006) conducted a study on work extending technologies (WET) that included various mobile technologies and found that such technologies lengthened the workday and created expectations that work beyond designated hours is easily justified when engaging these devices. In a follow-up interview of this study, one participant describes the expectations and lack of separation between work and life as:

There is too much expectation placed on people who have these facilities—you can do it. In other words you don't have a private life and things to do you can do this report over the weekend. Therefore, there is an expectation that comes with the priveledge of having these technologies. Since, you have it you are going to do it. We expect it. There is not much choice at that point to say, "No, I actually have better plans." There is a conflict of when I can say yes and when I can say no. You just can't shut the door when you want to. (p. 613)

This excerpt has come to represent much of what occurs from a temporal standpoint when rely heavily on ACITs while at work—a lack of clearly demarcated time between personal and work life.

Pace

Discussions surrounding the topic of pace often include the belief that in everyday life we are experiencing an increase in our rate of activity due to ACIT use (Eriksen, 2001; Green, 2002; Lee & Liebenau, 2002; Katz, 2006). Ballard and Seibold (2004) refer to pace as the “tempo or rate of activity” and also as the “speed of inputs within a defined span of time” (p. 141). A change in rate of activity (for some) occurred once ACITs were *stripped of its cables*, and an increase in movement symbolically followed (Light, 2009; Turkle, 2008). The result is a shift from the location-centered to a person-centered focus (Geser, 2006; Light, 2009). Newfound rates now reflect unique rhythms made up of short duration, which adds more room for conversations (Green, 2002).

Mobile phone use is often noted as being a driving force in increasing pace and thereby efficiency (Katz, 2006). The need for technologies to create and maintain particular tempo is reflected in how Arnold (2003) views the mobile phone as “productive capital equipment, as an important tool in achieving efficiency in a post-Fordist economy” (p. 249). Therefore, in many instances it is our entanglement with these technologies that often points to the perception that our actions or activities are going faster. Organizations and members alike purchase mobile technologies in order to keep up with the demands of performing as an optimal pace. Therefore, those that use mobile devices for work will often draw an association between an increase in pace and efficiency.

When using ACITs, Lee and Liebenau (2000) argue that our increased pace rests on two reasons: one, a reduction in the amount of time it takes to conduct tasks; and two,

a reduction in the delivery of messages. For example, before email existed the rate at which it took to send and receive a hand written message/memo was much slower. This drastically differs from the speed at which sending and receiving messages electronically. The amount of messages one can receive also plays a factor in shaping the perception of pace because members will often feel that they need to increase their pace in order to avoid information and/or communication overload (Brandel, 2008).

Email, in particular, adds to the speed of inputs individuals receive, especially during traditional working hours. For instance, despite the notion that emails can be sent at any hour, the volume of emails per hour found in a study conducted by Flaherty and Seipp-Williams (2005) was above average during the hours of 8:00 am to 6:00 pm. With this in mind, members must increase their pace in order to try and satisfy the rate at which these messages come. Using ACITs, such as mobile devices, is then seen as way to combat the overload and stay up with the surrounding pace. Schlosser (2002) took note of how this happens in a study in which a participant described how they managed the influx of email via mobile technology and, in turn, shaped his pace:

I recently went to Ottawa, and while I was not driving—I had someone driving with me—I spent the greater part of the afternoon responding to emails. When I arrived to Ottawa I entered my hotel room where I had also received my emails and by 5:30 or 6:00 I was done with my email. I had done that all while 400 miles away. I also receive email like that on the weekend. I don't think I could have coped with the added responsibility that I had during the 6 months I was acting GM (p. 413).

The experience demonstrated by this participant highlights how the perception of an increased workload may encourage the need to increase one's pace (Stephens et al., 2012). This notion of a wider window for which there is time to communicate, coupled with the idea of several short and fragmented communication messages, equates to an increased rate of activity (i.e. faster pace). Along these lines, an increase in pace seems to be an inevitable factor unless members are able to draw distinct temporal lines between work and personal life. However, the compulsion to check these devices can prove to be too great (Orlikowski, 2007).

Flexibility

Temporal flexibility is defined as “the degree of rigidity in time structuring or task completion plans” and it “may be a function of the task, group norms, or organizational policies” (Ballard & Seibold, 2004, p. 157). When it comes to ACIT use, much of the emphasis on temporal flexibility is due to the way time structuring—or the lack thereof, begins to shape groups norms and organizational policies surrounding when and how it is used. Those that use ACITs as primary means for communicating have come to use the devices without temporal boundaries or conditions. This means that members are not strictly confined to communicate during the typical ‘9-to-5’ hours as most were some twenty-five years ago. Thus, the ability to email colleagues at all hours of the day (Schlosser, 2002) constitutes flexible temporal structuring.

The flexibility built into mobile devices also encourages temporal flexibility. The numerous choices offered by ACITs, provides users with the flexibility to send messages in various ways such as by voicemail, SMS, and email. Members will make their choice

of which option to use based on the time of day or which option would be less invasive (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005; Schlosser, 2002; Prasopoulou, et al., 2006). One participant in a study conducted by Prasopoulou et al. (2006) describes such temporal and practical flexibility by stating:

Sometimes, when I finish work very late and I need something to be done by some team member in the morning, I send an SMS. It is not so intruding and it is considered OK. The advantage is that you get the work done with minimum disturbance. (p. 281)

Moreover, these options encourage users to utilize the device in an improvisational manner (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005; Arnold, 2003). For instance, the notion that a quick SMS or email at a random moment can, and often does, set up a last minute business lunch or an impromptu meeting. Jarvenpaa and Lang (2005) identify this aspect as the planning/improvisational paradox of mobile communication. They argue:

People tend to spend less time and effort working out schedules and, instead, rely more on the technology that allows them to make up for a lack of preparation with continuous improvisation. Some users welcomed this new flexibility that makes “life more unplanned because you can plan on the spot,” and found it liberating that “you don’t have to make arrangements in advance anymore if you don’t like.” To some extent, technology substitutes for planning rather than augmenting. (p. 15)

This improvisational factor is a reflection of the lack of scheduling that is associated with mobile communication. However, when the organization has supplied its members with

mobile devices, there is often an underlying expectation that its an obligation to use it to its fullest potential—which often means taking advantage of both its temporal and practical flexibility (Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011).

ACIT use in organizations has also stretched to shape working policies. For instance, one organization that enlisted a new practice referred to as ROWE (Results Only Work Environment) founded it in order to create a more flexible environment for its members (Conlin, 2006, p. 66). For this organization, this policy would also help members balance their personal work duties as well the realities of their own personal lives. Management constructed official “ROWE Commandments” that dictated tenets such as “No. 7: Nobody talks about how many hours they work,” and “No. 9: It’s O.K. to take a nap on a Tuesday afternoon, grocery shop on Wednesday morning, or catch a movie on Thursday afternoon” (Conlin, 2006, p. 66). Members were able to focus on what they needed to do in order to arrive at the results needed. This examples works to demonstrate how flexible work policies also penetrate organizational policies.

Linearity

Previously, there have been two primary ways argued to describe how individuals use time. One is referred to as monochronic time use and a second to polychronic time use (Hall, 1984). The former reflects the preference to carry out one task at a time, whereas the latter, polychronicity, reflects the *preference* for carrying out of several tasks or activities at one time (Bluedorn, 2002). Polychronicity also includes the behavior of ‘going-back-and-worth” between various tasks (Bluedorn, 2002). However, rather than focus on preference (i.e., polychronicity), the focus in this study is on “actual task

execution” or “ the number of activities or tasks” members carry out in “successive time frames”(p. 387). Ballard and Seibold (2003) refer to this as linearity.

ACIT use is most often associated with nonlinear execution (Lee, 1999; Lee & Liebenau, 2002; Bell, Compeau, & Olivera, 2005). The enactment of doing more than one thing at a time, or conducting tasks in a nonlinear fashion, can also include the desire for time to go by quickly. To further illustrate, one participant in a study conducted by Cotte & Ratneshwar (1999) documents how a computer-support worker who values nonlinear task execution explains:

Yeah, if I'm just working on someone's computer and that's the only thing going on I feel like I'm just waiting for something to be installed I can think of someone else's computer. Like today while I was doing one I was thinking okay what can I do on the other one. So I can run between floors and work on one while the other is installing and that's how I prefer it.

The day flies by (p. 193).

Many functions when working with ACITs allow for a more deliberate jumping back and forth, which helps members feel they are operating efficiently and in a fast manner. Fortunati (2002) further argues that the nonlinear task execution in mobile technology use when commenting that, “Doing more than one thing at the same time allows you to live a double or triple life, even if this obviously raises your level of stress. The mind gets used to spreading attention in various directions” (p. 517).

Although, often analogous with that of multitasking, nonlinear task execution is indicative of how members engage the device in a temporal sense (Lee & Liebenau,

2002). Events and tasks will come in irregular, random, and unpredictable ways and those that multitask via mobile devices will most likely be highly nonlinear task executors (Bell et al., 2005).

The asynchronous aspect of mobile technology is one reason why nonlinear task execution is on the rise when using ICTs including mobile technology (Lee & Liebenau, 2002, 2000; Kakihara & Sorenson, 2001). For instance, an organizational member can be checking email when they notice that they received a SMS (i.e., electronic multitasking). They then attend to the SMS with a response and then go back to reading email—all while attending a meeting (i.e., multitasking). This back-and-forth motion disrupts the temporal order as the speed of mobile devices also encourages nonlinear task execution (Kakihara & Sorenson, 2001).

Despite the emphasis on nonlinear task execution, it is important to note that although polychronicity is a preference in how individuals choose to carry out their tasks (Bluedorn, 2002), polychronic behavior can be developed based on the use of mobile technologies over time. For instance, in a study of the temporal effects of ICTs, Lee and Liebenau (2000) found that using email and other asynchronous ICTS enabled members of a Korean trading company to adapt to more polychronic ways. The expectations surrounding mobile technology use in organizations may also provide insights as to how polychronic behavior develops (Stephens & Davis, 2009). Those that prefer to work in a polychronic manner and those that may over time develop polychronic ways may be seen as more competent and able to handle multiple issues that arise (Cotte & Ratneshwar,

1999). With this in mind, organizational members have the potential to carry out multiple tasks simultaneously regardless of having a preference to do so or not.

Urgency and Present Time Perspective

Temporal urgency is a “preoccupation with deadlines and task completion” (Ballard & Seibold, 2004, p. 157). Urgency is an element that is often referred to when discussing mobile technology use in organizations but rather than a concern with deadlines, members urgency is driven by task completion. Ballard and Seibold (2004) clarify the difference between the often-confused meanings of urgency and scarcity in that they argue, “members’ views of urgency are focused on the task, whereas scarcity is focused on the temporal resources available to complete it” (p. 157).

In a study by Walther and Tidwell (1995), the authors found that the time a message was received helped determine whether the message was responded to in a quick manner. For instance, despite the fact that the messages in this study contained the same content, messages sent at night were viewed as more pressing and were responded to more promptly than those sent during the day. This finding helps reveal the importance paid to the time stamp and how it potentially shapes urgent behavior.

Although members receive various forms of task-related work ranging from downloadable documents to video conferencing (Lee & Liebenau, 2002), it is often the short email and SMS messages that carries vague temporal instructions (e.g. a specific deadline) and therefore, will create a sense of urgency to complete a request as soon as possible (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005). This harried feeling for task completion will often influence members to experience time in here-and-now (i.e. present time perspective).

Present time perspective can be “reflected in members’ focus on emergent, short-range issues” (Ballard & Seibold, 2004, p. 159). Again, mobile communication reflects more event-based times, which will often influence “knee jerk reactions” to messages received. With this in mind, it’s plausible that urgency and present time perspective are dimensions that are often experienced concurrently when using mobile technologies. Previous research has linked the two empirically (Ballard & Seibold, 2004).

Prasopoulou and colleagues (2006) claim that mobile communication nurtures a constant sense urgency and the preference to handle mobile communication in the present. In the aforementioned study conducted by Stephens and Davis (2009), this increased sense of urgency was evident in another example given by a participant. For instance, in the following quote a participant describes what happened when they forgot their BlackBerry and as a result their manager could not find them on one particular day:

I was in a meeting the entire day until 3:00 and he [my boss] had been emailing me saying, ‘Let’s talk about this. Lets talk about this.’ Well he knows that I always respond, and I didn’t. He ended up having his administrative person call me, ‘Where are you? What’s going on?’ (p. 16)

Another example of this was found in Prasopoulou et al. (2006) study when a participant describes:

Sometimes I can’t be bothered to answer my friends’ calls. In these cases I let the phone ring. When it comes to business calls I always reply. No matter what time it is, I will definitely take the call. There is no way to escape from it. Even if I don’t answer it immediately, I will be forced to

reply to the caller later on; so I prefer to deal with the issue on the spot (p. 281).

The urgency and focus on the “here-and-now” depicted in each example reveals how this participant most likely came to interpret time, in general, when working for this organization, under these types of managers, and while communicating and relying heavily on ACITs. The constant nudge to respond coupled with the expectation of *always available* and *always on* links these two dimensions.

Summary

In the second half section in Chapter 2 seven temporal dimensions were showcased to demonstrate the specific dimensions potentially being shaped by the three dominant cultural patterns. These dimensions—*punctuality, separation, pace, flexibility, linearity, urgency, and present time perspective*—reflect the time experiences that technology-related literature often suggest occur in the contemporary workplace but do not fully directly evaluate. The purpose of this review of dimensions to help guide the study in exploring more direct relationships between each dimension and specific technology-related communication practices (these are discussed in Chapter 3).

