ANGER, EFFICACY, AND IDENTITY IN ACTIVISM: PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF THREAT APPRAISAL, ATTITUDES, AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTION

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The undersigned, appointed by the dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled

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ABSTRACT

This study was an exploratory attempt to apply an identity-based approach using concepts of avowed and ascribed identities to different types of activist organizations when managing a potential crisis based on the threat appraisal model (Jin & Cameron, 2007) and contingency theory (Cancel, Mitrook, & Cameron, 1999). A 2 (anger: high vs. low) x 2 (efficacy: high vs. low) x 2 (ascribed identity: matched vs. unmatched) mixed factorial design with anger and efficacy as between-subjects variables and ascribed identity as a within-subjects variable was employed to examine cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses to news stories about activist organizations.

One of the most intriguing findings of this study is the main effect of ascribed identity across all dependent variables. An identity crisis leading to attributions of being a hypocrite caused by a perceived discrepancy between an avowed identity and an ascribed identity was found to raise expectations for the organization to perceive higher situational demands and more organizational resources, to have more negative and more intense feelings, to have more advocative stances, and to have a negative impact on attitudes and intention.

Significant main effects of anger on both cognitive and affective threat appraisal, a main effect of efficacy on cognitive threat appraisal, and interactions between anger and

efficacy on affective threat appraisal indicate that the nature and interplay of anger and efficacy should be taken into consideration when assessing an activist organization's threat appraisal. Results also demonstrated that participants exposed to a combination of high anger and low efficacy messages expected the organization to perceive higher situational demands than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

This research extends the contingency theory framework to examine the dynamics of activist organizations, moving beyond the assumptions of two-way symmetrical communication in Grunig's excellence theory. From the standpoint of public relations practice, the main contribution of the present study is to provide empirical evidence that in an identity crisis, being hypocritical in an activist organization's strategic conflict management can have a profoundly negative impact on the organization's image, reputation, and even survival.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As nonprofit organizations whose primary purpose is to serve the public interest, activist groups advocate various social, economic, political, and environmental causes. Incorporating tactics such as boycotts, lobbying, demonstrations, and litigation, activist groups sometimes create conflict and tension in order to elicit what they consider fundamental changes in social environments. As means to support such efforts, these groups recruit volunteer workers and raise funds. Previous research on activists has heavily focused on the role of activists from the perspective of organizations that activists target for change (Curtin & Gaither, 2005; Jiang & Ni, 2007). However, in reality, nonprofits often compete with each other for members, funds, and other resources (Cameron, Wilcox, Reber, & Shin, 2008). Also, activist groups that support certain causes (e.g., pro-choice, pro-gay rights, and pro-gun control) can come into conflict with other organizations (e.g., pro-life, anti-gay rights, and pro-gun) whose core values are different.

For example, in November 2007, the Center for Consumer Freedom (CCF), a nonprofit coalition of restaurants, food companies, and consumers working together to promote personal responsibility and protect consumer choices (Center for Consumer Freedom, n.d.), criticized the celebrity supporters of People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) in a full-page advertisement in *Variety*, a daily newspaper of the entertainment industry, for endorsing the animal rights group even as it kills thousands of animals in its care (PETA kills animals, 2007). In this circumstance, the outside latent

public may be confused by the discrepancy between the image of PETA as an animal rights group and the way it is identified by another activist group.

The inevitable conflict and competition between CCF and PETA show how public relations plays a major role in enabling organizations "to compete for limited resources (e.g., customers, volunteers, employees, donations, grants, etc.) and to engage in healthy, honest conflict with others who hold different views of what is best and right for society" (Cameron et al., 2008, pp. 35-36). Activist organizations working in related areas such as animal rights and environmental protection can also be in conflict with each other due to different perceptions of each other's behavior. In a conflict situation such as CCF and PETA face, or virtually any other conflict between activist organizations, a public relations practitioner should determine the stance its organization will take toward each public.

Contingency theory (Cancel, Cameron, Sallot, & Mitrook, 1997; Cancel, Mitrook, & Cameron, 1999) holds that many factors influence the stance of an organization when dealing with conflict and perceived threats against one's organization. Accordingly, the theory suggests that this stance is dynamic, varying along a continuum from pure advocacy to pure accommodation. Previous contingency studies have mainly examined the perspective of public relations practitioners regarding the impact of contingent factors in various public relations practices (Cancel et al., 1999; Jin & Cameron, 2007; Pang, Jin, & Cameron, 2006; Reber & Cameron, 2003; Reber, Cropp, & Cameron, 2001; Shin & Cameron, 2004; Shin, Cheng, Jin, & Cameron, 2005; Shin, Park, & Cameron, 2006).

Relatively little attention, however, has been paid to the outside latent public's assessment of an organization's stance in crisis situations. Recently, Hwang and Cameron

(2008a, 2008b) explored a new domain of the outside latent public's thought patterns predicting an organization's stance in a corporate setting and an international diplomacy area, respectively. J. E. Grunig and Repper (1992) suggested five types of publics: active public, aware public, apathetic public, latent public, and nonpublic. A latent public is affected by organizational behavior, but is not aware of this. Based on Grunig's situational theory of publics (J. E. Grunig & Hunt, 1984), a latent public is low in problem recognition and involvement and has not thought about constraints. Public relations practitioners are usually advised to devote attention and allocate resources to the first two publics: active and aware. Given an increasing potential influence from the latent public through their use of online media, particularly the impact of social networking sites (Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009) on an organization's crisis communication, the organization should be aware of the latent public's expectations for the organization, particularly the organization's response to threat and its stance movement as the issue evolves. Similarly, expectations made by specifically targeted publics in crisis situations must also be taken into account by the organization to perform effectively.

Based on the threat appraisal model (Jin & Cameron, 2007), an extension of contingency theory that evaluates the severity of the threat and the resources needed to combat the threat, this study attempts to explore whether the outside latent public evaluates an activist organization's threat appraisal as well as their attitudes and behavioral intention based on perceived ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched with an organization's avowed identity) and the levels of activist organizations' angry feelings toward the target issue and perceptions of self-efficacy. This study assumes that the

outside latent public's assessment of unmatched ascribed identity compared with the avowed identity could be regarded as a threat to an organization.

Public relations scholars who take critical approaches to theories of publics have suggested that "activists" or "activist publics" should be reconceptualized based on "identity as a central construct" (Curtin & Gaither, 2006, p. 67). Previous studies on activists argued that activists need to manage their multiple identities when dealing with target organizations and their own publics (e.g., Smith & Ferguson, 2001; Aldoory & Sha, 2006). According to Roper (2005), organizations may adopt multiple identities in order to identify themselves with their multiple publics, and the identities adopted must be congruent with the core values of those organizations for legitimacy and long-term viability.

Purpose of the Study

Based on the identity approach, this study proposes the outside latent public's perception of an activist organization's ascribed identity, whether or not it is matched with the avowed identity, as a new contingent factor that may influence their assessment of an organization's threat appraisal, as well as their attitudes toward the activist organization and intention to become a member of the activist group. The perceived ascribed identity, which is either matched or unmatched with the avowed identity, is utilized based on whether there is a difference between the "avowed" and "ascribed" identities (e.g., Collier, 1994, 2003; Hecht, Collier, & Ribeau, 1993; Rotheram & Phinney, 1987; Sha, 2006). This study presents a framework that identifies a typology of activists (extremists, empowered activists, frustrated activists, and system activists) based on the levels of anger and efficacy that are central to Turner's (2007) Anger Activism

Model (AAM), which classifies four distinct groups of individuals: activists, empowered, angry, and disinterested.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to explore how the outside latent public's assessment of each type of activist organization (high anger and high efficacy, high anger and low efficacy, low anger and high efficacy, and low anger and low efficacy) and ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched) influences the public's evaluations of the activist organization's threat appraisal as well as the public's attitudes toward the activist organization and intention to become a member of the activist organization. In particular, this study aims to apply the outside latent public's assessment of an organization's stance in a crisis (Hwang & Cameron, 2008a; 2008b) and cognitive and affective threat appraisal to activist organizations by applying an identity approach as well as by suggesting a typology of activist organizations based on the levels of anger and efficacy when managing conflict.

Theoretical Significance of the Study

The use of an identity-based approach, which is based on a recent call for identity as a central construct for studying activists (Curtin & Gaither, 2006), can contribute to the body of research on activism in public relations. L. A. Grunig (1992) first developed the foundation for the theoretical conceptualization of activism within the context of her research on excellence theory. She argued that the two-way symmetrical model of public relations is the most effective in contending with pressure from activist publics, although it is also the rarest. Based on the assumptions in excellence theory, J. E. Grunig (2000; 2001) argued that the ideas of symmetrical communication, relationship building, and ethical behavior would benefit activist groups, as these principles can be applied to all

kinds of organizations. Excellence theory, however, fails to address the inevitable power imbalance between organizations, which often have sufficient resources, and activist groups, which have to essentially rely on the media to reach their goals (Holtzhausen, 2007).

According to Dozier and Lauzen (2000), public relations scholars have mainly examined activism from the perspective of organizations whose resources are plentiful enough to hire professional public relations practitioners. They argued that this perspective has resulted in a public relations research agenda favoring the interests of the status quo, a legitimate ethical concern. In addition, they pointed out that this perspective causes scholars:

> to examine activist publics as an extension of the existing nomothetic model and to overlook the heuristic merits of the ways in which activist publics are different from, rather than similar to, other constituents and stakeholders that are players in the game of public relations (p. 8).

Unlike previous studies on activism, which relied heavily on a theoretical framework based on excellence theory, this study employs a new way of thinking about activism based on the threat appraisal model and contingency theory. Unlike Grunig's excellence theory, Cameron's contingency theory (Cancel et al., 1997; Cancel et al., 1999) provides an alternative perspective that two-way symmetrical communication may not always be possible. Contingency theory holds instead that public relations, particularly conflict management, should be viewed along a continuum from advocacy to accommodation, rather than positioning ideal models of excellence. In terms of a theoretical framework for activists, Holtzhausen (2007) argued that "activists' needs, organizational structures, financial structures, and access to management and public relations expertise are vastly different from those of organizations, and therefore in

significant ways the excellence theory is not quite appropriate for activist groups" (p. 364). Thus, this study contributes to the domain of activism studies in public relations by incorporating a contingency theory framework, moving beyond the assumptions about activism that limit the excellence theory perspective.

While the majority of contingency scholars have examined public relations practitioners' perspectives in varied areas of public relations, Hwang and Cameron (2008a; 2008b) studied the outside latent public's thought patterns in assessing the organization's stance in a crisis situation. Building upon their approach, this study extends the application of the outside latent public's assessment of threat appraisal as well as attitudinal and behavioral responses to activist organizations with a typology for activists based on the levels of anger and efficacy in Turner's (2007) Anger Activism Model.

Although recent developments in theory have provided clear distinctions between related concepts of organizational identity (e.g., Hatch & Schultz, 2000; Pratt, 2003; Pratt & Foreman, 2000), some overlap persists between the meaning attached to the concept of organizational identity by some scholars and what other scholars refer to as culture, image, vision, mission, dominant logic, corporate identity, corporate brand and reputation (Ravasi & Rekom, 2003). Most studies in the organizational literature refer to the original definition of organizational identity suggested by Albert and Whetten (1985) as what is central, distinctive and enduring about an organization. This study attempts to provide a more refined conceptualization of organizational identity, particularly designed to explain an activist organization's identity threat.

By applying these three aspects—centrality, distinctiveness, and endurance—to the threat appraisal model and contingency theory of strategic conflict management in public relations, this study provides valuable insights into how the ascribed identity perceived by the outside latent public plays a role in predicting activist organizations' threat appraisal as well as the outside latent public's attitudes toward and willingness to join the activist group.

In sum, this study attempts to advance contingency theory by applying it to activism and empirically examining the impact of the interplay of different types of activist organizations and the outside latent public's perceptions about the ascribed identity—whether it is matched or unmatched with the avowed identity—on the organizations' threat appraisal as well as the public's attitudinal and behavioral responses in crisis situations.

Practical Significance of the Study

The typology of activist organizations that this study proposes can first serve as a guiding tool for public relations practitioners to understand how different levels of an activist organization's angry feelings toward the target issue and belief in its ability to change society may lead to the public's expectations of threat appraisal as well as attitudes toward the activist organization and willingness to become a member of the activist organization.

Second, by measuring the outside latent public's assessment of an activist organization's threat appraisal based on their levels of anger and efficacy as well as their ascribed identity, this study provides valuable insights into how the outside latent public's expectations can help public relations practitioners develop crisis management

plans for a potential threat driven by public perceptions on whether the ascribed identity is matched or unmatched.

Finally, this study highlights the importance of managing the ascribed identity in a way that it is matched with the avowed identity. Public relations practitioners can consider how to reduce the gap between the ascribed identity and the avowed identity in their daily work as well as in crisis situations throughout their work on press releases, advertisements, and press kits.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The field of public relations has developed rapidly in recent years as a professional practice as well as a major area of applied communication. Public relations is a relatively young academic discipline that has developed its own research agenda and theory distinct from others in communication in only about the past 25 years. Most widely used definitions of public relations are based on the management perspective. For example, Cutlip, Center, and Broom (1994) defined public relations as the management function of establishing and maintaining mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and its publics. Similarly, J. E. Grunig and Hunt (1984) defined public relations as "the management of communication between an organization and its publics" (p. 6).

For many years, J. E. Grunig's excellence theory has been the most frequently cited theory in public relations. Its origins stem from 1984, when J. E. Grunig and Hunt proposed four models of public relations representing the four major forms of practice, based on the historical development of the field: (1) the press agentry or publicity model, (2) the public information model, (3) the two-way asymmetrical model, and (4) the two-way symmetrical model. J. E. Grunig and Hunt (1984) first characterized the models based on two dimensions: direction of communication (one-way vs. two-way) and intended effect (asymmetric vs. symmetric). A major program of research directed by J. E. Grunig has extensively revised and developed thinking about excellence in public relations, particularly based on the two-way symmetrical model. J. E. Grunig argued that

the two-way symmetrical model represents normative theory—a theory that sets out how organizations should practice public relations to be most ethical and effective (J. E. Grunig & L. A. Grunig, 1992). A normative theory does not describe what is, but what should be.

The two-way symmetrical model in J. E. Grunig's excellence theory may lead to more ethical and more effective public relations performance, particularly over the long term. Cameron, Cropp, and Reber (2001), argued that in reality, however, it is very difficult to place any organizational public relations program into one of the four models. As Cancel et al. (1997) addressed in their conclusion, contingency theory is a logical extension of Grunig's excellence theory that provides an alternative perspective to normative theory and insights into the dynamics and efficacy of accommodation in public relations practice. Although contingency theory was first introduced as an extension of excellence theory, contingency theorists have explicated the theory based on a realistic and sophisticated approach distinct from normative theory, developing unique theoretical advances, and ultimately refuting excellence theory.

This literature section begins by reviewing the role of public relations in managing conflict, relying on contingency theory as the conceptual framework for examining public relations as strategic conflict management. Contingency theory provides a relatively deeper glimpse into the concept of threat as "a potentially negative situation involving publics" (Cancel et al., 1999). Since the unmatched ascribed identity can serve as a potential threat to an activist organization, this study employs the threat appraisal model to understand the elements involved in a particular threat within the contingency theory framework. Following the overview of contingency theory and the

threat appraisal model, discussions on activism in the field of public relations are addressed, particularly focusing on identities of activist organizations as well as types of activist organizations based on the concepts of anger and efficacy. Adopting an identity-based approach to activism, this study highlights the role of discrepancy between the avowed identity and the ascribed identity of an activist organization in crisis management. Based on the three factors constituting the outside latent public's assessment of an activist organization, anger (high vs. low), efficacy (high vs. low), and ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched), this study proposes hypotheses and research questions exploring cognitive, affective, attitudinal, and behavioral responses to news stories about activist groups.

The Role of Public Relations in Managing Conflict

Conflict can occur at any time under any circumstances, and it takes many forms, from international conflict between countries to a fight between children. Cameron and colleagues (2008) defined conflict as "any sharp disagreement or collision of interests and ideas" (p. 37). They argued that public relations practitioners should develop communication strategies to drive the course of conflicts to the benefit of their organizations, and, when possible, to the benefit of the organizations' key publics; "this deliberate influence applied to publics is called strategic conflict management" (p. 37).

Based on this perspective, Cameron et al. (2008) defined public relations as the "strategic management of competition and conflict in the best interest of one's own organization and, when possible, also in the interests of key publics" (p. 35). The key terms in this definition have the following meanings:

> "strategic—for the purpose of achieving particular objectives, management—planned, deliberate actions, competition—striving for the same object, position,

> size, and so on, as others, and conflict—sharp disagreement or opposition resulting in direct, overt threat of attack from another entity" (p. 35).

This new definition reflects the reality and complexity of the practice of public relations and sounds more aggressive than most definitions that highlight building mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and its key publics. Although building a mutually beneficial relationship can be one of the key goals for an organization, it should be part of the larger role of public relations in managing conflict in order to best serve the interests of the organization (Cameron et al., 2008).

Drawing on this conflict management approach to public relations practice, Cameron et al. (2008) proposed a conflict management life cycle that outlines the "big picture" of how to manage a conflict. Cameron et al. (2008) divided strategic conflict management into four general phases: a proactive phase, a strategic phase, a reactive phase, and a recovery phase. The proactive phase involves activities and thought processes designed to prevent a conflict from arising or from getting out of hand. The first step in this phase is environmental scanning through constant reading, listening, and observing what is happening around the organization in order to keep an eye on the organization's interests. As issues emerge, issues management becomes a core task in this phase; it "occurs when the organization makes behavioral changes or creates strategic plans for ways to address emerging issues" (p. 44). According to Heath (1997), an organization should make an effort to reduce the discrepancy between its behavior and stakeholders' expectations to effectively manage an emerging issue. Issues management involves "issue identification, scanning, monitoring, analysis, and priority setting" (Heath, 1997, p. 81). Developing a general crisis plan as a preparation for the worst is necessary for successful issue management. Public relations practitioners should be aware that the

means of managing issues—how they handle the problem at hand—can create either an opportunity for or a threat to an organization.

In the strategic phase of conflict management, public relations practitioners identify an emerging conflict out of an issue (Cameron et al., 2008). Practitioners can use three broad strategies to prevent an emerging conflict from escalating to an actual crisis: risk communication, conflict-positioning strategies, and developing a specific crisis management plan. Uncertainty is a key variable in the risk perception and communication process (Palenchar & Heath, 2002). By gathering and processing information regarding a given situation, one can reduce the uncertainty about the expected outcome of each possible action (Oppe, 1988). The link between the information and the choice of an action is called a strategy, and a strategy will be selected when the expected loss is minimal, given the information available (Oppe, 1988). From a public relations perspective, risk is the extent of the expected loss when a particular strategy is employed, given information available, and Cameron et al. (2008) thus highlighted that the purpose of risk communication is to reduce the danger and threat posed by the risk. Given that publics tend to seek information to reduce their uncertainties about a given risk and about the people who are creating those uncertainties, it is imperative that risk communicators acknowledge the importance of uncertainty among key publics regarding risk-based concepts (Heath & Nathan, 1991).” In addition, the role of public relations practitioners should be centered on how to manage public perceptions, particularly faulty ones formed by the media (Lerbinger, 1997).

Conflict-positioning strategies are used when the organization tries to position itself favorably in anticipation of actions such as litigation, boycott, adverse legislation,

elections, or similar events that will play out in "the court of public opinion" (Cameron et al., 2008, p. 44). In order to make conflict-positioning efforts effective, Pang (2006) suggested that practitioners should be aware of what factors are influential enough to determine an organization's stance, and what stances yield matching strategies. Discussing strategies for crisis management plan development in the strategic phase, Marra (2004) argued that "autonomy of PR staff" (p. 313) and "organizational communication culture" (p. 321) are more important than crisis planning in risk communication. Most crisis planners in public institutions are challenged to try to convince political and bureaucratic elites to invest resources in planning and training for low probability events, with no guarantees of the success of the plans (McConnell & Drennan, 2006). Ray (1999) showed that the involvement and contributions of the dominant coalition were found to be a key factor in crisis planning. Marra (1998) also illustrated the significant role of the dominant coalition in the way that a crisis is managed. Although there are different perspectives regarding the necessity of having a specific crisis management plan to be prepared for any negative phenomenon, many practitioners generally agree with the idea of being proactive with coordinated pre-planning (McConnell & Drennan, 2006).

The reactive phase of strategic conflict management, as proposed by contingency theory, requires that practitioners react to a crisis by implementing the crisis management plan as well as by working around the clock to meet the needs of publics such as disaster victims, employees, government officials, and the media (Cameron et al., 2008). According to Barton (1993), a crisis "is a major, unpredictable event that has potentially negative results. The event and its aftermath may significantly damage an organization

and its employees, products, services, financial condition, and reputation" (p. 2). One line of crisis communication research has examined how organizations should communicate and behave after a crisis occurs, as crisis response strategies (Allen & Caillouet, 1994; Coombs, 1998; Hobbs, 1995; Ice, 1991). Specifically, crisis communication researchers have focused on ways to communicate in order to protect the organization's reputation during a crisis (Barton, 1993; Benoit, 1995; Coombs & Holladay, 1996, 2002, 2004; DeVries & Fizpatrick, 2006; Hearit, 1996, 2001).

Based on a rhetorical criticism perspective, Benoit's (1995) image repair theory is largely grounded in case studies, which describe both the image repair discourse and audience reactions to that discourse. Image repair theory is based on the assumption that maintaining a favorable reputation is a key goal in communication because face and image constitute a healthy self-image, and a healthy self-image contributes to the influence one party has on another. Based on previous research on *apologia* and rhetoric, Benoit (1995) developed a typology comprising five general strategies: denial, evasion of responsibility, reducing offensiveness of event, corrective action, and mortification. Applying Weiner's (1986) attribution theory to corporate reputation, Coombs and Holladay (2002) developed situational crisis communication theory (SCCT) that suggests a system for assessing reputational threat due to a crisis. Three factors in the crisis situation influence reputational threat: (1) initial crisis responsibility, (2) crisis history, and (3) relationship history/prior reputation (Coombs, 2007). Understanding publics' attributions of whether an organization is responsible for a crisis often influences how it regards the consequences of the crisis and, as such, is critical when implementing crisis communication strategies.

The final phase in strategic conflict management, recovery, involves reputation management that includes conducting systematic research to understand the status of the organization's reputation and then taking steps to improve it (Cameron et al., 2008). Ulmer, Seeger, and Sellnow (2007) considered the discourse of renewal to extend past the discourse outlined in image repair theory. They suggested four primary characteristics of renewal: (1) provisional communication, (2) prospective communication, (3) taking advantage of the opportunities embedded within the crisis as forward thinking, and (4) leader-based communication. While discussing the first characteristic of renewal, they pointed out that "all renewal decisions must emanate from good character" (p. 131). This symbolizes the importance of reputation management; if the organization has a poor reputation to begin with, it does not matter what kind of strategy is taken. Lyon and Cameron (2004) adopted an empirical approach to consider reputation management. They found empirical evidence that reputation and crisis response influence the attitudes of publics. Roux-Dufort (2000) argued that our learning from others' crises tends to stop at the particular crisis to which we are responding instead of conducting environmental scanning to identify potential risks on a regular basis and to learn from the experiences of others. Under his assumption, many organizations fail to learn from other's mistakes, refusing to believe a similar organization's crisis could happen to them. Practitioners interested in earning influence with their managers for successful reputation management should be willing to take lessons from others' experiences and be ready to move forward in their own situation.

When crises occur, publics make sense of the crisis based on not only objective facts of any given crisis *per se*, but also on their perceptions of crisis responsibility and/or

threats as underlying factors that caused the crisis. This study supports the idea that public perceptions of a crisis are more important than the factual reality of the crisis in developing crisis communication plans. In particular, this study examines the outside latent public's assessment of different types of activist organizations' threat appraisal, as well as the public's attitudes toward the activist organization and willingness to become a member of the activist organization whether or not identity crisis occurs.

Contingency Theory of Strategic Conflict Management

Contingency theory (Cancel et al., 1999) provides a refinement of the four normative models of excellence in public relations (J. E. Grunig & L. A. Grunig, 1992; J. E. Grunig & Hunt, 1984) and reflects a more realistic portrayal of public relations strategies or models as existing on a continuum from pure advocacy to pure accommodation (see Figure 1). While advocacy refers to the degree to which organizations maintain perspectives favorable for organizations rather than their publics, accommodation refers to the degree to which organizations accept the publics' standpoint or argument. In other words, advocacy indicates arguing for one's own case or pushing one's agenda at one end, and accommodation indicates giving in at the other.

Cancel et al. (1997) argued that this continuum approach is "a more effective and realistic illustration of public relations and organizational behavior than a conceptualization of four models" (p. 34). The continuum explained "an organization's possible wide range of stances taken toward an individual public, differing from the more proscriptive and mutually exclusive categorization" found in the four models (p. 172). Along the continuum, the theory suggests that 87 factors (see Appendix A) could influence the stance of an organization on the continuum at a given time regarding a

given public (Cancel at al., 1997).

Cancel et al. (1997) argued that there were several reasons why the four normative models were inadequate to explain the range of stances and strategies that can take place in public relations practice. They suggested three key reasons. First, they noted that the data collected in research designed to test excellence theory were weak. In particular, studies conducted to examine the models' reliability proved to be "below minimum standards of reliability" (p. 37).

Second, the authors purported that the two-way symmetrical model's assumption that represents excellence in public relations was methodologically flawed because research did not support it. For example, they mentioned the lack of explanation as to why symmetrical techniques produced asymmetrical results, citing Hellweg's (1989) findings.

Third, Cancel and colleagues argued that an accommodative or dialogic stance may not be inherently ethical. On the contrary, accommodation of morally repugnant publics might be unethical, at least from the perspective of those whose fundamental beliefs define the publics' behavior or beliefs as immoral. This moral conviction is one of the six proscriptive variables, or contingent factors, affecting accommodation, as suggested by Cameron et al. (2001). According to Cameron et al. (2001), proscriptive variables limit, prevent, preclude, or prohibit any degree of accommodation of a given public at a given time. In addition to moral conviction, the proscriptive variables include "multiple publics, regulatory constraints, management pressure, jurisdictional issues, and legal constraints" (Cameron et al., 2001, p. 247, 248). The presence and importance of the proscriptive variables clearly distinguish contingency theory from excellence theory.

