

2015

Authentic Relationship Management to Heighten Control Mutuality in Social Media

Diana Catherine Sisson
University of South Carolina

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Mass Communication Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Sisson, D. C.(2015). *Authentic Relationship Management to Heighten Control Mutuality in Social Media*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/3608>

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you by Scholar Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholar Commons. For more information, please contact dillarda@mailbox.sc.edu.

AUTHENTIC RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT TO HEIGHTEN
CONTROL MUTUALITY IN SOCIAL MEDIA

by

Diana Catherine Sisson

Bachelor of Science
Virginia Commonwealth University, 2008

Master of Science
Virginia Commonwealth University, 2010

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

Mass Communications

College of Mass Communications and Information Studies

University of South Carolina

2015

Accepted by:

Shannon A. Bowen, Major Professor

Brooke W. McKeever, Committee Member

Sei-Hill Kim, Committee Member

Randall Rose, Committee Member

Lacy Ford, Senior Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

© Copyright by Diana Catherine Sisson, 2015
All Rights Reserved.

DEDICATION

For Mom, Dad, Lianne, & Raleigh – my rocks.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend a heartfelt thank you to my committee members for their guidance and support, as well as for the many hours you spent reading and commenting on my proposal and dissertation. First and foremost, I could not imagine going through this process without you, Dr. Bowen. Thank you for your mentorship and guidance over the past three years and for challenging and inspiring me. Thank you, Dr. Brooke McKeever, for introducing me to the nonprofit and stewardship literature, as well as for being a good friend. Dr. Kim, thank you for your guidance and thoughtfulness in data analysis. Thank you, Dr. Rose, for your insights on authenticity and for your guidance in structural equation modeling.

I would be very remiss if I did not thank my family, friends, colleagues, and mentors for being a wonderful support system during this process. This journey would have been very different without you, and I am forever grateful for your encouragement, support, and understanding.

ABSTRACT

Drawing on literature from public relations, marketing, interpersonal communication, and organizational communication, this dissertation focused on the effects of authenticity on relationship management outcomes in nonprofit organizations' social media efforts. There is significant need for relationship management rooted in authenticity with the rise in inauthentic communication online. This dissertation aims to contribute to relationship management theory by highlighting the role of control mutuality in analyses of authenticity in organization-public relationships in social media for nonprofit organizations like local animal welfare organizations. This dissertation proposes that control mutuality is an ethical outcome of authentic relationship management. This dissertation also proposes that control mutuality will be heightened when the three components of authenticity (transparency, veracity, and genuineness) are used in relationship management by local animal welfare organizations with their donors.

Using an online survey (n = 1,076) of donors in five regional animal welfare organizations, this dissertation revealed that genuineness and veracity were the most significant ethical variables of authenticity for donors in their evaluations of their local animal welfare organizations. Control mutuality was positively associated with social media engagement. Perhaps most importantly, control mutuality was also the only relationship variable to mediate the relationship between ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Theoretical and practical implications for relationship management on social media platforms are offered.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 THE UNITED STATES NONPROFIT SECTOR	1
1.2 ANIMAL WELFARE ORGANIZATIONS	4
1.3 STUDY SIGNIFICANCE.....	5
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1 OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC RELATIONS TRADITIONS	6
2.2 AUTHENTICITY	25
2.3 RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT	54
2.4 CONTROL MUTUALITY	73
2.5 SOCIAL MEDIA	89
2.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS, HYPOTHESES, & CONCEPTUAL MODEL	100
CHAPTER 3: METHOD.....	103
3.1 SURVEY DESIGN	103
3.2 SURVEY SAMPLE	104
3.3 MEASUREMENT	105

3.4 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS	107
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS.....	113
4.1 THE RESPONDENTS.....	113
4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION 1	125
4.3 RESEARCH QUESTION 2	141
4.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 3	147
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION & IMPLICATIONS	156
5.1 OVERVIEW OF KEY FINDINGS.....	156
5.2 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS	169
5.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS.....	175
5.4 SUMMARY	179
5.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS	180
5.6 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	182
REFERENCES	184
APPENDIX A – SOLICITATION LETTER & CONSENT FORM	200
APPENDIX B – SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	201
APPENDIX C – SEM VISUALIZATION WITH MODEL FIT ISSUES.....	210
APPENDIX D – IRB APPROVAL & PROCESS	211

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Statistical Tests	110
Table 4.1 Correlations between demographic variables & social media engagement ..	116
Table 4.2 Correlations between demographic, ethical variables of authenticity, & relationship variables	119
Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics of ethical variables of authenticity & control mutuality	128
Table 4.4 Correlations between ethical variables of authenticity & control mutuality ..	129
Table 4.5 Regressions of independent variables on control mutuality	129
Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of ethical variables of authenticity & satisfaction	131
Table 4.7 Correlations between ethical variables of authenticity & satisfaction.....	132
Table 4.8 Regressions of independent variables on satisfaction.....	132
Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics of ethical variables of authenticity & credibility	134
Table 4.10 Correlations between ethical variables of authenticity & credibility	135
Table 4.11 Regressions of independent variables on credibility	135
Table 4.12 Descriptive statistics of relationship variables & social media engagement	142
Table 4.13 Correlations between relationship variables & social media engagement ...	143
Table 4.14 Regressions of relationship variables on social media engagement	144
Table 4.15 Descriptive statistics of the ethical variables of authenticity & social media engagement	147
Table 4.16 Correlations between the ethical variables of authenticity & social media engagement	148

Table 4.17 Indirect effects of relationship variables between the variables of authenticity and social media engagement	150
Table 4.18 Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses	155
Table 5.1 Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses for RQ1	156
Table 5.2 Key findings regarding ethical variables of authenticity and relationship variables	157
Table 5.3 Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses for RQ2	162
Table 5.4 Key findings regarding relationship variables and social media engagement	162
Table 5.5 Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses for RQ3	166
Table 5.6 Key findings regarding the ethical variables of authenticity & social media engagement	167

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Conceptual model.....	102
Figure 4.1 3-Factor confirmatory factor analysis of ethical variables of authenticity	126
Figure 4.2 Path coefficients for ethical variables of authenticity & control mutuality...	130
Figure 4.3 Path coefficients for ethical variables of authenticity & satisfaction	133
Figure 4.4 Path coefficients for ethical variables of authenticity & credibility	136
Figure 4.5 Path coefficients for relationship variables & social media engagement.....	145
Figure 4.6 Indirect effects of relationship variables between variables of authenticity and social media engagement	152
Figure 5.1 Indirect effects of control mutuality between veracity, genuineness, and social media engagement	169

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Public relations is the “management of communication between an organization and its publics” (J. E. Grunig & Hunt, 1984, p. 6). The public relations industry is in a transition period with the evolution of new technologies and new platforms for communication such as social media, which is an effective and efficient means of communicating with key publics. While the public relations industry is unlikely to abandon traditional methods of communication like television, print, or radio, the public relations industry is becoming more entrenched in digital media and particularly, in social media. Because social media is relatively new, public relations practitioners are learning how to use the tools as they are developed.

Because there are so many different social media platforms, knowing what to say on which platform to reach specific key publics has been a challenge for profit-seeking and nonprofit organizations alike (Thackeray, Neiger, Hanson, & McKenzie, 2008). When used appropriately, social media provides a way to not only resolve issues with members of key publics, but also, offers a means for members of key publics to have a dialogue with the nonprofit organization. That dialogue can enhance organization-public relationships online with authentic relationship management.

1.1. THE UNITED STATES NONPROFIT SECTOR

Since the 1950's, the nonprofit sector has grown tremendously, resulting in an increase in nonprofit public relations research (Fussell Sisco, Pressgrove, & Collins,

2013). According to Pettijohn (2013), there were at least 1.58 million nonprofit organizations registered in the United States in 2011, which contributed \$836.9 billion to the American economy. Pettijohn (2103) argued that the growth in the nonprofit sector showed “an increase of 21.5 percent from 2001” (p. 1). From 2007 to 2009, private giving decreased 15 percent (Pettijohn, 2013).

Nonprofit status. Nonprofit organizations differ from for-profit organizations. From an organizational and operational perspective, nonprofit organizations, as Boris and Steuerle (2006) noted, fill gaps that corporate organizations cannot or are unwilling to fill in society. Nonprofit organizations must meet certain criterion to be a licensed nonprofit organization that affords certain tax exemptions, called 501(c)(3) status. Although the nonprofit sector is growing, some nonprofit organizations do not meet the \$25,000 threshold that qualifies the organization for that status (Boris & Steurele, 2006). Many nonprofit organizations work with small budgets and small staffs, relying on help from volunteers. These realities in the nonprofit sector often affect how nonprofit organizations conduct their public relations activities.

Often, nonprofit organizations do not use online resources like websites or social media well or effectively (Waters & Lord, 2009), which can hurt their reputation online and offline. This may be the result of a lack of knowledge in social media strategy, or an inability to translate what the nonprofit organization does into the “digital space” in a manner that resonates with members of key publics (Patel & McKeever, 2014).

Regardless of the reason, there are opportunities and ways for nonprofit organizations to improve their communication with key publics online through authentic strategies (Seltzer and Mitrook, 2007).

Public relations and social media. Although traditional public relations principles can be applied, there is a significant need for effective and ethical social media strategy (Thackeray et al., 2008) and tactics (O'Neil, 2008). Because nonprofit organizations are held to a higher standard than for-profit organizations (Doh, 2006), ethical online and social media practices can enhance organization-public relationships online (Bowen, 2010a, 2013). Nonprofit organizations need to be creative, smart, and authentic about their social media strategy and relationship management online, which is particularly important because they rely heavily on individual donors. Thackery et al. (2008) also pointed out that nonprofit organizations must know the media consumption patterns of their key publics before jumping into social media. Once they do, nonprofit organizations can craft tailored, public relations messages that comprise effective relationship management (Waters, 2009) and can heighten the credibility of the nonprofit organization (Curtis, Edwards, Fraser, Gudelsky, Holmquist, Thornton, & Sweetser, 2010). Heightened credibility and effective relationship management are particularly important given how quickly information and misinformation can spread online, which may be inauthentic.

Unethical public relations practices. When ethics are disregarded in public relations practitioners' communication and actions in general and on social media, deception or perceptions of deception can occur which can negatively affect an organization's reputation by eroding trust with key publics. The same can be said of inconsistent business practices; consistent, ethical business practices and public relations communication can heighten trust and create authenticity (Bowen, 2010b). Sissela Bok (1978), a key ethicist on lying, secrets, and happiness, argued that deception is

tantamount to lying; Kantian deontologists would argue that lying or deception denies the dignity of the individual (Formula 2 of the Categorical Imperative) as a rational human being capable of making informed decisions. Virtue ethicists like Phillipa Foot might argue that deception does not allow for human flourishing. An example of non-ethical communication—and some might argue inauthentic—is online astroturfing (Beder, 1998; Berkman, 2008) and the use of corporate front groups (Pfau, Haigh, Sims, & Wigley, 2007; Scott, 2013).

1.2 ANIMAL WELFARE ORGANIZATIONS

Four nonprofit animal welfare organizations in South Carolina and one nonprofit animal welfare organization in Virginia were purposively selected for this study based on population density and the geographic areas that they serve. Local animal welfare organizations purposively selected tended to serve and be located in larger cities. These local animal welfare organizations were also selected based on the number of individuals who ‘liked’ or followed the organization’s social media with them on social media, as well as the frequency of likes and comments on their social media postings. The number of individuals who ‘liked’ or followed the participating organizations’ social media ranged from 1,900 to 11,000 with high frequencies of likes and comments on social media postings.

Many of these nonprofit animal welfare organizations do not receive government funding due to clauses in human-specific grants; thus, local animal welfare organizations rely heavily on individual donations (Caroline Radom, personal communication, 2014). In certain instances, some nonprofit animal welfare organizations are not affiliated with a

national organization, which places great importance on maintaining relationships with key publics.

1.3 STUDY SIGNIFICANCE

With the rise of inauthentic communication like online astroturfing (Beder, 1998; Berkman, 2008) and the use of corporate front groups (Pfau et al., 2007; Scott, 2013), relationship management rooted in authenticity could be used to offset organization-public relationship damage to nonprofit organizations, as well as to for-profit organizations in social media. Furthermore, authenticity may be able to enhance online organization-public relationships, particularly in terms of control mutuality. This dissertation aims to contribute to relationship management theory by highlighting the role of control mutuality in analyses of authenticity in organization-public relationships in social media for nonprofit organizations such as local animal welfare organizations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Bibliometric studies (Huang & Lyu, 2013; Pasadeos, Berger, & Renfro, 2010) show public relations as a maturing discipline, which is largely theoretical in nature, expanding into the interpersonal, organizational and strategic management, intercultural, rhetorical, and critical traditions. While research in the public relations industry has grown over the years, some scholars believe that the rise of the Internet and the change in the communication environment has perpetuated its growth (Huang & Lyu, 2013). Public relations research has been strongly influenced by business, marketing, economics, psychology, public administration, sociology, law, and philosophy (Huang & Lyu, 2013; Pasadeos et al., 2010). Huang and Lyu (2013) also noted that the growth and expansion of research grounded in the *Excellence Theory* could be due to geography and language.

2.1 OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC RELATIONS TRADITIONS

This section examined the different traditions in public relations research, as well as influential scholars in each tradition. The purpose of this portion of the literature is to position this dissertation within a theoretical framework as a means to expand upon and extend current literature.

Strategic management. One major tradition in the public relations discipline is strategic management. The strategic management tradition in the public relations discipline is overwhelmingly focused on *The Excellence Study*, which has largely been attributed to James Grunig, Larissa Grunig, David Dozier, and William Ehling.

The Excellence Study focused on public relations' role within an effective organization, how public relations operates within an effective organization, and how public relations contributes to an effective organization's economic stability (J. Grunig and L. Grunig, 1992). Effective communication and good relationships between an organization and its respective publics is essential to public relations (J. E. Grunig, 1992; J. E. Grunig & Hunt, 1984; L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Ehling, 1992). The symmetrical nature of public relations through mediums like social media allow for dialogic and reciprocal communication with organizational publics (Bowen, 2013; Grunig, 1989). Research stemming from *The Excellence Study* tends to look at public relations' role in organizations (i.e. the role of the public relations practitioner in relation to the dominant coalition) and models of effective communication, which are rooted in J. E. Grunig's (1989b) presuppositions for symmetrical communication. Other scholars like Shannon Bowen have extended the *Excellence Study* to include ethics, specifically Kantian deontology.

Some scholars in the strategic management tradition of public relations believe that there is no one approach to interacting with publics and that there are contingencies that organizations must accommodate; a philosophy founded by Glen Cameron. Cancel, Cameron, Sallot, and Mitrook (1997) argued that an organization's response to an activist public lies on a spectrum of full accommodation to no accommodation. Cancel et al. (1997) sought to strengthen the *Excellence Theory* through the inclusion of advocacy and accommodation. Cancel et al. (1997) also posited that a contingency theory provided more flexibility to understanding strategic communications. This is an assertion that was

refuted and disproven by J. E. Grunig (2001) in his work tracing the past, present and future of symmetrical communication.

Building on Cancel et al. (1997), Cameron, Cropp, & Reber (2001) sought to focus the variables of the contingency theory by looking at the limitations of accommodation in organizational responses to key publics. Cameron et al. (2001) posited that there were six constraints to accommodation: moral conviction, multiple publics, regulatory constraints, management pressure, jurisdictional issues, and legal constraints. By looking at the constraints of accommodation, Cameron et al. (2001) were able to simplify the number of variables forming the accommodation continuum. These variables included internal threats, external threats, power, an organization's age, economic stability, experience level of the public relations practitioner, and altruism (Cameron, Cropp, & Reber, 2001). Pruning of the accommodation scale allowed for easier use and clarity of conceptual arguments for other scholars in the strategic communication tradition. The narrowed terms that Cameron et al. (2001) included moral convictions, multiple publics, regulatory constraints, management pressure, jurisdictional issues, and legal constraints.

Once the variables forming the accommodation scale were pruned, Reber and Cameron (2003) offered five constructs of accommodation: external threats, external public characteristics, organization characteristics, public relations department characteristics, and dominant coalition characteristics. Reber and Cameron (2003) also asserted that there were three threats to a contingency approach when interacting in dialogue with an activist public: "fear of legitimizing activist publics, credibility and commitment of an external public, and the place of public relations in the dominant

coalition” (p. 431). A focus on threats to contingency allowed for better understanding of the motivations of public relations practitioners for not using contingency theory when developing proactive, strategic communications plans for programs or for crises.

Crisis communication. Crisis communication has roots in the rhetorical tradition, but has found an academic home in strategic management. Coombs (1995) argued that crisis strategy selection is dependent on four factors: “crisis type, veracity of evidence, damage, and performance history” (p. 469). Coombs (1995) contended that crisis-response strategies selection was significant because it could affect how members of key publics view the responsible party for a crisis. Coombs (1995) asserted that different crisis response strategies were specific to each kind of crises like faux pas, accidents, transgressions, and terrorism. Each type of crisis had a different decision-making flowchart, which helped guide the type of crisis response strategy (Coombs, 1995). Assertions made by Coombs (2007) highlighted the importance of decision-making based on the type of crisis, as well as the need for decision-making models to assist in determining the types of responses.

Crisis communication has also been examined from a reputation perspective. Coombs (2007) argued that the situational crisis communication theory (SCCT) could be used to protect organizational reputations during times of crisis. Coombs (2007) contended that SCCT could be used to anticipate key publics’ responses to organization’s crisis communication strategies. Coombs (2007) argued that one benefit of SCCT was that crisis response strategies were determined through the use of evidence. When examined in terms of reputations, SCCT can protect an organization’s reputation from causal attributions of key publics by employing the appropriate strategy for the crisis

(Coombs, 2007). Coombs (2007) stated that reputational threats are formed from “(1) initial crisis responsibility, (2) crisis history and (3) prior relational reputation” (p. 166). Assertions made by Coombs (2007) highlighted the role of key publics in determining the appropriate crisis response strategy to offset reputational damage.

Relationship management. Within the strategic management tradition, there is vast strain of literature focused on relationship management. By examining romantic relationships, Stafford and Canary (1991) offered five relationship maintenance strategies: positivity, openness, assurances, networks, and sharing tasks. Canary and Stafford (1991) contended that relationship maintenance behaviors affected perceptions of relationship quality, meaning that different maintenance strategies can improve or hurt relationship quality. Canary and Stafford (1991) also asserted that levels of commitment affected the type of maintenance strategy used. This assertion is significant for strategic communications and organization-public relations scholars because it indicates that commitment affects behavior and ultimately, which strategies are chosen to effectively reach members of key publics. Furthermore, Canary and Stafford’s (1991) work on relationship management informed Grunig and Hon’s (1999) white paper on relationship management strategies and relationship outcomes, particularly control mutuality, trust, satisfaction, commitment, communal relationship, and exchange relationship.

Inequity in relationships can affect relationship characteristics and how relationship maintenance strategies are chosen. Upon offering different types of relationship maintenance strategies, Canary and Stafford (1993) focused on the characteristics of relationships with particular interest in control mutuality, liking, and trust. Canary and Stafford (1993) contended that equity affected these relationship

characteristics. Importantly, Canary and Stafford (1993) found that when equity was lower for, or underbenefitted, one member in the relationship, there was a significant affect on control mutuality, liking, and trust. For this reason, maintenance of mutual benefit becomes an important aspiration in relationship management.

Drawing upon literature in public relations, interpersonal communication, and marketing and social psychology, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) conceptualized relationships by discussing the different relationship dimensions, which they argued included trust, openness, involvement, investment, and commitment. Ledingham and Bruning (1998) argued that focusing on these dimensions of relationships was a means for further proving the value of public relations through measurement, relationship building, and relationship maintenance.

Expanding the relationship management tradition to include organization-public relationships, Hon and Grunig (1999) looked at relational quality and relational outcomes. The focus of Hon and Grunig's (1999) white paper was to provide scholars with a way to assess relationship management strategies, as well as relationship management outcomes. Hon and Grunig (1999) defined relationship management strategies as how an organization "communicate[s] with publics in order to maintain a relationship with those publics" (p. 13). Hon and Grunig (1999) defined relationship management outcomes as "whether target audience groups actually received the messages directed at them...paid attention to them...understood the messages...and retained those messages in any shape or form" (p. 2). Hon and Grunig (1999) argued that there were several relationship management strategies, which included access, positivity, openness, assurances, networking, sharing tasks, integrative, distributive, dual concern,

and stewardship. Hon and Grunig (1999) contended that there were six relationship management outcomes, which included control mutuality, trust, satisfaction, commitment, exchange relationships, and communal relationships.

Seeking to broaden the study of organization-public relationships to include a global perspective for organizations in Eastern cultures, Huang (2001) proposed an Organization-Public Relationship Assessment (OPRA) scale. Based on a review of literature in organization-public relationships from a Western perspective, Huang (2001) argued that scholarship in Western cultures focused on four relational features of organization-public relationships including trust, control mutuality, relational satisfaction, and relational commitment. Reviewing literature from Eastern cultures, Huang (2001) argued that measurement of organization-public relationships could also include a dimension focusing on favor and face, which connoted a set of social norms in Chinese cultures. While seeking to expand organization-public relationships study, Huang (2001) argued that the OPRA scale also shifted the focus from interpersonal relationships to organizational relationships. The purpose of Huang's (2001) study was to develop a valid and reliable assessment scale for organization-public relationships in different cultures, specifically in Western and Eastern cultures. Implications from Huang's (2001) study would be particularly important to multinational organizations with operations in the United States and in China.

Global public relations. Another prominent area of study in the strategic communications tradition is global public relations. As previously mentioned, the growth and expansion of research grounded in the *Excellence Theory* may be due to geography and language (Huang and Lyu, 2013). Given the significant growth of the public relations

in America over the years, public relations research is expanding to many countries including, but not limited to China, South Korea, Japan, and Germany. A few notable global public relations scholars include Krishnamurthy Sriramesh (1999, 2010), Dejan Verčič and Bettteke van Ruler (2000), Günter Bentele (2003), Robert Wakefield (2010).

Model discrepancies between what public relations practitioners say they practice and the models that they actually practice are occurring in different countries. J.E. Grunig's models of public relations have been studied in countries like India, South Korea, Japan, and many more. Sriramesh, Kim, and Takasaki (1999) asserted that publicity/press agency was widely practiced in India, South Korea, and Japan, while many practitioners in each country aspired to practice more symmetrical models of public relations. Sriramesh et al. (1999) asserted that South Korean public relations practitioners practice public information and press agency/publicity models, while public relations practitioners in India and Japan use the press agency/publicity model. Sriramesh et al. (1999) also asserted that each culture utilized personal influence models in their public relations activities. Findings from Sriramesh et al. (1999) highlighted nuances between the different culture's public relations practices.

European and American interpretations of communications and relationship management differ. Verčič, Van Ruler, Bütschi, and Flodin (2000) argued that communication management and relationship management were synonymous in European countries, whereas public relations practitioners in the United States consider them separate. Differing from U.S. definitions of the role of public relations, Verčič et al. (2000) also contended that the roles of European public relations were managerial, operational, reflective, and educational. Verčič et al. (2000) argued that dimensions of the

European public relations roles dealt with strategy development, program development, evaluation, and internal training. Findings from Verčič et al. (2000) highlighted distinctive nuances between European and American interpretations of public relations roles and public relations definitions.

Bentele and Wehmeier (2003) asserted that public relations practice in Germany has changed over time to contend with the changing political atmosphere in the country. Bentele and Wehmeier (2003) argued that public relations in Germany is perceived from three different perspective, which included a pedestrian perspective, a professional perspective, and a scientific perspective. Under these classifications, Bentele and Wehmeier (2003) contended that the professional perspective dealt primarily with leadership and communications functions and tasks, whereas the scientific perspectives examined the management of communications. Bentele and Wehmeier (2003) noted that the pedestrian, or every-day, perspective viewed public relations negatively particularly in terms of manipulation, persuasion, and propaganda. Findings from Bentele and Wehmeier (2003) highlighted the role of a country's political and economic climate on perceptions of the public relations industry in Germany.

Organizations can no longer avoid global influences, even if they have no operations in other countries (Wakefield, 2010). The role of the Internet has created questions regarding the role of culture and public relations, given that the Internet transcends global borders (Wakefield, 2010). Wakefield (2010) offered three suggestions for organizations in dealing with cultural and global influences. These suggestions included: allocating resources and attention; build global strategies to complement domestic public relations strategies; develop public relations around the

globe (Wakefield, 2010). The significance of Wakefield's (2010) arguments highlighted the need for public relations practitioners' role in guiding organizations' expansion into global markets.

Globalization could be attributed to three causes: 1) democratization, 2) trading agreements including NAFTA, and 3) improvements to communication technologies (Sriramesh, 2010). A large part of the hindrance to the expansion of public relations study into various parts of the globe was due to ethnocentrism (Sriramesh, 2010). Sriramesh (2010) argued that ethnocentrism could be addressed in global public relations strategies by focusing on two general principles. These principles focused on the benefits of empowering public relations in global markets, as well as unifying public relations efforts throughout all of an organization's departments. The significance of Sriramesh's (2010) study highlighted the role of culture, political systems, economic systems, political economy, and media systems in global public relations.

Rhetoric. In the public relations discipline, another area of study is the rhetorical tradition. Robert Heath laid the framework for scholarship in dialogue.

Kent and Taylor (1998) sought to apply dialogic communication theory to the Internet, as well as its effects on organization-public relationships. Dialogue was a foundational component of relationship building (Kent & Taylor, 1998). Kent and Taylor (1998) argued that dialogue was similar to Grunig's two-way symmetrical model of communication, which was initially conceptualized in 1984. The five principles of dialogue – feedback loop, the usefulness of information, the generation of return visits, the intuitiveness/ease of the interface, and the rule of conservation of visitors – combined

with new technologies allowed for more opportunities for organizations to foster relationships with publics on the Internet (Kent & Taylor, 1998).

Dialogue, overall, was necessary to maintain relationships and forming opinions in society. Heath (2001) argued that dialogue gave value to differing opinions in a conversation with equal opportunity to be heard. In the marketplace of ideas, nonprofit organizations or for-profit corporations can shape opinions of issues and their organization (Heath, 2001). Rhetoric, or in this case dialogue, is essential for maintaining mutually beneficial relationships through symmetrical communication (Heath, 2001).

Critical. In the public relations discipline, another area of study is the critical tradition. Studies in the critical tradition focused on the role of public relations within an organization, power, and media relations. A few noteworthy critical scholars include Larissa Grunig (1992b), Christopher Spicer (1997), Patricia Curtin (1999), and Bruce Berger (2005).

Critical public relations scholarship has focused on role of power in public relations, particularly in terms of a public relations department's position in the organization in relation to the dominant coalition. L.A. Grunig (1992b) argued that relegating public relations to a functional role in an organization limits the practitioner's ability to grow or provide adequate counsel the dominant coalition. L.A. Grunig (1992b) asserted that position within the organizational hierarchy was indicative of the amount of power a department or practitioner had within the organization. L.A. Grunig (1992b) referred to power in this context as an "ability to mobilize what are typically scarce resources" (p. 485).

Power was characterized differently based on the type of organizations (L. A. Grunig, 1992b). L.A. Grunig (1992b) contended that organizations fell into four different categorizations: traditional, mechanical, organic, and mixed. L.A. Grunig (1992b) asserted that mixed organization was ideal because members of the dominant coalition were more involved in public relations activities. The crux of L.A. Grunig's (1992b) arguments was that public relations should be treated as a managerial function rather than a tactical function.

Critical public relations looked at the different types of power as a means of understanding how public relations practitioners can use them in an effective manner. Spicer (1997) contended that public relations practitioners find themselves in situations in which they would need to exert influence in the decision-making process. Drawing on the work of French and Raven (1959), Spicer (1997) argued that there were five different types of power within an organization, which include authoritative, reward, expert, referent, and coercive power. Spicer (1997) contended that authoritative power stemmed from titles and roles afforded to individuals in an organizational structure. Spicer (1997) asserted that individuals who controlled the distribution of rewards to others within an organization imbibed reward power. Individuals who have expert power had exclusive, crucial knowledge that afforded their organization a unique competitive advantage (Spicer, 1997). Referent power was described as "personal attractiveness to others such that others will want to defer or emulate" (Spicer, 1997, p. 134). Coercive power was described as "the ability to negatively sanction or punish others in the organization" (Spicer, 1997, p. 134). Findings from Spicer (1997) indicated that understanding different types of power may help public relations practitioners use them effectively.

Critical public relations scholarship has focused on media relations practices. Curtin (1999) asserted that many editors perceived public relations as publicity rather than an “economic subsidy” (p. 85). Curtin (1999) contended that many of the editors disclosed that public relations was only interested getting free advertising, which they indicated was particularly true of corporate public relations practitioners with an agenda to promote. Curtin (1999) also evaluated editors’ perceptions of public relations and public relations materials as they related to J.E. Grunig’s press agency/publicity and public information models (J. E. Grunig & Hunt, 1984). Curtis (1999) asserted that public relations materials that were developed under the public information model were deemed to be more of an economic subsidy by editors, which lent to agenda building. Findings from Curtin (1999) indicated that public relations materials grounded in the public information model were more effective in building agendas.

Negative perceptions of public relations call for more professionalism in the industry. Callison (2004) argued that public relations practitioners were perceived negatively (i.e. less truthful or ethical) in comparison to information shared by a third-party, not affiliated with the organization. Furthermore, Callison (2004) argued that information shared by a third-party was deemed more credible than information shared by a representative of the organization. Findings from Callison’s (2004) study called for greater professionalism in public relations, specifically in regards to the industry’s credibility.

Critical scholarship has focused on the role of power in organizational structure. Berger (2005) asserted that symmetrical communication rooted dialogue and power, which had implications for the roles of individuals and organizations in relationships.

Berger's (2005) arguments focused on locus of control and its relationship to the dominant coalition, specifically how organizational structures influence power. Berger (2005) argued that locus of control of an organization resided with the dominant coalition. Berger (2005) asserted that the fluid nature of power meant that there were "opportunities for choices and action" (p. 23). Assertions made by Berger (2005) highlighted the significance of the role of the public relations practitioner as the facilitator of communication and change between an organization and its publics.

Critical scholars argued that strategic management of organizational politics was a means of gaining influence and legitimacy. Berger and Reber (2006) argued public relations practitioners were lacking in influence within their respective organizations; thus, public relations practitioners needed to garner influence through greater understanding of the politics of the organization and by employing different strategies and tactics within their communication with the dominant coalition. Citing several previous scholars, Berger and Reber (2006) conceptualized influence as a process to get initiatives executed, or rather, the process through which practitioners go through to exert or gain power. In conducting a survey of public relations practitioners, Berger and Reber (2006) indicated that practitioners consider power as "holding a seat at the decision-making table" (p. 17), "delivering tangible results to support the organization" (p. 19), and "managing the communication production process" (p. 19). Findings from Berger and Reber (2006) highlighted the role of theory and practice in relation to power and influence.

Integrated marketing communication. In the public relations discipline, another area of study is integrated marketing communications. A few noteworthy integrated

marketing communications scholars include Anders Gronstedt (1996), Øyvind Ihlen (2005), Ansgar Zerfass (2007, 2012), and Clarke Caywood (2013).

Integrated marketing communication has been evaluated in terms of its similarities to public relations. Gronstedt (1996) argued that marketing and public relations should find common ground due to the similarities between markets and publics, as well as the similarities in the tools that each discipline uses. Gronstedt (1996) proposed an integrative communications model for marketing and public relations. Gronstedt (1996) argued that the rapidly changing business environment, the integration of communication roles, and the growing complexity of the business environment have perpetuated the convergence between the marketing and public relations disciplines. Gronstedt (1996) posited that it is no longer feasible for public relations and marketing to be insular. Assertions made by Gronstedt (1996) would make any public relations purist shudder, but highlighted the aspects of the business environment that have led to Gronstedt's (1996) model.

Integrated marketing communications has been examined from a social capital perspective to show its relevance to public relations. Ihlen (2005) argued that social capital occurs through actions and through networks of groups. Ihlen (2005) argued that that capital could be either economic or social. Citing the work of Pierre Bourdieu, Ihlen (2005) argued that economic capital referred to monetary resources, whereas social capital referred to relationships. Given its foundation in relationships, Ihlen (2005) asserted that social capital was the most relevant type of capital to public relations and public relations programming. Social capital implied that there is value in relationships (Ihlen, 2005). Assertions made by Ihlen (2005) highlighted the value of relationship

management, the importance placed on relationships, and its relevance to public relations as a discipline and industry.

Integrated marketing communications scholars have looked at public relations from an innovative perspective. Zerfass and Huck (2007) argued that technological innovations and leadership communication have led to advances in strategic communication with internal and external stakeholders. Zerfass and Huck (2007) argued that communication is integral to innovation management in organizations because it transcends different levels of the organization. Zerfass and Huck (2007) contended that communication in innovation management was thought of as innovation communication, which existed on macro, meso and micro levels.

Through this assertion, Zerfass and Huck (2007) argued that innovation communication started among members of the organization's various publics. Once this conversation began on the macro level, Zerfass and Huck (2007) argued that innovation communication transcended to the meso level where the organization began to use institutionalized, or internal, communication methods including campaigns and programs to foster an organizational focus on innovation. Finally, Zerfass and Huck (2007) argued that innovation communication occurred on the micro level when managers were giving tactical influence, particularly through their communication with their team members. The significance of Zerfass and Huck's (2007) study highlighted the influence of public relations on various levels of an organization and its influence on various internal and external stakeholders.

Integrated strategies are one way to incorporate innovation into an organization, merging the marketing communication and public relations functions. Zerfass and

Dühring (2012) asserted that there has been a divide between marketing communications and public relations for years regarding who controls corporate branding. Zerfass and Dühring (2012) contended that marketers have shifted their communications strategies to include dialogue, an area that public relations practitioners have traditionally controlled. Zerfass and Dühring's (2012) study elucidated on the power struggle between marketing and public relations, as well as the misperceptions regarding their functions. Furthermore, Zerfass and Dühring's (2012) study called for greater understanding and convergence between marketing and public relations to foster more sophisticated approaches to corporate branding.

Communications scholars have examined integrated marketing communications as a means of building a positive reputation. Caywood (2013) argued that integrated marketing communication was a managerial process that was research-based, behaviorally and financially determined, and stakeholder driven. Caywood (2013) argued that integrated marketing communication provided a holistic approach to communicating about an organization than public relations, marketing, and advertising alone. Caywood (2013) also asserted that integrated marketing communication provided a means to support and build organizations' reputations. Furthermore, Caywood (2013) argued that integrated marketing communication (IMC) afforded communicators and marketers the ability to quantify their efforts towards building a positive reputation.

Reputation management. While discussed at length later in this literature review, the works of Fombrun and van Riel at the Reputation Institute contributed significantly to the study of reputation management.

The study of reputations has benefitted from scholars bridging the gap between economics and sociology. Fombrun and Shanley (1990) contended that media visibility played a major role in shaping perceptions regarding an organization's reputation, especially when there is confusion or uncertainty. Furthermore, Fombrun and Shanley (1990) argued that if organizations project economic certainty, the organization's reputation is "less susceptible to influence" by third parties (p. 253-254). The significance of Fombrun and Shanley's (1990) work was that organizations must be proactive in communicating what they stand for, what they do, and how well that they do it rather than letting the media influence how members of key publics perceive the organization's reputation.

While Fombrun and Shanley (1990) sought to bridge the gap between economics, sociology, and the role of media in shaping reputations, Fombrun (1996) sought to highlight the competitive advantages of reputations. Fombrun (1996) contended that reputations set standards for performance and can communicate an organization's values. Furthermore, when organizations consistently meet and exceed the expectations of their publics, reputations can provide a competitive advantage for the organization in its respective industry (Fombrun, 1996). Reputations have financial implications, meaning that communicating to members of key publics became more important.

Measuring the economic impact may afford public relations practitioners with a means of quantify returns on investments, which would show public relations' worth to members of the dominant coalition. Kim (2001) sought to bridge the gap between economics and public relations by examining the economic impact of reputations for an organization through a two-part model. Kim (2001) argued that allocating more monetary

resources would heighten perceptions of an organization's reputation, which in turn would increase the organization's bottom line financially. Kim (2001) asserted that some public relations activities are hard to quantify in terms of return of investment, which meant that showing public relations' value was difficult. Findings from Kim's (2001) study indicated that public relations efforts in reputation management can be measured, adding to the value of the public relations industry.

Some reputation scholars have discussed the relationship between corporate branding and corporate reputations. Argenti and Druckemiller (2004) argued that organizations are viewed more like brands for a few reasons such as product marketing, sales channels, communication channels, mergers, and global activism. Argenti and Druckemiller (2004) contended that there were implications for increased focus on corporate brands for corporate reputations. Argenti and Druckemiller (2004) contended that public relations practitioners refer to reputation management as a means of managing relationships, whereas brand management places a focus on marketing, advertising, and an integrated communications approach. Argenti and Druckemiller (2004) asserted that corporate branding may help bolster corporate reputations. In doing so, Argenti and Druckemiller (2004) argued that branding may help build consistency, cohesiveness, and credibility for corporation's reputations. Study findings from Argenti and Druckemiller (2004) highlighted the relationship between corporate branding and corporate reputations.