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the two theoretical underpinnings of this study were discussed—social material practices, in general, and organizational temporality, in particular. Ballard and Seibold’s (2003) meso model of organizational temporality identifies dominant cultural patterns as a macro-level influence on organizational members’ experience of time. This study extends this area in the model by identifying three temporally driven

factors (i.e., varying levels of synchronicity, compression, and expansion). These three factors help guide the study in addressing more specifically the temporal dimensions potentially being influenced in organizational work settings. The following chapter (Chapter 3) further narrows the discussion by identifying three contemporary technology-related communication practices: *multicommunicating*, *virtual work practices*, and *primary work location*. These three communication practices can be seen as the micro practices found in organizational work that reflect, more specifically, the contemporary dominant cultural patterns established above. The primary goal of this study is to provide research with a clearer understanding of the specific technology-related communication practices that might be influencing the experience of time for organizational members. In the following chapter research questions are presented that link the seven temporal dimensions to the characteristics that best describe the three contemporary technology-related communication practices. Additionally, the following chapter introduces the impression management tactic of exemplification as a potential outcome to time experience in technology-driven work environments. Research questions reflecting exemplification, communication practices, and the seven temporal dimensions are also offered.

Chapter 3:

Communication Practices in the Contemporary Workplace

CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The first section in this chapter identifies communication-related practices including *multicommunication* and *virtual work practices*. It also considers and treats separately from virtual work practices, the communication practices associated with an organizational member's physical and *primary work location*. Below, each practice is explained and discussed in terms of potentially related temporal dimensions. Research questions are also presented. Taken together, the following practices reflect the dominant cultural patterns by having varying levels of synchronicity, temporal compression, and/or temporal expansion. The second half of this chapter discusses the impression management tactic of exemplification. This tactic is argued to have temporally-based factors that are questioned to share a relationship with both time experience and the three communication practices (i.e., multicommunicating, virtual work practices, and primary work location).

Virtual Work Practices

Virtual work has previously been defined as a specific work arrangement where particular organizational members (e.g., virtual team members) perform their work tasks across time and space via the use of technology, thus allowing members the ability to work from any where and at any time (Lee & Liebenau, 2002). However, what is often neglected in extant literature is the notion that the aforementioned working capability (i.e.

virtual work) is not only afforded to “virtual” workers but to “standard” workers as well. Consequently, the standard work arrangement cannot only be described as work performed in a “fixed physical and or temporal space” (Ballard & Gossett, 2007, p. 274) but can, in addition, be performed across time and space via the use of technology. For example, a “standard” organizational member can leave their physically shared work office, go home, eat dinner, only to then log onto their company’s operating system on their own computer to continue to work. Further, this same member will resume working, virtually, first thing in the morning before leaving for their morning work commute.

In order to address this gap in our understanding of such organizational communication behaviors, the relevance of virtual work practices is described. Virtual work practices are defined as *communication and work practices utilized by varying membership types, via different technology, across locational and temporal boundaries in order to accomplish a given work task*. This term captures the *fluidity* of work and/or communication across elements of time and space regardless of organizational members’ primary physical work location and/or work arrangement. Virtual work practices reflect the *discontinuities* or the *lack of coherence* in present-day work practices (Watson-Manheim et al., 2002) by including how a member, who works in a collocated setting, collaborates with a team in a different time zone as one example. This member may also connect to work outside their primary work location by using their cell phone and/or laptop. These practices exist (and persist) despite whether they hold a primarily collocated or alternative work arrangement with their organization.

Virtual work practices are differentiated from ‘home working’ in that there is a level of continuous interaction captured by using both advanced communication and information technologies (ACITs) as well as the more traditional modes of technology such as the telephone. Previously, when an organizational member worked from home, it meant taking paperwork home and working until a certain point where members required feedback or exchange. Now, with instant messaging and email, the same simultaneous interaction experienced in a face-to-face setting can be achieved on-line, despite a shared physical setting (Steward, 2000). It also differs from telework, defined as a “work arrangement in which employees perform their regular work at a site other than the ordinary workplace, supported by technological connections” (Fitzer, 1997). What differentiates virtual work practices from telework is the lack of emphasis on *arrangement*—meaning virtual work practices does not assume a *type* of worker—rather, it is a communication and work practice used by any one organizational member to get any one given work task done.

The communication patterns often associated with virtual work practices broadly include many of the characteristics associated with varying levels of synchronicity and temporal expansion. Because virtual work practices afford members with the ability to communicate across spatial and temporal boundaries, associations can be made between its practice and the temporal dimensions punctuality, separation, and flexibility. In a study conducted by Inman-Ramgolam (2007), a strong significant relationship was found between respondents who reported high degrees of virtuality and punctuality. This finding speaks to the notion of temporal expansion in that despite the fluidity of this

practice, members may find timeliness to be important regardless of personal time and/or space elements.

Temporal separation is an additional temporal dimension evident in virtual work practices. For instance, if an organizational member were always “on-call” they would have low temporal separation with their work. A low degree of temporal separation is evident in mobile communication research where perpetual contact—always on/always available becomes the norm thereby demonstrating a lack of separation between personal time and work time (Fortunati, 2002; Katz & Aakhus, 2004; Lee & Whitley, 2002). As enabling technologies, mobile devices are key in the practice of virtual work practices as laptop computers and Smartphones provide the ability to connect with others despite time and location (Ballard & Ramgolam, 2009; Orlikowski, 2007).

Last, the practices associated with virtual work practices also demonstrate temporal flexibility. The flexibility to communicate and work across temporal and locational boundaries indicates that members who utilize this practice may feel some liberty of when and how they choose to do so (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005). Despite the need to demonstrate punctuality (Inman-Ramgolam, 2007), virtual work practices may, at the same time, share a dichotomous relationship with flexibility because of the asynchronous aspect available via the use of enabling technologies (Hassan, 2003). However, a more direct relationship between this practice and these dimensions is needed. Therefore the following question asks:

RQ1a: Is there a relationship between virtual work practices and the temporal dimensions: flexibility, separation, and punctuality?

Summary

The first section in this chapter introduces the concept of virtual work practices. This practice demonstrates how working across time and space is a capability offered to organizational members despite any formal work arrangement with their respective organization. As such, this practice may influence the experience of time in particular ways for those that utilize it. The following section discusses the growing practice of multicommunicating. Similar to that of virtual work practices and also due to its temporal focus on pace and efficiency, the communicative practice of multicommunicating may also influence the experience of time for organizational members.

Multicommunicating

Multicommunicating is defined as “engaging in two or more overlapping, synchronous conversations,” (Reinsch, Turner, & Tinsley, 2008, p. 391). As facilitated by technologies, multicommunication is seen as an emerging practice that varies in intensity (e.g., number of open conversations), pace (e.g., flexibility of tempo), organizational norms (e.g., social roles), and number of topics. The authors distinguish multicommunicating from other behaviors (e.g., multi-tasking) by emphasizing interaction, as participants must monitor and adapt their communication according to shared conversations (Turner & Reinsch, 2007).

When enacted on a daily basis, multicomcommunication forms a temporal structure referred to as “connected time” (Reinsch, et al., 2008). The authors describe, “connected time” as having objective and subjective dimensions. The following excerpt describes each:

Objective dimensions include the physical act of getting connected (logging into the chat messaging system) in the morning and disconnecting at the end of the individual’s workday, along with a sharp awareness of whether or not one was, at any given moment, connected. Subjective dimensions include the meaning assigned to connection (“like breathing”) and the appropriateness—indeed, the expectedness—of multicomcommunicating in connected time, since this behavior was interpreted as being alive (i.e., available for information exchange) p. 398.

This description of “connected time” reveals how the practice of multicomcommunicating becomes a mechanism of validating and measuring efficiency. Although organizational norms and access to key technologies (e.g. instant messaging, email, telephone, etc.) often determine the development of such temporal structures, once created, its practice is seen as a way to get more tasks done quickly (Turner, et al., 2006; Turner & Reinsch, 2009).

The practice of multicomcommunicating also demonstrates work patterns that speak to several temporal dimensions such as nonlinearity, present time perspective, pace, urgency, and flexibility. For example, as members find value in multicomcommunication as a time saving method, behaviors resemble the enactment of engaging in more than one

activity at a time thereby increasing one's perception of pace (Lee, 1999; Reinsch, et al., 2008; Turner et al., 2006). In their study of multicomunication, the researchers note how one participant juggled thirteen chat conversations on their computer screen (Turner & Reinsch, 2007). This particular participant found personal success in doing so because they viewed the practice as an opportunity to accomplish several things in a short amount of time. This practice is the essence of temporal compression (Sabelis, 2002). This was also reflected in additional studies by these same authors where participants often described times when they were pleased with the ability and opportunity to IM, send and receive email all while participating on a conference call (Turner & Reinsch, 2009; Turner et al., 2006).

Flexibility of tempo is also an element found in the practice of multicomunication and "describes the extent to which a participant may delay a response (allow a gap of silence) without giving offense or disrupting the interaction" (Turner & Reinsch, 2009, p. 279). This characteristic also demonstrates a dichotomy where flexibility is acceptable but the pace of interaction still favors high intensity. However, Reinsch et al. (2008) still find that a faster pace rather than a slower pace is preferred among its heavy multicomunicators. These two time driven elements of multicomunication, *flexibility of tempo* and *pace*, suggest that there may be a relationship between its use and the temporal dimensions of temporal flexibility and pace.

A focus on the present is also evident in the use of multicomunication. In a study that focused on exploring the dominant media of a particular organization, Turner et al. (2006) found that respondents practiced multicomunicating in response to their

hectic work environment where they referenced a “need for availability” and the “need to respond” as quickly as possible to any incoming questions or work requests. The practice of multicommuting was also found to impact performance ratings. These findings suggest that a focus on the present and having a sense of urgency is not only a way to be efficient but to also portray a sense of presence and work productivity (Turner & Reinsch, 2007). Therefore, based on these suggested relationships, but lack of direct empirical evidence, the following research question asks:

RQ1b: Is there a relationship between the practice of multicommuting and the temporal dimensions: present time perspective, linearity, pace, urgency, and flexibility?

Summary

The second section in this chapter reviews the concept of multicommuting. This review highlights the temporal characteristics associated with the practice of multicommuting. Based on this review, multicommuting is questioned to have relationships with key temporal dimensions (i.e., *present time perspective, linearity, pace, urgency, and flexibility*). The following section discusses the unique dynamics present when primarily working from different work locations. As such, due to elements of time and space, organizational members’ primary work location may also influence temporal experience in particular ways.

Primary Work Location

An organizational member's designated work arrangement or what is referred to here as an organizational member's primary work location (e.g., collocated, satellite, client location, or the home) reflects how fixed elements of time and space potentially shape temporal experience. The underlying dynamics of working from any one particular place also reflects many of the temporal factors relevant in the contemporary workplace. Ballard and Gossett (2007) identify time as a unifying theme in alternative work arrangements because "temporal norms and assumptions" surrounding arrangements such as teleworking from home, "shape the very process of communicating and organizing" (p. 274). Therefore, the temporal norms surrounding patterns and work/life boundaries inherent to the location of any work arrangement has the potential to shape members' experience of time in different ways (Lee & Liebenau, 2002; Lee & Liebenau, 1999; Ramgolam, 2007; Tietze & Musson, 2002). As alternative work arrangements become more prevalent (Kallenberg, 2003), considering and noting the differences among varying work arrangements will help us avoid the assumptions of standard/collocated settings, which are often built into communication theories (Ballard & Gossett, 2007).

The physical location where an organizational member works reveals several different temporal dynamics (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2006; Tietze & Musson, 2002). For instance, if a member works primarily from their main company office, patterns typically are structured around a "9-to-5pm" workday. The prevalence of collocated work is also obvious at rush hours, which commonly exist around "8:00am" and "5:30pm." The

temporal structure surrounding collocated work has come to influence others that work from different locations. Tietze & Musson (2002), for example, found many of the professional management employees they surveyed who worked from home, aimed at working between the hours of “9-to-5.” These members went so far as to get dressed in “work” clothes and arrive at their home “office” “on time” (Tietze & Musson, 2002). Such attempts were later found to be unsuccessful due to flexible nature of at home working, which suggests that one’s primary physical work location may indeed shape the use of communication practices and behavior (Dubrin, 2011).

Communication patterns revealing varying levels of synchronicity, temporal compression, and temporal expansion may vary in intensity based on one’s primary work location. Those that work away from the main office rely heavily on communicating via ACITs with coworkers/clients, which results in more asynchronous patterns (Berry, 2006). This provides these members with more temporal flexibility in how and when they respond to messages. However, in a study of a virtual customer response team, Shockley-Zalabak (2002) found that members located in a different country were awakened in the middle of the night in order to address the needs of their clients. Participants in this study reported that technical connectivity in “real” time made it possible for members to work hours they normally would not work not work if it were not for the use of ACITs. This example helps to demonstrate the pervasiveness of varying levels of synchronicity and how different work locations may shape one’s temporal experience.

The flexibility-separation dialectic is another temporal element that is argued to be relevant when members work from alternative spaces such as the home (Ballard &

Gossett, 2007). For instance, Tietze & Musson's (2002) study also reported how working from home included the flexibility of working on the weekend but also how the boundaries between professional and personal times began to dissipate due to this change. These authors found that members were unsuccessful in separating the activities of both work and life, as chores and work tasks became enmeshed in their daily schedules. This finding demonstrates the factor of temporal expansion and how it may potentially shape temporal flexibility and separation.

Present time perspective, urgency, punctuality, nonlinearity, and pace may also vary according to one's primary work location. Working in collocated settings often involves attending meetings, which are spaces known for electronic multitasking (Stephens & Davis, 2009), or the act of doing tasks in a nonlinear fashion. The need or strong sense of obligation to respond to messages often reported in the literature may indicate that collocated members encounter this more because they know they will encounter each other face-to-face. Therefore, members that work at the main office may differ in their experience of punctuality, urgency and present time perspective than do members that work from a satellite location. Moreover, a faster work pace may differ according to primary work location due to direct monitoring, although there has been evidence of electronic monitoring in virtual settings as well (D'Urso, 2006). Considering the pervasiveness of temporal factors and potential of a variety of communication patterns, this research seeks clarity in understanding the temporal dynamics posed by working from varying locations. Therefore, the following research question is proposed:

RQ1c: Do organizational members that work from (a) company satellite office (b) client's office or (c) home office report the experience of time different than those that work from the main office?

