

# THE COLLAPSE OF “BEST PRACTICES” IN INVESTOR RELATIONS:

Toward an Adaptive, Evidence-Based Framework  
for Evaluating IR Effectiveness

*A Breakwater Capital Markets Working Paper for Investor  
Relations Officers, Boards, CEOs, CFOs, and Capital Markets  
Leaders*

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## The Collapse of “Best Practices” in Investor Relations:

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### Executive Summary

Investor relations has entered a period of conceptual exhaustion. For decades, public companies have organized substantial portions of their investor relations activity around the language of “best practices,” a phrase that implies empirical authority, professional consensus, and repeatable effectiveness. Yet many practices marketed under this label have not been validated against the outcomes that should matter most: investor comprehension, message recall, credibility, shareholder alignment, forecast quality, valuation resilience, cost of capital, and long-term narrative durability. The central claim of this paper is that much of the modern IR industry has mistaken convention for evidence. Practices become “best practices” not because they have been causally shown to improve capital-market outcomes, but because they are widely adopted, commercially reinforced, peer-benchmarked, and institutionally safe.

This paper argues that the traditional best-practice model does not work today. Investor relations operates in an environment shaped by passive ownership, algorithmic interpretation, alternative data, compressed attention, AI-assisted research workflows, fragmented buy-side decision-making, and rapidly decaying narrative differentiation. In such an environment, static templates lose effectiveness quickly. A communication structure that once differentiated a company becomes imitated, standardized, machine-parsed, discounted, and eventually converted into background noise.

The paper examines six practices commonly promoted as IR orthodoxy: benchmarking and peer comparisons in perception studies, sequential company comparisons, key-message slides, dense investor day materials, small-sample qualitative research, and consensus-driven communication frameworks. Each is evaluated through the lenses of behavioral economics, cognitive psychology, information theory, disclosure research, statistical inference, and market structure. The critique is not that these practices are always wrong. The critique is that they are often treated as self-evidently effective without adequate evidence.

The paper proposes the **Adaptive Evidence-Based Investor Relations Operating System**, or **AE-IR OS**, as an alternative. AE-IR OS replaces static best-practice thinking with hypothesis-based communication, audience-specific cognition, signal credibility, information design, outcome measurement, and continuous recalibration. Under this framework, a practice is effective only if it improves measurable investor outcomes for a specific company, with a specific investor base, under specific market conditions. The future of investor relations will not belong to companies that imitate accepted playbooks. It will belong to companies that build superior learning systems.

## **I. Introduction: The End of Best Practices**

Investor relations has frequently borrowed authority from the vocabulary of professional standardization. “Best practice” is a reassuring phrase. It tells boards that management is acting responsibly, tells CFOs that the company is aligned with market expectations, tells IROs that their programs compare favorably with peers, and tells consultants that their recommendations rest on something more durable than taste. Yet the phrase conceals a substantial methodological problem. In investor relations, “best practice” often means a practice that is common among visible companies, recommended by influential advisors, reinforced by industry conferences, and repeated through benchmarking studies. It does not necessarily mean a practice that has been empirically shown to improve market understanding, valuation, credibility, shareholder quality, or investor decision-making.

The distinction is foundational. A practice that is widely adopted may be no more effective than the alternatives it displaced. A practice investors say they like may not change their behavior. A practice that makes management more comfortable may reduce differentiation in the market. A practice that works in one sector may fail in another. A practice that appears successful in one ownership regime may decay when investor workflows, market structure, technology, or information velocity changes. The investor relations industry often treats these uncertainties as implementation problems. They are, more fundamentally, epistemological problems. The relevant question is not whether a company is following accepted practice. The relevant question is how the company knows that the practice works.

This paper does not argue that investor relations is unimportant. The opposite is true. Empirical research supports the proposition that IR affects visibility, investor following, and market value, particularly for smaller and less visible companies. Bushee and Miller’s study of investor relations, firm visibility, and investor following is important because it establishes that IR activity can matter in observable capital-market outcomes. But evidence that IR can increase visibility does not validate every convention marketed under the IR umbrella. Visibility is not comprehension. Meetings are not conviction. Positive feedback is not valuation resilience. Familiarity is not credibility. Activity is not effectiveness.

The capital-markets literature gives investor relations a serious theoretical foundation, but it also complicates simplistic claims about communication efficacy. Disclosure research has emphasized the role of corporate reporting and voluntary communication in reducing information asymmetry between managers and outside investors. Verrecchia’s taxonomy of disclosure theory distinguishes among association-based, discretionary-based, and efficiency-based disclosure research, while Healy and Palepu’s review of the empirical disclosure literature situates disclosure within the broader relationship between information asymmetry, capital markets, and corporate reporting. These literatures support the general importance of disclosure, but they do not support the stronger claim that any particular IR convention is effective merely because it is widely practiced.

The decline of best-practice thinking is therefore not an attack on IR professionalism. It is a demand for a higher standard of professionalism. The future of the function will depend less on whether companies can imitate accepted forms and more on whether they can build learning systems capable of measuring how investors actually process, remember, discount, believe, and act on corporate information.

