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Identification and Measurement of Two Factors Affecting the Long-Term Outcomes of

Public Relations Programs: Public Image and Public Trust

by

Kimberly B. Amendola

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts Department of Mass Communication College of Arts and Science University of South Florida

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Keywords: public relations measurement, communication, organization-public relationship, email survey, external stakeholder

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my fiancé, Christian Eichinger. Your unconditional love and support gave me the strength to finish this manuscript. Thank you for the shoulder messages, home cooked meals, and serenity.

Furthermore, I dedicate this thesis to Dr. Derina Holtzhausen and Dr. Barbara K. Petersen, the two professors who most influenced my academic success. Your support and encouragement was everlasting from the moment I stepped into your offices. Your dedication to the field of public relations, academia, and students is encouraging and positively contagious. Thank you for the once-in-a-lifetime opportunity.

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Identification and Measurement of Two Factors Affecting the Long-Term Outcomes of Public Relations Programs: Public Image and Public Trust

Kimberly B. Amendola

ABSTRACT

This study explores the most current theories surrounding organization-public relationship measurement, which is one approach used to verify the effectiveness of public relations programs. The study attempted to define and test two new factors that may affect organization-public relationships, which are identified as *public image* and *public trust*. Existing factors used to test such relationships, such as *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*, focus on testing the perceptions stakeholders have about an organization based upon their interpersonal relationship with that organization. However, in organizations where the dominant coalition still does not view public relations as a management function, use of the existing scales to measure the long-term effectiveness of public relations programs can be dangerous and inaccurate, especially when public relations practitioners are not responsible for creating, maintaining, or managing those organization-public relationships.

A 65-item questionnaire was administered via email to a convenience sample of 5,799 stakeholders. A total of 1,193 completed questionnaires were received; however, a response rate could not be reported because the questionnaire was posted to a popular Internet site. The survey instrument tested new items for *public image* and *public trust*, as well as the existing relationship items of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality* defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999).

Factor analysis defined two new indices for *public image* and *public trust* and Cronbach's alpha further supported the reliability of these measures. Also, Cronbach's alphas tested reliable for *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*. However, when all items for *public image*, *public trust*, *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality* were subject to factor analysis, all but four items weighted into one factor. This suggests the need to further explore new measurement tools for assessing the long-term effectiveness of public relations programs beyond the organization-public relationship. "A primary function of public relations is managing image. Managing image involves controlling how actors in the environment perceive an organization."

Robert J. Ristino (2003)

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates the most current theories surrounding organization-public relationship measurement, which is one approach used to measure the effectiveness of public relations programs. Factors such as *trust* and *commitment* are currently used to measure organization-public relationships. These factors focus on testing the perceptions stakeholders have about an organization based upon their interpersonal relationships with that organization; thus, concluding that strong relationships are the result of an effective public relations program and weak relationships are the result of a less effective public relations program. Although an excellent theory, the methodology can be inappropriately applied within organizations that do not consider relationship management to be, in part, the role of its public relations staff. Therefore, this study will attempt to define two new measurement factors that are not dependent upon interpersonal relationships. These factors are identified as *public image* and *public trust* for this study. The theory behind these factors is to identify a more appropriate instrument for measuring the long-term effects of public relations programs based upon universal duties of public relations practitioners, such as quality of literature, media relations, and the execution of public relations programs.

Over the last decade, public relations scholars and practitioners have developed an innate awareness of the need for measuring the long-term effects of public relations programs. The issue is addressed in popular trade magazines (Michaelson, Weiner, Rambeau, 2003), peer-reviewed journals (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Bruning & Ledingham, 2000a; Bruning & Galloway, 2002), and is even highlighted on *The Institute for Public Relations*' Web site (Institute for Public Relations, 2003). The focus of public relations conferences has shifted in this direction as well. This shift started with a summit on evaluating public relations outputs and outcomes held in 1996 among a dozen leading practitioners, counselors, researchers, and academicians (Lindenmann, 1997a). More recently, The Sixth International, Interdisciplinary Public Relations Research Conference (2003) and The Measurement Standard Summit (2003) provided venues for scholars to share new measurement theories and for practitioners to share current case studies addressing measurement practices. Both forums specifically addressed public relations measurement.

Previously, public relations was measured exclusively through short-term communication flows, such as counting press releases and news clippings, rather than measuring perceptual, symbolic, relational, and behavioral long-term outcomes (Bruning & Ledingham, 2000b). Bruning and Ledingham (1999) supported this notion when they said, "The practice of public relations has been grounded in a journalistic approach, and initially the field was concerned almost exclusively on generating publicity through the use of press agentry" (p. 158).

More recently, scholars are changing their research efforts from solely measuring short-term communication flows to measuring long-term outcomes, such as organizationpublic relationships (Bruning, 2002). Heath (2001) said, "The heart of the new view of the practice of public relations is the mutually beneficial relationships that an organization needs to enjoy a license to operate. Instead of engineering acceptance of a product or service, the new view of public relations assumes that markets are attracted to and kept by organizations that can create mutually beneficial relationships" (p. 3).

One can turn to a number of relationship measurement scales available to practitioners and scholars for measuring long-term effects of public relations. Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999), Bruning and Ledingham (1999), and Huang (2001a) have identified and tested organization-public relationship scales in an effort to measure the perceived relationships and attitudes between an organization and its stakeholders. Again, in theory, a strong relationship would symbolize a successful or excellent public relations program, and a weak relationship would symbolize a less excellent public relations program. Those who review these scales will find them valid tools for measuring perceptions of interpersonal relationships that exist between two known entities sharing a common issue or interest.

However, practitioners and scholars must be cautious when relying upon these scales as a sole method for measuring the effectiveness of an organization's public relations practitioners and programs, especially when those practitioners do not engage in any sort of relationship building, maintenance, or management activities between their organization and its stakeholders. Even when involved in those activities, practitioners might not have sole control over those relationships, and factors external to the organization, such as the media, may also influence their organizations' relationships. Therefore, holding public relations practitioners solely responsible for the long-term

outcomes of organization-public relationships, especially those they are not involved with, is not the most effective way of measuring the performance of public relations practitioners or the outcomes of public relations programs. Practitioners must be assigned the responsibility before they can be held accountable for its outcome.

Three reasons stand out as to why practitioners are not typically responsible for organization-public relationships. The first is when practitioners are employed by a public relations agency. Often, there is not enough time or opportunity for these practitioners to be maintaining relationships between their clients and their clients' stakeholders. Secondly, executive staff or the dominant coalition still do not understand the role of public relations as a management function. Finally, practitioners often lack the management expertise needed to understand relationship building (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999; L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002).

As a result, it is conceivable to speculate that the existing scales available to measure organization-public relationships should only be used to evaluate the long-term effectiveness of public relations programs when practitioners are tasked with the management function of building and maintaining relationships. Furthermore, this study posits that it is up to public relations scholars and practitioners to design new instruments more suitable for measuring the long-term effects of public relations programs independent of organization-public relationship measurement. These instruments must include measurement of more tangible items that practitioners are responsible for, such as media outputs or logo recognition.

Therefore, this study will not only define and test existing factors surrounding interpersonal organization-public relationships, but it will also attempt to identify and test

two new factors, *public image* and *public trust*, which are not necessarily a result of or influenced by any interpersonal relationships. Managing *image* and building *trust* through public relations outputs, such as media outputs, are two responsibilities public relations practitioners are often tasked with providing for an organization (Ristino, 2003). Thus, this study will review the literature surrounding both *image* and *trust*, as well as attempt to define items or variables reliable for measuring each index.

The term *image* takes on many definitions throughout theory and practice; in fact, the definition changes between disciplines (Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000). Some theorists consider *image* to be construed as an internal organizational function (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994), and others convey it to be an external function (Hatch & Schultz, 2002). There is very little discussion about *image* within the public relations body of literature, and it appears that public relations theorists and researchers shy away from the term. Thus, for this study, the term *public image* was coined and defined as an external function in terms of a perception that stakeholders' have of an organization's *image* based upon media outputs and other personal experiences.

Unlike *image*, *trust* is addressed regularly throughout public relations literature, especially in regard to organization-public relationships (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999). This type of *trust* is typically identified as an interpersonal *trust*, where you *trust* me, and I *trust* you; however, there is another type of *trust*, which is identified as *public trust*. *Public trust* identifies the perception external stakeholders have in terms of trusting an organization based upon what they see and hear through media outputs and other personal experiences (Thomas, 1998). Like *public image*, *public trust* is also viewed as an external function for this study.

The central thesis of this study is to prove that factors such as *public image* and *public trust* can affect stakeholders' perceptions of an organization and that these factors can be used to measure long-term outcomes of public relations programs. The literature review will include a discussion of the existing theory and scales used to define and measure organization-public relationships; a summary of *image* and *trust* as they are interpreted throughout interdisciplinary research; and definitions of *public image* and *public trust*. Finally, an effort will be made to map out the ways in which communication flows, such as media outputs, can influence long-term outcomes, and to determine whether long-term outcomes may influence one another.

Chapter Two

LITERATURE REVIEW

Measuring the effectiveness of public relations programs has challenged scholars and practitioners for years. Although they may understand the value of public relations, executive staff and those within the dominant coalition struggle with the field since it cannot be viewed as a budget line item (Felton, 2003). Thus, scholars and practitioners have begun to identify instruments to measure long-term outcomes of public relations programs beyond the line item.

Measuring Long-Term Outcomes Through Organization-Public Relationships

Lindenmann (1997a, 1997b) suggested, in a series of guiding principles for public relations, that there is more to measuring and evaluating public relations than merely to measure media content. Both studies advocated that public relations should always be measured or evaluated in relation to each organization's goals, objectives, and strategies, and, that it is important to differentiate between measuring public relations outputs (short-term goals) and public relations outcomes (long-term goals). They also argued that public relations effectiveness should not be compared to advertising or marketing effectiveness.

Scholars and practitioners began measuring short-term outputs of public relations programs and the effects they had on two-way relationships during the 1970s. However, during the 1980s, they gradually shifted focus toward measuring long-term outcomes (Bruning & Galloway, 2002). This was known as the moment in time when public relations was established as a management function (J. E. Grunig & Huang, 2000). Ledingham (2001) referred to this shift from measuring short-term effects to measuring long-term effects as the "reconceptualization of public relations" (p. 286) where the public relations practitioners were challenged to shift from validation (clip-counting) to evaluation (measuring behavior outcomes).

Scholars have identified achieving excellent organization-public relationships as a long-term outcome of public relations programs (Huang, 1997; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999). However, as relationship management becomes one of the most widely understood ideologies in public relations scholarship, measuring the long-term effects of such relationships remains one of the most underutilized and misunderstood methods in public relations practice, where it has become increasingly more important.

Bruning and Galloway (2002) argued that "if effective measurement and management techniques can be developed, public relations practitioners will be able to demonstrate the ways in which public relations activity influences organizational outcomes, and relationships will remain center stage in study and practice" (p. 310). They felt the long-term success of these "center stage" relationships would rely heavily on communication, behavior, and mutual understanding and agreement between an organization and its publics.

Although there is not one clear definition of public relations, top scholars predominantly include relationship management in their definitions of public relations (Bruning, 2002). For example, Cutlip, Center, and Broom (1985) defined public relations as "the management function that identifies, establishes, and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the various publics on whom its

success or failure depends" (p.5). *Organization-public relationships* are defined as relationships existing between an organization and any of its publics that can constrain or enhance the organization's ability to meet its mission (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999).

The term *relationship* best describes the desired long-term outcome of public relations practice. Researchers state, "An organization with effective public relations will attain positive public relationships" (Center & Jackson, 1995, p. 2). Some argue that the results or outcome of the behavioral relationship are far more important than the symbolic relationship that can exist between an organization and its publics (Center & Jackson, 1995).

To the question "Why is relationship management important for organizations?" scholars offered several explanations. Effective relationships help an organization maintain key constituencies and save money by reducing the cost of litigation, regulation, legislation, pressure campaigns, or lost revenue that results from bad relationships. Cultivating relationships with donors, stakeholders, and legislators can, in turn, increase revenue, increase user buy-in, and garner more support for the organization and its mission (Hunt & J. E. Grunig, 1994; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999).

One goal of public relations is for organizations to communicate well with their publics to ensure each side knows what to expect from the other. This builds strong, trusting relationships and perhaps lessens the effect a public can have on an organization's mission and goals. Each side does not always have to agree or get along, as long as they have understanding. Ultimately, communication and compromise are the foundation of public relations (Hunt & J. E. Grunig, 1994). Lindenmann (1998) quotes Kathleen Ward stating, "Positive relationships are those in which both or all parties

perceive that they benefit. As in any relationship, some accommodations will be called for" (p. 19).

As relationship studies began to appear during the mid-1980s, measuring organization-public relationships did not take full shape in scholarship until the 1990s (Lindenmann, 1997a; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Ledingham, 2001; Bruning, 2002). Relationship building has become such an important focus in public relations today because publics are more active and interactive than ever before (Bruning, 2002). Thus, the value of public relations comes from the relationships that communicators develop and maintain with publics. Practitioners help organizations build relationships with their publics by facilitating communication between subsystems of an organization and its publics, both internally and externally (L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002).

Once an organization-public relationship is established, the type, strength, and effects of that relationship should be evaluated. Thus, the following scholars have offered up instruments that identify the type of relationship that exists between an organization and its publics, while at the same time measuring the strength of that relationship.

Existing Relationship Scales

For almost a decade, Larissa Grunig, James Grunig, and David Dozier carried out a longitudinal project, called *The Excellence Study*, to answer "how, why, and to what extent communication affects the achievement of organizational objectives" (2002, p. ix.). One of the results of this study was the identification of two types of relationships, *exchange* and *communal*, that can exist between an organization and its publics. The researchers found that perceptions regarding an organization's long-term relationships with key publics are best measured by focusing on very precise elements or variables of existing relationships.

An *exchange relationship* takes place when "one party gives benefits to the other only because the other has provided benefits in the past or is expected to do so in the future" (L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002, p. 552). Typically this type of relationship is not satisfying enough for publics because they expect an organization to do and give more than the public itself gives. A *communal relationship* exists when "both parties provide benefits to the other because they are concerned for the welfare of the other – even when they get nothing in return" (L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002, p. 552). This type of relationship appears to be the most beneficial, especially for the organization, since both the public and the organization are striving for the same goal and will provide benefits when appropriate, without keeping score.