Organizations with strong reputations tend to be more expressive (van Riel & Fombrun, 2007). Van Riel and Fombrun (2007) argued that organizations with strong reputations communicate "distinctiveness, consistency, visibility, transparency,

authenticity, and responsiveness” to their key publics through their messaging and communication practices (p. 90). Furthermore, van Riel and Fombrun (2007) argued that direct contact, primarily through one-on-one communication and interactions, had a significant impact on how reputations were formed. The significance of van Riel and Fombrun (2007) was that it highlighted the importance of dialogue and what organizations communicate to build or maintain strong reputations.

This dissertation falls primarily in strategic management tradition of public relations, specifically relationship management. With a primary focus on relationship management, this dissertation also draws upon the reputation management and critical literature, specifically the role of power in relationships to elaborate on the nuances of control mutuality.

2.2 AUTHENTICITY

This section examined previous literature on sincerity and authenticity, as well as authenticity’s relationship with identity and autonomy. How individuals discern authenticity from media content, as well as the different components and outcomes of authenticity were discussed. This portion of the literature review also provides a compelling argument for the need for authenticity by reviewing literature on the rise of inauthentic communication. Organizational culture and ethical decision-making analyses are also discussed as a way to frame authenticity within an organizational context and to offer different approaches to offset inauthentic organizational cultures influenced by groupthink.

Sincerity and authenticity. While seemingly similar, the difference between authenticity and sincerity is a significant point of discussion for scholars like Trilling

(1972) who believed that sincerity was a precursor to authenticity. Sincerity as a precursor to authenticity is a contradictory point of view; scholars like Bowen (2010b) argue that sincerity could be a form of genuineness – a component of authenticity.

Sincerity was thought of as “the avoidance of being false to any man through being true to one’s own self” (Trilling, 1972, p. 5). Given the importance placed on the self, Trilling (1972) argued that there was a natural connection between sincerity, self, and society. Trilling’s (1972) arguments centered on society placing demands on individuals to act in a manner that presented and communicated their sincerity, thereby creating no falsehoods about the self. But, Trilling (1972) also suggested sincerity can be faked purely based on the intent of the individual. Given this shortcoming, Trilling (1972) argued that authenticity broadened the discussion of sincerity and provided more rigorous “moral experience” (p. 11).

Authenticity and identity. Authenticity scholars like Charles Taylor (1992) argued that authenticity calls for the rejection of convention and for a greater focus on originality, whereas Trilling (1992) believed sincerity to be a guiding principle, and perhaps, a virtue. Taylor’s (1992) conceptualization of authenticity elucidated the relationship between originality, identity, and rhetoric, specifically through dialogue.

Taylor (1992) conceptualized authenticity as:

Being true to myself means being true to my own originality, and that is something only I can articulate and discover. In articulating it, I am also defining myself. I am realizing a potentiality that is properly my own. (p. 29)

Although identity is an important aspect of authenticity, Taylor (1992) also argued that authenticity placed significance on what individuals consider to be important.

‘Self-fulfillment’ and ‘self-recognition’ were two fundamental components of authenticity (Taylor, 1992). Relationships were a means of self-fulfillment because through relationships, “self-exploration and self-discovery” can occur (Taylor, 1992, p. 45).

Hardt (1993) argued that authenticity was about the expression of “the self,” which complemented Taylor’s (1992) argument that authenticity was rooted in identity. Hardt (1993) argued that authentic communication is rooted in “conditions which encourage and result in the active participation of individuals in the organization and management of their own lives” (p. 62), whereas inauthentic communication was an example of an individual’s loss of self due to external forces like economic or political pressures. Hardt (1993) also noted that the scholarly discussions of individualism must acknowledge the individual as part of society. As such, time, space, and location were important aspects of the relationship between individual and society (Hardt, 1993). The significance of Hardt’s (1993) work was that it placed discussions of the ‘individual’ in a broader cultural context, specifically society.

Liedtka (2008) argued that an organization’s strategic processes, which transcend all levels of an organization, helped it define itself and should be grounded in authenticity. Liedtka (2008) argued that authentic strategic processes could “create a more authentic corporate self,” ultimately resulting in better corporate outcomes and heightened moral good (p. 240). Citing Hardt (1993), Liedtka (2008) argued that “active participation” and “involvement in decision-making” were crucial, fundamental elements of authenticity (p. 239). Incorporating authenticity into an organization’s “strategic intent” was Liedtka’s (2008) central argument.

Bowen (2010b) asserted that authenticity was comprised of three components: veracity, transparency, and genuineness. Bowen (2010b) argued that authenticity was “being the same on the inside as one appears to be outside an organization, or even personally” (p. 578-579). By considering the consistency of internal and external actions, Bowen (2010b) posited that communicators must know their morals, values, and beliefs, as well as those of the organizations that they represent. Through an understanding of personal and professional morals, values, and beliefs, communicators were able to interact with members of key publics in an authentic manner (Bowen, 2010b). Bowen’s (2010b) discussion of authenticity is significant in that it discussed the role of consistency and reflectivity, which Bowen and Gallicano (2013) referred to as reflective ethical symmetry in a later work.

Taking an interdisciplinary approach by drawing on literature from marketing, advertising, and communications, Molleda (2010) sought to bring further distinction to the conceptual understanding and measurement of authenticity and its relationship with the public relations industry. Citing Gilmore and Pine (2007), Molleda (2010) posited that authenticity informs members of key publics about “what the organization stands for” (p. 233), which reputation scholars such as Fombrun (1996) asserted is the basis of a competitive advantage. Molleda (2010) argued that an authenticity index should be developed to measure authenticity-grounded goals, strategies, or tactics. In Molleda (2010)’s proposed index of perceived authenticity, there were ten typologies: existential, exceptional, iconic, influential, natural, original, referential, experiential, or indexical, staged, and symbolic. The significance of Molleda’s (2010) findings was that it provided a way for organizations to measure authenticity of their organization.

Authenticity ties together organizational identity, organizational communication, and organizational actions to create a holistic perception of the organization (Brønn, 2010). Citing van Riel and Fombrun (2007), Brønn (2010) argued that authenticity originated in an organization's identity and was determined by perceptions of genuineness, accuracy, reliability, and trustworthiness. Brønn (2010) also asserted that authenticity is “where the organization demonstrates that there are no gaps between who they are, what they say, and what they do” (p. 314). Brønn's (2010) discussion of authenticity is significant in its conceptualization of the components that comprise the construct. When compared with Bowen (2010b), it is clear that the components of authenticity differ while the definition of authenticity remains similar.

Consistency in actions and communication allows members of key publics to make accurate assessments of an organization (Molleda & Jain, 2013). Similar to Bowen (2010b), Molleda and Jain (2013) asserted that organizations must consistently act in accordance with their core values, so primary publics can make accurate assessments of the organization's authenticity. Molleda and Jain (2013) also argued that organizations must have distinctive voices in order to build reputations grounded in authenticity. Molleda and Jain (2013) asserted that there is a relationship between organizational identity, organizational reputation, and perceived authenticity. Molleda and Jain (2013) referred to authenticity as ‘perceived authenticity,’ which they defined as “an experience and perception that is cocreated by the organization and its stakeholders as an ongoing negotiation of meaning and understanding” (p. 437). Co-creation of authenticity is a notion that is also shared by Taylor (1992), as previously indicated.

Authenticity and autonomy. Autonomy allows public relations practitioners to act as ethical counselors (Bowen, 2006) and create authentic content (Stoker & Rawlins, 2010), which can have positive implications for relationship quality and reputations. Bowen (2006) argued that autonomy was needed to properly maintain relationships through dialogue with members of key publics. Elucidating on definitions found in moral philosophy, management, and a 1997 definition found in *Webster's Dictionary*, Bowen (2006) defined autonomy as “the right to self-governance” (p. 331). Bowen (2006) asserted that organizational effectiveness was based on whether public relations practitioners had the autonomy to craft strategy, messaging, and make decisions in a manner that was consistent with the organization’s values and mission. Autonomy not only affords public relations practitioners a different perspective from other departments in an organization, but it also allows public relations practitioners to be ethical counselors to the dominant coalition (Bowen, 2006).

Some scholars (Stoker & Rawlins, 2010) have called for more autonomy to create authentic public relations messaging by pointing out that there is an abundance of ‘bullshit’ messaging in public relations. Stoker and Rawlins (2010) called for more authenticity and less ‘bullshit’ messaging in public relations by asserting that authenticity “places more responsibility for moral action on practitioners as individuals and organizations as a collective community of individuals” (p. 64). In order for public relations practitioners to have more chances for moral action, Stoker and Rawlins (2010) argued that practitioners must have a degree of autonomy to make “authentic moral decisions” (p. 66). Public relations practitioners can foster authenticity by having the

autonomy that he or she needs to create content that is not ‘bullshit,’ but rather, something worthy of reading.

Processing authenticity in content. Authenticity creates value in consumer culture (Rose & Wood, 2005). Rose and Wood (2005) asserted that validating oneself as an authentic individual presumes that consumers search to “engage in authenticating acts and authoritative performances” (p. 287). Calling on the work of Trilling (1992) and Firat and Venkatesh (1995), Rose and Wood (2005) argued that there was limited research on how consumers wrestle with “the authentic in a culture based increasingly on simulation” (p. 287). For this reason, Rose and Wood (2005) examined reality television consumption by television viewers as a way to determine whether viewers’ media consumption practices can create authenticity.

Discerning authenticity in media content has become significant in recent years due in part to contrived media programming like reality television. Rose and Wood (2005) found that there are several paradoxes (situation, identification, and production) that reality television viewers must come to terms with for “contrived authenticity,” or rather ‘hyperauthenticity,’ to be achieved. Rose and Wood (2005) defined hyperauthenticity as “viewers’ reflexive consumption of an individualized blend of fantasy with the real” (p. 294). Findings from Rose and Wood (2005) suggested that experiences in which individuals contrive “personally satisfying meanings” are perceived as authentic, which has positive implications for linking satisfaction and authenticity to relationship management strategies (p. 294).

Certain aspects of communications practices lend to discussions of authenticity online. Tolson (2010) conducted a study of communication practices on YouTube and

proposed the concept “mediated authenticity,” which stemmed from the critical and rhetorical traditions, through a discussion of art and broadcast media like television and radio. Tolson (2010) argued that mediated authenticity on YouTube consisted of presentation (i.e. ordinariness), interactivity and expertise. Furthermore, Tolson (2010) argued that “freshness” and “spontaneity” were key traits that individuals on YouTube found to be characteristic of authentic content online. Through a persuasive argument of mediated authenticity, the notion of co-creation was also present in Tolson (2010).

Regardless of the medium, authenticity can be manufactured (Duffy, 2013). By examining advertising and editorial content in two top women’s magazines, Duffy (2013) argued that authenticity was comprised of three facets: “(a) promoting natural, organic products; (b) the celebration of ordinary-looking women; and (c) the encouragement of inner-directed self-discovery” (p. 132). Through this assertion, Duffy (2013) argued that by creating content that celebrates individualism, brands and corporations can “make their creative products seem more ‘authentic,’” which potentially could mediate effects of the medium.

Components of Authenticity

Authenticity is “being the same on the inside as one appears to be outside an organization, or even personally” (Bowen, 2010b, p. 578-579). As Bowen (2010b) argued, authenticity is comprised of three components: transparency, veracity, and genuineness. This section will elaborate further on the components of authenticity as delineated in Bowen (2010b).

Transparency. Because there are several overlaps between trust and transparency, several scholars have talked about transparency as a means to enhance

trust. Arguing that transparency was comprised of participation, substantial information and accountability, Rawlins (2006) asserted that transparency was strongly predicted by the amount of information provided. Conversely, Rawlins (2006) argued that trust was comprised of competence, integrity, and goodwill. Rawlins (2006) posited that integrity and goodwill were significant components of trust. Citing the 2005 edition of the Miriam-Webster's Dictionary, Rawlins (2006) defined transparency as "free from pretense," "easily detected or seen through," and "readily understood" (p. 428). Findings from Rawlins (2006) suggested that providing substantial information could heighten perceptions of transparency, as well as potentially heighten trust among members of key publics.

Transparency is crucial to relationship building when trust is lost (Jahansoozi, 2006). Jahansoozi (2006) asserted that transparency allowed both parties in an organization-stakeholder relationship to understand each other's expectations from the relationship. Transparency held organizations in organization-stakeholder relationships accountable for their actions (Jahansoozi, 2006). Jahansoozi (2006) also argued that transparency facilitated joint efforts between the organization and its stakeholders. Transparency also allows stakeholders in organization-stakeholder relationships to see the commitment of an organization to their publics (Jahansoozi, 2006). Based on Jahansoozi's (2006) findings, it is clear that transparency can heighten organization-stakeholder outcomes like satisfaction, commitment, and trust.

Transparency in communication practices provides organizations the ability to show respect for the dignity of human beings' capacity for reason (Plaisance, 2007). Plaisance (2007) argued that transparency has roots in Kant's principles of humanity and

human dignity. Plaisance (2007) asserted that journalists and public relations practitioners have a duty to respect the dignity of individuals as human beings capable of reasoning. Plaisance (2007) posited that journalists have a duty for pursuing greater accountability through “standards of transparency” (p. 204). Plaisance (2007) also called for public relations practitioners to adopt disclosure as a means to incorporate transparency into practice, to heighten accountability, and to maintain and build trust. The crux of Plaisance’s (2007) arguments was that transparency is not a platitude, but rather, it should be approached with moral courage and incorporated in all communication and communication practices.

When transparency is not valued or practiced, repercussions of perceived acts of deception can be severe. Through a case study examination of the Wal-Mart and Edelman “Wal-Marting Across America” blog crisis, Burns (2008) echoed Plaisance’s (2007) call for transparency through disclosure in social media—as well as in all public relations materials—by public relations practitioners. Burns (2008) argued that non-transparent practices in social media lead to harsher responses by key publics despite any crisis response strategy an organization chooses to use. The significance of Burns’ (2008) findings highlighted the relationship between a lack of transparency, disregard of the trust of the client’s key publics, as well as the damage to the authenticity and credibility of the public relations agency.

A lack of transparency and accusations of deception can damage the trust between an organization and its publics. Bandsuch, Pate, and Thies (2008) argued that transparency, ethical culture, and representation of stakeholder voice were key components to restoring trust in organizations. Bandsuch et al. (2008) argued that

restoration of trust occurred when corporate reputations are negatively impacted. Furthermore, Bandsuch et al. (2008) argued that principle-centered leaderships and transparency were essential in restoring trust. Bandsuch et al. (2008) argued that transparency consisted of six elements: accuracy, comprehensiveness, timeliness, accessibility, clarity, and responsiveness. Significance of Bandsuch et al.'s (2008) findings is that transparency's role in effective corporate governance is a means to help rebuild trust.

Incorporating transparency practices begins with how it is incorporated into strategy. Based on his 2006 study, Rawlins (2009) focused his study of transparency on "reputational traits" (p. 95). His argument posited that respect and openness were key factors to the study of organizational transparency as a means to measure stakeholder management. Rawlins (2009) argued that positivity, a relationship management strategy, was a significant predictor of trust and transparency. Citing J.E. Grunig and Hung (2002), Rawlins (2009) argued that organizational transparency was an important component of reputations, meaning that if there is a lack of transparency then an organization's reputation could suffer. Organizational transparency becomes a necessity, rather than a platitude when considering relationship management strategies to bolster or maintain reputations.

Transparency strategies should reflect a transparent organizational culture. O'Toole and Bennis (2009) argued that organizational transparency could be fostered by: tell[ing] the truth, encourage[ing] people to speak truth to power, reward[ing] contrarians, practice[ing] having unpleasant conversations, diversif[ing] your

sources of information, admit[ing] your mistake, build[ing] organizational support for transparency, and set[ting] information free. (p. 57)

O'Toole and Bennis (2009) argued that fostering transparency in an organization was encouraged, but complete transparency was unachievable and undesirable. Transparency was challenging for organizations because there were competitive advantages like trade secrets to withholding certain types of information from stakeholders (O'Toole & Bennis, 2009).

Transparency is a concept that has many definitions. O'Toole and Bennis (2009) defined transparency as "the degree to which information flows freely within an organization, among managers and employees, and outward to stakeholders" (p. 56). O'Toole and Bennis' (2009) definition of transparency is similar to those of Bowen (2010b) and DiStaso and Bortree's (2012). Bowen (2010b) defined transparency as "being open with how business is conducted, meaning that operations are visible and understandable" (p. 579). Citing Holtz's (2009) definition of transparency, DiStaso and Bortree (2012) asserted that transparency was "the degree to which an organization shares information its stakeholders need to make informed decisions" (p. 511).

While some scholars focus on the information sharing (DiStaso & Bortree, 2012; O'Toole & Bennis, 2009) and informed decision-making (Bowen, 2010b) aspects of transparency, DiStaso and Bortree's (2012) study of social media use in award-winning public relations campaigns highlighted social media as a tool that helped public relations practitioners to "communicate about what the organization does and why" (p. 512).

DiStaso and Bortree (2012) argued that due to the perceived transparent nature of social media, it helped public relations practitioners and their respective organizations become

more accountable to their publics. This is a sentiment that Plaisance (2007) echoed in his call for increased transparency through disclosure in public relations as a means to contribute to the “broader public good” (p. 204).

When transparent communications and reputations for transparency align, it provides the consistency needed for fostering authenticity. Auger (2014) examined the differences between organizations with reputations for transparency and the organization’s transparent communication practices. Through this study, Auger (2014) argued that there were two different types of transparency: organizational transparency and communicative transparency.

Citing Rawlins (2009), Auger (2014) argued that organizational transparency consisted of “integrity, respect for others, and openness” (p. 328). Auger (2014) also relied on Rawlins’ (2009) definition of communicative transparency, which was comprised of “participation, accountability, provision of substantial information, and secrecy” (p. 328). Auger (2014) argued that reputations for transparency and communications practices grounded in transparency must align in order to foster trust and “positive behavioral intentions” (p. 341). Auger (2014) also asserted that transparency is a necessity for organizations. While Auger’s (2014) arguments primarily regard transparency, it is significant to note that there are implications for consistency in reputations and communication practices.

Consistently transparent communications practices also have a relationship with the narratives that organizations create. Press and Arnould (2014) examined the role of dialogue in transparency in what they have coined “narrative transparency.” Press and Arnould’s (2014) narrative transparency is similar to Rawlins’ (2009) communicative

transparency. Through dialogue, Press and Arnould (2014) argued that narrative transparency allowed organizations to convey their values and beliefs through text, which is useful for organizations trying to reach publics of various cultures. Narrative transparency afforded organizations the ability to interact with members of key publics through active information disclosure, making them accountable for the information and organizational actions associated with them (Press & Arnould, 2014). Narrative transparency not only provides a way for organizations to communicate their values and beliefs transparently through text, but it also fosters accountability.

Veracity. Research surrounding the principle of veracity is typically concerned with truth-telling and deception detection. Sissela Bok (1978) argued that veracity was the “positive worth of truthfulness” (p. 30). Veracity was viewed as the basis of trust, which is foundational to society (Bok, 1978). Bok (1978) argued that veracity was the counterweight to lying and placed the burden on those who lie to justify their actions. Given Bok’s (1978) assertions, veracity acts as the fabric of society, placing enormous importance on standards of truth.

Mutually agreed upon actions by parties in practitioner-client relationships highlight the benefits of veracity. Ellin (1981) argued that in fiduciary relationships such as those involving public relations practitioners and clients, the skilled professional aims to work toward the benefit of the individual that has contracted him or her. Ellin (1981) argued that fiduciary relationships tend to be time-limited, but should be guided by professional ethics including veracity. Interestingly, Ellin (1981) asserted that fiduciary relationships tend to place stronger condemnation towards lying because it is a greater contaminant to the trust that exists in the professional-client relationship than deception.

Ellin (1981) posited that professional-client relationships work well when all parties in the relationship agree to work together morally, meaning that all parties work jointly toward the benefit of each party's self-interest. The significance of Ellin's (1981) assertions highlighted the detriments of lying and the benefits of veracity.

Motivations are a strong determinant of whether individuals will be truthful or lie. Through their interpretation of Bok's (1999) principle of veracity, Levine, Kim, and Hamel (2010) argued that individuals will tend to tell the truth unless there are special circumstances that can be argued to require deception. Levine et al. (2010) argued that when individuals are placed in a difficult situation, individuals are more apt to lie. Interestingly, Levine et al. (2010) argued that individuals were more apt to tell the truth or to be honest when the truth did not affect their goals. Levine et al. (2010) asserted that deception could be used to avoid social awkwardness or to avoid getting in trouble. Furthermore, Levine et al. (2010) argued that motives play a crucial role in understanding the principle of veracity and its role with deception. Understanding motivations for deception may help with heightening and reinforcing practices using veracity.

The principle of veracity was one that "holds that the truth must be told, even when ugly or not advantageous to an organization's own desires" (Bowen, 2010b, p. 579). Bowen (2010b) argued that truthfulness was "morally worthy" because it showed respect for the individual to make choices (p. 579), which acknowledged individuals for their rationality and autonomy. Bowen's (2010b) suppositions placed Kant's deontological Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons at the center of discussions surrounding veracity and authenticity.

Genuineness. Some scholars believe that genuineness was a factor of image (Kjeldahl, Carmichael, & Mertz, 1971). In their study of image in presidential candidate campaigns, Kjeldahl et al. (1971) found through the use of semantic differential scales that genuineness lays at the intersection of “truthful-untruthful,’ ‘straightforward-devious,’ ‘trustworthy-untrustworthy,’ and ‘real-phony’” (p. 130). Through their analysis, Kjeldahl et al. (1971) argued that genuineness and leadership were key factors in assessing image. From an organization’s perspective, Kjeldahl et al.’s (1971) highlighted the significance that image has on how organizations are perceived as being genuine in their actions and communication.

Other scholars believe that image is not a component of genuineness. In fact, J. E. Grunig (1993) argued that image making is unethical because it can be “deceptive and manipulative” (p. 128). J. E. Grunig (1993) argued that image places importance on superficial symbols in messaging rather than on the relationships between organizations and their publics. J. E. Grunig (1993) contended that image may be used to project “positive images” that the communicator wants the receiver to be exposed to. Citing Bernays (1977), J. E. Grunig (1993) argued that image was detrimental to the public relations industry because it communicated a perception that public relations “deals with shadows and illusions rather than reality” (p. 125). Assertions made by J. E. Grunig (1993) regarding image highlighted the need for genuineness in actions and communication, which creates consistency and credibility.

When discussing genuineness, Bowen (2010b) argued that it “speaks to the heart of moral intention in that an organization is genuinely pursuing an ethical course of action” (p. 579). Bowen (2010b) noted that scholars like L’Etang and Pieczka (1996)

questioned true genuineness in organizations due to the natural inequality of power between organizations and their publics. Examining an organization's motivations and decision-making processes can help assess genuineness of communication or actions (Bowen, 2010b). Given arguments regarding unequal power between organizations and their publics, Bowen's (2010b) means for assessing genuineness should be used to bolster arguments regarding the inclusion of authenticity in relationship management efforts.

Behavioral economists have studied genuineness and its relationship to moral action and moral reputations. Sperber and Baumard (2012) argued that individuals' moral actions are guided by moral emotions, which signaled whether or not the individual is trustworthy. Sperber and Baumard (2012) asserted that it is hard to fake being genuinely moral because being genuinely moral was an unconscious reflex. Sperber and Baumard (2012) noted that a moral reputation is rooted in moral behavior, and for that reason, moral behaviors help shape opinions regarding individuals. Given Sperber and Baumard (2012)'s assertions, organizations that act genuinely do so reflexively, and that may be reflective of an authentic organizational culture.

Self-disclosure was a means of identifying genuine dialogue in relationships (Montague, 2012). Dialogic quality was dependent of how much each individual in the conversation self-disclosed (Montague, 2012). Montague's (2012) key argument was that genuine dialogue emerged through reciprocal self-disclosure. Through self-disclosures in dialogue, Montague (2012) argued that continued dialogue was also based on renewing, or inviting, moments of conversation, as well as on the perceptions that individuals held of one another. From an organization's perspective, Montague's (2012) assertions

highlighted the importance of continually renewing dialogue with members of key publics and disclosing relevant information on a regular basis.

Outcome of Authenticity

Credibility. Credibility is defined as “increase[ing] or reced[ing] based on how intended audiences perceive the communicator to be upholding or reflecting...key values” (Plaisance, 2014, p. 46). When credibility is lost, corrective actions championed by public relations practitioners should be taken to restore credibility. Baker (1993) asserted that public relations practitioners needed to have moral courage to use ethical philosophies as a means of restoring credibility when lost. Baker (1993) noted that credibility like trust takes a long time to repair when it is lost. Baker (1993) suggested that public relations practitioner should take immediate, corrective action and gain support within the organization. Networking or coalition-building was one way to approach fostering and repairing credibility (Baker, 1993). Transparency was also a necessity in repairing and maintaining credibility with members of key publics (Baker, 1993). Baker (1993) also drew associations between credibility and integrity as a means of discussing the multifaceted nature of credibility. The significance of Baker’s (1993) book was its practical applications of ethical principles as a means of heightening, building, repairing, and maintaining credibility in the public relation industry.

Communicating an organization’s ethical values can help improve credibility. Schlegelmilch and Pollach (2005) argued that an organization could improve their credibility by consistently showing the organization’s sincerity and ethical values through their communications efforts. To ensure that the organization’s communications and actions were consistent, Schlegelmilch and Pollach (2005) advocated for audits to assess

the sincerity of the organization's actions and communications. Schlegelmilch and Pollach (2005) noted that inconsistencies in actions and communication created reputation and relationship management issues for organizations. Furthermore, Schlegelmilch and Pollach (2005) warned that communicating the organization's ethical values heightened key publics' expectations, which when not met, left the organization's reputation and credibility vulnerable to criticism. Findings from Schlegelmilch and Pollach (2005) indicated that communicating an organization's ethical values can be risky, but is one way of building credibility.

In order for members of key publics to want to engage with organizations on social media, the organization must provide relevant and useful information, positioning the organization as a credible source of information (Sweetser, Porter, Chung, & Kim, 2008). Sweetser et al. (2008) argued that there was a relationship between use and credibility. Through this assertion, Sweetser et al. (2008) argued that the more an individual used blogs, the more credible they were perceived. Interestingly, Sweetser et al. (2008) found that journalists and public relations practitioners did not see blogs as credible sources of information. Findings from Sweetser et al. (2008) indicated that there was skepticism among communications practitioner regarding the credibility of blogs, a social media tool.

Blogger credibility has a significant effect on trust. Through an examination of blog-mediated public relations, Yang and Lim (2009) argued that credibility had a significant effect on trust. Yang and Lim (2009) asserted that interactivity and dialogue, when combined with the blogger's voice and credibility, helped build relational trust. Interestingly, Yang and Lim (2009) argued that interactivity was a mediating variable for

trust. Yang and Lim (2009) posited that responsiveness showed respect for the opinion of the commenter. Thus, it can be inferred from Yang and Lim's (2009) findings that high responsiveness communicated high-levels of respect, whereas lower levels of responsiveness communicated limited respect.

In the nonprofit literature, credibility and accountability play a key role in volunteer intention. In terms of enhancing credibility and accountability, Bortree (2011) argued that social media use helped keep organizations and public relations practitioners accountable to members of their key publics. Bortree (2011) asserted that relationship quality helped determine future volunteer intentions. Thus, one could infer that the dialogic nature of social media fosters two-way symmetrical communication, allowing all members of the key public to be heard.

The Need for Authenticity

Authenticity has become significant over the years because of the rise of new technologies (Taylor, 1992). Taylor (1992) felt that there were three primary concerns about the effects of modernity on authenticity: individualism, disenchantment of society, and the political ramifications of individualism and reason. Noting his three primary concerns of modernity, Taylor's (1992) argument focused on the relationship between the ideal of authenticity and the "narcissistic" modes of contemporary culture" (p. 35). Taylor (1992) argued that "democratic equality" has limited notions of a higher purpose (p. 4). This limited mentality in addition to the prominence of technology in society has perpetuated narcissism (Taylor, 1992).

Taylor (1992) argued that every individual has unique opinions and perspectives that he or she shares, which spoke to his presupposition that authenticity held elements of

‘self-fulfillment’ and ‘self-realization’ (p. 29). While modern technologies provide a means for self-fulfillment, Taylor (1992) contended that the problem was that the sole pursuit of self-fulfillment denied “our ties with others” (p. 35). Taylor (1992) argued that through dialogue, humans “become full human agents, capable of understanding ourselves, and hence of defining an identity, through our acquisition of rich human language” (p. 33).

Given the number of corporate scandals like Enron that decrease trust in business, Gilmore and Pine (2007) argued that a “new customer sensibility” has emerged; customers want authenticity (p. 23). Gilmore and Pine (2007) argued that the need for authenticity resides in the desire for self-expression, which is similar to Taylor’s (1992) arguments. Gilmore and Pine (2007) deviated from Taylor (1992) through their discussion of the individual in relation to society. Customers want to share their individualism with others, and organizations should find ways to facilitate self-expression among customers (Gilmore & Pine, 2007). The significance of Gilmore and Pine’s (2007) book was that self-expression led to greater self-expression and purpose within society, a counterpoint to Taylor’s (1992) assertions regarding the rise narcissism in contemporary culture.

Call for authenticity. In the surge of inauthentic communication, organizations like the Arthur W. Page Society have called for more authenticity in organizational leadership and communication in its 2007 *Authentic Enterprise*. In this report, the Arthur W. Page Society argued that internal and external communications are converging (Arthur W. Page Society, 2007). Thus, organizational values must be present in internal communications, as well as in an organization’s external communications and activities

to create consistency that fosters authenticity during this convergence (Arthur W. Page Society, 2007). When an organization takes its mission, vision, and values to heart by incorporating them into its communications and business activities, the organization and its communicators are “effectively compelled to behave in ways that are consistent with its core values” (Arthur W. Page Society, 2007, p. 16).

The Rise of Inauthentic Communication

Inauthentic communication has elements of deception. Bok (1978) defined deceptive communication as “messages meant to mislead them, meant to make them believe what we ourselves do not believe” (p. 13). Bok (1978) argued that deception is tantamount to a lie, which she defined as “any intentionally deceptive message which is stated” (p. 13). The problem with inauthentic communication, lies, and deception is that it denies individuals, or the receiver of inauthentic communication, access to information to make a rational decision, a notion supported by Bok (1978) and Kantian deontologists (Bowen, 2010; Sullivan, 1994). Because the rationality of the individual is ignored, inauthentic communication does not show respect for the dignity of the individual as a rational being (Sullivan, 1994).

Online astroturfing. For those participating in online astroturfing activities, social media provides easier, direct access to target publics. Jacobs (2012) argued that the rise in online astroturfing paralleled the growing popularity of social media, given its low barrier to entry and ease of use. Jacobs (2012) asserted that the increased demand for testimonials has also perpetuated the rise in online astroturfing. Online astroturfing has the appearance of being authentic, which has damaging consequences for organizations’ reputations and to the public relations industry as a whole (Jacobs, 2012). Given social

media's propensity to perpetuate dialogic communication, Jacobs (2012) noted that it was only a matter of time until individuals using traditional means of astroturfing migrated to platforms like Twitter and Facebook. Jacobs (2012) called for greater use of transparency practices like disclosure of interests. Misrepresentation online contributes to undermining the credibility of the public relations industry as a whole.

Corporate front groups. The need for more authentic content, strategies, and organizational cultures may have roots in the rise of inauthenticity, which has been perpetuated by corporate front groups (Pfau et al., 2007; Scott, 2013). Corporate front groups pose a threat to the trust that exists between nonprofit organizations and their publics, potentially causing skepticism in response to calls for advocacy and support.

A corporate front group is “a group of citizens or experts—and preferably a coalition of such groups—which can publicly promote the outcomes desired by the corporation while claiming to represent the public interest” (Beder, 1998, p. 20). Beder (1998) argued that interests could also be revealed through an examination of funding sources and membership. Beder (1998) asserted that astroturfing has grown due to the large financial contributions by large corporations to special interest groups.

Stealth campaigns conducted by corporate front groups undermine the credibility of third party endorsements. Pfau, Haigh, Sims, and Wigley (2007) argued that stealth campaigns conducted by corporate front groups were effective in the short-term, but ultimately, have adverse effects on the sponsoring organization in the long-term particularly when they are exposed. Pfau et al. (2007) argued that corporate front groups had roots in Bernays' conceptualization of third-party endorsements, but that corporate front groups deviated from Bernays' original intent because their actions were rooted in

deception and their interests were not disclosed. Pfau et al. (2007) defined front-group stealth campaigns as “appear[ing] to represent one agenda but, in fact, serve a very different agenda, often an agenda that is the opposite of what the group’s name implies” (p. 74).

Some organizations use corporate front groups to build their reputations. Scott (2013) focused on the organizations that sponsor corporate front groups, which have coined as ‘hidden organizations,’ and reputation. Scott (2013) defined hidden organizations as “ones where key parts of the collective’s identity are concealed by management or other members, for a variety of reasons, from various audiences” (p. 547). Scott (2013) asserted that organizations using corporate front groups to hide their identity in an attempt to restore or protect their reputations. Furthermore, Scott (2013) asserted that organizations employing the services of corporate front groups may value secrecy, which is in direct opposition to expectations of publics for transparency.

Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is “a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986, p. 657). Barney (1986) posited that organizations with superior organizational cultures were high financial performers; thus, superior organizational cultures needed to be sustained and allowed to flourish. Through this assertion, Barney (1986) argued that organizational cultures provide competitive advantages. In order for this to occur, Barney (1986) argued that the organizational culture must meet three conditions: 1) it must be valuable, 2) it must be rare, and 3) it must be “imperfectly imitable” (p. 658). Superior organizational cultures that contribute significantly to the economic status of the organization are hard to

replicate, therefore, organizational cultures of this nature provide a competitive advantage (Barney, 1986).

Organizational culture can be affected by policy changes guided by public relations practitioners. Sriramesh, Grunig, and Dozier (1996) argued that because public relations was grounded in communication, public relations was a “product of culture” (p. 239). Interestingly, Sriramesh et al. (1996) asserted the relationship between corporate culture and public relations was cyclical in how they influenced each other. Through this assertion, Sriramesh et al. (1996) implied that while members of the dominant coalition shape organizational culture, public relations practitioners also have the ability to influence the organization’s culture through policy changes and many other ways in internal relations. The significance of this argument is that the inclusion of ethics into organizational policies could mitigate ‘groupthink’ and foster a more authentic corporate culture. Furthermore, because public relations is a strategic communications management function, authentic organizational cultures have important implications in relationship management.

Organizational culture can also be affected through decision-making processes. Bowen (2004) argued that collaborative management styles, symmetrical communication grounded in dialogue, rewarding ethical behavior, and a commitment to ethics were significant predictors of a strong, ethical organizational culture. Interestingly, Bowen (2004) argued that when personal and organizational values and ethics are aligned, individuals felt that they were supported in their decisions, which fostered greater moral courage. Using the different predictors of an ethical organizational culture as indicated by

Bowen (2004), organizational cultures grounded in ethical decision-making processes could help mitigate the effects of unethical actions.

Groupthink. Sometimes, organizational culture can influence an individual's moral decision-making and can "overwhelm personal belief systems" (Sims, 1992, p. 653). Sims (1992) argued that unethical 'groupthink' and organizational culture were connected and present in various arenas like the government, military, and corporate world. Citing Janis' (1972) definition of 'groupthink,' Sims (1992) referred to 'groupthink' as "a mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when members' striving for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative courses of action" (p. 653). Extrapolating the concept of 'groupthink,' Sims (1992) argued that its antecedents were high cohesiveness and insularity, which created outcomes like "arrogance, overcommitment, and excessive or blind loyalty to the group" (p. 653).

Alluding to the notion of 'groupthink,' Sims (1992) argued that ethical analysis, rooted in the prescriptions of Janis (1972), should be conducted on various levels within an organization: leadership, organization, individual, and processes. Although an analysis should be conducted at each level, Goodpaster (2000) argued certain aspects of the institutionalization of ethics create "counterfeits of conscience" (p. 192). Counterfeits of conscience cause public relations practitioners and employees to have lower motivation to act ethically; thus, lower-motivated individuals may let external factors drive decision-making (Goodpaster, 2000).

Organizations plagued by a culture of groupthink often result in other less-than-desirable behaviors. O'Toole and Bennis (2009) argued that groupthink often

accompanies other behaviors like information hoarding, tunnel vision (i.e. ignoring important facts), and inauthentic communication like self-censored communication with the executive management team. When coupled proactively with the use of communication technology, transparency and feedback also acted as a deterrent by incorporating diverse opinions and ideas (O'Toole & Bennis, 2009). O'Toole and Bennis (2009) asserted that transparency facilitated accountability and lessened groupthink.

Ethical Analyses for Decision-Making

Although transparency may play a role in mitigating groupthink, the use of ethical analyses is an essential and vital tool for fostering authentic corporate cultures. In order to incorporate these ethical analyses, public relations practitioners should be at Kohlberg's highest level of moral development to make sound, ethical decisions (Bowen, 2002a). This is a sentiment that resonates in Bowen's (2002b) study about the ethical approaches used by public relations practitioners at two elite organizations. Bowen (2002b) argued that deontological ethics should be institutionalized, resulting in ethical decision-making by employees and public relations practitioners. In order for public relations practitioners to have his or her sense of autonomy, Bowen (2003, 2009a) argued that practitioners should be taught as public relations students what their function in an organization entails and not be misled by the misperceptions in the media (i.e. television shows and movies).