Summary

The third section in this chapter reviews the concept of primary work location and the issues present when working from a different location than other organizational members. The focus here is to question if members that work from home, a satellite office, or a client's office differ from those working from the main office in terms of temporal experience. The following section discusses the impression management tactic of exemplification. This tactic is argued to have temporally driven factors that may be related to the three aforementioned communication practices and seven temporal dimensions.

The Impression Management Tactic: Exemplification

As has been noted throughout this discussion, synchronicity, compression, and expansion underscore the temporal factors found in contemporary communication patterns. The primary goal here has been to identify the patterns associated with specific ACIT practices that may be shaping members' temporal experience. Descriptions found in the literature review (Chapter Two) document organizational members' preoccupation with responding quickly to messages, and also describes the inability to clearly separate from work-related communication. As well, temporal enactments such as punctuality

suggest that maintaining an image of reliability, trust, and commitment (Bluedorn, 2002) remain important when communicating via ACITs (Ramgolam, 2007). However, little research has evaluated the relationships between specific ACIT practices, temporal experience, and impression management strategies (Walther, 2006). The nature of these relationships may provide insight into the reasons behind specific behaviors such as the need to respond to electronic messages.

Finding ways to communicate trustworthiness, commitment, and dedication to one's job, while communicating via ACITs is a persistent issue organizational members face (Barness, Diekmann, & Seidel, 2005; Dubrin, 2001). As a result, members must constantly reinvent both verbal and nonverbal ways that demonstrate one's dedication to their work and responsibilities (Marakas & Robey, 1996). Thus, as a form of self-presentation (Goffman, 1959), displays of dedication and commitment are important to consider when examining technology use because an individual's opportunity and/or ability to do so helps them to feel better about themselves and their work contributions (Kersten & Phillips, 1992; Sproull & Kiesler, 1986).

One-way members display dedication and trustworthiness is by actively managing their work persona through the use of particular impression management strategies. Impression management is the "process whereby people seek to influence the image others have of them" (Bolino & Turnley, 1999, p. 187). Managing such perceptions among peers, supervisors, and clients is crucial because members are often motivated by professional goal achievement and value outcomes—something that is of concern especially in challenging economic times (Leary & Kowalski, 1990, Pandey, 1986).

Previous studies have found that impression management tactics influence the hiring of job candidates (Ellis, West, Ryan, & DeShon, 2002), ratings for employee organizational citizenship (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnely, 2006) and how supervisors evaluate employees (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Wayne & Farris, 1990). In relation to mediated communication, other research has found that the duration and frequency of messages influences impression development (Lui, Ginther, & Zelhart, 2002) and that a variety of strategies including a focus on the time a message is composed are often used to manage impressions (Walther, 2006). Therefore, impression management behaviors are a prevalent and important factor in executing organizational work across all media.

As a process, impression management is comprised of a variety of tactics. Jones and Pittman (1982) identify five tactics, including *exemplification*, which describes an individual's attempt to specifically craft images of dedication, trustworthiness, and going above and beyond the call of duty. Exemplification is a seen a direct and deliberate behavioral tactic, which attempts to make clear, claims about the self—either verbal or nonverbal (Kersten & Phillips, 1992). As a tactic, exemplification is also the only strategy that has time driven elements. For instance, behaviors such as arriving early, working late, and/or on the weekends all qualify as displays of exemplifying behavior. With this mind, and with the additional ways members connect to work via ACITs 24/7, this behavior may also come to share a relationship with temporal experience. Temporal enactments such as punctuality, low temporal separation, increase in work pace, multitasking skills (nonlinearity), and having a great sense of urgency all connote

additional exemplifying techniques. Exploring this relationship might help to extend our understanding of this tactic. Therefore, this project seeks to ask the following question:

RQ2: What is the relationship between the impression management tactic, exemplification, and temporal experience?

Next, the capabilities surrounding communication practices such as multicomputing and virtual work practices also provide opportunities for members to further demonstrate exemplifying behaviors. These practices are often driven by the perception of greater efficiency, which can also lead to high performance evaluations (Turner & Reinsch, 2007; Turner et al., 2006). Concern about these perceptions may lead members to feel inclined to carry on as many conversations at once and/or respond to emails, for example, all in an attempt to display trust and going above the call of duty. Kersten and Phillips' (1992) study provides initial evidence that there is a relationship between email use and the exemplification tactic. They observed how an individual sent out four late night and early morning emails in order to craft an image of dedication. At the time, this was viewed as uncommon behavior. However, with the addition of newer forms of connection (e.g., SMS, IM, video conferencing, etc.) as well as the potential requirement to accommodate others in different time zones or at different work sites (VWPs), members now have multiple media, needs, and reasons to display exemplifying behaviors. Nevertheless, with little research on these potential relationships this project asks the following two questions:

RQ3a: What is the relationship between exemplifying behaviors and multicommuting?

RQ3b: What is the relationship between exemplifying behaviors and virtual work practices?

Related to the issue of exemplification, the physical distance or closeness in organizational work shapes powerful nonverbal cues for its members (Döring & Pöschl, 2009). Burgoon and colleagues (2002) argue, “Physical closeness fosters psychological closeness and mutuality—a sense of connection, similarity, solidarity, openness, and understanding. Physical distance creates detachment, perceived dissimilarity and lack of receptivity to others’ communication and viewpoints” (p. 662). This issue has been reflected in research that has found that when working from a different physical location than one’s coworkers and supervisors, members encounter conflict (Hinds, & Bailey, 2003) and professional isolation or exclusion (Golden, Veiga, & Dino, 2008; Morgenson et al., 2010), which impacts job performance, fewer promotions (Hylmö & Buzzanell, 2002), and varying levels of work-life balance support (Morgenson et al., 2010). Trust has also been a predominant theme in the telework literature because management and members often feel challenged by the “out of sight, out of mind” dilemma, which exemplifies perceptions of managements’ inability to manage what it cannot see (Handy, 1995; Harrington & Ruppel, 1999; Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Shockley-Zalabak, 2002). These findings and viewpoints suggest a greater need for members to develop and display

impression management strategies (Dubrin, 2011). For instance, Barness and colleagues (2005) found that the more time members spent working remotely, the more they engaged in supervisor-focused impression management. This finding provides initial support for the relationship between impression management and remote work locations; however, its focus on the supervisor-subordinate relationship limits the scope of impression management behaviors (i.e., supervisor) and does not capture the frequency of such behaviors (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008). Additionally, since the practice of working from different locations than one's coworkers is becoming more commonplace (Kallenberg, 2003) perhaps these norms and relationships no longer exist. This relationship is unclear; therefore, the last and final research question proposed is:

RQ3c: Do members working from work, the satellite office, or a client's location differ from members working from the main office in terms of displaying exemplifying tactics?

Summary

The last section in this chapter discusses the impression management tactic: exemplification. This tactic is argued to have temporally driven elements that are questioned to be influenced by the contemporary communication practices associated with multicommuting, virtual work practices, and an organizational members' primary work location. Additionally, this tactic is also questioned to be influenced by the seven temporal dimensions.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 began by introducing three technology-related communication practices: multicommuting, virtual work practices, and primary work location. Each communication practice was chosen due to the increased use of each practice in the workplace and also due to the underlying temporal factors (varying levels of synchronicity, temporal compression, and temporal expansion) apparent in each. These communication practices are then questioned to have a relationship with specific temporal dimensions. The latter part of the chapter discusses the impression management tactic of exemplification. Due to the temporally driven elements surrounding this tactic, it was also questioned to have a relationship with the three communication practices and the seven temporal dimensions. The following chapter (Chapter 4) discusses the method and measures used to test the three research questions.

Chapter 4: Method

Procedure

The complete survey was first pretested over a two month period using a snowball sampling method beginning with the researcher's acquaintances including individuals that work for a variety of organizations and graduate students ($N = 55$). This sample was then added to the main pool of respondents ($N = 350$) that was gathered through Qualtrics, an online survey/sampling company. The reason for using a sampling service over that of a specific organization was to gather a diverse of pool of organizational workers across a variety of work types and fields.

As an online sampling company, Qualtrics uses a panel provider that recruits respondents and manages the survey process. The panel provider draws a random sample from their panel that is then paid approximately \$4.00-\$6.00 for participating in the survey. They ensure quality control by screening for the duplication of IP addresses. An email with the link to the survey was sent out to a panel of participants. As was requested by the researcher, an initial filter question helped to further qualify participants and read as follows: Are you 18 years or older and currently employed with an organization where you use technology (e.g., email, instant messaging, mobile phones, etc.) to communicate with other work members and/or work clients? For those that entered 'no,' these individuals were automatically sent to the end of the survey. Because the experience of time is often influenced by national culture (Ballard & Seibold, 2003; Levine, West, &

Reis, 1980), the survey company was also asked to restrict access to those currently residing in the United States.

Sample

Due to the exploratory nature of this study and its goal to help capture a general idea of dominant cultural patterns on organizational members' experience of time, this study's sample included a wide range of both white-collar and blue-collar workers. The ethnic background of respondents included 69% Caucasians, 7% Latinos, 6% Indian, 8% African Americans, 6% Asian, 3% Multi-racial, .5% Native American, .5% Other. In terms of age, 76% of the participants were older than 30 (31 and over 70) and 24% were in their 20s or younger. Gender was nearly equal with 51% male and 49% female. The completed education level included 13% high school, 33% some college/vocational school, 37% undergraduate degree, 15% masters degree, 2% doctoral degrees. The annual household income was reported as follows: 39% made below \$50,000, 41% made \$50,000-\$99,000, 15% made \$100,000-\$149,000, and 5% made \$150,000 and up. Employment status included 19% part-time members, 74% full time members and 7% unemployed.

Instruments

Temporal Experience Scale

The measure for temporal experience was drawn from Ballard and Seibold's (2004) scale of temporal dimensions. A total of seven from the authors' eleven dimensions were used (pace, flexibility, urgency, present time perspective, linearity, punctuality, and separation) based on their meso level model of organizational

temporality. In order to gauge organizational members' experience of time, respondents were asked to rate a series of words and phrases that refer to time. For instance, there were three prompts that refer to (1) how a respondent talks about time with other members, (2) how a respondent talks about events in terms of time, and (3) how a respondent about his or her actions or activities in terms of time—all of which are followed by a number of items (See Appendix A for a full list of items). A rating of 1 indicates that participants strongly disagreed with the word or phrase and a rating of 6 indicated that they strongly agreed with the word or phrase used.

Multicommunication

Due to the fact that multicommunication is fairly new concept; it lacks a thorough and robust measure. Despite this limitation, this study as well as others (Cameron & Webster, 2010; Reinsch, et al., 2008; Turner & Reinsch, 2007; Turner & Reinsch, 2010) finds that its increased use and interactive quality makes multicommunicating an important concept for communication scholars to explore while other research finds better ways to measure its practice (Stephens, 2012). Therefore, in order to assess how organizational members carry out conversations while working (i.e., one or more conversations at a time), one primary Likert-type style question was used. This question was slightly altered from Turner and Reinsch (2007) in order to focus attention on how members actually carry out conversations on a typical workday rather than on a member's potential "need to focus on" one message alone (p. 49). The instructions provided to participants read as follows: In this section, you will be asked to describe how you carry out conversations while at work. These conversations may include using

both face-to-face conversations and/or conversations via various technologies. While answering these questions, please focus on how you communicate in a typical day at work. There are two ways to think about how you communicate with others at work. One, you may carry out one conversation at a time (e.g., having one telephone conversation without any other conversation taking place). Or, you may carry out multiple conversations (2 or more) all at once by using different technologies (e.g., you may be participating on a conference call and, at the same time, using IM in order to carry on two additional conversations). Then participants were asked to rate on a continuum, the following: (1) When I communicate with others, I tend to engage in one conversation at a time or (7) When I communicate with others, I tend to be engaged in multiple conversations all at once. An additional follow up question asked participants how often they engaged in multiple conversations at once: Never (5%), Occasionally (60%), Often (30%), Always (5%). This data was used for the purpose of gathering simple descriptive statistics.

Virtual Work Practices

To gauge respondents virtual work practices, two sub factors from Chudoba and colleagues' (2005) Virtuality Scale were used. Specifically, the overarching discontinuities they refer to as *team distribution* and *work mobility* were used to capture the main aspects of fluidity relevant in virtual work practices. The subscale team distribution included a total of 3 items and the subscale work mobility included a total of 4 items. The instructions informed participants that the following questions referred to various time and location issues one might encounter in a particular line of work. Time

issues might include communicating across different time zones and location issues might include working while on travel. The question then asked respondents how often they experienced the following aspects in their work on a continuum ranging from (1) Never to (7) Daily.

Primary Work Location

In order to assess where members spend the majority of their work hours per week (i.e., where do you spend the most hours per week), participants were asked to indicate their primary work location (Morganson et al., 2010) in terms of (1) the main office ($n = 254$), (2) company satellite location ($n = 45$), (3) client office ($n = 32$), or at home ($n = 74$).

Impression Management: Exemplification

Bolino and Turnley's (1999) Impression Management scale was used in order to assess exemplifying behaviors. A total of four items were used from their scale and an additional two items were created to better assess any potential exemplifying behaviors demonstrated via communication technology. In the survey instruction prompt, respondents were asked to describe how frequently (in the last six months) they used the following work strategies while at work or while working, in which response choices ranged from (1) Never behave this way to (5) Often behave this way.

Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the procedure, sample, and instruments used to explore the relationships between contemporary communication practices, exemplification, and

temporal experience. The pre-existing measures chosen for each variable will test the three research questions. The following chapter (Chapter 5) discusses the statistical procedure and results of the three proposed research questions.