Moreover, the recognition of the proscriptive variables may help bridge the gap between theory and practice in public relations.

Contingency theory counters the assumption that the two-way symmetrical model, or even the mixed motives model, should be revered as a universal theory of professional practice. Understanding public relations, particularly conflict management based on any of the four models in Grunig's excellence theory does not reflect the dynamic and subtle nature of the field of public relations (Pang, Jin, & Cameron, 2007). More specifically, Cancel et al. (1997) suggested that "the practice of public relations is too complex, too fluid, and impinged by far too many variables for the academy to force it to one of the four boxes known as the four models of public relations" (p. 32). The effective and ethical public relations practice is possible at the range of points on the continuum which ranges from pure advocacy to pure accommodation.

Three key arguments underlying contingency theory have been made by Cameron et al. (2001). First, the stance an organization takes toward a given public at a given time should be regarded as constantly moving along a continuum (moving from models to a continuum). The dynamics of stance movement on the continuum are in opposition to the fixed models of public relations. Several scholars have supported this continuum perspective. For example, Hellweg (1989) argued that what is asymmetrical or symmetrical depends on one's own perspective. From a game theory perspective, Murphy (1991) suggested that the asymmetrical model resembles zero-sum games while the symmetrical model resembles games of complete cooperation. Murphy (1991) also called for a continuum, in this case ranging from conflict to cooperation.

Second, a vast number of factors are considered by public relations practitioners in determining where an organization stands along a continuum ("It Depends"—a matrix of contingent factors). Contingency theory holds that many factors influence the stance of an organization when dealing with conflict and perceived threats against one's organization, and that the stance is dynamic, varying along a continuum ranging from pure advocacy to pure accommodation. Cancel et al. (1997) identified more than 80 variables that affect a given public at a given time. Contingency theory focuses on the stance of the organization, not the outcomes of a public relations practice. Contingent factors can be categorized into predisposing and situational factors. Predisposing factors include the characteristics of the dominant coalition, public relations' access to top management, organizational size and culture, and so on. Situational factors include the characteristics of the external public, perceived urgency and threat, and feasibility of accommodation. Predisposing factors determine the stance of an organization before it goes into a situation dealing with a given public, while the combination and variability of situational factors may shift the stance of the organization over time, depending on whether the situational factors are powerful enough to change the predisposition to a particular stance on the continuum (Cancel et al., 1999).

Third, contingency theory "sorts out clusters of activity and techniques that may be typified as models (e.g., publicity model, public information model, etc) from the strategic position or stance taken by an organization" (Cameron et al., 2001, p. 246). Thus, tactics and techniques of practice, such as persuasion, press agentry, and public information, should not be confused with stance (disentangling technique from stance).

Contingency theory focuses on the stance of an organization and argues that techniques can be used interchangeably, regardless of stance.

Contingency theory, therefore, aims to understand the dynamics of many factors involved both inside and outside of the organization that influence an organization's stance. Based on acknowledgement of these dynamics, the theory elaborates and specifies the underlying factors that strengthen an organization's stance along the continuum, in order to "offer a structure for better understanding of the dynamics of accommodation as well as the efficacy and ethical implications of accommodation" (Yarbrough, Cameron, Sallot, & McWilliams, 1998, p. 41).

Contingent Factors in Conflict Management

The focus of early contingency studies centered on the classification of influential contingent factors (Cameron et al., 2001; Cancel et al, 1999; Choi & Cameron, 2005; Pang, 2006; Reber & Cameron, 2003; Shin et al., 2006). In Cancel et al.'s (1999) initial postulation, 86 factors in the contingency matrix were classified as either predisposing or situational factors. While predisposing factors affect the organization's stance on the continuum before it interacts with a certain external public, situational factors influence the organization's stance on the continuum during interaction with an external public (Cancel et al., 1999). Some of the predisposing factors that were strongly supported by Cancel et al.'s (1999) interview data included: (1) the size of organization; (2) corporate culture; (3) business exposure; (4) public relations to dominant coalition; (5) dominant coalition enlightenment; and (6) individual characteristics of key individuals like the CEO.

Some of the supported situational factors included: (1) urgency of the situation; (2) characteristics of the other public; (3) potential or obvious threats; and (4) potential costs or benefits for the organization from choosing the various stances (Cancel et al., 1999). The situational factors could impact the ultimate degree of accommodation an organization takes by "effecting shifts from a predisposed accommodative or adversarial stance along the continuum during an interaction with the external public" (Yarbrough et al., 1998, p. 43). However, according to Cameron et al. (2001), an organization may not move from its predisposed stance if the situational factors are neither compelling nor powerful enough to affect the stance or if the opportunity costs of the situational variables do not bring any visible benefits. Thus, the key in locating the stance on the continuum is related to the "weighing of many factors found in the theory" (Yarbrough et al., 1998, p. 50).

In an effort to seek parsimony for the contingent factors, Reber and Cameron (2003) examined the five thematic variables through a survey of 91 top public relations practitioners. The variables included: (1) external threats; (2) external public characteristics; (3) organizational characteristics; (4) public relations department characteristics; and (5) dominant coalition characteristics. According to Reber and Cameron (2003), the scales validated the theoretical premises and qualitative evidence supporting contingency theory. Pang (2006) also found that five crisis factors played significant roles in determining an organization's stance and strategies employed following a crisis: (1) involvement of the dominant coalition; (2) influence of public relations practitioners; (3) influence of legal practitioners; (4) importance of primary publics to the organization; and (5) the organization's perception of threat. As previous

studies show (e.g., Cancel et al., 1999; Reber & Cameron, 2003), perceptions of external threat, external public characteristics, dominant coalition characteristics, and public relations department characteristics have generally been considered the most influential factors in determining an organization's stance in crisis situations.

As mentioned above, Cameron et al. (2001) argued that there are times when accommodation may not possible, due to moral, regulatory, jurisdictional, and legal reasons, as well as dealing with multiple publics and management pressure. As demonstrated by the example of PETA vs. CCF mentioned earlier, an accommodative or dialogic stance toward CCF may be inherently unethical to PETA due to moral conflict, which occurs when two groups have fundamentally different worldviews or ways of making sense of a given issue. Thus, if moral conviction is involved, it is likely that actions regarded by one organization as good and desired may be perceived by the other organization as bad or preposterous. An organization often faces multiple publics for a given issue or conflict and, thus, there might be a need to maintain moral neutrality in the face of contending multiple publics. In addition, there are cases when legal and regulatory constraints limit accommodation; for example, a jurisdictional issue takes on a complex process of negotiation and may curtail accommodation, and senior management pressure impedes taking an accommodative stance.

Although these proscriptive factors do not necessarily drive the organization towards extreme advocacy, they can preclude compromise, or sometimes even communication, with a given public (Cameron et al., 2001). Of the six proscriptive variables, four (moral conviction, contending publics, legal constraints, and jurisdictional issues) did preclude accommodation "on some occasions" (Cameron et al., 2001, p. 255),

such as gun control issues for moral conviction and government regulation for legal constraints. Reber, Cropp, and Cameron's (2003) case study illustrated how the proscriptive factors come into play in varying degrees to drive accommodation by Norfolk Southern to the needs and demands of CSX and Contrail. Their findings reflect the complexity and dynamism of the public relations practice, supporting an underlying principle of contingency theory: "It Depends!" In particular, a subtle set of judgments used to handle the contingencies in their case study was well implied by "It Depends!"

Contingency theory has developed in relation to stance movements after a series of research studies examined the development of contingency factors. Pang, Jin, and Cameron (2004) found that situational factors could determine the stance movement from advocacy toward accommodation. In their content analysis of news media coverage of high profile conflicts, Shin et al. (2005) found that organizational stances, strategies, and the public's stances were changed over time by contingent factors such as internal and external threats. Concerning the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) outbreak, contingency scholars examined how the Singaporean and the Chinese government managed their stances and crisis communication strategies toward multiple publics and investigated contingent factors involved in the conflict management (Jin, Pang, & Cameron, 2006, 2007; Pang et al., 2004). Content analysis results suggested that the two governments took different directional stances and strategies toward publics. While the Singaporean government perceived the SARS crisis as an internal political threat and took an advocative stance toward the quarantined public and the general public (Jin et al., 2006, 2007), the Chinese government took an accommodative stance toward the external

publics due to its concerns about external pressures from international organizations and society (Jin et al., 2007; Pang et al., 2004).

A qualitative case study about the Chinese government's management regarding the SARS crisis (Qiu & Cameron, in press) also suggested that the World Health Organization shifted its stance from accommodation to advocacy to pressure the Chinese government to combat SARS. Cameron, Pang, and Jin (2007) concluded that different cultural and political environments in the two countries influenced the two governments' approaches to taking certain stances regarding the SARS crisis.

Examining the dispute between the United States and China over the collision of a U.S. Navy plane with a Chinese airplane, Zhang, Qiu, and Cameron's (2004) case study first tested contingency theory in an international conflict setting. Their findings showed that contingency theory variables of an organization's characteristics, public relations characteristics, characteristics of dominant coalition, internal threats, individual characteristics, and relationship characteristics affected the stance of the Bush administration following the collision. Their study supported the contingency theory argument that two-way communication through a dialogue may not be inherently ethical, and the morally intractable conflict among China, the U.S. and the Republican Party made accommodation virtually impossible.

Choi and Cameron (2005) examined how multinational corporations (MNCs) are practicing public relations in Korea, and what contingency factors influence MNCs' stances in conflict situations. Their study found that MNCs are likely to move toward accommodative stances due to their fear of Korean media and local culture (i.e., Cheong). In particular, they pointed out that Korean media's huge power to influence other publics,

and their way of framing MNCs' business issues based on nationalism, appeared to make MNCs take more accommodative stances in conflict situations. In addition, they highlighted Korea's indigenous cultural dimension, Cheong, which is the essential element of a "We-ness" concept. They argued that the Korean publics' Cheong-based collectivist national identity and emotion over logic may prevent MNCs from resolving and preventing conflicts with Korean publics. Although they pointed out national identity as a critical cultural factor that can be further analyzed in the contingency theory framework, more efforts should made to explore organizational identity as a potential contingent factor as well.

In terms of measuring stance, Jin and Cameron (2006) first conceptualized stance as the degree of accommodation toward publics in varied situations, and operationalized it as "the position an organization takes in decision-making, which is supposed to determine which strategy or tactic to employ" (p. 423). Through systematic scale development and psychometric assessment, Jin and Cameron (2006) created a valid and reliable scale with two clusters of enactments of stance: action-based accommodation (AA) and qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodation (QRA). Action-based accommodations refer to stances enacted by agreeing with what the other party proposes, acceptance of the public's suggestions, and so forth, whereas qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations focus on expressing regrets and qualifying the organization's tendency to collaborate without explicitly taking tangible actions (Jin & Cameron, 2007). Although their scale has been employed to measure an organization's stance in diverse crisis situations by analyzing media coverage (e.g., Jin et al., 2006a, 2007; Shin et al., 2005;

Zhang, et al., 2004), there remains a need to apply the scale to a public's stance, including the perspective of the outside latent public.

While previous studies have measured stance movements of an organization (e.g., Pang, Cropp, & Cameron, 2006; Pang et al., 2004; Shin et al., 2005), Hwang and Cameron (2008a; 2008b) argued that the outside latent public's perceptions of threat could be strongly related to people's assessment of an organization's stance toward the certain external public. The findings of Hwang and Cameron (2008a) indicated that the general public's perception of situational factors (external threat and external public characteristics) was found to be a stronger predictor for the general public's stance assessment than the general public's perception of predisposing factors (dominant coalition characteristics). The current study builds on Hwang and Cameron's (2008a; 2008b) call for greater understanding of the general public's assessment of an organization's stance. In particular, this study attempts to expand the body of research based on contingency theory by examining how the outside latent public's assessment of different types of activist groups and the ascribed identity of those groups affect threat appraisal, attitudes toward the activist organization, and behavioral intention to become a member of the activist organization.

Threat Appraisal Model

With a growing need for conceptualization and measurement of "threat" in crisis situations, threat assessment was introduced into the contingency theory framework. Internal or external threats, as identified in the original contingency factor matrix, describe the state that a nation, organization, or individual endures in a crisis (Pang et al., 2007). Cameron et al. (1997) classified threats in public relations into two categories:

internal threats and external threats. Internal threats include threat of economic loss or gain from implementing various strategies, threat of marring employee, volunteer, or stockholder perceptions of an organization, and threat of marring the personal reputations of dominant coalition members (image in employees' perception and general public's perception). These threats may exist in an organization's internal environment. External threats, on the other hand, include litigation, government regulation, potentially damaging publicity, scarring of organization's reputation in community and in the general public, and legitimizing activists' claims. These threats occur in an organization's external environment and might affect organizational top managers' willingness to engage in dialogue as a conflict resolution strategy concerning an external public (Reber & Cameron, 2003).

Threat appraisal was initially proposed by Blascovich and Mendes (2000) as a cognitive appraisal process that consists of "primary" appraisals of situational demands and "secondary" appraisals of the individual's resources. Thus, threat appraisals are combinations of demand and resource appraisals. While the primary appraisals of situational demands include the perception or assessment of danger, uncertainty (situational versus task uncertainty), and required effort inherent in a given situation, the secondary appraisals of the individual's resources include the perception or assessment of knowledge and skills relevant to situational performance.

Jin, Pang, and Cameron (2005) proposed a threat appraisal model in crisis management to explain that a threat to an organization requires an assessment of situational demands that the threat makes on the organization and organizational resources available to handle the threat. According to Jin and Cameron (2007), for a

threat to occur, for a public relations practitioner representing a given organization at a given time, "there has to be some insufficiency of resources or high requirement of resources to meet situational demands" (p. 256). They proposed three dimensions of threat, including threat type (internal vs. external), threat duration (short-term vs. long-term), and threat level (low vs. high) (see Figure 2). In addition, they suggested a series of propositions regarding effects of threat at the cognitive, affective, and conative levels.

Applying the three dimensions of threat (type, duration, level) and the cognitive threat appraisal model (situational demands, organizational resources), Pang et al. (2006) analyzed how a terrorism-related threat was appraised by the Department of Homeland Security, as well as conservative (i.e., *The Washington Times*) and liberal (i.e., *The Washington Post*) audiences. Their analysis provided a deeper and richer conceptual understanding of threat from the threat appraisal model, particularly in diagnosing threats.

According to Jin and Cameron (2007), the threat appraisal model (see Figure 3) consists of two levels of appraisal: (1) a primary appraisal of situational demands based on degrees of perceived *Danger*, *Uncertainty* of the issue (lack of prediction and control increase difficulty of threat), and *Required Effort* to address the threat; and (2) a secondary appraisal of resources based on *Knowledge and Skill*, *Time*, *Finance*, and *Support from the Dominant Coalition*. Jin and Cameron (2007) conducted a Web-based experiment on the effects of threat type and threat duration on public relations practitioners' cognitive appraisal of threats, affective responses to threats and the stances taken in threat-embedded crisis situations. The results demonstrated main effects of threat type and threat duration on threat appraisal, emotional arousal, and degree of accommodation (Jin & Cameron, 2007). Interaction of these two threat dimensions

(threat type and threat duration) indicated that external and long-term threat combinations resulted in higher situational demands appraisal and more intensive emotional arousal (Jin & Cameron, 2007).

Based on previous theoretical development and research findings, Jin and Cameron (2007) suggested three consequences of threats at the cognitive, affective, and conative levels: (1) the *cognitive level* involves an individual's perception of the crisis situation in terms of his or her weighing of the demands from the crisis situation and requirement of the resources the organization can allocate at the moment; (2) the *affective level* involves how an individual feels about the situation, including how negative he or she feels about the crisis and what would be the arousal level, or intensity of his or her being threatened; and (3) the *conative level* involves what stance is taken for the organization, represented by movement on the contingency continuum of accommodation to deal with the crisis for the organization.

Public relations researchers have recently called for greater attention to the construct of emotion or affective aspects in public relations from a strategic conflict management perspective (Jin & Cameron, 2004). Applying emotional dimensions including emotional tone (valence of the emotion from negative to positive), emotional temperature (intensity level of the emotion), and emotional weight (importance of the emotional stimulus in strategic consequences), Jin and Cameron (2004) suggested that publics' perceptions of these emotional dimensions influence their stances toward an organization. Based on dimensional theories of emotion (e.g., Fridja, 1986; P. J. Lang, 1984; P. J. Lang, Bradley, & Cuthbert, 1997; Osgood, Succi, & Tannenbaum, 1957), which conceptualize emotion as having two primary dimensions (valence and arousal),

this study examines emotional valence and arousal as affective responses to organizational identity threats. The valence dimension is conceptualized as a continuous affective response ranging from pleasant (or positive) to unpleasant (or negative) while the arousal dimension is defined as a continuous response ranging from "energized, excited, and alert" to "calm, drowsy, or peaceful" (Detenber & Reeves, 1996).

While Jin and Cameron's (2007) study measured the consequences of threat, this study measures the outside latent public's assessment of an activist organization's ascribed identity as a situational factor that may influence the evaluation of threat appraisal at cognitive, affective, and conative levels, in addition to attitudes and behavioral intention, based on the threat appraisal model. It is proposed that measuring the outside latent public's perceived ascribed identity of an activist organization as a threat to the organization in a situation where both competition and conflict exist will provide new insights into the threat appraisal model and extend contingency theory.

Activism

Hallahan (2000) argued that activism in the public relations literature is "well-grounded theoretically and well-founded because of the potential consequences of activist groups, which can directly and immediately threaten the organization's goals or help to attain them" (pp. 499-500). Even from the 19th century practice of public relations, the relationship between organizations and activists has been described as both symbiotic and tense (Smith & Ferguson, 2001). One of the earliest conflicts between an organization and activists occurred in 1884, when the American Medical Association debated anti-vivisectionists, seemingly predicting today's animal rights movement (Cutlip, 1994). The rise of activism during the 1960s and 1970s resulted in a great number of studies focusing

on activist organizations' behavior that emphasized the importance of public relations efforts to deal with issues raised by these activist groups (Smith & Ferguson, 2001). Olson's (1971) theory of collective action suggested that "motivation and fervor were key ingredients that activist causes can invoke, perhaps offsetting the clear resource advantage of the large corporations and other organizations that activists target" (Dozier & Lauzen, 2000). For this reason, activism is a problem for most organizations (Mintzberg, 1983).

There are many different definitions of activists and different approaches to look at how activists manage conflicts in the public relations literature. Thus, determining the definition of an activist organization is one of the first challenges in discussing activism. For example, organized activists are variably referred to as special interest groups, pressure groups, issue groups, grassroots organizations, or social movement organizations (Smith, 1996). L. A. Grunig (1992) defined an activist group as "a group of two or more individuals who organize in order to influence another public or publics through action that may include education, compromise, persuasion, pressure tactics, or force" (p. 504). This definition, however, as Smith and Ferguson (2001) pointed out, could include many organizations. Berry (1984) suggested that activist groups are organized around a common goal and intend to influence public policy to reach that goal. Smith and Ferguson (2001) highlighted activist organizations' characteristics as being *organized* and, thus, as being faced with some of the same challenges as other organizations.

Some scholars emphasize organizational purpose when defining activist organizations. According to L. A. Grunig (1992), activists typically attempt to either confront organizations directly or look for regulations from the government or

administrative agencies. Smith (1997) suggested that the primary purpose of activist organizations is to influence public policy, organizational action, or social norms and values. Activist organizations strategically use communication to accomplish their goals (Ferguson, 1997).

In this study, an activist organization is defined as a group of two or more individuals who come together in order to oppose to something in their environment, rhetorically engaging in policy or behavior. This excludes organizations whose missions are limited to helping people or to providing services to their stakeholders or members, rather than eliciting changes in the social or physical environment.

According to Smith and Ferguson (2001), activists typically have two main goals. The first and most recognizable goal is to rectify the conditions identified by the activist group. To carry out this goal, activists must attract attention to a given problem, position themselves as legitimate advocates, and effectively argue for their recommended resolution to the problem (Crable & Vibbert, 1985; Heath, 1997; Vibbert, 1987). By employing strategic communication, activist groups convey their position on issues, seek support for action, and engage target organizations in policy discussions (Werder, 2006). The second goal of activists is to maintain the organized group established to achieve their purpose. Activist organizations must maintain membership, succeed in a competitive environment, and adjust to changes in that environment (Smith & Ferguson, 2001).

According to Smith and Ferguson (2001), these roles of organizing groups and of using communication strategies in order to reach certain objectives are key characteristics of activists. Jackson (1982) classified activists' communication tactics into five general

categories: (1) informational activities including interviews and media relations tasks; (2) symbolic activities such as boycotts; (3) organizing activities such as delivering leaflets, networking, and holding meetings; (4) legal activities such as petitioning, filing lawsuits and legislation, testifying at hearings, and pressuring regulatory and administrative agencies; and (5) civil disobedience activities such as sit-ins, blocking traffic, and trespassing (p. 215). Public relations scholars have examined activists from diverse perspectives, including: radical activist tactics (Derville, 2005); internal activists (McCown, 2007); message framing (Reber & Beger, 2005); and online media relations (Reber & Kim, 2006). However, little research has focused on identifying diverse activists. Greater understanding of the factors that distinguish activists and how strategies and tactics of different activists are assessed by publics is critical for the domain of public relations theory and practice.

Turner (2007) proposed the Anger Activism Model (AAM), which classifies activism in terms of the interaction between angry feelings toward the target issue and perceptions of efficacy by the public. Although definitions of anger vary widely (Robbins, 2000), anger is commonly identified by certain physiological arousals, the cognition of resentment (Novaco, 1994), and feelings that range from annoyance to rage (Allcorn, 1994; Rubin, 1986). According to Izard (1977), anger occurs due to the feeling of being either physically or psychologically restrained from doing what one intensely desires to do. Previous research indicates that anger is activated when one's goals (Lazarus & Lazarus, 1994), particularly goals associated with ego protection, are thwarted (Reiser, 1999). Thus anger motivates people to remove barriers that prevent goal attainment or well being (Lazarus, 1991). Angry feelings are particularly important to consider in some

crises because anger can motivate people to take control of a situation and ameliorate the problem at hand from a behavioral perspective (Turner, 2007).

The concept of self-efficacy lies at the heart of Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986), which explains the role of observational learning (or modeling) and social experience in the development of personality. According to Bandura (1986), people with high self-efficacy (i.e., those who believe they can perform well) are more likely to regard difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. For example, an individual may know the behaviors that need to be accomplished; however, if the individual does not perceive confidence in her or his ability to effectively meet the request, the individual will be less likely to pursue performance of the task. In order for anger to be able to motivate an individual to do something, the person must believe that she or he can actually execute the behavior effectively (Bandura, 1986). Thus, the influence of anger on cognitive responses and behavioral intentions is moderated by perceptions of efficacy (Turner, 2007). According to Nabi (1999), if individuals are exposed to a persuasive appeal that is high in anger but low in efficacy, the experienced anger will result in decreased systematic processing because the message does not prove to be a useful route to a resolution. Therefore, individuals' anger intensity is expected to interact with perceived efficacy to affect persuasive outcomes (Turner, 2007).

According to Turner's (2007) Anger Activism Model, levels of anger and efficacy can be used as the criteria to classify four distinct groups and these groups are expected to yield different behaviors. These four groups include: (1) the "activists" who experience strong feelings of anger and strong perceptions of efficacy; (2) "empowered" people who experience low levels of anger and strong perceptions of efficacy; (3) the "angry" people

who have strong feelings of anger and weak feelings of efficacy; (4) the "disinterested" group who have weak feelings of anger and weak perceptions of efficacy. While activists have the most positive attitude toward the issue they are advocating, and are more likely to engage in higher commitment behaviors in a systematic way, angry audiences are "angry about the current state of affairs, but they do not perceive that anything can be done" (Turner, 2007, p. 117). Building on the levels of anger and efficacy in the Anger Activism Model, this study proposes a typology of activists (see Table 1).

Distinct expectations can result from each group. The extremists have strong feelings of anger and strong perceptions of efficacy. The extremist group has extreme views on the target issue and is deeply committed to working for social change (e.g., PETA and Earth First!). The empowered activist group has low levels of anger and strong perceptions of efficacy. The empowered activists are not angry about the circumstances involved in the issue and believe that they have an ability to make changes on the current situation (e.g., Sierra Club). The frustrated activists are angry about the current state of affairs, but they believe that they are not able to do anything for change. For example, some human-rights activist organizations could be categorized as the frustrated activists when they remained frustrated in their attempt to castigate the International Olympic Committee and major corporate sponsors of the 2008 Beijing Olympics for their reluctance to put any public pressure on China regarding such issues as political dissent and press freedom. Finally, the system activist group has low levels of anger and weak perceptions of efficacy (e.g., Audubon Society and Keep America Beautiful). System activists work for the target issue within the system, not against it. For instance, Keep America Beautiful aims to engage individuals to take greater responsibility for improving

their community environments. These principles are accomplished through a combination of community organizing, public education, and the fostering of public/private partnerships. Working with businesses by developing corporate partnership programs, in particular, reflects that Keep America Beautiful is working within the system in order to meet its mission.

These distinctions are important because the outside latent public's assessment of an activist organization's threat appraisal as well as their attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization may be different depending on the types of activist organizations and the ascribed identity, namely whether it is matched or unmatched with the avowed identity. Although the typology for activist organizations introduced in this study is based on Turner's (2007) Anger Activism Model, this study classifies activist organizations particularly as perceived by the outside latent public, not individuals' perceptions, and it examines identity-related crisis situations, which can be a unique contribution to activism research in public relations.