As *exchange* and *communal* define types of relationships, it is equally important to interpret the quality of relationships. Huang (1997) and Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) identified four elements that define the quality of relationships: *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality. Trust* measures one group's level of voluntary readiness to open oneself to the other group; *satisfaction* measures the extent to which one group feels favorable toward the other because positive expectations about the relationship are reinforced; *commitment* measures the extent to which one group believes that the relationship is worthy of maintaining and promoting; and *control mutuality* measures the degree to which groups agree on who has rightful power to impact each other (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999, p. 3; L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002, p. 553).

Building on these constructs, international research identified a important need to expand the current scale to reflect cultural differences. For example, *face and favor* were defined and tested in relation to Chinese culture. These dimensions were identified as resources to be exchanged between an organization and its public. Maintaining *face* is a concept that describes social interactions or what is done in front of others to enhancing human networks. *Favor* "connotes a set of social norms by which one must abide to get along well with other people in Chinese society" (Huang, 2001a, p. 69).

Huang (2001b) applied all five constructs – *trust, satisfaction, commitment, control mutuality*, and *face and favor* – in a second study hypothesizing that the strategy an organization chooses to use for conflict resolution will be driven by the organizationpublic relationship that exists. Two important implications for public relations theory arose from this study. First, the study demonstrated the significance of relationship management, and, second, the model supported the value of relationship management for public relations in terms of conflict resolution.

John Ledingham and Steven Bruning also identified new measurement factors in a serious of studies. These two authors conducted research on specific organizations, such as local utility companies (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998), local governments (Ledingham, 2001), and universities (Bruning, 2002). They set out to identify ways in which stakeholders' perceptions of their relationships with an organization influences their behaviors, attitudes, and predispositions toward that organization.

Measurement factors such as *openness*, *trust*, *involvement*, *commitment*, and *investment* were identified in one of their first studies (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). These factors help to measure the strength of a relationship. They also defined and validated three types of relationships – *personal*, *professional*, and *community* – which differ from the two (*exchange* and *communal*) defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999; Bruning & Galloway, 2002). Several studies tested these factors. Overall, the research found that strong relationships contribute to the retention of stakeholders. One study found that customers identifying an existing relationship between themselves and an organization were more likely to remain customers of that organization (Bruning, 2000). Another study found citizens remain living in their community when they perceived that their local governments were providing benefits for, acting in the best interest of, and dedicating resources to support public citizens needs (Ledingham, 2001). And, yet another study found the ability for a university to retain students depended on the attitudes of the university toward the student and vice versa (Bruning 2002).

Against the background of all these models and studies, Ledingham (2003) made the first attempt to define a general theory of public relations for relationship management. He argued that "effectively managing organizational-public relationships around common interests and shared goals, over time, results in mutual understanding and benefit for interacting organizations and publics" (p.190).

These theoretical implications further support the need to shift some focus to managing and evaluating relationships; however, it should not be at the risk of losing significant communication flows. There is a need to address whether communication flows can influences the strength of organization-public relationships. Thus adding more dimensions to measuring the long-term effectiveness of public relations programs, regardless of a practitioners involvement with a stakeholder. One can question whether communication outputs affect stakeholders' perceptions of an organization, and if so, does that perception then affect the stakeholders' perception of their relationships with that organization? Currently, the existing measurement tools cannot answer these questions. Identifying tools to address this need became the motivation for this study.

To this point, the literature review has identified the existing measurement tools that will be built upon throughout this study. Next, the literature review will identify and define two new factors, *public image* and *public trust*, which might add additional dimensions to measuring long-term outcomes of public relations. Inclusion of these two factors may, first, provide a tool to measure long-term outcomes of public relations programs without having to rely on interpersonal relationships that practitioners may or may not have with stakeholders, and secondly, provide a tool to measure effects communication flows have on interpersonal relationships.

External Factors Influencing Organization-Public Relationships: Public Image

This section will summarize the concept of *image* as it appears throughout disciplines, including business and education. Briefly, the term will be differentiated from *reputation* and *identity*, with which *image* is often considered synonymous. Finally, the term *public image* is defined and operationalized based upon the interdisciplinary definitions provided.

The concept of *image* differs from field to field, and within public relations, the concept often has opposite interpretations among scholars. Some scholars refer to it as synonymous with *reputation* (Ledingham & Bruning, 2001), others identify it as a separate concept (Day, Dong, & Robins, 2001), and some do not refer to it at all, in fact

they loathe the concept all together and merely dismiss it as a misinterpretation of *reputation* (J. E. Grunig, 1993).

Image is recognized in disciplines such as business (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994), education (Nguyen & LeBlanc, 2001) and organizational communications (Hatch & Schultz, 1997). However, a theoretical gap exists among disciplines. Scholars either view the concept as internal or external to the organization (J. E. Grunig, 1993). Further complicating this concept, some believe *image* is both internal and external to the organization (Kazoleas, Kim, and Moffitt, 2001). Therefore, the following sections will identify these conflicting definitions by starting with a brief description of *image* as an internal organizational concept.

Image as an internal organizational measure

Several scholars identified *organizational image* as the perception internal groups have of other groups inside and outside of the organization. These studies found that employees' perception of their organization's *image* affected relationships with other units (Brown & Golembiewski, 1974); employee behavior (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Gioia & Thomas, 1996); and strategic change and issue interpretation (Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002).

Education studies have referred to the term *institutional image*, which is also identified as internal to the organization. Much of the literature focuses on higher institutions. Scholars identify that *image* plays a critical role in universities and institutions of higher education, and that it is especially critical to survive and prosper throughout a time where enrollment is down and competition arises (Paramewaran & Glowacka, 1995; Ivy, 2001; Kazoleas, Kim, & Moffitt, 2001; Nguyen & LeBlanc, 2001). As these studies interpret *image* as internal to the organization, the next section identifies scholars who view *image* as a phenomenon being perceived as external to the organization, whether by the general population, individuals, or stakeholder groups. *Image as an external organizational measure*

Hatch and Schultz (1997, 2002) added to the body of organizational theory literature regarding *image*. Their two seminal articles on this topic laid the foundation for scholars to understand *image* as an external concepts. They proposed an overarching definition of *organizational image*, which combined the ideas of other organizational and marketing theorists. They posited that *organizational image* is:

A holistic and vivid impression held by an individual or a particular group towards an organization and is a result of a fabricated and projected picture itself. Such communication by the organization occurs as top managers and corporate spokespersons orchestrate deliberate attempts to influence public impression. However, image is also influenced by the everyday interactions between organizational members and external audiences. Furthermore, the image formed by a particular group within the external audience can be affected by the intentions and influences of a wide range of actors including other groups (p. 361).

Although viewed as an external concept, these authors contended that it influences internal processes because organizational members are also members of external groups. Thus, a relationship can form between internal and external stakeholders where information from inside the organization is exposed to external stakeholders and, in return, external stakeholders will impress their opinions and judgments about the organization's *image* on the employees (Hatch & Schultz, 2002).

Moffitt (2001) is one of the few public relations scholars to have defined *image* in contemporary literature. She acknowledged that even when an organization delivers its intended *images*, the audience members ultimately determines their *image* of that organization. Also, too often it is presumed that only one global *image* exists, when in fact, the receiver often processes multiple *images* of an organization. She further summarizes:

An image is conceptualized as any and all opinions, pieces of information, attitudes, and behaviors that an individual holds regarding an organization. Multiple images are possible for each individual and some images often differentiate from the corporate intention. These images are theorized as historical events or as products of personal, environmental, and organizational factors that are nevertheless, changeable because they always are historically and culturally contextualized (p. 349).

This definition provides insight into how one person can develop many *images* of one organization. These *images* may not only differ from the organization's intention, but also can differ from each other, where negative and positive *images* about one organization can be perceived by one person.

Knowing a person can have multiple images about an organization raises the question however, of how these images are created? What are some factors that may

contribute to these images? The following section summarizes four factors that may influence such *images*.

Factors related to image

With such an array of definitions for *image*, it is understandable as to why scholars shy away from use of the term. However, aside from these complications, there are factors that are commonly used by public relations scholars when describing attributes of *image*. These factors are *rhetoric* (Benoit & Smythe, 2003), *behavior* (Baker, 2001), *representation* (DeSanto & Garner, 2001), and *visual impression* (Day, Dong, and Robins, 2001).

Rhetoric is often defined as language used to help persuade or influence people (Benoit & Smythe, 2003). These words provoke a certain value or *image* in a person's mind (Day, Dong, & Robins, 2001). It is viewed as the ways in which writers write in order to project a certain *image* (Hyland, 1998).

Some studies have analyzed specific aspects of *image*, such as *rhetoric*. Emrich, Brower, Feldman, and Garland (2001) analyzed two sets of U.S. presidents' speeches to determine whether their tendency to transmit images in words were correlated to perceptions of their charisma and greatness. They operationalized the term imagery as the extent to which a word "quickly and easily arouses a sensory experience such as a mental picture or sound" (p. 529). The authors believed that influential people who use words to conjure up sensations, such as smells and tastes, relate more directly to followers' life experiences than those who use words that only please a followers' intellect. In essence, messages become more immediate and real when speakers use words that appeal to ones' senses rather than ones' intellect. Therefore, Brower, Feldman, and Garland (2001) distinguished *image-based* words, which evoke sensory experiences, from *concept-based* words, which predominantly captivate listeners' logical interpretations. Studies have found that people prefer *image*-based content to concept-based content. Although it is unclear as to exactly why this is the case, some theory suggests that imagery reflects the extent to which a word refers to something that can be experienced rather than merely understood. In their two-part study, the authors found presidents who used more *image*-based rhetoric, such as *darkness, journey*, and *laughter*, in their inaugural addresses would be deemed more charismatic and judged as grand.

Behavior is identified as one of the key strategies when building or restoring organizational *image* (Baker, 2001). This concept refers to the ways that an organization, or members of the organization, acts in relation to one another and with the organization's stakeholders.

Studies conducted on the United States Congress concluded that *image* is extremely important to the public's approval. While studying models of congressional seat changes, Finocchiaro (2003) found value in studying how the public's *image* of Congressional *behavior* impacts the electoral success of its members. The author felt the way in which congressional members and the political parties carry out their duties is directly related to the *image* individual citizens have of the institution. Furthermore, they noted that congressional behaviors, such as veto overrides, also affect congressional approval and the organization's *image*.

Representation refers to standardization and consistency among public relations outputs. For example, it is important to have one agency logo that identifies an

organization and unites all publications (DeSanto & Garner, 2001). As organizations build messages designed to influence stakeholders, the quality and vehicle used to reach an organization's publics is equally important. Control of the content and quality of message is identified as one of the most important tools used to maintain a positive *image*, especially with the media (Cozier & Witmer, 2001).

Visual impression (or visual image) is something that identifies whether or not people like what is presented to them. People are first concerned with impression of the product, such as a brochure or magazine, rather than the factual content (Day, Dong, & Robins, 2001).

Implications of image for public relations

Organizations should proactively be involved in *image* building through developing, maintaining, protecting, and restoring *organizational images*, particularly during times of crisis (Baker, 2001). Interestingly, there is not an abundance of scholarly literature on *image* development, maintenance, and protection within public relations. It is most commonly discussed in reference to restoration within crisis management, a topic containing a wealth of literature (Brinson & Benoit, 1996; Benoit & McHale, 1999; Burns & Bruner, 2000; Seeger, Sellnow, & Ulmer, 2001).

However, scholars do agree that public relations is the function to maintain and repair the organizational *image*, especially in relation to crisis management. Seeger, Sellnow and Ulmer (2001) pointed out that public relations practitioners are responsible for mitigating harm, responding to stakeholders' needs, and repairing their organizations' *image*. Most of the crisis management literature discusses *image* in terms of restoration and repair once a crisis has happened. Brinson and Benoit's (1996) five *image*

restoration strategies are most recognized. These strategies are denial, evasion of responsibility, reduction of the offensive of event, corrective action, and mortification.

In a similar vein, *The Collapse Model of Corporate Image* addresses *image* development and maintenance within public relations scholarship and practice. In this model, the terms *image* and *public position* are theorized as essentially related concepts that function in similar ways and thus, are collapsed into the same model for corporate *image* (Moffitt, 2001). *Public position* is defined as a single factor or piece of information held by one person about an organization. Of course, it is possible for a person to hold two or more different positions about an organization. For example, "if a person has some positive and some negative opinions regarding a company and, consequently, takes some positive or negative behaviors toward the same organization, then each opinion, each attitude, and each behavior corresponds to a singular and separate public position" (Moffitt, 2001, p. 350).

Kazoleas, Kim, and Moffitt (2001) studied how audiences who relate to an organization receive and negotiate *institutional image*. They examined multiple and differing images that a particular university held around its state and identified the influence of various organizational, personal, or environmental factors in the processing of the received images in the audience members. In this study, *image* was defined as "the result of a complex and multifaceted struggle of attributes processed by the individual through messages sent by the organization and through other intentional and unintentional social, historical, personal, lived experiences, and material factors" (p.206). Their study identified seven different images: overall *image*, program *image*, teaching and research emphasis, quality of education, environmental factors, financial reasons, and

sports programs. Respondents' perceptions were not influenced by media images, but rather through personal experiences and interpersonal relationships. As a result, the authors suggested the university focus their efforts on community relations and customer relations rather than only media and marketing campaigns.

Nonetheless, other scholars argued it is important to study the concept of *image* because when the media portray a negative *organizational image*, that organization should take action in an attempt to correct the public's perception of the organization's *image*. A study conducted on the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey and found that when homeless people congregated in the Port Authority's bus and train stations, the homeless problem became the Port Authority's problem in the eyes of the community and the local media. Correcting the organization's *image* under these circumstances thus became very important. The argument was that an *organizational image* could be portrayed by its identity. In other words, an external stakeholder's *image* of an organization could be created and molded by the way staff members represent their organization to the public (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991).