## **II. Methodological Note and Limits of the Argument**

This paper synthesizes research from investor relations, accounting, finance, behavioral economics, cognitive psychology, information theory, and statistical methodology to evaluate whether several widely promoted IR practices have stronger professional authority than evidentiary support. The argument proceeds by triangulation. It does not claim that benchmarking, perception studies, key-message slides, dense slides, qualitative interviews, or consensus frameworks are always ineffective. Rather, it argues that these practices are often overgeneralized, under-measured, and treated as validated prescriptions despite substantial methodological limitations.

The limits of the paper are important. First, many IR outcomes are intrinsically difficult to isolate because equity-market outcomes are affected by fundamentals, macroeconomic conditions, liquidity, ownership flows, sector rotation, and investor sentiment. Second, the paper does not present a proprietary dataset proving that any single practice destroys or creates value. Third, the proposed framework is not a universal causal model; it is an operating discipline for improving decision quality under uncertainty. Fourth, the paper recognizes that experienced IR professionals possess valuable tacit knowledge. Its critique is not of practitioner judgment, but of the conversion of practitioner convention into universal doctrine.

The paper's contribution is methodological. It reframes investor relations as a measurable decision-architecture problem. It argues that the industry should replace static best-practice imitation with adaptive evidence generation. Its standard is not whether a practice is familiar, defensible, or consultant-approved. Its standard is whether the practice measurably improves investor cognition, credibility, shareholder alignment, and capital-market decision efficiency.

## **III. From Disclosure Function to Advisory Ecosystem**

Investor relations began as a disclosure-oriented discipline. Its original mandate was comparatively narrow: ensure that investors received accurate, timely, and compliant information about corporate performance. In an earlier market structure, when analyst coverage was more concentrated, dissemination channels were slower, management access was more constrained, and information asymmetry was greater, the IRO's role was primarily connective. IR served as a bridge between management and markets, translating corporate performance into investor-facing language and translating market concerns back to management.

Over time, the function became broader, more strategic, and more ambiguous. Institutional ownership expanded. Sell-side research became more competitive. Activism professionalized. Capital markets globalized. Management teams became more valuation-conscious. Corporate reputation, governance, ESG, capital allocation, and strategic narrative became increasingly intertwined with investor perception. IR consequently evolved into a hybrid discipline combining disclosure, capital markets intelligence, communications strategy, investor targeting, perception management, narrative construction, executive positioning, and market signaling.

This expansion created demand for advisory specialization. Around the corporate IR function grew a dense ecosystem of consultants, perception-study firms, investor targeting providers, surveillance vendors, communications advisors, investor day specialists, corporate access intermediaries, governance advisors, and technology platforms. Many of these providers deliver genuine value. The problem is not the existence of the ecosystem. The problem is that the ecosystem has economic incentives to convert ambiguity into productized certainty.

A vendor cannot easily sell “context-dependent uncertainty.” It can sell benchmarking. It can sell message architecture. It can sell investor targeting models. It can sell perception diagnostics. It can sell investor day best practices. It can sell post-event feedback. It can sell the comfort of comparison. The more ambiguous the causal relationship between communication and market outcomes, the more valuable the appearance of method becomes. This creates a structural incentive to promote standardized practices even where evidence is incomplete.

The result is a professional culture in which conventions are often treated as if they were empirically validated. Once a practice is adopted by respected companies, endorsed by advisors, repeated at conferences, and incorporated into benchmarking studies, it becomes difficult to challenge. The practice acquires institutional legitimacy. This dynamic resembles what DiMaggio and Powell described as institutional isomorphism: organizations in a field become more similar over time not necessarily because similarity improves performance, but because professional norms, uncertainty, and legitimacy pressures reward conformity. Investor relations is particularly vulnerable to this phenomenon because the function sits at the intersection of capital-market anxiety, board oversight, management reputation, and external advisory influence.

This is why the phrase “best practice” should be treated with caution. In a mature advisory ecosystem, best practice can become less an empirical claim than a social signal. It tells the board that the company is not being reckless. It tells management that it is aligned with peer norms. It tells vendors that the recommendation is easy to defend. But a defensible recommendation is not necessarily an effective one.

#### **IV. Why Investor Relations Practices Are Structurally Difficult to Validate**

Investor relations is difficult to evaluate because it operates inside a complex adaptive system. Equity prices, valuation multiples, investor behavior, liquidity, analyst sentiment, and shareholder composition are influenced by macroeconomic conditions, monetary policy, sector rotation, factor exposures, liquidity regimes, earnings revisions, fund flows, competitive developments, regulatory changes, passive ownership, activist campaigns, and exogenous shocks. Against this background, isolating the effect of a specific IR practice is extraordinarily difficult.

Modern finance has long recognized the difficulty of extracting causal clarity from market prices. Fama's efficient markets framework emphasizes the speed with which prices incorporate available information, Grossman and Stiglitz argue that perfectly informationally efficient markets are impossible because information acquisition must be costly and rewarded, and Lo's adaptive markets hypothesis reframes market efficiency as dynamic, shaped by competition, adaptation, and changing market ecology. Taken together, these frameworks imply that communication practices cannot be evaluated as if they act on markets in a stable, linear, and mechanically observable way.