Identities of Activist Organizations

The concept of organizational identity introduced by Albert and Whetten (1985) has received much attention among scholars and practitioners. In particular, a number of researchers in organizational behavior, organizational theory, and strategic management are turning to this evolving concept to advance their understanding of the behavior of organizations and their members (Ravasi & Rekom, 2003). Albert and Whetten (1985) proposed that organizational identity represents the characteristics of an organization that

its members perceive to be central, distinctive, and enduring (or continuing), when the past, present, and future are taken into account.

According to Ashforth and Mael (1996), the central character of an organization is rooted in the "more or less internally consistent system of pivotal beliefs, values, and norms, typically anchored in the organizational mission that informs sense-making and action" (p. 26). The concept of centrality, therefore, reflects the needs and preferences of senior management but only to the extent that organizational members in general share that understanding (Empson, 2004). The members' perceptions of the distinctive character of their organization are shaped by comparison with referent organizations, most typically competitors. The members select points of comparison to maximize perceived differences and to minimize perceived similarities in such a way to stigmatize the referent organization and flatter their own (Ashforth & Mael, 1996). As with central and distinctive characteristics, conceptualizations of the enduring characteristics of an organization are open to selective perception and interpretation by organizational members. This conceptualization could be influenced by the changing composition of organizational membership and the gradual accumulation of a body of collective experience over time (Ashforth & Mael, 1996). Therefore, organizational identity is inherently fluid, dynamic, and unstable.

In order for an inter-group (e.g., racial, ethnic, or religious) conflict to occur, the opponents must have a sense of collective identity about themselves and about their adversary, each part believing the conflict or fight is between "us" and "them" **(**Kriesberg, 2003; see Kriesberg, 1998, for related arguments on identities and conflicts). In some such conflicts, the opponents seem to be fighting with each other about the identities that

they ascribe to themselves and those they assign to the other side. According to Kriesberg (2003), such conflicts are sometimes called identity-based conflicts and are considered as particularly prone to becoming intractable. In this sense, the nature of the collective identities influences the difficulty in reaching an accommodation between conflicting audiences (Kriesberg, 2003). Members of the group who perceive their identities as being honored and being treated with respect may find it difficult to make compromises for or respect other groups. In addition, perceptions toward identities based on sovereignty, authority, and legitimacy prevent the members of the group from taking an accommodative stance in a conflict situation.

Focusing on the concept of organizational identity threats, Elsbach and Kramer (1996) examined how organization members respond to identity-threatening events, which represent a symbolic and sense-making dilemma for them. They pointed out that organization members experience cognitive distress or identity dissonance "when they think their organization's identity is threatened by what they perceive as inaccurate descriptions or misleading (and, by implication, unfair) comparisons with other organizations" (p. 468). Therefore, the authors assumed that organizational identity threats can be formed through the discrepancy between perceived organizational identity and construed external organizational identity. Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994) suggested that it is important to distinguish between two types of organizational identity perceptions: (1) members' perceived organizational identity (i.e., what members themselves believe are the central, distinctive, and enduring attributes of their organization), and (2) their construed external identity (i.e., what members think outsiders believe are the central, distinctive, and enduring attributes of their organization).

Foreman and Whetten (2002) developed a composite model of organizational identification "as a comparison process between what a member perceives the identity of the particular organization to be and what that member thinks the identity should be" (p. 620). Therefore, "identification is the level of congruence between members' identity perceptions and identity expectations" (p. 620). They investigated the effects of identity congruence (identification) on organizational commitment, which embraces either an attitudinal or behavioral perspective. From the attitudinal perspective, organizational commitment is basically a psychological state, and it has been measured by the affective content of the member's relationship with his or her organization (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1984; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The behavioral perspective, on the other hand, focuses on a person's commitment to specific patterns of behavior in their relationship with the organization (Becker, 1960). Foreman and Whetten's (2002) empirical findings demonstrated that identity congruence influenced members' relationships with their organizations at an attitudinal level.

A great deal of public relations research has examined activist publics from the perspective of target organizations. Some scholars have criticized research on activists from an outside-in perspective that emphasizes the point of view of target organizations, citing claims that this perspective prioritizes the interests of resource-rich organizations (e.g., Botan & Taylor, 2004; Dozier & Lauzen, 2000; Karlberg, 1996). Some public relations scholars have called for studies on activists from the perspective *of activists,* based on the self-perceived identities of activist organizations (e.g., Curtin & Gaither, 2006; Leitch & Davenport, 2006). Curtin and Gaither (2006), for example, emphasized an identity approach that helps "challenge more traditional segmentation approaches,

particularly in regard to the formation of activist publics" (p. 67). The present study adopts an outside latent public's assessment of different activist organizations' identity-related crises by focusing on the discrepancy between the avowed identity and ascribed identity.

Much effort has been made to define the concept of identity in diverse sub-fields of public relations, namely intercultural public relations (Choi & Cameron, 2005; Sha, 2006), activism (Henderson, 2005), and research on publics (Leitch & Neilson, 2001). Aldoory and Sha (2006) described the identity of an activist group as a dual role: (1) publics to the target organization (the role of "public") and (2) organizations with a need to build and maintain relationships with their own publics (the role of "public communicator") (p. 352). From an intercultural perspective, Sha (2006) distinguished cultural identities as either avowed or ascribed, as originally proposed by Collier (1994).

According to Sha (2006), the avowed identity is related to the fundamental values and beliefs about a certain cause with which the organization identifies. The ascribed identity, on the other hand, is assigned by another entity and may be different from the person's avowed identity (Sha, 2006). Hetcht et al. (1993) identified avowed identity as being "internally defined" while ascribed identity is "externally imposed." These avowed and ascribed identities could be successfully applied to the examination of identities of activists. For example, an activist organization whose mission is to protect orphaned and disabled children is ostensibly committed to fundamental values and beliefs about child welfare. However, this avowed identity of the organization may not be the same as the one assigned by its target organizations, another organization, and the media. It is

possible that the assigned identify of the organization may be seen as simply radical or violent, for example, which is counter to the avowed identity of the organization.

Previous research on activism has mainly examined the encounters between corporations and public interest groups (Anderson, 1992), usually focusing on each side's incompatible strategy for dealing with conflict (Murphy & Dee, 1996; Werder, 2006). By taking a conflict management perspective based on contingency theory, this study analyzes an identity crisis between two activist organizations whose fundamental values are the same, but may have conflicting paradigms for conflict resolution. Thus, this study contributes to the activism literature by reflecting the reality of activist organizations engaging in "healthy, honest conflict" (Cameron et al., 2008, pp. 35-36) with others and competing with others for the same resources.

CHAPTER 3

HYPOTHESES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Although Jiang and Ni (2007) explored relationships among identities, goals, and public relations practices of activist organizations, little attention has been paid to perceived ascribed identity of activists from the outside latent public's perspective. This study takes a new approach by investigating the role of unmatched ascribed identity perceived by the outside latent public as a situational factor that may have an impact on threat appraisal at cognitive, affective, and conative levels, as well as attitudes and behavioral intention, based on the threat appraisal model and contingency theory. As Roper (2005) emphasized, the importance of the fit between identities and an organization's values for its strategic positioning, or perceived ascribed identity by the outside latent public, may play a critical role in assessing an activist group's threat appraisal at cognitive, affective, and conative levels, as well as the public's attitudes and behavioral intention regarding the activist group.

This study assumes that the outside latent public's perception of ascribed identity of an activist organization can serve as a threat when the ascribed identity is not congruent with the avowed identity in a crisis situation. In other words, an activist organization whose ascribed identity is unmatched with the avowed identity would be perceived as under threat, compared to an activist organization whose ascribed identity is matched with its avowed identity in a crisis situation. Based on Jin and Cameron's (2007) explanation on the consequences of external threat in their threat appraisal model, the unmatched ascribed identity can situate the activist organization under the power of

publics (i.e., organization's high perceived demands of threats) and reduce capacity for the organization to control and maneuver its resources due to the tension between the internal management and external constraints, as well as the potential uncontrollable and uncertain responses from the publics. Addressing the perceived power relationship between an organization and the public, Jin and Cameron (2007) suggested that "when an organization is exposed to external threats such as damaging publicity and activists' hostile claims, it is at least partially under the power of the given external public" (p. 273). Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypothesis is proposed regarding perceived situational demands as a function of ascribed identity:

> **H1a**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

When an organization has to deal with an external threat, its public relations practitioners are likely to expect more organizational resources, such as timely responses, financial support, human resources in crisis-handling knowledge, and managerial support from the top decision makers of the organization, to buttress the public relations strategies and tactics in order to more efficiently manage the organization–external public relationship, given its uncontrollable and uncertain situational factors (Cancel et al., 1997). Because an unmatched ascribed identity represents an external threat, the following hypothesis is proposed regarding the outside latent public's perception of organizational resources as a function of ascribed identity:

H1b: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

According to Jin and Cameron (2007), external and long-term threats are more likely than internal and short-term threats to elicit more negative feelings due to the risk of "losing face," as well as more intense feelings due to public relations practitioners' perceptions of the higher anxiety and agitation in a given situation. In particular, the nature of external threats is closely associated with an organization's image and reputation. External threats such as damaging publicity and activists' harmful claims towards the organization can damage the organization's face, image, and reputation (Jin & Cameron, 2007). An identity ascribed by others that is not congruent with the organization's avowed identity can serve as an external threat due to the high pressure and urgency perceived by public relations practitioners. Thus, the outside latent public can expect public relations practitioners to have more negative and intense feelings when their organization faces identity threats regarding an unmatched ascribed identity. Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding affective responses to threats as a function of ascribed identity:

H1c: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

H1d: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

According to Reber and Cameron (2003), external threats take place in an organization's external environment and might influence organizational leaders' willingness to participate in dialogue to resolve conflict with an external public. Given the uncontrollable external nature of identity threats posed by an activist organization with opposing values, a crisis based on an unmatched ascribed identity represents an external threat. When threats are external, an organization tends to have weak control over the crisis because external threats place public relations practitioners under intense pressure and present an urgent need to handle external publics involved in a given threat situation.

Although Jin and Cameron (2007) found public relations practitioners taking more action-based accommodations (AA) and qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA), when facing long-term threats and external threats respectively, a more advocative stance can be expected when an activist organization deals with an identity attack posed by another activist organization as an external threat. Studies in the field of management suggest that a discrepancy between an organization's ideal identity and its current identity or image can be a motivating factor to improve or otherwise change their organization so that it aligns more closely with its ideal identity (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991; Reger, Gustafson, DeMarie, & Mullane, 1994; Senge, 1990). Because the sense of identity that activist organizations achieve is a critical value of commitment to their missions, an identity attack can make the organization take a defensive action in order to retain the sense of the organization's avowed identity, reducing a discrepancy between the avowed identity and ascribed identity.

Derville (2005) proposed the concept of identity building as a set of tactics that radical activist organizations use to achieve their goals. “By acting out against the enemy, activist organizations declare themselves winners even when no social territory is gained because of member fulfillment” (Derville, 2005, p. 530). Gregg (1971) suggested that the symbolic enemy construction develops a strong connection among members, which in turn, helps members strengthen their new identities. According to Gamson (1992), preexisting, strong friendships are particularly essential when activist organizations take serious risks. An activist organization can be more accommodating if there is support for its avowed identity when managing a crisis situation. Thus, an accommodative stance is more likely to be expected when an activist organization faces no identity threat than when an identity threat is present at a given crisis situation. In other words, an activist organization can counter-attack when another activist organization employs an identity threat by emphasizing the hypocrisy of the target activist organization. Employing Jin and Cameron’s (2006) scales for organizational stance based on the two factors of action-based accommodations and qualified-rhetoric mixed accommodations, the following hypotheses are proposed:

> **H1e**: Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity.
>
> **H1f**: Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when

faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity.

Foreman and Whetten (2002) examined the impact of identity congruence on the construct of organizational commitment, which has either of two main categories: attitudinal and behavioral. They found that organizational identity congruence has a significant effect on members' relationships with their organizations (affective commitment), "supporting the contention that members make a cognitive comparison between current and ideal identities, and this comparison influences their attitudes toward their organization" (p. 627). Their conceptualization of current identity (beliefs about the existing character of the organization), ideal identity (beliefs about what is desirable, informed by the member's sense of self), and identity gap (the cognitive distance between the current and ideal identity claims) can be compared with this study's concepts of ascribed identity, avowed identity, and identity incongruence (whether the ascribed identity is matched or unmatched with the avowed identity). Although this study examines the assessment by the outside latent public of identity threats rather than members of organizational identification, the congruence between the avowed identity and ascribed identity is expected to have positive effects on attitudes toward the activist organization. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1g: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will have more negative attitudes toward the activist organization than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

Attitudinal constructs such as organizational commitment have been found to be correlated with behaviors in organizations (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen,

1997). Therefore, it can be expected that a member's identity comparisons between current identity and ideal identity influence his or her behavior. In this sense, for the outside latent public, the following hypothesis is proposed as a function of the ascribed identity on behavioral intention:

H1h: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will be less likely to intend to join a member of the activist group than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

In order to enhance conceptualization and identification of activists, this study proposes a typology of activists based on the levels of anger and efficacy. Anger motivates individuals to regain or maintain control of a threatening situation (Pfau et al., 2001). Therefore, participants would expect an activist organization to perceive higher situational demands and more required organizational resources when the organization's anger level is high than low, because angry activist organizations are expected to be willing to take control of a situation and solve the problem at hand (e.g., Lazarus, 1991; Turner, 2007). Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are suggested regarding levels of anger:

H2a: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to low anger.

H2b: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to low anger.

Anger is a relatively unpleasant feeling (Izard, 1977) due to its potential negative characteristics. According to the Izard study (1972), the pattern of emotions in the imaged anger situation was dominated by what has been termed the hostility triad, anger-

disgust-contempt. The mean for the anger condition was found to be greater than that of any other key emotion in the situations for negative emotions (i.e., disgust, contempt, interest, surprise, distress, and fear). People tend to feel stronger and to be more energetic when their anger level is greater (Izard, 1977). Thus, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are suggested regarding levels of anger:

H2c: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to low anger.

H2d: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to low anger.

Previous contingency research has not specified the directionality of the relationship between an organization's anger level and an organization's stance from an outside latent public's perspective. However, given the nature of anger that helps fulfill self-defense survival needs by motivating energy and directing mental and physical activities (Estés, 1992; Izard, 1991; Thomas, 1993), it is expected that high anger can lead to a more advocative stance rather than an accommodative stance. Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are suggested regarding levels of anger:

H2e: Participants exposed to low anger will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high anger.

H2f: Participants exposed to low anger will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high anger.

Turner's (2007) Anger Activism Model assumes that anger can facilitate persuasion if the audience is already favorable. In other words, if the audience already has a positive attitude toward the topic/recommended response, angry feelings should strengthen their attitudes and intentions to engage in activities that are typically regarded as difficult to perform (Turner, 2007). Therefore, this study attempts to demonstrate the relationship between anger levels and attitudes toward the activist organization and behavioral intention to become a member of the activist organization, after controlling for prior attitudes toward the activist organization. Thus, for the outside latent public, the following research questions are proposed regarding levels of anger:

RQ1: What is the relationship between anger levels and attitudes toward the activist organization?

RQ2: What is the relationship between anger levels and intention to become a member of the activist organization?

Perceptions of efficacy are expected to reduce the uncertainty aspect of a given situation and to enhance the ability to efficiently handle a threat in a crisis situation by utilizing alternative ways of guaranteeing resources (Jin & Cameron, 2007). Given the impact of efficacy on pursuing actions (Bandura, 1982, 1997), it is expected that participants attribute higher situational demands and more organizational resources to the organization that appears to be incapable of doing something to improve the current situation. Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are suggested regarding levels of efficacy:

H3a: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to high efficacy.

H3b: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to high efficacy.

No research has examined the link between efficacy and the outside latent public's expectations of the organization's feelings in a given crisis situation. According to Bandura (1982, 1997), self-efficacy can influence thought patterns, actions, and emotional arousal. Thus, for the outside latent public, the following research questions are suggested regarding levels of efficacy:

RQ3: What is the relationship between efficacy levels and participants' assessment of the negativity of the organization's feelings?

RQ4: What is the relationship between efficacy levels and participants' assessment of the intensity of the organization's feelings?

Although no previous contingency research has examined the association between an organization's efficacy level and an organization's stance from an outside latent public's perspective, efficacy is expected to motivate organizations to defend themselves when managing a crisis situation because of the positive link between efficacy and motivation to act (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are suggested regarding levels of efficacy:

H3e: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high efficacy.

H3f: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high efficacy.

According to Strong, Anderson, and Dubas (1993), the efficacy of dealing with threats and related alternative options (key indicators of organizational resources) is an important belief that influences the outcome of an organization's attitude toward the threats. Given the definition of self-efficacy as one's expectations of coping effectively with stressful situations based on perceived capability (Bandura, 1982, 1997), the stronger the sense of efficacy perceived by the outside latent public, the more active are expected efforts to manage threats, which would eventually elicit positive attitudes and increased behavioral intention aligning with the group's recommendations. Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding levels of efficacy:

H3g: Participants exposed to low efficacy will have more negative attitudes toward the activist organization than those exposed to high efficacy.

H3h: Participants exposed to low efficacy will be less likely to intend to join a member of the activist organization than those exposed to high efficacy.

This study explores the relationship between levels of anger and efficacy as the two primary criteria in Turner's (2007) Anger Activism Model. As suggested by previous research (Lazarus, 1991, Pfau et al., 2001, Turner, 2007), anger can elicit a motivation to regain or maintain control of a threatening or stressful situation. Previous studies have indicated that anger can satisfy people's self-defense survival needs by motivating individuals to perform a desired task and by managing mental and physical activities (Estés, 1992; Izard, 1991; Thomas, 1993). Thus, activist organizations whose anger levels are higher are expected to need higher situational demands and more required organizations resources compared to those with lower anger levels. Perceptions of high

efficacy are associated with efficient management for the organization-environment relationship in a given crisis situation. Perceptions of low efficacy, on the other hand, are related to low perceived capability for dealing with threatening situations, which requires higher situational demands. Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding levels of anger and efficacy:

H4a: Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

H4b: Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

According to Benoit (1995), communication is regarded as a "goal-directed activity" (p. 63) and is designed both to maintain a positive reputation and to repair a damaged image after a crisis. The combination of high anger and high efficacy, which has the strongest potential for an activist organization to achieve its mission (Turner, 2007), is expected to elicit experience more negative feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy at a given crisis situation regarding the organization's face, image, and reputation. Therefore, the outside latent public can expect public relations practitioners to have negative and intense feelings as a function of high levels of anger and efficacy. Thus, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding affective responses as a function of high levels of anger and efficacy:

H4c: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the activist organization to have more negative feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

H4d: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the activist organization to have more intense feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

The combination of high anger and high efficacy is expected to strengthen the organization in terms of its willingness to engage in higher commitment behaviors for its mission (Turner, 2007). Thus, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding predicting an organization's stance as a function of high levels of anger and efficacy:

H4e: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to take a less action-based accommodative stance than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

H4f: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to take a less qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

Turner and colleagues (2006) found that the combination of high efficacy and high anger messages yielded the most positive attitudes and positive intentions to do something about the problem. Moreover, anger intensity interacts with perceptions of efficacy to influence persuasive outcomes (Turner, 2007). Therefore, for the outside latent public, the following hypotheses are suggested regarding high levels of anger and efficacy:

H4g: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will be more likely to have positive attitudes toward the activist organization than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

H4h: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will be more likely to express intention to become a member of the activist organization than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

Finally, no study at present has addressed anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity in tandem. A further exploration of the interaction of these factors will contribute to the body of research in conflict management in public relations. Thus, the following research questions are proposed:

RQ5a: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on situational demands?

RQ5b: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on organizational resources?

RQ5c: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on affective valence?

RQ5d: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on affective arousal?

RQ5e: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on action-based accommodations (AA)?

RQ5f: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA)?

RQ5g: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on attitudes toward the activist organization?

RQ5h: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on intention to become a member of the activist organization?

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Design

A 2 (anger: high vs. low) x 2 (efficacy: high vs. low) x 2 (ascribed identity: matched vs. unmatched with avowed identity) mixed factorial design with anger and efficacy as between-subjects variables and ascribed identity as a within-subjects variable was employed. Dependent variables included cognitive threat appraisal (situational demands and organizational resources), affective threat appraisal (emotional valence and emotional arousal), organization's stance (action-based accommodations and qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations), attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization.

Turner et al. (2006) used a 2 x 2 between-subjects design to examine the impact of different levels of anger and efficacy on attitudes and behavioral intentions. The reason for using ascribed identity as a within-subjects factor is that within-subjects designs are more sensitive than between-subjects design in detecting significant differences caused by predictors on criterion variables. Removing variance due to differences between subjects from error variance greatly increases the power of significance tests. Thus, within-subjects designs are almost always more powerful than between-subjects designs. Since power is an important consideration in an experimental design, within-subjects designs are generally preferred to between-subjects designs. For this reason, a within-subjects factor as well as between-subjects factors were included in this study.

In order to control for natural variation between messages, four messages featuring four existing activist organizations were employed in order to avoid a single message design. The use of a single message to represent a level of a factor means that any difference between one issue and another is due to individual differences of the particular messages not to genuine categorical differences (Reeves & Geiger, 1994). If participants are exposed to multiple messages, each containing some uncontrolled differences as well as the controlled manipulation, variance between messages will become random errors, which is less damaging to internal validity than systematic errors (Grabe & Westley, 2003). In terms of how many messages participants should be exposed to, two multiple messages should be appropriate in order to avoid fatigue and boredom. Therefore, each participant was exposed to two of the four total messages.

The order of manipulated messages was counterbalanced across participants. Each participant was exposed to one of 24 randomly-assigned orders to control for order effects. Given the repeated measures design, 12 combinations consisted of the matched ascribed identity condition in the first story and the unmatched ascribed identity condition in the second story. The other 12 combinations, conversely, included the unmatched ascribed identity condition in the first story and the matched ascribed identity condition in the second story.

Stimulus Materials

Four existing activist organizations as a pool of stories were employed: People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA), Zoe's Ark, Keep America Beautiful, and Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD). With more than 2 million members and supporters, PETA is the largest animal rights organization in the world (PETA, n.d.).

Zoe's Ark is a French organization working to protect orphans as victims of violence in the Darfur region of western Sudan (Profile: Zoe's Ark, 2007). Keep America Beautiful is an environmental organization that runs through a national grassroots network of almost 600 affiliates and over 1,000 participating organizations, forming the largest community improvement organization in the United States. (Keep America Beautiful, n.d.). A grassroots organization since 1980 (MADD, n.d.), MADD is committed to stopping drunk driving, supporting the victims of this violent crime, and preventing underage drinking.

Given that previous studies examined activist groups in categories of environmental issues (e.g., Anderson, 1992; Derville, 2005; Murphy & Dee, 1992; Reber & Berger, 2005), animal protection (e.g., Derville, 2005; Werder, 2006), and a wide range of social issues including child labor and child abuse (e.g., Zoch, Collins, Sisco, & Supa, 2008), the four selected organizations reflect four popular issues (i.e., animal rights, environment protection, child welfare, and anti-drinking-and-driving). These four organizations served as the message repetition factor, which could contribute to reducing the threats to internal validity. Moreover, the use of real cases of activism can better reflect the reality of conflict among activist organizations than using fictitious organizations.

The levels of anger (high vs. low), efficacy (high vs. low), and ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched with avowed identity) first were verified in a pilot study. Because four different activist organizations were employed in this study, a total of 32 stimulus stories were created for the final study (see Appendix C). All stimulus messages, written in the form of a news story including a headline, were authored by a journalism

doctoral student with extensive news writing experience. The length, writing style, and number of quotations were held similar for all stories, with the exception of paragraphs manipulated for each treatment. All stories began with a description of an activist organization accused of funding mismanagement as a potential crisis to the organization, followed by either coverage of the organization's additional allegations involved with the organization's mission (i.e., unmatched ascribed identity with avowed identity) or coverage of being supported by another activist group regarding the organization's mission (i.e., matched ascribed identity with avowed identity).

The levels of anger were operationalized as the described degree of activist organizations' angry feelings toward the target issue. High levels of anger were described in a way that an activist organization is upset with the current situation regarding its target issue. Low levels of anger were described in a way that an activist organization is relatively pleased with conditions and public behaviors regarding its target issue as an attempt to eliminate the organization's explicit anger; the stories in the low levels of anger did not portray angry feelings by the activist organization, although these organizations, by nature, may have at least minimal anger levels that can be unexpressed.

The levels of efficacy were operationalized as the described degree of the confidence that an activist organization believes in terms of its ability to change society. High levels of efficacy were conveyed in a way that an activist organization strongly believes that it can change society to pursue its goals with enough resources. Low levels of efficacy were portrayed in a way that an activist organization is challenged in its ability to make a big difference due to limited resources.

The ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched with avowed identity) was operationalized as whether there are discrepancies between an activist organization's self-identity that reflects its mission and the way the activist organization has been portrayed by another organization. Matched ascribed identity was conveyed in a way that an activist organization was referred to as the organization that has been committed to its mission for a long time. Unmatched ascribed identity was described in a way that an activist organization was criticized by another activist organization due to alleged hypocritical behavior that betrays its mission (see Table 2 summarizing the stimulus messages).

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to ensure valid manipulation of the stimulus messages in terms of anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity, as well as to test the procedure for the main experiment. Pilot study participants were exposed to two stories (one for matched ascribed identity and one for unmatched ascribed identity) in each of the four different conditions (high anger and high efficacy, high anger and low efficacy, low anger and high efficacy, low anger and low efficacy).

Thirty-four students at a large Midwestern university and six non-students from the same geographic area participated in the pilot study. Among the participants, 62.5% were females and 37.5% were males and their mean age was 26. The majority of the participants were Caucasian (77.5%) followed by Hispanic (7.5%), Asian (5%), African American (2.5%), and 7.5% listed their race/ethnicity as "other". Individuals who participated in this study, which was advertised via a university mass email message, were given a $10 pizza gift card for their participation, while students recruited from

three large undergraduate journalism classes were given an incentive of extra credit for their participation.