Chapter 5: Results

Preliminary Analyses

Analyses were conducted using data from $N = 405$. To begin, each scale and its items were submitted to factor analytic and reliability analyses. Selected items under *linearity*, *separation*, and *exemplification* were removed to improve reliability scores. Then the mean and standard deviation were assessed. See Tables 1, 2, and 3 for a complete report of these items from the Temporal Experience Scale, Exemplification Scale, and Virtual Work Practices Scale. A correlation matrix table is also available (See Table 13). Additional tests were conducted for multicollinearity and none of the coefficients exceeded the cut of .20 to indicate multicollinearity (using VIF and tolerance) with the remaining coefficients in the model (Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken, 2003).

Temporal Experience and Communication Practices (Virtual Work Practices and Multicommunication, and Primary Work Location)

To explore the potential relationships among all of the research questions, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. In the hierarchical multiple regressions, two variables were controlled for: gender and income (gender was dummy coded male = 1, female = 0). These control variables were entered into the first block. The addition of virtual work practices (work mobility and team distribution), multicommunication, and primary work location (satellite, client, and home) were entered into the second block. Primary work location was also dummy coded where

‘main office’ was set as the reference group. A total of seven regression analyses were conducted to account for the first three sub-questions. The following results are organized by each of the seven temporal dimensions due to the sub-question format. Tables 4-10 display the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), t , p -value, R^2 and ΔR^2 for each hierarchical multiple regression model.

The first set of sub-questions to research question one (RQ1a, RQ1b, & RQ1c), all explored the relationship between virtual work practices, multicomunication, primary work location and the temporal enactment: flexibility. The first step in the regression equation was significant ($R^2 = .017$, $F(2, 402) = 3.390$, $p = .035$). In the first step, only gender significantly predicted temporal flexibility ($\beta = .100$, $p = .046$); meaning on average, female members report experiencing more temporal flexibility than their male counterparts (see Table 4). After controlling for gender and income, the addition of multicomunication, virtual work practices, and primary work location significantly increased the explained variance in temporal flexibility ($\Delta R^2 = .147$, $F(6, 396) = 11.632$, $p = .000$). Therefore, in addressing RQ1a, findings suggest that virtual work practices geared toward work mobility experience less temporal flexibility ($\beta = -.317$, $p = .000$). Similarly, organizational members who multicomunicate also experience less temporal flexibility ($\beta = -.123$, $p = .009$) (RQ1b). Last, findings also suggest that members who work from home report more temporal flexibility when compared to members that work from the main office (RQ1c) ($\beta = .134$, $p = .006$).

A separate regression analysis was conducted to explore the relationships between virtual work practices (RQ1a), primary work location (RQ1b), and temporal separation.

The first step in the regression equations was significant ($R^2 = .018$, $F(2, 402) = 3.733$, $p = .025$). In the first step, only gender significantly predicted temporal separation ($\beta = -.102$, $p = .040$); meaning on average, female members report experiencing less temporal separation than their male counterparts (see Table 5). After controlling for gender and income, the addition of virtual work practices and primary work location (multicommunication was also entered but not considered in these particular research questions) significantly increased the explained variance in temporal separation ($\Delta R^2 = .171$, $F(6, 396) = 13.950$, $p = .000$). Findings suggest that members that utilize virtual work practices geared toward work mobility report higher temporal separation (RQ1a) ($\beta = .317$, $p = .000$). Additionally, when compared to office members, lower levels of temporal separation were reported from members that work from home (RQ1c) ($\beta = -.141$, $p = .003$).

Next, virtual work practices (RQ1a) and primary work location (RQ1c) was questioned to have a relationship with punctuality. After controlling for gender and income ($R^2 = .006$, $F(2, 402) = 1.302$, $p = .273$), the addition of virtual work practices and primary work location (multicommunication was also entered but not considered in these particular research questions) significantly increased the explained variance in punctuality ($\Delta R^2 = .073$, $F(6, 396) = 5.255$, $p = .000$). Therefore, in addressing research question 1a, findings suggest that members that utilize virtual work practices geared toward work mobility report higher punctuality ($\beta = .240$, $p = .000$). Findings also suggest that those that work from satellite, client, or home offices do not differ from

those that work from the main office in terms of how they experience punctuality (RQ1c) (see Table 6).

Another regression tested the relationship between present time perspective, multicomunication (RQ1b), and primary work location (RQ1c). The first step in the regression equation was significant ($R^2 = .015$, $F(2, 402) = 3.090$, $p = .047$). In the first step, only income significantly predicted present time perspective ($\beta = .120$, $p = .016$); members with higher income levels report experiencing time more in the present or as having immediate consequences (see Table 7). After controlling for gender and income, the addition of multicomunication and primary work location (virtual work practices was also entered but not considered in these research questions) significantly increased the explained variance in present time perspective ($\Delta R^2 = .167$, $F(6, 394) = 13.465$, $p = .000$). These findings provide an answer for research question 1b, suggesting that organizational members who multicomunicate are also likely to experience time in the present or in the here-and-now ($\beta = .159$, $p = .001$). Research question 1c was also addressed. Results indicate that members who work from home differ from those that work from the main office in terms of how they report present time perspective. Members that work from home are less likely to experience time in the present than those that work from the main office ($\beta = -.178$, $p = .000$).

The temporal enactment, linearity, was questioned to have potential relationships with multicomunication (RQ1b) and primary work location (RQ1c). When controlling for gender and income ($R^2 = .011$, $F(2, 402) = 2.205$, $p = .112$), the addition of multicomunication and primary work location (virtual work practices was also entered

but not considered in these particular research questions) significantly increased the explained variance in linearity ($\Delta R^2 = .066$, $F(6, 394) = 4.695$, $p = .000$). However, these findings suggest that neither multicomcommunication ($\beta = -.025$, $p = .616$) nor primary work location (satellite office, $\beta = -.034$, $p = .493$; client office, $\beta = .040$, $p = .420$; home $\beta = -.018$, $p = .724$) accounted for that variance (see Table 8). Thus, the practice of multicomcommunication did not share a relationship with linearity (RQ1b). Additionally, there were no findings that suggest that those working from a satellite, client, or home office differ from those working from the main office in terms of how they report linearity (RQ1c).

The next regression explored the relationship between pace and the practice of multicomcommunication (RQ1b), and primary work location (RQ1c). After controlling for gender and income ($R^2 = .006$, $F(2, 402) = 1.272$, $p = .281$), the addition of multicomcommunication and primary work location significantly increased the explained variance in pace ($\Delta R^2 = .248$, $F(6, 394) = 22.279$, $p = .000$). The combination of multicomcommunication and primary work location (virtual work practices was also entered but not considered with these particular research questions) helps explain 25 percent of the variance in pace (see Table 9). More specifically, in addressing research question 1b, findings suggest that organizational members that multicomcommunicate are also likely to experience an increase in pace ($\beta = .257$, $p = .000$). Results also indicate that members that work from home ($\beta = -.240$, $p = .000$) and from a satellite office ($\beta = -.100$, $p = .025$) differ from those that work from the main office in terms of how they experience pace

(RQ1c). These two groups (home and satellite members) are less likely to experience an increase in pace compared to members that work from the main office.

Multicommunication (RQ1b) and primary work location (RQ1c) was also questioned to have a relationship with the temporal construal: urgency. After controlling for gender and income ($R^2 = .014$, $F(2, 402) = 2.926$, $p = .055$), the addition of multicommunication and primary work location (virtual work practices was also entered but not considered with these particular research questions) significantly increased the explained variance in urgency ($\Delta R^2 = .214$, $F(6, 394) = 18.297$, $p = .000$). These findings suggest that members that multicomunicate are also likely to experience a greater sense of urgency (RQ1b) ($\beta = .241$, $p = .000$). Results also indicate that members that work from home differ from those that work from the main office in terms of how they experience urgency (RQ1c). Thus, members that work from home are less likely to experience time as urgent than those that work from the main office ($\beta = -.138$, $p = .003$) (see Table 10).

Exemplification and Temporal Dimensions

The second research question, which asks if there is a relationship between members' experience of time and the impression management tactic: exemplification. This question was also explored using hierarchical multiple regression. Again, gender and income were used as control variables and were entered into the first block ($R^2 = .003$, $F(2, 402) = .633$, $p = .532$). The second block was comprised of the temporal dimensions present time perspective, linearity, pace, urgency, flexibility, separation, and punctuality ($\Delta R^2 = .224$, $F(7, 395) = 16.358$, $p = .000$). Table 11 displays the

unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), t , p -value, R^2 and ΔR^2 for each hierarchical multiple regression model. Findings suggest that organizational members who experience time in the present are more likely to practice exemplification tactics ($\beta = .140, p = .027$). This test also suggests that the more flexibility members experience, the less likely they are to exhibit exemplification tactics ($\beta = -.258, p = .000$).

Exemplification, Multicommunication, Virtual Work Practices, and Primary Work Location

The third and final research question in this project asked whether exemplification behaviors were associated with members' practice of multicommunication (RQ3a), virtual work practices (RQ3b), or primary work location (RQ3c). Table 12 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), t , p -value, R^2 and ΔR^2 for each hierarchical multiple regression model. After controlling for gender and income ($R^2 = .003, F(2, 402) = .633, p = .532$), the addition of multicommunication, virtual work practices, and primary work location significantly increased the explained variance in exemplifying behaviors ($\Delta R^2 = .278, F(6, 396) = 25.516, p = .000$). These findings suggest that organizational members that multicommunicate (RQ3a) are more likely to utilize exemplification tactics ($\beta = .183, p = .000$). Additionally, virtual work practices (RQ3b) are also linked to this tactic. Organizational members that practice greater team distribution reported utilizing these behaviors ($\beta = .139, p = .017$) and members with greater work mobility also are more likely to utilize exemplification behavioral tactics ($\beta = .378, p = .000$). Findings also

suggest that members that work primarily from home differ from members that work from the main office with regard to utilizing exemplifying behaviors—at home members are less likely to display these behaviors than their main office counterparts (RQ3c) ($\beta = -.105, p = .020$).

Chapter 6: Discussion

CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

This project sought to identify contemporary dominant cultural patterns and how each translate into the micro practices found in organizational work. These practices were identified as multicommuting and virtual work practices. This project also examined organizational members' primary work location as a way to capture the fixed and fluid elements of time and space. The overall goal is to understand if these practices share a relationship with how members experience time. Additionally, the impression management tactic, exemplification, was introduced and extended to emphasize potential underlying nonverbal temporal elements and its relationship to temporal experience. Subsequently, the exemplification tactic was questioned to have a relationship with the three communication practices (*multicommuting, virtual work practices, and primary work location*). As a result, through multiple hierarchical regression modeling, the data set used in this study helps to identify several theoretical implications and contributions. This chapter will first address in detail the interpretations of the present and significant findings. Then, a discussion of the larger theoretical implications followed by the study's limitations and directions for future research.

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Virtual Work Practices and Temporal Experience

Virtual work practices represent the fluidity of conducting work tasks despite elements associated with time and space. As such, this project explored the relationship

between the underlying temporal factors apparent in virtual work practices with temporal experience. Of the two temporal and spatial discontinuities addressed in virtual work practices (i.e., *team distribution* and *workplace mobility*), work mobility was the only factor found to have relationships with the temporal dimensions *flexibility*, *separation*, and *punctuality*.

Members reporting greater work mobility were less likely to report temporal flexibility. Flexibility refers to the rigidity in time structuring or task completion plans and surrounding work policies (task, group norms, or organizational) (Ballard & Seibold, 2003). The factors involved with work mobility such as working with mobile devices and/or working while on travel might lead one to think that this would encourage a more flexible experience. However, for this sample those that were more mobile referred to time as inflexible. What might partially explain this finding is what Perlow (2012) refers to as the vicious cycle of responsiveness in contemporary work. In her recent book, she reports that, of a sample of 1600 managers and professionals, 92% worked more than fifty or more hours a week, 70% checked their mobile device within an hour of waking up, 56% checked their device before going to bed, 48% checked it on the weekends, and 51% checked it while on vacation. These numbers suggest that communicating via mobile devices has reconstituted the modern day 'open door' policy (Ballard & Ramgolam, 2009) where a constant state of work availability leaves members with an experience of time as inflexible in direct contrast to the marketing claims of mobile communication devices (Ballard & Webster, 2009).

This finding can also be explained by what Jarvenpaa and Lang (2005) describe as the “empowerment/enslavement” paradox of mobile technology (p. 10). These authors argue that when initially communicating via mobile devices organizational members report a greater sense of empowerment; however, this feeling is short lived as expectations surrounding availability increase along with work pressure and monitoring. The enslavement they describe therefore reflects the inflexibility reported by this sample.

The “enslavement” described by Jarvenpaa and Lang (2005) may be especially true for members that receive company-distributed cellular phones (Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011). The members in a study by Richardson and Benbunan-Fich (2011) often felt obligated to pick up work-related calls or messages simply because their organization supplied them with a device in order to do so. In other words, this encourages a lack of flexibility that might attribute to the technostress associated with mobile working and the devices used (Tarafdar, Ragu-Nathan & Ragu-Nathan, 2007). This idea is underscored by a study that found working past hours and feeling like one does not have enough time to complete work leads to role conflict and added stress (Tarafdar, et al., 2007).

However, while this sample reported a lack of flexibility, they also reported increased temporal separation. This suggests that organizational members may be increasingly aware—if implicitly—of the dialectic theorized by Ballard and Gossett (2007) such that their reported experience exactly reflects this tension. A huge caveat, however, is that members’ temporal experience reflect what appears to be active attempts to manage this dialectic. Rather than enacting work mobility as flexible, they report an

inverse relationship—inflexibility and higher separation—where their activities are seen as rigidly formed and where they enact strategies of compartmentalization and boundaries ostensibly to minimize the stress experienced in this dialectic.