The absence of controlled experimentation magnifies the problem. Public companies rarely test investor communication with the rigor expected in behavioral science, clinical research, product design, or modern data science. Investor day formats, disclosure architectures, key-message structures, slide density, perception-study design, and investor targeting methodologies are usually selected through precedent, advisor recommendation, executive preference, or peer imitation. The resulting evidence is mostly observational. A company changes its messaging and later experiences multiple expansion, but the valuation change may have been driven by earnings momentum, sector rotation, lower rates, margin improvement, index flows, or competitive developments. Another company may execute a sophisticated IR program and still underperform because fundamentals deteriorate. In both cases, communication is entangled with everything else that markets price.

Survivorship bias further distorts IR learning. Companies with strong stock performance and admired management teams are often reverse-engineered into models. Their presentations, investor days, disclosure choices, and messaging structures are studied as if they caused the success. Companies using similar practices but producing inferior outcomes are rarely studied with equal enthusiasm. This is the IR equivalent of drawing management lessons only from winners. The apparent best practice may simply be a halo around superior fundamentals.

Selection bias also affects the evidence base. Companies that commission perception studies, hire IR consultants, host major investor days, and participate actively in advisory benchmarking are not randomly selected. They are typically larger, more resource-intensive, more professionally managed, and more engaged with the capital markets

advisory ecosystem. Their practices may reflect the preferences of the advisory class as much as the requirements of superior investor communication. When these same companies become benchmarking inputs, the industry risks measuring its own influence and calling it evidence.

Finally, the relevant outcomes are difficult to measure. Investor relations is often assessed through activity metrics such as number of meetings, conference participation, investor touchpoints, inbound interest, target-list conversion, or anecdotal feedback. These measures are convenient but incomplete. The deeper outcomes are harder: investor comprehension, recall, belief revision, forecast dispersion, credibility formation, shareholder durability, investor decision efficiency, cost of capital, volatility asymmetry, valuation resilience, and narrative durability. A serious IR framework must move from activity measurement to outcome measurement.

## **V. Six Case Studies in Unvalidated IR Orthodoxy**

### **1. Benchmarking and Peer Comparisons in Investor Perception Studies**

Benchmarking is one of the central rituals of modern investor relations. Companies want to know how their disclosure, investor day structure, capital allocation messaging, management accessibility, ESG communication, financial targets, and investor presentation compare with peers. The appeal is obvious. Public companies are valued relatively, investors compare alternatives, and boards expect management teams to understand competitive positioning. Yet benchmarking often becomes more than a diagnostic input. It becomes a normative force. It tells companies not merely where they differ, but where they should conform.

- The first methodological problem is false equivalence. Peer companies may share an industry classification, compete in overlapping markets, or trade against similar valuation comps, while differing substantially in business mix, capital intensity, margin structure, cyclicity, leverage, geographic exposure, management credibility, strategic maturity, investor base, and disclosure complexity. A perception benchmark that places these companies into a single comparative frame may produce the appearance of precision while obscuring the contextual differences that should determine communication strategy.
- The second problem is behavioral. Benchmarking changes the decision environment. Tversky and Kahneman's work on judgment under uncertainty showed that people rely on heuristics such as anchoring, availability, and representativeness when making judgments under uncertainty. Peer data can therefore become an anchor. Once management sees how competitors structure disclosure, define metrics, design investor days, or state capital allocation priorities, those practices become psychologically privileged

reference points. The company may then optimize toward what is familiar rather than what is effective.

- The third problem is institutional. Benchmarking can become a mechanism of isomorphism. DiMaggio and Powell's institutional theory helps explain why companies in the same field converge toward similar structures under conditions of uncertainty and professionalization. In investor relations, consultants, board expectations, investor conference norms, and peer benchmarking all intensify convergence. Over time, the language of IR becomes standardized. Companies emphasize the same themes, organize presentations similarly, adopt similar metrics, and frame strategic narratives within the same narrow vocabulary of disciplined capital allocation, resilient growth, operational excellence, and long-term value creation.

The information-theoretic cost is substantial. Shannon's theory of communication is not a theory of investor persuasion, but it provides a useful conceptual warning: information has value because it reduces uncertainty. If investor communications become increasingly predictable across a sector, their incremental informational value declines. A message that merely confirms category convention may be professionally acceptable but strategically weak.

Benchmarking may therefore undermine the very objective it claims to support. It can make companies more comparable but less distinctive, more professional but less memorable, more aligned with peer norms but less capable of communicating the specific economic logic that should differentiate valuation. The central empirical question is not whether investors or consultants prefer benchmarking. The central question is whether benchmarking predicts superior investor comprehension, forecast accuracy, shareholder durability, or valuation resilience. In most IR practice, that causal bridge is asserted rather than demonstrated.

A stylized example illustrates the failure mode. A mid-cap industrial company compares its disclosure with three larger peers and learns that all three provide more granular segment margin bridges. The company adopts the peer format, but its business model is less mature, more cyclical, and more exposed to project timing. The new disclosure increases apparent comparability but reduces strategic clarity by forcing the company into a peer template that does not match its economics. Management becomes "more benchmarked" and less understood.