When participants arrived at the computer laboratory, they were greeted, told the nature of the study, and asked to follow three URLs sent via email: one link to an electronic informed consent form and questions about demographic information and two URLs that presented two sets of news stories, manipulation check questions, and criterion variable questions for two organizations each (see Appendix B). Participants were asked to follow these three URLs in order from first to last (i.e., first consent/demographics, then the first treatment, then the second treatment). Finally, participants were debriefed and thanked.

Analysis of the manipulation check data through a series of ANOVA tests confirmed that all three manipulations were successful (see Table 3). For ascribed identity, two manipulation items were analyzed by repeated measures ANOVA. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity rated a discrepancy between the avowed mission and ascribed identity significantly higher ($M = 5.85$, $SE = .21$) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity ($M = 3.53$, $SE = .35$), $F(1, 39) = 28.23$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .420$. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity rated the organization's behavior as being unmatched with its avowed mission significantly higher ($M = 5.20$, $SE = .28$) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity ($M = 4.23$, $SE = .31$), $F(1, 39) = 5.96$, $p = .019$, $\eta_p^2 = .132$.

As for anger levels, participants exposed to high anger rated angry feelings significantly higher ($M = 5.37$, $SE = .21$) than those exposed to low anger ($M = 2.56$, $SE = .21$), $F(1, 38) = 92.79$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .709$. Regarding efficacy levels, two manipulation

items were analyzed. Participants exposed to high efficacy rated the organization's confident feelings significantly higher (M = 5.40, SE = .32) than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 3.80, SE = .32), $F(1, 38) = 12.55$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .248$. Participants exposed to high efficacy rated the easiness for the organization to advocate its mission higher (M = 4.10, SE = .34) than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 3.63, SE = .34). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant, $F(1, 38) = .97$, $p = ns$.

Procedure

Upon arrival at the computer laboratory, participants were greeted and told that they would complete three URLs; the first URL linked to an electronic informed consent form and demographic questions, and the second and the third URLs linked to news stories and related questions. Each participant subsequently received an email that included the three URLs. The electronic informed consent form notified individuals of their rights as a research participant. When participants clicked the first link, they were requested to read a consent form. If the participant agreed on the study purpose and procedure, he or she would proceed with the online study. Directly following informed consent, participants were asked to answer questions about issue involvement, familiarity with the activist organizations in the study, and prior attitudes towards the organization, as well as a set of demographic questions.

Once the participant completed the first URL, he or she clicked the second URL, which led them to an online news story, manipulation check questions, and questions to measure criterion variables. Once the participant finished with the second URL, he or she clicked the third URL, which linked to a similar news story, manipulation check questions, and criterion questions, except for a different activist organization (see

Appendix D). Finally, participants were debriefed about the study and thanked for their participation.

Participants

Study participants were 150 students enrolled at a large Midwestern university, and 5 non-students from the same geographical area. Participants were recruited by advertising this study via a university mass email list with an incentive of a 10 dollar pizza gift card and from three large undergraduate journalism classes with an incentive of extra course credit. Basil (1996) argued that college students are a relevant sample for examining a hypothesized relationship among variables, as in this study. According to Basil, Brown, and Bocamea (2002), the use of college student samples can be justified when the study is designed to test theoretically-derived multivariate relationships. In other words, the cognitive and affective skills necessary to assess activist organizations' threat appraisal, attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization, based on the perception of the organization's anger levels, efficacy levels, and ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched with avowed identity), may be similar among various segments of the population.

Of the participants, 71.6% were females and 28.4% were males. The mean age was 21. The majority of the participants were Caucasian (83.9%) followed by African American (4.5%), Hispanic (3.9%), Asian (3.8%), Native American (1.3%) and 2.6% listed their race/ethnicity as "other".

Measurement

Independent variables. The validity of independent variable manipulations were tested by ANOVA in both the pilot study and a manipulation check in the main study.

For the levels of anger, Turner et al.'s (2006) four manipulation check items were employed. The manipulation items were constructed using a set of four separate adjectives including angry, mad, enraged, and furious, measured on a 7-point scale, where "1 = *not at all angry*, and 7 = *extremely angry*," "1 = *not at all mad*, and 7 = *extremely mad*," "1 = *not at all enraged*, and 7 = *extremely enraged*," and "1 = *not at all furious*, and 7 = *extremely furious*." The four scale items were averaged to create an anger index. The reliability score for these items was .97.

For the levels of efficacy, two manipulation check items were employed. The manipulation items consisted of two types of questions: (1) "How confident was [name of an activist organization] of its ability to change the current situation in terms of [the organization's target issue: animal protection, child welfare, environmental protection, and protecting young drivers]," using a 7-point scale, where "1 = *not at all confident*, and 7 = *extremely confident*" and (2) "How easy would it be for [name of an activist organization] to advocate its mission," using a 7-point scale, where "1 = *not at all easy*, and 7 = *extremely easy*."

For the ascribed identity, two manipulation check items were employed: (1) "there was a discrepancy between [name of an activist organization]'s mission and the way [name of an activist organization] has been portrayed by [name of the other activist organization]" and (2) "[name of an activist organization]'s behavior matched its avowed mission," using a 7-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*. The second item was reverse-coded for a manipulation check analysis.

Dependent variables. Eight sets of dependent variables were employed to measure situational demands, organizational resources, emotional valence, emotional

arousal, action-based accommodations, qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations, attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization.

Cognitive threat appraisal: Situational demands and organizational resources. Situational demands were measured with five items based on Jin and Cameron's (2007) cognitive threat appraisal scale: (1) "This crisis situation would be difficult for [name of an activist organization] to deal with," (2) "This crisis situation would last a long time," (3) "This crisis situation is very severe to [name of an activist organization]," (4) "[name of an activist organization] would not be certain about how to deal with this crisis situation," and (5) "[name of an activist organization] has not encountered a similar crisis situation such as that described." Responses were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. The five items were averaged to create a situational demands index. The reliability score for these items was .79.

Organizational resources were measured with four items based on Jin and Cameron's (2007) cognitive threat appraisal scale: (1) "Considerable knowledge would be needed for [name of an activist organization] to deal with this crisis situation," (2) "It would be very time consuming for [name of an activist organization] to respond to this crisis situation," (3) "A lot of financial support will be necessary for [name of an activist organization] to deal with this crisis situation," and (4) "It will be critical for top management of [name of an activist organization] to be supportive of public relations practitioners on how to deal with this crisis situation." Responses were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*." The four

items were averaged to create an organizational resources index. The reliability score for these items was .73.

Affective threat appraisal: Valence and arousal. Valence was measured with three items based on Jin and Cameron's (2007) affective threat appraisal scale, including the likelihood of feeling "unhappy," "annoyed," and "unsatisfied." Responses to "How likely do you think [name of an activist organization] would feel in the situation described above?" were measured on a 7-point Likert scale where "1 = *very unlikely*, and 7 = *very likely*." The reliability score for these items was .88.

Arousal was measured as the likelihood of feeling "alarmed," "agitated," and "aroused." Responses to "How likely do you think [name of an activist organization] would feel in the situation described above?" was measured on a 7-point Likert scale where "1 = *very unlikely*, and 7 = *very likely*." The three items were averaged to create an arousal index. The reliability score for these items was .71.

Organization's stance: Action-based accommodations (AA) and qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA). AA was measured with five items based on Jin and Cameron's (2006) stance measurement inventory (see Table 4): (1) "To yield to the public's demands," (2) "To agree to follow what the public proposed," (3) "To accept the publics' propositions," (4) "To agree with the public on future action or procedure," and (5) "To agree to try the solutions suggested by the public." Responses to willingness to carry out the stated activities concerning the situation were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*." The four items were averaged to create an AA index. The reliability score for these items was .95.

Five items measured QRA, including (1) "To express regret or apologize to the public," (2) "To collaborate with the public in order to solve the problem at hand," (3) "To change my own position toward that of the public," (4) "To make concessions with the public," and (5) "To admit wrongdoing." Responses to willingness to carry out the stated activities concerning the situation were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*." The three items were averaged to create a QRA index. The reliability score for these items was .78.

Attitudes toward the activist organization. Following Holbrook and Batra's (1987) attitude scale ($\alpha = .98$ in the original article), which is the most frequently used multi-dimensional attitude scale, attitudes toward the activist organization were measured with four 7-point semantic differential items anchored by the following pairs: Unfavorable/Favorable, Bad/Good, Dislike/Like, and Negative/Positive. The reliability score for these items was .98.

Intention to become a member of the activist organization. Following Mackenzie, Lutz, and Belch's (1986) measure of purchase intention ($\alpha = .88$ in the original article), intention to become a member of an activist organization was measured with three 7-point semantic differential items anchored by the following pairs: Unlikely/Likely, Impossible/Possible, and Improbable/Probable. The three items were averaged to create an intention index. The reliability score for these items was .92.

Covariates. Each participant answered questions measuring covariates for two organizations out of the four organizations as a story pool; the two organizations corresponded to those that the participant read stories about in the experiment. Familiarity with the organization, prior attitudes toward the activist organization, and

issue involvement were measured as covariates. Familiarity with the organization was measured using one 7-point Likert item where "1 = *not at all familiar* and 7 = *extremely familiar*": "How familiar are you with [name of the organization]?" Prior attitudes toward the activist organization were measured with four items based on Holbrook and Batra's (1987) attitude scale: 7-point semantic differential items were anchored by the following pairs: Unfavorable/Favorable, Bad/Good, Dislike/Like, and Negative/Positive. The reliability score for these items was .98. For issue involvement, Nathan, Heath, and Douglas' (1992) scale was employed using two 7-point Likert items where "1 = *strongly disagree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*": (1) "[Name of the issue] has affected me personally" and (2) "[Name of the issue] will affect me personally in the future." An issue involvement scale was computed by averaging responses to the two questions. The reliability score for these items was .88.

Data Analysis

The hypotheses and research questions testing dependent variables were initially analyzed by using repeated measures ANCOVA. ANCOVA is similar to ANOVA, but allows a researcher to control for the effects of supplementary continuous independent variables, which are covariates. Three control variables of familiarity with the organization, prior attitudes toward the activist organization, and issue involvement were considered to account for potential influences on the dependent variables. In general, it is preferable to have a small number of covariates that are correlated with the dependent variable but not correlated with each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Of these three control variables, only the covariate or covariates that were correlated with each dependent variable were selected for ANCOVA. If there was no significant relationship

between a covariate and a dependent variable, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted. No substantial correlations were found among covariates. Although two correlations were significant, they were low in magnitude; these correlations were between familiarity and issue involvement ($r < .13$, $p = .023$) and between familiarity and prior attitudes ($r < .18$, $p = .002$). Because it is desirable to have a small set of covariates to avoid collinearity problems instead of using multiple covariates that are correlated with each other, each of the three covariates that was correlated with each dependent variable was analyzed separately.

The repeated measures ANCOVA and ANOVA were used for a 2 x 2 x 2 mixed factorial design analysis because the participants received both of the two levels of the within-subjects factor (ascribed identity: matched vs. unmatched with avowed identity). A series of ANCOVA and ANOVA with anger level (high vs. low), efficacy level (high vs. low), and ascribed identity (matched vs. unmatched with avowed identity) as the independent variables were run on different dependent variables to address the hypotheses and research questions. Anger and efficacy were manipulated as between-subjects factors. The eight dependent variables included situational demands, organizational resources, valence, arousal, action-based accommodations, qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations, attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization.

When the sample sizes are larger than 80, the threshold value of *z* scores ranges from 3 to 4 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Five outliers for some of the dependent variables (i.e., four outliers in the intention measure and one outlier in the emotional valence measure) in the unmatched ascribed identity condition were identified

with the criterion of *z* scores in excess of 3.5. Although these outliers were found to be extreme scores, "cases with extreme scores, which are, nonetheless, apparently connected to the rest of the cases, are more likely to be a legitimate part of the sample" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 77). These five outliers were not deemed either a case of performance failure or non-performance; a certain number in these outliers may have occurred normally even in the outer ranges of the distribution. Thus, these outliers were allowed to remain for statistical analysis.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Manipulation Check

Analysis of the manipulation check data showed that all three manipulations achieved the desired effects (see Table 5). As for ascribed identity, two manipulation items were analyzed by repeated measures ANOVA. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity rated a discrepancy between the avowed mission and ascribed identity significantly higher (M = 6.04, SE = .11) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity (M = 2.63, SE = .15), $F(1, 154) = 325.73$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .679$. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity rated the organization's behavior being unmatched with its avowed mission significantly higher (M = 5.30, SE = .12) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity (M = 3.39, SE = .14), $F(1, 154) = 109.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .415$.

As for anger levels, participants exposed to high anger rated angry feelings significantly higher (M = 5.33, SE = .13) than those exposed to low anger (M = 3.22, SE = .13), $F(1, 153) = 134.59$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .468$.

As for efficacy levels, two manipulation items were analyzed. Participants exposed to high efficacy rated the organization's confident feelings significantly higher (M = 5.24, SE = .15) than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 3.68, SE = .14), $F(1, 153) = 58.67$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .277$. Participants exposed to high efficacy rated the easiness for the organization to advocate its mission significantly higher (M = 4.32, SE = .14) than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 3.52, SE = .13), $F(1, 153) = 17.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .104$.

Statistical Assumption Check

Prior to hypothesis testing, the data were examined for the assumptions of ANOVA: normality and homogeneity of variance. Two aspects of normality, skewness and kurtosis, were tested. When the data are normally distributed, the values of skewness and kurtosis are zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Ranges of skewness and kurtosis fell within plausible values. Overall, histograms with normal curve and Q-Q plots (see Figure 4-11) also confirmed normality. The homogeneity of variance assumption, which refers to variability in the dependent variable is expected to be about the same at all levels of the grouping variable (independent variable), was tested by the Levene's test. Reaching a significant value ($p < .05$) on the Levene's test means that there is heterogeneity of variance, but the test is very conservative. Levene's test results confirmed that variances for all but one dependent variable were homogeneous across all treatments (all $p > .05$). Only behavioral intention (i.e., to become a member of the activist organization) violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance ($p = .002$). Thus, the intention scores were transformed by the square root method. Levene's test after the transformation confirmed the homogeneity assumption ($p > .05$).

ANCOVA has the same assumptions as ANOVA, except that ANCOVA additionally assumes homogeneity of regression. Heterogeneity of regression indicates that there is an interaction between the independent variable(s) and the covariate(s). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), "If the IV(s) and CV(s) interact, the relationship between the CV(s) and the DV is different at different levels of the IV(s), and the CV adjustment that is needed for various cells is different" (p. 202). ANCOVA is inappropriate if the assumption of homogeneity of regression is not met (Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2007). The assumption of homogeneity of regression was met for three cases: emotional valence with issue involvement, intention to become a member of the activist organization with familiarity, and intention to become of a member of the activist organization with prior attitudes. Thus, ANCOVA results for these three cases are reported.

Hypothesis Testing

Situational demands.

H1a: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

H2a: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to low anger.

H3a: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to high efficacy.

H4a: Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In testing H1a, H2a, H3a, and H4a, ANOVA was used (See Table 6). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on situational demands. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity expected the organization to perceive higher situational demands ($M = 4.65$, $SE = .08$) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity ($M = 3.84$, $SE = .09$), $F(1, 151) = 58.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .279$. Therefore, H1a was supported. There was a significant main effect of anger on situational demands as well. Participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to perceive higher situational demands ($M = 4.65$, $SE = .10$) than those exposed to low anger ($M = 4.03$, $SE = .10$), $F(1, 151) = 9.62$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .060$. Thus, H2a was supported. Efficacy also had a significant main

effect on situational demands. Participants exposed to low efficacy (M = 4.40, SE = .10) expected the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to high efficacy (M = 4.09, SE = .10), $F(1, 151) = 5.04$, $p = .026$, $\eta_p^2 = .032$. Therefore, H3a was supported.

Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy expected the organization to perceive the highest situational demands (M = 4.68, SE = .14), followed by those exposed to high anger and high efficacy (M = 4.24, SE = .14), low anger and low efficacy (M = 4.12, SE = .14), and low anger and high efficacy (M = 3.94, SE = .14). Pairwise comparisons were run to determine statistically significant mean differences among combinations of anger and efficacy on situational demands. The mean difference was statistically significant between high anger and low efficacy (the highest mean), and high anger and high efficacy (the second highest mean), M_{diff} = .45, p = .026. Therefore, H4a was supported.

Organizational resources.

H1b: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

H2b: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to low anger.

H3b: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to high efficacy.

H4b: Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In testing H1b, H2b, H3b, and H4b, ANOVA was used (see Table 7). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on organizational resources. Participants

exposed to unmatched ascribed identity expected the organization to perceive more organizational resources (M = 4.93, SE = .09) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity (M = 4.33, SE = .09), $F(1, 151) = 28.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .159$. Therefore, H1b was supported. There was a significant main effect of anger on organizational resources as well. Participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to perceive more organizational resources (M = 4.85, SE = .10) than those exposed to low anger (M = 4.41, SE = .10), $F(1, 151) = 9.86$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .061$. Thus, H2b was supported. Efficacy also had a significant main effect on organizational resources. Participants exposed to low efficacy (M = 4.77, SE = .10) expected the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to high efficacy (M = 4.49, SE = .10), $F(1, 151) = 4.05$, $p = .046$, $\eta_p^2 = .026$. Therefore, H3b was supported.

Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy expected the organization to perceive the greatest organizational resources (M = 4.92, SE = .14), followed by those exposed to high anger and high efficacy (M = 4.77, SE = .14), low anger and low efficacy (M = 4.61, SE = .14), and low anger and high efficacy (M = 4.21, SE = .14). However, the mean difference between high anger and low efficacy (the highest mean), and high anger and high efficacy (the second highest mean) was not statistically significant (M_{diff} = .15, p = *ns*). Therefore, H4b was not supported.

Emotional valence.

H1c: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

H2c: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to low anger.

RQ3: What is the relationship between efficacy levels and participants' assessment of the negativity of the organization's feelings?

H4c: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In order to test H1c, H2c, RQ3, and H4c, ANCOVA was used (see Table 8). Issue involvement was used as a covariate. There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on emotional valence. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity expected the organization to have more negative feelings (M = 5.73, SE = .09) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity (M = 5.25, SE = .09), $F(1, 301) = 12.87$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .041$. Therefore, H1c was supported. There was a significant main effect of anger on emotional valence as well. Participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to have more negative feelings (M = 5.70, SE = .09) than those exposed to low anger (M = 5.27, SE = .09), $F(1, 301) = 10.53$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .034$. Thus, H2c was supported. As for RQ3, participants exposed to low efficacy (M = 5.56, SE = .09) expected the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to high efficacy (M = 5.42, SE = .10). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 301] = 1.05, $p = ns$).

Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy expected the organization to have the most negative feelings (M = 5.82, SE = .13), followed by those exposed to high anger and low efficacy (M = 5.59, SE = .13), low anger and low efficacy (M = 5.53, SE = .13), and low anger and high efficacy (M = 5.02, SE = .14). Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on emotional valence. However, the mean difference between high anger and high efficacy (the highest mean) and high anger and low efficacy (the second highest

mean) was not statistically significant (M_{diff} = .23, p = *ns*). Therefore, H4c was not supported.

The covariate, issue involvement, was significantly related to emotional valence $F(1, 301) = 7.79$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .025$. An additional ANOVA with issue involvement as an independent factor showed that participants who had low issue involvement ($M = 5.62$, $SE = .09$) expected the organization to have more negative feelings than those who had high issue involvement ($M = 5.34$, $SE = .11$), $F(1, 308) = 3.85$, $p = .051$, $\eta_p^2 = .012$.

Emotional arousal.

H1d: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

H2d: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to low anger.

RQ4: What is the relationship between efficacy levels and participants' assessment of the intensity of the organization's feelings?

H4d: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In order to test H1d, H2d, RQ4, and H4d, ANOVA was used (see Table 9). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on emotional arousal. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity expected the organization to have more intense feelings ($M = 4.99$, $SE = .10$) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity ($M = 4.56$, $SE = .10$), $F(1, 151) = 14.04$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .085$. Therefore, H1d was supported. There was a significant main effect of anger on emotional arousal as well. Participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to have more intense feelings ($M = 5.08$, $SE = .12$) than those exposed to low anger ($M = 4.47$, $SE = .12$), $F(1, 151) = 14.24$, $p < .001$,

η_p^2 = .086. Thus, H2d was supported. As for RQ4, participants exposed to high efficacy (M = 4.79, SE = .12) expected the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 4.76, SE = .11). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 151] = .03, p = *ns*).

Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy expected the organization to have the most intense feelings (M = 5.28, SE = .17), followed by those exposed to high anger and low efficacy (M = 4.89, SE = .16), low anger and low efficacy (M = 4.63, SE = .16), and low anger and high efficacy (M = 4.30, SE = .17). Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on emotional arousal. The mean difference between high anger and high efficacy (the highest mean) and high anger and low efficacy (the second highest mean) was not statistically significant (M_{diff} = .40, p = *ns*). Therefore, H4d was not supported.

Action-based accommodations (AA).

H1e: Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity.

H2e: Participants exposed to low anger will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high anger.

H3e: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high efficacy.

H4e: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to take a less accommodative stance than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In order to test H1e, H2e, H3e, and H4e, ANOVA was used (see Table 10). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on action-based accommodations (AA).

Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity expected the organization to take a more AA stance (M = 4.74, SE = .10) than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity (M = 3.48, SE = .12), $F(1, 151) = 81.38$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .350$. Therefore, H1e was supported. As for the effect of anger on AA, participants exposed to low anger expected the organization to take a more AA approach (M = 4.21, SE = .11) than those exposed to high anger (M = 4.01, SE = .11), $F(1, 151) = 1.62$, $p = ns$. However, the mean difference was not statistically significant. Thus, H2e was not supported. As for the effect of efficacy on AA, participants exposed to high efficacy (M = 4.11, SE = .12) expected the organization to take a more AA stance than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 4.10, SE = .11). However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 151] = .01$, $p = ns$). Thus, H3e was not supported.

Counter to expectations, participants exposed to low anger and high efficacy expected the organization to take the least AA stance (M = 3.88, SE = .17), followed by those exposed to high anger and low efficacy (M = 4.07, SE = .16), high anger and low efficacy (M = 4.13, SE = .16), and high anger and high efficacy (M = 4.35, SE = .16). Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on AA. The mean difference was statistically significant only between high anger and high efficacy (the highest mean) and low anger and high efficacy (the lowest mean), M_{diff} = .48, p = .041. Therefore, H4e was not supported.

Qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA).

H1f: Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity.

H2f: Participants exposed to low anger will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high anger.

H3f: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high efficacy.

H4f: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to take a less qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In order to test H1f, H2f, H3f, and H4f, ANOVA was used (see Table 11). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA). Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity expected the organization to take a more QRA stance ($M = 4.03$, $SE = .08$) than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity ($M = 3.33$, $SE = .11$), $F(1, 151) = 30.61$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .169$. Therefore, H1f was supported. As for the effect of anger on QRA, participants exposed to low anger expected the organization to take a more QRA approach ($M = 3.73$, $SE = .10$) than those exposed to high anger ($M = 3.64$, $SE = .10$), $F(1, 151) = .47$, $p = ns$. However, the mean difference was not statistically significant. Thus, H2f was not supported. As for the effect of efficacy on QRA, contrary to the predicted relationship, participants exposed to high efficacy ($M = 3.70$, $SE = .10$) expected the organization to take a more QRA stance than those exposed to low efficacy ($M = 3.67$, $SE = .10$). However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 151] = .04$, $p = ns$). Thus, H3f was not supported.

Despite expectations, participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy expected the organization to take the least QRA stance ($M = 3.54$, $SE = .14$), followed by those exposed to low anger and high efficacy ($M = 3.67$, $SE = .15$), high anger and high efficacy ($M = 3.73$, $SE = .14$), and low anger and low efficacy ($M = 3.80$, $SE = .14$).

Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on QRA. However, the mean differences among these four combinations were not statistically significant (all $p > .10$). Therefore, H4f was not supported.

Attitudes toward the activist organization.

H1g: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will have more negative attitudes toward the activist organization than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

RQ1: What is the relationship between anger levels and attitudes toward the activist organization?

H3g: Participants exposed to low efficacy will have more negative attitudes toward the activist organization than those exposed to high efficacy.

H4g: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will be more likely to have positive attitudes toward the activist organization than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In order to test H1g, RQ1, H3g, and H4f, ANOVA was used (see Table 12). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on attitudes toward the activist organization. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity reported more negative attitudes toward the activist organization ($M = 4.93$, $SE = .14$) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity ($M = 3.50$, $SE = .12$), $F(1, 151) = 64.64$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .300$. Therefore, H1g was supported. As for RQ1, the effect of anger on attitudes toward the activist organization, participants exposed to high anger reported more negative attitudes ($M = 4.36$, $SE = .13$) than those exposed to low anger ($M = 4.07$, $SE = .13$). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 151] = 2.25$, $p = ns$). As for the effect of efficacy on attitudes toward the activist organization, participants exposed to low efficacy ($M = 4.27$, $SE = .13$) perceived more negative attitudes than those exposed

to high efficacy (M = 4.16, SE = .14). However, the difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 151] = .37, p = *ns*). Thus, H3g was not supported.

Despite expectations, participants exposed to low anger and high efficacy perceived the least negative attitudes (M = 3.97, SE = .19), followed by those exposed to low anger and low efficacy (M = 4.18, SE = .18), high anger and high efficacy (M = 4.35, SE = .19), and high anger and low efficacy (M = 4.37, SE = .19). Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on attitudes toward the activist organization. However, the mean differences among these four combinations were not statistically significant (all p > .10). Therefore, H4g was not supported.

Intention to become a member of the activist organization.

H1h: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will be less likely to intend to join a member of the activist organization than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.

RQ2: What is the relationship between anger levels and intention to become a member of the activist organization?

H3h: Participants exposed to low efficacy will be less likely to intend to join a member of the activist organization than those exposed to high efficacy.

H4h: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will be more likely to express intention to become a member of the activist organization than any other combination of anger and efficacy.