Bowen (2009b) asserted that inconsistencies in ethical actions by an organization or its representatives (i.e. public relations practitioners) damage the trust between an organization and its respective publics. To avoid inconsistent ethical actions, Bowen

(2006) asserted, using Kant's Law of Autonomy, that it was necessary for public relations practitioners to have autonomy to maximize "organizational effectiveness" (p. 345).

Bowen (2010b) argued that collaborative decision-making is ideal in public relations because it is grounded in respect and considers all parties. Bowen (2010b) also noted that collaborative decision-making is often equated with symmetrical communication or the 'mutuality of dialogue' (p. 574). Collaborative decision-making can happen in an intraorganizational setting or between an organization and its respective publics, which is commonly referred to as an organization-public relationship.

Categorical Imperative. As an *a priori*, or guiding, moral framework, Kant's Categorical Imperative provided a deontological approach to decision-making, instilling an ethical means for the inclusion of authenticity into business practices. The incorporation of the Categorical Imperative as a means for the inclusion of heightened authenticity may result in better relationship management for organizations with their respective publics. Sullivan (1994a) argued that individuals must have the moral strength to follow these normative principles.

Sullivan (1994a) noted that Kant's Categorical Imperative consisted of three formulas: the Formula of Autonomy (Formula 1), the Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons (Formula 2), and the Formula of Legislation for a Moral Community (Formula 3). Kant's Formula of Autonomy offered the ability to universalize a decision, placing greater importance on the reversibility of a decision.

The second formula of Kant's Categorical Imperative, the Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons, drew a strong distinction between honor and respect (Sullivan, 1994b). Kant argued that "honor rests on societal roles and distinctions, whereas respect

is an attitude due a person, regardless of social position, occupation, learning, wealth, accomplishments, or any other special qualities” (Sullivan, 1994b, p. 70-71). Given this perspective, the Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons asserted that if an individual exists then he or she had dignity and “intrinsic self-worth;” thus, every individual was worthy of respect (Sullivan, 1994b).

TARES test. Truthfulness, authenticity, respect, social responsibility, and equity were cornerstone principles used by Baker and Martinson (2001) in developing the TARES test, which guides the inclusion of ethics into persuasive communication. TARES stands for truthfulness, authenticity, respect, social responsibility, and equity (Baker & Martinson, 2001). Respect for the persuadee was the grounding principle of the TARES test (Baker & Martinson, 2001), which argued for truthful communication and authentic messaging. Baker and Martinson (2001) argued that principles constructing the TARES test should not be used in a mutually exclusive manner. Baker and Martinson’s (2001) TARES test provided a model for the inclusion of ethical principles like truthfulness, authenticity, respect, social responsibility, and equity into dialogic, persuasive communication.

Ethics pyramid. Decision-making should be considered throughout the public relations process, particularly in the formation of public relations campaigns. Tilley (2005) have taken an evaluative perspective of public relations efforts like campaigns. Tilley (2005) argued for a complementary decision-making model paring deontology with virtue and consequentialist ethics to evaluate public relations campaigns. Tilley’s (2005) ethical pyramid consisted of three stages: 1) ethical intent, 2) ethical means, and

3) ethical outcomes. Tilley (2005) touted the ethical pyramid as a proactive means of analyzing a campaign from its formative steps to its execution.

Ethical symmetrical reflexivity. Bowen and Gallicano (2013) approached ethical decision-making by combining act and rule utilitarianism and deontology to create a model, which they called ethical symmetrical reflexivity. Bowen and Gallicano's (2013) model combined two different ethical analyses, which allowed various perspectives in discussions with stakeholders and publics regarding certain issues. Bowen and Gallicano (2013) argued that by combining utilitarianism and deontology, ethical symmetrical reflexivity offered a means for looking at principle and consequence of an action. By incorporating diverse perspectives, Bowen and Gallicano (2013) argued that ethical symmetrical reflexivity “builds relationships but also increases trust by incorporating more of the values of publics into organizational decisions” (p. 204).

Authenticity was defined as “being the same on the inside as one appears to be outside an organization, or even personally” (Bowen, 2010b, p. 578-579). Transparency, veracity, and genuineness—the three components of authenticity as delineated by Bowen (2010b)—helped to conceptualize authenticity through its relationship with identity and how authenticity is discerned in traditional and online media content. Scholarly discussions regarding the rise of inauthentic communication through the perpetuation of online astroturfing and corporate front groups highlighted the need for more authentic relationship management in social media.

2.3 RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

This section examined previous literature on reputations, organization-public relationships, organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector, as well as

relationship management. This section examined the role of perceptions, satisfaction, strategies, dialogue, as well as interactivity with in organization-public relationships. This section also discussed the role of stewardship and behavioral intentions as a means of discussing relationship management strategies within the nonprofit sector.

Relationship management is “the process of managing the relationships between an organization and its internal and external publics” (Ledingham, 2005, pp. 740–741). In 1984, Mary Ann Ferguson called for the study of the relationships between an organization and its respective publics. Since then, several public relations scholars have focused on the antecedent relationship management strategies, outcomes of organization-public relationships, as well as the behavioral intentions resulting in relationship management strategies (Ki & Shin, 2006). Noting that most organization-public relationship research uses interpersonal, marketing, psychology, and intra-organizational approaches, Ki and Shin (2006) called for further explication, as well as research into organization-public relationships as “a dynamic process” (p. 195).

Reputations

Reputations are representations of an organization’s values and can establish expected standards of performance (Fombrun, 1996). If organizations consistently meet these expectations, reputations can be used as a competitive advantage in a particular industry, which sets it apart from other organizations (Fombrun, 1996). Fombrun (1996) argued, “respect and trust build a reputation” (p. 20). Fombrun (1996) defined reputations as “perceptual representations of a company’s past actions and future prospects” (p. 72).

Reputation management is grounded in an organization’s ability to listen to its publics and supersede their expectations (Fombrun & Rindova, 2000). Fombrun and

Rindova (2000) posited that organizations wanting to maintain a good reputation, and arguably a relationship, with its key publics must listen to members of their publics and adjust their business practices accordingly. Fombrun and Rindova (2000) defined reputations as “aggregate perceptions of outsiders about the salient characteristics of firms” (p. 78). In order to effectively manage its reputation, organizations have a very comprehensive understanding of the expectations of their publics, so that the organization can meet them and exceed them (Fombrun & Rindova, 2000). Based on arguments made by Fombrun and Rindova (2000), an organization’s ability to engage in dialogue with its key publics and listen to their concerns and feedback is particularly important to managing perceptions about an organization.

Messages in mass media and interpersonal communication are primary tools for communicators to use to further develop reputations (van Riel & Fombrun, 2007). Van Riel and Fombrun (2007) defined reputations as “overall assessments of organizations by their stakeholders” (p. 43). Citing earlier work from 2004, van Riel and Fombrun (2007) argued that organizations with strong reputations used communication messaging and practices that reflected: “distinctiveness, consistency, visibility, transparency, authenticity, and responsiveness” (p. 90). Furthermore, van Riel and Fombrun (2007) argued that organizations with strong reputations tended over communicate to their publics. Given these assertions, communicative practices including dialogue with a focus on authenticity could potentially strengthen reputations.

Reputations are driven by three core components: authenticity, transparency, and responsiveness (Brønn, 2010). Brønn (2010) argued that reputations not only communicate beliefs of an organization, they set expectations based on identity and

image. Central to arguments in authenticity, Brønn (2010) asserted that organizations with well-respected reputations communicate their mission, vision, and values consistently with members of their key publics. Authentic and consistent communication help establish trust in relationships (Brønn, 2010). Furthermore, Brønn (2010) argued that relationship quality drove reputation perceptions. The significance of Brønn's (2010) findings was in its discussion of the functionality of reputations and their purpose in relationship management.

Organization-Public Relationships

Organization-public relationships are defined as “the state which exists between an organization and its key publics in which the actions of either entity impact the economic, social, political and/or cultural well-being of the other entity” (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998, p. 62). Ledingham and Bruning (1998) posited that if organization-public relationships can be measured, they could be used to show the value of public relations. If they can show value through measurement, organization-public relationships can help organizations craft effective public relations programs and campaigns (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998).

Perceptions. Understanding the expectations of parties in organization-public relationships is equally significant as understanding the relationship outcomes. Broom, Casey, and Ritchey (2000) echoed Ferguson's (1984) call for the study of organization-public relationships. Pulling from literature in interpersonal communication, psychotherapy, interorganizational relationships and systems theory, Broom et al. (2000) defined organization-public relationships as “the patterns of interaction, transaction, exchange, and linkage between an organization and its publics” (p. 18). Broom et al.

(2000) made several conclusions about the nature of organization-public relationships and relationship management. One of the conclusions of particular interest to this dissertation is that perceptions and expectations are central to understanding how relationships are formed (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 2000). Through this understanding, ethical concepts like authenticity can be incorporated into this process.

Perceptions, or rather subjective views, play a crucial role in reputation perceptions and quality (Yang, Alessandri, & Kinsey, 2008). Yang, Alessandri, and Kinsey (2008) argued that subjective views of an organization affected expectations of the organization-public relationship. Interestingly, Yang et al. (2008) argued that relational quality is cyclical, meaning that perceptions of relationship quality are co-created by the organization and its publics. Furthermore, Yang et al. (2008) noted that subjective views of relationship quality were determined by the nature of the type of relationship—whether the relationship was communal, exchange or outcome-driven. The importance of this study highlights the effect of perception, or subjective views, have on relationship quality and reputations.

Satisfaction. Personal relationship commitment may play a significant role in understanding the relationship between organizations and publics. Bruning and Galloway (2003) proposed that there were five different dimensions of organization-public relationships: anthropomorphism, professional benefits/expectations, personal commitment, community improvement, and comparison of alternative. Citing Kruckeberg (2001), Bruning and Galloway (2003) posited that organization-public relationship scales were missing a “personal relationship commitment” dimension (p. 309). This proposed dimension helped to formulize Bruning and Galloway’s (2003)

argument that organizations should use relationship management strategies focused on improving satisfaction between the organization and its publics in a manner that is similar to interpersonal relationships (Bruning & Galloway, 2003).

Mutual benefit in relationships may lead to greater satisfaction for all entities in organization-public relationships. Bruning, DeMiglio, and Embry (2006) argued that when respondents felt that there was mutual benefit between themselves and an organization, it provided a competitive advantage for organizations. Bruning et al. (2006) noted that this may be particularly true when a respondent's expectations have been exceeded, which speaks to perceptions of satisfaction. Bruning et al. (2006) echoed Fombrun's (1996) assertion that positive relationship management fosters positive reputation assessments, which are competitive advantages for organizations. Furthermore, understanding what is mutually beneficial for all parties in an organization-public relationship guide how strategies are developed to elicit positive behavioral outcomes.

Strategy. Different types of organization-public relationships require different strategic approaches to relationship management and maintenance. The three typologies of organization-public relationships are: professional, personal, and community (Bruning and Ledingham, 1999). Bruning and Ledingham (1999) argued that there was a need to measure organization-public relationships, and to do so, the researchers proposed a multi-dimensional scale using the three relationship typologies. Through this study, Bruning and Ledingham (1999) asserted that different types of relationships require different relationship management strategies like openness and networking to illicit different types of relationship management outcomes like trust and commitment. The scale offered in

Bruning and Ledingham (1999) provides a way to quantify relationships in a meaningful way by looking at the different types of relationships.

While different types of organization-public relationships require different strategies, eliciting certain relationship outcomes like satisfaction may require a multi-faceted strategic approach. Bruning and Ledingham (2000) focused their study on the behavioral and attitudinal aspects of organization-public relationships, particularly in terms of satisfaction. Extending Bruning and Ledingham (1999), Bruning and Ledingham (2000) argued that perceptions of satisfaction influenced how members of key publics evaluated an organization in either a professional, personal, or community relationship. Interestingly, Bruning and Ledingham (2000) asserted that multiple relationship management strategies should be used simultaneously to elicit different relationship management outcomes like satisfaction. The intent behind understanding satisfaction and offering a multi-strategy approach is to provide a quantifiable means of evaluating organization-public relationships to further legitimize public relations and relationship management (Bruning & Ledingham, 2000).

Dialogue. Eliciting public feedback may positively impact organization-public relationship assessments. Bruning, Dials & Shirka (2008) took a dialogic perspective on organization-public relationships arguing that initiatives and strategies formulated by practitioners using dialogue should be strongly encouraged. Furthermore, Bruning et al. (2008) argued that when members of key publics were involve in the creation of campaigns and messaging, there were significant benefits for organizations such as heighten effectiveness of organizational communication. This assertion by Bruning et al.

(2008) indicated that there was a need to incorporate dialogue to heighten relationship quality perceptions of organization-public relationships.

Dialogue has an important role in civil societies. Taylor (2010) posited that civil society was rooted in dialogue and tolerance for different ideas. Taylor (2010) conceptualized civil society as not being “about having one common idea; it was about a tolerance of debating different ideas” (p. 7). Interestingly, Taylor (2010) posited that in civil societies, all interest groups and individuals are working toward a common good and improving the community that they live in for all. Taylor (2010) insisted that the convergence of different ideas between parties lead to more instances for groups to achieve common goals. Relationship-building activities in a civil society are grounded in negotiations (Taylor, 2010). For nonprofit organizations, Taylor (2010) argued that a significant challenge to achieving common goals was the inability to mobilize individuals and resources. Furthermore, Taylor (2010) asserted that the Internet provided “opportunities to maximize information sharing, collaboration, and meaning making” (p. 12). Taylor’s (2010) assertions regarding dialogue and its role in a civil society are important for discussions of control mutuality because it implies that control mutuality is one means of enacting ethical public relations and authenticity as part of a civil society

Interactivity. Incorporating interactivity, all organizations have the potential for relationship building and maintenance with their respective publics online (Lee & Park, 2013). Lee and Park (2013) argued that interactivity heightened overall relationship management efforts, resulting in higher relationship management outcomes. Citing Sundar, Kalyanaraman, and Brown (2003), Lee and Park (2013) defined interactivity as “the transmission and reception of messages” (p. 190). Lee and Park (2013) found that

small or large organizations have the potential to build strong relationships with their respective publics online if they are willing to interact with them. In order know where to find members of key publics online and what they are saying about the organization or issues related to the organization, Lee and Park (2013) argued that there was a great need for organizations to focus efforts on environmental scanning to identify instances where dialogue would be appropriate. The inclusion of dialogue and interactivity were crucial elements to arguments made by Lee and Park (2013).

While two different concepts, interactivity and responsiveness are interconnected (Avidar, 2013). Avidar (2013) drew a significant distinction between interactivity and responsiveness through her proposed responsiveness pyramid. Importantly, Avidar (2013) posited that to have interactivity, responsiveness must be present in the nonprofit-public relationship. Avidar (2013) conceptualized responsiveness as “encourag[ing] the continuation of an interaction and reinforc[ing] commitment” (p. 442). Citing Ha and James (1998), interactivity was defined as “the extent to which the communicator and the audience respond to, or [are] willing to facilitate, each other’s communication needs” (as cited in Avidar, 2013, p. 442).

In her model, Avidar (2013) argued that there were three types of responsiveness (from high to low involvement): interactive, reactive, and non-interactive. Avidar (2013) described *interactive* responses as “contain[ing] various interactive elements that encourage the continuation of an interaction” (p. 447). Avidar (2013) described *reactive* responses as acknowledging a request and providing information related to the request, but not encouraging further communication or interaction with the individual. Avidar (2013) described *non-interactive* responses as ones that did not even acknowledge that

there was a request for information. While scholars have looked at the role of dialogue in public relations, Avidar's (2013) study classified the different types of responses to discuss means of maintaining relationships through interactivity.

Marketing perspective. Organization-public relationships are thought of as relationship management and customer relationship marketing in the marketing literature. Morgan and Hunt (1994) defined relationship marketing as “establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges” (p. 21).

Relationship management has been examined as it pertains to trust and commitment. Morgan and Hunt (1994) looked at trust and commitment in relationship marketing. Morgan and Hunt (1994) argued that trust and commitment were mediating variables that had long-term benefits for organizations in exchange relationships. Morgan and Hunt (1994) defined trust as “when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity” (p. 23). Commitment was defined as “an exchange partner believing that an ongoing relationship with another is so important as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it” (p. 23).

Trust and commitment contribute to important long-term benefits for organizations in exchange relationships. Morgan and Hunt (1994) asserted that long-term benefits of trust and commitment included cooperation, retention, and perceptions of acting prudently in questionable situations. Morgan and Hunt (1994) posited that outcomes from trust and commitment included “efficiency, productivity, and effectiveness” (p. 22). Morgan and Hunt (1994) argued that trust and commitment can be nurtured by “(1) providing resources...(2) maintaining high levels of corporate values...(3) communicating valuable information...(4) avoid[ing] malevolently taking

advantage” (p. 34). Findings from Morgan and Hunt (1994) suggested that trust and commitment could be used to foster retention of key publics, as well as that trust and commitment could be nurtured through communicating and acting in accordance to corporate values.

Governance in relationship marketing highlights different types of control, which speaks to control mutuality in organization-public relationships. Heide (1994) evaluated governance models in marketing channels. Heide (1994) argued that there were three forms of governance: relationship initiation, relationship maintenance, and relationship termination. Using these three forms of governance, Heide (1994) argued that characteristics of market governance were quite different than those in nonmarket governance, which consisted of unilateral control and bilateral control. Heide (1994) used his discussion of the different forms of governance in market and nonmarket environments to test bilateral control mechanisms, which will be discussed at length and further detail later in this literature review. Findings from Heide’s (1994) study highlight the relationship between governance models in marketing channels and different methods of managing power internally and externally.

Within the relationship marketing literature, there is focus on relationship development and relationship maintenance. Weitz and Jap (1995) were concerned primarily with relationship development and relationship maintenance in relationship marketing, citing an abundance of research on trust and commitment. Weitz and Jap (1995) argued that there were different benefits for interpersonal and interorganizational relationships, particularly in terms of maximization of utility or the financial returns generated from the relationship. Weitz and Jap (1995) argued that relationship

development was a slow process, but active communication strategies and passive communication strategies helped parties in the relationship determine whether the relationship was worth allocating effort and financial resources. Weitz and Jap (1995) posited that relationship maintenance consisted of how organizations managed conflict and communication.

Organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector

Fussel Sisco, Pressgrove, and Collins (2013) found that nonprofit organizations have very different relationships with their respective publics than their counterparts in the corporate sector, even though public relations principles can be applied across sectors. Given that public relations fundamentals are easily applicable, this may be a reason why there is limited research in nonprofit public relations (Fussel Sisco et al., 2013). Research in understanding nonprofit organizations' relationships with various publics may provide a better way to enhance the nonprofit-public relationship.

Oftentimes, organization-public relationship research focuses on relational quality or relational outcomes. Although much of this research focuses on organization-public relationships in the corporate sector, organization-public relationships scholars like Seltzer and Mitrook (2007), Waters (2008, 2009a, 2009b), Kang and Yang (2010), and Bortree (2011) have redirected some of that focus to the nonprofit sector.

Seltzer and Mitrook (2007) were big proponents of the inclusion of dialogue in organization-public relationships online, particularly on blogs. Their argument also focused on the role of public relations practitioner and the need for enough autonomy to create authentic content (Seltzer and Mitrook, 2007). Seltzer and Mitrook (2007) argued that “the organizational blogger needs to be independent enough to maintain the

distinctive, individual voice ... yet must also be trusted enough not to go off message” (p. 229). Trust in the public relations practitioner and trust built through dialogue were key arguments for Seltzer and Mitrook (2007).

Communicating with key publics on a regular basis can affect the relationship quality of organization-public relationships. O’Neil (2008) argued that a majority of the “variance in trust, satisfaction, and commitment” (p. 263) was related to the communication efforts by nonprofit organizations with their donors. Findings from this study highlight the importance of keeping donor publics informed on the organizational efforts of a nonprofit organization. Furthermore, keeping donor publics informed affect trust, satisfaction, and commitment; thus, communications tactics are incredibly important in terms of relationship management.

Waters (2008) also focused on trust in organization-public relationships with different types of donors. Waters (2008) argued that commitment to an organization was a major driver of trust and that commitment varied given the different types of donor. This is particularly important for nonprofit organizations with various types of donors because it should help with content and strategy creation. For this reason, Waters (2008) argued that organizations should strongly consider relationship cultivations strategies like access, sharing of tasks, openness, networking, positivity, assurances, reciprocity, reporting, responsibility, and relationship nurturing.

Stewardship. Stewardship is a crucial component of public relations. Citing the work of Jevons (1994), Kelly (2001) defined stewardship as “the right ordering and management of all affairs and concerns—including what we now call economic concerns—of a household or community” (p. 283-284). Kelly (2001) argued that

stewardship was the fifth step in the public relations process; the first four steps of the public relations process involved: research, objectives, programming, and evaluation. Kelly (2001) argued that stewardship allowed for the public relations process to be “truly cyclical” (p. 279). Kelly (2001) contended that relationship management strategies focusing on stewardship involved reciprocity, responsibility, reporting, and relationship nurturing. Reciprocity entailed giving support when you received support (Kelly, 2001). Responsibility entailed keeping promises and acting in a manner that shows individuals that organizations are worth the support they receive (Kelly, 2001). Reporting entailed keeping individuals informed about the actions of an organization (Kelly, 2001). Relationship nurturing entailed recognizing individuals and showing how you value those individuals (Kelly, 2001). Tying stewardship into the public relations process and into relationship management allows for greater understanding and measurement of organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector.

Shifting from focusing on trust and commitment, Waters (2009a) began looking at the role of symmetrical and asymmetrical communication on organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector. Citing Kelley (2000)’s relationship cultivation strategies, Waters (2009a) argued that having an accurate assessment of the current status of an organization-public relationship by both parties helps determine relationship quality. Aligning these perceptions allows organizations to become more effective through their relationship management strategies like stewardship. More so, having an accurate assessment affords the organization the ability to understand its strengths and weaknesses so it can focus on making improvements or capitalizing on opportunities.

Measuring relationship outcomes may help with selecting different types of stewardship strategies. Building on Kelly (2001), Waters (2009b) developed a scale to measure each of the stewardship's components, which were reciprocity, responsibility, reporting, and relationship nurturing. Waters (2009b) argued that relationship nurturing strategies such as annual reports, special events, and handwritten notes were the most effective in building trust among donors. Waters (2009b) also asserted that relationship outcomes like commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality were significantly affected by stewardship strategies of responsibility and relationship nurturing. Waters (2009b) argued that using all of the stewardship strategies were not only appreciated by donors, but were a means of building loyalty.

Websites of advocacy groups and nonprofit organizations have been examined for relationship management strategies like stewardship as a means for better understanding of online organization-public relationships. Waters and Lord (2009) conducted an exploratory study of the relationship management strategies that nonprofit organizations and community advocacy groups use on their websites. Findings from this study illuminated that nonprofit organizations and community advocacy groups understood principles of relationship management, but implementation of these strategies on their websites was lacking (Waters and Lord, 2009). Therefore, enhancing relationship management strategies online should be of paramount importance for nonprofit organizations looking to improve their online relationships with their publics.

Nonprofit-public relationships have been evaluated from a fundraising perspective. Waters (2010) examined relationship cultivation strategies such as stewardship as a means of improving the effectiveness of fundraising campaigns. Waters

(2010) argued that relationship cultivation strategies allowed nonprofit organizations to make their publics feel appreciated, which would enhance the publics' loyalty to the nonprofit. Findings from Waters (2010) are significant in that they extend his previous works on nonprofit-public relationships and trust to loyalty. Longevity of the relationship seems to be an important factor in fostering trust and loyalty.

Stewardship strategies may be more effective in understanding organization-public relationships. Waters (2011) argued that stewardship strategies were more effective at examining organization-public relationships than those strategies rooted in the interpersonal communication tradition. Waters (2011) found that the Top 100 organizations were using stewardship strategies of reciprocity, responsibility, reporting, and relationship nurturing. Waters (2011) argued that a focus on practitioner behavior in terms of relationship maintenance was needed to strengthen the relationship management paradigm. The significance of Waters' (2011) findings highlights the similarities between stewardship and relationship management strategies rooted in the interpersonal communication tradition.

Internal communications and reputations could be improved and strengthened through the use of stewardship strategies (Waters, Bortree, & Tindall, 2013). Waters et al. (2013) asserted that when employees have greater involvement with their employers, positive assessments of employer-employee relationships occur more often. Waters et al. (2013) also argued that levels of involvement was directly affected by how satisfied and committed an employee felt with an employer. Consistent with other relationship management literature, Waters et al. (2013) argued that stewardship strategies should be used simultaneously. Because employees are an organization's greatest advocates, using

strategies to increase an employee's satisfaction and commitment is effective for word-of-mouth communication.

Behavioral intentions. Kang and Yang (2010) drew distinction around organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector by looking at the relationship between awareness and behavioral intentions like donor support. Part of Kang and Yang's (2010) argument was that there were mediating effects of attitude on behavioral intention, but the crux of Kang and Yang's (2010) argument was that key publics needed to be aware of the organization's efforts to maintain relationships, otherwise publics may decrease their support.

Given that some nonprofit organizations rely on volunteers, there was a need to understand why volunteers spend their time working on behalf of a nonprofit organization. Bortree (2011) argued that antecedents of organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector helped clarify understanding about the role of motivation in volunteer retention. When volunteers or members of a nonprofit organization's publics perceive the organization-public relationship positively, this can lead to heightened involvement by volunteers and an increased likelihood for future involvement (Bortree, 2011).

Relationship management antecedents and outcomes

Scholars have developed scales to measure organization-public relationships. This dissertation will focus on the scale developed by Hon and J. Grunig (1999), which was called the *PR Relationship Management Scale*. Hon and J. Grunig's (1999) *PR Relationship Management Scale* delineated that there were six outcome dimensions of relationships: control mutuality, trust, satisfaction, commitment, exchange relationship,

and communal relationship. Access, positivity, openness, assurances, networking, sharing of tasks, integrative, distributive, and dual concern were nine antecedent relationship management strategies (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Dual concern strategies were symmetrical or asymmetrical depending on how they were used. Hon and J. Grunig (1999) indicated that asymmetrical dual concern strategies were contending, avoiding, and compromising. Hon and J. Grunig (1999) indicated that symmetrical dual concern strategies were “cooperating, being unconditionally constructive, and saying win-win or no deal” (p. 17).

Antecedent definitions. To manage relationships, practitioners need strategic approaches for interacting with members of key publics. Hon and J. Grunig (1999) argued that these strategies were antecedents to relationships. When members of key publics have opportunities to interact or communicate with them, these are referred to as access strategies (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Organizations that take opportunities to make their relationships with their key publics more enjoyable through positivity employ positivity strategies (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Dialogue between the organization and its key publics to discuss concerns and thoughts is an example of an openness strategy (Hon & Grunig, 1999). When organizations acknowledge the concerns of their key publics and take steps to address these concerns, organizations are using assurance strategies (Hon & Grunig, 1999). When organizations align themselves with groups that share the same values as their key publics, these organizations employ networking strategies (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Organizations that bring together different groups as a means of solving a problem or working together to achieve a purpose employ sharing of tasks strategies (Hon & Grunig, 1999).

When organizations need to navigate through conflicts, integrative, distributive and dual concern strategies can be employed (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Organizations employing integrative strategies try to find common ground among all parties so that each party is accommodated and involved in the decision-making process (Hon & Grunig, 1999), which may be indicative as a potentially strong strategy for enhancing control mutuality. Organizations using distributive strategies tend to maximize their benefits at the expense of other parties (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Dual concern strategies are ideal. Organizations employing dual concern strategies balance the needs of all parties associated with the organization (Hon & Grunig, 1999).

Outcome definitions. Relationship management strategies produce different relationship outcomes like control mutuality, trust, satisfaction, commitment, exchange relationships, and communal relationships (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Control mutuality is how much influence each party feels that they have in a relationship (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Hon and Grunig (1999) defined trust as “one party’s level of confidence in and willingness to open oneself to the other party” (p. 19). Satisfaction is how favorably an individual views a relationship (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Commitment is to what degree an individual feels compelled to expend time and effort for a relationship (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Exchange relationships are based on the reciprocal giving and taking of benefits by individuals in the relationships (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Communal relationships are centered on the well-being of each party in the relationship; both parties pursue efforts for the benefit of both parties (Hon & Grunig, 1999).

Much of the research conducted regarding organization-public relationships and organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector focus on trust, commitment,

satisfaction, interactivity, and behavioral intentions. There is very little research on control mutuality. Limited research on control mutuality highlighted the need for further study in this relational outcome to extend scholarly discussions regarding authenticity.

2.4 CONTROL MUTUALITY

Given the limited research surrounding control mutuality in public relations, this section examines how different areas of academia discuss the construct. Literature in this section was drawn from relationship management, risk communication, social and organizational psychology, relationship marketing, and nonprofit management. This section also attempted to nest discussions of control mutuality within literature concerned with power and power in relationships.

Ferguson (1984) argued that within relationship management, the study of control mutuality was an area that needed further research in public relations, particularly through coorientation studies. Since Ferguson's call in 1984, there has been very little focus on this area of the organization-public relationship literature. Public relations scholars focusing on organization-public relationship theory typically do not focus on the concept of control mutuality. More times than not, public relations scholars refer to the definition of control mutuality in Hon and Grunig's (1999) foundational white paper, *Guidelines for Measuring Relationships in Public Relations*, which is provided later in this literature review.

Power in relationships. It is significant to note in any discussion of control mutuality that scholars have examined power and public relations.

Power in relationships and communication shifts as individuals change based on experiences in their lives. Holtzhausen (2000) argued that a postmodern approach of

power in an organizational setting allowed for more situational symmetry rather than the normative “organizational communication behavior” (p. 97), which may be more in-line with contingency scholars such as Glen Cameron, Yan Jin, Brian Reber, and Amanda Cancel who argued for scalable organizational responses. Holtzhausen (2000) argued that under postmodernism philosophy, members of key publics are always changing and evolving; thus, the relationship between an organization and its publics changes and is not permanent.

With the advent of accessible mass media, members of key publics are more vocal about their opinions (Bowen, 2013; Holtzhausen, 2000). Holtzhausen (2000) also asserted that as managers of communications, public relations practitioners have a responsibility to facilitate dissent, or dialogue, between key publics and the organizations that they represent. The significance of Holtzhausen’s (2000) assertions is that it draws attention to the fluid nature of relationships and the public relations practitioner’s role as facilitating communication as a means of creating change, making the relationship more relevant to publics.

There are different dimensions of power in relationships. Smudde and Courtwright (2010) defined power as a “community-based phenomenon that people confer on each other through their relationships with one another” (p. 184), indicative of the dialogic perspective of scholars such as Robert Heath, Michael Kent, Maureen Taylor, and Tom Kelleher. Smudde and Courtwright (2010) argued that there were three dimensions to power: hierarchical, rhetorical, and social. Interestingly, Smudde and Courtwright (2010) argued that using the hierarchical, rhetorical, and social dimensions of power together

was helpful in coalition building, strategy development, message design, genre choices, and implementation and evaluation.

Smudde and Courtwright (2010) discussed the hierarchical dimension of power as power conferred through organizational structure and job titles. When discussing the rhetorical dimension of power, Smudde and Courtwright (2010) asserted that rhetorical power was rooted in symbols and words, but was often associated with persuasion. Smudde and Courtwright (2010) argued that the social dimension of power was participatory in nature, meaning that power was transferred through actions and communication. The dimension of power of particular interest to this dissertation is the social dimension because it is predominantly concerned with power transferred through relationships, whether they are interpersonal relationships or organization-public relationships.

Control Mutuality

Several definitions of control mutuality have been offered in the public relations literature. Ferguson (1984) described control mutuality as “how much control both parties to the relationship believe they have, how power is distributed in the relationship, whether the parties to the relationship believe they share goals, and whether there is mutuality of understanding, agreement, and consensus” (p. 17). Control mutuality, as defined by Hon and Grunig (1999), was “the degree to which parties agree on who has the rightful power to influence one another” (p. 19). O’Neil (2008) likened control mutuality to “balanced power” (p. 264). Bortree (2011) defined control mutuality as the “perception by all parties in a relationship that they have a reasonable amount of power” (p. 45).

Relationship management. Discussions of control mutuality focus on the differences between bilateral and unilateral control. Stafford and Canary (1991) initially referred to control mutuality as, “the degree to which partners agree about which of them should decide relational goals and behavioral routines” (p. 224). Stafford and Canary (1991) argued that there were two different types of control: bilateral and unilateral. Stafford and Canary (1991) equated bilateral control to control mutuality by indicating that both concepts involved decisions being made by both parties in the relationship. Stafford and Canary (1991) argued that control mutuality implied consensus within the relationship, which they argued had implications regarding the stability, or balance, of the relationship.

Conversely, Stafford and Canary (1991) noted the difference between control mutuality and unilateral control, which placed emphasis on one party having greater influence on decision-making than the other party in the relationship. This assertion is almost always true in cases and relationships involving economic power. Citing several previous studies on unilateral control, Stafford and Canary (1991) noted that there were significant issues with unilateral control, particularly in terms of the types of behaviors and perceptions that occur when unilateral control is present. Stafford and Canary (1991) asserted that unilateral control consisted of one party taking power from the other individual in the relationship, resulting in domineering behaviors and creating negative perceptions of the relationship and affecting relationship quality. Understanding the differences between control mutuality and unilateral control highlighted the importance of control mutuality and its effects on relationship quality.

Control mutuality has been discussed in relation to relationship maintenance strategies. Canary and Stafford (1993) defined control mutuality as “the extent to which relational partners agree on who has the right to determine relational goals” (p. 238). Canary and Stafford (1993) argued that of all of the relationship management strategies, positivity was the strongest predictor of control mutuality and trust. Canary and Stafford (1993) argued that positivity strategies entailed “acting cheerful and avoiding criticism” (p. 253), which are strategies indicative of the interpersonal tradition. Canary and Stafford (1993) suggested that positivity might be a prominent influence on control mutuality because it was easy to reciprocate and that it added value to a relationship. Given that it is a strong predictor for control mutuality, positivity may have implications for authenticity.

Risk communication. Risk communicators have increasingly studied control mutuality. Initially calling on Hon and Grunig’s (1999) definition of control mutuality, Gurabardhi, Gutteling, Kuttschreuter (2005) elaborated on control mutuality’s role in risk communication. Gurabardhi et al. (2005) defined control mutuality as “the interaction between the parties in the risk decision-making process and their mutual influence rather than simply unidirectional control of one stakeholder over the other” (p. 501). Gurabardhi et al. (2005) contended that control mutuality had three components: two-way communication, dialogue, and stakeholder input in the decision-making process. Using these components to guide their data collection, Gurabardhi et al. (2005) argued that control mutuality was receiving increased attention in the risk communications literature focused on environmental, industrial, and technologic risks from 1988 to 2000. Findings of Gurabardhi’s (2005) study further highlight the absence of research focus on control

mutuality in relation to authenticity, relationship management, and nonprofit organizations.

Garvey and Buckley (2010) have used locus of control to discuss control mutuality as a risk communication strategy. Citing Gurabardhi et al. (2005), Garvey and Buckley (2010) argued that there were three conditions necessary for control mutuality to exist: “dialogic communication, multiple communication flows, and wide stakeholder participation” (p. 956). Of the three conditions necessary for control mutuality to occur, dialogue was essential (Garvey & Buckley, 2010). Garvey and Buckley (2010) argued that control mutuality allowed information exchange between parties in a relationship to occur, which also shaped opinion.

In relation to risk communication, Garvey and Buckley (2010) also argued that prediction markets were ideal for supporting control mutuality because they were easier to use, which facilitated participation, were web-based, and allowed for group decision-making on asset prices. Interestingly, Garvey and Buckley (2010) asserted that predictive markets allowed for information exchange, which meant that participants could form and shape opinions based on information. In terms of control mutuality in social media, Garvey and Buckley’s (2010) study showed how online communities could be environments in which control mutuality thrives.

Social and organizational psychology. Control mutuality is often equated to *locus of control* and associated with discussions about psychological ownership. In conceptualizing their arguments, McIntyre, Srivastava, and Fuller (2009) posited that locus of control was internal and external. Internal locus of control referred to when individuals felt they had control over their environment, whereas external locus of control

referred to when individuals felt their environments had more control over their actions (McIntyre, Srivastava, & Fuller, 2009). Based on their model, McIntyre et al. (2009) focused more on internal locus of control and individualism. McIntyre et al. (2009) argued that internal locus of control had a positive relationship with psychological ownership, but was mediated by effectance motives like the desire to affect outcomes.

McIntyre et al. (2009) argued that locus of control, or control mutuality, can be used to foster feelings of ownership. Citing Pierce, Rubinfeld, and Morgan (1991), McIntyre et al. (2009) asserted that psychological ownership was “outgrowth of formal ownership in the organization” (p. 384). McIntyre, Srivastava, and Fuller (2009) proposed that locus of control and individualism were antecedents to psychological ownership in employee-organization relationships. Using the Pierce, Kostova, Dirks (2003) definition, McIntyre et al. (2009) referred to psychological ownership as “the state-of-mind where the individual feels as if the target of ownership (whole or part thereof) is his/her own” (p. 383). Implications from McIntyre et al. (2009) suggest that if individuals feel that they have more control over outcomes, psychological ownership is heightened.