## **2. Sequential Company Comparisons in Investor Perception**

Sequential comparison is common in perception research. Investors are asked to compare Company A with Company B, one management team with another, one investor day with another, or one narrative with another. The method appears natural because investors themselves compare investment opportunities. But the psychological stability of sequential comparison is much weaker than its intuitive appeal suggests.

The core problem is that comparative judgment is context-dependent. Investors do not evaluate each company in a vacuum. The company discussed first can frame the company discussed second. A management team may seem more credible immediately after a weaker comparator, or less compelling after a stronger one. A disclosure package may appear clear only because the prior company's disclosure was confusing. A strategy may appear differentiated because the immediately preceding discussion made the peer set seem undifferentiated. The research instrument can therefore influence the response.

Kahneman and Tversky's prospect theory showed that decision-making under risk is highly sensitive to framing and reference points. That insight matters for IR perception studies because sequential comparison creates reference points inside the interview itself. Investors may think they are describing stable views, but the structure of the interview can shape the salience, contrast, and perceived weight of those views.

This is not a claim that investors are unsophisticated. Sophisticated cognition is still cognition. Professional investors may possess sector expertise, modeling discipline, and deep company knowledge, but they are still subject to order effects, recency effects, contrast effects, and framing effects. A perception study that asks for sequential comparisons without randomization, counterbalancing, or explicit controls may generate findings that are more fragile than the resulting presentation deck suggests.

The risk is amplified when qualitative findings are converted into strategic recommendations. If investors say one company is more "credible," "clear," "transparent," or "compelling" than another, management may infer that the weaker-rated company should imitate the stronger-rated one. But the response may reflect recent stock performance, question order, market sentiment, investor memory, framing, or the salience of a recent event. Without a design capable of separating durable belief from induced comparison, sequential perception research may manufacture the perceptions it claims to measure.

A research-grade IR function should therefore treat sequential comparison as a potentially contaminating method, not a neutral instrument. If such comparisons are used, they should be randomized, coded systematically, interpreted probabilistically, and separated from claims of causal efficacy. Otherwise, the practice risks turning investor cognition into an artifact of survey design.

### **3. "Key Message" Slides in Investor Day Presentations**

The key-message slide has become a near-universal convention in investor day presentations. It usually summarizes the point management wants investors to retain: the company has durable growth, resilient margins, disciplined capital allocation, a differentiated strategy, or attractive long-term targets. The assumption is that explicit summarization improves comprehension and memory. That assumption is plausible, but it is not accurate.

Institutional investors do not process investor days as passive narrative recipients. They operate under uncertainty, time scarcity, prior beliefs, professional incentives, and competing opportunity sets. They synthesize management credibility, historical consistency, capital allocation behavior, competitive logic, segment economics, target achievability, tone, omissions, and the relationship between claims and evidence. They do not simply absorb the message management labels as important. They discount it, compare it, test it, and decide whether it changes their probability-weighted view of the business.

The distinction between assertion and signal is critical. Spence's signaling theory demonstrates that signals become credible when they are costly or differentially reliable under conditions of asymmetric information. In investor relations, an explicitly stated key message is generally a low-cost signal. Any management team can state that it has durable growth, an attractive portfolio, or disciplined capital allocation. The signal becomes credible only when supported by evidence that is costly to fake: historical execution, capital deployment discipline, observable operating metrics, incentive alignment, conservative target-setting, and consistency between prior statements and subsequent outcomes.

Behavioral decision research also cautions against assuming that message clarity equals belief change. Tversky and Kahneman's work shows that individuals simplify uncertain judgments through heuristics. In a capital markets setting, investors often treat managerial claims as inputs to be discounted rather than conclusions to be accepted. A key-message slide can improve organization, but it cannot substitute for signal credibility.

The more sophisticated the audience, the greater the risk that overt message framing triggers resistance. Institutional investors are trained to detect narrative management. They may interpret polished key-message slides as useful summaries, but they are unlikely to treat them as evidence. The relevant test is not whether the investor can repeat the key message after the meeting. The relevant test is whether the message altered the investor's beliefs about earnings durability, strategic coherence, risk distribution, management credibility, or valuation.

The best use of key-message architecture is therefore not repetition but cognitive compression. A message should compress evidence, not replace it. It should clarify the inferential path between data and investment conclusion. When key-message slides merely restate claims already visible in the title, they add little. When they help investors understand why a specific body of evidence changes the probability distribution of future outcomes, they can be useful. The difference is enormous.

#### 4. Dense Investor Day Slides

Dense investor day slides reflect one of the most persistent misconceptions in corporate communication: that more information necessarily produces more understanding. Companies often believe density signals rigor, transparency, preparation, and sophistication. The resulting materials are familiar: crowded charts, small text, multiple metrics, layered callouts, footnotes, segment bridges, sub-bullets, and complex visual logic compressed into a single page. The company believes it is demonstrating command of the business. The investor may experience cognitive overload.

Cognitive load theory provides a rigorous basis for this critique. Sweller's work showed that learning and problem-solving are constrained by limited cognitive processing capacity, and that poorly designed information environments can consume working memory in ways that reduce learning. Mayer and Moreno's multimedia learning research similarly emphasizes that humans process verbal and visual information through limited channels and that overloaded formats can impair comprehension. These findings do not cease to apply because the audience is financially sophisticated. Expertise changes what people can process efficiently; it does not eliminate working-memory constraints.