In order to test H1h, RQ2, H3h, and H4h, ANCOVA was used (see Table 13). Familiarity was used as a covariate. There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on intention to become a member of the activist organization. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity were less likely to express intention to join the activist organization (M = 1.41, SE = .04) than those exposed to matched ascribed

identity (M = 1.74, SE = .04), $F(1, 301) = 41.67$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .122$. Therefore, H1h was supported. As for RQ2, the effect of anger on intention, participants exposed to high anger reported less intention to join the activist organization (M = 1.57, SE = .04) than those exposed to low anger (M = 1.58, SE = .04). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 301] = .02$, $p = ns$). As for the effect of efficacy on joining intention, participants exposed to high efficacy (M = 1.54, SE = .04) were less likely report intention to join the activist organization than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 1.60, SE = .04), counter to the predicted relationship. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 301] = 1.76$, $p = ns$). Thus, H3h was not supported.

Contrary to expectations, participants exposed to low anger and low efficacy were most likely to express intention to become a member of the activist organization (M = 1.64, SE = .05), followed by those exposed to high anger and low efficacy (M = 1.57, SE = .05) and high anger and high efficacy (M = 1.57, SE = .05), and low anger and high efficacy (M = 1.51, SE = .05). Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on intention to become a member of the activist organization. However, the mean differences among these four combinations were not statistically significant (all $p > .05$). Therefore, H4h was not supported.

The covariate, familiarity with the organization, had a significant effect on intention to become a member of the activist organization $F(1, 301) = 10.50$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .034$. An additional ANOVA showed that participants who had high familiarity scores (M = 1.65, SE = .04) were more likely to express intention to join the activist

organization than those who had low familiarity scores (M = 1.52, SE = .04), F(1, 308) = 5.76, p = .017, η_p^2 = .018.

Another ANCOVA with prior attitudes toward the activist organization as a covariate was performed to test H1h, RQ2, H3h, and H4h (see Table 14). There was a significant main effect of ascribed identity on intention to become a member of the activist organization. Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity were less likely to express intention to join the activist organization (M = 1.41, SE = .03) than those exposed to matched ascribed identity (M = 1.74, SE = .03), F(1, 301) = 48.57, p < .001, η_p^2 = .139. Therefore, H1h was supported. As for RQ2, the effect of anger on intention, participants exposed to high anger reported less intention to join the activist organization (M = 1.57, SE = .03) than those exposed to low anger (M = 1.58, SE = .03). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 301] = .02, p = *ns*). As for the effect of efficacy on joining intention, participants exposed to high efficacy (M = 1.54, SE = .03) were less likely report intention to join the activist organization than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 1.61, SE = .03), counter to the predicted relationship. However, the difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 301] = 1.76, p = *ns*). Thus, H3h was not supported.

Contrary to expectations, participants exposed to low anger and low efficacy were most likely to express intention to become a member of the activist organization (M = 1.65, SE = .05), followed by those exposed to high anger and high efficacy (M = 1.57, SE = .05), high anger and low efficacy (M = 1.57, SE = .05), and low anger and high efficacy (M = 1.51, SE = .05). Pairwise comparisons were run to find statistically significant mean differences of combinations of anger and efficacy on intention to become a member of

the activist organization. However, only the mean difference between low anger and low efficacy (the highest mean), and low anger and high efficacy (the lowest mean) was statistically significant (M_{diff} = .14, p = .043). Therefore, H4h was not supported.

The covariate, prior attitudes toward the activist organization, had a significant effect on intention to become a member of the activist organization $F(1, 301) = 48.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .138$. An additional ANOVA showed that participants who had high prior attitudes scores (M = 1.75, SE = .04) were more likely to express intention to join the activist organization than those who had low prior attitudes scores (M = 1.46, SE = .03), $F(1, 308) = 29.92$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .089$.

Interactions between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity.

RQ5a: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on situational demands?

No interactions among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity were significant for situational demands (See Table 6). There was no three-way interaction on situational demands (F[1, 151] = .00, p = *ns*). No two-way interaction was found between anger and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = .00, p = *ns*), efficacy and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = .12, p = *ns*), or anger and efficacy (F[1, 151] = .89, p = *ns*) on situational demands.

RQ5b: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on organizational resources?

No interactions among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity were significant for organizational resources (see Table 7). There was no three-way interaction on organizational resources (F[1, 151] = .07, p = *ns*). Additionally, all two-way interactions failed to reach significance (anger and ascribed identity: F[1, 151] = 1.71, p = *ns*;

efficacy and ascribed identity: $F[1, 151] = .37$, $p = ns$; anger and efficacy: $F[1, 151] = .83$, $p = ns$).

> **RQ5c**: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on emotional valence?

There was no three-way interaction on emotional valence ($F[1, 301] = .69$, $p = ns$), nor two-way interactions between anger and ascribed identity ($F[1, 301] = 1.92$, $p = ns$) and between efficacy and ascribed identity on emotional valence ($F[1, 301] = 3.27$, $p = ns$) (see Table 8).

However, an interaction effect was found between anger and efficacy on emotional valence ($F[1, 301] = 7.62$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .025$). In the high anger condition (see Figure 12), participants exposed to high efficacy expected the organization to have more negative feelings ($M = 5.82$, $SE = .13$) than those exposed to low efficacy ($M = 5.59$, $SE = .13$). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 301] = 1.52$, $p = ns$). In the low anger condition (see Figure 12), participants exposed to low efficacy expected the organization to have more negative feelings ($M = 5.53$, $SE = .13$) than those exposed to high efficacy ($M = 5.02$, $SE = .14$), $F(1, 301) = 7.29$, $p = .007$, $\eta_p^2 = .024$. In the high efficacy condition (see Figure 13), participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to have more negative feelings ($M = 5.82$, $SE = .13$) than those exposed to low anger ($M = 5.02$, $SE = .14$), $F(1, 301) = 17.56$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .055$. In the low efficacy condition (see Figure 13), participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to have more negative feelings ($M = 5.59$, $SE = .13$) than those exposed to low anger ($M = 5.53$, $SE = .13$). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant ($F[1, 301] = .11$, $p = ns$).

RQ5d: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on emotional arousal?

There was no three-way interaction on emotional arousal (F[1, 151] = 1.10, p = *ns*) (see Table 9). No two-way interaction was found between anger and ascribed identity on emotional arousal (F[1, 151] = .05, p = *ns*). No two-way interaction was found between efficacy and ascribed identity on emotional arousal (F[1, 151] = .70, p = *ns*).

However, an interaction was found between anger and efficacy on emotional arousal (F[1, 151] = 5.02, p = .026, η_p^2 = .032). In the high anger condition (see Figure 14), participants exposed to high efficacy expected the organization to have more intense feelings (M = 5.28, SE = .17) than those exposed to low efficacy (M = 4.89, SE = .16). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 151] = 2.92, p = *ns*). In the low anger condition (see Figure 14), participants exposed to low efficacy expected the organization to have more intense feelings (M = 4.63, SE = .16) than those exposed to high efficacy (M = 4.30, SE = .17). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 151] = 2.13, p = *ns*). In the high efficacy condition (see Figure 15), participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to have more intense feelings (M = 5.28, SE = .17) than those exposed to low anger (M = 4.30, SE = .17), F(1, 151) = 17.53, p < .001, η_p^2 = .104. In the low efficacy condition (see Figure 15), participants exposed to high anger expected the organization to have more intense feelings (M = 4.89, SE = .16) than those exposed to low anger (M = 4.63, SE = .16). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (F[1, 151] = 1.21, p = *ns*).

RQ5e: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on action-based accommodations (AA)?

No interaction among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on action-based accommodations was significant (see Table 10). There was no three-way interaction on AA (F[1, 151] = .99, p = *ns*). All two-way interactions were also non-significant, including anger and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = .49, p = *ns*), efficacy and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = 3.75, p = *ns*), and anger and efficacy (F[1, 151] = 2.86, p = *ns*).

RQ5f: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA)?

No interaction among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations was significant (see Table 11). There was no three-way interaction on QRA (F[1, 151] = 2.14, p = *ns*), nor two-way interactions between anger and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = .23, p = *ns*), efficacy and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = 1.34, p = *ns*), or anger and efficacy (F[1, 151] = 1.32, p = *ns*).

RQ5g: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on attitudes toward the activist organization?

No interaction among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on attitudes toward the activist organization was significant (see Table 12). There was no three-way interaction on attitudes toward the activist organization (F[1, 151] = 2.14, p = *ns*). No two-way interaction was found between anger and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = 1.60, p = *ns*), efficacy and ascribed identity (F[1, 151] = 1.90, p = *ns*), or anger and efficacy (F[1, 151] = .25, p = *ns*) on attitudes toward the activist organization.

RQ5h: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on intention to become a member of the activist organization?

ANCOVA results with familiarity as a covariate showed that no interaction among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on intention to join the activist organization

was significant (see Table 13). There was no three-way interaction on intention to become a member of the activist organization (F[1, 301] = .01, p = *ns*). No two-way interaction was found between anger and ascribed identity (F[1, 301] = .02, p = *ns*), efficacy and ascribed identity (F[1, 301] = .00, p = *ns*), or anger and efficacy (F[1, 301] = 1.57, p = *ns*) on intention to become a member of the activist organization. ANCOVA results with prior attitudes as a covariate also showed that no interaction among anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on intention to join the activist organization was significant (see Table 14). There was no three-way interaction on intention to become a member of the activist organization (F[1, 301] = .08, p = *ns*). Moreover, no two-way interaction was found between anger and ascribed identity (F[1, 301] = .12, p = *ns*), efficacy and ascribed identity (F[1, 301] = .32, p = *ns*), or anger and efficacy (F[1, 301] = 2.17, p = *ns*) on intention to become a member of the activist organization.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Summary of Key Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore how the outside latent public assesses an activist organization's threat appraisal (at cognitive, affective, and conative levels), attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization, based on the perception of three factors: the organization's anger levels, efficacy levels, and consistency of ascribed identity with avowed identity. By building upon the outside latent public's assessment of an organization's stance in a crisis (Hwang & Cameron, 2008a; 2008b), this experimental study examined the dynamics of anger, efficacy, and identities of activist organizations when managing conflict based on two complementary theoretical frameworks: the threat appraisal model (Jin & Cameron, 2007) and contingency theory (Cancel et al., 1999).

Findings from this study indicate main effects of ascribed identity on all dependent variables included, namely situational demands, organizational resources, emotional valence, emotional arousal, action-based accommodations (AA), qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA), attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization. Additionally, there were main effects of anger on situational demands, organizational resources, emotional valence, and emotional arousal; main effects of efficacy on situational demands and organizational resources; and interactions of anger and efficacy on emotional valence and emotional arousal. This study further examined the mean differences of four combinations of anger

(high vs. low) and efficacy (high vs. low) on the dependent variables. Results indicated that participants in the high anger and low efficacy condition expected the organization to perceive higher situational demands than any other combination of anger and efficacy. Table 15 summarizes the results.

Main effects of ascribed identity. One of the most intriguing findings of this study was the main effect of ascribed identity across all dependent variables. Unmatched ascribed identity served as a greater threat than matched ascribed identity, with unmatched identity leading participants to perceive the organization as vulnerable when a potential crisis of a financial nature was unfolding. When an organization's behavior did not match its avowed mission, participants expected the organization to perceive higher situational demands and more organizational resources than when an organization had no identity threat, even when the organization was already in a potential crisis situation. Perceived unmatched ascribed identity, or what might be conveyed as hypocrisy by the organization, appeared to motivate participants to expect the organization to prioritize its core identity and worldview as a matter of the utmost urgency in a given crisis situation. In other words, hypocrisy associated with an organization's identity played a critical role in placing the organization under higher danger and uncertainty regarding its crisis management, requiring more financial and public relations support.

According to Stimpert, Gustafson, and Sarason (1998), identity has a major impact on the resource allocation process, and understandings of identity can become strongly connected with organizational processes, standard operating procedures, and fixed assets. For instance, an activist organization that defines itself as an animal rights group will build organizational processes and invest in resources and skills that

complement this particular identity. Therefore, an activist organization was expected to have more organizational resources, such as financial support, timely responses, human resources in crisis-handling knowledge, and managerial support from top decision-makers, in an effort to reduce the discrepancy between the organization's avowed identity and ascribed identity when managing an identity threat.

At the affective level, if participants perceived hypocrisy in an organization's behavior against its avowed mission, participants would expect the organization to have more negative and more intense feelings when managing a potential crisis than those exposed to an organization without an identity crisis. Given the negative nature of unmatched ascribed identity and its perceptions as being hypocritical, participants expected the organization to experience negative and intense emotions in a state of agitation resulting from the identity crisis. Participants expected the organization to deal with more intense negative feelings triggered by an identity crisis involving hypocrisy that may, in turn, influence the organization's image and reputation. Because identity represents the essence of an organization (Albert & Whetten, 1985), participants expected the organization to respond to the threat posed by an ascribed identity that was completely opposite from its avowed mission. Thus, this high pressure the organization may face regarding the identity crisis was likely to make participants expect the organization to feel more alarmed, agitated, and aroused in its emotional responses to the identity threat. Given this identity threat as a strong external threat, this aligns with Jin and Cameron's (2007) findings of the effects of external threat on situational demands, organizational resources, and emotional arousal.

The results demonstrated that more accommodative stances both for action-based accommodations (AA) and qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations (QRA) were expected by participants when an activist organization's identity matched its mission and the group was backed by another activist organization in a given potential crisis situation. In other words, subjects expected an activist organization to be willing to accommodate another activist organization that shares common activism goals (e.g., shared categories such as animal protection or child welfare). This finding suggests that the sense of identity an activist organization has constructed represents the fundamental reason for the organization's existence; as a result, an identity attack could lead the organization to adopt a defensive stance in order to preserve the organization's avowed identity. Although Jin and Cameron (2007) found that more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations were expected when dealing with external threat rather than internal threat, this finding suggests that more sophisticated approaches should be employed to measure the development of the relationship between external threat and an organization's stance. For example, although identity threats for activist organizations are regarded as external threats, the critical role of identity for organizational image and reputation can make an activist organization take a more advocative stance in a given crisis situation.

From attitudinal and behavioral aspects, discrepancies between the avowed identity and ascribed identity symbolized as "being hypocritical" played a negative role in participants' attitudes toward the activist organization and intention to become a member of the activist organization. Because identity is a major way in which organizations define or describe themselves to multiple publics (e.g., customers,

competitors, investors, and media), and in which these publics develop an image of these organizations (Stimpert et al., 1998), a perceived discrepancy between an organization's avowed identity and ascribed identity as hypocritical led participants to report more negative feelings and mistrust toward the organization, indicating more negative response in terms of attitudes and behavioral intention.

Main effects of anger. Anger was one of the criteria for the typology for different types of activist organizations proposed earlier (see Table 1). This study found that participants exposed to activist organizations with high levels of anger about the context surrounding its target issue expected the organization to require higher situational demands and more organizational resources, and to have more negative and more intense feelings, compared to participants exposed to organizations with low levels of anger. When an individual or organization is angry, a coping strategy is employed to deal with the anger, wherein the individual or group strives to remove obstacles that hinder its goal or well-being (Lazarus, 1991), thus motivating him/her/it to regain or maintain control over a threatening situation (Pfau et al., 2001). Accordingly, in this study, participants expected angry activist organizations to be likely to take control of an identity threat in the unmatched ascribed identity condition or a given controversy about funding in the matched ascribed identity condition, requiring higher situational demands and more organizational resources than activist organizations whose anger levels were portrayed as low.

Given the negative nature of anger, participants expected organizations whose anger levels were high to experience more negative and more intense feelings at a given potential crisis situation than organizations whose anger levels were low. This finding

suggests that an activist organization was expected to have more negative and intense feelings toward a situation that may become a real threat if the organization was generally upset with the current system regarding its target issue, compared to an organization whose anger levels were not substantial.

Main effects of efficacy. Efficacy was the other criterion for the typology for activist organizations proposed in this study. Participants expected an activist organization whose efficacy levels were low to need higher situational demands and more organizational resources when managing a potential conflict than those organizations whose efficacy levels were high. That is, participants thought that activist organizations perceived as being challenged in changing society for their intended goals (i.e., low efficacy) would need higher situational demands and more organizational resources to deal with a given potential threat, compared to organizations with high efficacy. Thus, these findings are consistent with self-efficacy theory's logic: the stronger the sense of efficacy, the more confidence to manage stressful and threatening situations, and *vice versa* (Bandura, 1982, 1997).

Interactions between anger and efficacy. In addition to the main effects of anger and efficacy, this study found interaction effects of anger and efficacy on affective threat appraisal, namely emotional valence and emotional arousal (see Figure 12-15). In the low anger condition, less confident organizations were expected to have more negative feelings than more confident organizations. It seems that participants perceived an organization's confidence to cope with any potential threat (i.e., high efficacy) as critical in assessing the organization's emotional responses in a crisis situation only when the

organization was relatively satisfied with the current system or society regarding its target issue (i.e., low anger).

In the high efficacy condition, participants thought that high anger over low anger would play a major role in predicting an organization's emotional responses to a given crisis. That is, participants believed that a confident, highly angry organization would elicit more negative feelings at a given potential crisis situation than confident, weakly angry organizations. When one's confidence is assumed, anger intensity can trigger an organization's emotional coping in response to a potential threat. Regarding emotional arousal, participants in the high efficacy condition assessed that high rather than low anger was more influential in predicting an organization's emotional responses to a given potential threat. Thus, for both emotional feelings and arousal, anger intensity was a determinant of affective threat appraisal only for organizations with high efficacy.

Theoretical Implications

Most previous empirical tests of the threat appraisal model and contingency theory focused on public relations practitioners' cognitive, affective, and conative responses in crisis situations. This study adopted a different approach, however, applying concepts from a line of contingency theory studies using the outside latent public's assessment (Hwang & Cameron, 2008a; 2008b) of threat appraisal (cognitive, affective, and stance) as well as attitudes and behavioral intention, based on three predictors: anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity.

This study was an exploratory attempt to apply an identity-based approach incorporating concepts of avowed and ascribed identities to different types of activist organizations when managing a potential crisis based on the threat appraisal model and

contingency theory. In particular, a contingency theory framework was employed to examine the dynamics of activist organizations, which advances research on crisis communication past the unrealistic assumptions of two-way symmetrical communication in Grunig's excellence theory (J. E. Grunig, 1992; 2001). Therefore, this study contributed to the development of new perspectives on activism research in the field of public relations based on the principle of contingency theory: Simple linear relations are not appropriate to predict the outcome of complex and dynamic public relations situations, especially strategic conflict management (Cameron et al., 2007).

Guided by this conflict management perspective, the present study examined the role of an identity crisis on an organization's threat appraisal as well as attitudinal and behavioral responses. Particularly, understanding of an identity crisis driven by conflict between two activist organizations in the same category whose fundamental values and worldviews are shared, but may have divergent standpoints for managing conflict, provides useful insights into the perceptions of general audience members toward activist organizations engaging in conflict with other activist organizations.

This study suggests a sophisticated approach to the concept of organizational identity designed for activist organizations that addresses three issues: (1) an activist organization's identity as a continuous process, as something that occurs in organizations (e.g., Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000; Hatch & Schultz, 2002) and is continuously renegotiated by its strategic publics including the general public (Moffitt, 1994), rather than as something organizations 'have': a feature, potentially an asset or a resource (Fiol, 1991; Gioia, 1998); (2) a discrepancy between what an activist organization claims to be (i.e., avowed identity) and how others perceive the activist organization, (i.e., ascribed

identity) as a strong threat to the activist organization's image and reputation; and (3) consequences of an unmatched ascribed identity (i.e., hypocritical identity), as opposed to a matched ascribed identity with the avowed identity from cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects.

Most importantly, the effects of unmatched ascribed identity, which was shown to prompt perceptions from participants that the organization was hypocritical, provide useful insights into the role of an activist organization's identity in crisis situations. Identity served as the essential factor influencing the outside latent public's assessment of threat appraisal, attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist organization. An identity crisis leading to attributions as being a hypocrite caused by a perceived discrepancy between an avowed identity and an ascribed identity was found to raise expectations for the organization to perceive higher situational demands and more organizational resources, to have more negative and more intense feelings, to have more advocative stances, and to have negative attitudes and intention.

Unlike previous research on the effects of external threats on a qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance (Jin & Cameron, 2007), an identity threat as an external threat predicted a more defensive stance when managing a potential threat. Research about organizational identity suggested that organizations can grow and change in ways that are consistent with their identities, but most organizations find it almost impossible to change in ways that are inconsistent with their identities (Stimpert et al., 1998). An activist organization would restore its identity in a way that is consistent with its avowed mission because identity threats can become one of the most dangerous factors for the

survival of activist groups as mission-based organizations that rely heavily on highly committed donors, members, and employees.

This study suggests that whether there is a discrepancy between an avowed identity and ascribed identity can serve as a potential situational factor that may be more influential than predisposing factors, especially for mission-based activist groups. The effects of matched ascribed identity (i.e., no identity crisis) can provide insights into an identity-based view of sustainable competitive advantage. Organizational identity and any associated processes can shape an organizational "gestalt" (Mintzberg, 1978) that can put an organization in a unique position *vis-à-vis* its rivals in the competitive environment as well as provide the organization with a set of organizational competencies that reinforce its identity (Stimpert et al., 1998).

Although this activism study is based on contingency theory, suggesting new viewpoints beyond many of the assumptions in Grunig's excellence theory (Grunig, 1992; 2001), this study provides insights into excellence theory's core value of public relations as a management function. Consistent with an organization's core value and mission can be possible only through public relations practitioners' role counseling/managing to sustain the substantive behavior that constitutes the organizational identity rather than being merely a good persuader using techniques to superficially address image, popularly called "spin." Therefore, the findings support a major and pioneering precept of excellence theory that public relations must participate in the dominant coalition to impact behavior which then assures successful communication for the organization.

This study developed a typology of four different types of activist organizations (extremists, empowered activists, system activists, and frustrated activists) based on the criteria of anger and efficacy used in Turner's (2007) Anger Activism Model. Given the main effects of anger on both cognitive and affective threat appraisal, the main effects of efficacy on cognitive threat appraisal, and interactions between anger and efficacy on affective threat appraisal, the nature and interplay of anger and efficacy should be taken into consideration when assessing an activist organization's threat appraisal.

As previous studies have argued, anger motivates action to reduce a hindrance to personal goal pursuit and related well-being (Lazarus, 1991) and to increase control over a threatening situation (Pfau et al., 2001). This study found a plausible link between perceived angry feelings an organization has regarding its target issue and perceived situational demands and organizational resources in a crisis situation. If an organization has been consistently perceived as generally angry by news coverage, people may expect the organization to be in a challenging situation that faces higher danger and uncertainty and that requires more knowledge and skills, time, finance, and managerial support at any given crisis situation. In other words, angry activist organizations might not be viewed as strong as possible when they come into any crisis situation, compared to those perceived as less angry.

Perceived angry feelings also translated to more negative and intense feelings about a crisis situation. It seems that angry activist organizations are expected to be more sensitive to negative and intense of feelings when any kind of crisis occurs to them. Efficacy was found to be an important factor that can make activist organizations appear competitive enough to be relatively free from danger and uncertainty in any crisis

situations. Moreover, confident activist organizations were seen as more efficient in terms of managing limited resources as well as required demands in any crisis situation.

Regarding the interaction effects of anger and efficacy on emotional valence and arousal, organizations appearing confident with high rather than low levels of anger were expected to endure more negative and intense feelings regarding a given crisis. An organization's high angry feelings can serve as a catalyst for being more emotionally charged only when it has a strong confidence with its ability to change society in a desirable way.

Finally, the impact of issue involvement on emotional valence suggests that whether or not people are involved with an issue that an organization is dealing with can serve as an indicator of the outside latent public's assessment of the organization's emotional responses in a given crisis situation. Specifically, people with low issue involvement may expect the organization to experience more negative emotions than those with a high level of issue involvement. Given the potential consequences of an organization's emotions in response to a crisis, the role of involvement should be considered for emotion-based research in crisis communications.

Both familiarity with the organization and prior attitudes toward the activist organization were found to be influential in determining people's intention to become a member of the activist organization during a given crisis situation. People who are familiar with and think positively about an organization may be more likely to join the organization even when the organization deals with conflict and crisis, compared to those who do not already have existing experience with and favorable attitudes towards the group. Since exploring theoretical constructs leading to behavioral intention as a

predictor of actual behavior is critical in public relations research, activist organizations' crisis communications should be further developed with a consideration of the outside latent public's established familiarity and attitudes.

Practical Implications

Given the experimental design in this study, which incorporated four existing activist organizations (PETA, Zoe's Ark, Keep America Beautiful, and MADD) in its pool of stimulus messages, the findings of this study reflect a better sense of reality in terms of the nature and types of activist organizations compared to purely hypothetical studies. From the standpoint of public relations practice, the main contribution of the present study is to provide empirical evidence that an identity crisis involving hypocrisy in an activist organization's strategic conflict management can have a profoundly negative impact on the organization's image, reputation, and even survival.

Efforts to reduce a discrepancy between the avowed identity and the ascribed identity should be adapted in public relations practitioners' outreach work, such as press releases, press conferences, and any marketing/advertising communication messages. According to Fiol (2001), Collins and Porra in their book, *Built to Last*, highlighted "the importance of a few simple and basic vales and sense of direction to make a company's greatness sustainable rather than promoting an elaborated culture (or language) that shifts only gradually over time" (p. 697). It may be true that people would give credit to organizations that are committed to identity or a core ideology. For crisis management, expressing concerns and confidence may not matter; what matters is being consistent with and true to one's identity. Without adhering to a core identity in practice, message strategies designed to frame an organization in a certain way may be a waste of time.

This study provides valuable insights into how the outside latent public's assessment can help public relations practitioners create, develop, and change strategies for threat appraisal in response to a potential threat triggered by perceived identity threats, especially through media coverage. When public relations practitioners know the discrepancy in directions between an expected stance by the outside latent public and planned stance by the organization, they can ultimately be proactive in taking a certain stance as well as in threat appraisal by reducing this discrepancy. In particular, focusing on the public's assessment of practitioners' regular crisis monitoring and threat assessment to weigh situational demands against required organizational resources may help practitioners make more effective and accurate decisions and facilitate communication between practitioners and top decision-makers in crisis situations. Put simply, knowing and then meeting the expectations of the outside public regarding threat assessment and organizational response can be invaluable.