Models of control. Control mutuality has been discussed through examinations of marketing management models. Heide (1994) examined different types of interfirm governance models and their different characteristics. Heide (1994) argued that there two different forms of governance, which he called market and nonmarket governance. The model of relevance to discussions of control mutuality was Heide’s (1994) nonmarket governance model because it was of two different types of control: unilateral and bilateral. Heide (1994) argued that relationship maintenance using the bilateral control

dimension of nonmarket governance was characterized by negotiation, mutual interest, value, and responsibility (p. 75).

Control mutuality holds many similarities to control mechanisms in channel relationship management (Weitz & Jap, 1995). Within supplier-end user relationships, various levels of control mechanisms or governance exist. Weitz and Jap (1995) argued that there were three types of control mechanisms in channels: authoritative, contractual, and normative. Authoritative control was defined by Weitz and Jap (1995) as when “one party in the relationship us[es] its position or power to control the activities of the other party” (p. 306). Contractual control was defined as “an agreement by the parties in a relationship on terms that define their responsibilities and rewards for performing channel activities” (Weitz & Jap, 1995, p. 306). Normative control was defined as a “shared set of implicit principles or norms that coordinate the activities performed by the parties and govern the relationship” (Weitz & Jap, 1995, p. 306).

Each of the control mechanisms or governance typologies has a different function. Authoritative control mechanisms function based on power; contractual control mechanisms function based on terms, conditions, and franchising; normative control mechanisms function based on relationship norms like trust (Weitz & Jap, 1995). The control mechanism of importance to the discussion of control mutuality is normative control, which is rooted in “past interactions and marketplace reputations” (Weitz & Jap, 1995, p. 306). Normative control mechanisms are vertically integrated into corporations, meaning that the normative control mechanisms or governance policies are affected by the organization’s culture (Weitz & Jap, 1995).

Donors. Control mutuality has been discussed in terms of *mutual influence* (Sargeant & Lee, 2004). Seeking to tie this concept to fund-raising, Sargeant and Lee (2004) defined mutual influence as “the extent to which the donor feels that their views have been influenced or shaped by the nonprofit and the extent to which they believe that they might in turn influence the policy of that organization” (p. 617). Similar to organization-public relationship literature in the nonprofit sector, Sargeant and Lee (2004) focused on the role of trust and commitment in an examination of donor behaviors. Sargeant and Lee (2004) argued that donor behaviors could be assessed by “relationship investment, mutual influence, communication acceptance, and forbearance from opportunism” (p. 617).

Ethics of Care in Control Mutuality

Considering the interests of publics in the decision-making process was a natural extension on scholarly discussions about the ethics of care. Ethics of care literature stems out of the work of Carol Gilligan (1982). In her seminal work, *A Different Voice*, Gilligan (1982) contended that individuals in the relationship recognized responsibility for the well being of each individual. Gilligan (1982) postulated that care was a means of “nonviolent conflict resolution” through which individuals in the relationship struggle with responsibility for others and responsibility for themselves (p. 30). Gilligan (1982) equated this struggle to a dilemma between selfishness and responsibility. Through this conflict, Gilligan (1982) argued that moral decision is “the exercise of choice and the willingness to accept responsibility for that choice” (p. 67). Ethics of care placed significance on responsibility, choice, and not inflicting harm in relationships (Gilligan,

1982). In terms of control mutuality, ethics of care highlighted the role of responsibility in the dynamic between both parties in an organization-public relationship.

Tronto (1993) argued that care was a “practice and disposition” (p. 103). Tronto (1993) posited that caring implied showing an interest in someone other than the individual’s self and taking actions in accordance with this interest. Tronto (1993) argued that caring is culture-based and not limited to human beings; caring can extend to inanimate objects and to animals. Tronto (1993) argued that there were four phases of caring: “caring about, taking care of, care-giving, and care-receiving” (p. 106). The four phases of caring started with recognizing there was a need for care, taking responsibility for care, taking actions to give care, and recognizing that care is being received (Tronto, 1993). Interestingly, Tronto (1993) argued that care is often marginalized in societies valuing autonomy.

Tronto (1993) posited that there were also four elements of care, specific to ethics: attentiveness, responsibility, competence, and responsiveness. Attentiveness was seeing and recognizing a need for care (Tronto, 1993). Responsibility was thought of as an obligation to care, but Tronto (1983) was very adamant in asserting that this definition was subjective based on culture and gender. Tronto (1993) discussed competence in terms of the quality of care given. Responsiveness was thought of recognizing vulnerability in individuals requiring care (Tronto, 1993).

According to French and Weis (2000), there was a significant debate within the business ethics community about ethics of justice and ethics of care. Rawl’s ethics of justice focused on “individual autonomous choice and equality,” whereas Gilligan and Nodding’s ethics of care focused on “sympathy, compassion, and friendship” (French &

Weis, 2000, p. 125). Other scholars (French & Weis, 2000) viewed “ethical orientation” as a determinant of culture. French and Weis (2000) argued that ethics of justice were too narrow for understanding values in discourse ethics and that cultural contexts should be taken into account when examining values in discourse. Based on French and Weis (2000), ethics of care may be a means for expanding the examination of discourse ethics and detecting values.

With implications for consequentialism, communitarianism, and utilitarianism, Vanacker and Breslin (2006) argued that Gilligan and Noddings took exception to Kantian deontology’s focus on reason and rationality rather than on emotion. Given this assertion, scholars (Vanacker & Breslin, 2006) have argued that ethics of care presumes universality and reversibility. Within ethics of care, Vanacker and Breslin (2006) argued that the relationship within ethics of care between the caregiver and the care receiver is intrinsically imbalanced; a dynamic that positioned the care receiver as vulnerable and the caregiver with power. Examining relationships in terms of control mutuality through ethics of care and deontological perspectives may be able to illuminate the nuances of control mutuality.

Ethics of care may have implications for relationship management. Stoker and Walton (2009) believed that ethics of care centered on responsibility and compassion. Stoker and Walton (2009) argued that corporate alumni networks were a way for organizations downsizing to show care to employees who have lost their jobs. Stoker and Walton (2009) argued that ethics of care provided a foundation for relationships between organizations and publics. Interestingly, Stoker and Walton (2009) argued that using ethics of care after relationship termination was a means of showing responsibility

through compassion. Stoker and Walton's (2009) assertions show that there are practical applications for ethics of care in relationship maintenance.

The ethics of caring was seen by some scholars as a "natural impulse" that necessitated a decision, or a commitment, to care (Noddings, 2013). The crux of ethics of care depended upon the "development of an ideal self" as an obligation (Noddings, 2013, p. 707). Noddings (2013) argued that the intent of ethic of care was "heightening moral perception and sensitivity" (p. 705). Noddings (2013) asserted that empathy and feelings of responsibility occurred in ethics of care, but came with obligatory limits based on the nature of the relationship. Noddings (2013) asserted that individuals who were in close relation, or "our inner circles," were more likely to receive care than those outside this inner circle (p. 702). Noddings (2013) argued that care maintained relations and grew relations. Ethics of care can provide a level of moral sensitivity that organizations can use to maintain and grow their relationship with their respective publics.

Positive Requirements of Control Mutuality

Arguably, ethics of care is intrinsically linked to Kant's Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons in that it considers the intrinsic worth of a human being in relation to dignity afforded. The positive requirements associated with Kant's Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons—benevolence and beneficence—also centered on happiness and concern for the well-being of the individual (Sullivan, 1994b). Benevolence was thought of as "well-wishing" under Kant's Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons (Sullivan, 1994b, p. 79). While "well-wishing," or benevolence, provided ethical credence to discussions of control mutuality, beneficence, or "well-doing," connected intention to action (Sullivan, 1994b, p. 70).

Benevolence. The type of benevolence relevant to a discussion of control mutuality is mutualistic benevolence. Estlund (1990) argued that benevolence occurred on a loop where each party in a relationship is concerned with each other's desires, or happiness. Estlund (1990) asserted that the number of people in this loop changed the strength of care based on the nature of the association, or relation; thus, individuals within immediate relation may receive more care than individuals indirectly related. Rooted in the works of Joseph Butler (1969), Estlund (1990) argued that balanced benevolence contributed to happiness, meaning that acts of benevolence were mutualistic. Estlund (1990) noted that mutualistic benevolence created a level of dependence between the parties involved in this loop. Assertions made by Estlund (1990) highlighted the relationship between happiness and care, as well as how benevolence was related to commitment in fostering loyalty.

Benevolence may have economic advantages for organizations. Gassenheimer, Houston, and Manolis (2004) described benevolence from a marketing perspective as “emphasiz[ing] concern and convey[ing] sincerity toward maintaining exchange relationships” (p. 31). Gassenheimer et al. (2004) asserted that caring helped reduce feelings of vulnerability by resellers. Furthermore, Gassenheimer et al. (2004) suggested that economic dependence of the reseller had a positive affect on perceptions of seller benevolence. Gassenheimer et al. (2004) also contended that benevolence mediated the relationship between percentage of sales and affective commitment, the relationship between economic performance expectations and global performance, as well as the relationship between economic performance expectations and affective commitment. Contentions and suppositions posited by Gassenheimer et al. (2004) highlighted the

economic implications of benevolence by organizations, meaning that benevolence may also be seen as a competitive advantage.

Benevolence could be used to develop a sense of community (Urell, 2006). Urell (2006) argued that there were three stages for fostering benevolence: “cornering the market, carrying out the obligation, and blaming” (p. 527). Urell’s (2006) cornering the market stage provided a means for practitioners to entering into a community by way of a crisis or similar situation. Urell’s (2006) “carrying out the obligation” stage contended that practitioners proceeding to this stage feel duty-bound to fulfill certain actions. In the blaming stage, Urell (2006) argued that practitioners acknowledge failures following an evaluation of results and look for external reasons for the failure to elicit benevolence from key publics. Suppositions offered in Urell’s (2006) study highlighted different means of eliciting perceptions of benevolence among communities.

Nguyen (2010) argued that benevolence and involving the interests of clients were synonymous, especially when it came to the decision-making process for organizations conscious of their reputations. Thus, one could infer that organizations in client-business relationships could utilize benevolence by listening to clients concerns and interests, considering client interests, and acting a manner that was consistent with the clients’ interests (Nguyen, 2010). Nguyen (2010) defined benevolence as “extra contractual behaviours of contact personnel that assist clients for the purpose of enhancing the well-being of the latter” (p. 347). Nguyen (2010) sought to understand the mediating effects of benevolence to the relationship between competence and corporate reputation by examining two different types of benevolence: altruistic and mutualistic. Citing Jarvenpaa, Knoll, and Leidner (1998), Nguyen (2010) defined altruistic

benevolence as “the extent to which a trustee is believed to feel interpersonal care and concern, and the willingness to do good to the trustor beyond an egocentric profit model” (p. 348). Citing Doney and Cannon (1997), Nguyen (2010) referred to mutualistic benevolence as “the degree to which one party is genuinely interested in the other’s well-being and seeks joint gain” (p. 348).

Beneficence. Scholarly discussions surrounding beneficence also include discussions regarding justice. Campbell (1967) conceptualized beneficence by coupling it with his discussion of Adam Smith’s Theory of Justice. Campbell (1967) asserted that individuals have a natural tendency to pursue their self-interests, but that justice acted as a boundary for purely acting in one’s self-interest. Referring to Smith’s definition, Campbell (1967) defined justice as “abstaining from doing our neighbor any positive harm” (p. 573). Campbell (1967) argued that justice was the basis of a free society, but benevolence was “a necessary condition for a good society” (Campbell, 1967, p. 574). Citing Smith’s *Moral Sentiment*, Campbell (1967) argued that beneficence was benevolent action, meaning acting with concern for the desires and happiness of others. Assertions made by Campbell (1967) showed the positive benefits of beneficence in relation to fostering a good society.

Beneficence can be demanding, and at least one scholar has called for limitations to beneficence. Murphy (1993) argued that the principle of beneficence should be evaluated from how compliant individuals are to the demands of beneficence. Examining the demands of beneficence from deontological and consequential perspectives, Murphy (1993) asserted that limits were needed because beneficence can be overly taxing on individuals in situations where there is low beneficence. In these situations, Murphy

(1993) noted that individuals exuding beneficence overcompensate to the point where their well-being is affected. Interestingly, Murphy (1993) equated beneficence to a 'cooperative project' in which individuals "promote the good together with others" (p. 267). Murphy's (1993) assertion was particularly interesting when discussed within the context of authenticity and control mutuality because it implied joint efforts could be taken toward the mutual benefit of society or nonprofit organizations.

In the evaluation and program planning literature, beneficence is discussed as a means of ethically enhancing training programs for evaluators. Bates (2004) argued that beneficence could be incorporated into training programs to address questions regarding whether the organization is doing enough in respect to their stakeholders. Through this assertion, Bates (2004) contended that including beneficence in training programs could improve effectiveness of evaluators. Bates (2004) defined beneficence as "the quality of doing good, taking positive steps to help others, or the notion that one ought to do or promote action that benefits others" (p. 343). From a public relations perspective, assertions made by Bates (2004) showed potential for incorporating beneficence into the relationship maintenance strategies employed by an organization with its key publics. Furthermore, Bates' (2004) assertions provided a means for incorporating the moral sensitivity needed when developing public relations programs and campaigns.

Beneficence is seen as an imperfect duty (Mansell, 2013). Mansell (2013) argued that "duty of beneficence" fell underneath the umbrella of virtue ethics as a means to discuss stakeholder theory. Through this academic endeavor and an application of corporate social responsibility, Mansell (2013) argued that pursuing happiness for stakeholders, as well as non-stakeholders was equally ethical under the duty of

beneficence. Despite arguments to the contrary, Mansell (2013) argued that Kant viewed beneficence as an imperfect duty in which individuals choose happiness as an end. As a counterpoint, Mansell (2013) noted that Kant viewed a perfect duty as respecting the freedom of the individual. Mansell (2013) offered several suggestions about how to include beneficence into organizational processes like transparency of ethical policies. Assertions from Mansell (2013) acknowledged disagreements regarding beneficence, but also offered practical applications for the inclusion of beneficence. From a public relations perspective, using beneficence may increase control mutuality and perhaps, donations.

This section of this dissertation's literature review sought to bring together literature from different areas of academia to enrich discussions regarding control mutuality. Literature from relationship management, risk communication, social and organizational psychology, relationship marketing, and nonprofit management highlighted different types of control and the behaviors associated with them. The operational definition of control mutuality for this dissertation was "the interaction between the parties in the risk decision-making process and their mutual influence rather than simply unidirectional control of one stakeholder over the other" (Gurabardhi et al., 2005, p. 501). Ethics of care, benevolence, and beneficence offered a robust conceptualization of the positive requirements of control mutuality. From a relationship management perspective, social power played an important role in control mutuality.

2.5 SOCIAL MEDIA

This section examined previous literature on social media growth, terminology, typologies, benefits, as well as its relationship with authenticity. This section also

examined previous literature regarding social media use in the nonprofit sector, as well as the role of dialogue and barriers to participation.

Social media growth. The growth in social media adoption may parallel the growth in traditional mass media (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2012). The Internet has created opportunities for public relations practitioners in social media. Some of the opportunities that Bartlett and Bartlett (2012) indicated included media relations practices, the incorporation of transparency, relationship building, crisis response, and heightened information sharing. Given its rapid growth and untapped potential, public relations practitioners have opportunities to tailor social media goals, strategies, and messaging in effective ways that benefit their organizations.

Social media adoption is rapidly increasing among public relations practitioners. Wright and Hinson (2012) found that “35 percent of our 2012 respondents spen[t] at least 25 percent of their average workday with these new media while 15 percent devote more than half of their working time to activities involving these new media” (p. 15). Wright and Hinson (2012) bolstered this assertion by noting how the public relations industry has changed between 2006 and 2012 with the surge of social and emerging media use.

The changing media landscape has altered how public relations practitioners view and use social media. Wright and Hinson (2012) also noted that for the survey’s public relations practitioner respondents, the top four social media platforms were Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and LinkedIn. Age was a statistically significant demographic variable (Wright & Hinson, 2012). Wright and Hinson (2012) found that younger public relations practitioners were more inclined to advocate for and include social media into their communication efforts with key publics than their older counterparts. Wright and Hinson

(2012) found that “public relations practitioners believe that social and other emerging media continue to improve in terms of accuracy, credibility, honesty, trust and truth telling” (p. 15). With the rapid expansion of social media use by public relations practitioners and members of their key publics, findings from Wright and Hinson (2012) indicated a continued need for the inclusion of ethics in social media as a means of improving public relations efforts online.

Terminology. In industry, public relations practitioners often use the terms “social media” and “social networking” interchangeably. Valentini and Kruckenberg (2012) argued that there were significant differences between social networks and social media. Valentini and Kruckenberg (2012) argued the differences between the two terms resided in their different functionalities. Valentini and Kruckenberg (2012) asserted that social networking placed focus on connecting individuals online, whereas social media focused on online interactions, which was referred to as “users’ behaviors” (p.6). Furthermore, Valentini and Kruckenberg (2012) noted that the term ‘social network’ encapsulated more than online networks; they also included social networks in non-digital formats like alumni networks or corporate alumni networks.

In the *Dictionary of Public Relations Measurement and Research*, social networking was defined as “open source (i.e. publicly accessible) websites that facilitate social interaction and networking” (Stacks & Bowen, 2013a, p. 30). Tangentially, social media was defined as “open source (i.e. publicly accessible) media sites on the internet that accept user-generated content and foster social interaction” (Stacks & Bowen, 2013b, p. 30). Although very similar in definition, this dissertation will refer to sites like Twitter, Facebook, Vine, Instagram, and YouTube as ‘social media.’

Typologies. Social media can be categorized based on their purpose (Valentini & Kruckeberg, 2012). Valentini and Kruckeberg (2012) argued that social media fall into five typologies: informational, professional, educational, entertainment, and personal. Searching for information on social causes, nonprofit organizations, products, and services is characteristic of informational social media (Valentini & Kruckeberg, 2012). Professional networking, or “establishing professional links,” is characteristic of professional social media (Valentini & Kruckeberg, 2012, p. 7). Social media that focuses on and perpetuates learning is thought of as educational social media (Valentini & Kruckeberg, 2012). Focus on interests, hobbies, or passion is characteristic of entertainment social media (Valentini & Kruckeberg, 2012). Family, friend, and religion are characteristic of personal social media (Valentini & Kruckeberg, 2012). The different typologies and characteristics of social media can help public relations practitioners with strategy and messaging selection to heighten the effectiveness of their online relationship management.

Benefits. In a study conducted by Wright and Hinson (2008), findings indicated that two-way symmetrical communication and the speed of the communication has increased with the emergence and adoption of social media and blogs; subsequently, mutual understanding between organizations and its key publics has also increased. Interestingly, social media and blogs do not enjoy the same level of accountability, credibility and accuracy that traditional media have (Wright & Hinson, 2008). While that may be the case, respondents surveyed in Wright and Hinson (2008) indicated that social media was a great tool for building relationships. Given the findings from Wright and

Hinson (2008), it is clear that there are opportunities to enhance relationship building efforts with ethical concepts like authenticity.

Social media provides public relations practitioners with low cost and efficient means of reaching stakeholders and members of publics. The ability to engage publics through dialogue during the formative and “creative process” of social marketing programs is a benefit of social media (Thackeray et al., 2008). By using social media in this manner, Thackeray, Neiger, Hanson, and McKenzie (2008) indicated that members of key publics become “an active participant instead of a passive recipient” (p. 340), which was a foundational supposition of J. Grunig’s (1989) symmetrical communication and J. Grunig and Hunt’s (1984) models of public relations. Due its ability to turn passive recipients into active recipients (L. Grunig, 1992a), social media can also extend the reach of an organization’s communications efforts among key publics through word-of-mouth communication (Thackeray et al., 2008). Given the benefits of social media, knowing media use preferences of an organization’s key publics is crucial to developing public relations goals, objectives, and strategies (Thackeray et al., 2008).

Relationship building. Other scholars have argued that social media was a “tool of authenticity” (Kim & Johnson, 2012, p. 52) that allows for conversations and transparent practices of responding to questions and concerns from members of key publics. Kim and Johnson (2012) argued that social media is versatile, but tended to be effective when the tool was used in accordance with an organization’s goals. Findings from Kim and Johnson (2012) indicated that social media was more effective in internal, community and media relations efforts than other public relations efforts.

Practitioners in Kim and Johnson (2012)'s study argued that social media was used for relationship maintenance, as well as relationship building. Public relations practitioners interviewed for Kim and Johnson's (2012) study noted the need for the ability to measure social media efforts to bolster arguments regarding time and resource expenditures. Given the findings in Kim and Johnson's (2012) study, it is clear that public relations practitioners recognize the usefulness and value of social media, but need ways to measure their social media to ensure that they are able to justify its continued use by their organizations.

Facebook and Twitter can be used to build relationships through transparent and authentic communication. McCorkindale (2012) asserted that relationship building was an integral function of social media. McCorkindale (2012) argued that transparency and authenticity were not mutually exclusive concepts; thus, both should be used in tandem by organizations on social media. McCorkindale (2012) posited that organizations should be consistent in their communication practices to help set expectations. Furthermore, McCorkindale (2012) argued that if organizations choose to incorporate transparency and authenticity into their communications and social media practices, public relations practitioners should be able to measure their efforts. Findings from McCorkindale (2012) highlighted a need for more applied studies and practices that include authenticity and transparency into social media.

Social media can be used to foster positive outcomes for organizations online. McCorkindale and DiStaso (2013) argued that there were three key variables to consider when evaluating social media – trust, transparency, and engagement. McCorkindale and DiStaso (2013) asserted that organizations should use social media in an authentic

manner by communicating transparently and with consistent messaging. McCorkindale and DiStaso (2013) posited that there were positive implications for corporate reputations by using social media to build trust through transparency. Furthermore, McCorkindale and DiStaso (2013) argued that social media can be used to co-create corporate reputations. Given this assertion, social media can be used ethically through the use of consistent and transparent communication to build trust with key publics online.

Social Media in the Nonprofit Sector

Nonprofit organizations look for efficient and effective means of reaching members of their key publics either for donations or for participating in events or its championed initiatives. For instance, while it may have a reduced cost for mass mailings, a nonprofit organization may choose to not use the tactic when an e-newsletter or social media initiative may be as effective or more so depending on the industry or its key publics' media consumption habits. Opting for a digital approach may cut costs and time allowing for the small staff to focus attention and resources elsewhere. While the same sort of approach could be used in the for-profit sector, the small staff, and limited resources necessitate this creativity by nonprofits to function, whereas a for-profit has additional resources in different departments.

Timeliness of communication, which can be achieved through the use of social media, keeps active donors interested in an organization, but may not have significant effects on the outcomes of nonprofit-public relationships like trust, satisfaction, or commitment (O'Neil, 2008). Although, O'Neil (2008) asserted that explanations of what donations would be used for was "the most significant predictor for trust, commitment, and satisfaction" (p. 271). Furthermore, O'Neil (2008) argued that there was a link

between public relations tactics and relationship perceptions. Given O'Neil's (2008) finding regarding explanations of donation use, transparency in social media for nonprofits is significant because it is tied to the organization's financials.

While social media provides a cost-efficient, communications tools, some scholars (Curtis et al., 2010) believe that public relations practitioners in the nonprofit sector find social media to be credible tools to reach their respective publics. Curtis, Edwards, Fraser, Gudelsky, Holmquist, Thornton, and Sweetser (2010) asserted that organizations with "defined public relations departments are more likely to adopt social media technologies" (p. 92). To establish the effectiveness of social media, Curtis et al. (2010) measured credibility, fairness, and accuracy of social media use as perceived by public relations practitioners. When effective, social media has the ability to heighten credibility internally, as well as externally.

Some scholars (Bortree & Dou, 2012) have found that national and local chapters of nonprofits use social media tools differently. Studying national and local Twitter use by the Sierra Club, Bortree and Dou (2012) found that proximity was a key component in advocacy communication. Local chapters of the Sierra Club relied on motivational approaches where as the national chapter relied on information sharing approaches (Bortree & Dou, 2012). Furthermore, local chapters of the Sierra Club focused more on retweets and mentions on Twitter as a means of community building, whereas the national chapter shared links and fielded information seeking questions. The vastly different approaches based on proximity places prominence on the need for local chapters to consider the inclusion of authenticity and control mutuality in their social media efforts. Without consideration of these concepts, local chapters of nonprofit organizations

may not be as effective as they can be for enhancing organization-public relationship online.

Authenticity is built in part through dialogue. Merritt, Mackey, and Waters (2012) found that national nonprofits used blogs as an extension of their public relations efforts, lacking interactivity, focusing on one-way communication, and relying on third-party endorsements. Merritt et al. (2012) argued that dialogic principles were necessary for building authentic relationships online. Referring to Kent and Taylor's (1998) principles of dialogue, Merritt et al. (2012) argued that five dialogic principles must be present within a nonprofit's online communications: 1) there needed to be a feedback loop, 2) useful information needed to be provided, 3) generating new visitors must occur, 4) navigating the blog must be easy to use, and 5) visitors to a blog needed to be retained so as to encourage reoccurring visits. Merritt et al. (2012) found that nonprofit organizations were not using their blogs to their fullest potential, which seemed to be consistent with how nonprofit organizations were using other types of social media -- ineffectively. Using dialogue to foster authenticity could help nonprofit organizations effectively maximize their communication efforts online with key publics.

Barriers to participation. Increasing participation in events held by nonprofit organizations has positive fiscal implications, but some times, individuals are constrained from participating. Perceived constraints like cost, transportation, and proximity may decrease participation in events held by nonprofit organizations (McKeever, 2013). McKeever (2013) argued that nonprofit organizations should strive to limit these constraints to increase participation with nonprofits. By focusing on enhancing participation, McKeever (2013) argued that nonprofit organizations gain more monetary

resources that allow it to reach key publics through various means. Given the constraints toward participation for some members of key publics, social media can provide organizations a means of keeping these individuals involved despite constraints like cost or inconvenience.

Donors. When donors feel like they have a vested interest in a nonprofit organization, there are implications for continued donations. O’Neil (2007) contended that frequency of donations over an 18-month period had a positive relationship with control mutuality. Interestingly, O’Neil (2007) postulated that frequent donors had a vested interest in the operations of the nonprofit organization. O’Neil (2007) asserted that happiness to recommend donating to an organization had a significant impact on relationship outcomes such as “trust, commitment, satisfaction, control mutuality, and communal relationships” (p. 101). O’Neil (2007) argued that years of donation and happiness to recommend donating was significantly associated with continued support for the nonprofit organization. Findings from O’Neil (2007) highlighted the implications for control mutuality and donor publics.

Understanding how to use different social media platforms can provide public relations practitioners with a strategic tool to encourage donations and offer more information online. Smitko (2012) argued that persuasive communication messages should be tailored with a focus on “a person’s attitudes, values, and character traits” (p. 635). Smitko (2012) contended that a focus on attitude, values, and character traits lends to the credibility on Twitter, but that links to more donation information in the content should also be encouraged. Smitko (2012) advocated for the use of Twitter in fundraising efforts for nonprofit organizations and offered strategic implications for the use of the

social media platform. Findings from Smitko (2012) highlighted different techniques for public relations practitioners to use to encourage donors and potential donors to learn more about the nonprofit organization and its efforts.

Social Media Engagement.

Scholars have evaluated social media based on the level, or degree, of engagement by individuals interested in organizations' social media. Relying on Muntinga, Moorman, and Smit (2011) to guide their operationalization of engagement, Tsai and Men (2013) contended that engagement consisted of three activities: consumption, contribution, and creation. Under this conceptualization, Tsai and Men (2013) contended that the lowest level of engagement on social media was *consumption*, which was comprised of activities such as reading comments and viewing pictures and videos. The moderate level of engagement on social media was *contribution*, which was comprised of activities such as participating in conversations and commenting on pictures and videos (Men & Tsai, 2013). The highest level of engagement on social media was *creation*, which was comprised of activities such as "publishing and sharing videos and pictures...that others can consume and contribute to" (Tsai & Men, 2013, p. 77). Findings from Tsai and Men (2013) suggested that respondents were not actively engaged with corporations on social media because they used practices rooted in one-way communication. Findings from Tsai and Men (2013) highlighted the need for more symmetrical communication, as well as an opportunity for control mutuality.

Scholars have evaluated engagement on social media internationally in countries such as China. Building on previous works (Muntinga, Moorman, & Smit, 2011; Tsai & Men, 2013), Men and Tsai (2013a) asserted that low levels of engagement (consumption)

was more prevalent than moderate levels of engagement (contribution) among individuals who ‘liked’ or followed corporate brands on social media. Men and Tsai (2013a) asserted that organizations should foster business practices that build a “strong sense of community” (p. 20). Findings from Men and Tsai (2013a) suggest a need for strategies aimed at heightening control mutuality to increase levels of social media engagement.

Social media activities such as sharing and asking questions may affect how publics perceive their relationships with organizations (DiStaso & Bortree, 2012). Men and Tsai (2013b) argued that social media engagement influences the quality of organization-public relationships on social media. Men and Tsai (2013b) contended that sharing and contributing were two key activities for enhancing and fostering community on social media. Furthermore, Men and Tsai (2013b) posited that individuals who were highly engaged social media users advocated for the organization on social media “rather than passively consuming the information” shared by organizations (p. 269). Findings from Men and Tsai (2013b) suggest that individuals who are highly engaged with organizations’ social media perceive a better quality relationship with the organization.

2.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Through the dialogic nature of social media, nonprofit organizations can use the components of authenticity (Bowen, 2010b) to ethically (Sullivan, 1994) heighten relationship management outcomes, specifically control mutuality (Hon & Grunig, 1999), to improve nonprofit-public relationships online. Operationalization of authenticity is rooted in Bowen’s (2010b) conceptual definition of authenticity, which she defined as “being the same on the inside as one appears to be outside an organization, or even

personally” (p. 578-579). Given this belief, the following research questions, hypotheses, and conceptual have been proposed.

RQ 1: How are the ethical variables of authenticity associated with relationship variables?

H1: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with control mutuality.

H2: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with satisfaction.

H3: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with credibility.

RQ 2: How are the variables of relationships associated with social media engagement?

H4: Control mutuality will be positively associated with social media engagement.

H5: Satisfaction will be positively associated with social media engagement.

H6: Credibility will be positively associated with social media engagement.

RQ 3: How are the ethical variables of authenticity associated with social media engagement?

H7: Control mutuality will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.

H8: Satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.

H9: Credibility will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.

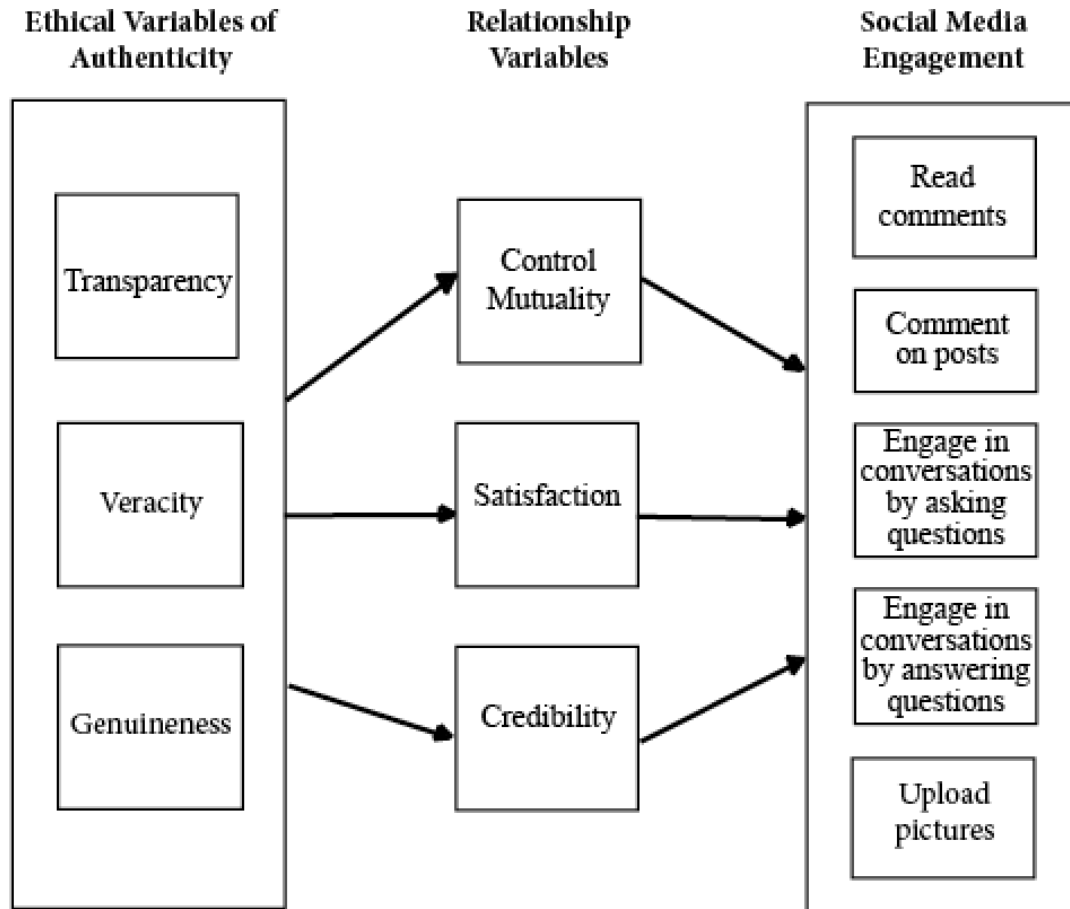


Figure 2.1. Conceptual Model

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Online surveys allow researchers to collect data from individuals in an efficient and low cost manner through a series of questions relative to the subject matter of interest on an online research platform (Shoemaker & McCombs, 2003). This dissertation employed the use of online surveys, which were distributed through email and social media, for data collection. Previous studies of organization-public relationships in the nonprofit sector (Bortree, 2011; O'Neil, 2008; Waters, 2008) have used an online survey method to study relationship quality and relationship management.

Online surveys are not necessarily representative of the general population; rather, online surveys reach a population that has access to the Internet and have a certain level of computer literacy (Dillman et al., 2009; Fink, 2009; Fowler, 2009). Given that the purpose of this research is to examine authentic relationship management by nonprofit organizations with publics on social media, this study is representative of publics connected to their local animal welfare organization on social media.

3.1 SURVEY DESIGN

The online survey had a cross-sectional design, assessing perceptions and attitudes of respondents at one point in time (Shoemaker & McCombs, 2003). Distributed through Qualtrics, this online survey used close-ended questions and one open-ended question (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) allowing a focus on quantitative data analysis for this dissertation. The following scales were adapted and modified for the development of

the survey instrument: transparency (Rawlins, 2009), credibility (Sweetser et al., 2008), veracity (Sweetser et al., 2008), genuineness (Kjeldahl et al., 1971), social media engagement (Tsai & Men, 2013), and relationship outcome variables including control mutuality (Hon & Grunig, 1999). The online survey focused on the components of authenticity, relationship management outcomes with specific focus on control mutuality, and relevant demographic questions.

Reliability and validity. Much like the process of scale development, survey instruments must be tested and assessed prior to being launched on a massive scale (Netermeyer et al., 2011). The survey instrument was shown to one content expert and one methodology expert. Once feedback was received and minor adjustments were made to the instrument, cognitive interviews with two doctoral students and one former colleague from the University of South Carolina's School of Journalism and Mass Communication doctoral program were conducted to detect any inconsistencies or problems with the survey instrument, as well as to strengthen the validity of the instrument. The cognitive interviews were also conducted to assess what potential respondents might think about the directions and items of the survey instrument. This dissertation also used the reliability measures found in scales adapted for the online survey. More information regarding the reliability of each scale can be found in Kjeldahl et al. (1971), Hon and Grunig (1999), Sweetser et al. (2008), Rawlins (2009), and Tsai and Men (2013).

3.2 SURVEY SAMPLE

Online survey links were distributed via email by four nonprofit animal welfare organizations in South Carolina and one nonprofit animal welfare organization in

Virginia to their donor publics. Publics who received the online survey link through email had donated to their local animal welfare organization in the past five years. Publics who received the online survey link through email may not be connected to the local animal welfare organization's social media. Specific demographic information was not provided by the local animal welfare organizations, but will be addressed through the demographic questions in this dissertation's survey instrument. Email addresses of the individuals in this public were collected by the local animal welfare organizations.

Nonprofit animal welfare organizations in South Carolina and Virginia were purposively selected for this study based on population density and the geographic areas that they serve. Local animal welfare organizations purposively selected tended to serve and be located in larger cities. These local animal welfare organizations were also selected based on the number of individuals who 'liked' or followed the organization's social media with them on social media, as well as the frequency of likes and comments on their social media postings. The number of individuals who 'liked' or followed the participating organizations' social media ranged from 1,900 to 11,000 with high frequencies of likes and comments on social media postings.