Miller's classic work on short-term memory capacity is often simplified, and later research has refined the precise capacity estimate, but the broader point remains highly relevant: human information processing has limits. Investor day slides that require the audience simultaneously to read, listen, interpret charts, evaluate numbers, follow management commentary, and update an investment thesis impose unnecessary cognitive burden. The investor may not engage more deeply with the material and as a result the investor may triage.

The finance literature reinforces this point. Hirshleifer and Teoh modeled the importance of limited attention and processing capacity in financial disclosure, showing that presentation choices can matter when investors are only partially attentive. Rennekamp's experimental work on processing fluency and disclosure readability found that more readable disclosures can strengthen investor reactions, illustrating that the ease with which information is processed may influence valuation judgments. The implication for investor day design is direct: disclosure format is not neutral. How information is organized affects how it is processed, weighted, and remembered.

Dense slides often fail because they collapse hierarchy. When every fact appears important, the audience must infer priority in real time. When every chart contains multiple messages, the intended insight competes with extraneous information. When management narrates one idea while the slide displays ten, cognitive channels conflict. The result is not sophistication; it is friction.

The paradox is that density may reduce the credibility it is meant to enhance. Excessive detail can signal weak prioritization, internal compromise, or anxiety about leaving

anything out. A rigorous investor day is not one that puts the greatest amount of information on each page. It is one that creates the clearest path from evidence to investor inference. The question should not be “Have we included everything?” The question should be “What does the investor need to understand, remember, and believe differently after this page?”

## **5. Small-Sample Quantitative Datasets**

Investor relations advisory work frequently relies on small-sample quantitative evidence: perception interviews, investor feedback calls, post-event readouts, targeting conversations, and thematic diagnostics. Such research can be valuable when treated as exploratory. It can reveal language, concerns, misunderstanding, emotional tone, and emerging hypotheses but become less useful when treated as representative evidence or strategic truth.

The statistical problem is straightforward. Small samples have limited power. Non-random samples are vulnerable to selection effects. Respondents willing to participate may differ systematically from those who decline. Interviewers can influence answers through phrasing, sequencing, tone, and follow-up. Management teams can overweight vivid comments because narrative evidence is psychologically compelling. Consultants can overinterpret directional findings because advisory recommendations require actionable conclusions.

Cohen’s work on statistical power remains relevant because it clarifies the relationship between sample size, effect size, significance thresholds, and the probability of detecting true effects. Many IR perception studies do not attempt statistical inference, but the underlying caution still applies: small samples should not be asked to support large generalizations.

The reproducibility literature adds a further warning. Ioannidis showed that the probability a research claim is true depends on study power, bias, the number of tested relationships, and the ratio of true to null relationships. Simmons, Nelson, and Simonsohn demonstrated how flexibility in data collection, analysis, and reporting can dramatically increase false-positive rates. These concerns are not limited to academic psychology or medicine. They apply to any advisory process in which small samples, flexible interpretation, and client-facing recommendations interact.

Confirmation bias is especially relevant in IR research. Nickerson’s review defines confirmation bias as the tendency to seek or interpret evidence in ways that are partial to existing beliefs, expectations, or hypotheses. In investor relations, a management team that already believes the market misunderstands the company may interpret selective comments as confirmation. A consultant hired to refine messaging may highlight comments that support messaging intervention. An IRO seeking resources may use qualitative feedback to validate a pre-existing strategic agenda.

The illusion of precision is amplified by presentation format. Qualitative findings are often delivered in polished decks, coded themes, charts, percentages, and executive summaries. The format can make weak evidence appear stronger than it is. A finding based on twelve investor interviews may be directionally useful, but it should not be treated as a stable representation of the market. A finding based on twenty interviews may identify a concern, but it cannot establish the valuation consequence of that concern without further evidence.

The appropriate standard is not to reject qualitative IR research, but to discipline it. Research outputs should distinguish exploratory observations from validated findings, separate respondent sentiment from market behavior, disclose sample limitations, identify selection bias, describe coding methods, and avoid converting anecdotes into universal prescriptions. A research-grade IR system should treat qualitative feedback as hypothesis generation.

## **6. Consensus-Driven Communication Frameworks**

Consensus-driven communication frameworks are attractive because they are safe. They produce familiar structures, recognizable vocabulary, polished presentations, and reassuring alignment with peer practice. They reduce internal anxiety. They make board review easier. They help advisors defend recommendations. But they can also create strategic sameness.

The modern public company vocabulary has become highly standardized. Companies describe disciplined capital allocation, resilient business models, attractive end markets, operational excellence, strong balance sheets, differentiated strategies, durable growth, and long-term value creation. These claims may be true. But if every peer says them, truth does not guarantee differentiation. A true but generic statement may have little strategic value in an attention-constrained market.

The institutional mechanism is again isomorphism. Professional norms push companies toward similarity, especially under uncertainty. Boards ask whether the company is in line with peers. Consultants cite benchmark norms. Executives fear looking unconventional. Over time, IR communication becomes increasingly polished and decreasingly distinctive.