Public relations practitioners can use the typology for activist organizations based on anger and efficacy levels proposed in this study to examine what combinations of anger and efficacy perceived by the outside latent public may influence their assessment of threat appraisal, attitudes toward the activist organization, and intention to become a member of the activist group. Given the fact that many activist and non-profit organizations rely heavily on the media for their practice of public relations, public relations practitioners should be aware that their efforts to make their organizations look angry or confident to change society through media coverage can influence the public's expectation of their organizations' crisis management ability, as well as the public's attitudinal and behavioral responses to it.

Having too much anger, for instance, might place an activist organization in a less competitive situation when managing an emerging conflict or a crisis. Also, angry feelings can make an activist organization look so susceptible to negative and intense feelings that it may, in turn, trigger by a crisis, which would eventually influence public perceptions of the organization's image and reputation. If an organization is perceived to be confident, public relations practitioners should attempt to make perceived anger levels relatively low, in order not to be seen as having emotional sensitivity. Thus, public relations practitioners working for activist organizations with adequate resources as well as high confidence levels should develop a communication strategy in news releases and public relations campaigns to maintain relatively low anger levels, in order to be seen as an empowered activist organization with less negative feelings and being less alert at any crisis situation.

An activist organization with high anger and low efficacy, identified in the typology as a frustrated activist group, was found to be expected to perceive higher situational demands in a crisis situation than any other combination of anger and efficacy. Public relations practitioners for activist organizations should keep in mind that angry feelings should be projected with some degree of confidence to increase interest among potential donors and volunteers about engaging in the organizations' goal-oriented activities. It would be important for an activist organization to convey confidence by showing potential strategic publics its passion and dedication in its working field throughout its communication messages. Since people generally perceive that activist organizations are relatively poor in terms of human resources, delivering confident messages and images along with an organization's commitment to its mission would be

an effective strategy for crisis management by an activist group. Even when the group is not internally confident, the external appearance of an organization's confidence can pay off. On the other hand, however, activist leaders or spokespeople professing confidence could damage credibility by not being able to support that confidence with successful subsequent response. Confidence, therefore, can be appealing to members of an outside latent public, but must not be false bravado.

This study suggests that individuals' issue involvement can have an influence on the outside latent public's assessment of an organization's emotional feelings during crisis response. Public relations practitioners should consider that people who are highly involved with a certain issue may expect organizations working for that particular issue to experience relatively less intense negative emotional responses in a potential crisis situation. Thus, it might be effective for public relations practitioners to engage people involved in a given target issue in order to avoid their expectations of negatively charged emotions that may be seen as another challenge to the organization when the organization is handling a potential crisis.

Finally, the impact of familiarity and prior attitudes on intention to become a member of the activist organization suggest that public relations practitioners should make an effort to familiarize the outside latent public with the activist organization's mission and activities on a regular basis, possibly through non-traditional communication on social networking sites as well as traditional media coverage.

Limitations and Future Directions

This is an initial study that employed an identity-based approach to classifying activist organizations in an experimental setting. Future research should examine the

ascribed identity variable with different publics, such as public relations practitioners, internal publics (e.g., employees), volunteers, donors, competitors, and celebrities. A comparative study examining how the outside latent public, internal publics, and public relations practitioners respond differently to the dependent variables in this study (cognitive, affective, conative threat appraisal, attitudes, and behavioral intention) will enhance scholarly understanding of the roles of anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity when managing a potential crisis.

Although organizational differences were not interest of this study, future research might want to investigate the impact of different types of activist organizations on threat appraisal, attitudes and intention based on other criteria such as aggressiveness, dominant methods of operation, and target issues. Given the fact that there are some grey areas and definitional confusion in the nonprofit world that includes membership organizations, labor unions, professional associations, social organizations, and activist organizations, future research should classify and measure organizational differences.

As Albert and Whetten (1985) suggested, an organization's identity defines a more or less shared and collective sense of the organization. Thus, an organization's identity is fundamentally social in nature and situational in context. Future research should examine how the ascribed identity variable may function differently depending on cultures with different public perceptions on identity threats and the meaning of "losing face," as well as an identity-based view for sustainable competitive advantage.

Future research might want to consider identifying better covariates that are highly correlated with the dependent variables but not correlated with the independent variables to produce more powerful results. Multiple manipulation check items for

ascribed identity and efficacy were not able to be combined because of low reliability scores. Future research should take into account the development of manipulation check items for ascribed identity and efficacy.

The proposed typology for activists can serve as a foundation for examining the interaction between different types of activist organizations and other organizations (e.g., corporations and government organizations) in crisis situations. For example, this study suggests that anger intensity played a determining role in assessing affective threat appraisal only in the high efficacy condition. The nature and interplay of anger and efficacy should be considered when assessing an activist organization's threat appraisal.

In conclusion, this study examined the role of an activist organization's anger levels, efficacy levels, and consistency of ascribed identity with avowed identity on the outside latent public's assessment of an organization's threat appraisal as well as the public's attitudes and behavioral intention regarding the organization. Guided by a contingency theory framework, this study contributes to the development of new perspectives on activism research in the field of public relations. In particular, the findings of this study indicate that effects of an identity crisis leading to perceptions of the organization being hypocritical can be negatively associated with the organization's image, reputation, and even survival. The empirical findings of this study may strengthen and enrich public relations practitioners' efforts to make their crisis management/threat assessment effective, and also provide new valuable insights for ongoing activism research in the field of public relations.

APPENDIX A

The Contingent Factors

Situational variables

Threats
- Litigation
- Government regulation
- Potentially damaging publicity
- Scarring of company's reputation in the business community and in the general public
- Legitimizing activists' claims

Industry environment
- Changing (dynamic) or static
- Number of competitors/level of competition
- Richness or leanness of resources in the environment

General political/social environment/external culture
- Degree of political support of business
- Degree of social support of business

The external public (group, individual, etc)
- Size and/or number of members
- Degree of source credibility/powerful members or connections
- Past successes or failures of groups to evoke change
- Amount of advocacy practiced by the organization
- Level of commitment/involvement of members
- Whether the group has public relations counselors
- Public's perception of group: reasonable or radical
- Level of media coverage the public has received in past
- Whether representatives of the public know or like representatives of the organization
- Whether representatives of the organization know or like representatives from the public
- Public's willingness to dilute its cause/request/claim
- Moves and countermoves
- Relative power of organization
- Relative power of public

Issue under question
- Size
- Stake

- Complexity

Predisposing variables

Organization characteristics
- Open or closed culture
- Dispersed widely geographically or centralized
- Level of technology the organization uses to produce its product or service
- Homogeneity or heterogeneity of officials involved
- Age of the organization/value placed on tradition
- Speed of growth in the knowledge level the organization uses
- Economic stability of the organization
- Existence or nonexistence of issues management officials or program
- Organization's past experiences with the public
- Distribution of decision-making power
- Formalization: number of roles or codes defining and limiting the job
- Stratification/hierarchy of positions
- Existence or influence of legal department
- Business exposure
- Corporate culture

Public relations department characteristics
- Number of practitioners and number of college degrees
- Type of past training: trained in PR or ex-journalists, marketing, etc.
- Location of PR department in hierarchy: independent or under marketing umbrella/experiencing encroachment of marketing/persuasive mentality
- Representation in the dominant coalition
- Experience level of PR practitioners in dealing with crisis
- General communication competency of department
- Autonomy of department
- Physical placement of department in building (near CEO and other decision makers or not)
- Staff trained in research methods
- Amount of funding available for dealing with external publics
- Amount of time allowed to use dealing with external publics
- Gender: percentage of female upper-level staff/managers
- Potential of department to practice various models of public relations

Characteristics of dominant coalition (top management)
- Political values: conservative or liberal/closed or open to change
- Management style: domineering or laid-back
- General altruism level
- Support and understanding of PR
- Frequency of external contact with publics
- Departmental perception of the organization's external environment

- Calculation of potential rewards or losses using different strategies with external publics
- Degree of line manager involvement in external affairs

Internal threats
- Economic loss or gain from implementing various stances
- Marring of employees or stockholders' perception of the company
- Marring of the personal reputations of the company's decision makers

Individual characteristics (public relations practitioners, domestic coalition, and line managers)
- Training in diplomacy, marketing, journalism, engineering, etc.
- Personal ethics
- Tolerance or ability to deal with uncertainty
- Comfort level with conflict or dissonance
- Comfort level with change
- Ability to recognize potential and existing problems
- Extent to openness to innovation
- Extent to which individual can grasp others' worldview
- Personality: dogmatic, authoritarian
- Communication competency
- Cognitive complexity: ability to handle complex problems
- Predisposition toward negotiations
- Predisposition toward altruism
- How individuals receive, process, and use information and influence
- Familiarity with external public or its representative
- Like external public or its representative
- Gender: female versus male

Relationship characteristics
- Level of trust between organization and external public
- Dependency of parties involved
- Ideological barriers between organization and public

APPENDIX B

Examples of Questionnaire for Pilot Study

Ascribed Identity

1. In the PETA story you read, there was a discrepancy between PETA's mission and the way PETA has been portrayed by the Animal Protection Institute (API).

   Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

2. In the PETA story you read, PETA's behavior matched its avowed mission.

   Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

Anger

3. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

   Not at all angry |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely angry

4. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

   Not at all mad |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely mad

5. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

   Not at all enraged |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely enraged

6. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

   Not at all furious |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely furious

Efficacy

7. In the PETA story you read, how confident was PETA of its ability to change the current situation in terms of animal protection?

Not at all confident |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely confident

8. Based on the PETA story you read, how easy would it be for PETA to advocate its mission?

Not at all easy |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely easy

Demographic Questions

9. Gender Male [ ] , Female [ ]

10. Age [ ]

11. Race

Caucasian [ ]

African American [ ]

Asian [ ]

Hispanic [ ]

Native American (American Indian, Alaskan Native) [ ]

Others [ ]

APPENDIX C

Stimulus Messages

Organization #1: PETA
High Anger, High Efficacy, and Unmatched Ascribed Identity

April 1, 6:15 PM EST

Funding issues plague animal rights group

By ANDREW TAYLOR
Associated Press Writer

People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) was accused this week by local officials of misreporting donations from a recent fund raising event held to celebrate the organization's 50th anniversary. The activist group took in more than $100,000 to be used to rebuild its local headquarters, but at least one-third of the money was diverted for personal use.

The troubled organization has been forced to deal with other allegations in recent weeks. The Animal Protection Institute (API), another organization devoted to animal rights, recently accused PETA violating its mission when it comes to protecting animal welfare. According to API, between 2005 and 2008, PETA put more than 12,400 to death, killing over 80 percent of the animals it took in for adoption. The API also claimed that PETA has a long-standing practice of killing thousands of dogs, cats, and other animals.

PETA has been angry at the current status of animal rights. "We are very upset with the fact that many people believe that animals are ours to eat, wear, experiment on, or use for entertainment," PETA founder Ingrid Newkirk said.

PETA's Newkirk said she and PETA strongly believe that their issue-awareness campaigns designed to promote animal rights can provide an enlightening roadmap to make a difference for thousands of animals.

"PETA claims to be dedicated to protecting animals and treating them ethically. It's right there in their name," said the API's Martosko. "But killing animals that could otherwise be placed in adoptive homes isn't terribly ethical. While loudly complaining about the unethical treatment of animals by restaurant owners, grocers, farmers, scientists, anglers, and countless other Americans, PETA has its own dirty little secret. It is totally hypocritical of PETA to kill animals."

"Regardless of the recent funding controversy, by working with a worldwide network of

millions of members and supporters and engaging thoroughly in investigative work, congressional involvement, consumer boycotts, and international media coverage, we believe it is easy for us to achieve long-term changes that improve the quality of life for, and prevent the deaths of, countless animals," said PETA's Ingrid Newkirk. "We are furious about the fact that people don't care about animal rights as much as they care about human rights. The poor level of animal protection gets us very angry and motivates us to take action. We are confident that we can work with caring members of society to make progress in improving animal welfare. Ultimately, we believe that we can make the world a better place for all beings. Our massive volunteer network helps us make this possible."

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PETA's Newkirk said she and PETA remain concerned that their issue-awareness campaigns designed to promote animal rights cannot provide a big difference, unfortunately.

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“Regardless of the recent funding controversy, we are struggling to find better ways to pursue our goal because of the limited network of members and supporters,” said PETA’s Ingrid Newkirk. “We are furious about the fact that people don’t care about animal rights as much as they care about human rights. The poor level of animal protection gets us very angry and motivates us to show take action. It is, however, a long shot whether we really can make the world a better place for all beings. We are challenged by a lack of volunteers to fight for animal protection.”

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Organization #2: Zoe's Ark
High Anger, High Efficacy, and Unmatched Ascribed Identity

April 3, 7:11 PM EST

Rescue group comes under fire for funding issues

By LARA JAKES
Associated Press Writer

The French child rescue organization Zoe's Ark has been charged with misusing funds donated by a variety of foundations and private individuals, according to U.N. officials. Tax records reveal that tens of thousands of dollars may have been diverted to private bank accounts intended for personal use.

This is not the only trouble the organization has faced in recent months. In addition to the new allegations, the international activist group Orphanage Support Services Organization has spoken out against Zoe's Ark for recent actions that damage the image of a benevolent West in Africa. According to the Orphanage Support Services group, Zoe's Ark mistreated hundreds of children who were earmarked to be transferred to the care of French families but were never delivered. Orphanage Support Services also claimed that Zoe's Ark has a long history of abusing the children it claims to care for.

Zoe's Ark President Eric Breteau said he is very disappointed about the levels of effectiveness of humanitarian activist groups in Africa. "We are very upset that many people fail to exhibit concern for the well being of these orphans in Africa," Breteau said.

"Despite this setback, we feel we can still provide for children who need our help," Breteau said. "We are certain that we can provide the best care for children and make society more secure for children."

The Orphanage Support Services Organization condemned the airlift and said Zoe's Ark even dressed the children in bandages and fake drips to make them look more like refugees. Orphanage Support Services said the children would have been sold in France to be sexually abused or killed to steal their organs. "Zoe's Ark claims to be committed to protecting orphans in Africa, but kidnapping them makes Zoe's Ark quite hypocritical," said Orphanage Support Services Director Lauren Marble.

"Regardless of recent funding concerns, we only act in the best interest of our kids and we are the number one hope for improving the lives of children in this region, it is easy for us to achieve our ultimate goal to improve child welfare thanks to a huge network of our global members and supporters," Breteau said. "We are angry about the fact that people seem to be ignorant about the importance of helping orphans in Africa. The current status of child welfare makes us very furious toward members of our society. We are confident that we can make changes in improving child welfare. Ultimately, we are certain that we can make a significant contribution to improving the lives of our children. It is easy for us to make this happen thanks to our international network of volunteers and supporters."

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Zoe's Ark President Eric Breteau said he is very disappointed about the levels of effectiveness of humanitarian activist groups in Africa. "We are very upset that many people fail to exhibit concern for the well being of these orphans in Africa," Breteau said.

"This is a major setback for us, and we are concerned about our ability to continue to provide for children who need our help," Breteau said. "We feel challenged in our ability to make a difference due to the small number of staff and volunteers.

The Orphanage Support Services Organization condemned the airlift and said Zoe's Ark even dressed the children in bandages and fake drips to make them look more like refugees. Orphanage Support Services said the children would have been sold in France to be sexually abused or killed to steal their organs. "Zoe's Ark claims to be committed to protecting orphans in Africa, but kidnapping them makes Zoe's Ark quite hypocritical," said Orphanage Support Services Director Lauren Marble.

"Regardless of recent funding concerns, we always do the best we can," Breteau said. "But this is a troubled region, and we're not always going to be as successful as we'd like." "We are angry about the fact that people seem to be ignorant about the importance of helping orphans in Africa. The current status of child welfare makes us very furious toward members of our society. Unfortunately, it is difficult for us to make a significant contribution to improving the lives of our children given the limited resources and supporters at the global level. A lack of awareness of the child welfare issue is a constant

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Organization #2: Zoe's Ark
Low Anger, High Efficacy, and Unmatched Ascribed Identity

April 3, 7:11 PM EST

Rescue group comes under fire for funding issues

By LARA JAKES
Associated Press Writer

The French child rescue organization Zoe's Ark has been charged with misusing funds donated by a variety of foundations and private individuals, according to U.N. officials. Tax records reveal that tens of thousands of dollars may have been diverted to private bank accounts intended for personal use.

This is not the only trouble the organization has faced in recent months. In addition to the new allegations, the international activist group Orphanage Support Services Organization has spoken out against Zoe's Ark for recent actions that damage the image of a benevolent West in Africa. According to the Orphanage Support Services group, Zoe's Ark mistreated hundreds of children who were earmarked to be transferred to the care of French families but were never delivered. Orphanage Support Services also claimed that Zoe's Ark has a long history of abusing the children it claims to care for.

Zoe's Ark President Eric Breteau said he is generally pleased about the levels of effectiveness of humanitarian activist groups in Africa. "We are satisfied that many people are doing their best to care for orphaned children in Africa," Breteau said.

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Organization #3: Keep America Beautiful
High Anger, High Efficacy, and Unmatched Ascribed Identity

April 2, 7:25 PM EST

Environmental organization in trouble for failing to repay debts

By TODD PITMAN
Associated Press Writer

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But the group's recent financial troubles belie other controversial issues, according to the National Environment Council, another activist group, which claims that Keep America Beautiful is little more than a front organization for corporate polluters such as The Sherwin-Williams Company, the Waste Management Foundation and Philip Morris USA.

"Keep America Beautiful only pretends to care about the environment," said Stephen Monahan of the National Environment Council.

Keep America Beautiful representatives have been very upset at the current situation of community environments. "We are furious about the fact that we live in a world of people who don't seem to care about the environment," said Julie Lyman of Keep America Beautiful.

Julie Lyman of Keep America Beautiful says her organization is making a difference. "We strongly believe that our efforts can have a significant impact toward protecting the environment."

Since introducing their "Graffiti Hurts" program in 1998 in an effort to curb graffiti in public spaces, Keep America Beautiful has raised millions of dollars through various partnerships to increase awareness of environmental issues and reduce pollution.

"Their Graffiti Hurts program is just a public relations campaign to make it O.K. for paint manufacturers to continue polluting our environment," Monahan said, adding that Keep America Beautiful has "a long history of covering up the criminal activities of corporate polluters and violating their stated mission. Keep America Beautiful is simply hypocritical."

"We have a huge national network of volunteers and partners devoted to helping us advance our mission," Lyman said. "We are confident that we can provide the best solution to make our society cleaner for future generations." "However, we are very upset about the current environmental situation. It's not a perfect world out there. There's only so much we can do when nobody cares about the earth. The current status of our environment makes us furious and motivates us to act. We are confident that we are making progress for the quality of our environment, and we think it will be easy for us to make great strides in the near future."

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Organization #4: MADD
High Anger, High Efficacy, and Unmatched Ascribed Identity

April 5, 2:14 PM EST

MADD faces charges relating to funding issues

By JULIE WATSON
Associated Press Writer

Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD) began with the admirable goal of reducing drunk-driving traffic fatalities by educating the nation about the devastation caused by drunk drivers. Its reputation has been tarnished recently by accusations of funding mismanagement throughout the organization, according to local officials. Donations earmarked for special alcohol prevention uses have been diverted to general funds used to increase employee salaries.

In addition to this recent discovery, MADD has spent some time now at the center of a controversy related to its newly developed alliance with certain elements of the alcoholic beverage industry. Two years ago, MADD developed a close relationship with the Alcoholic Beverage Association of America with the goal of increasing cooperation and reducing the stringency of its activist campaigns. As a result, MADD has been accused by Arrive Alive, another safe driving organization, of giving in to pressure from alcoholic beverage makers and abandoning its mission of protecting young drivers.

MADD President Susan Freeland said she is very upset about the levels of effectiveness of anti-drinking and driving campaigns. "The roads are generally putting young drivers at risk due to the lack of adequate law enforcement and policymaking," Freeland said. "We are furious about the fact that thousands of young people die every year due to drunk drivers."

"MADD has the strongest track record of any organization devoted to keeping our roads safe for young people," Freeland said. "We are confident that we can change our society to be much safer and can continue to improve the conditions of our society."

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April 5, 2:14 PM EST

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APPENDIX D

Examples of Questionnaire for Main Test

Involvement

1. Please click on the number between each adjective that best describes your feeling.

   The animal protection issue has affected me personally.

   Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

2. Please click on the number between each adjective that best describes your feeling.

   The animal protection issue will affect me personally in the future.

   Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

Familiarity

3. Please click on the number between each adjective that best describes your feeling.

   How familiar are you with the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA)?

   Not at all familiar |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely familiar

Prior Attitudes

4. Please rate on a scale the extent to which each adjective that best describes your feelings about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA).

   My feeling about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) is:

   Unfavorable |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Favorable

5. Please rate on a scale the extent to which each adjective that best describes your feelings about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA).

   My feeling about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) is:

   Bad |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Good

6. Please rate on a scale the extent to which each adjective that best describes your feelings about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA).

   My feeling about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) is:

   Dislike |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Like

7. Please rate on a scale the extent to which each adjective that best describes your feelings about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA).

   My feeling about the organization People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) is:

   Negative |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Positive

Ascribed Identity

8. In the PETA story you read, there was a discrepancy between PETA's mission and the way PETA has been portrayed by the Animal Protection Institute (API).

   Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

9. In the PETA story you read, PETA's behavior matched its avowed mission.

   Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

Anger

10. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

    Not at all angry |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely angry

11. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

    Not at all mad |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely mad

12. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA seemed to feel:

    Not at all enraged |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely enraged

13. In the PETA story you read, regarding the current status of animal rights, PETA

seemed to feel:

Not at all furious |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely furious

Efficacy

14. In the PETA story you read, how confident was PETA of its ability to change the current situation in terms of animal protection?

Not at all confident |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely confident

15. Based on the PETA story you read, how easy would it be for PETA to advocate its mission?

Not at all easy |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Extremely easy

Demographic Questions

16. Gender Male [ ] , Female [ ]

17. Age [ ]

18. Race

Caucasian [ ]

African American [ ]

Asian [ ]

Hispanic [ ]

Native American (American Indian, Alaskan Native) [ ]

Others [ ]

Cognitive Threat Appraisal

19. When I was reading the story, I felt:

The crisis situation in the story would be difficult for PETA to deal with.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

20. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    This crisis situation in the story would last a long time.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

21. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    This crisis situation in the story is a severe problem for PETA.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

22. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    PETA would not be certain about how to deal with the crisis situation in the story.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

23. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    PETA has not encountered a similar crisis situation such as that described in the story.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

24. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    Considerable knowledge would be needed for PETA to deal with the crisis situation in the story.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

25. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    It would be very time consuming for PETA to respond to the crisis situation in the story.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

26. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    A lot of financial support will be necessary for PETA to deal with the crisis situation in the story.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

27. When I was reading the story, I felt:

    It will be critical for top management of PETA to be supportive of public relations practitioners on how to deal with the crisis situation in the story.

    Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

Affective Threat Appraisal

28. In the PETA story you read,

    How likely is it that PETA would feel "unhappy" in the situation described in the story?

    Very unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Very likely

29. In the PETA story you read,

    How likely is it that PETA would feel "annoyed" in the situation described in the story?

    Very unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Very likely

30. In the PETA story you read,

    How likely is it that PETA would feel "unsatisfied" in the situation described in the story?

    Very unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Very likely

31. In the PETA story you read,

    How likely is it that PETA would feel "alarmed" in the situation described in the story?

    Very unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Very likely

32. In the PETA story you read,

    How likely is it that PETA would feel "agitated" in the situation described in the story?

    Very unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Very likely

33. In the PETA story you read,

How likely is it that PETA would feel "aroused" in the situation described in the story?

Very unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Very likely

Conative Threat Appraisal (Stance)

34. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will yield to the Animal Protection Institute's demands.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

35. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will agree to follow what the Animal Protection Institute proposed.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

36. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will accept the Animal Protection Institute's propositions.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

37. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will agree with the Animal Protection Institute on future actions or procedures.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

38. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will agree to try the solutions suggested by the Animal Protection Institute.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

39. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will express regret or apologize to the Animal Protection Institute.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

40. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will collaborate with the Animal Protection Institute in order to solve the

problem at hand.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

41. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will change its own position toward the Animal Protection Institute.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

42. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will make concessions with the Animal Protection Institute.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

43. Given the situation in the story,

PETA will admit wrongdoing.

Strongly disagree |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Strongly agree

Attitudes toward the Activist Organization

44. When I was reading the story,

My feeling about PETA is:

Unfavorable |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Favorable

45. When I was reading the story,

My feeling about PETA is:

Bad |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Good

46. When I was reading the story,

My feeling about PETA is:

Dislike |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Like

47. When I was reading the story,

My feeling about PETA is:

Negative |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Positive

Intention to Become a Member of the Activist Organization

48. When I was reading the story,

I would consider becoming a member of PETA in the future.

Unlikely |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Likely

49. When I was reading the story,

I would consider becoming a member of PETA in the future.

Impossible |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Possible

50. When I was reading the story,

I would consider becoming a member of PETA in the future.