3.3 MEASUREMENT

Ethical variables of authenticity. Using a previous scale from Rawlins (2009), *transparency* ($\alpha = 0.92$) was measured using these adapted items: "Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is accurate," "Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is timely," "Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is thorough," "Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is reliable," "Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is relevant," "Your

local animal welfare organization admits when a mistake has been made,” and “Your local animal welfare organization is open to criticism from people like me.” *Genuineness* was measured using a semantic differential scale with labels adapted from Kjeldahl, Carmichael, & Mertz (1971) pertaining to communication from your local animal welfare organization: “untruthful/truthful,” “devious/straightforward,” and “untrustworthy/trustworthy.” Kjeldahl, Carmichael, & Mertz (1971) did not report an alpha level in their original study, but given that it was published in a reputable journal, it was presumed to be an acceptable semantic differential scale. Using a previous scale from Sweetser et al (2008), *veracity* ($\alpha = 0.50$) was measured using these adapted items: “Information provided by your local animal welfare organization can be trusted,” and “Information provided by your local animal welfare organization is truthful.” Sweetser et al (2008) explained that the lower alpha level for the veracity items may be due to the fact that the scale was originally built for traditional media and then, adapted for the Internet.

Relationship variables. Using a previous scale from Hon and Grunig (1999), *control mutuality* ($\alpha = 0.87$) was measured using these adapted items: “My local animal welfare organization and people like me are attentive to each other’s needs and concerns,” “My local animal welfare organization values the opinions of people like me,” “When I interact with my local animal welfare organization, I feel that I have some control over our interactions,” and “My local animal welfare organization gives people like me a say in the decision-making of the content shared from its social media accounts.” Using a previous scale from Hon and Grunig (1999), *satisfaction* ($\alpha = 0.89$) was measured using the adapted item: “Generally speaking, I am pleased with the

relationship that my local animal welfare organization has maintained with people like me.” Using a previous scale from Sweetser et al (2008), *credibility* ($\alpha = 0.50$) was measured using these adapted items: “Your local animal welfare organization is a credible source of information for people like me,” and “Your local animal welfare organization provides factual information to people like me.” Sweetser et al (2008) explained that the lower alpha level for the credibility scale may be due to the fact that the scale was originally built for traditional media and then, adapted for the Internet.

Social media engagement. Using a previous scale from Men and Tsai (2012, 2014), social media engagement ($\alpha = 0.88$) was measured using these five adapted items: “How often do you read comments on your local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms,” “How often do you comment on posts written by your local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms,” “How often do you engage in conversations by asking questions on your local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms,” “How often do you engage in conversations by answering questions on your local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms,” and “How often do you upload pictures to your local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms.”

3.4 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Online surveys were distributed through email by local animal welfare organizations, which was a requirement of their privacy policies. As previously mentioned, the online survey was built in Qualtrics, a web-based survey platform, to make it easier to collect data from individuals across a geographic span, as well as to make it easier to download the data into SPSS to clean and analyze. Following data

cleaning, which was guided by AAPOR (2011), this online survey collected 1,076 responses.

Email. The sample frame of the email distribution of this online survey consisted of each local animal welfare organization's donor database of email addresses for the past five years. Organization A had 4,000 total unique donors in the last year of which they collected 1,000 email addresses. Organization B had 10,000 email addresses for their donors in the past five years. Organization C had 1,042 email addresses for their donors in the past five years. Organization D had 205 email addresses for their donors from the past five years. Organization E had 2,500 email addresses for their donors from the past five years. When combined, all animal welfare organizations' donor email databases totaled 14,747 email addresses.

Email invitations drove survey respondents to the Internet to complete the online survey. The online survey's mobile phone formatting also allowed respondents to complete the survey with ease on their smart phones. Three email invitations were sent by each of the local animal welfare organizations due to privacy concerns and were scheduled to help increase response rates – because this is an online survey. Email invitations were sent out on Tuesdays. Given the holidays and peak fundraising period, data collection was staggered throughout December and January. Online survey data collection using email invitations to the local animal welfare organizations' donor email database allowed the researcher to reach individuals who have donated to the organization in the past five years. Local animal nonprofit organizations had the flexibility to send reminders through their member newsletters, if they desired.

Online surveys typically have more modest response rates than paper or telephone surveys (Fowler, 2009). Online survey response rates fluctuate dependent on the sample and sample frame (Fowler, 2009; Fink, 2009). This dissertation's online survey had a response rate of 7%. Response rate for the survey was determined by the "number of complete interviews with reporting unites divided by the number of eligible reporting units in the sample" (AAPOR, 2011, p. 44). Online surveys typically have a 8% to 15% response rate (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). While not ideal, this dissertation's response rate is marginally lower than typical response rates for online surveys. Limitations pertaining to the response rate are discussed in Chapter 5. Online survey links distributed through email invitations and reminders were cost and time efficient. Using Qualtrics to collect the online survey responses allowed for less manual input of the data, which would reduce any human error for data input.

Increasing response rate

Modest incentives were a means of increasing survey response rates (Dillman et al., 2009). Four \$25 gift certificates to PetSmart were purchased, which totaled \$100 dollars. In order to be entered into the gift card raffle, respondents needed to enter their email address at the completion of the online survey. The file containing the email addresses was encrypted to protect respondents' identifiable information. Email addresses were assigned a number by the researcher, and using an online random number generator, one email address every other week was selected to receive a gift card. Gift certificates were offered every second Friday of the data collection period. Email addresses were contained in encrypted files to protect respondents' information. Recipients of the gift cards were notified by email and asked for a mailing address to send the gift card. The

gift cards were mailed to the recipient’s mailing address with a handwritten thank you note for their participation. Mailing address information was stored in a locked office. Given the potential for monetary incentive, communicating that gift card recipients will be chosen at random is important for offsetting any social desirability bias.

Data analysis

This dissertation proposed three research questions and nine hypotheses. Table 3.1 outlined how each research question and hypotheses was evaluated through the use of certain statistical tests. Operationalization of authenticity is rooted in Bowen’s (2010b) conceptual definition of authenticity, which she defined as “being the same on the inside as one appears to be outside an organization, or even personally” (p. 578-579).

Table 3.1

Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Statistical Tests

	Statistical Tests
RQ 1: How are the ethical variables of authenticity associated with relationship variables?	EFA, CFA, reliability tests, qualitative analysis
H1: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with control mutuality.	Path analysis, regressions, t-tests
H2: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with satisfaction.	Path analysis, regressions, t-tests
H3: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with credibility.	Path analysis, regressions, t-tests
RQ 2: How are the variables of relationships associated with social media engagement?	CFA, path analysis, reliability tests, qualitative analysis
H4: Control mutuality will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Path analysis
H5: Satisfaction will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Path analysis

H6: Credibility will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Path analysis
RQ 3: How are the ethical variables of authenticity associated with social media engagement?	Path analysis, qualitative analysis
H7: Control mutuality will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Mediation tests
H8: Satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Mediation tests
H9: Credibility will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Mediation tests

Quantitative. Per agreements with the participating local animal welfare organizations, nonprofit organization names were removed from the quantitative analysis. Significance was determined at $p < 0.05$. Descriptive and inferential analyses, as well as regression analyses were conducted using SPSS® Version 22. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using MPlus.

Mediation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS macro for SPSS® Version 22. For the purpose of this dissertation, mediation is defined as “a third variable which represents the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1173). Mediation analyses were guided by recommendations found in Bollen (1989), Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008), and Hayes (2013). Under this guidance, a statistically significant direct association, or correlation, is not a prerequisite for mediation (Bollen, 1989; Hayes, 2013). According to Hayes (2013), Bollen (1989) asserted on page 52 of his *Structural Equations with Latent Variables* that “lack of correlation does not disprove

causation...correlation is neither necessary nor a sufficient condition of causality” (as cited in Hayes, 2013, p. 88). This dissertation adopted this thought process, which is in line with other scholars employing mediation analyses such as Cerin and MacKinnon (2009), Hayes (2009), MacKinnon (2008), Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, and Petty (2011), Shrout and Bolgar (2002), and Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010).

Since the PROCESS macro employs ordinary least squares path analysis to test mediation, Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) recommended rejecting hypotheses if the 95% confidence interval from the bootstrapping procedure did not fall on both sides of zero, which was employed in this dissertation. Indirect effects tests were based on 1,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval. Because each research question involves multiple independent variables, each mediation model used PROCESS Model 4.

Qualitative. Qualitative data analysis of the open-ended survey question was conducted using NVivo (Version 10). Using pattern matching (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), qualitative comments were grouped by common themes, as well as by ethical variables of authenticity (Kjeldahl et al., 1971; Rawlins, 2009; Sweetser et al., 2008) and relationship variables (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Per agreements with the participating local animal welfare organizations, identifying nonprofit organization names were removed from the qualitative analysis. Organization names were masked with lettered pseudonyms when used (such as Organization A, Organization B, and so on) so that the researcher can match comments to original data yet confidentiality is protected.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This section describes the characteristics of the study respondents, their self-identified roles with their local animal welfare organization, donation patterns, social media use, as well as their perceptions of authenticity, credibility, control mutuality, and satisfaction. This section also describes the associations between the ethical variables of authenticity--transparency, veracity, and genuineness--and the relationship variables of control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility. Furthermore, this section also describes the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. The following scales were adapted and modified to measure key variables: transparency (Rawlins, 2009), credibility (Sweetser et al., 2008), veracity (Sweetser et al., 2008), genuineness (Kjeldahl et al., 1971), social media engagement (Tsai & Men, 2013), and relationship outcome variables including control mutuality and satisfaction (Hon & Grunig, 1999).

4.1. THE RESPONDENTS

Respondents of this online survey were predominantly female (84%) with fewer males (16%). Respondents tended to be older than 59-years-old (31%) with other respondents being 50 to 58-years-old (25%), 42 to 49-years-old (20%), 34 to 41-years-old (11%), 26 to 33-years-old (7%), and 18 to 25-years-old (6%). Respondents were overwhelmingly Caucasian (96%) with few respondents identifying as African American (1%), Asian/Pacific Islander (1%), Hispanic (1%), and Native American (1%). In highest

education attained, respondents tended to have a B.A/B.S. (34%), some college (31%), a M.A./M.S./MBA (19%), high school or GED (9%), and Ph.D./JD/DBA/MD/PharmD (7%). Respondents reported having annual incomes of more than \$100,000 (23%), \$30,001 to \$40,000 (11%), \$50,001 to \$60,000 (10%), \$90,001 to \$100,000 (9%), \$60,001 to \$70,000 (9%), \$40,001 to \$50,000 (9%), \$70,001 to \$80,000 (8%), \$20,001 to \$30,000 (8%), \$80,001 to \$90,000 (7%), \$10,001 to \$20,000 (5%), and less than \$10,000 (2%).

Respondent Roles

Respondents held several types of roles with their local animal welfare organizations. For the purpose of this dissertation, 62% of respondents identified themselves as donors. Respondents who described their role as a donor also indicated that they were also volunteers (16%), $X^2(1, N=1,067) = 4.28, p = 0.04$. Respondents who described their role as a donor also indicated that they were also adopters (27%), $X^2(1, N=1,070) = 28.45, p = 0.00$. Respondents who described their role as a donor also indicated that they were also board members (2%), $X^2(1, N=1,068) = 3.84, p = 0.05$.

Individuals who identified as a donor had no statistically significant association with 'liking' or following their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms (42%), $X^2(1, N=1,067) = 0.68, p = 0.41$. Contrarily, individuals who identified as a volunteer had strong association with 'liking' or following their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms (18%), $X^2(1, N=1,068) = 10.00, p = 0.002$.

Individuals who identified as a board member had a strong association with 'liking' or following their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms (3%), $X^2(1, N=1,069) = 5.90, p = 0.02$.

Social Media Use

When asked if they have ‘liked’ or followed their local animal welfare organization on social media, respondents indicated that did ‘like’ or follow their local animal welfare organization on social media (68%), while 32% indicated that they did not ‘like’ or follow their local animal welfare organization on social media. When asked to indicate all of the social media platforms that they have ‘liked’ or followed their local animal welfare organization, respondents indicated that Facebook (62%) and the organization’s website (28%) were key platforms.

When asked how often they read comments on their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms, respondents indicated daily (43%) or weekly (34%). When asked how often they comment on their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms, respondents indicated never (46%) or monthly (24%). When asked how often they engage in conversations by asking questions on their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms, respondents indicated never (69%) or monthly (17%). When asked how often they engage in conversations by answering questions on their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms, respondents indicated never (70%) or monthly (17%). When asked how often they uploaded pictures to their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms, respondents indicated never (80%) or monthly (11%).

Table 4.1*Correlations between demographic variables and social media engagement (SM)*

	SM	Age	Gender	Race	Highest Education	Annual Household Income	Donor	Volunteer
SM	1							
Age	-0.07	1						
Gender	0.06	-0.09	1					
Race	0.01	0.02	0.001	1				
Highest Education	-0.11*	0.08	-0.10*	0.02	1			
Annual Household Income	-0.05	0.21*	-0.09*	-0.05	0.39*	1		
Donor	0.05	0.24*	-0.05	0.02	0.19*	0.25*	1	
Volunteer	0.17*	-0.08*	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.06	1

*p < 0.01

As seen in Table 4.1 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, annual household income, donor, and volunteer) and social media engagement. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between social media engagement and demographic variables was between social media engagement and highest education ($r = -0.11$, $p < 0.01$), and between social media engagement and volunteers ($r = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$).

Donations

When asked about the number of times they had donated money in the past year, respondents indicated that they donated 0 to 1 times (44%), 2 to 3 times (29%), 4 to 5 times (11%), or more than 10 times (11%). When asked about when they made their last donation to their local animal welfare organization, respondents indicated less than 6 months (56%), 6 to 12 months (24%), 1 to 2 years (9%), and 3 or more years (9%). There

was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 1.76$; $SD = 1.16$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 1.98$; $SD = 1.36$) in time of last donation, $t(570.41) = -2.53$, $p = 0.003$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms had a greater time of last donation.

Donation amount. When asked about how much they donated in the past year, respondents indicated that they donated less than \$100 (56%), \$101 to \$200 (20%), or \$201 to \$300 (8%). There was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 2.45$; $SD = 2.51$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 2.17$; $SD = 2.30$) in donation amounts, $t(672.30) = 1.79$, $p = 0.04$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms donated more.

Likelihood of future donation. When asked about their willingness to donate in the future, responded that they were very likely (48%), likely (31%), undecided (12%), very unlikely (7%), or unlikely (3%) to donate in the future. There was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 5.88$; $SD = 1.71$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 5.63$; $SD = 1.80$) in likelihood of future donations, $t(645.89) = 2.23$, $p = 0.01$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms were more likely to donate.

Perceptions of Authenticity

Transparency. Respondents were also asked questions pertaining to the accuracy, timeliness, thoroughness, reliability, and relevance of the information that they received from their local animal welfare organization.

When asked about the *accuracy* of the information shared by their local animal welfare organization, respondents agreed (40%) or strongly agreed (36%) that the information was accurate, while 3% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%). When asked about the *timeliness* of the information shared by their local animal welfare organization, respondents agreed (41%) or strongly agreed (33%) that the information was timely, while 5% disagreed or strongly disagreed (3%). When asked about the *thoroughness* of the information shared by their local animal welfare organization, respondents agreed (38%) or strongly agreed (33%) that the information was thorough, while 4% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%). When asked about the *reliability* of the information shared by their local animal welfare organization, respondents strongly agreed (38%) or agreed (37%), while 2% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%). When asked about the *relevance* of the information shared by their local animal welfare organization, respondents strongly agreed (41%) or agreed (39%) that the information was relevant, while 2% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%).

Respondents were asked questions about the accountability of the local animal welfare organization. When asked whether their local animal welfare organization *admitted when a mistake had been made*, respondents were neutral (40%) or agreed (29%), while 20% strongly agreed, disagreed (7%), or strongly disagreed (6%). When asked whether their local animal welfare organization was *open to criticism* from people

similar to them, respondents were neutral (34%) or agreed (33%), while 20 % strongly agreed, disagreed (7%), or strongly disagreed (6%).

There was a significant difference between respondents who ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms (M = 20.34; SD = 4.85) and respondents who did not ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms (M = 19.56; SD = 4.23) in transparency, $t(756.01) = 2.64$, $p = 0.08$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms perceived greater transparency.

Table 4.2

Correlations between demographic variables, ethical variables of authenticity, & relationship variables

	Transparency	Veracity	Genuineness	Credibility	Control Mutuality	Satisfaction
Age	0.20	0.01	0.04	-0.01	-0.02	0.001
Gender	-0.01	-0.03	-0.04	-0.01	-0.03	-0.05
Race	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.01	-0.01
Highest Education	0.10**	0.08*	0.09**	0.10**	0.08*	0.07*
Annual Household Income	0.04	0.21	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.02

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

As seen in Table 4.2 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, and annual household income) and perceived transparency. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between perceived transparency and demographic variables was between perceived transparency and highest education ($r = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$).

Veracity. Respondents were asked questions about the veracity of the information shared by their local animal welfare organization. When asked if the information provided by their local animal welfare organization could be *trusted*, respondents agreed

(40%) or strongly agreed (39%), while 4% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%). When asked if the information provided by their local animal welfare organization was *truthful*, respondents agreed (39%) or strongly agreed (38%), while 4% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%).

There was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 8.18$; $SD = 2.09$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 7.94$; $SD = 1.88$) in veracity, $t(747.46) = 1.87$, $p = 0.05$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms perceived greater veracity as expressed as trustworthiness and truthfulness.

As seen in Table 4.2 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, and annual household income) and perceived veracity. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between perceived veracity and demographic variables was between perceived veracity and highest education ($r = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$).

Genuineness. Respondents were asked questions about the degree to which they felt the *communication* from their local animal welfare organization was truthful, straightforward, and trustworthy. The truthful and trustworthiness items of genuineness differ from overall veracity by testing them as communication variables.

When asked to what degree they felt that the communication from their local animal welfare organization was *truthful*, respondents indicated that it was truthful (59%) or somewhat truthful (24%). When asked to what degree they felt that the communication

from their local animal welfare organization was *straightforward*, respondents indicated that it was straightforward (58%) or somewhat straightforward (23%). When asked to what degree they felt that the communication from their local animal welfare organization was *trustworthy*, respondents indicated that it was trustworthy (59%) or somewhat trustworthy (22%).

There was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 12.97$; $SD = 3.01$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 12.82$; $SD = 2.82$) in perceived genuineness, $t(704.16) = 0.81$, $p = 0.55$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms perceived greater genuineness.

As seen in Table 4.2 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, and annual household income) and perceived genuineness. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between perceived genuineness and demographic variables was between perceived genuineness and highest education ($r = 0.09$, $p < 0.01$).

Perceptions of Credibility

Respondents were asked questions pertaining to the credibility of their local animal welfare organization as an information source and whether the information provided by their local animal welfare organization was factual. When asked whether their local animal welfare organization was a *credible source* of information, respondents agreed (42%) or strongly agreed (37%), while 3% disagreed or strongly disagreed (3%). When asked if their local animal welfare organization provided *factual information*,

respondents agreed (41%) or strongly agreed (37%), while 3% disagreed or strongly disagreed (4%).

There was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 8.19$; $SD = 1.97$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 7.91$; $SD = 1.80$) in credibility, $t(734.71) = 2.34$, $p = 0.09$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms perceived greater credibility.

As seen in Table 4.2 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, and annual household income) and perceived credibility. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between perceived credibility and demographic variables was between perceived credibility and highest education ($r = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$).

Perceptions of Relationship Outcomes

Control mutuality. Respondents were asked questions about: whether their local animal welfare organization and people like them were attentive to each other's needs and concerns, whether their local animal welfare organization valued their opinions, whether they felt like they had some control over their interactions with their local welfare organization, and whether their local welfare organization gave them a say in the decision-making of the content shared from its social media accounts.

When asked whether their local animal welfare organization and people like them were *attentive to each other's needs and concerns*, respondents agreed (40%) or strongly agreed (31%), while other respondents disagreed (7%), strongly disagreed (5%), or were

neutral/undecided (23%). When asked whether their local animal welfare organization *valued the opinions* of people like the respondent, respondents agreed (37%) or strongly agreed (31%), while other respondents disagreed (6%), strongly disagreed (5%), or were neutral/undecided (21%). When asked about whether they felt like they had some *control over their interactions* with their local welfare organization, respondents agreed (38%) or strongly agreed (27%), while other respondents disagreed (7%), strongly disagreed (5%), or were neutral/undecided (23%). When asked about whether their local welfare organization gave them a *say in the decision-making* of the content shared from its social media accounts, respondents agreed (22%) or strongly agreed (17%), while other respondents disagreed (11%), strongly disagreed (8%), or were neutral/undecided (42%).

There was a significant difference between respondents who ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms ($M = 15.04$; $SD = 3.95$) and respondents who did not ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms ($M = 14.32$; $SD = 3.48$) in control mutuality, $t(697.88) = 2.92$, $p = 0.07$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms perceived greater control mutuality.

Crosstabulations between age and respondents who ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms revealed that increases in standard deviations for t-tests examining perceived control mutuality and ‘liking’ their local animal welfare organization may be an artifact of age. Individuals 42 or older had the highest frequencies of ‘liking’ (or following) their local animal welfare organization’s social media platforms, (72%), $X^2(5, N=679) = 27.48$, $p = 0.00$.

As seen in Table 4.2 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, and annual household income) and perceived control mutuality. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between perceived control mutuality and demographic variables was between perceived control mutuality and highest education ($r = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$).

Satisfaction. Respondents were asked questions about whether they were generally pleased with the relationship that their local animal welfare organization has maintained with people like them. When asked whether they were *generally pleased* with the relationship that their local animal welfare organization has maintained with people like them, respondents strongly agreed (40%) or agreed (34%), while other respondents disagreed (6%) or strongly disagreed (5%).

There was a significant difference between respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 4.05$; $SD = 1.13$) and respondents who did not 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms ($M = 3.86$; $SD = 1.02$) in satisfaction, $t(684.63) = 2.76$, $p = 0.24$. Mean scores indicated that respondents who 'like' (or follow) their local animal welfare organization's social media platforms perceived greater satisfaction.

As seen in Table 4.2 above, correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables (gender, race, highest education, and annual household income) and perceived satisfaction. Correlations revealed that the strongest relationship between perceived satisfaction and demographic variables was between perceived satisfaction and highest education ($r = 0.07$, $p < 0.05$).

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION 1

RQ1 explored how the ethical variables of authenticity were associated with relationship variables.

Exploratory factor analysis. Item analysis of the seven items that comprise transparency was conducted. Item analysis revealed that Cronbach's alpha was high ($\alpha = 0.92$). To determine the internal consistency, item-total correlations were run. This analysis revealed that removing the two items associated with accountability improved Cronbach's alpha to 0.93; therefore, these items were deleted from this analysis. The deleted items were: "Admits when a mistake has been made" and "Open to criticism from people like me."

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted with the items of the three ethical variables of authenticity: transparency (5 items), veracity (2 items), and genuineness (3 items). The Bartlett Test of Sphericity yielded a value of 14,451.90 with a significance level of $p = 0.00$, meaning that there were significant correlations between the variables. Using principle component analysis with a VARIMAX rotation, two factors with eigenvalues of 1.00 or greater were extracted. The first factor (genuineness) had a high eigenvalue of 7.84, which accounted for 78.43% of the variance. The second factor (veracity) had an eigenvalue of 1.00, which accounted for 10.03% of the variance. The first factor, which was identified as genuineness, consisted of three items. The second factor, which was identified as veracity, consisted of two items. Given the extracted factors, it seems that transparency played a lesser role in donors' evaluations of authenticity.

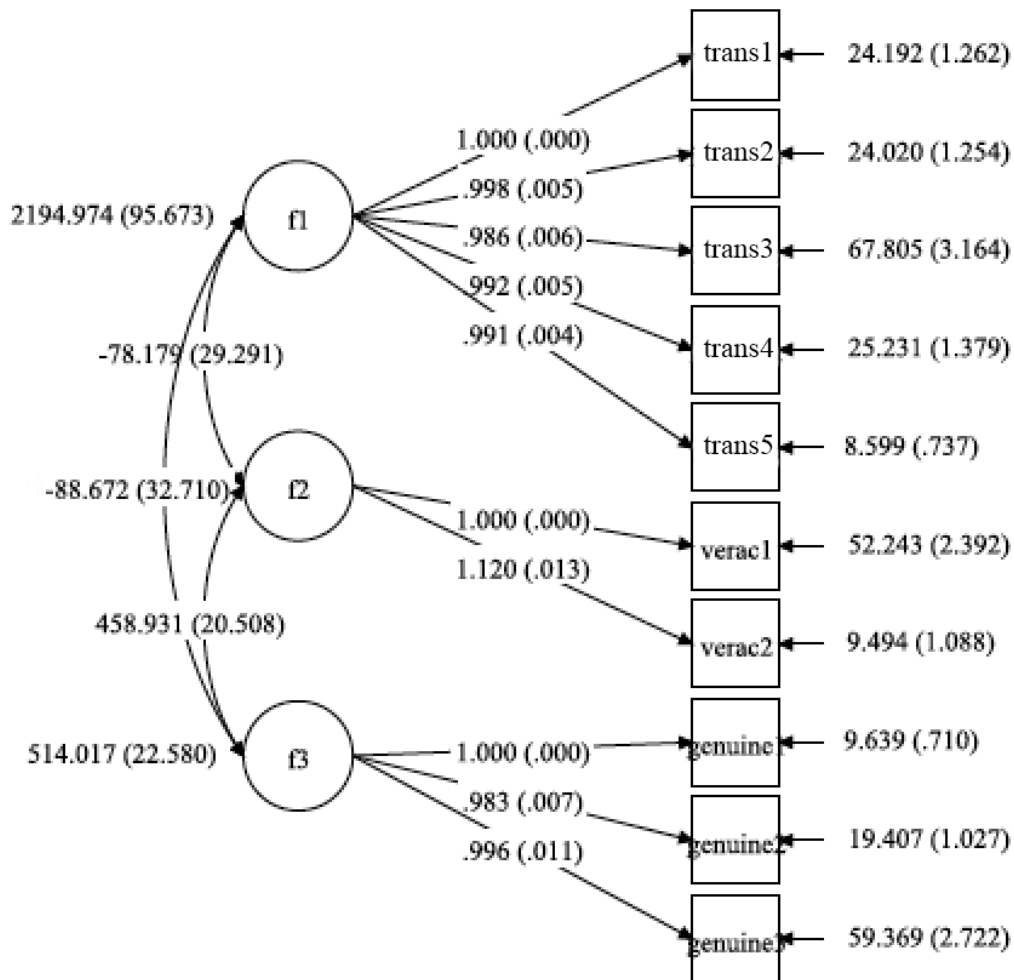


Figure 4.1. 3-Factor confirmatory factor analysis of the ethical variables of authenticity

Confirmatory factor analysis. As seen in Figure 4.1, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted of the three ethical variables of authenticity: transparency (f1), veracity (f2), and genuineness (f3) to determine dimensionality.

The confirmatory factor analysis of transparency, veracity, and genuineness produced an inadequate model fit, ($X^2 = 508.58$ (32, 1,076), $p = 0.00$; CFI = 0.98; TLI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.12 [90% CI = 0.11, 0.13]; SRMR = 0.01). Furthermore, as seen in Figure 4.1 above, transparency (f1), veracity (f2), and genuineness (f3) were not highly

correlated. Lack of correlation in the CFA, as seen in Figure 4.1, may be due to veracity (f2) being under-identified (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2010), which could have negatively affected correlations between the factors and caused inadequate goodness of fit indices in the measurement model. Poor goodness of fit indices and low correlations in the CFA may indicate high levels of variance in the measurement model. Given this finding, it seems that each proposed dimension of authenticity (i.e. transparency, veracity, and genuineness) was a separate construct. This finding provided the rationale for running each independent variable separately.

Confirmatory factor analysis of each construct assessed dimensionality. CFA revealed that transparency was a single-factor model (5 items, $X^2 = 959.11$ (10, 1,076), $p = 0.00$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.02 [90% CI = 0.00, 0.05]). Because the two items that comprised veracity were highly, if not almost perfectly, correlated ($r = 0.98$), a confirmatory factor analysis was not necessary, and the two items were averaged for use in path analyses and indirect effect analyses. Finally, CFA revealed that genuineness was a single-factor model (3 items, $X^2 = 14,256.23$ (3, 1,076), $p = 0.00$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00 [90% CI = 0.00, 0.00]).

Qualitative analysis. Qualitative analysis of respondents' comments regarding their relationship with their local animal welfare organization revealed that genuineness, transparency, and veracity were key concepts in evaluations of authenticity (Bowen, 2010b). In terms of genuineness, one respondent indicated, "Wonderful people; truthful and trustworthy; have not always been able to meet their announced infrastructure and fundraising goals, but have always made honest attempts – [they] never try to misinform." A few comments regarding veracity overlapped with comments regarding

transparency. In terms of transparency, one respondent indicated, “I think our county's animal care goes above and beyond to communicate with the public. They are innovative with their pursuit to connect animals with adopters and rescue groups through social media.” In terms of veracity, one respondent indicated, “I think the Staff at [Organization E] are very, very honest, trustworthy, hard working, dedicated, empathy and appreciative of supplies and volunteers coming to walk the dogs.”

Ethical Variables of Authenticity & Control Mutuality

Five-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) assessed transparency, veracity, and control mutuality; whereas semantic differential scales assessed genuineness.

Table 4.3

Descriptive statistics of ethical variables of authenticity & control mutuality

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Transparency	919	4.04	0.93
Veracity	919	4.08	1.02
Genuineness	919	4.33	0.98
Control Mutuality	919	3.71	0.95

As seen in Table 4.3 above, mean scores indicated agreement towards their local animal welfare organizations' perceived transparency (M = 4.04; SD = 0.93), perceived veracity (M = 4.08; SD = 1.02), and perceived genuineness (M = 4.33; SD = 0.98). Mean scores also indicated neutrality towards perceived control mutuality (M = 3.71; SD = 0.95) with their local animal welfare organizations.

Path analysis. Before path analyses could be conducted, correlations were run between control mutuality, transparency, veracity, and genuineness to assess the relationship between the variables.

Table 4.4*Correlations between ethical variables of authenticity & control mutuality*

	Control Mutuality	Transparency	Veracity	Genuineness
Control Mutuality	1			
Transparency	0.70*	1		
Veracity	0.79*	0.80*	1	
Genuineness	0.75*	0.72*	0.84*	1

*p < 0.001

Correlations revealed that there were positive relationships between control mutuality, transparency, veracity, and genuineness. As discussed previously, a confirmatory factor analysis—a test of dimensionality—revealed inadequate goodness of fit indices and low correlations possibly due to veracity being under-identified (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2010). Poor goodness of fit indices and low correlations in the CFA may indicate high levels of variance in the measurement model. When the ethical variables of authenticity—transparency, veracity, and genuineness—were run as separate constructs, correlations in Table 4.4 indicated that there was a relationship between the separate independent variables.

Table 4.5*Regressions of independent variables on control mutuality*

	β	SE	T
Transparency	0.16*	0.03	4.90
Veracity	0.45*	0.04	10.85
Genuineness	0.25*	0.04	6.93
Adjusted R ²	0.66		

*p < 0.001

Each variable was averaged, and path analyses were conducted. Beta coefficients equal or greater than 0.05 determined whether a path was meaningful (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). As seen in Table 4.5 above, path analyses revealed that each path coefficient was statistically significant (p < 0.001). Given the paths' statistical significance, beta coefficients greater than or equal to 0.05, and high correlations, each of

these paths were retained. In H1, it was predicted that the ethical variables of authenticity would be positively associated with control mutuality. Because transparency, veracity, and genuineness had positive direct effects on control mutuality, H1 was supported.

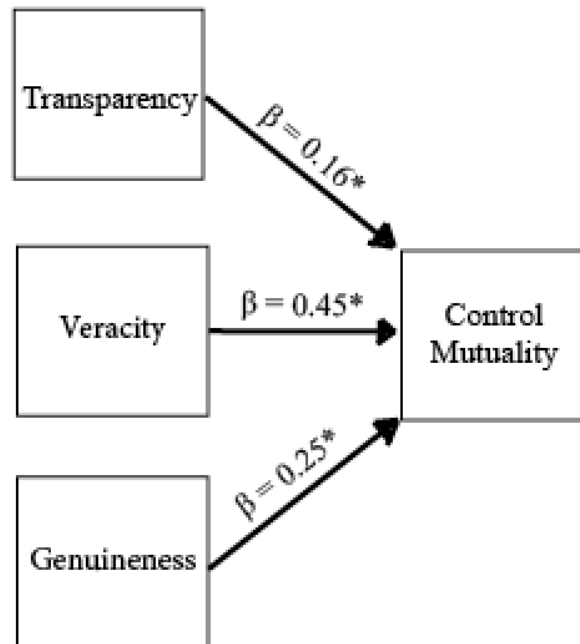


Figure 4.2. Path coefficients for ethical variables of authenticity & control mutuality

Qualitative analysis. Hypothesis 1 was supported quantitatively. Comments provided by respondents also supported the findings of H1 qualitatively. Control mutuality comments reflected feedback and suggestions about local animal welfare organizations' efforts. Qualitative analysis indicated that there was an association between perceived truth-telling, or perceived veracity, and control mutuality. Comments reflective of control mutuality and veracity suggested that management practices rooted in veracity made key publics feel more inclined to interact with management through feedback. One respondent commented, "I love [Organization E]. They take such good care of their animals. They are truthful and their manager, [name redacted], is awesome."

Other comments reflective of control mutuality focused on more transparency through frequent, call-to-action communication with donors to bring attention to important issues as a means of raising funds to address these issues. For example, one respondent indicated:

I think it might be worth it for the [Organization D] to send out more information/calls for attention or donations or volunteering or adoption. I only just added the monthly donation to my water bill and could have easily done that two years ago.

Comments reflective of control mutuality focused on genuineness. Respondents who perceived their local animal welfare organization as more genuine indicated that certain relationships that the local animal welfare organization had could be improved.

Overall, we have an awesome Shelter with caring workers. I'd really like to see them get more support from local government and the community because they, and especially the animals they serve, deserve it.

Ethical Variables of Authenticity & Satisfaction

Five-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) assessed transparency, veracity, and satisfaction; whereas semantic differential scales assessed genuineness.

Table 4.6

Descriptive statistics of ethical variables of authenticity & satisfaction

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Transparency	927	4.04	0.94
Veracity	927	4.08	1.03
Genuineness	927	4.33	0.99
Satisfaction	927	4.01	1.10

As seen in Table 4.6 above, mean scores indicated agreement towards their local animal welfare organizations' perceived transparency (M = 4.04; SD = 0.94), perceived veracity (M = 4.08; SD = 1.03), perceived genuineness (M = 4.33; SD = 0.99), as well as perceived satisfaction (M = 4.01; SD = 1.10) with their local animal welfare organizations.

Path analysis. Before path analyses could be conducted, correlations were run between satisfaction, transparency, veracity, and genuineness to assess the relationship between the variables.

Table 4.7
Correlations between ethical variables of authenticity & satisfaction

	Satisfaction	Transparency	Veracity	Genuineness
Satisfaction	1			
Transparency	0.71*	1		
Veracity	0.80*	0.80*	1	
Genuineness	0.77*	0.73*	0.85*	1

*p < 0.001

Correlations revealed that there were positive relationships between satisfaction, transparency, veracity, and genuineness. While all of the variables assessed were highly correlated, the strongest relationship between independent variables and dependent variable was between veracity and satisfaction (r = 0.80, p < 0.001).

Table 4.8
Regressions of independent variables on satisfaction

	β	SE	t
Transparency	0.17*	0.04	5.25
Veracity	0.41*	0.04	9.99
Genuineness	0.31*	0.04	8.70
Adjusted R ²	0.68		

*p < 0.001

Each variable was averaged, and path analyses were conducted. Beta coefficients equal or greater than 0.05 determined whether a path was meaningful (DeCotiis &

Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). As seen in Table 4.8, path analyses revealed that each path coefficient was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Given the paths' statistical significance, beta coefficients greater than or equal to 0.05, and high correlations, each of these paths were retained. In H2, it was predicted that the ethical variables of authenticity would be positively associated with satisfaction. Because transparency, veracity, and genuineness had positive direct effects on satisfaction, H2 was supported.

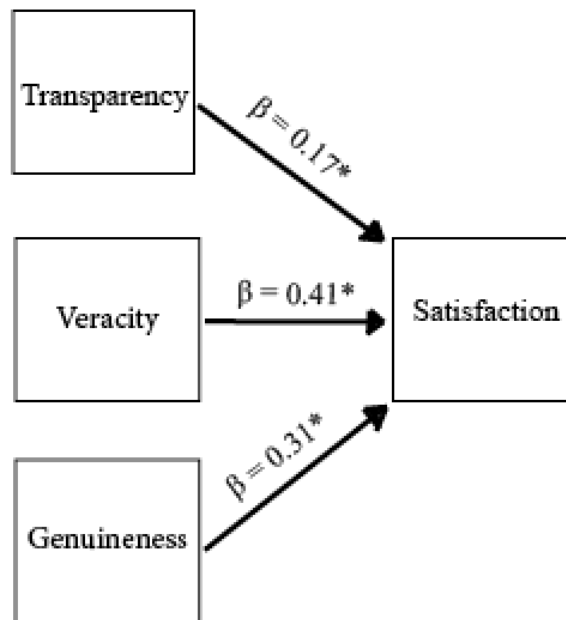


Figure 4.3. Path coefficients for ethical variables of authenticity & satisfaction

Qualitative analysis. Hypothesis 2 was supported quantitatively, and comments provided by respondents also supported the findings of H2 qualitatively. Transparency related to satisfaction through respondent interactions with their local animal welfare organization. One respondent commented, “I think they are doing a wonderful job, I work with a border collie animal rescue team in which me and [Organization B] are in constant contact with one another.” Veracity related to respondents’ satisfaction with their local

animal welfare organization. Respondents tended to be satisfied with how they perceived the organization's veracity when they understood how the local animal welfare organization used the donations, which also alludes to perceived transparency. One respondent commented:

I think the Staff at [Organization E] are very, very honest, trustworthy, hard working, dedicated, empathy and appreciative of supplies and volunteers coming to walk the dogs. ...They really do a good job at [Organization E] with the funds and supplies that they get and what is allocated to them. They are the Best and Wonderful people. I think very highly of them and I enjoy going up there to help out.