In Golden and Geisler's (2007) study on the personal digital assistant, they argue that individuals were able to contain some amount of control over their work-life boundaries due to time management through the activity of electronic organizing via mobile devices. It may be that members feel a need to utilize certain applications and capabilities of high tech devices in an effort to portray a sense of control that—despite the lack of flexibility—they have everything under control. A participant in their study expressed this sentiment as he referred to his PDA (personal digital assistant): “It gives me either the illusion or the reality of control over my life, I think it just gives me more control. So I don't feel crazy. I know exactly what I have to do every day. It is efficient. It is calming” (p. 534). Therefore, highly mobile members may refer to their activities as divided in order to keep some type of order. As a result, they experience more temporal separation.

Punctuality was the last temporal dimension found to have a relationship with the work mobility afforded through virtual work practices. Although previous research has not directly noted the enactment of punctuality, attention paid to response time or time stamps in electronic messaging indicates its relevance when using mobile devices. The positive and significant finding between punctuality and work mobility demonstrates the importance of timeliness despite the improvisational aspect (i.e., the ability of turning being late into being on time) that is an argued ability with mobile device use (Jarvenpaa,

& Lang, 2005). The attitudes that can be credited with the continued need for punctual behavior are part of that cycle of responsiveness that make comments such as “Everyone here is tethered to their Blackberry 24/7” and “To succeed I have to be responsive” (Perlow, 2012, p. 141). Therefore, excuses for tardy behavior are less acceptable.

The notion behind mobile work due to the devices used is that being physically present is not always required to serve as evidence that one is at “at work” or present. One way that members demonstrate presence is by maintaining prompt responses to messages to help alleviate any doubts that mobility does not equate to absence or inactivity. Punctual behavior is seen as valid, commendable behavior established in the Industrial Age (Bluedorn, 2002). With the use of email and/or texting, ACITs provide mobile members with a contemporary means to document presence with the precise time stamp (Stephens et al., 2008). Although precision is important, the promptness found with mobile use is more about timeliness. This means individuals use judgment in determining if a reply was conducted in a prompt or quick manner. Kalman and colleagues (2006b) found that users believed that messages should be responded to as soon as possible. For their study’s sample of over 16,000 emails, analyses discovered a “24 hour expectation” where 84% of the replies were within that 24-hour span. More importantly, they found that more than 50% of the replies were sent within two to three hours. Due to the asynchronous aspect associated with email, these timely responses can be seen as punctual behavior.

Multicommunicating and Temporal Experience

The ever-growing practice of multicommunicating and its temporal characteristics (i.e., varying levels of synchronicity and temporal compression) make this practice a prime issue that might be shaping the experience of time for those organizational members that utilizes it. The short and fragmented patterns associated with it led to questions regarding its impact on the experience of time for those that report multicommunicating.

This study found that the practice of multicommunicating was positively related to pace, urgency, and present time perspective. As elaborated below, these three particular dimensions are consistent with many of the fundamental characteristics established by Reinsch and colleagues (2008) such as multicommunicators drive for high intensity, efficiency, and its relation to “connected time.” However, multicommunicating was also found to share a negative relationship with flexibility—which is inconsistent with their multicommunicating concept of flexibility of tempo.

The finding that a faster pace is related to those that multicommunicate helps to validate the claim proposed by Turner and Reinsch (2008). These authors argue that those that multicommunicate favor high intensity also have faster pace. This makes sense in that a faster pace is often associated with increased production and efficiency (Bluedorn, 2002), which is consistent with the goals of multicommunicators (Dennis, Rennecker, & Hansen, 2010; Turner & Reinsch, 2007). These authors also claim that practicing multicommunicating involves less processing time, which means that a faster pace is

inherent to this practice. There's also an expectation built around the practice of multicomputing that although there's built in flexibility, the expectation is that you are timely in your response (Turner & Reinsch, 2007). If a quick, steady pace is not maintained, the parties involved may deem the multicomputing episode as unsuccessful (Turner & Reinsch, 2010). Those that heavily practice this heavily with multiple conversations would have to increase their pace in order to accommodate each conversation.

Pace, which includes the tempo or rate of activity (Ballard & Seibold, 2003), can further explain the descriptions behind Reinsch et al.'s (2008) concept of "connected time." Reinsch and colleagues (2008) found that participants in their study often referred to time as "connected time" and described it as having a rhythm similar to that of breathing. So connected time, for those that multicompute, definitely maintains a particular pace to help users feel like they are keeping up with a natural tempo or rhythm. Without this particular pace, those that multicompute may perceive that they are not keeping up with time demands (Baron, 2008) and thus, are not accurately or efficiently "breathing." The rate of activity that members become accustomed to when multicomputing can also help explain what Baron (2008) found in a study of multicomputing (she refers to it as social multitasking). She refers to this practice as a response to emotional states where individuals become bored or impatient. Being connected into multiple conversations, which leads to the experience of a faster pace, helps to alleviate some of that boredom and impatience by providing individuals with the perception that they are active or accommodating incoming inputs.

In a similar way the dimensions of urgency and present time perspective were also found to have a relationship with those that multicomunicate. Whereas temporal urgency includes a preoccupation with task completion, present time perspective includes a focus on emergent issues (Ballard & Seibold, 2004). These two dimensions can be closely interpreted with what Reinsch and colleagues (2008) refer to as the demonstration of being “alive” when multicomunicating. For those that engage in this practice, it’s important to be virtually present in order to handle the necessary happenings involved with achieving work goals. This was captured in a previous study where communicators were excited for the ability to solve an immediate problem by way of having access to multiple individuals (Turner & Reinsch, 2010). Turner and Reinsch’s (2010) claim is that with the practice of multicomunicating there is a lack of strategic thought and instead a focus on getting as much done in less time, which reveals its connection with urgency. In a recent effort to create a more compressive scale for identifying the reasons for multicomunicating in meetings, Stephens (2012) states that “Being Available is an important factor because it is a state of readiness to engage in multicomunication” (p. 213). This idea closely reflects this particular finding as its practice is related to the notion of addressing events in the present and as issues develop.

The temporal enactment flexibility was an additional dimension found in this study to be related to multicomunicating. However, this relationship was negative—meaning that the more an individual multicomunicates, the less likely they will refer to their actions or activities as being flexible. What was interesting to find in this study was that despite the Reinsch et al.’s (2008) claim that the practice of multicomunicating has

a degree of flexibility—or a flexibility of tempo that allows for gaps of silence—those that multicomunicate reported less overall work time flexibility. Flexibility is referred to as the degree of rigidity of time structuring or task completion plans (Ballard & Seibold, 2004). This particular finding might reflect more upon the work climates for which multicomunicating is practiced where the focus is often placed on “speed, complexity, and limitations of human processing” (Turner & Reinsch, 2007, p. 52). With this said, this negative relationship reflects more about the norms of multicomunicating work environments rather than its actual practice. The driving force of efficiency in multicomunicating work environments leaves little room for the perception of flexibility. Remarks from participants such as “You have to be able to multitask around here” connote a sense of rigidity in the environments surrounding this practice (Turner et al., 2006, p. 238). Moreover, organizational members that are able and unable to keep up with multicomunicating norms will most likely refer to the stress surrounding this practice (Turner et al., 2006).

This study also explored the relationship between the practice of multicomunicating and polychronicity. Referred to as linearity in this study (Ballard & Seibold, 2003), the characteristics of multicomunicating as a form of multitasking leads one to assume that those that multicomunicate would potentially experience a strong negative relationship with linearity (Bell et al., 2005). This would mean that those that multicomunicate would disagree with referring to their actions or activities as having specific order or as carried out ‘step-by-step.’ However, this investigation did not find a relationship between multicomunicating and time experienced in a nonlinear

fashion. This lack of a significant finding might be explained by recent work that argues that there are two types of multitasking: simultaneous and sequential (Stephens et al., 2012). Simultaneous multitasking describes “the production of two things at the same time” and sequential multitasking refers to “the interspersing of multiple activities over time” (p. 24). This argument helps clarify, that for this sample, multicomputing might be practiced in ways that does not limit the experience of time as linear versus nonlinear, but rather it reflects simultaneous or sequential multicomputing.

Primary Work Location and Temporal Experience

Understanding the fixed aspects of organizational work was also a critical part of this study. The findings associated with this sample show that those working from home differ from those working from the main office in terms of greater *flexibility* but also reported a lesser degree of *present time perspective, urgency, pace, and separation*. Those that work from a satellite office were also found to report a slower pace than those that work from the main office.

Previous research on telework (i.e., working from home or satellite office) helps to inform these findings (Hymlo & Buzzanell, 2000; Steward, 2000; Tietze & Musson, 2002). For instance, members that work from home might fall under one of two categories: those members working to *import* the conventional time boundaries of the office (i.e., attempt to work within the typical ‘9-5’ hours) or those working to *reduce* conventional temporal boundaries of the office and incorporate a more domestic time structure (i.e., work around home responsibilities) (Steward, 2000). As such, the strategy selected will shape how persons experience time (Hymlo & Buzzanell, 2000). Reports of

temporal experience such as more flexibility, less urgency, and higher pace all suggest that respondents in this study fall under the latter category of reducing conventional boundaries where domestic issues take precedence over work issues. For instance, when managing work responsibilities around domestic chores and duties that have little or no deadline, time might be referred to as less rigid (i.e., more flexible) than those whose primary focus is to turn in a report at a specified time within typical working hours and then find time to fit in chores (i.e., more rigidity). This flexibility also includes having control over when to do things (e.g., take a sick child to the clinic at noon and work later in the evening).

While some research has found that working from home does not afford the flexible aspect originally intended (Steward, 2000), this is most often the case for those attempting to *import* the conventional work boundaries of office members but whose work also stretches beyond the typical working hours (Tietze & Musson, 2002). Lee and Liebenau (2002) argue this strategy of importing is a mistake because it often leads to failure due to the flexible nature of distributed working, which requires asynchronous communication.

In the present study where respondents focused more on reducing conventional boundaries (i.e., the focus is on running matters of the home rather than solely focusing on work related matters), members are more likely to refer to time with a slower pace, with less urgency, and with a focus that is less on the present. For example, when working from the home, reliance on more asynchronous electronic often means that your manager is not going to walk over and interrupt you with a request requiring your

immediate attention. These decreased interruptions mean at home members experience less stress (Fonner & Roloff, 2010). This differs from those working at the main office where a shared presence with management and coworkers resembles a complex mix of communication patterns (including interruptions) revolving around face-to-face conversations ranging from the mundane to the more professional networking opportunities, meetings, and additional electronic correspondences. Further, with the use of ACITs, main office members are integrating more personal/life communication into their work time (D'Abate, 2005; Flanagin, et al., 2009; Stetler, 2011). Thus, the combining force of multiple streams of communication found at the main office (Weisband, 2002) also explains why pace, or the rate of activity, was experienced differently for those that work at home. It is plausible that working from home have more control in establishing their own pace than do members working at the main office (Garrett & Danzinger, 2007; Lee & Liebenau, 2002). This is also due in part to fewer communication inputs or less information exchange that has been noted for those that work outside the main office (Fonner & Roloff, 2010). Moreover, Hymmlö and Buzzanell (2000) argue that the collaborative, on-going synchronous interaction involved for those main office members reflected more clock-driven, present-focused individuals.

Also consistent with the literature in the telework area was the significant finding in the current study that working from home differed from working from the office in terms of temporal separation. For this sample, the fixed element of space (e.g., home vs. office) related to how members referred to their actions in terms of divided up or separated from each other. In this case, those that work from home reported lower

temporal separation than those that work from the main office. The inability to separate work and personal life when working from home has been a constant theme in the alternative work literature (Ballard & Gossett, 2007). Working from home often means individuals are unable to escape either mentally or physically from work and often work on the weekends (Morganson, et al., 2010; Tietze & Musson, 2002). This means that despite increased flexibility, those that work from home have a more challenging time compartmentalizing or dividing up more clearly where work begins and the home ends. Ballard and Gossett (2007) refer to this as the flexibility-separation dialectic where the constant meshing of the two (i.e., personal/home and work) often means there is no one day free from work (Steward, 2000). Members that work from the main office most likely have a clearer sense of these divisions simply due to spatial distinctness that divides both work time and personal time (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2006).

Temporal Experience and Exemplification Tactics

The impression management strategy, exemplification, was interrogated here to examine its relationship with specific temporal enactments and construals. As was argued above, exemplification is the only impression management tactic that has temporally driven and symbolic behaviors such that time is used specifically to suggest commitment and dedication to one's work duties and responsibilities. In the present study, this tactic was found to share a relationship with the temporal dimensions *present time perspective* and *flexibility*.

Exemplifying tactics such as sending emails at night, early mornings and weekends or staying at work late were linked to those members that experience time in

the present or the here-and-now. For these members, referring to events or day-to-day happenings as pressing or urgent also describes those members that desire to go above and beyond the call of duty to demonstrate dedication to others. Although attributes such as these are often desired, Jones and Pittman (1982) remind us that true exemplars are rare and for the most part this behavior is strategic. As such, some will find these behaviors to be suspect. In an age where excessive work is so prevalent (Porter, 2001), a behavior such as exemplification and the temporal construal, present time perspective, might further explain why there is a continued reliance on chronemic cues rather than actual results in determining one's contribution or value. Porter and Kakabadse's (2006) research on workaholism and technology use found that members continue to use time as a way to portray dedication. According to these authors, the notion of displaying such behaviors does not always mean these members are actually getting the work done. In other words, attending to the numerous incoming messages as they arrive all in an effort to present oneself as dedicated, may mean that one's focus is on demonstrating presence rather than results.

This disposition toward time has been a hallmark of the Western cultural work ethic. McGrath and Kelly (1986) explain it in the following manner: "Time rather than effort or skill, is what the worker contributes in the work relation; and time, rather than skill or effort, is what is paid for in worker exchange" (p. 108). Therefore, and given claims of contemporary organizations' renewed focus on results-driven work environments (Conlin, 2006), exemplifying behaviors might be viewed as a waste of time that do not always garner an authentic work results-driven work environment. Moreover,

when considering the interruptions associated with technology use (Rennecker & Godwin, 2005), feeling the need to stop and address each and every developing issue all with hope of portraying dedication can be counter-productive and largely inefficient.