Conversely, other scholars do not completely agree with the idea that a stakeholder's perception of an organization's *image* is fully created by the organization's employees or the organization itself. They believe that stakeholders have created their own images of an organization as well, and that those images leak back into the organization and its employees, thus creating more of a mirror effect. This mirror effect intimately connects an organization's internal stakeholders with its external stakeholders. Other external factors, such as media outlets, affect organizational identity and *image*, and these factors are filtered or interpreted by internal and external stakeholders. Each

party is then exposed to the interpretation of the other, creating a new impression. Therefore, increased exposure to external factors produces more *images* to compete with those projected by the organization. Furthermore, the more dissonance occurring between how the internal stakeholders (identity) view their organization from how the organization's external stakeholders (*image*) view the organization, the more threatened the organization becomes (Hatch & Schultz, 2002).

The preceding literature review identified many ways in which *image* is conceptualized, defined, and operationalize throughout various disciplines. Unfortunately, these definitions are inconsistent and contradictory. The most obvious inconsistency is when *image* is defined as an internal organizational function (Brown & Golembiewski, 1974) versus as an external organizational function (Hatch & Schultz, 1997). Another discrepancy is the way in which scholars confuse or use the term synonymously with other organizational terms, such as *identity* and *reputation*. Furthermore, scholars also argue about the influence of the media in creating an organizational *image*.

Differentiating Image from Reputation and Identity

Before operationalizing *image* for this study, it is important to define *reputation* and *identity*, since these two terms are most commonly confused or used synonymously with the term *image*, especially within public relations. For example, *image* has been used synonymously with *prestige* (economics), *reputation* (in marketing), *goodwill* (law), and *organizational standing* (human relations) (Shenkar & Yuctman-Yaar, 1997, p.1361).

However, *image* is most commonly confused with *reputation* and *identity*, thus the following section will define these two concepts, which in this study are considered completely separate concepts from *image*. As *image* has multiple definitions, so do the concepts of *reputation* and *identity* (J. E. Grunig, 1993; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). Research on these concepts can be found in many fields, but most commonly within organizational theory (Richmond, Bissell, and Beach, 1998), corporate communications and marketing (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001), and administration (Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002).

Corporate reputation has been defined as a stakeholder's overall evaluation of a company over time, which is based upon stakeholders' direct experiences and communications with the company. *Reputation* is also identified by a company's actions and/or a comparison of actions from other companies, which distinguishes that company from its rivals (Gotsi and Wilson, 2001, p. 29; Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail, 1994). However, r*eputation* differs from *image* because images can be based on false perceptions and only organizations can create and communicate their true *reputations* to their publics (Baker, 2001).

Dozens of definitions have been used to define *identity* (Melewar & Jenkins, 2002). Organizational identity is a collective, commonly shared understanding of an organization's unique values and characteristics presented by that organization to its internal and external audiences (Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Olins, 1989). *Identity* differs from *image* in that it is the way in which an organization projects itself, and thus is independent of external influences.

Studies by Hatch and Schultz (2002) and Nguyen and LeBlanc (2001) also contend that *identity* and *reputation* are factors that can influence *image*. However, for the purpose of this study, these two concepts are viewed as completely separate from *image*. The three concepts of *image*, *reputation*, and *identity* are concepts of equal weight and, unlike *rhetoric*, *behavior*, *representation*, and *visual impression*, the concepts of *reputation* and *identity* in no way define *image* within the confines of this study.

This brief summary of *reputation* and *identity* should help the reader differentiate between the two concepts and the concept of *image*. In an effort to avoid confusion within this study, the following section will define *image*, which will be coined *public image*, as an external function that is independent of *reputation* and *identity*.

<u>Operationalizing public image</u>

The term *public image* has not been defined within public relations or any other discipline. The term *public image* was adopted for this study and is defined based upon a combination of the external concepts previously described by scholars such as Hatch and Schultz (2002), Emerich, Brower, Feldman, and Garland (2001), and Finocchiaro (2003). Therefore, *public image* is the perception of an organization held by the organization's external stakeholders (Bentele, 1994; Hatch & Schultz, 200), whereby these views are the result of internal (e.g. controlled media) and external (e.g. uncontrolled media) communications from and about an organization (Matera & Artigue, 1999). Images tend to be created by specific factors such as *rhetoric*, *behavior*, *representation*, and *visual impression*; therefore, these factors will be tested in an effort to derive whether or not they can be used to further define *public image* (Day, Dong, & Robins, 2001; Baker, 2001).

As stated previously, managing *image* and building *trust* through communication flows, such as media outputs and public meetings, are often the responsibilities public relations practitioners (Ristino, 2003). The concept of *image* referred to here is an example of *public image*, described above, and the concept of *trust* is that of *public trust*, which is discussed in the next section.

External Factors Influencing Organization-Public Relationships: Public Trust

This section will summarize the concept of *public trust* as it appears throughout various disciplines. The concept of *trust* within public relations is most often referred to as an interpersonal *trust*, where you *trust* me, and I *trust* you. However, there is another type of *trust* – one that is based upon a person's perception of another person or organization. This type of *trust* is called *public trust* and is the one that will be referred to in this section. A new definition of *public trust* will be created in this section and in essence does not imply an interpersonal *trust*, such as the *trust* Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) describe.

Public trust is identified in disciplines such as public administration (Thomas, 1998), marketing (Sargeant & Lee, 2001), and public opinion (Chanley, Rudolph, and Rahn, 2000). Thomas (1998) questioned how *public trust* in government agencies could be maintained, restored, or even created. He suggested this to be a challenge because of the complexity surrounding *trust* and its many cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components. Overall, the author felt *trust* is based on what people believe rather than what people expect.

Bentele (1994) suggested that communication values such as images, product aesthetics, prestige value, and entertainment value became a necessity over pure

information to ensure new product markets. This change led to an increasing use of public relations because a single mistake in business communication can result in substantial economic loss as well as a perceptual loss of *public trust*.

Scholars in this area acknowledge the fact that a theory for *public trust* does not exist (Bentele, 1994; Thomas, 1998; Misztal, 2001). These scholars referenced Luhmann's conceptualization of *public trust*, which argued that *public trust* is a communicative mechanism used to reduce complexity in trust objects (politicians, institutions, etc.). *Public trust* is a media mediated process in that the *trust* subjects have future expectations of *trust* objects based on past experiences. With this definition, *public trust* is established as a process. The most important elements in the process are *trust* subjects, *trust* mediators, the state of the events, and issues and messages (realities created through the media).

Bentele (1994) identified four types of *public trust*: (interpersonal) *basis trust*, (public) *system trust*, (public) *institutional trust*, and (public) *personal trust*. *Basis trust* is the result of individual and interpersonal socialization. In this context he distinguishes between communicative, social acts that lead to communication relationships. These are the results of relationship variables such as the content of the message (reported detail, plausibility, logical consistence), extra-linguistic attributes (speed of speech, speech mistakes, etc.), and nonverbal attributes and psychosocial phenomenon (heightened blood pressure, breathing, etc.). *Basis trust* contributes to *public trust* because public figures and organizations often project themselves through the audiovisual media, which simulates interpersonal contacts. *System trust* relates to the socio-political, or socio-economic system. *Institutional trust* is a specific type of *trust* that can display low *trust*

levels at the same time that high *trust* levels exist in *system trust* (e.g. a political party can have low *trust* levels, but the political system as such can still have high *trust* levels). *Personal trust* is based on the psychological mechanisms of *basis trust*, but is aimed at public personalities. Along with these four types of *public trust*, Bentele also identified nine attributes that will affect high *trust* levels. These attributes are *expertise*, *ability to solve problems*, *communication ability*, *communication adequacy*, *communication consistency*, *communication transparency*, *communication frankness*, *social responsibility*, and an *ethic of responsibility*.

In a similar vein, Thomas (1998) reviewed three types of trust and identified them as *fiduciary*, *mutual*, and *social*. *Fiduciary trust* is when an individual places *trust* in another to act in his or her capacity. The asymmetrical relationship is supported by the unilateral obligation of the trustee to act in the other's interest. The principal trusts the agent, but the agent need not trust the principle (p.169). An example of this is the trust a patient has in his/her physician. Fiduciary trust is very important to the citizengovernment relationship because citizens do not monitor and do not know what their representatives are doing each day. These government representatives must be careful not to take advantage of their relationship and the trust within. This type of *trust* is very similar to Bentele's (1994) system trust. Mutual trust is a symmetrical and interpersonal concept that becomes important throughout public-private relationships. *Mutual trust* is when *trust* develops between two people, for example between a citizen and a government representative. Furthermore, as a result of this trusting relationship, the citizen may be more inclined to *trust* other government representatives because of his or her *trust* for the individual representative in which s/he has an existing relationship.

Social trust is conceptualized as a form of social capital, which a society gradually accumulates through the microlevel interactions of individuals and which then become a public good on which others draw. Although *social trust* occurs in the aggregate, it cannot be clearly delineated from either *mutual trust* or *fiduciary trust*. They are interwoven and mutually supportive (p.174-175).

Thomas also referenced Zucker's three modes of trust production: *characteristic-based trust*, *process-based trust*, and *institutional-based trust*. *Characteristic-based trust* is produced through personal characteristics, such as race, gender, and family background, which serve as indicators of membership in a common cultural system. *Characteristic-based trust* is most prevalent in small communities that seldom interact with outsiders. Because it is relatively difficult to change personal characteristics, the most viable means for building this type of *trust* is to socialize with persons processing similar characteristics. Pursuing only a characteristic-based strategy for building *public trust* would be rather shallow because individuals in complex societies do not invest much energy in a trusting relationship based solely on ascribed characteristics. By itself, *characteristic-based trust* is not a viable means for producing *public trust* in government agencies and their employees (p.176).

Process-based trust is produced through repeated exchanges rather than through ascribed characteristics and, thus, emerges over time. Whereas *process-based trust* may be facilitated by *characteristic-based trust*, initial exchanges may also be motivated by self-interest, with no *trust* already present. Economic-exchange relationships, repeated exchanges, and value of goods exchanged affect the production of *process-based trust* (p.176).

Institutional-based trust is produced through institutions that have become accepted as social facts and are therefore seldom questioned. *Institutional-based trust* is broken down further into two types. The first is specific to persons or organizations because it rests on membership in a subculture within which carefully delineated specific expectations are expected to hold, at least in some cases based on detailed prior socialization. For example, public agencies signal conformance with social expectations, and thereby produce *institutional-based trust*. One way to do this is by adopting the latest administrative fad—be it zero-based budgeting, total quality management, or reengineering. The second type is produced through intermediary mechanisms such as laws, regulations, and insurance. For example, if you do not *trust* corporations to behave fairly and ethically, then you have to formalize interorganizational relations by enacting antitrust rules (p. 176-177).

Similar to Bentele, Thomas mentioned a number of ways to maintain *public trust*. He encouraged the notion of giving separate consideration to maintaining *public trust*. He suggested that *public trust* could be lost through extensive and complex use of contracts detailing the precise responsibilities of each party. Other factors are role ambiguity, lying and misuse of power, and through individual incompetence.

As the previously mentioned scholars determined, *public trust* is particularly important in politics. Chanley, Rudolph, and Rahn (2000) developed a quarterly time series measure of *trust* in the U.S. national government and conducted the first multivariate time series examination of *public trust* in government. They found a lack of *trust* could seriously affect third party endorsement of candidates and support for decentralized decision-making. In response to these previously tested and proven ideas, the aurthors further identified and tested the following variables: public evaluation of the economy, public concern about crime, public concern about international affairs, and the influence of congressional and presidential scandals. Their research found that *trust* in government was more closely linked with Congress and congressional scandals than with presidents and presidential scandals. They also found that public perceptions of political scandals, the economy, and crime are closely linked to *trust* in government, and that these factors will influence the public's perception of policy makers (Chanley, Rudolph, & Rahn, 2000).

There is also a difference between *trust* and *confidence* although these two concepts are often synonymous (Sargeant & Lee, 2001). The researchers noted that "control or confidence is derived from the knowledge that one knows what to expect in a situation and that one has the ability to impose sanctions should this expectation not be met. *Trust* is distinguished from *confidence* in that the later rests on knowledge or predictability of the alter's actions, while *trust* is necessary to maintain in the absence of such knowledge" (p. 69).

Operationalizing public trust

Public trust differs from the *trust* described by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) discussed earlier. They described *trust* from an interpersonal approach. Based upon Bentele's (1994) and Thomas' (1998) definitions, for this study, *public trust* is defined as a type of *trust* that is perceived by an organization's external stakeholders, whereby their perceptions are the result of internal (e.g. *controlled media*) and external (e.g. *uncontrolled media*) communications from and about an organization (Bentele, 1994). The nine attributes Bentele identified as contributing to high *trust* levels, namely, *expertise*, *ability to solve problems*, *communication ability*, *communication adequacy*, *communication consistency*, *communication transparency*, *communication frankness*, *social responsibility*, and *an ethic of responsibility* will be used in this study to measure *public trust*.

With *public image* and *public trust* defined, one more measurement to be tested is the way in which communication outputs, specifically *controlled* and *uncontrolled media*, affect these factors. The following section will briefly describe the two types of media, as well as provide a model that may be used to describe the relationship that exists among these two types of media with *public image*, *public trust*, and with the existing relationship factors or *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*.

Communication

As previously stated, measuring long-term outcomes in public relations is important. However, measuring public relations solely in terms of relationships may not be the most effective way to assess a successful public relations department, especially if the public relations practitioners are not responsible for creation and maintenance of those relationships. Since practitioners are responsible for communication practices within an organization, the question becomes "how do public relations practitioners' communications outputs contribute to the long-term outcomes of an organization?"

Four models of public relations have been used to produce communication outputs (Hunt & J. E. Grunig, 1994, p.8). These models are *press agentry*, *public information*, *two-way asymmetrical*, and *two-way symmetrical*. *Press agentry* and *public information* are considered *one-way* models that describe communication programs that are not based on research and strategic planning. They are also *asymmetrical* in that they try to change the behavior of publics but not of the organization. These methods try to make the organization look good through propaganda or by disseminating only favorable information about an organization. The *two-way asymmetrical* model uses research to develop messages that are likely to persuade strategic publics to behave as the organization wants. This method is more effective than one-way models because it includes research on attitudes of publics. However, this model is limited because the organization that uses it often believes it is correct and the public is wrong. It is best used when an organization has low conflict with its public, for example in a health campaign about heart attacks. The *two-way symmetrical* model is based on research and uses communication to manage conflict and improve understanding with strategic publics. The model is based on negotiation and compromise, allows the question of what is right to be settled by negotiation, and is a more ethical practice.

