BEYOND THE DESCRIPTIVE CONTINGENCIES:

SCALE BUILDING OF THE CONTINGENCY THEORY OF ACCOMMODATION BY A CROSS CULTURAL STUDY OF THE UNITED STATES AND SOUTH KOREA

by

JUNGWON LEE

Under the Direction of Bryan H. Reber

ABSTRACT

This study pursues parsimony in the contingency theory of accommodation (Cancel et al., 1997) by performing confirmatory factor analysis of the 11 categories of contingency variables that the original theory proposed and build a reliable scale to assess organizations' degree of accommodation toward external publics. From a cross-cultural survey of the U.S. and South Korean public relations practitioners, the original categorization of the contingency variables were proved to be reliable and valid measures of contingency. Additionally, those quantified scales were also proved to be equivalent across the U.S. and South Korea, therefore the theoretical framework of the contingency theory is generalizable across different cultural settings. The result suggests the way scales are differently correlated and practitioners have different salience in creating willingness to dialogue, but generally, the U.S. practitioners show more willingness to dialogue than South Korean practitioners. The analyses of the relationships between the contingency scales and Hofstede's five cultural dimensions (1979, 1988) partly explain this cultural difference by demonstrating that various cultural dimensions' combination is associated with the contingency scales, thereby making unique characteristics of contingency in each culture.

INDEX WORDS: Contingency Theory, Cross-Cultural Approach, South Korea, Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to my loving parents who always had faith in me, supported me, and who held me up and never let me fall. And to my other parents, Bill and Norah, who have seen my never ending struggle and taught me how to look on the bright side of it.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

To overcome the "insistent demand for categorization" of public relations activities into limited number of models and embrace the multiplicity and complexity of public relations practices, Cancel, Cameron, Sallot, & Mitrook (1997) introduced the contingency theory of accommodation. They maintain that public relations theory which describes and prescribes the practice of public relations should answer the question of defining the public relations activities by saying "it depends." Following this argument, the contingency theory has been continued to develop through many qualitative methods to delve into practitioner's dynamic decision-making in dealing with external publics based on the array of 86 contingency variables.

Now beyond the descriptive, and qualitative-based application, more quantitative studies pursuing parsimony in the contingency theory are needed for a simpler understanding of the contingencies surrounding an organization's move to accommodation. By building reliable and valid scales to measure contingencies, more systematic, statistically accurate knowledge about the role of contingency variables and the place of accommodation in the public relations practice is developed in this paper.

Additionally, because the former quantitative studies on the contingency variables via exploratory scale buildings tend to yield a different number of factors with unparallel labels, thus failing to establish a shared knowledge by expanding on each other's findings, this study performs confirmatory factor analysis of the 11 categories of contingency variables that the

original theory proposed. By retaining the existing structure of 11 subcategories of 86 contingency variables, this study has significance in the development of the contingency theory in that it contributes to building a single reference in the theory for future contingency studies to expand on each other's findings.

Achieving parsimony among those numerous variables is also important in order for identifying cultural variability in the theory because by building reliable scales, more systematic and quantitatively accurate analyses of cultural differences in contingencies could be acquired. As identifying cultural variability would help a theory to overcome an insufficient and only partial understanding of culture nurtured by dominant cultural framework, the contingency theory also needs to broaden its scope into other cultures by showing that the set of contingency factors are valid measures in different cultural settings. Before that, for an accurate cross-cultural comparison, it should be validated that the cultural difference obtained from the study reflects a "true difference," not the biases produced when a certain item or concept is understood to the people in different cultures.

Additionally, different contingencies across cultures could be understood by explicating how cultural characteristics varying from culture to culture influence organizations' accommodative actions toward external publics. Treating culture as an independent variable, making sense of how a society's unique cultural characteristics affects the contingency factors' patterns creating organizations' accommodative action to external publics and therefore, why contingency scales play different roles in different cultures will be possible.