Nurturing or promoting a results-driven rather than time-driven work environment also helps to explain the second dimension found to have a relationship with exemplifying behaviors: flexibility. However, this relationship was negative: the more individuals referred to time as flexible, the less likely they were to utilize exemplifying behaviors. For instance, if members refer to their actions or activities as having flexibility, they most likely work in an environment that is not concerned or preoccupied with time-driven work. The creators of the ROWE (Results Only Work Environment) system refer to time-driven work as presenteeism, time + physical presence = results, which they argue is a way of working that stymies productivity (Ludden, 2012). However, the flexible nature of a more result-oriented work environment may lead members to feel less compelled to have to arrive at work early or stay at work late in order to convey one's dedication to their work.

Now, there are organizational members that find working long hours does not make them a workaholic but a "successaholic," where they simply gain great satisfaction from the achievement gained by conducting their work (Perlow, 2012). However, Perlow (2012) also recognized that even these members were able to see the value in a flexible working strategy that gave members one predictable night off (PTO) during the week. As described earlier, research on flexible working hours and conditions has uncovered paradoxical findings where flexibility has been linked to job satisfaction and

organizational commitment (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010) but also to reports of working longer hours and greater workloads (Golden & Figart, 2000). However, with Perlow's study (2009) she argues that even for members in professional services where a "24/7 work ethic is essential for getting ahead, and so they work 60-plus hours a week and are slaves to their Blackberries" it is possible to have planned, uninterrupted time off (p. 104). This, she further argues, can only be accomplished with a strict system for taking time off, continued communication about the process, and relentless support from top management. These are the climates that help to explain why greater flexibility results in reduced reasons to display so many exemplifying behaviors.

Communication Practices and Exemplification

This study also explored the relationship among multicomputing, virtual work practices, and exemplification. The organizational members in this sample that reported using multicomputing and virtual work practices (i.e., team distribution and work mobility) were also more likely to utilize behaviors such as sending electronic correspondences outside of work hours to demonstrate dedication. Additionally, organizational members working from home differed from members working at the main office in terms of this tactic. Those members that work from home were less likely to rely on exemplifying behaviors in order to demonstrate dedication. More specifically, members working from home were less likely to strategically send emails at night weekends in order to portray commitment to their work.

First, the relationship found between multicomputing and exemplification helps to further understand the type of organizational members and perhaps the kind of

work environments in which these practices and behaviors are predominant. For some organizational members, the practice of multicomputing has been adopted due to organizational norms that value efficiency or at least its perception. Further, the practice of multicomputing is also seen as a presence allocator—or the “parsing out” of an individual’s presence among multiple interactions (Turner & Reinsch, 2007, p. 46). With this in mind, it makes sense that organizational members, who value going above and beyond to demonstrate efficiency, are also the members that juggle multiple conversations at a time. This may be especially true for those members whose previous multicomputing practice has led to higher performance evaluations (Turner et al., 2006). In cases such as these, members who are sensitive to how they are viewed by others (e.g., high self monitors) are more likely to exhibit exemplifying tactics (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

The relationship between exemplifying tactics and virtual work practices was also examined. Both variants including team distribution and work mobility were related to those members that may either arrive at work early or send email on weekends. Team distribution, which involves the “degree to which people work on teams that have people distributed over different geographies and time zones” (Chudoba, et al., 2005, p. 288), was closely related to the display of exemplifying behaviors. This finding might be explained by research that has focused on the high degree of trust needed when communicating across time zones and/or working with individuals that one will never meet face-to-face (Handy, 1995; Lee & Liebenau, 2002). For example, in a study investigating the rules of virtual groups, Walther and Bunz (2005) identified the rule of

frequent communication as a must in developing and maintaining trust as well as in avoiding the accumulation of work due to asynchronous communication. These authors were able to find support for this rule in that frequency with electronic initiations and responses enhanced trust. When considering exemplification, such tactics as sending emails at odd hours appears to be instrumental in creating the trust to which Walther and Bunz (2005) refer. Therefore, such strategic behavior helps to increase the likeability factor and also helps to avoid the conflict often associated with working with distributed team membership (Hinds & Bailey, 2003). Reasons such as these, along with this particular finding, may also help explain the previously discussed relationship found between work mobility (virtual work practices), inflexibility and greater temporal separation (inverse flexibility-separation dialectic).

The mobility aspect of virtual work practices reflects, “how much employees move around, to different offices, and travel locations” while staying connected via mobile devices (Chudoba, et al., 2005p. 296). For this sample, mobility was significantly related to exemplifying behaviors. Previous research has argued that the more mobile member perceives the fluid aspects associated with mobility as an opportunity to increase productivity yet continues to feel the burden of control from management. This predicament helps to explain why virtual work practices share such as relationship with exemplifying tactics. For instance, in a study conducted by Garrett and Danzinger (2007) increased work mobility led to feelings of lower job influence and greater work surveillance via mobile devices. In other words, mobility created greater job insecurity and the need to communicate via ACITs as a way to demonstrate (due to managements’

constant eye) how they got their work accomplished. What was found here—reports of sending electronic correspondences at night, early mornings, and weekends—works to provide more detail in how these members manage such insecurities and matters of control (Flanagin, Pearce, & Bondad-Brown, 2009).

Interestingly these behaviors differed for organizational members that worked from home. These members were less likely to display exemplifying behaviors than their main office counterparts. This may be due in part to the persisting attitudes surrounding notions of specified work arrangements such as telework (Hymlö & Buzzanell, 2000). For instance, in a study by Hymlö and Buzzanell (2000) discourse surrounding work arrangement and temporal orientation shaped the career development and promotability of teleworkers. In their study they found that ‘in house’ or main office members viewed members that worked from different locations as invisible and illegitimate for promotions. With the possibility that working from home excludes members from promotions, at home workers will therefore feel less inclined to have to portray oneself in a particular way in order to gain the attribution of dedication from others. Instead they focus on fulfilling their basic requirements. This seems to have been the case for the respondents used in this study where members working from home reported less exemplifying than did main office members. Another explanation is that members working from home are less aware of the office politics that are necessary or that may be occurring on a day-to-day basis at the main office (Fonner and Roloff, 2010). Therefore, feeling the need to portray oneself in a particular manner may simply be absent because

members working from home are unaware of the behaviors that might be necessary for promotion due to their lack of shared physical space.

THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Extant research has treated the issue of time largely as a backdrop description regarding outcomes of ACIT use. The current investigation places time in center view to demonstrate how it is potentially being shaped by mediated communication patterns and how time, in turn, may be shaping other communicative behaviors. As elaborated further below, this study offers several contributions to the literature in this area including: (1) empirical evidence of the flexibility-separation dialectic and the inverse relationship it has with virtual work practices and primary work location, (2) the symbolic temporal meanings associated with exemplification tactics (3) the extension of Ballard and Seibold's (2003) meso level model of organizational temporality, (4) time as a key component when evaluating multicommuting, and (5) time as fundamental to understanding the impact of contemporary communication patterns.

The Flexibility-Separation Dialectic

One of the most notable findings in this study is the empirical support found for the flexibility-separation dialectic theorized by Ballard and Gossett (2007). This project treated the practices associated with the fixed and fluid elements of time and space by examining members' *virtual work practices* and *primary work location*. The conflicting findings of temporal experience with these two practices suggest that each can lead to

different outcomes and should be treated and considered as distinct from each other (Garrett & Danzinger, 2007).

The empirical evidence gathered in this study supports Ballard and Gossett's (2007) theorized *flexibility-separation dialectic* by finding that organizational members with a primary work location outside the confines of the traditional, collocated setting experience greater temporal flexibility but, at the same time, are unable to clearly separate their work activities from personal activities. This argument is consistent with previous accounts of teleworking from locations such as the home (Golden & Figart, 2000; Rubin, 2007; Steward, 2000). Importantly, these findings suggest that one's *primary work location* can lead to different outcomes than when utilizing *virtual work practices* due to the fixed and fluid elements of time and space, which in this case are critical in shaping temporal experience in a technology rich work environment.

However, an inverse relationship between flexibility and separation when enacting virtual work practices, particularly work mobility, reveals that working with mobile devices creates a sense of inflexibility and more clearly demarcates separation among work activities. This finding is the most intriguing in that flexibility is often considered a primary element when working and communicating while mobile. However, previous claims by Ling (2004) help clarify a distinction in mobile communication often forgotten or overlooked. He (2004) articulates that while mobile communication is generally associated with an increased sense of flexibility, the degree of flexibility actually begins to lessen as the number of contacts and the complexity of interactions increase. This, coupled with the intermingling of work and personal affairs carried

through mobile communication, suggests that when intensely working with mobile devices a “threshold” can be crossed, which may leave organizational members with a perception that the more mobile you are, the less flexibility you experience. Therefore, this finding provides evidence that helps to validate Ling’s (2004) argument and provides empirical evidence that discusses mobility in an entirely different light.

Exemplification as Temporally Symbolic

Importantly, this project also extends an understanding of the impression management tactic: exemplification. Identified as a nonverbal behavior, exemplification is a tactic that uses time as a way to convey strategic messages about one’s dedication and commitment in the view of those with whom they work. The issue of time in exemplification is largely symbolic (Ballard, 2007), as creating temporal “presence” is at the heart of this tactic. Its link to temporal dimensions such as *present time perspective* suggests that the utilization of this behavior encourages a constant need to address urgent and developing issues. The measure used in this scale also extends our understanding of this tactic. The two items added (e.g., I send electronic correspondences at night, early morning, and on weekends to look dedicated) indicate how this tactic also translates to mediated communication behaviors specifically. This addition might aid future research when needing to better understand the drive associated with compulsively communicating via ACITs.

Extending the Meso Level Model of Organizational Temporality

At different areas in the model, this project also helps extend Ballard and Seibold’s (2003) meso level model of organizational temporality (see Figure 1, p. 98).

For instance, it specifically identifies three contemporary dominant cultural patterns—*varying levels of synchronicity, temporal compression, and temporal expansion*—that shape organizational communication patterns in the 21st century. This aids scholars with a clear reference on the underlying temporal dynamics at play in technology-intensive work environments. In the ten years since its development, this model has helped communication scholars examine organizational temporality from different angles (Ballard & Seibold, 2006; Ballard & Seibold, 2004); yet little empirical research has explored how specific mediated communication practices influence organizational members’ experience of time. Therefore, empirical findings in this study contribute to previous work (Hofstede, 1993; McGrath & Kelly, 1986) that also found support for national cultural influences on organizational members’ temporality.

This investigation also extends the model at the work group level. With a cross section analysis of industry norms, occupational norms, and organizational cultures—work group norms remain a “primary site” in shaping organizational temporality (Ballard & Seibold, 2003, p. 398). More specifically, this project positions virtual work practices as a reflection of work group norms. As was established above, virtual work practices are fluid and informal—meaning they are often adopted through group-level processes (Watson-Manheim, et al., 2002). As such, members’ experience of time was mediated via virtual work practices (i.e., team distribution and work mobility) at the group level and resulted in particular temporal enactments and construals. Therefore, this study helps extend this model by providing a more specific example of work group norms that shape and are shaped by temporal experience.

This project also identifies the practice of multicommuting as relevant to Ballard and Seibold's (2003) theoretical model. According to Ballard and Seibold (2003), workplace technologies order interaction. The speed at which members move from one conversation to another via technology and the ability to do so creates patterns that order interaction. The ongoing practice of multicommuting, especially in organizations where its practice is a norm, is therefore a communicative structure that shapes the temporal order for organizational members. This adds validity to Reinsch and colleagues' (2008) claim that the practice of multicommuting forms its own temporal structure (i.e., "connected time").

Last, the strategic impression management behavior, exemplification, extends this model as an additional outcome of particular enactments and construals of organizational temporality. The positive and significant relationship between particular temporal dimensions join other key outcomes such as communication load, interdepartmental relationships, and job satisfaction in demonstrating how temporal experience shapes communication related behavior. For example, findings in this study demonstrate that time experienced as urgent, was related to strategic behaviors such as sending emails at early morning hours or over the weekend.

Time is Fundamental when Multicommuting

This project also contributes empirically to a growing body of work on the practice of multicommuting. The linking of this practice to key temporal dimensions, provides evidence to help clarify the characteristics often used in describing multicommuting. For instance, its relationship with a "faster pace" and "greater

urgency” helps clarify that speed, rather than flexibility is important when using this communication practice. The lack flexibility may also reflect multicommutating-intense work environments where such practices reveal more about organizational work norms than individual preferences. Additionally, measuring multicommutating across various job sectors and job types (as in this study) also highlights its prevalence in the contemporary work environment (only 5% of respondents reported no multicommutating).