These four models employ either *controlled* or *uncontrolled* media methods (Matera & Artigue, 1999). *Controlled media* are defined as *print* (e.g. brochures, written reports, and attitude or information surveys), *audiovisual methods* (e.g. institutional films, oral presentations with visuals, and on-hold recorded messages), *interpersonal methods* (e.g. formal speeches, committee meetings, and social gatherings), and *electronic methods* (e.g. television advertisements, electronic news releases, and Web sites). Although expensive, an organization has the ability to control the content, distribution, reach, and design of controlled media. *Uncontrolled media* are defined as interpersonal media (e.g. community meetings, news conferences, and focus groups) and formal media (e.g. news releases, content of print and broadcast media, and letters to the

editor). These types of media are typically inexpensive, and tend to have more credibility than controlled media.

Model

The following model defines the constructs that will be tested in this study (Figure 1). This model identifies the ways in which communication outputs may affect communication outcomes (*public image, public trust*, and organization-public relationships). Note the arrows from the Communication Outputs circle are two-way toward the communication outcomes. This implies that outputs may affect outcomes. For example, a media campaign may affect *public image* and once *public image* is measured, practitioners may have a better idea of how to modify their future outputs. The arrows between the communication outcomes are two-way, thus implying that the constructs may influence each other. For example, a stakeholder group perceiving a strong organization-public relationship may perceive strong *public trust*, or the opposite may be true where a stakeholder group perceiving a weak organization-public relationship may perceive weak *public trust*.

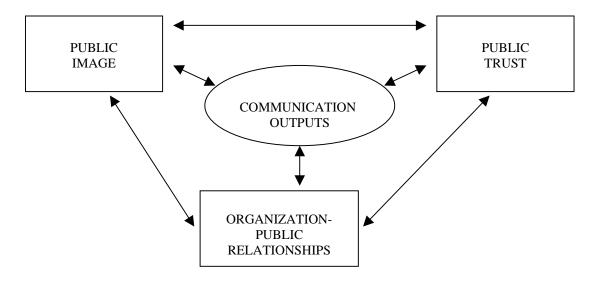


Figure 1. Long-term effects of communication outputs model

Based on this model, this study will aim to answer the following research questions:

- RQ 1. Is it possible to build one reliable construct for *public image* or do separate constructs of *rhetoric*, *behavior*, *representation*, and *visual impression* exist?
- RQ 2. Is it possible to build a reliable construct for *public trust*?
- RQ 3. What is the relationship between *public image* and the previously defined relationship variables of *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*?
- RQ 4. What is the relationship between *public trust* and the previously defined relationship variables of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*?
- RQ 5. Is there a relationship between *public trust* and the *trust* construct defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999)?
- RQ 6. Is there a relationship between *public trust* and *public image*?
- RQ 7. How do controlled and uncontrolled media affect *public trust, public image*, and the existing relationship variables of *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*?
- RQ 8. How do respondents' demographic variables affect *public trust, public image*, and the existing relationship variables of *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*?

Chapter Three

METHODS

This methodology section is divided into four subsections identified as The Organization, Respondent and Survey Administration, Survey Instrument, and Analytical Method. The section begins with a brief description of the study organization and the way in which respondents were chosen and surveyed. Next a more detailed account of the survey instrument is provided. This includes the previously defined relationship items for *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*, as well as the newly defined *public image* and *public trust* items created specifically for this study. Finally, the statistical tests used to answer each research question are identified.

The Organization

This study was motivated specifically by the relationship studies conducted by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) and Huang (2001). The research site chosen for this study is the Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission (FWC).¹ The FWC is a state government organization that employs over 1,800 staff with offices located statewide. The organization is responsible for managing, regulating, and enforcing state fish and wildlife regulations, thus stakeholder involvement encompasses the organization at all levels. Saltwater fishermen or anglers are one of FWC's most active publics, thus a

¹ The FWC was formed in July 1999 as the result of a merger between other state organizations. Floridians voted for this merger during the 1998 General Election, thus creating a new constitutional amendment. The amendment merged only the marine aspects (research, management, and law enforcement) of the Florida Department of Environmental Protection (DEP) with the entire Florida Game and Freshwater Fish Commission (GFC). The DEP still exists and is a completely separate state organization from FWC; however, the GFC no longer exists (FWC, 2003).

subsample of this population was surveyed due to their high level of involvement with the organization.

Respondents and Survey Administration

A convenience sample of 5,799 saltwater anglers was used to test this survey instrument. A previous survey administered by FWC via its Web site asked respondents for help with future surveys. Those who agreed to help with future surveys supplied their names and email addresses, thus allowing FWC to build a mailing list of over 5,000 participants.

The questionnaire was located on a secure FWC Web site. Participants were notified via email on Thursday, January 22, 2004 at noon and were provided a direct link to the survey in that email. Two emails were sent to the participant group, the first is illustrated in **Appendix A** and was sent on January 22, 2004. **Appendix B** illustrates the second email sent on February 2, 2004 as a reminder to complete the questionnaire if participants had not already done so. Both emails stated the purpose of the questionnaire, the fact that a USF graduate student was conducting the study, and that all answers were completely anonymous and confidential (Dillman, 2002).

Respondents were also asked not to forward the survey to other saltwater anglers in an effort to control the population. Despite this request; however, the link was posted to two different Fishing Forums on the online version of the most popular fishing magazine in Florida (Florida Sportsman Magazine, 2004). Respondents proceeded to discuss their answers after completing and submitting the questionnaire.

Survey Instrument

Appendix C illustrates the survey instrument, as it appeared online. A 65-item questionnaire was administered in an attempt to measure *public image*; *public trust*; the Hon and J. E. Grunig constructs of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*; controlled and uncontrolled media usage; and finally demographic information. Respondents answered each statement based on a 9-point Likert-type scale, where 1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Neither Disagree/Nor Agree, and 9=Strongly Agree. All items, except the demographics, were required fields for completion. Respondents were unable to submit an incomplete questionnaire and would receive a message stating which question was left unanswered after hitting the "Submit" button.

A two-staged pretest of the survey instrument was conducted by administering the questionnaire to a dozen people inside and outside the study organization. The first stage included administering the test to colleagues and analysts who could identify problems with the electronic instrument, such as buttons malfunctioning. This group was also used to determine the level of understanding people had of each question; and, to determine production errors, such as asking appropriate questions. In the second stage, six people who were considered potential respondents were tested to determine their level of understanding of words and question, appropriateness of the scale, and length of time it took to complete the questionnaire (Dillman, 2000). As a result of the pretest, the phrase "neither disagree/nor agree" was added to the Likert-type scale.

Initially, an effort was made to create four construct variables under *public image*, which are defined as *rhetoric*, *behavior*, *reputation*, and *visual impression*. Each construct was represented by a minimum of three variables. Items were designed to read

similarly to the Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) items illustrated in their relationship scale.

The following items were used to measure *rhetoric*:

- I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the media.
- I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the public.
- I feel FWC spokespersons accurately represent FWC.

The following items were used to measure *behavior*:

- I believe FWC invites stakeholders to communicate in open discussions about Florida's fish and wildlife issues.
- I believe FWC is responsive to the needs of Florida's saltwater anglers.
- I believe FWC has good standing with local and state elected officials.
- I believe FWC listens to public input.

The following items were used to measure *representation*:

- I feel FWC's literature portrays an accurate image of the organization.
- I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the animals' long-term well-being.
- I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people.
- I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the long-term well-being of the animals.
- I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people.
- I believe FWC has top quality literature and publications.
- I feel most saltwater anglers in Florida know about FWC.

- I feel FWC is recognized most often in a positive manner by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).
- I perceive that other saltwater anglers feel FWC is accurately represented by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).
- I feel FWC is accurately represented by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).

The following items were used to measure visual impression:

- I think FWC is a credible organization.
- I think FWC and the Florida Game and Fish Commission are two separate state organizations.
- I think FWC and the Florida Marine Research Institute are two separate organizations.
- Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC. See Appendix D
- Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC. See Appendix E

Public trust was defined by the nine attributes Bentele (1994) identified as contributing to high *trust* levels. These nine attributes are: *expertise*, *ability to solve problems*, *communication ability*, *communication adequacy*, *communication consistency*, *communication transparency*, *communication frankness*, *social responsibility*, and *an ethic of responsibility*. The items specifically stated:

- I believe FWC is a responsible organization and follows the appropriate rules.
- I feel FWC is honest when communicating.
- I feel FWC has the ability to communicate with its stakeholders.
- I believe FWC supplies enough information to the media.

- I believe FWC has the expertise to deal with the issues it is responsible for.
- I believe FWC's communications are always consistent.
- I believe FWC supplies enough information to the public.
- I think FWC has the ability to solve problems quickly and efficiently.
- I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility.

Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) relationship scale (survey) was used to measure the external stakeholders' perceptions of their relationships with FWC. Twenty-one variables were used to measure the constructs of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*. The *communal* and *exchange* relationship variable constructs were not tested because they are used to define the type of relationship that exists between two groups, which was not the goal of this study.

Four ordinal questions were asked in relation to the method in which respondents receive most of their information about the organization under study and the method in which they seek information about the organization. The response choices are broken down into *controlled* (brochures, exhibits and displays, video tapes, Web sites, oral presentations with visual aids) and *uncontrolled* media (news releases, content of print media, content of broadcast media, public workshops, and employee representation).

Demographic data collected from each survey included respondents' ages, highest level of education completed, sex, how often they fish in saltwater each month, whether or not they are a Florida resident, whether or not they hold a current Florida recreational saltwater fishing license, and the county in which they live in Florida.

Analytical Method

Completed data were automatically compiled into an Excel spreadsheet once respondents hit the "Submit" button at the end of the electronic questionnaire. These data were then transferred into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 11.0 for Windows, which was used to analyze all data. A .05 level of statistical significance was applied for analyses where relevant (Stacks, 2002).

Descriptive statistics were conducted to determine frequencies, means, and standard deviations for all items. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to test the reliability of items for *public image*, *public trust*, and the relationship variables of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*. Values between .80 and 1.00 were accepted as reliable (Stacks, 2002). A pretest for validity was not conducted on the items within the study's questionnaire because this study is viewed more as a case study and the results are the pretest to future surveys.

Factor analysis was used to answer RQ 1, which states, "Is it possible to build one reliable construct for *public image* or do four separate constructs of *rhetoric*, *behavior*, *representation*, and *visual impression* exist?" More specifically, all variables associated with *public image* were subjected to factor analysis. For all analysis, factors were determined when items within that factor loaded greater than \pm .60 and not greater than \pm .40 on any other factor (Stacks, 2002). Also, the ratio of items to respondents was approximately 1:18, thus more than adequate.

Cronbach's alpha was then used to measure reliability of each index (Stacks, 2002). One *public image* construct was created, and thus became the construct tested to answer the remainder of research questions respective to *public image*.

Factor analysis was also used to answer RQ 2. All *public trust* variables were subjected to factor analysis and, as a result, one construct for *public trust* was created. This became the construct used to answer the remainder of research questions respective to *public trust*. Cronbach's alpha was then used to measure reliability of each index.

Correlation analysis was used to answer RQ 3 and RQ 4, which were to determine the effect of *public image* and *public trust* on the relationship variables of *trust*, *satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*, respectively. Correlation analysis was also used to answer RQ 5 and RQ6 to determine whether a relationship exists between *public trust* and the *trust* construct defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999), and *public image* and *public trust*, respectively.

RQ 7 was answered with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). ANOVAs were utilized to test the effects that controlled and uncontrolled media had on *public image, public trust,* and the four relationship constructs. ANOVAs were also used to answer RQ 8 to determine any effects the demographics may have on *public image, public trust, trust, satisfaction, commitment,* and *control mutuality.*

For all ANOVAs, the Scheffe and LSD post hoc tests were used to determine conservative and liberal differences between groups (Stacks, 2002). Also, it is recommended that Scheffe be used when testing new theory. Significance was determined at a 95 percent confidence level (p>.05).

Chapter Four

RESULTS

The following section describes the results found through statistical analyses. The section begins with an explication of respondent demographics followed by the results and tables used to answer each research question.

Demographics

A reliable response rate cannot be reported for this study due to posting of the survey link on the Internet. A total of 1,193 completed questionnaires were submitted at the end of the two-week period respondents were given to complete the survey.² Almost half of the respondents (n=570, 47.8%) submitted completed questionnaires within the first 24-hours from the time of the original email.

Table 1 describes respondent demographics. Respondents ranged in age from less than 20 years old to greater than 80 years old; however, the majority of respondents fell between the ages of 30 to 59 (n=941, 78.9%). More males (n=1080, 93.8%) answered the questionnaire than females (n=71, 6.2%). All, but 14, respondents have some type of formal education and the majority (n=853, 71.5%) have at least a high school diploma/GED (n=264, 22.1%), associate of arts (n=268, 22.5%), or bachelors degree (n=321, 26.9%).

 $^{^{2}}$ Although a response rate could not be reported, a total of 662,890 saltwater fishing licenses were sold in Florida as of the date this study was conducted. According to the respondents, 1,082 (.16%) of them hold a current saltwater fishing license.

Respondents were asked how often they fish in saltwater each month in Florida, if they are a Florida resident, and if they hold a current Florida recreational saltwater fishing license. Over 75-percent (n=897, 75.2%) responded that they fish in saltwater somewhere between 0-9 times each month; the majority are Florida residents (n=1,119, 93.8); and most hold a current Florida recreational saltwater fishing license (n=1082, 90.7%).