The market mechanism is adaptation. Lo's adaptive markets hypothesis suggests that the effectiveness of strategies changes as market participants learn and environments evolve. Applied to investor relations, a communication practice may work when it is distinctive, decay when it is copied, and become noise when it is universal. The more successful a convention becomes, the faster it may lose signal value.

Investor attention research reinforces the importance of salience. Barber and Odean argue that attention matters because investors face a search problem across many securities, and Da, Engelberg, and Gao later use search behavior as a measure of investor attention.

These studies do not prove that distinctive IR communication creates valuation premiums, but they support the broader proposition that attention is economically relevant and scarce.

Consensus-driven IR may reduce the probability that a company is remembered, differentiated, or understood on its own terms. In a saturated market, memorability is not ornamental. It is part of capital-market competition. The superior alternative is not novelty for novelty's sake. It is strategic specificity. Effective IR should clarify what is genuinely distinctive about the company's economic model, capital allocation philosophy, operating cadence, competitive advantage, risk architecture, and management judgment. Consensus frameworks often obscure precisely those distinctions.

## **VI. Structural Forces Compressing the Half-Life of IR Practices**

The decline of static best practices is being accelerated by changes in market structure and information processing.

- The first force is information velocity. Corporate disclosures, earnings releases, transcripts, investor presentations, and management commentary are now disseminated, parsed, summarized, and compared almost immediately. The interpretive cycle that once unfolded over days now unfolds over minutes or seconds. This compression shortens the life of narrative advantage. A communication practice that once differentiated a company can be rapidly copied, normalized, and discounted.
- The second force is algorithmic interpretation. Corporate disclosures are increasingly processed by textual analytics, natural language processing systems, sentiment models, semantic search tools, and AI-assisted investment workflows. Loughran and McDonald's survey of textual analysis in accounting and finance emphasizes both the growing importance of textual methods and the implementation challenges associated with analyzing corporate language. Li's work on annual report readability finds relationships among textual complexity, firm performance, and earnings persistence. The implication is clear: corporate language is now data, and investor relations must account for both human and machine interpretation.
- The third force is the fragmentation of buy-side decision-making. Investment decisions increasingly involve portfolio managers, analysts, risk teams, data scientists, ESG specialists, governance teams, investment committees, and machine-assisted research systems. A single corporate narrative may not satisfy all of these users. Some require high-level strategic coherence. Others require data architecture. Others require governance evidence. Others require machine-readable consistency. IR must now serve multiple interpretive systems simultaneously.
- The fourth force is passive ownership. Index and passive strategies have become central to the ownership structure of public companies. The

Investment Company Institute reported that, in March 2026, U.S. indexed mutual funds and ETFs had combined assets of \$19.09 trillion, compared with \$17.12 trillion for active mutual funds and ETFs. Morningstar's year-end 2025 Active/Passive Barometer reported that 38% of active strategies survived and beat their average passive peer in 2025, while 21% did so over the decade through 2025. These figures do not eliminate the importance of active investors, but they change the economics of targeting, persuasion, and shareholder engagement.

- The fifth force is alternative data. Investors increasingly use data sources beyond traditional financial statements, filings, press releases, and management commentary. The SEC's 2022 risk alert describes alternative data as non-traditional information used in financial analysis and lists examples including satellite and drone imagery, credit card transaction analysis, social media and internet search data, geolocation data, and other non-traditional sources. The implication for that management narrative is now continuously cross-examined against external evidence.
- The sixth force is AI-assisted investment analysis. CFA Institute's 2024 survey found that 85% of employers saw a need for industry-wide standards and ethical guidelines for AI and generative AI in investment roles, while 82% said the absence of such standards hindered faster adoption. The point is not that AI replaces investor judgment. The point is that AI changes the interpretive layer between companies and investors. Management language, disclosure structure, semantic consistency, and data accessibility will increasingly shape how corporate information is filtered before a human decision-maker reviews it.
- The seventh force is the collapse of communication asymmetry. Investors now have access to alternative data, expert networks, transcripts, filings, social media, web analytics, machine-readable datasets, media sentiment, ownership databases, and competitive intelligence tools. Management still possesses superior internal knowledge, but it no longer controls the external information environment. The role of IR consequently shifts from information distribution to interpretive credibility. The company must help investors understand which facts matter, why they matter, how they connect to strategy, and whether management's interpretation deserves trust.

These forces collectively shrink the half-life of any IR best practice. A format becomes common. Investors adapt. Vendors standardize it. Competitors imitate it. Machines normalize it. The signal decays. The central advantage shifts from having the correct static template to having the superior learning system.

## VII. The Adaptive Evidence-Based Investor Relations Operating System

The alternative to best-practice orthodoxy is disciplined adaptation. This paper proposes the **Adaptive Evidence-Based Investor Relations Operating System**, or **AE-IR OS**, as a framework for evaluating and improving investor relations under conditions of uncertainty, market adaptation, and cognitive constraint.

AE-IR OS begins with a simple premise: investor relations should be treated as a measurable decision architecture. Its purpose is to improve the quality, speed, confidence, and durability of investor decision-making regarding the company.