Genuineness related to satisfaction through caring and professionalism of employees at the local animal welfare organization. Respondents indicated that they were satisfied with local animal welfare organization and its employees who genuinely cared and worked efficiently and professionally. One respondent commented, "Most caring and professional and very efficient at their job. Have so many unique ideas to get the public involved and keep them informed. I love the people there."

Ethical Variables of Authenticity & Credibility

Five-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) assessed transparency, veracity, and credibility; whereas semantic differential scales assessed genuineness.

Table 4.9

Descriptive statistics of ethical variables of authenticity & credibility

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Transparency	969	4.04	0.93
Veracity	969	4.07	1.02
Genuineness	969	4.32	0.99

Credibility	969	4.07	0.97
-------------	-----	------	------

As seen in Table 4.9 above, mean scores indicated agreement towards their local animal welfare organizations' perceived transparency (M = 4.04; SD = 0.93), perceived veracity (M = 4.07; SD = 1.02), perceived genuineness (M = 4.32; SD = 0.99), and perceived credibility (M = 4.07; SD = 0.97).

Path analysis. Before path analyses could be conducted, correlations were run between credibility, transparency, veracity, and genuineness to assess the relationship between the variables.

Table 4.10
Correlations between ethical variables of authenticity & credibility

	Credibility	Transparency	Veracity	Genuineness
Credibility	1			
Transparency	0.78*	1		
Veracity	0.87*	0.80*	1	
Genuineness	0.81*	0.72*	0.84*	1

*p < 0.001

Correlations revealed that there were positive relationships between credibility, transparency, veracity, and genuineness. While all of the variables assessed were highly correlated, the strongest relationship between independent variables and dependent variable was between veracity and credibility (r = 0.87, p < 0.001).

Table 4.11
Regressions of independent variables on credibility

	β	SE	T
Transparency	0.19*	0.03	7.95
Veracity	0.53*	0.03	17.16
Genuineness	0.23*	0.03	8.51
Adjusted R ²	0.80		

*p < 0.001

Each variable was averaged, and path analyses were conducted. Beta coefficients equal or greater than 0.05 determined whether a path was meaningful (DeCotiis &

Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). As seen in Table 4.11 above, path analysis revealed that each path coefficient was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Given the paths' statistical significance, beta coefficients greater than or equal to 0.05, and high correlations, each of these paths were retained. In H3, it was predicted that the ethical variables of authenticity would be positively associated with credibility. Because transparency, veracity, and genuineness had positive direct effects on satisfaction, H3 was supported.

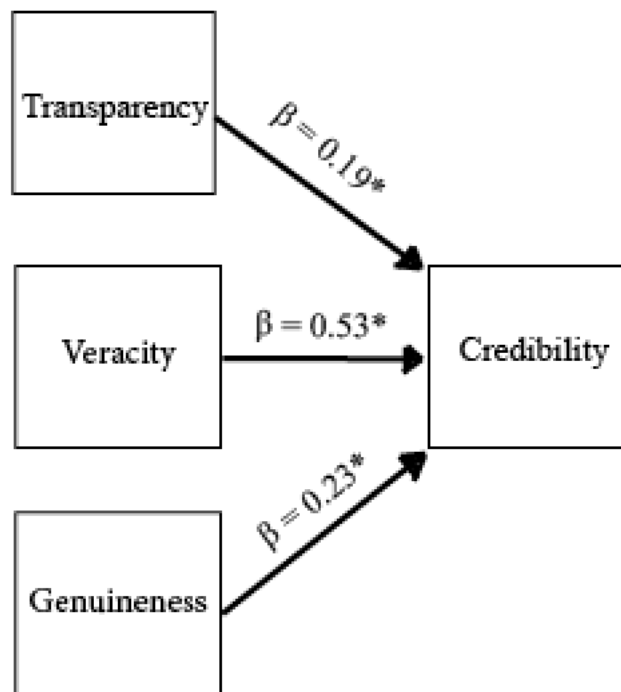


Figure 4.4. Path coefficients for ethical variables of authenticity & credibility

Qualitative analysis. Hypothesis 3 was supported quantitatively. Comments provided by respondents also supported the findings of H3. Comments regarding credibility seemed to allude to credibility, but did not directly address credibility, which suggested that the local animal welfare organizations might have inherent credibility based in their 501(c) status.

Comments addressing the association between transparency and credibility focused on transparent and consistent communication and actions by the local animal welfare organization that was rooted in its core values. One respondent commented, “True to their mission; compassionate yet business savvy; i feel confident that my donation is not wasted.” Comments addressing the association between veracity and credibility highlighted how local animal welfare organizations with knowledgeable and truthful staff members have a high level of credibility and trust. One respondent commented:

I want to say that I thoroughly trust the veterinarians at [Organization B]. One of them found that my dog was diabetic so I was able to begin treatment. ... I am grateful for [Organization B] and glad they are in my community.

Comments addressing the association between genuineness and credibility highlighted that respondents perceived genuine actions by local animal welfare organizations as credible because these genuine actions were consistent.

I think [Organization C] is doing amazing things. [Name redacted] has brought so much enthusiasm and love to the job and she has moved MOUNTAINS!

[Organization C] is always there to help residents with stray animals or animals brought in from other kill shelters. I wish I had more time to volunteer and more money to donate.

Qualitative Analysis of Ethical Variables of Authenticity & Relationship Variables

Qualitative analysis of respondents’ comments (n = 660) regarding their relationship with their local animal welfare organization revealed that genuineness, control mutuality, and satisfaction were significant themes.

Genuineness. This dissertation defined genuineness as “speak[ing] to the heart of moral intention in that an organization is genuinely pursuing an ethical course of action” (Bowen, 2010b, p. 579). As earlier quantitative findings indicated, donors have several roles in their relationships with local animal welfare organizations. Donors can also be a volunteer, adopter, or board member.

Typically, when respondents referred to their local animal welfare organization as being genuine, or acting genuinely, these respondents indicated that they had a positive experience with management or interactions with employees. Furthermore, respondents referred to genuineness in the context of their local animal welfare organizations’ actions, which spoke to consistency in communication and actions. One respondent noted of their local animal welfare organization that they “feel [Organization B] in particular [is] working hard for cause and often seen going the extra mile.” Other respondents echoed similar sentiments of their local animal welfare organizations. One respondent noted that: “The staff really works hard and genuinely cares,” while another respondent noted that: “I believe that the [Organization C] has the welfare of all animals at the top of their list.”

Local animal welfare organization’s genuineness wasn’t limited to animals; their genuineness also extended to members of their key publics, which includes their donors. One respondent commented that, “[Organization E] is a kind of place where the people are always appreciative and welcoming to all that enter. As a young adult, I work a lot and I will always donate my time and financial contributions to places that value me.”

Control mutuality. This dissertation adopted the Hon and Grunig (1999) definition of control mutuality, which is “the degree to which parties agree on who has the rightful power to influence one another” (p. 19).

Respondent comments that reflected control mutuality also offered feedback or suggestions for improving communications, operations, and fundraising efforts. Several respondents had specific comments about their local animal welfare organization's communications efforts. One respondent noted, "I would like it if we could post pictures of animals we adopt on their Facebook page. I would also like to post comments and ask questions on Facebook. It is not an interactive site."

Several respondents offered suggestions about improving donor communications, so their local animal welfare organization could reallocate funding to be used for extending and improving services. One respondent indicated:

They should try encourag[ing] everyone that donates to them to give them their emails, so they don't have to mail information. This would save them money that could be used for the animals, instead of wasting it on postage.

Other comments focused on more frequent, call-to-action communication with donors to bring attention to important issues as a means of raising funds to address these issues. For example, one respondent indicated:

I think it might be worth it for the [Organization D] to send out more information/calls for attention or donations or volunteering or adoption. I only just added the monthly donation to my water bill and could have easily done that two years ago.

Comments exhibiting control mutuality seemed to also suggest that respondents felt that their comments and suggestions would be valued by their local animal welfare organization and would have some impact on their relationship with the organization. For

example, one respondent suggested drawing upon pre-existing relationships to help their local animal welfare organization in its fundraising efforts:

They need to utilize volunteers more so when it comes to social media and fundraising. ...Our staff work so hard and are so loyal to this shelter, that people like me who volunteer are honored to work with our Shelter Manager and her entire staff.

Satisfaction with control mutuality. Several respondents' comments reflected on their satisfaction with their local animal welfare organization's stewardship and their efforts to keep members of their key publics involved. One respondent noted this by stating, "Most caring and professional and very efficient at their job. Have so many unique ideas to get the public involved and keep them involved. I love the people there." Another respondent echoed these sentiments by stating, "[Organization C] does a wonderful job and I am so glad we have [name redacted] and her staff to lead the way in protecting and looking out for the welfare of animals in need in our area." Local animal welfare organizations' stewardship and communications efforts to keep members of key publics involved seem to evoke feelings of pride. One respondent noted, "Leadership and all fund raising efforts very engaging. Proud to be part of new changes. Feels like true community effort."

Satisfaction with transparency. This dissertation adopted the Hon and Grunig (1999) definition of satisfaction in which it is defined as how favorably an individual views a relationship.

Comments about satisfaction with local animal welfare organizations are reflective of positive experiences that respondents have had with their local animal

welfare organization, its management, and its employees. Several respondents commented that they were satisfied by their local animal welfare organization's respectful, responsible, transparent, and committed efforts in the community. One respondent commented on their local organization's respectful treatment of all of their publics in saying that, "They always treat everyone with respect and are extremely committed to finding homes for our furrever friends."

Comments regarding satisfaction also had implications for donations. Comments from respondents seemed to indicate that satisfaction with local animal welfare organizations might lead to stronger financial support. For example, one respondent indicated, "Now a strong supporter since 'no kill' policy being adapted. Struggled with donating to programs that could result in 'putting down' animals." Another respondent felt that organizational structure was indicative of responsible use of donations. This respondent noted:

I like that [Organization D] seems to be run like a corporation: Board of Directors, Officers, Staff, Volunteers, etc. This gives me a sense of assurance that my contributions will be used advantageously. I'm not comfortable supporting less structure[sic] entities; too much "shooting from the hip"/"knee jerk" kinds of activities.

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTION 2

RQ2 explored how the variables of relationship variables were associated with social media engagement. Chi-square tests revealed that there was a significant association between control mutuality, satisfaction, credibility, and social media engagement. Control mutuality (62%), $X^2 (192, N=666) = 250.43, p = 0.003$, had a

significant association with social media engagement. Satisfaction (66%), X^2 (48, N=674) = 65.92, $p = 0.04$, had significant association with social media engagement. Credibility (63%), X^2 (96, N=710) = 138.16, $p = 0.003$, had significant association with social media engagement.

Confirmatory factor analysis. Item analysis of social media engagement (5 items) was conducted. Item analysis revealed that Cronbach's alpha was low ($\alpha = 0.55$), meaning that one of the items was unreliable. To determine the internal consistency, item-total correlations were run. This analysis revealed that removing "How often do you read comments on your local animal welfare organization's social media" would improve Cronbach's alpha to 0.69; therefore, this item was deleted.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted of the four items of social media engagement. CFA revealed that social media engagement was a single-factor model (4 items, $X^2 = 2,694.03$ (6, 1,076), $p = 0.00$; CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.01 [90% CI = 0.00, 0.06]).

Relationship Variables & Social Media Engagement

Five-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) assessed credibility, satisfaction, and control mutuality. Social media engagement was assessed based on whether a respondent indicated interaction daily, weekly, monthly, or never.

Table 4.12

Descriptive statistics of relationship variables & social media engagement

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Credibility	658	4.13	0.99
Satisfaction	658	4.07	1.12
Control Mutuality	658	3.76	0.98
Social Media Engagement	658	0.81	0.85

As seen in Table 4.12 above, mean scores indicated agreement towards their local animal welfare organizations' perceived credibility (M = 4.13; SD = 0.99), as well as agreement with their perceived satisfaction (M = 4.08; SD = 1.02) with their local animal welfare organization. Mean scores also indicated neutrality towards perceived control mutuality (M = 3.76; SD = 0.98) with their local animal welfare organizations. Furthermore, mean scores revealed disagreement with social media engagement (M = 0.81; SD = 0.85).

Path analysis. Before path analysis could be conducted, correlations were run between control mutuality, satisfaction, credibility, and social media engagement to assess the relationship between the variables.

Table 4.13
Correlations between relationship variables & social media engagement

	Social Media Engagement	Control Mutuality	Satisfaction	Credibility
Social Media Engagement	1			
Control Mutuality	0.03	1		
Satisfaction	0.00	0.84*	1	
Credibility	-0.04	0.77*	0.79*	1

*p < 0.001

Correlations revealed that there were no significant relationships between the independent variables of control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility with the dependent variable social media engagement. While there were no positive relationships between the independent and dependent variables, there were positive relationships between the relationship variables of control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility. The highest positive relationship existed between control mutuality and satisfaction (r = 0.84, p < 0.001).

Table 4.14*Regressions of relationship variables on social media engagement*

	β	SE	t
Control Mutuality	0.16*	0.07	2.16
Satisfaction	-0.03	0.06	-0.35
Credibility	-0.14*	0.06	-2.10
Adjusted R ²	0.01		

*p < 0.05

Each variable was averaged, and a path analysis was conducted. As seen in Table 4.14 above, path analysis revealed that path between control mutuality and social media engagement, as well as the path between credibility and social media engagement were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). The path between satisfaction and social media engagement was not statistically significant ($p = 0.73$).

Beta coefficients equal or greater than 0.05 determined whether a path was meaningful (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). In H4, it was predicted that control mutuality would be positively associated with social media engagement. Given the path's statistical significance, beta coefficient greater than or equal to 0.05, and high correlations, the path between control mutuality and social media was retained; thus, H4 was supported.

In H5, it was predicted that satisfaction would be positively associated with social media engagement. Beta coefficients equal or greater than 0.05 determined whether a path was meaningful (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). Given the path's lack of statistical significance, lack of beta coefficient greater than or equal to 0.05, and lack of correlation, the path between satisfaction and social media engagement was not retained; thus, H5 was rejected.

In H6, it was predicted that credibility would be positively associated with social media engagement. Beta coefficients equal or greater than 0.05 determined whether a path was meaningful (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). Given the path's statistical significance, lack of beta coefficient greater than or equal to 0.05, and lack of correlation, the path between credibility and social media engagement was not retained; thus, H6 was rejected.

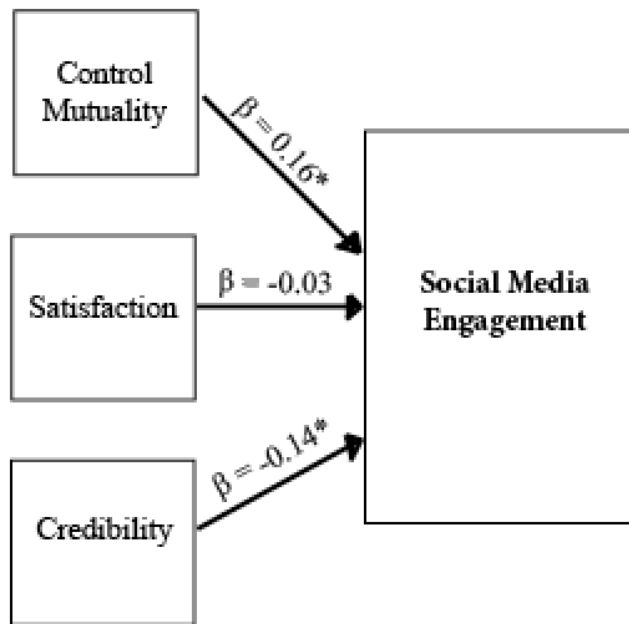


Figure 4.5. Path coefficients for relationship variables & social media engagement

Qualitative analysis. Hypothesis 4 was supported quantitatively, whereas H5 and H6 were not. Comments provided by respondents also supported the findings of H4, and the rejection of H5 and H6 qualitatively. Comments from respondents exhibiting control mutuality seemed to also suggest that respondents felt that their opinions and suggestions would be valued by their local animal welfare organization and would have some impact on their relationship with the organization. Individuals who feel that they have control mutuality with local animal welfare organizations offer creative ideas and suggestions for

solving problems that they perceive there is with the local animal welfare organization. For example, one respondent suggested drawing upon pre-existing relationships to help their local animal welfare organization in its fundraising efforts on social media (H4):

They need to utilize volunteers more so when it comes to social media and fundraising. ...Our staff work so hard and are so loyal to this shelter, that people like me who volunteer are honored to work with our Shelter Manager and her entire staff.

Comments of this nature indicated that using control mutuality in social media to empower key publics might lead to greater social media engagement.

Satisfaction did not have a statistically significant positive association with social media engagement (H5) in this dissertation's quantitative analysis. While not statistically significant, comments from respondents did note that they were satisfied with their local animal welfare organization's social media use particularly to disseminate information to key publics. One respondent commented, "Excellent organization; does a great job of utilizing social media to announce events, needs, and adoption information."

Credibility did not have a statistically significant positive association with social media engagement (H8) in this dissertation's quantitative analysis. While not statistically significant, comments from respondents did note that they felt that social media was a credible and effective means of spreading awareness for the local animal welfare organization's needs. For example, one respondent explained:

I feel social media has been a wonderful platform for the organization to communicate to the public any emergent or long term needs. Whether it is

fostering or when they need assistance with providing food for the animals in the shelter.

4.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 3

Research Question 3 asked how the ethical variables of authenticity were associated with social media engagement. Five-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) assessed transparency, veracity, and genuineness. Social media engagement was assessed based on whether a respondent indicated interaction daily, weekly, monthly, or never.

Table 4.15

Descriptive statistics of the ethical variables of authenticity & social media engagement

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Transparency	1012	4.02	0.93
Veracity	1060	4.05	1.01
Genuineness	1039	4.31	0.98
Social Media Engagement	717	0.80	0.84

As seen in Table 4.15 above, mean scores indicated agreement towards their local animal welfare organizations' perceived transparency (M = 4.02; SD = 0.93), perceived veracity (M = 4.05; SD = 1.01), and perceived genuineness (M = 4.31; SD = 0.98). Mean scores also indicated strong disagreement towards social media engagement (M = 0.80; SD = 0.84) with their local animal welfare organizations. Strong disagreement toward social media engagement may mean that mediating variables were present.

Structural equation model. Structural equation modeling produced an inadequate model fit based on model fit guidelines delineated by Netemeyer et al. (2003). The researcher cleaned the dataset (n = 1,076) of any response missing an entry, which resulted in a new dataset (n = 572), specifically for this SEM data analysis. Based on model fit issues, the researcher decided to pursue path analyses and mediation analysis

instead of a full structural equation model. Model fit indices from this attempted structural equation model included: $X^2 = 66.41$ (4, 572), $p = 0.00$; CFI = 0.97; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.17 [90% CI = 0.13, 0.20]; SRMR = 0.02. The full structural equation model visualization is available in Appendix C for further inspection. The structural equation model will not be discussed in great length in this dissertation due to the recursive paths and lack of model fit, but it is a needed avenue for future study.

Mediation analysis. Before mediation analysis could be conducted, correlations were run between transparency, veracity, genuineness, and social media engagement to assess the relationship between the variables.

Table 4.16

Correlations between the ethical variables of authenticity & social media engagement

	Social Media Engagement	Transparency	Veracity	Genuineness
Social Media Engagement	1			
Transparency	-0.03	1		
Veracity	-0.02	0.79**	1	
Genuineness	-0.07	0.72**	0.84**	1

* $p < 0.01$

As seen in Table 4.16 above, correlations revealed that there were no significant relationships between the independent variables of transparency, veracity, and genuineness with the dependent variable of social media engagement. While there were no positive relationships between the independent and dependent variables, there were positive relationships between the relationship variables of transparency, veracity, and genuineness. The highest positive relationship existed between genuineness and veracity ($r = 0.84$, $p < 0.001$).

As previously discussed in quantitative analysis section of Chapter 3, a statistically significant direct association, or correlation, is not a prerequisite for

mediation (Bollen, 1989; Hayes, 2013). For the purpose of this dissertation, mediation is defined as “a third variable which represents the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1173). According to Hayes (2013), Bollen (1989) asserted on page 52 of his *Structural Equations with Latent Variables* that “lack of correlation does not disprove causation... correlation is neither necessary nor a sufficient condition of causality” (as cited in Hayes, 2013, p. 88). This dissertation adopted this thought process, which is in line with other scholars employing mediation analyses such as Cerin and MacKinnon (2009), Hayes (2009), MacKinnon (2008), Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, and Petty (2011), Shrout and Bolgar (2002), and Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010). Given the lack of significant correlations between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement in this dissertation, it is possible that relationship variables, as seen in the supported H1, H2, and H3, may mediate the relationship.

The PROCESS macro employs ordinary least squares path analysis to test mediation. For this reason, Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) recommended rejecting hypotheses if the 95% confidence interval from the bootstrapping procedure did not fall on both sides of zero, which was employed in this dissertation. Indirect effects tests were based on 1,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval. Mediation analysis in this dissertation used PROCESS Model 4 because each research question involved multiple independent variables, multiple mediators, and one dependent variable.

Table 4.17*Indirect effects of relationship variables between the variables of authenticity & social media engagement (SM Engagement)*

	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI	Z	p
Model 1: Transparency						
Control Mutuality	0.09	0.04	0.02 ^a	0.17 ^a	2.33	0.02
Satisfaction	-0.01	0.04	-0.08	0.07	-0.20	0.84
Credibility	-0.07	0.04	-0.17	0.01	-1.76	0.08
Control Mutuality → SM Engagement	0.16	0.07	0.03	0.30		0.02
Model 2: Veracity						
Control Mutuality	0.55	0.21	0.15 ^a	0.97 ^a	2.53	0.01
Satisfaction	-0.10	0.19	-0.51	0.25	-0.49	0.63
Credibility	-0.17	0.29	-0.78	0.34	-0.64	0.52
Control Mutuality → SM Engagement	0.18	0.07	0.04	0.31		0.01
Model 3: Genuineness						
Control Mutuality	0.19	0.07	0.04 ^a	0.32 ^a	2.73	0.01
Satisfaction	0.07	0.07	-0.06	0.21	0.98	0.33
Credibility	0.02	0.07	-0.12	0.16	0.25	0.80
Control Mutuality → SM Engagement	0.18	0.07	0.05	0.31		0.01

Note: 1,000 bootstrapping sample with 95% confident intervals. Model 4 in PROCESS.

^a Indicates 95% of CIs -- LLCI and ULCI -- did not overlap zero

In H7, the researcher predicted that control mutuality would mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Table 4.17 indicated that 95% of each of the confidence intervals for control mutuality did not overlap zero, which meant that control mutuality mediated the relationship between transparency and social media, veracity and social media, and genuineness and social media engagement. Given this finding, H7 was supported.

In H8, the researcher predicted that satisfaction would mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Table 4.17

indicated that 95% of each of the confidence intervals for satisfaction overlapped zero, which meant that satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between transparency and social media, veracity and social media, or genuineness and social media engagement. Given this finding, H8 was not supported.

In H9, the researcher predicted that credibility would mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Table 4.17 indicated that 95% of each of the confidence intervals for satisfaction overlapped zero, which meant that credibility did not mediate the relationship between transparency and social media, veracity and social media, or genuineness and social media engagement. Given this finding, H9 was not supported. Figure 4.6 below depicts the previously described mediation analyses conducted.

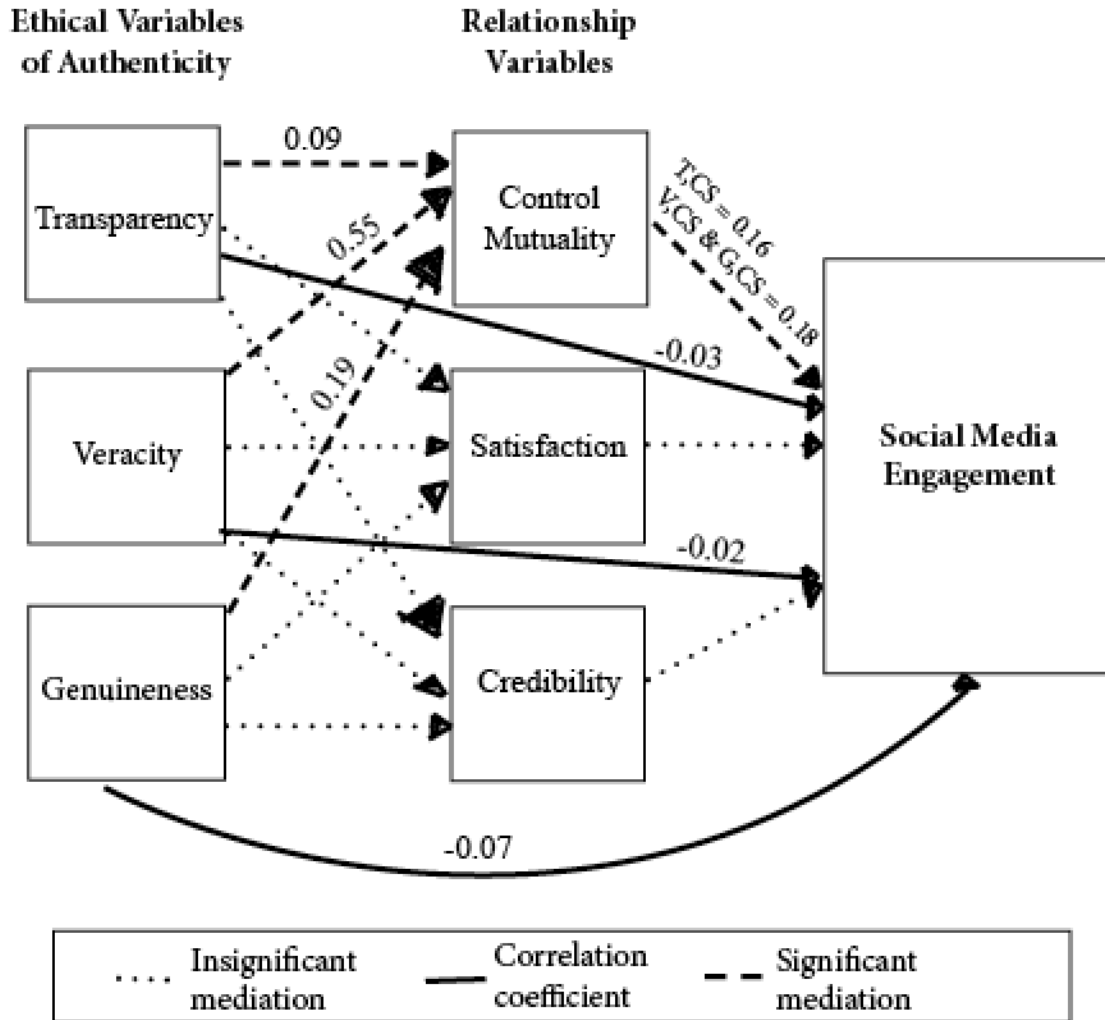


Figure 4.6. Indirect effects of relationship variables between variables of authenticity and social media engagement

Qualitative analysis. Hypothesis 7 was supported, whereas H8 and H9 were not.

Comments provided by respondents also supported the findings of H7. Transparency related to social media use through control mutuality (H7). One respondent indicated:

I frankly do not think about them unless I am needing their services or they are in the news. I do like to look at the animals up for adoption...so that would bring me to their site. Even if I wasn't looking for a new pet if there were puppies or kitten playing in the site, I would visit the site just to get a lift.

This comment also spoke to the strong association between control mutuality and satisfaction. Another respondent indicated that social media use made the animal welfare organization seem more transparent:

I feel social media has been a wonderful platform for the organization to communicate to the public any emergent or long term needs. Whether it is fostering or when they need assistance with providing food for the animals in the shelter.

Other comments provided by respondents addressed the relationship between genuineness and social media use with control mutuality as a mediator (H7). Genuineness related to social media use through control mutuality in one respondent's comment:

These workers have a job where their hearts are broken every day, to see what they see. They care so much about those animals, but no matter how hard they try, they will not be able to save every one. ... Social media can help shelter staff educate the public.

This comment also asserted control about local animal welfare organizations and spoke to the level of genuineness that individuals working at local animal welfare organizations have. Furthermore, this degree of genuineness can be reflected in the nonprofits' social media use.

Other comments provided by respondents addressed the relationship between veracity and social media engagement with control mutuality mediating the relationship (H7). While transparency is necessary, local animal welfare organizations that provide information that donors have said that they wanted through social media and other types of mass media might be perceived as having veracity. One respondent suggested, "More

information needs to be shared in the media regarding the facility needs of the [Organization E].”

Satisfaction (H8) and credibility (H9) did not mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Lowered perceptions of the ethical variables of authenticity, satisfaction, and credibility with local animal welfare organizations indicated that respondents did not want to maintain a relationship with their local animal welfare organization on social media or offline. Comments provided by one respondent reflected this sentiment:

... We would like to see our shelter try to work with other animal welfare groups in the area instead of being competitive. We would like them to demonstrate with consistency that it is the welfare of the animals that is more important than their image or money both in their presentation to the public as well as in practice behind the scenes when no one is looking. They have been making some progress, but it could be so much better. I have no relationship with my local welfare organization because they have yet to demonstrate consistent concern for animal welfare...

Summary of Findings

In this study, findings from RQ1 indicated that genuineness and veracity were the most significant ethical variables of authenticity. Findings from RQ2 indicated that control mutuality had the only positive and meaningful relationship with social media engagement for local animal welfare organizations. Findings from RQ3 indicated that control mutuality was the only relationship variable to mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.

Table 4.18*Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses*

	Supported/Not Supported
H1: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with control mutuality.	Supported
H2: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with satisfaction.	Supported
H3: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with credibility.	Supported
H4: Control mutuality will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Supported
H5: Satisfaction will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Not supported
H6: Credibility will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Not supported
H7: Control mutuality will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Supported
H8: Satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Not supported
H9: Credibility will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Not supported

As seen in Table 4.24, the ethical variables of authenticity—transparency, veracity, and genuineness—were positively associated with control mutuality (H1), satisfaction (H2), and credibility (H3). Control mutuality was positively associated with social media engagement (H4), while satisfaction (H5) and credibility (H6) were not positively associated with social media engagement. Control mutuality (H7) mediated the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement, whereas satisfaction (H8) and credibility (H9) did not mediate that relationship.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION & IMPLICATIONS

Summaries of supported and unsupported hypotheses, as well as summaries of key findings for each research question are discussed in this chapter. Additionally, implications for theory and practice, specifically strategic recommendations for social media and relationship management, are discussed in this chapter. Limitations of this study, as well as direction for future research are also offered.

5.1 OVERVIEW OF KEY FINDINGS

Ethical variables of authenticity and relationship variables

Research Question 1 explored how the ethical variables of authenticity were associated with relationship variables. This section highlights the supported and unsupported hypotheses of RQ1. This section also provides an in-depth discussion of key quantitative and qualitative findings regarding the ethical variables of authenticity—transparency, veracity, and genuineness—and relationship variables—control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility (RQ1).

Table 5.1

Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses for RQ1

	Supported/Not Supported
H1: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with control mutuality.	Supported
H2: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with satisfaction.	Supported
H3: The ethical variables of authenticity will be positively associated with credibility.	Supported

Hypotheses. As seen in Table 5.1, H1 posited that the ethical variables of authenticity would be positively associated with control mutuality. Hypothesis 2 posited that the ethical variables of authenticity would be positively associated with satisfaction. Hypothesis 3 posited that the ethical variables of authenticity would be positively associated with credibility. Through a series of path analyses on each measure, control mutuality (H1), satisfaction (H2), and credibility (H3) had positive associations with the ethical variables of authenticity (transparency, veracity, and genuineness), which meant that H1, H2, and H3 were supported.

Table 5.2

Key findings regarding ethical variables of authenticity and relationship variables

Key Findings

1. Genuineness and veracity were the most significant ethical variables of authenticity for donors in their evaluations of their local animal welfare organizations.
 2. Transparency may not have as prominent of a role in donor assessments of authenticity as genuineness and veracity.
 3. Veracity was highly correlated with control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility at a significance level of $p < 0.001$.
 4. Donors perceived control mutuality when their local animal welfare organization's management practices were rooted in veracity.
 5. Perceptions of veracity were satisfactory when donors understood how their local animal welfare organizations were using their donations.
 6. Perceived genuine actions by local animal welfare organizations were deemed credible because they were consistent.
-

As seen in Table 5.2, exploratory factor analyses revealed that genuineness and veracity were the most significant ethical variables of authenticity for donors in their evaluations of their local animal welfare organizations. Although transparency is a necessary ethical variable of authenticity because of its implications for consistency in

reputations and communications practices (Auger, 2014), this finding suggested that it may not play as prominent of a role in donor assessments of local animal welfare organizations' authenticity as genuineness and veracity. Correlations from a confirmatory factor analysis revealed that transparency, veracity, and genuineness were separate constructs; this finding provided the basis for running separate path analyses.

Veracity. Of the ethical variables of authenticity, veracity has the strongest relationship with control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility. Each relationship that veracity had with control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility was highly correlated with correlations ranging between 0.80 and 0.87 at significance levels of $p < 0.001$.

Because truth is the basis of trust and trust is the basis of society, there is great importance on focusing on veracity, or truth-telling (Bok, 1978). This researcher contends that perceptions of a local animal welfare organization's veracity relate to how much control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility that donors perceive they have with the organization. If a donor does not perceive that a local animal welfare organization has veracity, it may affect how the donor perceives the organization's authenticity and how they choose to interact with the organization—or even, if they want to maintain the relationship at all. Perhaps, if local animal welfare organizations were to place a greater focus on management practices and communication strategies grounded in veracity to enhance donors' perceptions of control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility, local animal welfare organizations can offset relationship termination by their donors.

Qualitative analysis of veracity. Qualitative comments from donors also indicate that veracity is important in how they assess their local animal welfare organization's authenticity. In his/her assessment of one of the local animal welfare organization's

veracity, one donor explained, “I think the Staff at [Organization E] are very, very honest, trustworthy, hard working, dedicated, empathy and appreciative of supplies and volunteers coming to walk the dogs.” This example highlights the donor’s satisfaction with the local animal organization’s perceived veracity, as well as the donor’s belief that efforts made by key publics influence how the organization operates, a form of control mutuality. This example also alludes to the organization’s perceived credibility through the donor’s consistent interactions with and observations of his/her local animal welfare organization. Perhaps, if donors perceive greater satisfaction with greater control mutuality, this may suggest a need for local animal welfare organizations to consistently provide opportunities for control mutuality to build greater credibility with their donor publics.

Donors perceived control mutuality when their local animal welfare organization’s management practices were rooted in veracity. Donors felt that their opinions and suggestions would be valued by their local animal welfare organization and would have some impact on their relationship with the organization. Several respondents’ comments reflected on their satisfaction with their local animal welfare organization’s efforts to keep members of their key publics involved. One respondent noted this by stating, “Most caring and professional and very efficient at their job. Have so many unique ideas to get the public involved and keep them involved. I love the people there.” This donor’s comment highlights a local animal welfare organization’s use of strategy rooted in the ethical variables of authenticity—transparency, veracity, and genuineness—to heighten control mutuality among donors. This example also suggests that if donors

perceive greater control mutuality, they are more satisfied with their local animal welfare organization and its social media efforts.

Perceptions of veracity were satisfactory when donors understood how their local animal welfare organizations were using their donations. A few qualitative comments from donors illustrated the role of transparency in assessments of a local animal welfare organization's veracity. One respondent indicated, "Wonderful people; truthful and trustworthy; have not always been able to meet their announced infrastructure and fundraising goals, but have always made honest attempts – [they] never try to misinform." This example shows the importance of veracity and its relationship with control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility. Additionally, this example illustrated how local animal welfare organizations need to communicate and use platforms that show donors their veracity.

Genuineness. Perceived genuine actions by local animal welfare organizations were deemed credible because they were consistent. Qualitative analysis of respondents' comments regarding their relationship with their local animal welfare organization revealed that genuineness was a significant theme. Typically, when respondents referred to their local animal welfare organization as being genuine, or acting genuinely, these respondents indicated that they had positive experiences with management or interactions with employees. For example, one donor explained,

"I think the Staff at [Organization E] are very, very honest, trustworthy, hard working, dedicated, empathy and appreciative of supplies and volunteers coming to walk the dogs. ... They really do a good job at [Organization E] with the funds and supplies that they get and what is allocated to them. They are the Best and

Wonderful people. I think very highly of them and I enjoy going up there to help out.”

This example illustrates how management practices rooted in genuineness can lead donors to perceive satisfaction with their local animal welfare organization. Perhaps, when local animal welfare organizations’ management is rooted in genuineness, donors perceive greater satisfaction. Given the strong correlations between satisfaction and control mutuality, management practices rooted in genuineness may also heighten donors’ perceived control mutuality.