Table 1. Respondent Demographics

	Respondents (n)	Percent (%)
Age		
$\overline{<20}$	23	1.9
20 - 29	82	6.9
30 - 39	271	22.7
40 - 49	385	32.3
50 - 59	285	23.9
60 - 69	129	10.8
70 – 79	17	1.4
≥ 80	1	.1
Total	1,193	100%
Sex	,	
Male	1080	93.8
Female	71	6.2
Total	1,193	100%
Education	·	
Some formal education	123	10.3
High school diploma or GED	264	22.1
Associates degree	268	22.5
Bachelors degree	321	26.9
Masters degree	152	12.7
PhD	25	2.1
MD	14	1.2
Other	26	2.2
Total	1,193	100%
Frequency fish in saltwater		
$\overline{0-4}$	445	37.3
5-9	452	37.9
10 - 14	136	11.4
15+	160	13.4
Total	1,193	100%
Florida Resident		
Yes	1,119	93.8
No	66	5.6
No response	8	.67
Total	1,193	100%
Hold current fishing license		
Yes	1082	90.7
No	105	8.8
No response	6	.5
Total	1,193	100%

Finally, residents were asked to supply the county in which they live, and all but five counties (Calhoun, DeSoto, Hardee, Madison, and Suwanee) in Florida were represented. **Appendix F** represents the number of respondents by county. There was a wide distribution of respondents from the remaining 62 counties; however, over one-fourth (n=325, 27.2%) of the respondents came from just five counties, which are

Pinellas (n=79, 6.6), Brevard (n=77, 6.5%), Hillsborough (n=62, 5.2%), Duval (n=52, 4.4%), and Miami – Dade (n=55, 4.6%). Almost half of the respondents (n=538. 45.1%) came from just ten counties.

The organization under study assigned each county to one of five regions throughout the state: northwest, north central, southwest, south, and northeast. **Appendix G** is a map of each region and its respective counties. **Table 2** identifies the number of respondents by region. Over half (n=675, 58.6%) of the respondents who identified the county in which they live claimed residents in either the Southwest (n=355, 30.8%) or Northeast regions (n=320, 27.8%).

Table 2. Respondent Counties by Region

Region	Respondents (n)	Percents (%)
Northwest	169	14.7
North Central	108	9.4
Southwest	355	30.8
South	199	17.3
Northeast	320	27.8
Total	1,151	100%

Research Questions

RQ 1: Is it possible to build one reliable construct for *public image* or do separate constructs of *rhetoric*, *behavior*, *representation*, and *visual impression* exist?

Factor analysis was used to determine whether indices exist between the *public image* variables. Only one index was factored; thus, this is the index referred to throughout the remainder of the analysis unless otherwise noted. **Table 3** illustrates the factor analysis for all items used to measure *public image*. Items not included in the newly constructed *public image* construct are noted at the end of the table in italics.

Also, items were eliminated from the final factor if their counter value was too high or

they weighted into two factors (Stacks, 2002).

Table 3.	Public	image	index	after	factor	analy	ysis

Items	Factor value
I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the media.	.774
I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the public.	.791
I believe FWC invites stakeholders to communicate in open discussions about Florida's fish	
and wildlife issues.	.707
I believe FWC is responsive to the needs of Florida's saltwater anglers.	.875
I believe FWC listens to public input.	
I feel FWC's literature portrays an accurate image of the organization.	.731
I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the animals' long-term well-being.	.826
I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people of Florida.	.855
I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the	
long-term well-being of the animals.	.807
I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the	
benefit of the people.	.818
I think FWC is a credible organization.	.790
I think FWC and the Florida Game and Fish Commission are two separate state organizations.	.698
Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC. See Appendix D	.309
Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC. See Appendix E	.177
I believe FWC has good standing with local and state elected officials.	.230
I feel FWC is recognized most often in a positive manner by the media	
(newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).	.388
I feel FWC is accurately represented by the media.	.417
I perceive that other saltwater anglers feel FWC is accurately represented by the media	
(newspapers, television magazines, etc.).	.516
I believe that FWC has top quality literature and publications.	.586
I feel FWC spokespersons accurately represent FWC.	.636*
I feel most saltwater anglers in Florida know about FWC.	.093
I think FWC and the Florida Marine Research Institute are two separate state organizations.	.058

Italicized variables were removed based upon factor analysis results and were not measured for reliability. *Item was removed from factor because the counter value was too high to use in just one factor.

Table 4 represents the 12 items that factored out to define *public image*.

Although the items identified for *public image* did not weigh into four separate factors of

rhetoric, behavior, representation, and visual impression, each item in this table is

followed by its originally intended factor name for demonstration purposes. Means and

standard deviations are given for each item. The construct mean was somewhat above

average at 5.72 (SD=1.79) and Cronbach's alpha reliability measured .96, thus proving

that the 12-items factored out for *public image* are reliable measures.

Table 4. Mean and Standard Deviations for Public Image Constructs

Items	М	SD
Public Image (n=1,193) α = .96	5.72	1.79
I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the media. (Rhetoric)	5.95	2.18
I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the public. (Rhetoric)	5.84	2.06
I believe FWC invites stakeholders to communicate in open discussions about Florida's fish and wildlife issues. (Behavior)	5.91	2.09
I believe FWC is responsive to the needs of Florida's saltwater anglers. (Behavior)	5.33	2.20
I believe FWC listens to public input. (Behavior)	5.01	2.25
I feel FWC's literature portrays an accurate image of the organization. (Representation)	5.99	1.90
I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the animals' long-term well-being.	5.96	2.27
(Representation)		
I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people of Florida. (Representation)	5.59	2.29
I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the long-term well-being of the animals. (Representation)	5.37	2.11
I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people. (Representation)	5.20	2.05
I think FWC is a credible organization. (Visual Impression)	6.49	2.10
I think FWC and the Florida Game and Fish Commission are two separate state organizations.	5.99	2.17
(Visual Impression)		

Items were measured on a 9-point scale where 1=Strongly Disagree and 9=Strongly Agree.

Table 5 represents the 22 measures and four constructs of *rhetoric*, *behavior*,

representation, and *visual impression*, which were initially proposed to define *public image*. All constructs, except visual impression (α = .59) had high reliability measures. Means and standard deviations are given for each item and construct. Construct means were average to somewhat high for all variables, except for the variable that asks respondents if they think of FWC when they see the secondary logo, where the mean was somewhat low (M=3.92). However, this table is strictly illustrative. These analyses have demonstrated that it is more effective to perform factor analysis prior to reliability testing. If one had just performed reliability testing, then these analyses would assume there are three reliable factors that measure *public image*, rather than the one that was identified through factor analysis.

Items	М	SD
Rhetoric $(n=1,193)$ $\alpha = .87$	5.81	1.82
I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the media.	5.95	2.18
I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the public.	5.84	2.06
I feel FWC spokespersons accurately represent FWC.	5.64	1.91
Behavior $(n=1,193)$ $\alpha = .82$	5.55	1.71
I believe FWC invites stakeholders to communicate in open discussions about Florida's fish and wildlife issues.	5.91	2.09
I believe FWC is responsive to the needs of Florida's saltwater anglers.	5.33	2.20
I believe FWC has good standing with local and state elected officials.	5.97	1.77
I believe FWC listens to public input.	5.01	2.25
Representation $(n=1,193)$ $\alpha = .91$	5.71	1.54
I feel FWC's literature portrays an accurate image of the organization.	5.99	1.90
I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the animals' long- term well-being.	5.96	2.27
I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people of Florida.	5.59	2.29
I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the long-term well-being of the animals.	5.37	2.11
I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people.	5.20	2.05
I believe FWC has top quality literature and publications.	6.13	1.86
I feel most saltwater anglers in Florida know about FWC.	6.46	2.13
I feel FWC is recognized most often in a positive manner by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).	5.96	1.81
I perceive that other saltwater anglers feel FWC is accurately represented by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).	5.09	1.90
I feel FWC is accurately represented by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.).	5.34	1.97
Visual Impression $(n=1,193)$ $\alpha = .59$	5.82	1.45
I think FWC is a credible organization.	6.49	2.10
I think FWC and the Florida Game and Fish Commission are two separate state organizations.	5.99	2.17
I think FWC and the Florida Marine Research Institute are two separate organizations.	6.25	2.58
Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC. See Appendix D	6.46	2.55
Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC. See Appendix E	3.92	2.60

Table 5. Mean and Standard Deviations for Four Pro	posed Public Image Constructs

Items were measured on a 9-point scale where 1=Strongly Disagree and 9=Strongly Agree.

Therefore, the answer to RQ1 is that only one construct can be used to define *public image*. Although reliability testing found that three of the four initially proposed indices measured reliable (*rhetoric, behavior*, and *representation*), these indices were not individually weighted through factor analysis and thus are determined to be unreliable measures of *public image*. Thus, the items were not completely eliminated; rather they are now identified within the new *public image* construct.

Table 6: Correlations	Among Public	Image and	Organizational	Factors

	Public Image
Main Logo	r=. 424*
	p=. 000
Secondary Logo	r=. 260*
	p=. 000
I think FWC and the Florida Game and Fish Commission are two separate state organizations.	r=.750*
	p=. 000
*p<. 001	•

Table 6 illustrates correlation results used to determine any relationship that exists between *public image* and either the organization's *main logo* or *secondary logo*; and the item "I think FWC and the Florida Fish and Game Commission are two separate state organizations." These items were chosen for correlation analysis because they are three items used by the organization of study to specifically identify that organization to its stakeholders. Significant results (p<. 001) determined a moderate relationship (r=.424) between *public image* and the *main logo*, a weak relationship (r=.260) between *public image* and the *secondary logo*, and strong relationship (r=.750) between *public image* and the item "I think FWC and the Florida Fish and Game Commission are two separate state organizations."

RQ 2: Is it possible to build a reliable construct for *public trust*?

Table 7 illustrates factor analysis results for *public trust*. These results show that

 all but one variable reliably measured *public trust*. The variable removed from the new

 construct was "I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility."

Table 7.	Public	trust	index	after	factor	analys	sis

Items	Factor value
I believe FWC is a responsible organization and follows the appropriate rules.	.843
I feel FWC is honest when communicating.	.863
I feel FWC has the ability to communicate with its stakeholders.	.782
I believe FWC supplies enough information to the media.	.750
I believe FWC has the expertise to deal with the issues it is responsible for.	.812
I believe FWC's communications are always consistent.	.850
I believe FWC supplies enough information to the public.	.791
I think FWC has the ability to solve problems quickly and efficiently.	.744
I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility.	.480

Italicized variables were removed based upon factor analysis results and were not measured for reliability.

Table 8 identifies the means and standard deviations for *public trust*. Item means were mostly ranged from slightly below average (M=4.93, SD=2.09) to slightly above average (M=6.16, SD=2.04). Overall, the construct mean for *public trust* was slightly above average (M=5.54, SD=1.68). Cronbach's alpha of .92 further supported the reliability of this construct; therefore, it is possible to build a reliable construct for *public trust*.

Items	М	SD
Public Trust (n=1,193) α =. 92	5.54	1.68
I believe FWC has the expertise to deal with the issues it is responsible for.	6.03	2.11
I believe FWC's communications are always consistent.	5.31	2.06
I believe FWC supplies enough information to the public.	4.93	2.09
I believe FWC supplies enough information to the media.	4.99	2.09
I think FWC has the ability to solve problems quickly and efficiently.	4.94	2.17
I feel FWC has the ability to communicate with its stakeholders.	5.99	2.02
I feel FWC is honest when communicating.	5.93	2.11
I believe FWC is a responsible organization and follows the appropriate rules.	6.16	2.04
I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility.		

Items were measured on a 9-point scale where 1=Strongly Disagree and 9=Strongly Agree.

Italicized variables were removed based upon factor analysis results.

Table 9 illustrates correlation results used to determine any relationship that exists between *public trust* and either the organization's *main logo* or *secondary logo*; and the item "I think FWC and the Florida Fish and Game Commission are two separate state organizations." Again, these items were chosen for correlation analysis because they are three items used by the organization of study to specifically identify that organization to its stakeholders. Significant results (p<. 001) determined a moderate relationship (r=. 408) between *public image* and the *main logo*, a weak relationship (r=. 282) between *public trust* and the *secondary logo*, and strong relationship (r=. 665) between *public trust* and the item "I think FWC and the Florida Fish and Game Commission are two separate state organizations."

	Public Trust
Main Logo	r=. 408*
	p=. 000
Secondary Logo	r=. 282*
	p=. 000
I think FWC and the Florida Game and Fish Commission are two separate state organizations.	r=.665*
	p=. 000

Table 9: Correlations Among Public Trust and Organizational Factors

*p<. 001

RQ 3. What is the relationship between *public image* and the previously defined relationship variables of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*?

To first answer RQ 3 and RQ 4, reliability testing was conducted on the Hon and

J. E. Grunig (1999) constructs of trust, satisfaction, commitment, and control mutuality.

Factor analysis was not used to answer this question since these constructs have already

been defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999), and thus were tested based upon their operationalization of the constructs. **Table 10** identifies the means and standard deviations for the items associated with these four indices. As with *public trust*, construct means ranged from slightly below average to above average: *control mutuality* (M=4.92, SD=1.74), *trust* (M=5.41, SD=1.84), *satisfaction* (M=5.67, SD=1.83), and *commitment* (M=6.27, SD=1.67), respectively.

Cronbach's alpha proved the reliability of each index (*trust*=. 92, *satisfaction*=. 92, *commitment*=. 85, *control mutuality*=. 86). One item, which stated, "Compared to other organizations, I value my relationship with FWC more," was eliminated within the *commitment* index due to a low alpha.

Items	М	SD
Trust (n=1,193) α=. 92	5.41	1.84
FWC treats saltwater anglers fairly and justly.	5.76	2.16
Whenever FWC makes an important decision, I know the organization will be	5.12	2.24
concerned about saltwater anglers.	5.37	2.17
FWC can be relied on to keep its promises. I believe that FWC takes the opinions of saltwater anglers into account when	5.03	2.17
making decisions.	5.05	2.23
I feel very confident about FWC's skills.	5.63	2.13
FWC has the ability to accomplish what it says it will do.	5.54	2.11
Satisfaction $(n=1,193) \alpha=.92$	5.67	1.83
I am happy with FWC.	5.80	2.10
Both FWC and saltwater anglers benefit from the relationship.	6.47	2.12
Most saltwater anglers are happy in their interactions with FWC.	5.16	2.03
Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship FWC has established with saltwater anglers.	5.47	2.18
Most people enjoy dealing with FWC.	5.46	2.06
Commitment (n=1,193) α=. 85	6.27	1.67
I feel that FWC is trying to maintain a long-term commitment to saltwater anglers.	6.24	1.98
I can see that FWC wants to maintain a relationship with saltwater anglers.	5.90	2.11
There is a long-lasting bond between FWC and saltwater anglers.	5.31	2.17
I would rather work together with FWC than not.	7.62	1.78
Compared to other organization, I value my relationship with FWC more.		
Control Mutuality (n=1,193) a=. 86	4.92	1.74
FWC and saltwater anglers are attentive to what each other say.	5.40	1.98
FWC believes the opinions of saltwater anglers are legitimate.	5.40	2.27
In dealing with saltwater anglers, FWC has a tendency to throw its weight around.	4.43	2.26
FWC really listens to what saltwater anglers have to say.	4.91	2.25
The management of FWC gives saltwater anglers enough say in the decision- making process.	4.48	2.16

Table 10. Means and Standard Deviations for Relationship Constructs

Items were measured on a 9-point scale where 1=Strongly Disagree and 9=Strongly Agree.