- The first principle of AE-IR OS is hypothesis-based communication. Every major IR practice should be attached to an explicit hypothesis. A company should not redesign its investor day because dense slides are common or uncommon. It should redesign the investor day because it believes a specific change will improve comprehension, recall, credibility, belief revision, or investor decision efficiency. A company should not conduct perception research merely because peers do. It should conduct research because it has a defined uncertainty it needs to reduce.
- The second principle is audience-specific cognition. Investors are not a single audience. Long-only generalists, sector specialists, hedge funds, quant teams, ESG analysts, passive governance teams, sell-side analysts, and credit investors process information differently. AE-IR OS requires companies to define the cognitive task for each audience. What does this investor need to understand? What prior belief must be updated? What evidence is currently missing? What uncertainty is preventing conviction? What form of communication reduces that uncertainty most efficiently?
- The third principle is signal credibility. Corporate messages should be evaluated not by their polish but by their evidentiary weight. A strong message is one that is specific, verifiable, consistent with history, supported by observable data, aligned with capital allocation, and costly to fake. This is where signaling theory becomes central. Effective IR does not merely tell investors what management wants believed; it provides the evidentiary architecture that makes belief rational.
- The fourth principle is information design. Disclosure and presentation formats should be judged by how they affect investor processing. Cognitive load, hierarchy, sequencing, salience, redundancy, and memory architecture are not cosmetic concerns. They influence comprehension. Under AE-IR OS, an investor day is not a theater event. It is a structured cognition environment.
- The fifth principle is measurement. IR effectiveness should be evaluated through outcome metrics rather than activity metrics. Meeting volume, conference attendance, target-list outreach, and anecdotal feedback may remain useful operational data, but they should not be confused with

effectiveness. The stronger measures are investor comprehension, recall, forecast dispersion, modeling accuracy, question quality, ownership durability, active-holder alignment, volatility response, credibility persistence, and post-event belief revision.

- The sixth principle is continuous recalibration. Market environments change. Investor workflows change. Ownership structures change. AI tools change. Communication conventions decay. AE-IR OS therefore requires periodic reassessment of whether existing practices still work. The goal is not to find the permanent best practice. The goal is to maintain a system capable of discovering what works now, for whom, and under which conditions.

## VIII. The IR Effectiveness Measurement Framework

The AE-IR OS requires a measurement architecture that distinguishes activity from effectiveness. The table below is not a universal scorecard. It is a diagnostic model. Different companies should adapt it based on size, sector, ownership structure, liquidity, strategic complexity, and investor base. Its purpose is to force a more disciplined question: what observable evidence would persuade management and the board that IR is actually improving investor decision quality?

| <b>IR effectiveness dimension</b> | <b>Core question</b>   | <b>Possible observable proxies</b>  | <b>Common failure mode</b>   | <b>Governance implication</b>  |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|--|--|
| Investor comprehension            | Do investors understand the economic model and strategic value drivers?  | Lower recurring clarification questions, improved analyst model consistency, narrower forecast dispersion where appropriate, stronger investor question quality | Investors repeat slogans but misunderstand economics               | Board should ask whether IR materials reduce actual misunderstanding, not merely improve presentation polish |
| Investor recall                   | Do investors remember the right things after major communications?       | Post-event recall testing, follow-up call themes, investor language analysis, frequency of correct thesis reproduction  | Management believes a message landed because it was stated clearly | IR should test what investors retain, not what the company intended to communicate                           |
| Credibility                       | Do investors trust management's interpretation under uncertainty?        | Reaction to guidance changes, consistency between prior claims and outcomes, sentiment stability, willingness to engage during adverse periods                  | Polished messaging masks weak evidence                             | CFO and board should track credibility as an accumulated asset   |
| Shareholder quality               | Does the shareholder base match the company's strategy and time horizon? | Holding-period durability, turnover, active/passive mix, mandate fit, engagement quality, ownership concentration   | Targeting produces meetings without durable ownership              | IR should prioritize aligned capital, not meeting volume   |
| Strategic differentiation         | Can investors articulate why the company is economically distinct?       | Investor language analysis, thematic distinctiveness, reduced generic peer framing, independent investor thesis quality   | Company sounds professional but interchangeable                    | Board should challenge peer conformity when it weakens distinctiveness                                       |

| <b>IR effectiveness dimension</b> | <b>Core question</b>  | <b>Possible observable proxies</b>   | <b>Common failure mode</b>                              | <b>Governance implication</b>   |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|---|---|
| Valuation resilience              | Does the market distinguish temporary noise from structural impairment?                     | Relative drawdown behavior, multiple stability across shocks, volatility asymmetry, recovery after transitory misses         | IR overclaims ability to control stock price            | Measurement should focus on resilience and interpretation, not short-term price management  |
| Decision efficiency               | Does IR reduce the time and effort required for target investors to understand the company? | Faster diligence conversion, improved inbound quality, shorter education cycles, more focused follow-up questions            | IR maximizes information quantity rather than usability | IR materials should be designed as investor decision tools                                  |
| Narrative durability              | Does the strategic narrative remain coherent across cycles and adversity?                   | Consistency across earnings calls, investor days, capital allocation actions, M&A, downturns, and leadership transitions     | Narrative changes opportunistically with market fashion | Board should evaluate whether communication reflects strategy or merely adapts to sentiment |
| Machine interpretability          | Can AI and textual systems parse the company accurately?                                    | Readability metrics, semantic consistency, transcript clarity, structured data quality, reduced ambiguity in key disclosures | Human-facing polish ignores machine-mediated analysis   | IR should design disclosure for both human and algorithmic interpretation                   |
| Cost-of-capital relevance         | Does IR reduce avoidable uncertainty and information friction?                              | Investor recognition, liquidity, bid-ask spreads, ownership breadth, analyst following, information asymmetry proxies        | IR treats visibility as an end rather than a means      | IR should connect communication quality to capital-market frictions                         |