Time Matters in Contemporary Communication Patterns

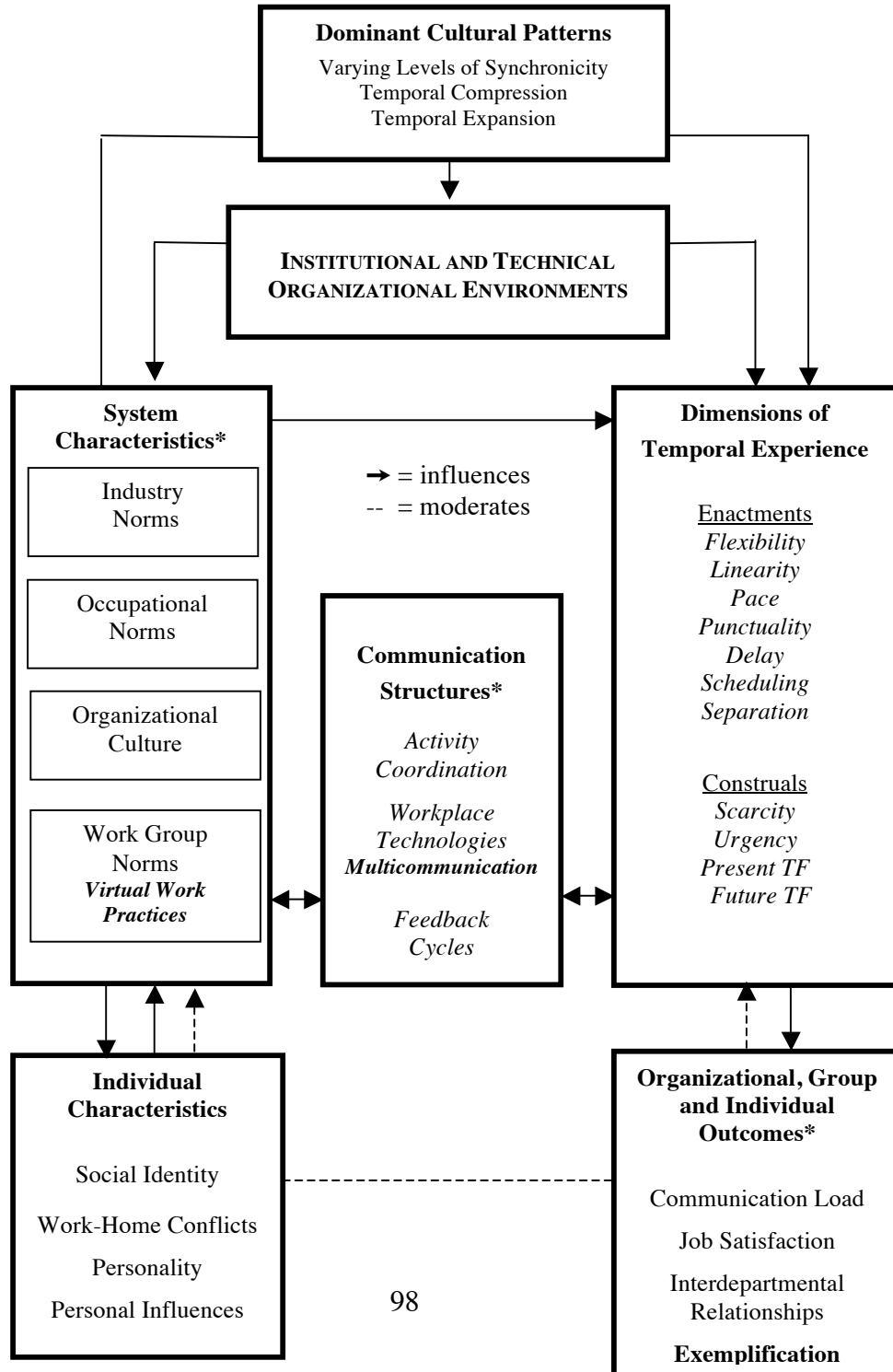
The increased use of ACITs has prompted scholars to explore the impact of mediated communication patterns on organizational communication, yet the communicative implications of organizational temporality are still understudied. By drawing on Ballard and Seibold’s (2003) meso model of organizational temporality, this study was able to identify the underlying temporal factors in contemporary organizational communication patterns and situate them into everyday mediated practices. This provided a more systematic approach to understanding and identifying their impact on temporal experience. Additionally, the temporal characteristics embedded in practices such as multicommutating and virtual work practices proved helpful in offering a clear relation to specific enactments and construals of time whereas previous accounts of this impact on time have been largely descriptive and theoretical.

As an example, Castells and colleagues’ (2007) description of *timeless time* provides a rich account of what occurs to time when communicating in a network society. Similarly, Hassan’s (2003) account of chronoscopic time places temporal compression at

the center of contemporary temporality. Yet, without direct empirical support, each concept remains descriptive rather than explanatory. Therefore, the findings in this study addressed the need for a solid theoretical base along with empirical evidence.

Figure 1

Meso Level Model of Organizational Temporality



FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this project help to provide support for what is often inferred but rarely systematically validated—the relationship between key mediated communication practices and the experience of time. As such, these findings and the knowledge gained through this research can be used as a catalyst to expand upon many of the topics addressed. In this section, three areas for future research are presented. First, a focus on what additional steps are needed in order to expand upon the description of “connected time,” or multicomunication is discussed. Second, the finding between exemplification and particular temporal dimensions suggests that future research should explore other key organizational outcomes. Third, because this project was conducted at a macro-level, a subsequent step would be to attempt to duplicate this study at an interorganizational and/or group level.

The findings in this study linking multicomunicating to key temporal dimensions and exemplification behaviors, helps clarify the impact of this practice as well as provides us with additional questions that future research might probe. Additionally, the lack of a finding between multicomunicating and linearity also leads us to question the validity of the description of this practice. Therefore, two particular areas of interest surrounding the practice of multicomunicating are recognized. First, there is a need to more deeply clarify the notion of polychronicity and multicomunicating. Second, it would be interesting to further evaluate how the quantity of open conversations as well as the specific channels used, relates to faster pace, urgency, and present time perspective.

The lack of a significant finding between multicommutating and referring to linearity in a negative fashion was surprising. Initially, the concept of multicommutication was intended to reflect polychronic communication. The authors have since changed it to multicommutication, but have maintained all along that polychronicity is indeed one of its primary characteristics. However, the lack of a significant finding with linearity but a positive relationship with pace raises a concern that can potentially lead to clarification of this practice. For instance, polychronicity has been explained by Bluedorn (2002) to reflect an individual's preference. In fact, previous empirical research adapted the Polychronic Values Scale (Bluedorn, Kallaith, Strube & Martin, 1999) in order to measure multicommutating where statements such as "I like to manage multiple conversation at the same time" clearly point to preference. This appears to be problematic because research on multicommutating has clearly noted that organizational norms and initiation of conversations by others suggests that individuals might multicommuticate despite having a preference for its practice. Along with a more advanced measure of multicommutating, future research should delve more deeply into this contradiction by evaluating those that multicommuticate with both monochronic and polychronic measures. This may provide clarity in refining its description. Perhaps polychronicity is a misnomer and since it was found that those that practice it often refer to a faster pace (a characteristic of multitasking), it's best to refer to it as interactive multitasking done either simultaneously or sequentially.

Additionally, the positive findings between multicommutating, pace, present time perspective, and urgency leads to questions of how quantity and actual channels

used shape such dimensions. For instance, it would be interesting to learn whether this practice shapes these dimensions in a general sense or in a more specific manner by way of the actual amount of open conversations. Regularly having thirteen conversations, for example, as was noted in a previous study, might influence a greater pace than regularly juggling three conversations. The actual channels used also may be useful to better understand its impact. In that same spirit, having thirteen IM conversations open versus two IM conversations while on a conference call may also shape these temporal experiences in different ways. A more qualitative approach might be able to isolate and evaluate such occurrences.

With the findings revealing the link between time and exemplifying behaviors, future inquiry should explore how impression management tactics are linked to key organizational outcomes such as technostress (Tarafdar, et al., 2007), job satisfaction, turnover, and burnout. Previous research has focused on a variety of issues including performance ratings, job interviews (Higgins & Judge, 2004), and organizational citizenship (Bolino, 1999). However, little research has focused on how non-verbal tactics such as exemplification relates to negative outcomes—those outcomes that can lead to psychological stress. Further, evidence of this might provide scholars with a clearer picture of the behaviors surrounding the addiction work and technology. Porter and Kakabadse (2005) argue that the fuel for work and technology addiction is often the disruption of flow and that “people become accustomed to a certain level of activation” (p. 538). This again places such temporal, nonverbal tactics such as sending emails at odd hours as potentially feeding such behaviors.

Last, despite the need for this study to have taken a more macro view at gauging dominant cultural patterns, a potential next step would be to duplicate this study at the interorganizational, organizational, and group level. Exploration at these levels is important because the experience of time is often context dependent. Moreover, examination at the organizational level allows for greater internal validity while the interorganizational level would allow for the ability to compare among differing work sectors.

LIMITATIONS

The findings in this study should be interpreted according to the limitations of the current study. First, due to the online sampling service used in this sample, the respondents were most likely technologically savvy respondents. Such participants may be those more accustomed to multicomputing and/or working from home via technical devices.

Second, the self-reported data used in this study, especially with the chosen topics, may have affected results in terms of social desirability. Even though respondents may have taken this survey in the comfort of their own home, topics referring to temporal experience and exemplification may lead respondents to report differently from their actual experience. For instance, in a day and time where time management is valued (Ballard & Webster, 2009), respondents may have reported time as more clearly divided (i.e., temporal separation) and flexible. This may have also skewed reports of multicomputing where organizational members are more likely to report carrying out multiple conversations to appear efficient. The items exploring exemplification also

reflect behaviors (e.g., purposely appearing in particular ways to gain the attribution of dedication) that respondents often do not want to admit doing.

The one-item measure for multicomputing is an additional limitation to this study. While previous research have also relied on similar measurement as did this study for this concept, future research must find additional ways to find a more statistically robust measure to help with the validity and reliability of this practice. The one-item measure used in this study may not be fully representing the enactment of this practice and therefore the results may be misleading.

Last, the issue over time, or longitudinal, examination of the constructs for interest in this project is a fundamental weakness of its cross-sectional design. For example, reports of exemplifying tactics used within the last six months may not fully represent the consistency or inconsistency of this behavior. These tactics might be utilized at more times than at others. For example, when an organizational member is up for promotion, performance evaluations are due, or it's the company's end of quarter or year-end is near; individuals may be more likely to display these tactics. As a result, a more longitudinal study might better capture the validity of this tactic. Additionally, the measure for primary work location suffers from a similar limitation. For instance, it is unclear exactly how many days and hours respondents actually work at the reported primary location. This additional information could help clarify true potential differences among the various locations. This sample also did not have an evenly distributed amount of satellite, client, or at home office members. Although a more evenly distributed amount of each is difficult to achieve, it may have influenced the results. Future research

should either increase their sample population or evaluate an organization that offers specific telework programs to further validate these findings.

CONCLUSION

Is our experience of time changing? Or more specifically, when you use particular mediated communication practices, do you refer to time in particular ways? Additionally, do you use time to gain the attribution as a dedicated and committed work member from other members? The goal of this study was to address these overarching questions. By first establishing the dominant cultural patterns associated with Western culture (i.e., varying levels of synchronicity, temporal compression, and temporal expansion) this study was able to identify three practices (i.e., multicommuting, virtual work practices, and one's primary work location) that might be shaping the experience of time for contemporary organizational members. Through a systematic statistical analysis of the data gathered ($N = 405$), this project can help to answer the aforementioned questions and therefore contributes to communication research in important ways.

Multicommuting, a practice where individuals communicate with multiple people simultaneously (Reinsch et al., 2008), was linked to members' report of time as faster paced, greater urgency and present time perspective as well as lesser temporal flexibility. The mobile aspect of virtual work practices was linked to less flexibility but greater temporal separation and punctuality. Primary work location was also found to differ in temporal reports of the home office members compared to main office members in terms of less present time perspective, urgency, and pace yet greater flexibility. The impression management tactic, exemplification, was also linked to these behaviors. For

instance, those that multicomunicate and utilize virtual work practices were more likely to display exemplifying behaviors. However, organizational members that work from home were less likely to utilize these behaviors than their main office counterparts. Those displaying these behaviors also referred to time with greater urgency and present time perspective, but less temporal flexibility.

To date, little research has captured the relationship between specific technology related communication practices and time. Instead, talk about time has been treated as a backdrop description regarding ACIT use—leaving us to question whether time experience is indeed being altered due to contemporary practices. The findings in this study suggest that there are practices that share relationships with many of the temporal dimensions that previous research mentions but has failed to validate. Notably, this study found support that indicates that work mobility does not always equate to flexibility and that exemplifying behaviors are also demonstrated through technology such as email. This empirical study contributes to our current understanding of mediated communication practices, in general, and organizational temporality, in particular.

Tables

Table 1: Factor Loadings and Reliabilities for Temporal Dimensions

Dimension	Items	Factor Loading	Mean	Standard Deviation
Urgency ^a $\alpha = .88$	Pressing	.76	3.76	1.44
	An emergency	.78	2.93	1.51
	Urgent	.86	3.49	1.40
	Running Out	.83	3.49	1.50
	“Down to the wire”	.86	3.40	1.55
Present Time Perspective ^d $\alpha = .89$	What is ‘pressing’	.79	3.84	1.41
	Unfolding developments	.77	3.78	1.43
	Immediate consequences	.84	3.99	1.48
	The here-and-now	.79	4.15	1.38
	Presently developing issues	.80	4.08	1.41
	What is urgent today	.84	4.45	1.27
Flexibility ^b $\alpha = .826$	Set in stone	.74	3.90	1.48
	Inflexible	.80	4.05	1.42
	Fixed	.84	3.72	1.41
	Rigid	.87	3.99	1.46
Pace ^b $\alpha = .89$	Fast-paced	.80	4.00	1.37
	Hurried	.83	3.65	1.50
	Rapid	.88	3.73	1.40
	Quick	.84	3.73	1.44
	Racing	.81	3.28	1.47
	<i>Carried ‘out one thing at a time’</i>	.65	3.80	1.35
Linearity ^b $\alpha = .82$	Structured	.829	4.01	1.43
	Having a specific order	.85	4.04	1.37
	Carried out ‘step-by-step’	.82	4.05	1.37
	Punctual	.910	4.08	1.40
Punctuality $\alpha = .79$	Prompt	.910	4.01	1.40
	Divided up	.86	3.51	1.40
Separation ^b $\alpha = .80$	In ‘compartments’	.80	3.29	1.43
	<i>Interrupted</i>	.53	3.68	1.43
	Screening out distractions	.71	3.40	1.47
	Separated from each other	.83	3.33	1.41

- a. *These items were preceded by the following statement: “In my particular line of work, we usually talk about time as...”*
- b. These items were preceded by the following statement: “In my particular line of work, we usually talk about *our actions or activities* as...”
- c. These items were dropped on the basis of reliability analyses. All items that were dropped are indicated in italics.
- d. These items were preceded by the following statement: “In my particular line of work, we usually discuss *events that happen* at work in terms of...”