Italicized variables were removed from analysis due to low α .

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine any relationships that exist

between public image and trust, satisfaction, commitment, or control mutuality. Table 11

illustrates construct correlations. All correlations yielded significant values (p<. 001).

Strong relationships with a large size effect size exist between *public image* and *control*

mutuality (r=. 874, p<. 001) and very strong relationships with large effect size exist

between public image and trust (r=. 942, p<. 001), satisfaction (r=. 931, p<. 001), and

commitment (r=. 907, p<. 001).

	Trust	Satisfaction	Commitment	Control Mutuality	Public Image
<u>Trust</u>					
Satisfaction	r=. 915***				
	p=. 000				
Commitment	r=. 877***	r=. 905***			
	p=. 000	p=. 000			
Control Mutuality	r=. 888***	r=. 857***	r=. 800***		
	p=. 000	p=. 000	p=. 000		
Public Image	r=.942***	r=. 931***	r=. 907***	r=. 874***	
	p=. 000	p=. 000	p=. 000	p=. 000	

Table 11: Construct Correlations with Public Image

*****p<. 001

RQ 4. What is the relationship between *public trust* and the previously defined relationship variables of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*?

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine any relationships that exist between *public trust* and *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, or *control mutuality*. **Table 12** illustrates construct correlations between indices. All correlations yielded significant values (p<. 001). Strong relationships with large effect size exist between *public trust* and *satisfaction* (r=. 880, p<. 001), *commitment* (r=. 835, p<. 001), and *control mutuality* (r=. 824, p<. 001) and a very strong relationship with a large effect size exists between *public trust* and *trust* (r=. 917, p<. 001).

	Trust	Satisfaction	Commitment	Control Mutuality	Public Trust
<u>Trust</u>					
Satisfaction	r=. 915***				
	p=. 000				
Commitment	r=. 877***	r=. 905***			
	p=. 000	p=. 000			
Control Mutuality	r=. 888***	r=. 857***	r=. 800***		
	p=. 000	p=. 000	p=. 000		
Public Trust	r=. 917***	r=. 880***	r=. 835***	r=. 824***	
	p=. 000	p=. 000	p=. 000	p=. 000	
$***_{n} < 0.01$					

Table 12: Construct Correlations with Public Trust

***p<. 001

To further explore this relationship, factor analysis was run on the *public trust* items and all existing relationship variables (*trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*). **Table 13** reflects the results of this factor analysis where all, but four, of 30 items weighed into just one factor. Items not included in the newly constructed *public image* construct are noted at the end of the table in italics. These four items came from the *public trust, control mutuality, commitment*, and *trust* constructs, respective to the order they are listed in the table. Also, items were eliminated from the final factor if their counter value was too high or they weighted into two factors (Stacks, 2002). Cronbach's alpha (α =. 98) further identified the reliability of this factor.

Items	Factor value
I feel FWC is trying to maintain a long-term commitment to saltwater anglers.	.805
I am happy with FWC.	.822
FWC and saltwater anglers are attentive to what each other say.	.790
FWC treats saltwater anglers fairly and justly.	.835
The management of FWC gives saltwater anglers enough say in the decision-making process.	.802
Most people enjoy dealing with FWC.	.789
I believe FWC is a responsible organization and follows the appropriate rules.	.851
I feel FWC is honest when communicating.	.865
Both FWC and saltwater anglers benefit from the relationship between them.	.796
Whenever FWC makes an important decision, I know the organization will be concerned about	
saltwater anglers.	.887
There is a long-lasting bond between FWC and saltwater anglers.	.856
I feel FWC has the ability to communicate with its stakeholders.	.732
FWC can be relied on to keep its promises.	.872
I believe FWC supplies enough information to the media.	.681
Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship FWC has established with saltwater	
anglers.	.922
I believe FWC has the expertise to deal with the issues it is responsible for.	.769
I can see that FWC wants to maintain a relationship with saltwater anglers.	.863
FWC believes the opinions of saltwater anglers are legitimate.	.839
Most saltwater anglers are happy in their interactions with FWC.	.859
I believe FWC's communications are always consistent.	.829
I believe FWC supplies enough information to the public.	.718
I feel very confident about FWC's skills.	.867
Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship FWC has established with saltwater	
anglers.	.926
I think FWC has the ability to solve problems quickly and efficiently.	.694
I believe that FWC takes the opinion of saltwater anglers into account when making decisions.	.882
FWC really listens to what saltwater anglers have to say.	.881
I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility.	.429
In dealing with saltwater anglers, FWC has a tendency to throw its weight around.	.332
I would rather work together with FWC than not.	.522
FWC has the ability to accomplish what it says it will do.	.601*

Table 13. Factor analysis of public trust, satisfaction, trust, commitment, and control mutuality

Italicized variables were removed based upon factor analysis results and were not measured for reliability. *Item was removed from factor because the counter value was too high to use in just one factor.

RQ 5. Is there a relationship between *public trust* and the *trust* construct defined by

Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999)?

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine any relationships that exist

between *public trust* and *trust*. Table 14 illustrates the correlation results, which yielded

a very high correlation (r=. 917, p<. 001), indicating a very strong relationship with a

large effect size.

Table 14: Construct correlation between public trust and trust

	Public Trust
Trust	r=. 917***
	p=. 000

*** p<. 001

RQ 6. Is there a relationship between *public trust* and *public image*?

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine any relationships that exist between *public image* and *public trust*. **Table 15** illustrates the correlation results, which yielded a very high correlation (r=. 916, p<. 001), indicating a very strong relationship with a large effect size.

	Public Image
Public Trust	r=. 916***
	p=. 000
*** n < 001	

Table 15: Construct correlation between public image and public trust

*** p<. 001

RQ 7. How do controlled and uncontrolled media affect *public trust, public image*, and the existing relationship variables of *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*?

One-way Analysis of Variance was used to determine the effect of the six constructs defined in this study on controlled or uncontrolled media. Respondents were asked two questions regarding controlled and uncontrolled media. Respondents were asked to define the way in which they *seek information* about the study organization and the way in which they *receive information* about the study organization. This study did not yield any significant differences between the media use of respondents and their effects on *public image*, *public trust*, or the other relationship constructs.

RQ 8. How do respondents' demographic variables affect *public trust*, *public image*, and the existing relationship variables of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*?

ANOVA tests were conducted to identify any effects respondents' demographics had on any of the six constructs defined in this study. Only the *age*, *education*, and *region* demographics yielded differences among constructs. **Tables 16**, **17**, and **18** illustrate these results.

Table 16 illustrates ANOVA results between *age* as the independent variable and the six constructs as the dependent variables. Since only one respondent fell within the 80+ category, this category was eliminated from the ANOVA testing so post hoc tests could be run. Only the construct of *commitment* (F=2.180, p<. 05) yielded significant results. Conservative Scheffe post hoc tests did not yield significant differences; therefore, the more liberal LSD test was conducted. Differences were found among those aged 20 - 29 (n=82, M=6.70) and those aged 40 - 49 (n=385, M=6.23), 50 - 59 (n=285, M=6.14), 60 - 69 (n=129, M=6.19), and 70 - 79 (n=17, M=5.66). Differences were also found between the age groups of 30 - 39 (n=271, M=6.44) and 50 - 59 (n=285, M=6.14).

	Age
Trust	F=1.451
	p<. 19
Satisfaction	F=1.838
	p<. 09
Commitment	F=2.180*
	p<. 04
Control Mutuality	F=1.693
	p=. 12
Public Image	F=1.971
	p<. 07
Public Trust	F=1.165
	p<. 32

Table 16: ANOVA between six construct variables and age

* p<. 05

Table 17 illustrates ANOVA results for region as the independent variable. Only the constructs of *satisfaction* (F=2.520, p<. 05), *commitment* (F=3.286, p<. 05), and *control mutuality* (F=3.224, p<. 05) yielded significant results.

Scheffe post hoc tests show significant differences (p<. 05) for *satisfaction* between those who live in the *southwest region* (n=355, M=5.86) and the *northwest region* (n=320, M=5.42); again for *commitment* between those who live in the *southwest region* (n=355, M=6.48) and the *northwest region* (n=320, M=6.03); and again for *control mutuality* between those who live in the *southwest region* (n=355, M=5.15) and the *northwest region* (n=320, M=4.68).

The LSD post hoc tests also show significant differences for *satisfaction* (p<. 005) between those who live in the *southwest region* (n=355, M=5.86) and those who live in the *northwest region* (n=320, M=5.42); again for *commitment* (p<. 001) between those

who live in the *southwest region* (n=355, M=6.48) and the *northwest region* (n=320, M=6.03); and again for *control mutuality* (p<.001) between those who live in the *southwest region* (n=355, M=5.15) and the *northwest region* (n=320, M=4.68).

Region
F=2.009
p=.09
F=2.520*
p<. 05
F=3.286*
p<. 05
F=3.224*
p<. 05
F=2.057
p=.08
F=1.604
p=.17

Table 17: ANOVA between six construct variables and region

*p<. 05

Table 18 illustrates ANOVA results for education as the independent variable. These results show that education has a significant effect on all independent variables where *trust* (F=3.644), *satisfaction* (F=3.467), *commitment* (F=3.733), *control mutuality* (F=3.560), *public image* (F=3.265) were significant at less than .005 and *public trust* (F=4.845) was significant at .001.

	Education
Trust	F=3.644*
	p<. 005
Satisfaction	F=3.467*
	p<. 005
Commitment	F=3.733*
	p<. 005
Control Mutuality	F=3.560*
	p<. 005
Public Image	F=3.265*
	p<. 005
Public Trust	F=4.845**
	p<. 001

* p<. 005

** p<. 001

Conservative Scheffe post hoc tests only yielded significant differences for *control mutuality* and *public trust*. Differences for *control mutuality* lie between those who answered the *other* category (n=26, M=3.73) and those with either a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.09) or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.13). Differences for *public trust* lie between those who answered the *other* category (n=26, M=4.11) and those with a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.78), an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.47), or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.68).

The more liberal LSD post hoc test yielded significant differences for all constructs. Specific differences for interpersonal *trust* occurred between those who answered *other* (n=26, M=4.24) and those who have *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.31), a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.64), an *associate's degree* (n=268,

M=5.34), a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, 5.58), a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.18), and an *MD* (n=14, M=5.49). Differences were also found between those with a *PhD* (n=25, M=4.63) and those with either a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.64) or a *bachelor's degree* ((n=321, 5.58); those with a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.18) and either those with a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.64) or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, 5.58); those with a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.18) and either those with a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.64) or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, 5.58).

LSD tests for *satisfaction* yielded differences between those who answered *other* (n=26, M=4.58) and those who have *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.46), a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.88), an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.65), *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.86), or *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.41). Differences were also found between those who have a *PhD* (n= 25, M=5.02) and those who either have a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.88) or *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.86); those who have a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.41) and those who have a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.88); and those who have a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.88); and those who have a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.88); and those who have *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.46) and either a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.86).

LSD tests for *commitment* yielded differences between those who answered *some* formal education (n=123, M=5.97) and those who have a high school diploma/GED (n=264, M=6.41), associate's degree (n=268, M=6.33), or bachelor's degree (n=321, M=6.45). Differences were also found between those who answered other and those who had a high school diploma/GED (n=264, M=6.41), associate's degree (n=268, M=6.33), or bachelor's degree (n=321, M=6.45); and those who had a PhD (n=25, M=5.58) and those who had a high school diploma/GED (n=264, M=6.41), associate's degree (n=268, M=6.33), M=6.33), or *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=6.45); those who had a *master's degree* (n=25, M=5.58) and those who had a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=6.41) or *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=6.45).

LSD tests for *control mutuality* yielded differences between those who answered *other* (n=26, M=3.73) and those who had *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.97), a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=6.41), an *associate's degree* (n=268,M=6.33), a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=6.45), or a *master's degree* (n=152, M=6.02). Other differences were found between those who had a PhD (n=25, M=4.36) and those who had either a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=6.41) or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=6.45); those who had a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=6.45) and *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.97).

LSD tests for *public image* yielded differences between those who answered *other* (n=26, M=4.79) and those who had *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.54), a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.95), an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.67), or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.88). Other differences were found between those who had a *PhD* (n=25, M=4.93) and those who had a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.95), an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.67), or a *bachelor's degree* (n=268, M=5.67), or a *bachelor's degree* (n=264, M=5.95), an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.67), or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.88); and those who had a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.95) with those who had a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.50).

LSD tests for *public trust* yielded differences between those who answered *other* (n=26, M=4.11) and those who had *some formal education* (n=123, M=5.44), a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.78), an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.47), a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.68), a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.36), or an *MD*

(n=14, M=5.47). Other differences were found between those who had a *PhD* (n=25, M=4.85) and those who either had a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.78) or a *bachelor's degree* (n=321, M=5.68); and those who had a *high school diploma/GED* (n=264, M=5.78) and those who had an *associate's degree* (n=268, M=5.47) or a *master's degree* (n=152, M=5.36).

Chapter Five

DISCUSSION

As stated previously, the existing scales by Huang (1997) and Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) were designed to measure the type and strength of an organization-public relationship. They were designed under the assumption that practitioners are directly involved in creating and maintaining such relationships. However, they do not address measuring long-term effects of public relations programs where practitioners are not involved with or responsible for interpersonal relationships.

Thus, the purpose of the current investigation was to explore whether factors, such as *public image* and *public trust*, can be used to measure the long-term effects of public relations programs. The results suggest that *public image* and *public trust* are reliable constructs for measuring the long-term effects of public relations programs, and, in fact, add a new dimension to the existing measurement scales. The study also suggests that these two factors can affect stakeholders' perceptions of their interpersonal relationships with an organization. The following discussion will review the results of this study regarding the effects of *public image* and *public trust*; the relationship factors versus *public image* and *public trust*; communication; and, finally, a summary of the results in relation to the *model of long-term effects of communication* that was previously proposed.