This framework draws on several strands of literature. Merton’s investor recognition model links incomplete investor awareness to equilibrium expected returns, suggesting that shareholder recognition and information reach may have economic consequences. Disclosure research connects information quality and asymmetry to capital-market outcomes. Limited-attention research shows that how information is presented matters when investors have processing constraints. Textual-analysis research shows that corporate language itself can be systematically studied and connected to market behavior.

## **IX. Implications for CFOs, IROs, Boards, and Advisors**

For CFOs, the implication is that IR should be managed as a capital-market learning system. The CFO should ask whether the IR program improves investor understanding of the company's financial model, capital allocation logic, risk profile, and long-term value creation pathway. The CFO should be skeptical of recommendations justified primarily by peer behavior or consultant consensus.

For IROs, the implication is both challenging and empowering. The IRO of the future will need to be part communicator, part data analyst, part behavioral scientist, part market-structure interpreter, and part strategic advisor. The role will require stronger methodological literacy. IROs should understand sampling bias, cognitive load, investor attention, disclosure theory, market microstructure, and narrative decay. The best IROs will not simply execute best practices. They will test assumptions.

For boards, the implication is oversight discipline. Boards should not ask only whether the company's IR program is "best in class." That phrase is too vague. They should ask how effectiveness is measured, whether investor feedback is representative, whether the shareholder base is aligned with strategy, whether management credibility is strengthening or weakening, and whether communication practices are producing measurable improvements in investor decision quality.

For advisors, the implication is a higher evidentiary burden. Consultants should be more explicit about what their methods can and cannot prove. Perception studies should disclose sample limitations. Benchmarking should distinguish descriptive peer norms from prescriptive recommendations. Investor day advice should be grounded in cognition and information design, not inherited aesthetic convention. Targeting should distinguish theoretical fit from actual capital availability and mandate behavior.

## **X. Contribution of This Paper**

This paper makes four contributions to the investor relations field.

- First, it reframes the critique of IR best practices as an evidence problem. The issue is not whether companies should benchmark, simplify slides, conduct perception studies, or use key messages. The issue is whether companies can demonstrate that these practices produce the outcomes they are assumed to produce.
- Second, it connects IR practice to literatures that are often treated as adjacent rather than central: behavioral economics, cognitive load theory, disclosure research, textual analysis, market efficiency, adaptive markets, statistical power, and investor attention. This interdisciplinary foundation is necessary because investor relations is not merely corporate communications. It is applied investor cognition under conditions of uncertainty.
- Third, it introduces AE-IR OS as a practical framework for moving from best-practice imitation to evidence-based adaptation. The framework does not promise false precision. It provides a disciplined way to form hypotheses, define audiences, design communication, measure outcomes, and recalibrate practices as markets evolve.
- Fourth, it proposes a measurement framework that shifts IR evaluation from activity metrics to outcome metrics. Meeting counts, conference attendance, and anecdotal positivity may matter operationally, but they do not establish effectiveness. The more serious questions involve comprehension, recall, credibility, shareholder alignment, differentiation, resilience, decision efficiency, and narrative durability.

## **XI. Conclusion: From Convention to Evidence**

The traditional concept of “best practices” in investor relations no longer work. Many practices commonly promoted as best practices are better understood as inherited conventions: useful in some contexts, harmful in others, and rarely validated with the rigor their authority implies. Benchmarking can create conformity. Sequential comparisons can contaminate perception data. Key-message slides can confuse assertion with belief change. Dense investor day slides can overload rather than inform. Small-sample quantitative studies can turn anecdote into strategy. Consensus-driven frameworks can erase differentiation.

This critique should not be mistaken for cynicism. It is an argument for a more serious investor relations discipline. IR matters too much to remain dependent on folklore. The function sits at the intersection of disclosure, valuation, credibility, ownership, governance, and capital allocation. Its practices should therefore be evaluated with intellectual seriousness.

The future of investor relations will belong to companies that replace best-practice imitation with adaptive evidence. These companies will not ask merely whether their IR program resembles the market standard. They will ask whether investors understand the business better, remember the right things, trust management more rationally, allocate attention more efficiently, hold the stock for better reasons, and price risk with greater sophistication.

The defining question of modern investor relations is no longer “What do best-in-class companies do?” It is “How do we know whether our IR system works?” Until companies answer that question with evidence rather than convention, much of the industry will continue to confuse consensus with truth, polish with credibility, activity with effectiveness, and familiarity with excellence.

The next generation of IR leadership will not be built on the capacity to learn faster than market conventions decay.

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