Table 2: Factor Loadings and Reliabilities for Exemplification

	Items	Factor Loading	Mean	Standard Deviation
Exemplification $\alpha = .87$	<i>Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower</i>	.41	2.73	1.25
	Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working.	.70	2.74	1.27
	Arrive at work early to look dedicated.	.72	3.19	1.35
	Come to office at nights or on weekends to show that you are dedicated.	.78	2.54	1.34
	Send electronic correspondences (e.g., emails, texts, voicemails, etc.) early to look dedicated.	.88	2.79	1.33
	Send electronic correspondences (e.g., emails, texts, voicemails, etc.) at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated.	.84	2.74	1.35

Instructions: How frequently in the last 6 months have you used the following strategies while at work or while working?

** These items were dropped on the basis of reliability analyses. All items that were dropped are indicated in italics.

Table 3: Factor Loadings and Reliabilities for Virtual Work Practices

Variable:	Items	Factor Loading	Mean	Standard Deviation
Team Distribution (VWPs) $\alpha = .77$	Collaborate with people in different time zones	.86	3.43	2.17
	Work with people via internet-based conference applications	.80	3.26	2.177
	Collaborate with people you have never met face to face	.82	4.07	2.13
Work Mobility (VWPs) $\alpha = .77$	Work at different company sites	.75	2.84	2.051
	Work with mobile devices	.80	3.82	2.40
	Work at home during normal business days	.72	3.33	2.28
	Work while traveling, e.g., at airports or hotels	.83	2.70	1.95

Instructions: How often do you experience each of the following aspects of your work?

** These items were dropped on the basis of reliability analyses. All items that were dropped are indicated in italics.

Table 4.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Flexibility)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.017	.017
Gender	.233	2.006	.100	.046		
Income	-.100	-1.473	-.073	.142		
Block 2					.164	.147*
Gender	.100	.908	.043	.364		
Income	.028	.427	.021	.670		
MC	-.080	-2.620	-.123	.009		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	-.221	-4.963	-.317	.000		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	-.016	-.384	-.024	.701		
Satellite Office (PWL)	.025	.141	.007	.888		
Client Location (PWL)	-.236	-1.154	-.054	.249		
Home Office (PWL)	.406	2.774	.134	.006		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 5.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Separation)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.018	.018
Gender	-.216	-2.057	-.102	.040		
Income	.098	1.606	.080	.109		
Block 2					.190	.171**
Gender	-.092	-.941	-.044	.347		
Income	-.039	-.662	-.031	.508		
MC	-.092	-.941	-.044	.347		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.200	5.003	.317	.000		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.039	1.063	.066	.289		
Satellite Office (PWL)	.033	.214	.010	.830		
Client Location (PWL)	-.132	-.724	-.034	.470		
Home Office (PWL)	-.386	-2.956	-.141	.003		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 6.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Punctuality)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.006	.006
Gender	-.125	-.983	-.049	.326		
Income	.088	1.686	.059	.236		
Block 2					.080	.073**
Gender	-.019	-.150	-.007	.881		
Income	-.015	-.200	-.010	.842		
MC	.045	1.299	.064	.195		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.183	3.574	.240	.000		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.024	.515	.034	.607		
Satellite Office (PWL)	.002	.011	.001	.991		
Client Location (PWL)	-.020	-.084	-.004	.933		
Home Office (PWL)	-.170	-1.017	-.052	.310		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 7.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Present Time Perspective)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.015	.015
Gender	-.038	-.335	-.017	.737		
Income	.161	2.42	.120	.079		
Block 2					.181	.166**
Gender	.052	.493	.023	.623		
Income	.021	.330	.016	.742		
MC	.101	3.45	.159	.001		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.094	2.18	.138	.030		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.134	3.34	.207	.001		
Satellite Office (PWL)	-.160	-.945	-.044	.345		
Client Location (PWL)	.066	.333	.016	.739		
Home Office (PWL)	-.525	-3.71	-.178	.000		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 8.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Linearity)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.011	.011
Gender	-.227	-2.09	-.105	.894		
Income	-.008	-.133	-.007	.036		
Block 2					.075	.064**
Gender	-.150	-1.399	-.069	.163		
Income	-.082	-1.269	-.064	.205		
MC	-.015	-.503	-.025	.616		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.118	2.712	.182	.007		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.059	1.461	.097	.145		
Satellite Office (PWL)	-.118	-.686	-.034	.493		
Client Location (PWL)	.162	.808	.040	.420		
Home Office (PWL)	-.051	-.353	-.018	.724		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 9.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Pace)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.006	.006
Gender	-.140	-1.175	-.059	.241		
Income	-.067	.968	.048	.334		
Block 2					.254	.248**
Gender	-.031	-.295	-.013	.768		
Income	-.112	-1.755	-.080	.080		
MC	.171	5.815	.257	.000		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.146	3.380	.204	.001		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.108	2.679	.159	.008		
Satellite Office (PWL)	-.381	-2.249	-.100	.025		
Client Location (PWL)	-.285	-1.443	-.064	.150		
Home Office (PWL)	-.743	-5.252	-.240	.000		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 10.

Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (DV: Urgency)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.014	.014
Gender	.069	.574	.029	.566		
Income	1.68	2.392	.119	.017		
Block 2					.228	.214**
Gender	.180	1.652	.075	.099		
Income	.008	.128	.006	.898		
MC	.162	5.365	.241	.000		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.162	3.645	.224	.000		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.104	2.525	.152	.012		
Satellite Office (PWL)	-.334	-1.919	-.087	.056		
Client Location (PWL)	-.058	-.287	-.013	.774		
Home Office (PWL)	-.431	-2.967	-.138	.003		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 11.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (IVs: Temporal Dimensions; DV: Exemplification)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.003	.003
Gender	-.103	-1.062	-.053	.289		
Income	.016	.273	.014	.785		
Block 2					.227	.224**
Gender	-.065	-.735	-.033	.463		
Income	-.047	-.906	-.041	.366		
Present Time Perspective	.120	2.227	.140	.027		
Linearity	-.025	-.399	-.027	.690		
Pace	.066	1.017	.082	.310		
Flexibility	-.215	-3.802	-.258	.000		
Urgency	.118	1.903	.146	.058		
Separation	-.100	-1.443	-.109	.150		
Punctuality	.079	1.670	.103	.096		

Note: ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 12.
Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model (IVs: MC, VWP, & PWL; DV: Exemplification)

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Block 1					.003	.003
Gender	-.103	-.1062	-.053	.289		
Income	.016	.273	.014	.785		
Block 2					.281	.278**
Gender	.034	.396	.017	.692		
Income	-.140	-2.752	-.123	.006		
MC	.099	4.217	.183	.000		
Work Mobility (VWPs)	.220	6.367	.378	.000		
Team Distribution (VWPs)	.077	2.392	.139	.017		
Satellite Office (PWL)	-.071	-.528	-.023	.598		
Client Location (PWL)	-.108	-.683	-.030	.495		
Home Office (PWL)	-.264	-2.338	-.105	.020		

Note: MC = Multicommunicating. VWPs = Virtual Work Practices. PWL = Primary Work Location. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 13.
Factor
Correlations

	Urgency	PTP	Pace	Linearity	Punctuality	Separation	Flexibility	Exemplification	Team Distribution
Urgency									
PTP	.60								
Pace	.78	.61							
Linearity	.44	.49	.42						
Punctuality	.39	.48	.41	.68					
Separation	.65	.54	.69	.57	.47				
Flexibility	-.58	-.37	-.59	-.55	-.41	-.70			
Exemplification	.40	.35	.39	.29	.30	.33	-.39		
Team Distribution	.35	.34	.34	.21	.21	.30	-.26	.40	
Work Mobility	.34	.29	.32	.24	.27	.37	-.35	.46	.67

Note: PTP = Present Time
Perspective
At $N = 405$ All Correlation
Values are Significant

Appendix A: Temporal Experience Scale

Instructions: Please think about the ways you typically refer to time in the course of carrying out your daily tasks at work. Read the statements below and then rate each of the words or phrases that follow based upon how well they describe the way you talk about time with others in your immediate work group or work unit on most days. The words/phrases are NOT meant to reflect your EXACT language, but the kinds of issues that come up in your communication.

In my particular line of work, we usually talk about time as...

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
• pressing	1	2	3	4	5	6
• inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	6
• scarce	1	2	3	4	5	6
• an emergency	1	2	3	4	5	6
• not enough	1	2	3	4	5	6
• plentiful	1	2	3	4	5	6
• urgent	1	2	3	4	5	6
• running out	1	2	3	4	5	6
• abundant	1	2	3	4	5	6
• “down to the wire”	1	2	3	4	5	6
• limited	1	2	3	4	5	6

In my particular line of work, we usually talk about events that happen in terms of...

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
• future developments	1	2	3	4	5	6
• what is ‘pressing’	1	2	3	4	5	6
• unfolding developments	1	2	3	4	5	6
• long-term plans	1	2	3	4	5	6
• immediate consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6
• the here-and-now	1	2	3	4	5	6
• anticipated events	1	2	3	4	5	6
• presently developing issues	1	2	3	4	5	6
• what is urgent today	1	2	3	4	5	6
• projected dates	1	2	3	4	5	6
• long-term expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6

- upcoming activities 1 2 3 4 5 6

In my particular line of work, we usually talk about our actions or activities as...

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
• set in stone	1	2	3	4	5	6
• fast-paced	1	2	3	4	5	6
• carried out 'one thing at a time'	1	2	3	4	5	6
• behind schedule	1	2	3	4	5	6
• interrupted	1	2	3	4	5	6
• structured	1	2	3	4	5	6
• running late	1	2	3	4	5	6
• having a specific order	1	2	3	4	5	6
• hurried	1	2	3	4	5	6
• inflexible	1	2	3	4	5	6
• unplanned	1	2	3	4	5	6
• screening out distractions	1	2	3	4	5	6
• delayed	1	2	3	4	5	6
• rapid	1	2	3	4	5	6
• separated from each other	1	2	3	4	5	6
• divided up	1	2	3	4	5	6
• quick	1	2	3	4	5	6
• unscheduled	1	2	3	4	5	6
• in 'compartments'	1	2	3	4	5	6
• fixed	1	2	3	4	5	6
• rigid	1	2	3	4	5	6
• racing	1	2	3	4	5	6
• carried out 'step-by-step'	1	2	3	4	5	6
• tightly scheduled	1	2	3	4	5	6
• punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6
• prompt	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B: Virtuality Scale

Instructions: How often do you experience each of the following aspects of your work?

Collaborate with people in different time zones

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Work with people via internet-based conferencing applications

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Collaborate with people you have never met face to face

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Work at different company work sites

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Work with mobile devices

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Work at home during normal business days

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Work while traveling, e.g., at airports or hotels

Never (1); Less than once a month (2); Once a month (3); 2-3 times a month (4); Once a week (5); 2-3 times a week (6); Daily (7)

Appendix C: Multicommunication

Instructions: In this section, you will be asked to describe how you carry out conversations while at work. These conversations may include using both face-to-face conversations and/or conversations via various technologies. While answering these questions, please focus on how you communicate in a typical day at work.

There are two ways to think about how you communicate with others at work. One, you may carry out one conversation at a time (e.g., having one telephone conversation without any other conversation taking place). Or, you may carry on multiple conversations (2 or more) all at once by using different technologies (e.g., you may be participating on a conference call and, at the same time, using IM in order to carry on two additional conversations).

When I communicate with others, I tend to:

... engage in one conversation at a time (1); (2); (3); (4); (5); (6); ...engage in multiple conversations all at once (7).

How often do you engage in multiple conversations at once?

- (1) Never
- (2) Occasionally
- (3) Often
- (4) Always

Appendix D: Exemplification Scale

Instructions: *How frequently in the last 6 months have you used the following strategies while at work or while working?*

Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower.

(1) never behave this way, (2) very rarely behave this way, (3) occasionally behave this way, (4) sometimes behave this way, and (5) often behave this way.

Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working.

(1) never behave this way, (2) very rarely behave this way, (3) occasionally behave this way, (4) sometimes behave this way, and (5) often behave this way.

Arrive at work early to look dedicated.

(1) never behave this way, (2) very rarely behave this way, (3) occasionally behave this way, (4) sometimes behave this way, and (5) often behave this way.

Come to the office at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated.

(1) never behave this way, (2) very rarely behave this way, (3) occasionally behave this way, (4) sometimes behave this way, and (5) often behave this way.

Send electronic correspondences (e.g., emails, texts, voicemails, etc.) early to look dedicated.

(1) never behave this way, (2) very rarely behave this way, (3) occasionally behave this way, (4) sometimes behave this way, and (5) often behave this way.

Send electronic correspondences (e.g., emails, texts, voicemails, etc.) at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated.

(1) never behave this way, (2) very rarely behave this way, (3) occasionally behave this way, (4) sometimes behave this way, and (5) often behave this way.

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VITA

Dina Inman Ramgolam was born in Seguin, Texas on September 27, 1973, the daughter of Warren and Dahlia Inman. After completing her work at Judson High School, Converse, Texas in 1992, she worked and later finished the degree of Bachelor of Arts at the University of Texas at San Antonio in Speech Communication. During the following years she worked for the Dallas Morning News and Bank of American before deciding to return to school. In the fall of 2005 she entered Graduate School at the University of Texas at Austin. She received the degree of Master of Arts in communication studies in May, 2007. She continued on in the Ph.D. program and taught classes at the University of Texas. During her graduate years she co-authored a Top Four Paper in Human Communication & Technology at the National Communication Association. This paper, entitled, *The rate and delay in overload: An investigation of communication overload and channel synchronicity of identification and job satisfaction*, was later published in the *Journal of Applied Communication Research*. She also received the UT Department of Communication Studies Outstanding Teaching Assistant Award in 2008.

Permanent email address:

dinainram@yahoo.com

This dissertation was typed by the author.