Public Image and its effects

The results of this study showed through factor analysis that 12 items reliably measured *public image*. The items used to measure *public image* addressed issues such as respondents' perception of the organization's ability to supply accurate information to the media and public, credibility, ability to achieve its mission, and ability to listen. All means ranged between 5.01 and 5.99 on a 9-point scale, except one where respondents had a stronger perception of the organization's credibility (M=6.49).

The four initial dimensions predicted to measure *public image – rhetoric*, *behavior, representation*, and *visual impression –* did not weigh into four separate factors for this study. Although these factors did not weigh out separately, items used to identify each weighed into the final *public image* factor; thus, confirming the need to include information discussed by image scholars related to these four factors, but not to separate the measurement into four separate factors (Emrich, Brower, Feldman, & Garland, 2001; Baker, 2001; Desanto & Garner, 2001; Day, Dong, Robins, 2001).

The results of the *public image* analysis also identified the ability to measure *public image* as an external factor. It confirms Hatch and Schultz's (1997) definition of *image*, where *image* is influenced by the everyday interactions between organizational members, such as public relations practitioners, and external audiences. All items were written for and tested by the organization's external stakeholders. Although, *public image* was not defined or tested as an internal factor within this study, it may be possible to administer the same instrument to the organization's internal stakeholders to test their perception of *public image*, or perhaps their perceptions of their stakeholders' *public*

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image. Results from these analyses would support scholars who view *image* as internal and external to an organization (Kazoleas, Kim, & Moffitt, 2001).

Identity was defined as something that is projected by an organization and falls independent of external influences (Hatch & Schultz, 1997). This study does not support the notion that *public image* is a separate concept from *identity* because the survey instrument did not specifically test for respondents' perceptions that fall independent of external influences. Furthermore, *identity* was also defined as a shared understanding of an organization's unique characteristics presented by that organization to its internal and external audiences (Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Olins, 1989). This study only tested one specific external stakeholder group. No internal audiences were knowingly tested.

Similarly, this study could not conclude whether differences exist between *public image* and *reputation*. As stated previously, *reputation* differs from *image* because images can be based on false perceptions and only organizations can create and communicate their true *reputations* to their publics (Baker, 2001). The survey instrument did not test for false perceptions, and it did not test for the actual *reputation* the organization attempts to portray. A longitudinal study is needed to first determine the organization's *reputation*, since *reputation* was also defined as a stakeholder's overall evaluation of a company over time (Gotsi and Wilson, 2001).

Although some items did not weigh into the *public image* factor, significant findings were still observed within this study. Statements about the organization's logo, standing with public officials, and quality of literature did not weigh into the *public image* factor. This is somewhat surprising as these issues are all discussed within *image* literature (DeSanto & Garner, 2001; Day, Dong, & Robins, 2001). Perhaps these factors

measure more of a recognition with an object, such as a logo, rather than a perception. This result led to further investigation into the questions addressing the organization's two logos. These items stated, "Whenever I see this logo (main or secondary logo) I think of FWC. They did not start with "I think," "I feel," or "I believe," implying perceptive responses. Correlation analysis was conducted and a moderate relationship (r=. 424, p<. 001) was detected between the *main logo* and *public image*, and a weak relationship (r=. 260, p<. 001) was detected between the *secondary logo* and *public image*. These results have both practical and theoretical implications. The means were 6.9 and 3.9, respectively, which shows higher recognition of the *main logo* than the *secondary logo*. Practically, this shows that more than one logo can be ineffective, unnecessary, and confusing. Theoretically, this shows logo recognition is important to measure when assessing the long-term outcomes of public relations programs, even if included as a separate item that is measured independent of the *public image* factor.

Finally, ANOVA testing yielded significant findings between *public image* and the demographic of *education*. Those who had *some formal education* (M=5.54) and those who had a *PhD* (M=4.94) tended to have lower means than those with a *high school diploma/GED* (M=5.95), *associate's degree* (M=5.67), or a *master's degree* (M=5.88). Thus, those with the least formal education, and those with the most formal education had lower *public image* levels than those in between the two. Justifying these results without qualitative measures leads to mere speculation. However, perhaps it is that the organization is not utilizing the appropriate communication tools to reach the different education or knowledge levels.

Overall, *public image* was successfully operationalized through the items identified through factor analysis (Table 3). The items that weighed into this factor were about organizational literature, credibility, mission, and ability to supply accurate information. These items and the *public image* factor represent universal duties of public relations practitioners. The mean of *public image* measured 5.72, which identified stakeholders' perceptions of *public image* regarding this organization as slightly high. This proves the importance for the inclusion of the *public image* factor when measuring the long-term outcomes of public relations programs.

Public Trust and its effects

Factor analysis showed that eight of nine items reliably measured *public trust*. This analysis supports Bentele's (1994) hypothesis that attributes, such as *expertise*, *ethic of responsibility*, *communication ability*, *communication adequacy*, *communication consistency*, *communication transparency*, *communication frankness*, and *ability to solve problems* all contribute to high levels of *public trust*. The results also confirm that what public relations practitioners do in terms of communication is directly associated with and integral for building *public trust* between an organization and its stakeholders.

This study also supports Bentele's notion of *basis trust*. He asserted that *public trust* (or personal trust) is based on the psychological mechanisms of *basis trust*, where *basis trust* is the result of an act that leads to a communication relationship. Therefore, the items within *public trust*, which tested significant for this study, measured respondents' perceptions of how well the organization maintains that communication relationship. *Basis trust* also contributes to *public trust* because public figures and organizations often project themselves through the audiovisual media, which stimulate

interpersonal contacts. This definition and the results of this study support the concept that a communicative relationship, which is not interpersonal, can exist between an organization and its publics.

The one item that did not weigh into the *public trust* factor, which was *strong social responsibility*, warrants more discussion. Perhaps it was the way in which respondents interpreted the phrase *social responsibility*. The item stated, "I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility." Bentele's interpretation of *social responsibility* is such that the organization has a responsibility for the welfare of people. However, this may be a product of Bentele's European society, where social responsibility may be viewed as more important to the people than it is in United States. Furthermore, because the organization in this study is a government agency whose role is to manage fish and wildlife, respondents may feel it is more important for the organization to provide that service and not to provide social welfare. Therefore, this item may have been better stated as, "I believe FWC has a strong responsibility to the public." This supports the idea that survey instruments and measurement factors must be adjusted to the organization and culture one is testing (Huang, 2001a).

One scholar defined *public trust* in relation to government agencies; however, this survey instrument was designed for administration to any type of organization (Thomas, 1998). Scholars also argued that *public trust* is a media mediated process, where one of the most important elements is that of the issues and messages, where realities are created through media (Bentele, 1994; Thomas, 1998; Misztal, 2001). Although the items used to test *controlled* and *uncontrolled media* in this study yielded insignificant results, the items used to define *public trust* and *public image* tested communication flows that came

from inside the organization. For example, one *public image* item stated, "I believe FWC invites stakeholders to communicate in open discussion about Florida's fish and wildlife issues." A *public trust* item asked, "I believe FWC supplies enough information to the public." Therefore, this study supports the notion that the perception of *public trust* is the result of a mediated process.

Public trust was successfully operationalized through the items identified through factor analysis (Table 7). The means for all items measuring *public trust* ranged from 4.93 to 6.16. Thomas (1998) pointed to the fact that the general public knows relatively little about most government agencies. The organization in the study is a government agency and perhaps this helps to explain why respondent answers were more "middle of the road," rather than closer to strongly agree or strongly disagree. Means for all variables fell around the same range as those for *public trust*, so perhaps the rationale Thomas provided can help explain the overall variable means in this study. The construct mean was 5.54, measuring slightly high. The reliability measure of .92 shows all items within this factor reliably measured *public trust*. Overall, these results support the concept that *public trust* can measure long-term effects of public relations programs. The study also supports the notion that the effects of public relations efforts, such as those tested in *public trust*, do have an effect on the relationship factors – *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*.

Finally, ANOVA testing yielded significant findings between *public trust* and *education*. Those who responded to the *other* (M=4.11) category had significantly lower means than those with a *high school diploma/GED* (M=5.78), an *associate's degree*

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(M=5.47), or a *bachelor's degree* (M=5.68). Justifying these results without qualitative measures, and more insight into the *other* types of education, leads to speculation. *Relationship factors versus public image and public trust*

Cronbach's alpha proved reliability of the four relationship constructs of *trust* (n=1,193, α =. 92, M=5.41), *satisfaction* (n=1,193, α =. 92, M=5.67), *commitment* (n=1,193, α =. 85, M=6.27), and *control mutuality* (n=1,193, α =. 86, M=4.92). The means for each construct indicate respondents perceive their relationship with the study organization to be slightly week to just slightly strong.

Correlation analysis determined that strong relationships exist among these relationship variables and both *public image* and *public trust*. Again, to explain why these relationships exist based upon quantitative research is difficult; however, one factor analysis test may provide some insight. Factor analysis was conducted on all reliable variables associated with *public image, public trust*, and the four relationship items associated with *the six factors of trust, satisfaction, commitment,* and *control mutuality*. Results yielded that all but four of thirty variables are all measuring the same dimension? It warrants a question of whether *public image* and *public image* and *public trust* should be added to the existing relationship scales defined by Huang (1997) and Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) in an effort to measure the effects that both the technical and management factors or public relations programs have on the long-term outcomes.

Conversely, further testing can be done to assess the effectiveness of the interpersonal *trust* defined in previous studies versus the *public trust* defined in this study. The concept of *public trust* in this study has provided a more comprehensive

measure of the universal roles for public relations as well as the effectiveness of those roles. Therefore, it may be possible to add some of the items of interpersonal *trust* factor to the *public trust* factor to allow an even greater measure of overall stakeholder *trust* in an organization.

Communication

Four questions were used to address respondents' media use. Two questions asked respondents how they would seek information about the organization and two questions addressed the type of media whereby they received information from the organization about the organization. For this study, media types were identified specific to *controlled media* (e.g. brochures, exhibits, and videotapes) and *uncontrolled media* (content of press media, public workshops, and employee representatives). No statistically significant findings resulted from these four questions. Therefore, it may be more effective to measure communication through *asymmetrical* and *symmetrical* models, since these models employ both *controlled* and *uncontrolled media* (Matera & Artigue, 1999). Other scholars recognize this approach as more effective when measuring communication efforts and effects (J. E. Grunig, 2001; L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002).

Although the specific communication questions in this study yielded insignificant results, there are two practical implications resulting from this study. The first is related to the communication items addressed within *public image* and *public trust* and how the results from these two factors can help to address organizational objectives. *The Excellence Study* set out to answer "how, why, and to what extent communication affects the achievement of organizational objectives" (L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier,

2002, p. ix.). Organizational objectives help set public relations objectives (Kelly, 2001). One objective for public relations is to build long-term relationships with stakeholders, which is achieved through communication. Thus, *public image* and *public trust* can, at minimum, help to answer "how" communication affects the achievement of organizational objectives based upon the results of this study. These two reliable factors were built around communication efforts, such as honesty and reliability of message dissemination. A direct relationship was demonstrated between these two factors and the four relationship factors, thus demonstrating an effect on public relations objectives. According to Kelly (2001), "objectives enhance the climate for changing attitudes and behaviors" (p.287). Therefore, knowing stakeholders' perceptions of *public image* and *public trust* will provide practitioners the opportunity to adjust their communication efforts accordingly, which in return will aid in adjusting attitudes and behaviors of stakeholders. This may lead the organization to achieve its objectives more efficiently and timely.

The second practical implication of this study is that of the organization's mission. The mission statement for the organization in this study is, "Managing fish and wildlife resources for their long-term well-being and the benefit of the people." Thus, four items were used to test the perception of stakeholders regarding whether or not the organization is accomplishing this mission. The mission was broken into two parts, one addressing their perceptions of the mission and, a second addressing respondents' perceptions of how other people feel about the mission. Respondents were asked if the they feel the organization is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the animals' long-term well-being, and if they believe the organization is managing Florida's fish and

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wildlife for the benefit of the people. The means for these two items were 5.96 and 5.59, respectively. Furthermore, respondents were asked if they perceive other people feel this way and the means for these two items were 5.37 and 5.20, respectively. These results, although just slightly above the midpoint, identify the importance of a mission to an organization's stakeholders and their perception of whether an organization is following its own mission. The communication implications in this regard are great as mission identification through message dissemination is an integral part of public relations practice. A mission is a message designed for a target audience and when they buy into the mission and believe the organization supports the mission, they are more likely to support the organization (Wilson, 2001).

Overall, communication is obviously the impetus for this entire study; however, the question of which type of media affects *public image*, *public trust*, or the four relationships factors – *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*, was not properly addressed.

<u>A model of long-term effects of communication</u>

This study supports the model illustrated in Figure 1, with one exception being the measure of *controlled* and *uncontrolled media*. The model projected that *public image*, *public trust*, and the relationship factors of *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality* can all influence each other. The model also predicts that communication outputs can influence these six factors. Communication output measurements will have to be explored through further research, as the results of this study did not accurately address this. However, there are implications that the results of the questionnaire can influence the communication outputs from a public relations program if communication

outputs do influence the six factors – *public image*, *public trust*, *trust*, *satisfaction*, *commitment*, and *control mutuality*. Strong and significant results will give a practitioner some insight into the fact that their program is have some positive effects; however, weak or insignificant results will hopefully guide practitioners into changing some of their outputs to reflect more message dissemination regarding which ever items measured weak.

Conclusively, this model demonstrates a more comprehensive map for measuring long-term effects of public relations programs than the previously defined relationship scales. This model brings long-term outcome measurement beyond a linear design by adding new dimensions.

Chapter Six

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the significant results of this study regarding *public* trust and *public image* add a new dimension to the concept of measuring the long-term effects of public relations programs. The study addressed the concern and challenge stated in the Introduction, which was for scholars to explore new measurement factors beyond the scope of those associated with interpersonal relationships. Perhaps this study has opened the door to a new, more appropriate tool for measuring public relations success; therefore, providing better support for what it is that public relations practitioners do.