Improbable |---1---|---2---|---3---|---4---|---5---|---6---|---7---| Probable

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Table 1

Types of Activists

	Low levels of anger	High levels of anger
High levels of efficacy	Empowered activists	Extremist
Low levels of efficacy	System activists	Frustrated activists

Table 2

Summary of Stimulus Messages

Factor	Factor level	Message variation	Description
Ascribed identity	Matched with avowed identity	PETA	Being supported by another animal rights group for PETA's commitment to meet its mission by taking care of animals that would otherwise be killed by humans
		Zoe's Ark	Being supported by another child welfare group for Zoe's Ark's consistent efforts to meet its own standards to improve child welfare
		KAB	Being supported by another environmental group for KAB's behavior in accordance with its own mission
		MADD	Being supported by another safe driving organization for MADD's efforts to work consistently to protect young drivers
	Unmatched with avowed identity	PETA	Being called a hypocritical organization killing animals by another animal rights group
		Zoe's Ark	Being called a hypocritical organization having a long history of abusing the children it claims to care for
		KAB	Being called a hypocritical organization having a long history of covering up the criminal activities of corporate polluters and violating their stated mission
		MADD	Being called a hypocritical organization altering its mission to favor the very industry they are supposed to be fighting
Anger	High	PETA	Being angry about the current status of animal rights
		Zoe's Ark	Being upset that many people fail to exhibit concern for the wellbeing of orphans in Africa

		KAB	Being upset about the current situation of community environments
		MADD	Being upset about the levels of effectiveness of anti-drinking-and-driving campaigns
	Low	PETA	Being pleased about the current status of animal rights
		Zoe's Ark	Being generally pleased about the effectiveness of humanitarian activist groups in Africa
		KAB	Being relatively pleased with the current environmental situation
		MADD	Being generally pleased about the effectiveness of anti-drinking-and-driving campaigns
Efficacy	High	PETA	Confident in making the world a better place for all beings with the aid of a massive volunteer network
		Zoe's Ark	Confident in providing the best care for children and make society more secure for children
		KAB	Confident in providing the best solution to make society cleaner for future generations
		MADD	Confident in changing society to be much safer and improving the conditions of society
	Low	PETA	Lack of confidence in making the world a better place for all beings
		Zoe's Ark	Lack of confidence in making a significant contribution to improving the lives of children
		KAB	Lack of confidence in making a big impact toward protecting the environment
		MADD	Lack of confidence in making a significant impact on the current status of drunk driving

Table 3

Manipulation Checks in Pilot Study

			M	*SE*
Ascribed identity	A discrepancy between the avowed mission and ascribed identity	Matched	3.53	.35
		Unmatched	5.85	.21
	The organization's behavior as being unmatched with its avowed mission	Matched	4.23	.31
		Unmatched	5.20	.28
Anger	Angry feelings	Low anger	2.56	.21
		High anger	5.37	.21
Efficacy	The organization's confident feelings	Low efficacy	3.80	.32
		High efficacy	5.40	.32
	The easiness for the organization to advocate its mission	Low efficacy	3.63	.34
		High efficacy	4.10	.34

Table 4

Operationalization: The Assessment of an Organization's Stance in a Crisis

"Given the situation, the organization will _____ (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*):"

AA: Action-based Accommodations
1. To yield to the public's demands
2. To agree to follow what the public proposed
3. To accept the publics' propositions
4. To agree with the public on future action or procedure
5. To agree to try the solutions suggested by the public

QRA: Qualified-rhetoric-mixed Accommodations
1. To express regret or apologize to the public
2. To collaborate with the public in order to solve the problem at hand
3. To change its own position toward that of the public
4. To make concessions with the public
5. To admit wrongdoing

Table 5

Manipulation Checks in Main Study

			M	*SE*
Ascribed identity	A discrepancy between the avowed mission and ascribed identity	Matched	2.63	.15
		Unmatched	6.04	.11
	The organization's behavior as being unmatched with its avowed mission	Matched	3.39	.14
		Unmatched	5.30	.12
Anger	Angry feelings	Low anger	3.22	.13
		High anger	5.33	.13
Efficacy	The organization's confident feelings	Low efficacy	3.68	.14
		High efficacy	5.24	.15
	The easiness for the organization to advocate its mission	Low efficacy	3.52	.13
		High efficacy	4.32	.14

Table 6

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Situational Demands

Independent variables		*M*	*SE*	*F*(1, 151)	*p*	η_p^2
Ascribed identity	Matched	3.84	.09	58.49	< .001	.279
	Unmatched	4.65	.08			
Anger	Low anger	4.03	.10	9.62	.002	.060
	High anger	4.65	.10			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	4.40	.10	5.04	.026	.032
	High efficacy	4.09	.10			
Anger × Ascribed identity				.00	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy × Ascribed identity				.12	*ns*	*ns*
Anger × Efficacy				.89	*ns*	*ns*
Anger × Efficacy × Ascribed identity				.00	*ns*	*ns*

Table 7

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Organizational Resources

Independent variables		*M*	*SE*	$F(1, 151)$	*p*	η_p^2
Ascribed identity	Matched	4.33	.09	28.48	< .001	.159
	Unmatched	4.93	.09			
Anger	Low anger	4.41	.10	9.86	.002	.061
	High anger	4.85	.10			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	4.77	.10	4.05	.046	.026
	High efficacy	4.49	.10			
Anger × Ascribed identity				1.71	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy × Ascribed identity				.37	*ns*	*ns*
Anger × Efficacy				.83	*ns*	*ns*
Anger × Efficacy × Ascribed identity				.07	*ns*	*ns*

Table 8

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Emotional Valence

		M	*SE*	$F(1, 301)$	*p*	η_p^2
Independent variables						
Ascribed identity	Matched	5.25	.09	12.87	< .001	.041
	Unmatched	5.73	.09			
Anger	Low anger	5.27	.09	10.53	.001	.034
	High anger	5.70	.09			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	5.56	.09	1.05	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	5.42	.10			
Anger × Ascribed identity				1.92	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy × Ascribed identity				3.27	*ns*	*ns*
Anger × Efficacy				7.62	.006	.025
Anger × Efficacy × Ascribed identity				.69	*ns*	*ns*
Covariate						
Issue involvement				7.79	.006	.025

Table 9

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Emotional Arousal

Independent variables		*M*	*SE*	*F*(1, 151)	*p*	η_p^2
Ascribed identity	Matched	4.56	.10	14.04	< .001	.085
	Unmatched	4.99	.10			
Anger	Low anger	4.47	.12	14.24	<. 001	.086
	High anger	5.08	.12			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	4.76	.11	.03	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	4.79	.12			
Anger X Ascribed identity				.05	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy X Ascribed identity				.70	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy				5.02	.026	.032
Anger X Efficacy X Ascribed identity				1.10	*ns*	*ns*

Table 10

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Action-based Accommodations

Independent variables		*M*	*SE*	*F*(1, 151)	*p*	η_p^2
Ascribed identity	Matched	4.74	.10	81.38	< .001	.350
	Unmatched	3.48	.12			
Anger	Low anger	4.21	.11	1.62	*ns*	*ns*
	High anger	4.01	.11			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	4.10	.11	.01	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	4.11	.12			
Anger X Ascribed identity				.49	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy X Ascribed identity				3.75	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy				2.86	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy X Ascribed identity				.99	*ns*	*ns*

Table 11

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Qualified-rhetoric-mixed Accommodations

Independent variables		*M*	*SE*	*F*(1, 151)	*p*	η_p^2
Ascribed identity	Matched	4.03	.08	30.61	< .001	.169
	Unmatched	3.33	.11			
Anger	Low anger	3.73	.10	.47	*ns*	*ns*
	High anger	3.64	.10			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	3.67	.10	.04	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	3.70	.10			
Anger X Ascribed identity				.23	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy X Ascribed identity				1.34	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy				1.32	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy X Ascribed identity				2.14	*ns*	*ns*

Table 12

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Attitudes toward the Activist Organization

Independent variables		*M*	*SE*	*F*(1, 151)	*p*	η_p^2
Ascribed identity	Matched	3.50	.12	64.64	< .001	.300
	Unmatched	4.93	.14			
Anger	Low anger	4.07	.13	2.25	*ns*	*ns*
	High anger	4.36	.13			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	4.27	.13	.37	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	4.16	.14			
Anger X Ascribed identity				1.60	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy X Ascribed identity				1.90	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy				.25	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy X Ascribed identity				2.14	*ns*	*ns*

Table 13

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Intention to Become a Member of the Activist Organization with Familiarity as a Covariate

		M	*SE*	$F(1, 301)$	*p*	η_p^2
Independent variables						
Ascribed identity	Matched	1.74	.04	41.67	< .001	.122
	Unmatched	1.41	.04			
Anger	Low anger	1.58	.04	.02	*ns*	*Ns*
	High anger	1.57	.04			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	1.60	.04	1.76	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	1.54	.04			
Anger X Ascribed identity				.02	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy X Ascribed identity				.00	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy				1.57	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy X Ascribed identity				.01	*ns*	*ns*
Covariate						
Familiarity				10.50	.001	.034

Table 14

The Influence of Ascribed Identity, Anger, and Efficacy on Intention to Become a Member of the Activist Organization with Prior Attitudes as a Covariate

		M	*SE*	$F(1, 301)$	*p*	η_p^2
Independent variables						
Ascribed identity	Matched	1.74	.03	48.57	< .001	.139
	Unmatched	1.41	.03			
Anger	Low anger	1.58	.03	.02	*ns*	*Ns*
	High anger	1.57	.03			
Efficacy	Low efficacy	1.61	.03	1.76	*ns*	*ns*
	High efficacy	1.54	.03			
Anger X Ascribed identity				.12	*ns*	*ns*
Efficacy X Ascribed identity				.32	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy				2.17	*ns*	*ns*
Anger X Efficacy X Ascribed identity				.08	*ns*	*ns*
Covariate						
Prior attitudes				48.05	<.001	.138

Table 15

Summary of the Results

Dependent variables/ Measured effects	Hypotheses and research questions	Results
Situational demands	**H1a**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.	S
	H2a: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to low anger.	S
	H3a: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than those exposed to high efficacy.	S
	H4a: Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive higher situational demands than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	S
Organizational resources	**H1b**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.	S
	H2b: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to low anger.	S
	H3b: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than those exposed to high efficacy.	S
	H4b: Participants exposed to high anger and low efficacy will expect the organization to perceive more organizational resources than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS
Emotional valence	**H1c**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.	S
	H2c: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than those exposed to low anger.	S
	RQ3: What is the relationship between efficacy levels and participants' assessment of the negativity of the organization's feelings?	NS
	H4c: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to have more negative feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS

Emotional arousal	**H1d**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.	S
	H2d: Participants exposed to high anger will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than those exposed to low anger.	S
	RQ4: What is the relationship between efficacy levels and participants' assessment of the intensity of the organization's feelings?	NS
	H4d: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to have more intense feelings than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS
Action-based accommodations	**H1e**: Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity.	S
	H2e: Participants exposed to low anger will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high anger.	NS
	H3e: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to take a more action-based accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high efficacy.	NS
	H4e: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to take a less accommodative stance than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS
Qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations	**H1f**: Participants exposed to matched ascribed identity will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to unmatched ascribed identity.	S
	H2f: Participants exposed to low anger will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high anger.	NS
	H3f: Participants exposed to low efficacy will expect the organization to take a more qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance when faced with a crisis situation in conflict management than those exposed to high efficacy.	NS
	H4f: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will expect the organization to take a less qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodative stance than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS

Attitudes toward the activist organization	**H1g**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will have more negative attitudes toward the activist organization than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.	S
	RQ1: What is the relationship between anger levels and attitudes toward the activist organization?	NS
	H3g: Participants exposed to low efficacy will have more negative attitudes toward the activist organization than those exposed to high efficacy.	NS
	H4g: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will be more likely to have positive attitudes toward the activist organization than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS
Intention to become a member of the activist organization	**H1h**: Participants exposed to unmatched ascribed identity will be less likely to intend to join a member of the activist organization than those exposed to matched ascribed identity.	S
	RQ2: What is the relationship between anger levels and intention to become a member of the activist organization?	NS
	H3h: Participants exposed to low efficacy will be less likely to intend to join a member of the activist organization than those exposed to high efficacy.	NS
	H4h: Participants exposed to high anger and high efficacy will be more likely to express intention to become a member of the activist organization than any other combination of anger and efficacy.	NS
Interactions between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity	**RQ5a**: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on situational demands?	NO
	RQ5b: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on organizational resources?	NO
	RQ5c: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on emotional valence? A two-way interaction was found between anger and efficacy	YES
	RQ5d: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on emotional arousal? A two-way interaction was found between anger and efficacy	YES
	RQ5e: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on action-based accommodations?	NO
	RQ5f: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations?	NO
	RQ5g: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on attitudes toward the activist organization?	NO
	RQ5h: Is there an interaction between anger, efficacy, and ascribed identity on intention to become a member of the activist organization?	NO

Note: S: supported; NS: not supported for hypotheses/non-significant for research questions

Figure 1

The Advocacy-Accommodation Continuum

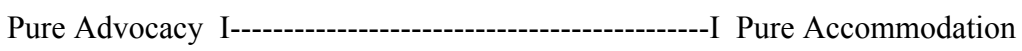


Figure 2

Dimensionality of Threat

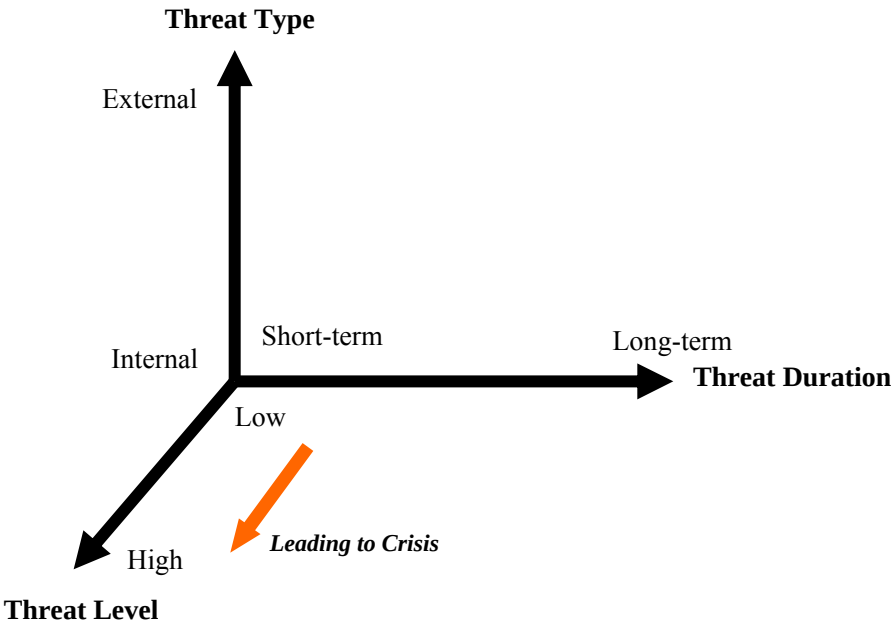
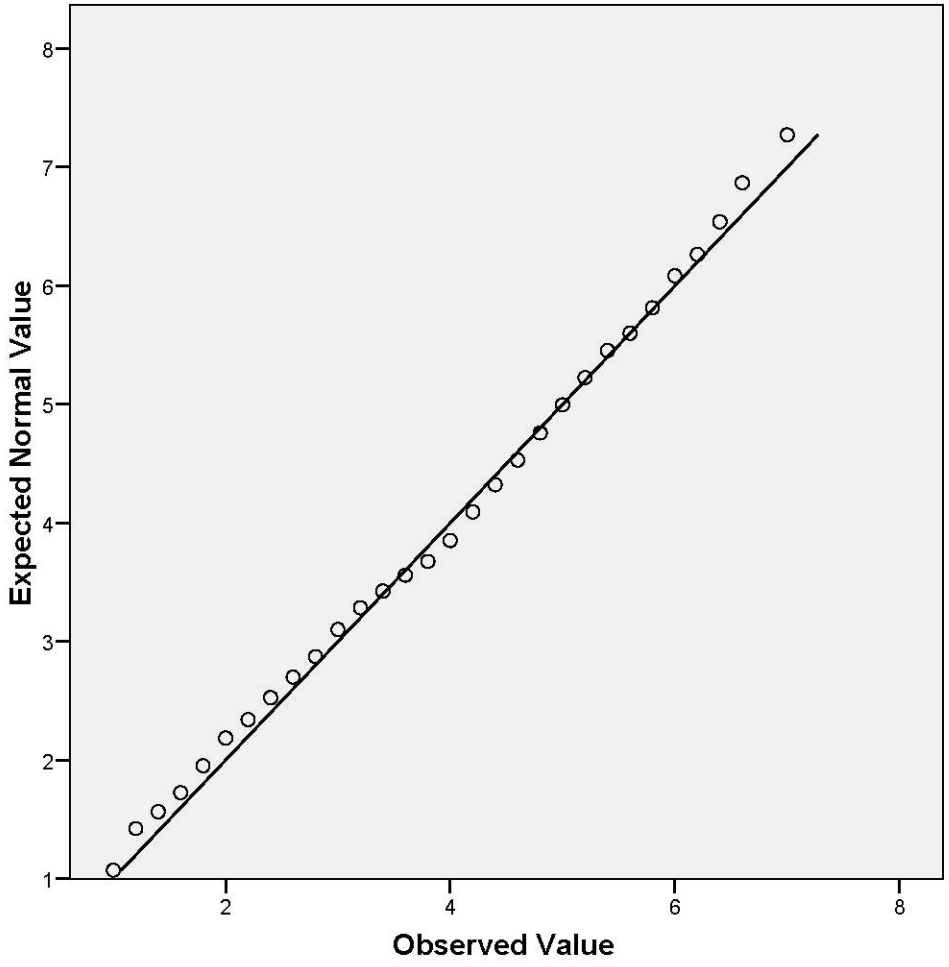


Figure 3

Threat Appraisal Model

Figure 4

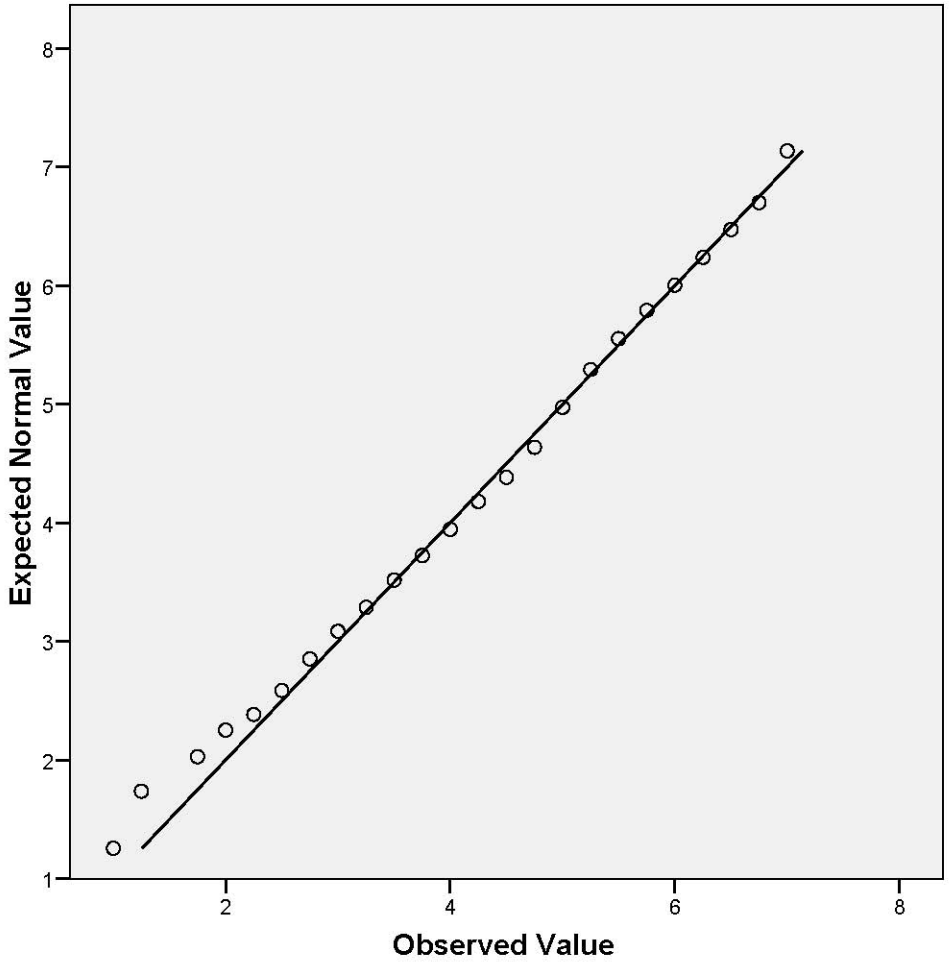
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Situational Demands Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of situational demands items.

Figure 5

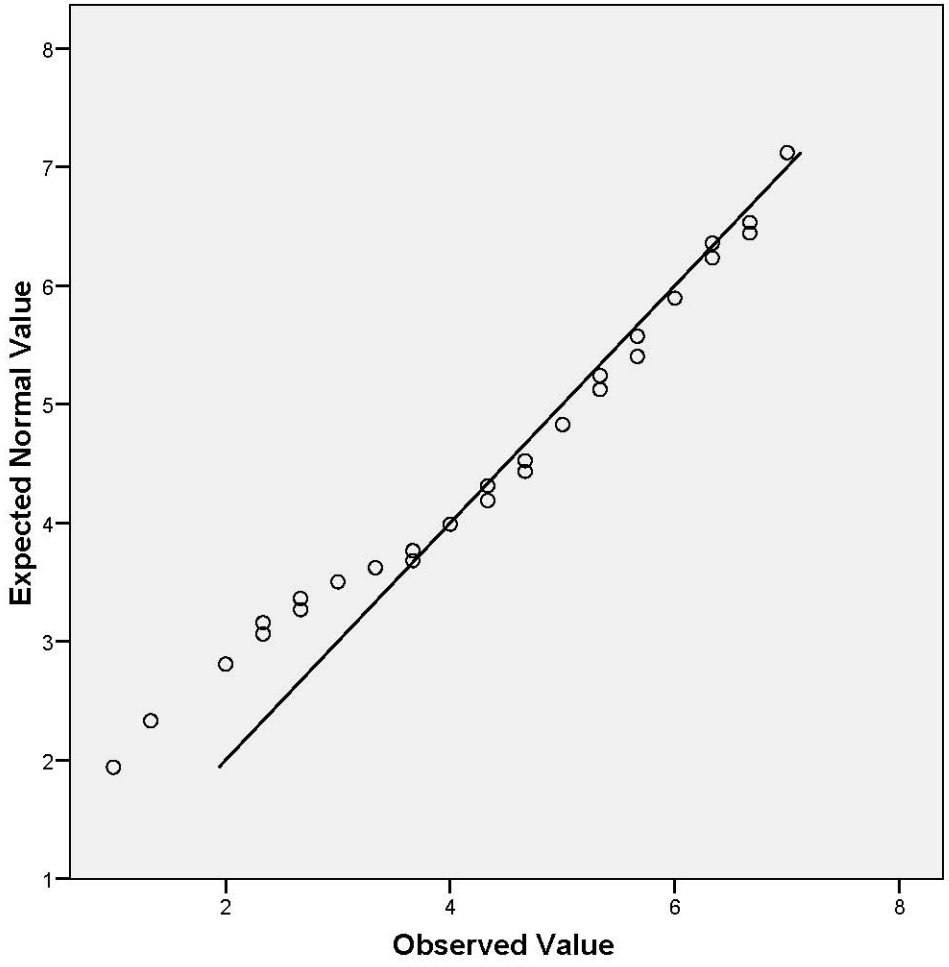
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Organizational Resources Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of organizational resources items.

Figure 6

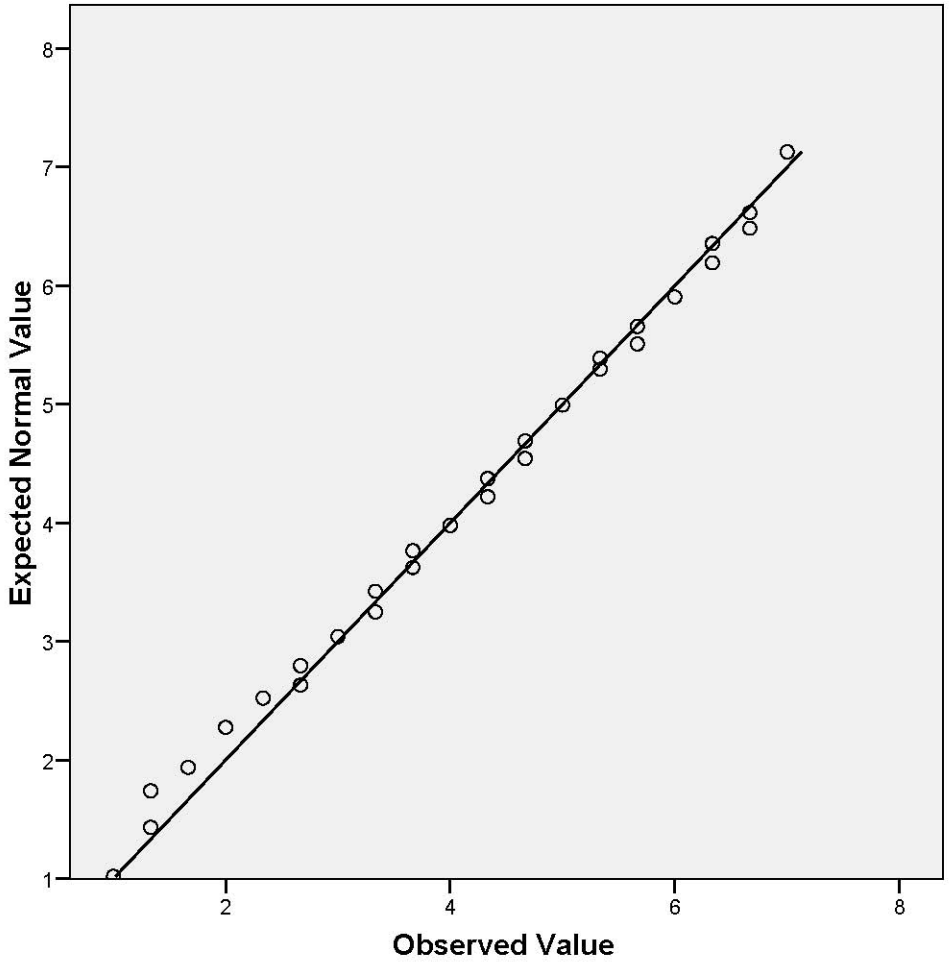
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Emotional Valence Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of emotional valence items.