Veracity and genuineness. Management practices and communication strategies rooted in veracity and genuineness have positive implications for how donors perceive their relationship with their local animal welfare organizations. One donor indicated, “Wonderful people; truthful and trustworthy; have not always been able to meet their announced infrastructure and fundraising goals, but have always made honest attempts – [they] never try to misinform.” This example highlights the relationship that veracity and genuineness have when donors assess their local animal welfare organization’s authenticity. Perhaps, when donors perceive that their local animal welfare organization is communicating and acting with veracity and genuineness, they perceive that the organization is being authentic.

Relationship variables and social media engagement

Research Question 2 explored how the variables of relationship variables were associated with social media engagement. This section highlights the supported and unsupported hypotheses of RQ2. This section also provides an in-depth discussion of key

quantitative and qualitative findings regarding the relationship variables—transparency, veracity, and genuineness—and social media engagement (RQ2).

Table 5.3

Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses for RQ2

	Supported/Not Supported
H4: Control mutuality will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Supported
H5: Satisfaction will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Not supported
H6: Credibility will be positively associated with social media engagement.	Not supported

Hypotheses. As seen in Table 5.3, H4 posited that control mutuality would be positively associated with social media engagement, and the data showed a strong level of support for H4. Hypothesis 5 posited that satisfaction would be positively associated with social media engagement. Hypothesis 6 posited that credibility would be positively associated with social media engagement. Through a series of path analyses, control mutuality (H4) had a positive association with social media engagement that was meaningful (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Land, 1969). Satisfaction (H5) and credibility (H6) had positive associations with social media engagement, but were not meaningful (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Land, 1969) and were not supported.

Table 5.4

Key findings regarding relationship variables and social media engagement

Key Findings

1. Control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility were not correlated with social media engagement.
2. Control mutuality was positively associated with social media engagement.
3. There was a strong positive relationship between control mutuality and satisfaction.
4. When donors perceived control mutuality, they tended to feel that their opinions and suggestions would be valued by their local animal welfare organization.

As indicated in Table 5.4, control mutuality was positively associated with social media engagement. While respondents perceived satisfaction and credibility with their local animal welfare organization, this finding suggested that perceived control mutuality had a greater predictive role in whether key publics like donors ‘liked’ (or followed) their local animal welfare organization on social media and whether they communicated with the organization on social media. Given that greater perceived control mutuality has implications for whether donors ‘liked’ or followed their local animal welfare organization, local animal welfare organizations should provide opportunities where donors can participate in decisions made via social media. Thus, local animal welfare organizations should focus on using more symmetrical communications with opportunities for dialogue. Perhaps by providing opportunities for social media engagement, local animal welfare organizations might be able to increase perceptions of authenticity and control mutuality.

Mean scores and t-tests revealed that donors who ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organizations on social media perceived greater transparency, veracity, and genuineness than donors who did not ‘like’ (or follow) their local animal welfare organization on social media. Based on this finding, the researcher contends that social media, specifically Facebook, is an important tool for enhancing perceptions of authenticity for local animal welfare organizations with their donors. Although Facebook may have some level of source credibility for donors over the age of 42 based on cross tabulations between ‘liking’ (or following) local animal welfare organizations’ social media and age, social media provides local animal welfare organizations with the ability to create symmetrical communication with more opportunities for dialogue. Symmetrical

communication with more opportunities for dialogue not only affects how donors perceive the organization's authenticity, but how much control mutuality that donors feel that they have in their relationship with their local animal welfare organization. Perhaps, local animal welfare organizations can create more opportunities for control mutuality and greater input on initiatives through the use of polls and open-ended questions to elicit feedback from donors.

Highest education level was significantly associated with social media use, as well as perceptions of transparency, veracity, genuineness, credibility, and control mutuality. Highest education level and gender were also significantly associated with perceived satisfaction. Implications for this finding suggest that female donors with higher levels of education may be more inclined to perceive authenticity and satisfaction with their local animal welfare organization. Perhaps, as J.E. Grunig (1989a) indicated, higher education lessens constraint recognition so social media empowers donors more. Individuals with higher education may recognize that social media can be a more effective tool for directly communicating with administrators or public relations practitioners rather than other traditional forms of communication such as telephone calls, letters, emails, or face-to-face communication. Individuals with higher education may recognize that social media may be a means for working around cumbersome hierarchical structure of organizations.

Qualitative analysis. Findings from this dissertation indicated that there was a strong positive relationship between control mutuality and satisfaction. Qualitative analyses of respondents' comments regarding their relationship with their local animal

welfare organization revealed that control mutuality and satisfaction played a key role in their local animal welfare organization's communication and social media efforts.

When donors perceived control mutuality, they tended to feel that their opinions and suggestions would be valued by their local animal welfare organization. Several respondents had specific comments, rooted in control mutuality, about their local animal welfare organization's communications efforts. Respondents offered suggestions about improving donor communications, so their local animal welfare organization could reallocate funding to be used for extending and improving services. For example, one donor indicated,

They should try to encourage everyone that donates to them to give them their emails, so they don't have to mail information to them. This would save them money that could be used for the animals, instead of wasting it on postage.

Other comments focused on more frequent, call-to-action communication with donors to bring attention to important issues as a means of raising funds to address these issues.

One respondent noted, "I would like it if we could post pictures of animals we adopt on their Facebook page. I would also like to post comments and ask questions on Facebook.

It is not an interactive site." This example highlights one local animal welfare organization's lack of symmetrical communication and few opportunities for dialogue—at least on Facebook. Because symmetrical communication is not practiced and dialogue is not encouraged, this donor feels that he or she has lower control mutuality with this local animal welfare organization on Facebook.

Counter to the previous example of not using symmetrical communication, several respondents had specific comments about their satisfaction with their local animal

welfare organization's communications efforts on social media. One respondent indicated, "I think our county's animal care goes above and beyond to communicate with the public. They are innovative with their pursuit to connect animals with adopters and rescue groups through social media." Because symmetrical communication was practiced and dialogue was encouraged, this donor felt that he or she has higher control mutuality with his or her local animal welfare organization on social media. Given the example of using symmetrical communication and not using symmetrical communication, it seems that perhaps symmetrical communication is a prerequisite to enhancing control mutuality.

Ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement

Research Question 3 asked how the ethical variables of authenticity were associated with social media engagement. As seen in Table 5.5 below, this section highlights the supported and unsupported hypotheses of RQ3.

Table 5.5
Summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses for RQ3

	Supported/Not Supported
H7: Control mutuality will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Supported
H8: Satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Not supported
H9: Credibility will mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.	Not supported

This section also provides an in-depth discussion of key quantitative and qualitative findings regarding the relationships between the ethical variables of authenticity, relationship variables, and social media engagement (RQ3).

Table 5.6

Key findings regarding ethical variables of authenticity & social media engagement

Key Findings

1. Control mutuality was the only relationship variable to mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement.
 2. Lowered perceptions of the ethical variables of authenticity, satisfaction, and credibility with local animal welfare organizations seemed to indicate that donors did not want to maintain a relationship with their local animal welfare organization on social media or offline.
-

As seen in Table 5.5 and Table 5.6, H7 posited that control mutuality would mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity—transparency, veracity, and credibility—and social media engagement. Mediation analyses revealed that control mutuality was the only relationship variable to mediate the relationship between all of the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Control mutuality may have been the only mediating relationship variable between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement because for donors, perceived control mutuality meant that they were valued for something beyond providing financial support for the organization; they were valued by the organization for their opinions and suggestions for improving communications and operations. It seems that donors who perceived their local animal welfare organization as authentic felt they had more control in the organization-public relationship for this reason, which meant that they might be more inclined to engage with the organization on social media. Based on the mediation analyses and also supported by the exploratory factor analysis, it seems that donors' assessments of their local animal welfare organization's authenticity primarily centered on its veracity and genuineness. This suggests that if donors perceive that their local animal welfare organization communicates or acts with veracity and genuineness, donors perceive more control mutuality with the organization.

Satisfaction (H8) and credibility (H9) did not mediate the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Perhaps, based on the correlations between the select relationship variables—control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility, all of the relationship variables were intercorrelated. Of the correlations, control mutuality and satisfaction were highly correlated, where as credibility was less so. This finding suggests that donors who perceive control mutuality are also satisfied with their relationship with their local animal welfare organization. Due to the high correlations between control mutuality and satisfaction, this relationship should be further explored for it seems that if donors are more satisfied with their relationship with their local animal welfare organization, they also perceived more control mutuality than a donor who is somewhat satisfied with the organization.

As seen in Table 5.6, lowered perceptions of the ethical variables of authenticity, satisfaction, and credibility with local animal welfare organizations seemed to indicate that donors did not want to maintain a relationship with their local animal welfare organization. Because local animal welfare organizations rely heavily on individual donations, this finding is a concerning one. Local animal welfare organizations that do not use or rely on relationship management strategies rooted in the ethical variables of authenticity risk relationship termination by their donors. Losing support from donors would adversely affect local animal welfare organizations' ability to operate, as well as to serve their communities and the animals that live in their communities.

In terms of an original contribution, the researcher offers a trimmed model in Figure 5.1 below as part of scholarly discussions of authenticity, particularly its ethical variables of veracity and genuineness, and social media engagement in relationship

management theory. In doing so, this researcher aims to highlight the role of control mutuality in analyses of authenticity in organization-public relationships in social media for nonprofit organizations such as local animal welfare organizations. The model below shows that the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement seems to be heightened when mediated by control mutuality.

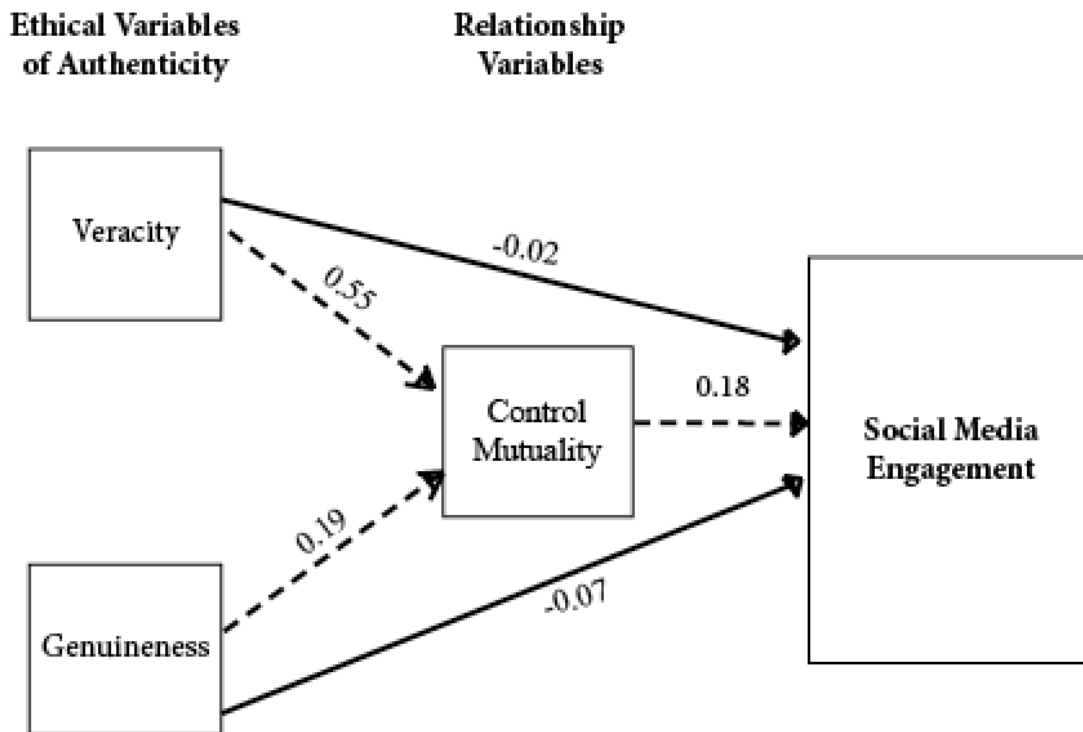


Figure 5.1. Indirect effects of control mutuality between veracity, genuineness, and social media engagement

5.2 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

To the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to connect the ethical variables of authenticity to select relationship variables and social media engagement for local animal welfare organizations. This dissertation aims to contribute to relationship management theory by highlighting the role of control mutuality in analyses of

authenticity in organization-public relationships in social media for nonprofit organizations like local animal welfare organizations.

Implications for authenticity

In his suppositions about authenticity, Taylor (1992) argued for more originality and less conventionality. Taylor (1992) also argued authenticity placed significance on what the individual deems important. This assertion means that interactions with key publics provide opportunities for ‘self-fulfillment’ and ‘self-recognition’ are necessary for evaluations of authenticity (Hardt, 1993; Taylor, 1992). From an organizational perspective, “active participation” and “involvement in decision-making” through dialogue are important when members of key publics such as donors evaluate whether an organization is authentic in its decisions and communications (Liedtka, 2008, p. 239).

Research in this dissertation extended the findings of Liedtka (2008) to the relationship between perceptions of authenticity and social media engagement for nonprofit organizations like local animal welfare organizations. Findings in this dissertation indicated that control mutuality—or “involvement in decision making” through dialogue (Liedtka, 2008, p. 239)—mediates the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. Based on this finding, the researcher argues that donors who perceived their local animal welfare organization as authentic felt they had more control in the organization-public relationship because their opinions and suggestions would be valued, which meant that they might be more inclined to engage with their local animal welfare organization on social media. For example, one respondent commented, “Most caring and professional and very efficient at their job. Have so many unique ideas to get the public involved and keep them informed. I love the

people there.” This example shows that a donor feels that their local animal welfare organization is genuine in their efforts and the organization takes steps to include key publics such as donors. Perhaps, when coupled with the right communication strategy, this donor could become more engaged with their local animal welfare organization on social media.

For this reason, creating opportunities for “active participation” and “involvement in decision-making” (Liedtka, 2008, p. 239) with local animal welfare organizations’ social media becomes important to fostering positive perceptions of authenticity. Consistently creating opportunities for active participation and involvement in decision-making allows organizations’ key publics to make accurate assessments of the organization’s perceived authenticity (Molleda & Jain, 2013) and has positive implications for the organization’s reputation (Fombrun, 1996). Organizations that are more expressive and inclusive tend to have stronger organizational reputations (Fombrun & Rindova, 2000; Van Riel & Fombrun, 2007).

Implications for relationship management

Dialogue plays a crucial role in civil societies. All interest groups and individuals in civil societies work towards a common good of improving the community that they live in (Taylor, 2010). Taylor (2010) insisted that the convergence of different ideas between parties lead to more instances for groups to achieve common goals. Relationship-building activities in a civil society are grounded in negotiations (Taylor, 2010). Taylor’s (2010) assertions regarding dialogue and its role in a civil society are important for discussions of control mutuality because it implies that control mutuality can be used to enact a civil society. Control mutuality is one means of enacting a civil

society because it places dialogue, or symmetrical communication, at the center of relationship management for local animal welfare organizations to increase instances for achieving common goals with key publics such as donors. The normative social role of ethical public relations is thus enhanced, as argued in Bowen (2010b).

While the public relations and nonprofit literature often overlook control mutuality, this dissertation shows that control mutuality plays a central role in mediating the relationship between ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement. When donors perceive their local animal welfare organization as authentic, they believe that their opinions and suggestions are valued by the organization, which may lead the donor to engage the organization on social media. This finding suggests that strategies rooted in the ethical variable of authenticity might improve relational quality of organization-public relationships by addressing control mutuality, particularly in terms of social media engagement with key publics such as donors. In crafting and implementing relationship management strategies rooted in authenticity, local animal welfare organizations act in benevolence (Estlund, 1990; Nguyen, 2010; Urell, 2006) and beneficence (Bates, 2004; Mansell, 2013). As such, benevolence and beneficence were positive requirements of ethical relationship management focusing on variables of authenticity.

Integrative strategies. Bruning and Ledingham (1999) asserted that different types of relationships require different relationship management strategies including openness and networking, to illicit different types of relationship management outcomes such as trust and commitment. Organizations employing integrative strategies try to find common ground among all parties so that each party is accommodated and involved in

the decision-making process (Hon & Grunig, 1999), which may be indicative of one potentially strong type of strategy for enhancing control mutuality.

Research conducted in this dissertation indicated that donors perceived control mutuality when their local animal welfare organization's management practices were rooted in veracity. Perceptions of veracity were satisfactory for donors in this study when they understood how their local animal welfare organizations were using donations. Perceived genuine actions by local animal welfare organizations were deemed credible by donors in this study because they were consistent. Strategies conducive to heightening control mutuality among donors are integrative strategies, and as such are rooted in veracity and genuineness.

By acting with benevolence and beneficence, local animal welfare organizations can show veracity and genuineness, as well as heighten control mutuality. Urell (2006) argued that benevolence could be used to develop a sense of community. Strategies rooted in genuineness and veracity allow local animal welfare organizations to create opportunities for dialogue and to show value and respect to their donors and members of other key publics.

Research from this dissertation indicates that genuineness and veracity were the most significant ethical variables of authenticity for donors in their evaluations of their local animal welfare organizations. If key publics believe that their opinions are heard and respected by a local animal welfare organization, they feel empowered to voice their opinion, a form of control or shared control as indicated in control mutuality. For example, one respondent noted of their local animal welfare organization that they "feel

[Organization B] in particular [is] working hard for [sic] cause and [sic] often seen going the extra mile.”

Stewardship strategies. Stewardship strategies may also enhance control mutuality to positively impact the relationship between perceived authenticity and social media engagement. Stewardship strategies of responsibility and relationship nurturing are strategies rooted in genuineness and veracity, whereas reporting is a strategy rooted in transparency. Assertions of this nature align with previous works of Waters (2009b) who argued that relationship outcomes including control mutuality were significantly affected by stewardship strategies such as responsibility and relationship nurturing. Responsibility entails keeping promises and acting in a manner that shows individuals that organizations are worth the support they receive (Kelly, 2001). Relationship nurturing entails recognizing individuals and showing how you value those individuals (Kelly, 2001).

Given that ethics of care places a strong emphasis on responsibility (Gilligan, 1982), being responsive to key publics’ needs and opinions shows that an organization cares (Tronto, 1993). Strategies aiming to heighten control mutuality help organizations to show their key publics that they care, which is reflective of stewardship strategies proposed by Hon and J.E. Grunig (1999) and Kelly (2001). Cultures rooted in caring show an interest in someone or something other than the organization’s self interest (Tronto, 1993). With missions addressing animal cruelty, neglect, and overpopulation, local animal welfare organizations are intrinsically geared towards caring for animals and those who care for animals.

Research conducted in this dissertation indicates that local animal welfare organizations that used strategies rooted in veracity and genuineness to show stewardship

elicited control mutuality, as well as pride from their highly engaged donors. One donor reflected on the pride that he or she felt regarding their local animal welfare organization's stewardship and communication efforts as a means to keep donors involved. That donor explained, "Leadership and all the fund raising efforts [are] very engaging. Proud to be part of the new changes. Feels like true community effort." Perhaps, by showing that the organization is acting responsibly, the organization is nurturing the relationship with its donors, which makes donors feel like they have more control in their relationship.

5.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Theoretical implications of this dissertation build a foundation for practical and strategic implications for local animal welfare organizations, other types of nonprofits, and the public relations practitioners who advocate for these organizations on their behalf. These strategic implications are not exclusive, or by any means, exhaustive. More than one strategic implication can be used in tandem. Public relations practitioners advocate for clients, but they should also educate their clients to the benefits of using strategies rooted in veracity and genuineness to heighten control mutuality with key publics such as donors.

Local animal welfare organizations and other nonprofit organizations

Integrative strategies offer nonprofit organizations a means for donors to exert some control in their relationship with the organization beyond financial contributions. By using integrative strategies to enhance control mutuality, all parties feel responsible for the outcomes resulting from the decision-making process because all parties

contributed. The following list offers resultant suggestions to guide strategy creation grounded in veracity and genuineness that promote control mutuality.

1. Regularly ask your donors for feedback;
2. Show your donors that you value their opinions and suggestions through the use of dialogue;
3. Regularly implement suggestions that your donors give you;
4. And, give your donors the opportunity to be involved in decision-making.

Listening, valuing opinions and suggestions, as well as including members of donor publics to participate in the decision-making process could potentially lead to continued donations and greater donor retention (O’Neil, 2007), not only social media engagement. These practical and strategic implications are best highlighted in this dissertation through donor comments.

Research conducted in this dissertation supports the suggestions offered to local animal welfare organizations and other nonprofit organizations. *Bullet point 1 (regular feedback)* is best highlighted by one donor’s comment about their local animal welfare organization’s social media efforts, “I would like it if we could post pictures of animals we adopt on their Facebook page. I would also like to post comments and ask questions on Facebook. It is not an interactive site.” This example highlights one local animal welfare organization’s lack of symmetrical communication with its donors. By regularly asking your donors for feedback through the use of polls and open-ended questions, donors may feel more control mutuality with their local animal welfare organization on Facebook. *Bullet point 2 (showing value)* is best highlighted by one respondent’s comment that, “[Organization E] is a kind of place where the people are always

appreciative and welcoming to all that enter. As a young adult, I work a lot and I will always donate my time and financial contributions to places that value me.” By showing that they value their donors’ opinions and suggestions through the use of dialogue, local animal welfare organizations can elicit control mutuality and satisfaction.

Bullet point 3 (implementation) is best highlighted by one donor’s comment that, “Now a stronger supporter since ‘no kill’ policy being adapted. Struggled with donating to programs that could result in ‘putting down’ animals.” By listening to suggestions for improvements on their ‘no kill’ policy, donors perceived greater control mutuality and satisfaction. More so, the local animal welfare organization affords the donors with the respect and dignity they deserve under Kant’s Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons. *Bullet point 4 (control mutuality)* is best highlighted by one donor’s comment of his or her local animal welfare organization, “They should try to encourage everyone that donates to them to give them their emails, so they don't have to mail information to them. This would save them money that could be used for the animals, instead of wasting it on postage.” This comment indicated that when donors perceived control mutuality, they tended to feel that their opinions and suggestions would be valued by their local animal welfare organization.

Public relations practitioners and other types of organizations

Several types of strategies can be used in a strategic communication plan to accommodate various needs of an organization. From a practical and ethical standpoint, integrative and stewardship strategies can be used to enhance control mutuality perceived by donors by affording them the respect and dignity that they deserve under Kant’s Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons. Strategies rooted in genuineness and

veracity allow organizations to show value and respect to their key publics. Heightened control mutuality provides organizations with creative suggestions, solutions, and messaging for problems that key publics notice in their interactions with the organization. For example, one respondent offered to their local animal welfare organization, “They need to utilize volunteers more so when it comes to social media and fundraising.”

The following list addresses questions toward creating strategies grounded in veracity and genuineness that promote control mutuality with strategic publics. More general than the previous recommendations for local animal welfare organizations, the following list offers a few suggestions to guide strategy creation grounded in veracity and genuineness that promote control mutuality.

1. Do you regularly ask for feedback from key publics?
2. Do you show your key publics that you value their opinions and suggestions?
3. Do you regularly communicate about how suggestions from your key publics have been implemented?
4. Do you give your key publics the opportunity to be involved in decisions? If so, how often?

The goal of creating strategies rooted in veracity and genuineness aiming to heighten control mutuality is relationship retention and quality. By listening, valuing opinions and suggestions, as well as involving members of key publics to participate in decision-making, organizations could potentially address relationship retention and quality issues. When members of key publics feel that their opinions and suggestions are valued and that they are respected by the organization, they feel more inclined to continue interacting with the organization. Perceived control mutuality provides value to

relationships between organizations and their key publics beyond financial support. Perceived control mutuality shows key publics that their opinions and suggestions for improving communications and operations matter to the organization.

5.4 SUMMARY

Control mutuality is one means of enacting ethical public relations and authenticity as part of a civil society because it places symmetrical communication at the center of relationship management for local animal welfare organizations. For this reason, symmetrical communication is necessary for enhancing control mutuality. In relationship management, control mutuality might be able to help increase instances for local animal welfare organizations to achieve common goals with key publics such as donors. When members of key publics feel that their opinions and suggestions are valued and that they are respected by the organization, they feel more inclined to continue interacting with the organization. Donors who perceive control mutuality are also satisfied with their relationship with their local animal welfare organization.

If local animal welfare organizations were to place a greater focus on management practices and communication strategies grounded in veracity to enhance donors' perceptions of control mutuality, satisfaction, and credibility, local animal welfare organizations can potentially offset relationship termination by their donors. If donors perceive greater satisfaction with more opportunities for control mutuality, local animal welfare organizations can build greater credibility with their key publics as an organization that values their donors for more than the financial support they offer, creating a more authentic relationship.

5.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

Because online populations are not necessarily representative of the general population (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; Fink, 2009; Fowler, 2009), selection bias may have been an issue because online surveys reach individuals with Internet access and a certain level of computer literacy and affluence.

Data collection. Email invitations and reminders with online survey links were distributed by the local animal welfare organizations rather than by the researcher due to privacy policies. Using email invitations to distribute links to the online survey, there was a possibility that some of the same individuals filled the survey out in the first wave were contacted two additional times through email because the survey was not sent out using Qualtrics which would only send reminders to individuals who had not filled the survey out. In an effort to control for this limitation, the researcher enabled the ‘ballot stuffing’ feature for the online survey, which prevented users from the same IP address from filling out the survey multiple times.

Local animal welfare organizations’ email databases may be connected to their fundraising efforts; thus, they may only want to send out a certain number of email reminders, which may hinder data collection. The researcher and local animal welfare organizations determined a schedule for email invitations. Furthermore, if email subject titles are not worded appropriately, email surveys may be relegated to the recipients’ spam folder. However, on the positive side, having the email invitation come from the organization itself added credibility and helped to enhance the response rate.

Instrument design. Individuals receiving online surveys may not have spent a lot of time filling them out. If the online survey was too long, some individuals may end the

survey prematurely or skip over questions, creating nonresponse error in the data (Fowler, 2009). To combat this error, the survey instrument was designed to include 30 questions addressing the relevant constructs, six demographic questions, one open-ended question, and an optional field to enter an email address into the gift card raffle. The online survey included 38 questions total. Additionally, selected variables were relevant to the research topic; thus, non-relevant or probing items were not included.

Recruitment. One limitation of this study was animal welfare organization recruitment. During the recruitment process, the researcher made note that several animal welfare organizations were concerned about the time of year that data collection would begin. End of year and the beginning of the New Year were important times of year for collecting donations, which fund their operations throughout the year. Many animal welfare organizations indicated that any addition to their content calendars was a concern because of donor fatigue and a potential rise in unsubscribes from their donor email list. One animal welfare organization indicated their concern about the mixed messages that would occur when sending out a survey assessing relationship management efforts at the same time as requesting donations and thus, did not participate in this study.

Data analysis. Structural equation modeling was attempted. Two structural equation modeling efforts produced an inadequate model fit based on model fit guidelines delineated by Netemeyer et al. (2003). The researcher cleaned the dataset ($n = 1,076$) of any response missing an entry, which resulted in a new dataset ($n = 572$), specifically for this SEM data analysis. Based on model fit problems, the researcher decided to pursue path analyses and mediation analysis instead of a full structural equation model. Model fit indices for the second attempted structural equation model included: $X^2 = 66.41$ (4, 572),

$p = 0.00$; CFI = 0.97; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.17 [90% CI = 0.13, 0.20]; SRMR = 0.02.

The full structural equation model visualization is available in Appendix C for further inspection. The structural equation model was not discussed in great length in this dissertation due to the recursive paths and lack of model fit, but it is a needed avenue for future study.

Respondents. One limitation of this study was the lack of diversity among the respondents ($n = 1,076$). As reported earlier in this dissertation, respondents were predominantly female (84%) with fewer males (16%). Respondents tended to be older than 59-years-old (31%) with other respondents being 50 to 58-years-old (25%), 42 to 49-years-old (20%), and 34 to 41-years-old (11%). Respondents were overwhelmingly Caucasian (96%) with few respondents identifying as African American (1%), Asian/Pacific Islander (1%), Hispanic (1%), and Native American (1%). As the frequencies indicated, most respondents tended to be older Caucasian females, meaning that very few respondents identified themselves as African Americans, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, or Native American.

5.6 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The nuances of control mutuality and its relationship with the ethical variables of authenticity should be explored. Research focusing on the relationship between the ethical variables of authenticity and social media engagement for different types of nonprofit organizations should be examined to see which relationship variables mediate those relationships. Assessments of the relationship between relationship variables and social media engagement for different nonprofit organizations or with local animal welfare organizations should be conducted nationally. The relationship between

benevolence, beneficence, authenticity, and control mutuality should be explored in future research.

This study should be conducted again with the participating local animal welfare organizations in the next year to assess if there was any change in respondents' perceptions about the nonprofit organizations based on strategic recommendations from the researcher. Examining the perceptions of individuals who identify themselves as African American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, or Native American should occur in future research.

REFERENCES

- American Association for Public Opinion Research. (2011). *Standard Definitions: Final Dispositions of Case Codes and Outcome Rates for Surveys* 7th edition. AAPOR. http://www.aapor.org/AAPORKentico/AAPOR_Main/media/MainSiteFiles/StandardDefinitions2011_1.pdf
- Andreassen, T. A. (2007). Asymmetric Mutuality: User Involvement as a Government--Voluntary Sector Relationship in Norway. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 37(2), 281–299. doi:10.1177/0899764007310417
- Argenti, P. A., & Druckenmiller, B. (2004). Reputation and the Corporate Brand. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 6(4), 368–374.
- Arthur W. Page Society. (2007). *Authentic Enterprise Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.awpagesociety.com/insights/authentic-enterprise-report/>
- Auger, G. A. (2014). Trust Me, Trust Me Not: An Experimental Analysis of the Effect of Transparency on Organizations. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 26(4), 325–343. doi:10.1080/1062726X.2014.908722
- Baker, L. W. (1993). *The credibility factor: putting ethics to work in public relations*. Homewood, IL: Business One Irwin.
- Baker, S., & Martinson, D. L. (2001). The TARES Test: Five Principles for Ethical Persuasion. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 16(2/3), 148–175.
- Bandsuch, M., Pate, L., & Thies, J. (2008). Rebuilding Stakeholder Trust in Business: An Examination of Principle-Centered Leadership and Organizational Transparency in Corporate Governance. *Business & Society Review (00453609)*, 113(1), 99–127. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8594.2008.00315.x
- Barney, J. B. (1986). Organizational Culture: Can It Be a Source of Sustained Competitive Advantage? *Academy of Management Review*, 11(3), 656–665. doi:10.5465/AMR.1986.4306261
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- Bartlett, J. L., & Bartlett, G. (2012). Kaleidoscopes and Contradictions: The Legitimacy of Social Media for Public Relations. In S. C. Duhé (Ed.), *New media and public relations* (2nd ed., pp. 13–20). New York: Peter Lang.

- Bates, R. (2004). A critical analysis of evaluation practice: the Kirkpatrick model and the principle of beneficence. *Evaluation & Program Planning*, 27(3), 341. doi:10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2004.04.011
- Beder, S. (1998). Public Relations' Role in Manufacturing Artificial Grass Roots Coalitions. *Public Relations Quarterly*, 43(2), 20–23.
- Bentele, G., & Wehmeier, S. (2003). From literary bureaus to a modern profession: The development and current structure of public relations in Germany. *The Global Public Relations Handbook, Mahwah (NJ)/London*, 199–221.
- Berger, B. K. (2005). Power over, power with, and power to relations: Critical reflections on public relations, the dominant coalition, and activism. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 17(1), 5–28.
- Berger, B. K., & Reber, B. H. (2006). Influence in Public Relations and Why It's Important. In *Gaining influence in public relations: the role of resistance in practice* (pp. 1–21). Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers.
- Bok, S. (1978). *Lying: Moral Choice in Public and Private Life* (1st ed.). New York: Pantheon Books.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Boris, E. T., & Steuerle, C. E. (2006). Scope and Dimensions of the Nonprofit Sector. In W. W. Powell & R. Steinberg (Eds.), *The nonprofit sector: a research handbook* (2nd ed.). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Bortree, D. S. (2011). Mediating the power of antecedents in public relationships: A pilot study. *Public Relations Review*, 37(1), 44–49. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2010.11.002
- Bortree, D., & Dou, X. (2012). The Role of Proximity in Advocacy Communication: A Study of Twitter Posts of Sierra Club Groups. In S. C. Duhé (Ed.), *New media and public relations* (2nd ed., pp. 178–188). New York: Peter Lang.
- Bowen, S. A. (2013). Using Classic Social Media Cases to Distill Ethical Guidelines for Digital Engagement. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 28(2), 119–133. doi:10.1080/08900523.2013.793523
- Bowen, S. A. (2010a). An Examination of Applied Ethics and Stakeholder Management on Top Corporate Websites. *Public Relations Journal*, 4(1). Retrieved from http://www.prsa.org/SearchResults/view/6D-040101/1012/An_Examination_of_Applied_Ethics_and_Stakeholder_M?utm_source=prsa_website&utm_medium=facebook_like&utm_campaign=facebook_like
- Bowen, S. A. (2010b). The nature of good in public relations. What should be its normative ethic. *The Sage Handbook of Public Relations*, 569–583.

- Bowen, S. A. (2009a). All glamour, no substance? How public relations majors and potential majors in an exemplar program view the industry and function. *Public Relations Review*, 35(4), 402–410.
- Bowen, S. A. (2009b). What communication professionals tell us regarding dominant coalition access and gaining membership. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 37(4), 427-452
- Bowen, S. A. (2006). Autonomy in communication: Inclusion in strategic management and ethical decision-making, a comparative case analysis. *Journal of Communication Management*, 10(4), 330-352
- Bowen, S. A. (2004). Organizational Factors Encouraging Ethical Decision Making: An Exploration into the Case of an Exemplar. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 52(4), 311–324.
- Bowen, S. A. (2003). "I thought it would be more glamorous:" Preconceptions and misconceptions of public relations among students in the principles course. *Public Relations Review*, 29(2), 199-214.
- Bowen, S. A. (2002a). Cases and Commentaries: The Ethics of Front Groups. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 17(2), 174–182.
- Bowen, S. A. (2002b). Elite executives in issues management: The role of ethical paradigms in decision making. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 2(4), 270–283.
- Bowen, S. A., & Gallicano, T. D. (2013). A Philosophy of Reflective Ethical Symmetry: Comprehensive Historical and Future Moral Approaches in the Excellence Theory. In *Public relations and communication management: current trends and emerging topics* (pp. 193–209).
- Bowen, S. A., & Stacks, D. W. (2014). Understanding the Ethical and Research Implications of Social Media. In M. W. DiStaso & D. S. Bortree (Eds.), *Ethical practice of social media in public relations* (pp. 217–234). New York: Routledge.
- Brønn, P. S. (2010). Reputation, Communication, and the Corporate Brand. In R. L. Heath (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of public relations* (pp. 307–320). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Broom, G. M., Casey, S., & Ritchey, J. (1997). Toward a Concept and Theory of Organization-Public Relationships. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 9(2), 83–98.
- Broom, G. M., Casey, S., & Ritchey, J. (2000). Concept and Theory of Organization-Public Relationships. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds.), *Public relations as relationship management: a relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 3–22). Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Bruning, S. D., Dials, M., & Shirka, A. (2008). Using dialogue to build organization–public relationships, engage publics, and positively affect organizational outcomes. *Public Relations Review*, 34(1), 25–31.
- Bruning, S. D., DeMiglio, P. A., & Embry, K. (2006). Mutual benefit as outcome indicator: Factors influencing perceptions of benefit in organization–public relationships. *Public Relations Review*, 32(1), 33–40.
doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2005.10.005
- Bruning, S. D., & Galloway, T. (2003). Expanding the organization–public relationship scale: exploring the role that structural and personal commitment play in organization–public relationships. *Public Relations Review*, 29(3), 309–319.
doi:10.1016/S0363-8111(03)00042-0
- Bruning, S. D., & Ledingham, J. A. (1999). Relationships between organizations and publics: Development of a multi-dimensional organization-public relationship scale. *Public Relations Review*, 25(2), 157–170. doi:10.1016/S0363-8111(99)80160-X
- Bruning, S. D., & Ledingham, J. A. (2000). Perceptions of relationships and evaluations of satisfaction: an exploration of interaction. *Public Relations Review*, 26(1), 85–95.
doi:10.1016/S0363-8111(00)00032-1
- Burns, K. S. (2008). The Misuse of Social Media: Reactions to and Important Lessons from a Blog Fiasco. *Journal of New Communications Research*, 3(1), 41–54.
- Callison, C. (2004). The good, the bad, and the ugly: Perceptions of public relations practitioners. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 16(4), 371–389.
- Cameron, G. T., Cropp, F., & Reber, B. H. (2001). Getting past platitudes: Factors limiting accommodation in public relations. *Journal of Communication Management*, 5(3), 242–261. doi:10.1108/13632540110806802
- Campbell, W. F. (1967). Adam Smith's Theory of Justice, Prudence & Beneficence. *American Economic Review*, 57(2), 571.
- Canary, D. J., & Stafford, L. (1993). Preservation of Relational Characteristics: Maintenance Strategies, Equity, and Locus of Control. In P. J. Kalbfleisch (Ed.), *Interpersonal communication: evolving interpersonal relationships* (pp. 237–259). Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cancel, A. E., Cameron, G. T., Sallot, L. M., & Mitrook, M. A. (1997). It Depends: A Contingency Theory of Accommodation in Public Relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 9(1), 31–63.
- Caywood, C. L. (2013). Corporate Reputation and the Discipline of Integrated Marketing Communications. In C. E. Carroll (Ed.), *The Handbook of Communication and Corporate Reputation* (pp. 94–103). John Wiley & Sons.