Implications for Public Relations

The implications for public relations within this study are two-fold. First, from a practical standpoint, this research has provided a new instrument to help practitioners measure long-term outcomes of public relations programs. This instrument includes not only measurement tools for assessing the strength of an organization-public relationship, but it also includes tools for measuring perceptions stakeholders have about an organization based upon universal public relations tools, such as communication. This tool provides practitioners with the capability of measuring long-term outcomes based upon *public image* and *public trust*, which are not solely dependent upon interpersonal organization-public relationships. This study would argue that including *public image* and *public trust* when measuring the contribution of public relations to organizational effectiveness is a much more realistic representation of public relations work.

The second implication of this study is academic in nature. Scholars now have statistical support encouraging the exploration of new ways to measure the long-term effects of public relations programs beyond measuring interpersonal relationships. This study supports the notion that public relations work takes place in the public sphere and not solely in the interpersonal area.

Furthermore, J.E. Grunig (1993) did not believe *image* was a viable factor to measure. He felt that *image* merely measured a symbolic relationship and leaves out the behavioral (organizational-public) relationship, which leaves public relations practitioners with little value, but to manage message dissemination rather than organization-public relationships. However, he does not identify the relationship between managing messages and managing relationships. Is it not the role of public relations practitioners, despite their position within an organization's chain of command, to manage communication? Thus, communication management and message dissemination should be the most effective dimension to managing organization-public relationships. Therefore, managing *public image* through communication management has a direct link to managing organization-public relationships, which this study supports through the significant findings among *public image* and the relationship factors of *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*.

Study Limitations

Perhaps the most obvious limitation to this study was that a response rate could not be calculated due to the posting of the survey link to a talk forum on a popular magazine's Web site. The original population consisted of a convenience sample of

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5,799 stakeholders for the study organization. With the survey being posted in the Internet, the population became anyone who had access to the Internet.

Another limitation was that this study did not accurately measure whether controlled or uncontrolled media affected the interpersonal relationships tested within the survey instrument. As Cheney and Christensen (2001) stated, "Of course, mass communication research has long acknowledged the importance of the two-step flow of information, suggesting the interaction between mass-mediated messages and interpersonal relationships, but this intermedia relationship always has proven to be difficult to examine in practice" (2001, p. 176). This study further supports their notion. *Future Research*

Although this study identified the potential for adding new dimensions to measuring the long-term effects of public relations, it did not accurately measure *controlled* and *uncontrolled media*. Thus, it is suggested that further studies apply the reliable items found in the study to measure *public image* and *public trust*; however, new, more focused items must be identified to accurately address media effects.

This study was considered the pretest for future studies; therefore, further testing of the scales for *public image* and *public trust*, as well as the relationship variables of *trust, satisfaction, commitment*, and *control mutuality*, is recommended. Since people tend to perceive corporate, nonprofit, and government organizations differently, scales must be tailored to address each type of organization. As very little public relations scholarship or research focuses on government organizations, adding to this body of knowledge can only benefit the field as well as its practitioners.

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Finally, a test of Moffitt's (2001) belief that individuals can conceptualize more than one *image* of an organization is needed. Designing a survey instrument to test stakeholders' perceptions about two or three issues specific to an organization may help to determine the practicality of such a concept, not to mention give insight into how to address each *image*, if necessary.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Initial email of survey to external stakeholders

Date Emailed: Thursday, January 22, 2004 (12:00pm) Subject line of email: Survey about FWC

Dear Saltwater Angler,

We are asking for your help with a survey about the Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission (FWC). The purpose of this survey is to identify factors that influence stakeholders' perceptions of image and trust of an organization. The following link will bring you directly to the survey that is being administered by a public relations graduate student at the University of South Florida. The survey should take no more than 10-minutes and your answers are completely anonymous and confidential. Please do not forward this survey link to other anglers. This survey must be completed by Thursday, February 2, 2004.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Survey link: http://myfwc.com/Survey2.html

Please do not forward this survey link to other anglers.

Appendix B: Follow-up email of reminding stakeholders to complete the survey Date Emailed: Monday, February 2, 2004 (12:00pm) Subject line of email: Survey about FWC

Dear Saltwater Angler,

On January 22, 2004, saltwater anglers were asked to complete a survey about the Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission. This is just a reminder email asking you to complete the survey if you have not already done so. The following link will bring you directly to the survey that is being administered by a public relations graduate student at the University of South Florida. The survey should take no more than 10-minutes and your answers are completely anonymous and confidential. This survey must be completed by Thursday, February 5, 2004. Please do not forward this survey link to other anglers.

Many thanks to those of you who have already completed the survey.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Survey link: http://myfwc.com/Survey2.html

Please do not forward this survey link to other anglers.

Appendix C: Survey instrument

purpose image ar	bout the Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission (FWC) The of this survey is to identify factors that influence stakeholders' perceptions of I trust of an organization. The survey should take no more than 10-minutes and vers are completely anonymous and confidential. Thank you.		Please rate from 1=Strongly Disagree to 9=Strongly Agree								
		Strongly Disagree Disagree / nor Agree Strongly Agree									
1/65	I feel FWC is trying to maintain a long-term commitment to saltwater anglers.	01	02	Оз	C 4	O 5	06	07	08	C 9	
2/65	I am happy with FWC.	01	02	Оз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	08	09	
3/65	I feel FWC's literature portrays an accurate image of the organization.	01	C 2	03	C 4	O 5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
/65	FWC and saltwater anglers are attentive to what each other say.	01	02	Оз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	08	09	
5/65	FWC treats saltwater anglers fairly and justly.	01	C 2	Сз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	08	09	
5/65	I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the public.	01	02	Оз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
7/65	I believe FWC invites stakeholders to communicate in open discussions about Florida's fish and wildlife issues.	01	C 2	Оз	C 4	05	0.6	07	08	09	
3/65	FWC has the ability to accomplish what it says it will do.	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	O 5	C 6	07	0.8	09	
9/65	The management of FWC gives saltwater anglers enough say in the decision- making process.	C 1	02	03	C 4	05	0.6	07	C 8	C 9	
10/65	Compared to other state organizations, I value my relationship with FWC more.	01	C 2	О 3	C 4	O 5	0.6	07	C 8	C 9	
11/65	Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC.	01	O 2	О з	C 4	O 5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
12/65	I think FWC is a credible organization.	01	02	03	04	0.5	06	07	C 8	09	
13/65	I would rather work together with FWC than not.	01	02	Оз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	0.9	
L4/65	Most people enjoy dealing with FWC.	01	02	Сз	04	0.5	0.6	07	C 8	09	
15/65	I believe FWC is a responsible organization and follows the appropriate rules.	01	02	Оз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	0.9	
16/65	I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the animals' long-term well- being.	01	C 2	Сз	C 4	0.5	C 6	07	08	09	
17/65	I feel FWC is honest when communicating.	C1	02	Сз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	C 8	09	
18/65	Both FWC and saltwater anglers benefit from the relationship between them.	01	02	03	04	0.5	0.6	07	C 8	09	
19/65	I feel FWC is accurately represented by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.)	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	0.5	C 6	07	C 8	09	
20/65	Whenever FWC makes an important decision, I know the organization will be concerned about saltwater anglers.	C 1	02	03	C 4	0.5	06	07	0.8	09	
21/65	There is a long-lasting bond between FWC and saltwater anglers.	C 1	C 2	Сз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
22/65	I feel FWC has the ability to communicate with its stakeholders.	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	O 5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
23/65	I perceive that other saltwater anglers feel FWC is accurately represented by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.)	01	02	Сз	C 4	05	0.6	07	08	09	
24/65	I believe FWC has top quality literature and publications.	C 1	C 2	О 3	C 4	O 5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
25/65	I believe FWC supplies accurate information to the media.	01	C 2	С з	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	09	
26/65	FWC can be relied on to keep its promises.	C 1	C 2	О 3	C 4	O 5	0.6	C 7	C 8	C 9	
27/65	I believe FWC supplies enough information to the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc).	01	02	О 3	C 4	05	06	07	08	09	
28/65	Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship FWC has established with saltwater anglers.	C 1	C 2	С з	C 4	C 5	C 6	07	C 8	C 9	
29/65	Whenever I see this logo I think of FWC.	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	C 5	06	07	С 8	09	
30/65	I feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people of Florida.	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	C 8	C 9	
81/65	I believe FWC has the expertise to deal with the issues it is responsible for.	01	02	Оз	C 4	0.5	06	07	0.8	09	
32/65	I can see that FWC wants to maintain a relationship with saltwater anglers.	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	0.5	06	07	0.8	09	
3/65	I believe FWC is responsive to the needs of Florida's saltwater anglers.	01	02	03	C 4	0.5	06	07	08	09	
84/65	FWC believes the opinions of saltwater anglers are legitimate.	01	C 2	Оз	C 4	0.5	06	07	0.8	09	
35/65	I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the long-term, well-being of the animals.	01	C 2	Оз	C 4	05	0.6	07	08	09	
86/65	Most saltwater anglers are happy in their interactions with FWC.	C 1	02	О 3	C 4	05	0.6	07	08	C 9	
37/65	I believe FWC's communications are always consistent.	C 1	C 2	03	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	08	09	

Appendix C (Continued)

38/65	I feel FWC is recognized most often in a positive manner by the media (newspapers, television, magazines, etc.)		O 2	О 3	C 4	O 5	C 6	O 7	0.8	С 9
39/65	In dealing with saltwater anglers, FWC has a tendency to throw its weight around.	C 1	C 2	03	04	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	C 9
10/65	I believe FWC has good standing with local and state elected officials.	C 1	C 2	О 3	O 4	O 5	C 6	0.7	0.8	C 9
41/65	I believe FWC supplies enough information to the public.	O 1	0.2	03	C 4	O 5	0.6	07	0.8	C 9
42/65	I feel very confident about FWC's skills.	C 1	C 2	03	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	0.8	09
43/65	I believe FWC listens to public input.	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	C 5	0.6	07	0.8	09
44/65	Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship FWC has established with saltwater anglers.	O 1	02	Оз	C 4	C 5	0.6	07	08	09
45/65	I perceive other saltwater anglers feel FWC is managing Florida's fish and wildlife for the benefit of the people.	C 1	02	03	C 4	05	0.6	07	08	C 9
46/65	I think FWC has the ability to solve problems quickly and efficiently.	O 1	C 2	0.3	04	C 5	0.6	07	0.8	09
47/65	I believe that FWC takes the opinion of saltwater anglers into account when making decisions,	C 1	C 2	Оз	C 4	C 5	0.6	C 7	C 8	09
48/65	I think FWC and the Florida Game and Freshwater Fish Commission (GFC) are two separate state organizations.	С1	C 2	О з	C 4	C 5	0.6	07	08	09
49/65	I feel FWC spokespersons accurately represent FWC.	O 1	C 2	О 3	04	O 5	0.6	07	08	09
50/65	I believe FWC has a strong social responsibility.	O 1	C 2	03	C 4	0.5	0.6	07	C s	O g
51/65	I feel most saltwater anglers in Florida know about FWC.	O 1	0.2	03	04	C 5	0.6	07	O 8	O g
52/65	FWC really listens to what saltwater anglers have to say.	C 1	C 2	О 3	C 4	C 5	C 6	07	0.8	C s
53/65	${\rm I}$ think FWC and the Florida Marine Research Institute (FMRI) are two separate state organizations.	C 1	C 2	С з	C 4	C 5	0.6	07	08	C g
54/65	From the following group, how do you receive most of your information from FWC?	Choose one.								
55/65	From the following group, how do you receive most of your information $\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{FWC}}\xspace}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textit{from}}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\textitfrom}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\xspace{\ensuremath{\from}\n}\n}\n}}}}}}}}}}}}}}$	Choose One								
56/65	From the following group, what method do you use most to get information about FWC?	Choose one.								
57/65	From the following group, what method do you use most to get information about FWC?			Choose One						
Demograpi	hic Information:									
58/65	Age Group	Under	20 💌							
59/65	Education	Some	Formal E	Education	•					
60/65	Sex	CFen	nale C	Male						
61/65	How often do you fish in saltwater (in Florida) each month?									
62/65	Are you a current Florida resident?	C Yes	O No							
63/65	Do you hold a current Florida recreational saltwater fishing license?	Oyes	O No							
64/65	In which county do you live?	Select	County	•						
	Comments									

Submit Reset

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Appendix D: Primary FWC logo



Appendix E: Secondary FWC logo



Appendix F: Number of respondents by county of residence

County	Respondents (n)	Percent (%)	County	Respondents (n)	Percent (%)
Alachua	33	2.8	Lee	45	3.8
Baker	2	.2	Leon	42	3.5
Bay	22	1.8	Levy	3	.3
Bradford	5	.4	Liberty	1	.1
Brevard	77	6.5	Manatee	28	2.3
Broward	43	3.6	Marion	11	.9
Charlotte	40	3.4	Martin	15	1.3
Citrus	16	1.3	Miami – Dade	55	4.6
Clay	18	1.5	Monroe	24	2.0
Collier	17	1.4	Nassau	12	1.0
Columbia	6	.5	Okaloosa	21	1.8
Dixie	2	.17	Okeechobee	2	.2
Duval	52	4.4	Orange	43	3.6
Escambia	27	2.3	Osceola	8	.7
Flagler	7	.6	Palm Beach	29	2.4
Franklin	6	.5	Pasco	29	2.4
Gadsden	2	.2	Pinellas	79	6.6
Gilchrist	2	.2	Polk	34	2.8
Glades	1	.1	Putnam	4	.3
Gulf	3	.3	Santa Rosa	29	2.4
Hamilton	2	.2	Sarasota	33	2.8
Hendry	1	.1	Seminole	31	2.6
Hernando	13	1.1	St. Johns	21	1.8
Highlands	5	.4	St. Lucie	12	1.0
Hillsborough	62	5.2	Sumter	8	.7
Holmes	1	.1	Taylor	2	.2
Indian River	7	.6	Union	1	.1
Jackson	2	.2	Volusia	33	2.8
Jefferson	3	.3	Wakulla	6	.5
Lafayette	3	.3	Walton	3	.3
Lake	6	.5	Washington	1	.1
			No response	42	3.5
			Total	1,193	100%

Appendix G: Counties by organizational region