Figure 7

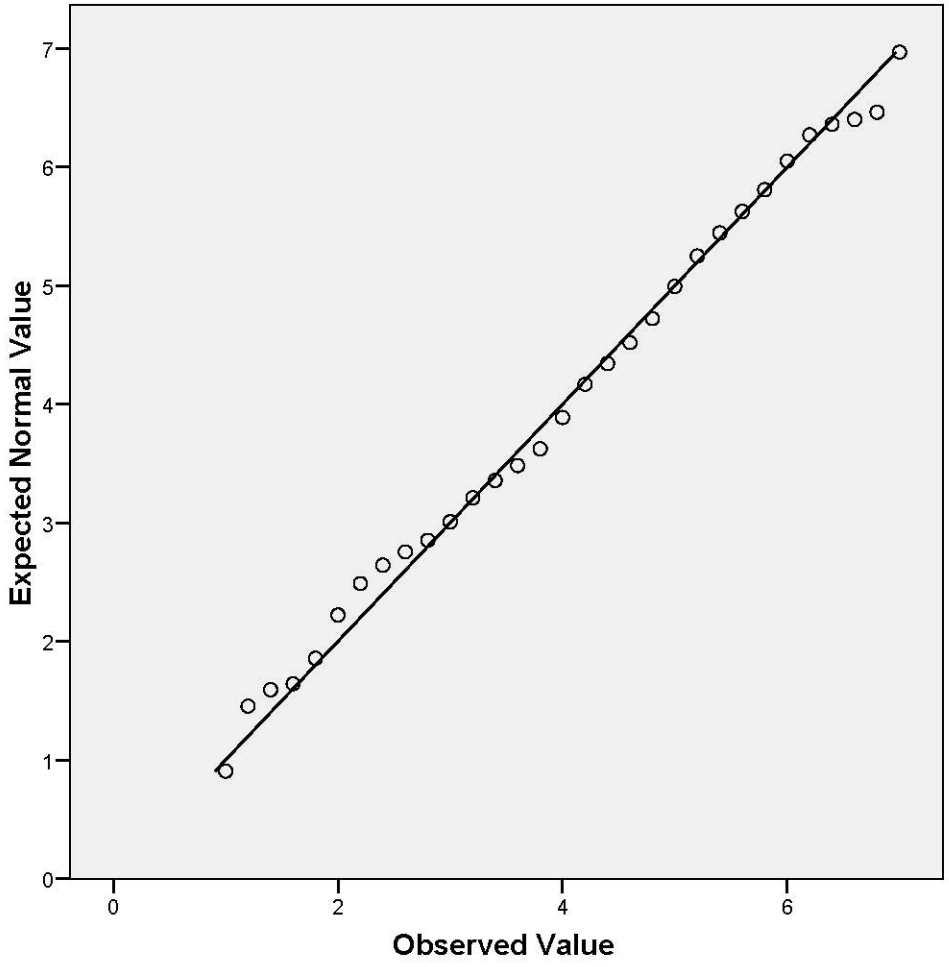
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Emotional Arousal Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of emotional arousal items.

Figure 8

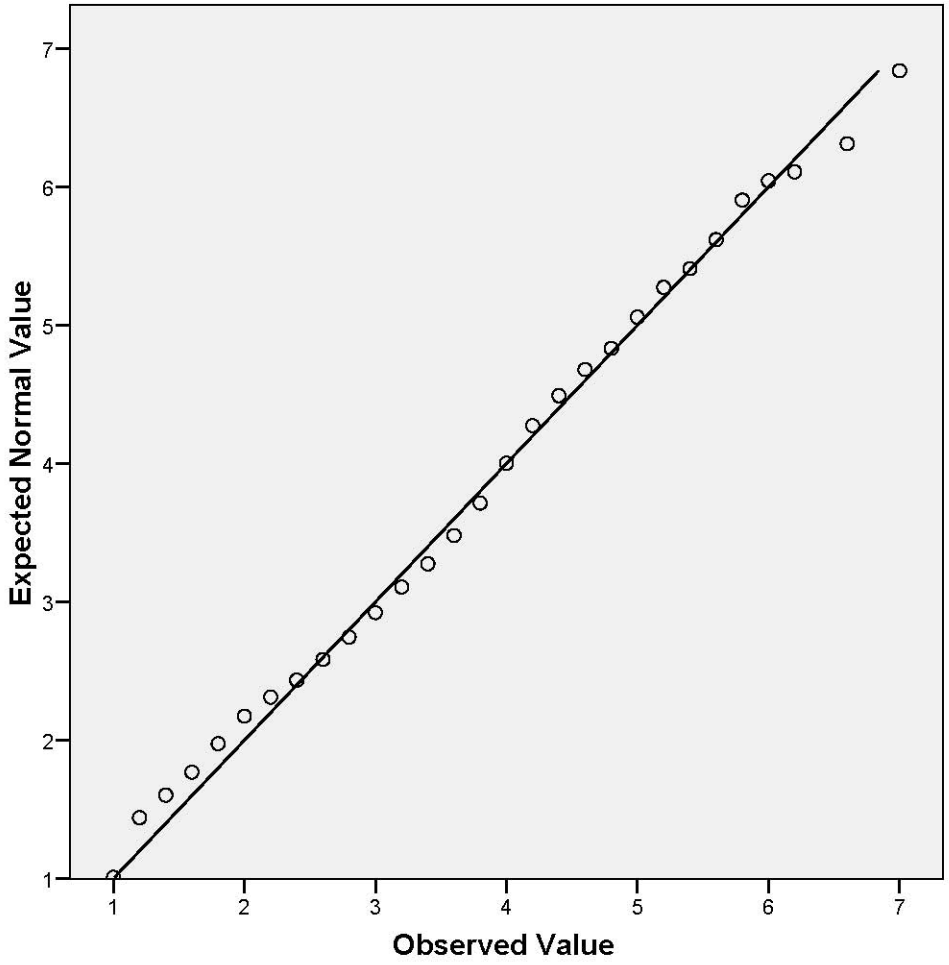
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Action-based Accommodations Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of action-based accommodations items.

Figure 9

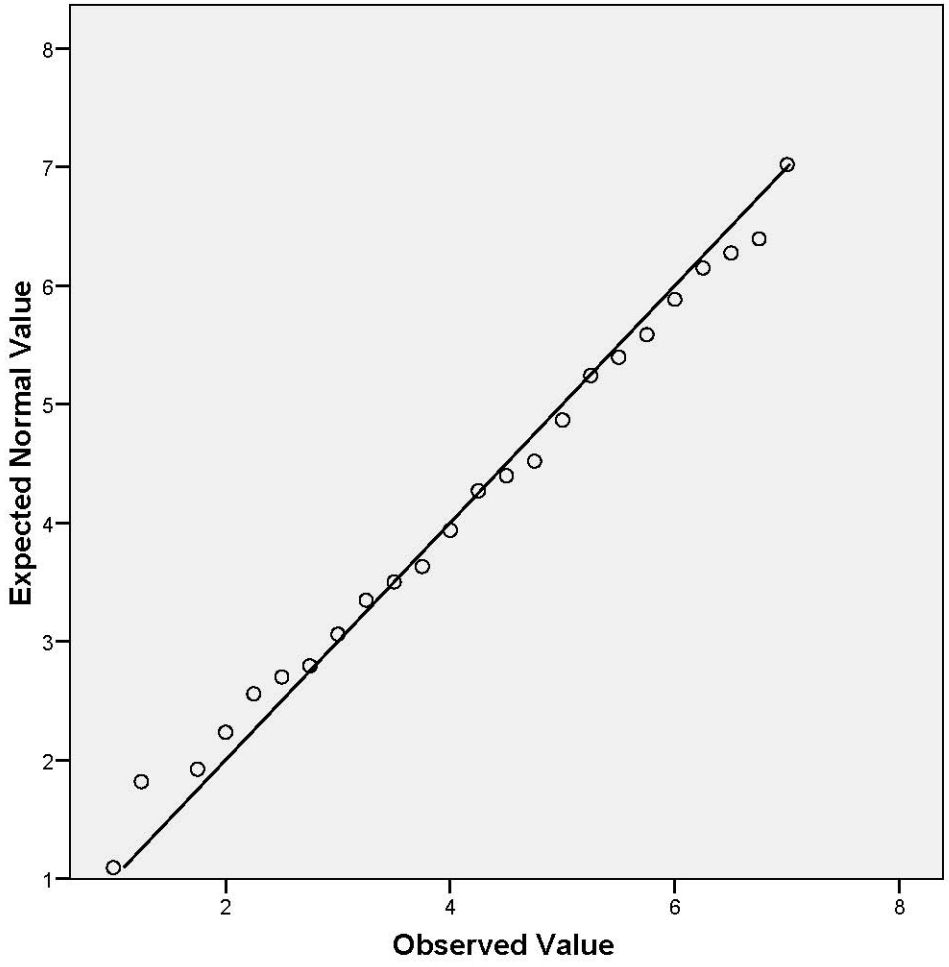
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Qualified-rhetoric-mixed Accommodations Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of Qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodations items.

Figure 10

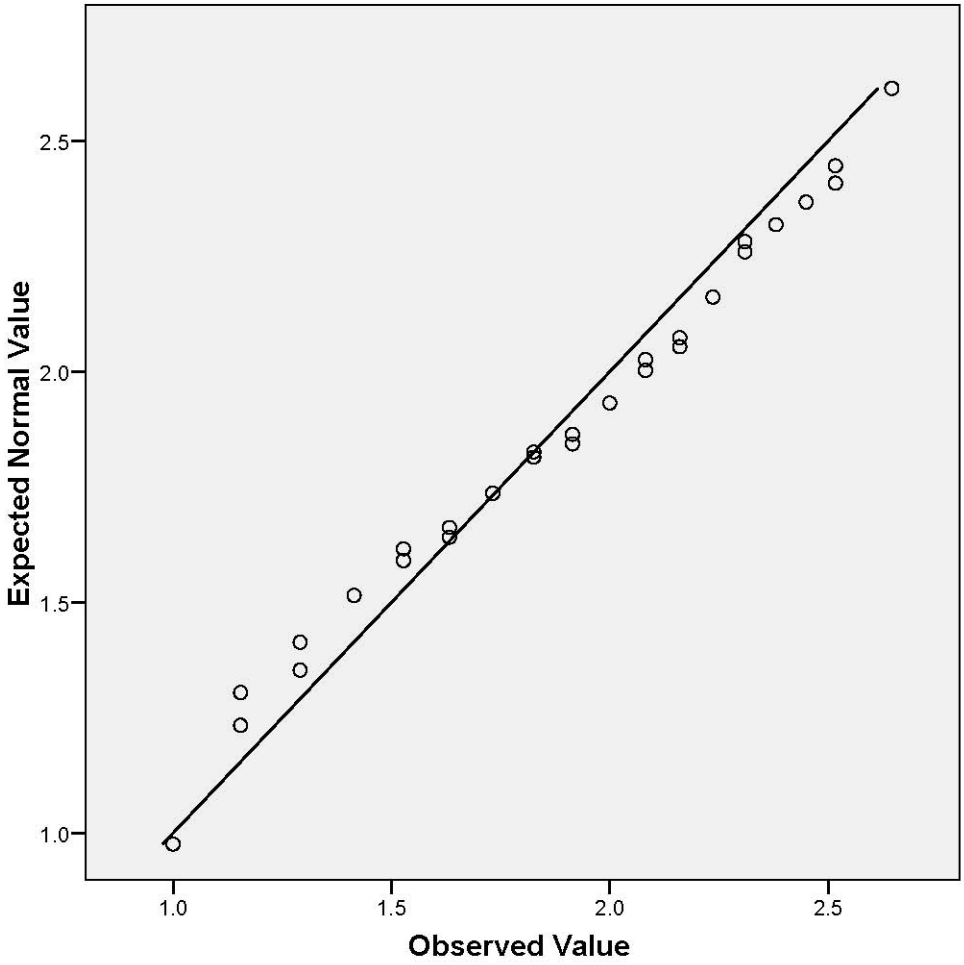
Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Attitudes toward the Activist Organization Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of attitudes toward the activist organization items.

Figure 11

Normal Q-Q plot of the Index Score of Intention to Become a Member of the Activist Organization Items



Note: The diagonal line indicates the normality of the index score data of intention to become a member of the activist organization items.

Figure 12

Interaction Effect of Efficacy by Anger on Emotional Valence

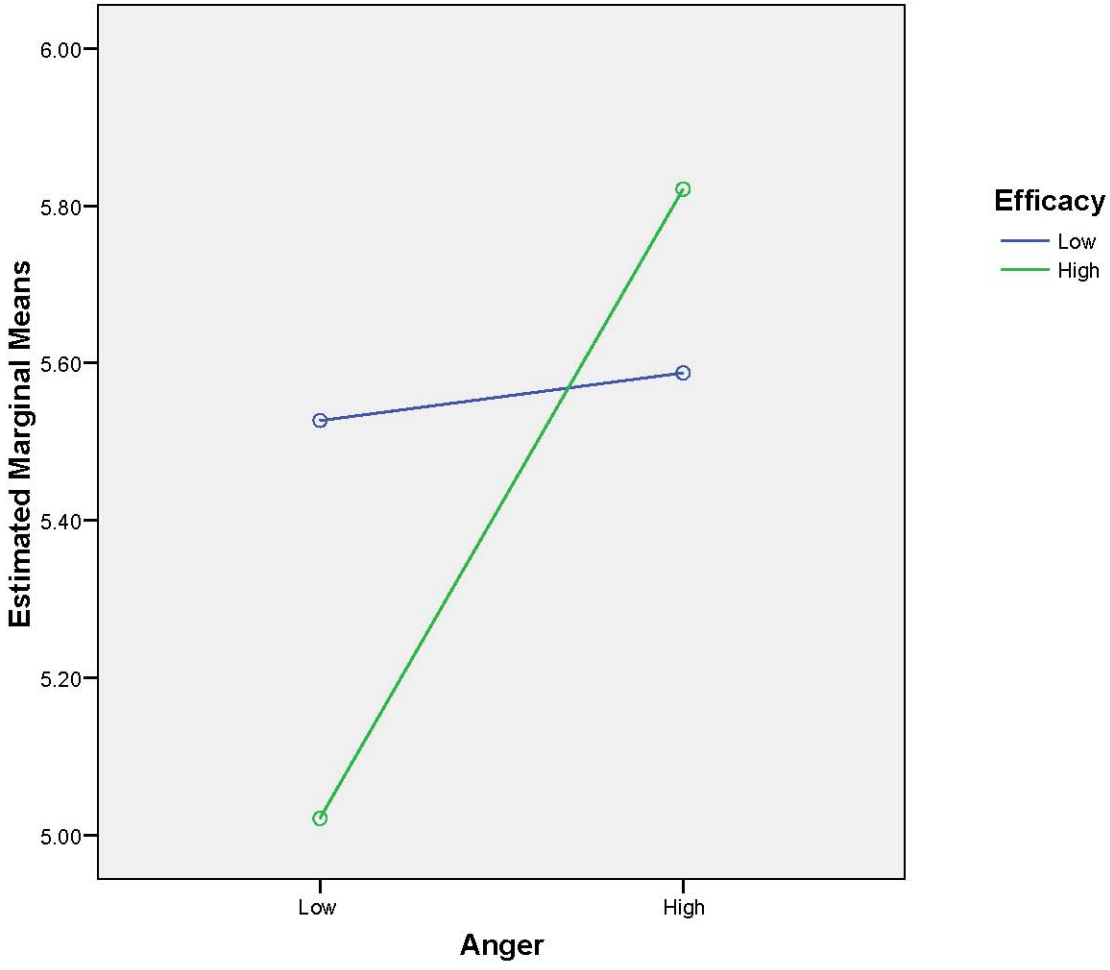


Figure 13

Interaction Effect of Anger by Efficacy on Emotional Valence

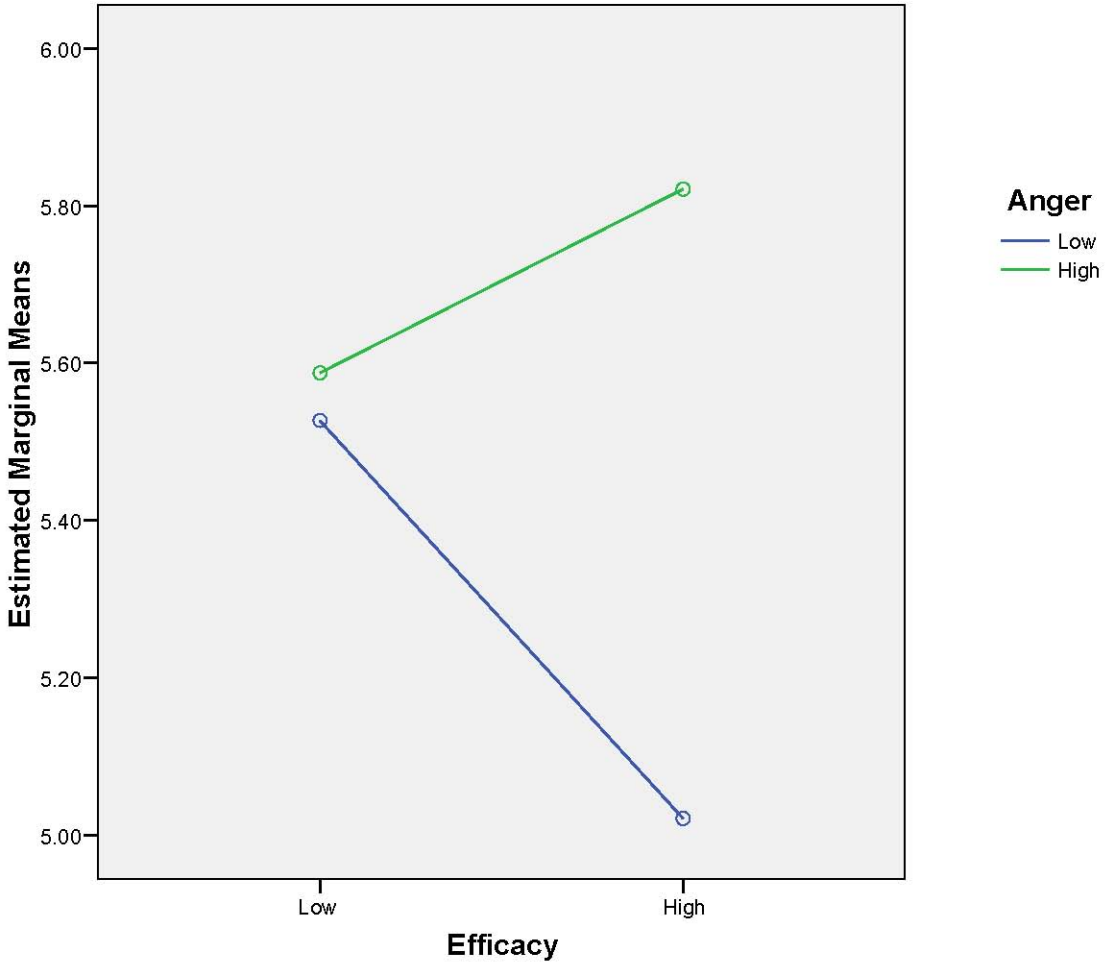


Figure 14

Interaction Effect of Efficacy by Anger on Emotional Arousal

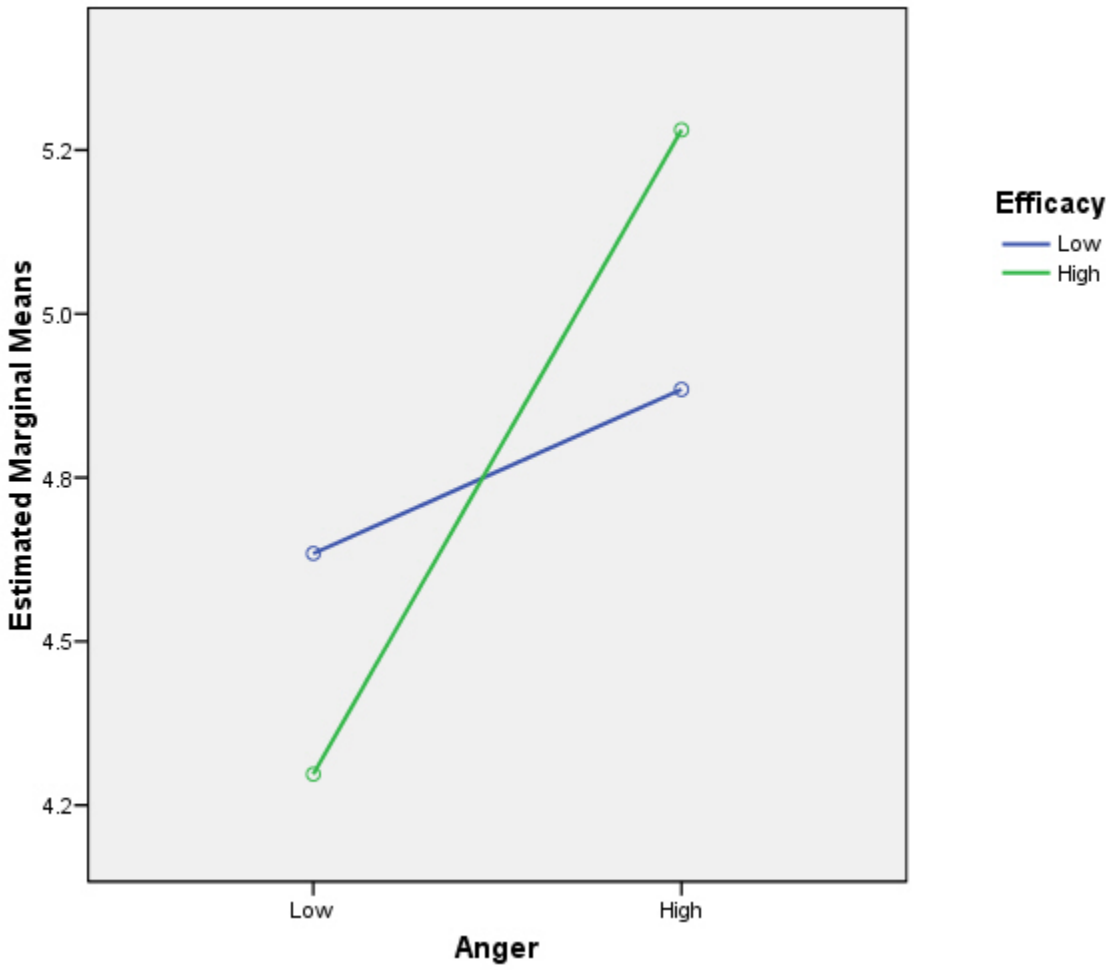
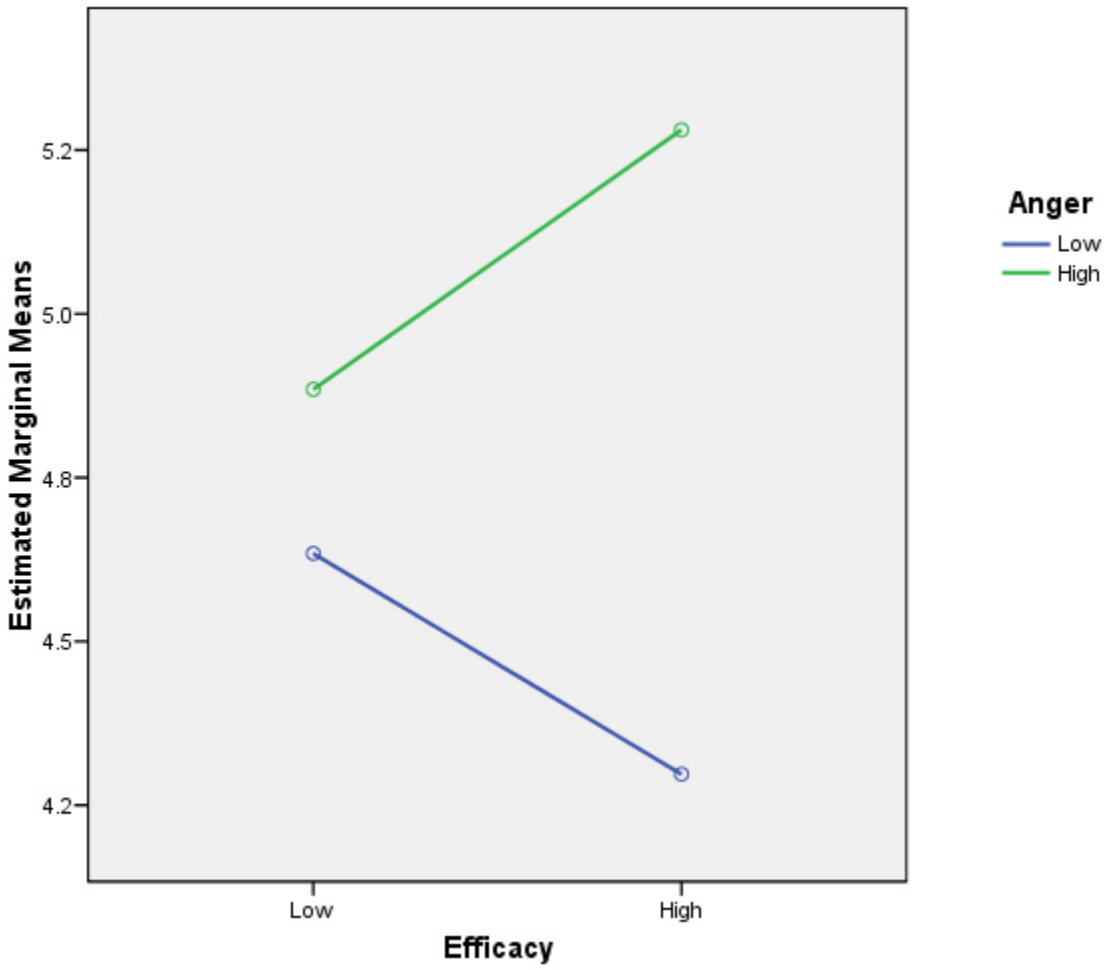


Figure 15

Interaction Effect of Anger by Efficacy on Emotional Arousal



VITA

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