- Cerin, E., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2009). A commentary on current practice in mediating variable analyses in behavioural nutrition and physical activity. *Public Health Nutrition*, 12(08), 1182–1188.
- Clark, M. P. (2012, September 27). In Changing News Landscape, Even Television is Vulnerable - Trends in News Consumption: 1991-2012. *Pew Research Center for the People and the Press*. Retrieved from <http://www.people-press.org/2012/09/27/in-changing-news-landscape-even-television-is-vulnerable/>
- Curtin, P. A. (1999). Reevaluating Public Relations Information Subsidies: Market-Driven Journalism and Agenda-Building Theory and Practice. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 11(1), 53–90.
- Curtis, L., Edwards, C., Fraser, K.L., Gudelsky, S., Holmquist, Thornton, J.K., Sweetser, K.D. (2010). Adoption of social media for public relations by nonprofit organizations. *Public Relations Review* 36, 90-2.
- DeCotiis, T. A., & Summers, T. P. (1987). A Path Analysis of a Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment. *Human Relations*, 40(7), 445–470. doi:10.1177/001872678704000704
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (Eds.). (2009). *Internet, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: the tailored design method* (3rd ed.). Hoboken, N.J: Wiley & Sons.
- DiStaso, M. W., & Bortree, D. S. (2012). Multi-method analysis of transparency in social media practices: Survey, interviews and content analysis. *Public Relations Review*, 38(3), 511–514. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2012.01.003
- Doney, P. M., & Cannon, J. P. (1997). An examination of the nature of trust in buyer-seller relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 61(2), 35–51.
- Duffy, B. E. (2013). Manufacturing Authenticity: The Rhetoric of “Real” in Women’s Magazines. *The Communication Review*, 16(3), 132–154. doi:10.1080/10714421.2013.807110
- Estlund, D. M. (1990). Mutual Benevolence and the Theory of Happiness. *Journal of Philosophy*, 87(4), 187–204.
- Ferguson, M. A. (1984). Building theory in public relations: Interorganizational relationships. Presented at the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communications, Gainesville, FL.
- Fink, A. (2009). *How to conduct surveys: a step-by-step guide* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Firat, A. F., & Venkatesh, A. (1995). Liberatory Postmodernism and the Reenchantment of Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(3), 239–267.

- Fombrun, C. J. (1996). *Reputation: Realizing value from the corporate image*. Harvard Business Press.
- Fombrun, C. J., & Rindova, V. P. (2000). The Road to Transparency: Reputation Management at Royal Dutch/Shell. In M. Schultz, M. J. Hatch, & M. Holten Larsen (Eds.), *The expressive organization: linking identity, reputation, and the corporate brand* (pp. 77–96). Oxford ; New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fowler, F. J. (2009). *Survey research methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- French Jr., J. R., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in structural power* (pp. 150–167). Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.
- French, W., & Weis, A. (2000). An Ethics of Care or an Ethics of Justice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 27(1/2), 125–136.
- Fussell Sisco, H., Pressgrove, G., & Collins, E. L. (2013). Paralleling the Practice: An Analysis of the Scholarly Literature in Nonprofit Public Relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 25(4), 282-306.
- Gassenheimer, J. B., Houston, F. S., & Manolis, C. (2004). Empirically testing the boundaries of benevolence in asymmetric channel relations: A response to economic dependence. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 16(1), 29–47.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice*. Harvard University Press.
- Gilmore, J. H., & Pine, B. J. (2007). *Authenticity: what consumers really want*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine Pub. Co.
- Goodpaster, K. E. (2000). Conscience and Its Counterfeits in Organizational Life: A New Interpretation of the Naturalistic Fallacy. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 10(1), 189–201.
- Gronstedt, A. (1996). Integrating marketing communication and public relations: A stakeholder relations model. *Integrated Communication: Synergy of Persuasive Voices*, 287–304.
- Grunig, J. E. (1989a). Sierra Club study shows who become activists. *Public Relations Review*, 15(3), 3–24.
- Grunig, J. E. (1989b). Symmetrical presuppositions as a framework for public relations theory. *Public Relations Theory*, 17–44.
- Grunig, J. E. (Ed.). (1992). *Excellence in public relations and communication management*. Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Grunig, J. E., & Grunig, L. A. (1992). Models of Public Relations and Communications. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 285–325). Hillsdale, N.J: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Grunig, J. E., & Huang, Y.-H. (2000). From Organizational Effectiveness to Relationships Indicators: Antecedents of Relationships, Public Relations Strategies, and Relationship Outcomes. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds.), *Public relations as relationship management: a relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 23–53). Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Grunig, J. E., & Hunt, T. (1984). *Managing public relations*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston New York.
- Grunig, L. A. (1992a). Activism: How It Limits the Effectiveness of Organizations and How Excellent Public Relations Departments Respond. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 503–530). Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Grunig, L. A. (1992b). Power in the Public Relations Department. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 483–501). Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Grunig, L. A., Grunig, J. E., & Ehling, W. P. (1992). What is an Effective Organization? In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 65–90). Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gurabardhi, Z., Gutteling, J. M., & Kuttschreuter, M. (2005). An empirical analysis of communication flow, strategy and stakeholders' participation in the risk communication literature 1988–2000. *Journal of Risk Research*, 8(6), 499–511. doi:10.1080/13669870500064192
- Ha, L., & James, E. L. (1998). Interactivity reexamined: A baseline analysis of early business web sites. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 42(4), 457-474.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hardt, H. (1993). Authenticity, Communication, and Critical Theory. *Critical Studies in Mass Communication*, 10(1), 49-69.
- Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs*, 76(4), 408–420.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. Guilford Press.
- Heath, R. L. (2001). A Rhetorical Enactment Rationale for Public Relations: The Good Organization Communicating Well. In R. L. Heath (Ed.), *Handbook of public relations* (pp. 31–50). Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

- Heath, R. L. (Ed.). (2010). *The Sage handbook of public relations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Heide, J. B. (1994). Interorganizational governance in marketing channels. *The Journal of Marketing*, 58(1), 71–85.
- Holtzhausen, D. R. (2000). Postmodern Values in Public Relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 12(1), 93–114. doi:10.1207/S1532754XJPRR1201_6
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 104–121.
- Holtz, S. (2009). *Tactical transparency: The value of getting personal in business*. Webinar presentation on May 20, 2009.
- Hon, L. C., & Grunig, J. E. (1999). Guidelines for measuring relationships in public relations. *The Institute for PR*. Available at: [Http://www. Instituteforpr. Org/research_single/guidelines_measuring_relationships](http://www.instituteforpr.org/research_single/guidelines_measuring_relationships).
- Huang, Y. (2001). OPRA: A Cross-Cultural, Multiple-Item Scale for Measuring Organization-Public Relationships. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 13(1), 61–90.
- Huang, Y.-H., & Lyu, J. C. (2013). A Citation Analysis of the Excellence Study in PR Scholarship, 1992-2011. In K. Sriramesh, A. Zerfass, & J.-N. Kim (Eds.), *Public relations and communication management: current trends and emerging topics* (pp. 349–374). New York: Routledge.
- Ihlen, Ø. (2005). The power of social capital: Adapting Bourdieu to the study of public relations. *Public Relations Review*, 31(4), 492–496. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2005.08.007
- Jacobs, J. (2012). Faking it How to kill a business through astroturfing on social media. *Keeping Good Companies*, 64(9), 567–570.
- Jahansoozi, J. (2006). Organization-stakeholder relationships: exploring trust and transparency. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(10), 942–955. doi:10.1108/02621710610708577
- Janis, I. L. (1972). *Victims of Groupthink*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Knoll, K., & Leidner, D. E. (1998). Is anybody out there? Antecedents of trust in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 14(4), 29–64.
- Jeavons, T. H. (1994). Stewardship Revisited: Secular and Sacred Views of Governance and Management. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 23(2), 107–122. doi:10.1177/089976409402300203

- Kelley, H. (1979). *Personal Relationships: Their Structure and Processes*. Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kelly, K. S. (2001). Stewardship: The fifth step in the public relations process. *Handbook of Public Relations*, 279–289.
- Kent, M. L., & Taylor, M. (1998). Building dialogic relationships through the world wide web. *Public Relations Review*, 24(3), 321–334. doi:10.1016/S0363-8111(99)80143-X
- Ki, E.-J., & Shin, J.-H. (2006). Status of organization–public relationship research from an analysis of published articles, 1985–2004. *Public Relations Review*, 32(2), 194–195. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2006.02.019
- Kjeldahl, B. O., Carmichael, C. W., & Mertz, R. J. (1971). Factors in a Presidential Candidate's Image. *Speech Monographs*, 38(2), 129–131.
- Kim, E., & Johnson, T. L. (2012). Social Media in Public Relations Practice: Early Adopters Discuss Use and Challenges of Measurement. In S. C. Duhé (Ed.), *New media and public relations* (2nd ed., pp. 48–55). New York: Peter Lang.
- Kruckeberg, D. (2000). Public Relations: Toward a Global Professionalism. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds.), *Public relations as relationship management: a relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (p. 145-157). Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Land, K. C. (1969). Principles of Path Analysis. *Sociological Methodology*, 1, 3–37. doi:10.2307/270879
- Ledingham, J. A. (2005). Relationship management theory. R. L. Heath (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of public relations* (Vols. 1-2, Vol. 2, pp. 740–743). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ledingham, J. A., & Bruning, S. D. (1998). Relationship management in public relations: dimensions of an organization-public relationship. *Public Relations Review*, 24(1), 55–65. doi:10.1016/S0363-8111(98)80020-9
- L'Etang, J., & Pieczka, M. (1996). *Critical perspectives in public relations*. International Thomson Business Press London.
- Levine, T. R., Kim, R. K., & Hamel, L. M. (2010). People Lie for a Reason: Three Experiments Documenting the Principle of Veracity. *Communication Research Reports*, 27(4), 271–285. doi:10.1080/08824096.2010.496334
- Liedtka, J. (2008). Strategy Making and the Search for Authenticity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 80(2), 237–248. doi:10.1007/s10551-007-9415-3
- MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to statistical mediation analysis*. Routledge.

- Mansell, S. (2013). Shareholder Theory and Kant's "Duty of Beneficence." *Journal of Business Ethics*, 117(3), 583–599. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1542-9
- McCorkindale, T. (2012). Follow Me or Be My Friend: How Organizations are Using Twitter and Facebook to Build Relationships and to Communicate Transparently and Authentically. In S. C. Duhé (Ed.), *New media and public relations* (2nd ed., pp. 67–74). New York: Peter Lang.
- McCorkindale, T., & DiStaso, M. W. (2013). The Power of Social Media and Its Influence on Corporate Reputation. In C. E. Carroll (Ed.), *The Handbook of Communication and Corporate Reputation* (pp. 497–512). John Wiley & Sons.
- McIntyre, N., Srivastava, A., & Fuller, J. A. (2009). The relationship of locus of control and motives with psychological ownership in organization. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 21(3), 383–401.
- McKeever, B. (2013). From Awareness to Advocacy: Understanding Nonprofit Communication, Participation, and Support. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 25(4), 307-328.
- Men, L. R., & Tsai, W. S. (2014). Perceptual, Attitudinal, and Behavioral Outcomes of Organization–Public Engagement on Corporate Social Networking Sites. *Journal Of Public Relations Research*, 26(5), 417-435. doi:10.1080/1062726X.2014.951047
- Men, L. R., & Tsai, W.-H. S. (2013a). Beyond liking or following: Understanding public engagement on social networking sites in China. *Public Relations Review*, 39(1), 13–22.
- Men, L. R., & Tsai, W.-H. S. (2013b). Toward an Integrated Model of Public Engagement on Corporate Social Networking Sites: Antecedents, the Process, and Relational Outcomes. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 7(4), 257–273. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1553118X.2013.822373>
- Men, L. R., & Tsai, W. H. S. (2012). How companies cultivate relationships with publics on social network sites: Evidence from China and the United States. *Public Relations Review*, 38(5), 723-730.
- Merritt, S., Lawson, L., Mackey, D., & Waters, R. D. (2012). If You Blog It, They Will Come: Examining the role of Dialogue and Connectivity in the Nonprofit Blogosphere. In S. C. Duhé (Ed.), *New media and public relations* (2nd ed., pp. 157–168). New York: Peter Lang.
- Molleda, J.-C. (2010). Authenticity and the construct's dimensions in public relations and communication research. *Journal of Communication Management*, 14(3), 223–236. doi:10.1108/13632541011064508
- Molleda, J.-C., & Jain, R. (2013). Identity, Perceived Authenticity, and Reputation: A Dynamic Association in Strategic Communications. In C. E. Carroll (Ed.), *The*

handbook of communication and corporate reputation (pp. 435–445). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Montague, R. R. (2012). Genuine Dialogue: Relational Accounts of Moments of Meeting. *Western Journal of Communication*, 76(4), 397–416. doi:10.1080/10570314.2012.656214
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. 58(3), *The Journal of Marketing*, 20–38.
- Morton, T. C., Alexander, J. F., & Altman, I. (1976). Communication and Relationship Definition. In G. R. Miller (Ed.), *Explorations in Interpersonal Communication*. Newbury Place: SAGE.
- Muntinga, D. G., Moorman, M., & Smit, E. G. (2011). Introducing COBRAs: Exploring motivations for brand-related social media use. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30(1), 13–46. <http://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-30-1-013-046>
- Murphy, L. B. (1993). The demands of beneficence. *Philosophy & Public Affairs*, 22(4), 267–292.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Bearden, W. O., & Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling procedures: issues and applications*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Newman, G., & Dhar, R. (2014). Authenticity Is Contagious: Brand Essence and the Original Source of Production. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 51(3), 371–386.
- Nguyen, N. (2010). Competence and Benevolence of Contact Personnel in the Perceived Corporate Reputation: An Empirical Study in Financial Services. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 12(4), 345–356. doi:10.1057/crr.2009.25
- Noddings, N. (2013). An Ethic of Caring. In R. Shafer-Landau (Ed.), *Ethical Theory: An Anthology* (2nd ed., pp. 699–712). John Wiley & Sons.
- O’Neil, J. (2008). Linking Public Relations Tactics to Long-Term Success: An Investigation of How Communications Contribute to Trust, Satisfaction, and Commitment in a Nonprofit Organization. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 14(3/4), 263–274. doi:10.1080/10496490802623358
- O’Toole, J., & Bennis, W. (2009). A Culture of Candor. *Harvard Business Review*, 87(6), 54–61.
- Pasadeos, Y., Berger, B., & Renfro, R. B. (2010). Public relations as a maturing discipline: An update on research networks. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 22(2), 136–158.
- Patel, S. J., & McKeever, B. (2014). Health nonprofits online: the use of frames and stewardship strategies to increase stakeholder involvement. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 19(4), 224–238. doi:10.1002/nvsm.1507

- Pettijohn, S. L. (2013). The nonprofit sector in brief: Public charities, giving, and volunteering, 2013. Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute. Retrieved from <http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/412923-The-Nonprofit-Sector-in-Brief.pdf>.
- Pfau, M., Haigh, M. M., Sims, J., & Wigley, S. (2007). The influence of corporate front-group stealth campaigns. *Communication Research*, 34(1), 73–99.
- Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2003). The state of psychological ownership: Integrating and extending a century of research. *Review of General Psychology*, 7(1), 84–107. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.7.1.84
- Plaisance, P. L. (2007). Transparency: An Assessment of the Kantian Roots of a Key Element in Media Ethics Practice. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 22(2-3), 187–207. doi:10.1080/08900520701315855
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 36(4), 717–731.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879–891.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing Moderated Mediation Hypotheses: Theory, Methods, and Prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 42(1), 185–227.
- Press, M., & Arnould, E. J. (2014). Narrative transparency. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 1–24. doi:10.1080/0267257X.2014.925958
- Radom, Caroline. (2014, August 4). Initial Informational Interview.
- Rawlins, B. (2006). Measuring the Relationship Between Organizational Transparency and Trust. Presented at the 9th Annual International Public Relations Research Conference, Miami, FL. Retrieved from http://www.docunator.com/bigdata/1/1366449053_93ee43dea2/iprrc_10_proceedings.pdf#page=425
- Rawlins, B. (2009). Give the Emperor a Mirror: Toward Developing a Stakeholder Measurement of Organizational Transparency. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 21(1), 71–99. doi:10.1080/10627260802153421
- Reber, B. H., & Cameron, G. T. (2003). Measuring Contingencies: Using Scales to Measure Public Relations Practitioner Limits to Accommodation. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 80(2), 431–446. doi:10.1177/107769900308000212
- Rose, R. L., & Wood, S. L. (2005). Paradox and the Consumption of Authenticity through Reality Television. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(2), 284–296. doi:10.1086/jcr.2005.32.issue-2

- Rucker, D. D., Preacher, K. J., Tormala, Z. L., & Petty, R. E. (2011). Mediation analysis in social psychology: Current practices and new recommendations. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 5(6), 359–371.
- Schlegelmilch, B. B., & Pollach, I. (2005). The Perils and Opportunities of Communicating Corporate Ethics. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 21(3/4), 267–290.
- Scott, C. R. (2013). Hidden Organizations and Reputation. In C. E. Carroll (Ed.), *The handbook of communication and corporate reputation* (p. 545-557). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Shoemaker, P. J., & McCombs, M. E. (2003). Survey Research. In G. H. Stempel, D. H. Weaver, & G. C. Wilhoit (Eds.), *Mass communication research and theory* (pp. 231–251). Boston; London: Allyn and Bacon.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: new procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7(4), 422.
- Sims, R. R. (1992). Linking Groupthink to Unethical Behavior in Organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11(9), 651–662.
- Smudde, P. M., & Courtright, J. L. (2010). Public Relations and Power. In R. L. Heath (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of public relations* (pp. 177–204). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Sperber, D., & Baumard, N. (2012). Moral Reputation: An Evolutionary and Cognitive Perspective. *Mind & Language*, 27(5), 495–518. doi:10.1111/mila.12000
- Spicer, C. (2013). *Organizational Public Relations: A Political Perspective*. Routledge.
- Sriramesh, K. (2010). Globalization and Public Relations: Opportunities for Growth and Reformulation. In R. L. Heath (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of public relations* (pp. 691–707). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Sriramesh, K., Grunig, J. E., & Dozier, D. M. (1996). Observation and Measurement of Two Dimensions of Organizational Culture and Their Relationship to Public Relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 8(4), 229–261.
- Stacks, D. W., & Bowen, S. A. (Eds.). (2013a). Social Networking. *Dictionary of Public Relations Measurement and Research*. Institute for Public Relations Measurement Commission. Retrieved from <http://amecorg.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Dictionary-of-Public-Relations-Measurement-and-Research-3rd-Edition-AMEC.pdf>
- Stacks, D. W., & Bowen, S. A. (Eds.). (2013b). Social Media. *Dictionary of Public Relations Measurement and Research*. Institute for Public Relations Measurement Commission. Retrieved from <http://amecorg.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Dictionary-of-Public-Relations-Measurement-and-Research-3rd-Edition-AMEC.pdf>

- Stafford, L., & Canary, D. J. (1991). Maintenance strategies and romantic relationship type, gender and relational characteristics. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 8(2), 217–242.
- Stoker, K., & Rawlins, B. (2010). Taking the BS out of PR: Creating genuine messages by emphasising character and authenticity. *Ethical Space-International Journal of Communication Ethics*, 7(2/3), 61–69.
- Stoker, K., & Walton, S. (2009). Corporate Compassion in a Time of Downsizing: The Role of Public Relations in Cultivating and Maintaining Corporate Alumni Social Networks. Institute of Public Relations. Retrieved from <http://www.instituteforpr.org/wp-content/uploads/CorporateCompassionTimeofDownsizing.pdf>
- Sullivan, R. J. (1994a). The Categorical Imperative: The Ultimate Norm of Morality. In *An introduction to Kant's ethics* (pp. 28–45). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Sullivan, R. J. (1994b). The Formula of Respect for the Dignity of Persons. In *An introduction to Kant's ethics* (pp. 65–83). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Sundar, S. S., Kalyanaraman, S., & Brown, J. (2003). Explicating Web Site interactivity impression formation effects in political campaign sites. *Communication research*, 30(1), 30-59.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches* (Vol. 46). SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Taylor, C. (1992). *The ethics of authenticity*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Taylor, M. (2010). Public Relations in the Enactment of Civil Society. In R. L. Heath (Ed.), *The SAGE Handbook of Public Relations* (pp. 5–15). SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Tolson, A. (2010). A new authenticity? Communicative practices on YouTube. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 7(4), 277–289. doi:10.1080/17405904.2010.511834
- Trilling, L. (1972). *Sincerity and Authenticity: The Charles Eliot Norton Lectures, 1969-70*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Tsai, W.-H. S., & Men, L. R. (2013). Motivations and Antecedents of Consumer Engagement With Brand Pages on Social Networking Sites. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 13(2), 76–87. doi:10.1080/15252019.2013.826549
- Valentini, C., & Kruckeberg, D. (2012). New Media Versus Social Media: A Conceptualization of Their Meaning, Uses, and Implications for Public Relations. In S. C. Duhé (Ed.), *New media and public relations* (2nd ed., pp. 3–12). New York: Peter Lang.

- Vanacker, B., & Breslin, J. (2006). Ethics of Care: More Than Just Another Tool to Bash the Media? *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 21(2/3), 196–214. doi:10.1207/s15327728jmme2102&3_7
- Van Riel, C. B. M., & Fombrun, C. J. (2007). *Essentials of corporate communication: implementing practices for effective reputation management*. London; New York: Routledge.
- Verčič, D., Van Ruler, B., Bütschi, G., & Flodin, B. (2002). On the definition of public relations: A European view. *Public Relations Review*, 27(4), 373–387.
- Wakefield, R. J. (2010). Why Culture Is Still Essential in Discussions About Global Public Relations. In R. L. Heath (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of public relations* (pp. 659–670). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Waters, R. D. (2008). Applying relationship management theory to the fundraising process for individual donors. *Journal of Communication Management*, 12(1), 73–87. doi:10.1108/13632540810854244
- Waters, R. D. (2009a). Comparing the two sides of the nonprofit organization–donor relationship: Applying coorientation methodology to relationship management. *Public Relations Review*, 35(2), 144–146. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2009.01.011
- Waters, R. D. (2009b). Measuring stewardship in public relations: A test exploring impact on the fundraising relationship. *Public Relations Review*, 35(2), 113–119. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2009.01.012
- Waters, R. D. (2010). Increasing fundraising efficiency through evaluation: Applying communication theory to the nonprofit organization–donor relationship. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 40(3), 458–475.
- Waters, R. D. (2011). Redefining stewardship: Examining how Fortune 100 organizations use stewardship with virtual stakeholders. *Public Relations Review*, 37(2), 129–136. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2011.02.002
- Waters, R. D., Bortree, D. S., & Tindall, N. (2013). Can public relations improve the workplace? Measuring the impact of stewardship on the employer–employee relationship. *Employee Relations*, 35(6), 613–629. doi:10.1108/ER-12-2012-0095
- Waters, R. D., Burnett, E., Lamm, A., & Lucas, J. (2009). Engaging stakeholders through social networking: How nonprofit organizations are using Facebook. *Public Relations Review*, 35(2), 102–106. doi:10.1016/j.pubrev.2009.01.006
- Waters, R. D., & Lord, M. (2009). Examining how advocacy groups build relationships on the Internet. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 14(3), 231–241. doi:10.1002/nvsm.354
- Weitz, B. A., & Jap, S. D. (1995). Relationship marketing and distribution channels. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(4), 305–320.

- Wilcox, D. L., & Cameron, G. T. (2006). What is Public Relations? In *Public relations: strategies and tactics* (8th ed., pp. 2–42). Boston, MA: A & B.
- Wright, D. K., & Hinson, M. D. (2012). Examining how social and emerging media have been used in public relations between 2006 and 2012: A longitudinal analysis. *Public Relations Review*. Retrieved from <http://www.prsa.org/Intelligence/PRJournal/Documents/2012WrightHinson.pdf>
- Wright, D.K. & Hinson, M.D. (2008). How Blogs and Social Media are Changing Public Relations and the Way it is Practiced. *Public Relations Journal*. 2(2), 1-21.
- Yang, S.-U., Alessandri, S. W., & Kinsey, D. F. (2008). An Integrative Analysis of Reputation and Relational Quality: A Study of University-Student Relationships. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 18(2), 145–170.
- Yang, S.-U., & Grunig, J. E. (2005). Decomposing organisational reputation: The effects of organisation–public relationship outcomes on cognitive representations of organisations and evaluations of organisational performance. *Journal of Communication Management*, 9(4), 305–325.
- Zerfass, A., & Huck, S. (2007). Innovation, communication, and leadership: New developments in strategic communication. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 1(2), 107–122.
- Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2), 197–206.

APPENDIX A – SOLICITATION LETTER & CONSENT FORM

You're invited to give feedback about your local animal welfare organization through a brief online survey. This survey assesses your local animal welfare organization's relationship management efforts.

The short questionnaire that follows will take about 15 minutes to complete, and the results will help your local animal welfare organization. After completing the survey, you can opt to leave your email address to be entered into a drawing for one of four \$25 PetSmart gift cards to thank you for your participation. Drawings to be held every other Friday.

Your responses will support my doctoral research and benefit your local humane welfare organization. I sincerely appreciate your help in completing this survey and would like to thank you in advance for your time.

Please read the information below before you begin. Proceeding with this survey indicates that you consent to participate in this study.

As you complete the survey, you can end your participation at any time. Your participation is voluntary.

Your responses will remain anonymous and no individual data about you will be reported. If you choose to leave your email address to be entered into a drawing for one of four \$25 PetSmart gift cards at the end of the survey, your email address will only be collected to award gift cards and will remain confidential.

If you have any general comments or questions, please feel free to get in touch with me by email at sissond@email.sc.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a study participant, please direct your questions to Thomas Coggins, Director of USC's Office of Research Compliance, at (803) 777-7095 or tcoggins@mailbox.sc.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Diana Sisson
Doctoral Candidate
School of Journalism and Mass Communications
University of South Carolina

APPENDIX B – SURVEY QUESTIONS

For the following questions, please select the response that best reflects your experiences.

DONATIONS

1. How frequently have you donated to your local animal welfare organization in the past year?

- 0-1 times
- 2-3 times
- 4-5 times
- 6-7 times
- 8-9 times
- More than 10 times

2. Approximately how much have you donated to your local animal welfare organization in the past year?

[DROP DOWN LIST]

- Less than \$100
- \$101 to \$200
- \$201 to \$300
- \$301 to \$400
- \$401 to \$500
- \$501 to \$600
- \$601 to \$700
- \$701 to \$800
- \$801 to \$900
- More than \$900

3. Approximately how long ago was your last donation to your local animal welfare organization? (O'Neil, 2007)

- Less than 6 months
- 6 to 12 months
- 1 to 2 years
- 2 to 3 years
- 3 or more years

4. How willing are you to donate again to your local animal welfare organization in the future?

Very Unlikely Unlikely Undecided Likely Very likely

SOCIAL MEDIA

5. Have you 'liked' or followed your local animal welfare organization on social media?

Yes No (skip to question #6, if no)

5a. Please select all social media platforms that you have 'liked' or followed your local animal welfare organization on.

Facebook Tumblr Instagram Other: _____
Twitter YouTube Pinterest
Blog Flickr Website

5b. How often do you read comments on your local animal welfare organization's social media platforms? (Men & Tsai, 2012, 2014)

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- Never

5c. How often do you comment on posts written by your local animal welfare organization's social media platforms? (Men & Tsai, 2012, 2014)

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- Never

5d. How often do you engage in conversations by asking questions on your local animal welfare organization's social media platforms? (Men & Tsai, 2012, 2014)

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- Never

5e. How often do you engage in conversations by answering questions on your local animal welfare organization's social media platforms? (Men & Tsai, 2012, 2014)

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- Never

5f. How often do you upload pictures to your local animal welfare organization's social media platforms? (Men & Tsai, 2012, 2014)

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- Never

TRANSPARENCY (Adapted from Rawlins, 2009)

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = strongly disagree** and **5 = strongly agree**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement regarding information shared by your local animal welfare organization.

Substantial information

6. Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is **accurate**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is **timely**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is **thorough**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is **reliable**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. Information shared by your local animal welfare organization is **relevant**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Accountable

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = strongly disagree** and **5 = strongly agree**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement regarding your local animal welfare organization's accountability.

11. Your local animal welfare organization **admits when a mistake** has been made.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. Your local animal welfare organization is **open to criticism** from people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

CREDIBILITY (2 items adapted from Sweetser et al, 2008)

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = strongly disagree** and **5 = strongly agree**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement about your local animal welfare organization's credibility.

13. Your local animal welfare organization is a **credible** source of information for people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. Your local animal welfare organization provides **factual** information to people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

VERACITY (1 item adapted from Sweetser et al, 2008)

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = strongly disagree** and **5 = strongly agree**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement about the veracity of the information provided by your local animal welfare organization.

15. Information provided by your local animal welfare organization can be **trusted**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. Information provided by your local animal welfare organization is **truthful**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

GENUINENESS (Adapted from labels of genuineness factor in Kjeldahl, Carmichael, & Mertz, 1971)

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = untruthful** and **5 = truthful**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement.

17. Communication from your local animal welfare organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Untruthful				Truthful

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = devious** and **5 = straightforward**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement.

18. Communication from your local animal welfare organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Devious				Straightforward

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = untrustworthy** and **5 = trustworthy**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement.

19. Communication from your local animal welfare organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Untrustworthy				Trustworthy

RELATIONSHIP OUTCOMES (Adapted from Hon & Grunig, 1999)

On a scale from 1 to 5 with **1 = strongly disagree** and **5 = strongly agree**, please indicate the answer that best describes your feelings towards the following statement.

Trust

20. My local animal welfare organization treats people like me fairly and **justly**.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

21. Whenever my local animal welfare organization makes an important decision, I know it will be **concerned** with people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

22. My local animal welfare organization has the **ability to accomplish** its promises.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Control Mutuality

23. My local animal welfare organization and people like me are **attentive** to each other's needs and concerns.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. My local animal welfare organization **values** the opinions of people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

25. When I interact with my local animal welfare organization, I feel that I have some **control** over our interactions.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

26. My local animal welfare organization gives people like me **a say** in the decision-making of the content shared from its social media accounts.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Commitment

27. I **feel** that my local animal welfare organization is trying to maintain a long-term relationship with people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

28. I feel a sense of **loyalty** to my local animal welfare organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Satisfaction

29. Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship that my local animal welfare organization has maintained with people like me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

DEMOGRAPHICS

30. How would you describe your role(s) with your local animal welfare organization?
(Check all that apply)

- Donor
- Volunteer
- Staff
- Adopter
- Board Member

31. What is the name of your local animal welfare organization? (Select all that apply.)

- Organization A
- Organization B
- Organization C
- Organization D
- Organization E
- Other _____

32. Age: 18 to 25 years old
26 to 33 years old
34 to 41 years old
42 to 49 years old
50 to 58 years old
Older than 59 years old

33. Gender: Male
Female

34. Race: African American
Asian/Pacific Islander
Caucasian
Hispanic
Native American
Other _____

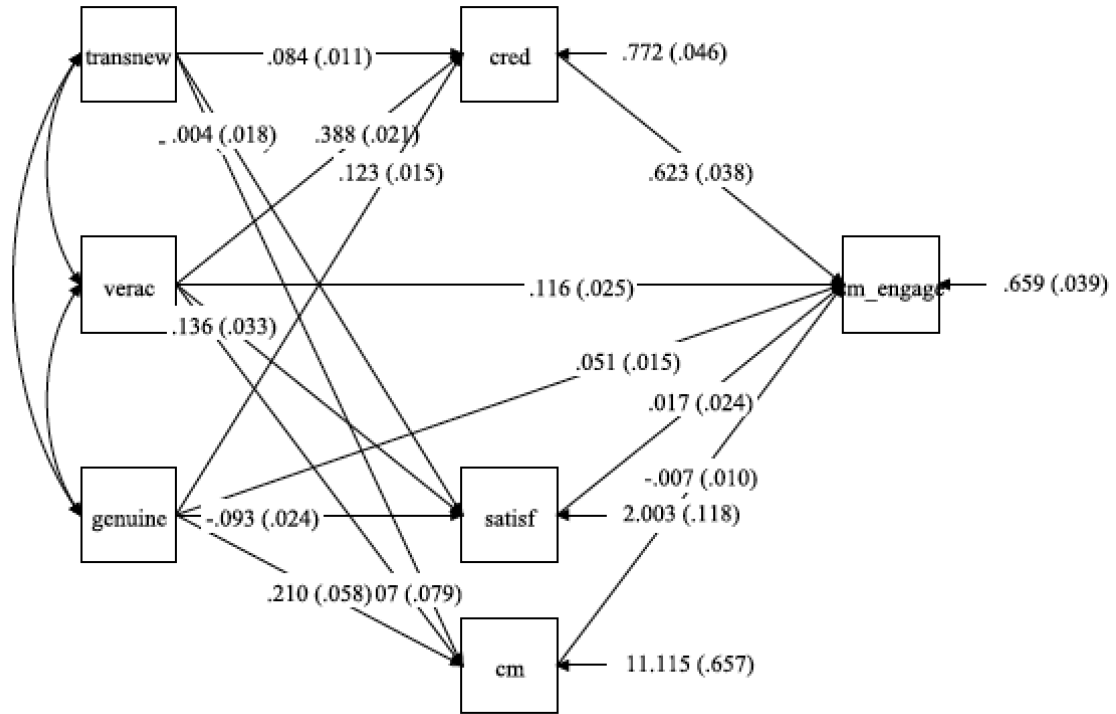
35. Highest Education: Less than high school
High School or GED
Some college
B.A./B.S.
M.A./M.S./MBA
Doctorate (Ph.D./JD/D.BA/MD/PharmD)

36. Annual household income: less than \$10,000
\$10,000-\$20,000
\$20,001-\$30,000
\$30,001-\$40,000
\$40,001-\$50,000
\$50,001-\$60,000
\$60,001-\$70,000
\$70,001-\$80,000
\$80,001-\$90,000
\$90,001-\$100,000
More than \$100,000

37. Is there any additional information that you would like to share with us about your relationship with your local animal welfare organization?

38. To enter into a raffle for one of four \$25 gift cards to PetSmart, please enter your email address below. _____

APPENDIX C – SEM VISUALIZATION WITH MODEL FIT ISSUES



APPENDIX D– IRB APPROVAL AND PROCESS



OFFICE OF RESEARCH COMPLIANCE

**INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR HUMAN RESEARCH
APPROVAL LETTER for EXEMPT REVIEW**

This is to certify that the research proposal: **Pro00040429**

Entitled: *Authentic Relationship Management to Heighten Control Mutuality in Social Media*

Submitted by:

Principal Investigator: Diana Sisson
College: Mass Communications & Information Studies
Department: Journalism & Mass Communication
Address: 600 Assembly Street, Carolina Coliseum
Columbia, SC 29208

was reviewed in accordance with 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2), the referenced study received an exemption from Human Research Subject Regulations on **12/1/2014**. No further action or Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight is required, as long as the project remains the same. However, the Principal Investigator must inform the Office of Research Compliance of any changes in procedures involving human subjects. Changes to the current research protocol could result in a reclassification of the study and further review by the IRB.

Because this project was determined to be exempt from further IRB oversight, consent document(s), if applicable, are not stamped with an expiration date.

Research related records should be retained for a minimum of three (3) years after termination of the study.

The Office of Research Compliance is an administrative office that supports the University of South Carolina Institutional Review Board (USC IRB). If you have questions, contact Arlene McWhorter at arlenem@sc.edu or (803) 777-7095.

Sincerely,

Lisa M. Johnson
IRB Manager



Office of Research compliance

**INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR HUMAN RESEARCH
EXEMPT AMENDMENT APPROVAL LETTER**

This is to certify that the revision(s) to research protocol: **Ame1_Pro00040429**

Entitled: *Authentic Relationship Management to Heighten Control Mutuality in Social Media*

Requested on **2/15/2015** by:

Principal Investigator: Diana Sisson
College: Mass Communications & Information Studies
Department: Journalism & Mass Communication
Address: 600 Assembly Street, Carolina Coliseum
Columbia, SC 29208

was reviewed and approved by the University of South Carolina Institutional Review Board (USC IRB) on **2/16/2015**. The requested revision(s) do not change the current Exempt status; therefore, further IRB oversight is not required unless additional changes are requested. Because changes could result in a reclassification of the study, you must inform the IRB of any changes in procedures involving humans.

Note: All research related records, including Informed Consent document(s), if applicable, are to be retained for at least three (3) years after termination of the study.

The Office of Research Compliance is an administrative office that supports the USC Institutional Review Board. If you have questions, contact Arlene McWhorter at arlenem@sc.edu or (803) 777-7095.

Sincerely,

Lisa M. Johnson
IRB Manager