Taken from this, this present study attempts to achieve parsimony in the set of contingency variables, and identify cultural variability in the theory by testing if these scales are valid in different cultural settings. The goal of this study is threefold: First, it attempts to build a

set of scales measuring organization's contingencies by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Second, measurement models confirmed at the CFA procedure are tested with the U.S. and South Korean sample for its measurement invariance across cultures, and cross-cultural analyses follow. Third, cultural variability identified in the cross-cultural analysis will be interpreted by applying Hofstede's five sociocultural dimensions (1979, 1988) that measure patterns of values and beliefs among cultures.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

THE CONTINGENCY THEORY

"It Depends."`

The conceptualization of "contingencies" in the contingency theory of accommodation is grounded in a realization that there will be "tens of thousands of counterparts in actual practice who offer a better, more subtle, and sophisticated understanding of accommodation" than in scholastic literature in public relations (Cancel, Cameron, Sallot, & Mitrook, 1997, p. 32). The very reality of public relations, Cancel et al. (1997) argued, has been tortured by attempts to force it into a limited number of public relations practice types and to judge its effectiveness and ethics by a one-best approach, namely the two-way symmetrical model. To embrace the multiplicity and complexity of public relations activities, as Cancel et al. (1997) argue that the academy has missed in favor of the reductionism in the literature, the contingency theory of accommodation suggests that a theory which describes and prescribes the practice of public relations should be able to answer the question of defining the public relations activities by saying "it depends." A single model, even a mixed (hybrid) model, cannot be typified as a universally excellent public relations practice (Cancel et al., 1999).

Grunig & Hunt (1984) identified four models representing the "values, goals, and behaviors held or used by organizations when they practice public relations" (J. Grunig,

1989, p. 29). Models, labeled as press agentry, public information, one-way symmetrical, and two-way symmetrical, stem from the combination of two orthogonal dimensions of direction of communication (asymmetrical vs. symmetrical) and balance of intended effect of the communication activities (one-way vs. two-way). Through a series of research funded by the International Association of Business Communication (IABC), Grunig and his colleagues confirmed that the use of the two-way symmetrical model or a mixed use of the two-way asymmetrical and symmetrical models substantially contribute to the excellence in management of an organization, which is conceptualized as the excellence theory (for more details, see J. Grunig, 1992a; J. Grunig & L. Grunig, 1992).

However, as Grunig & Hunt (1984) noted in their initial formulation of the four models, "the models should come close enough that you can fit public relations people you meet into one of the models" (p. 21). The "insistent demand for categorization" that the four models impose on the reality of public relations activities has been challenged by many scholars. Moreover, conceptualization of two-way symmetry, and its superiority over the other three models, has been drawn into a long controversy among academics.

In actuality, the debates make a clear distinction between the contingency theory and the excellence perspective. Although the authors of the contingency theory of accommodation specified that the theory is a "logical extension of the models of public relations" (Cancel et al., 1997, p. 56) with its "managerial perspective and its introduction of symmetry as the key element in professionalization of the field" (Reber & Cameron, 2003, p. 2), the two theories actually differ in their conceptualization of "normativeness" in public relations practice. While the excellence theory maintains that two-way symmetry is the best model and, therefore, it remains as a single normative theory, the contingency theory asserts that true excellence in

public relations practice is not simply prescribed by one best approach but by knowing the most effective method dependent on a given time toward a given public (Cancel et al., 1997).

Rather, as noted earlier, the contingency theory seeks to ground the theory of excellence in public relations in the insights drawn from practitioners, while avoiding validation of current practice as being ideal (Cameron, Cropp, & Reber, 2001, p. 245). The authors asserted:

> Care must also be taken that a quest for an elegant model of ideal practice does not become a denial of the rich texture of everyday practice and the complex dynamism that confronts public relations professionals from day to day. It is necessary to continue to delve inside the mind-set and world of thoughtful and experienced practitioners. This will help scholars and teachers avoid ratifying themselves in such a way that they lose relevance in real organizations facing real challenges (Cameron et al., 2001, p. 256).

Taken together, pursuing a "more mature and comprehensive theory, while remaining normative in its purpose with a greater subtlety" (Cameron et al., 2001) is the basic but penetrating concept of the contingency theory. The theory delivers seasoned practitioners' insights that bring up the delicate and intricate reality of public relations by showing dynamic interactions of the situational variables, thus sophisticating the notion of symmetry and dialogical communication theory. In turn, it would provide a realistic norm for professionals by allowing them to track their patterns of the variables in creating stances and weigh each variable's significance, therefore defining the best approach in their own terms.

Accommodation-Advocacy Continuum

To make sense of the notion of best approach at a given time toward a given public, the contingency theory deconstructs the mutually exclusive categorization of the four models and

extends it into a less-formal range of a continuum, where a point representing a "stance" of an organization constantly shifts between two poles, advocacy and accommodation. The configuration of a continuum evolved from Hellweg's (cited in Cancel et al., 1997, p. 33) indication of unobtrusive control in symmetric communication and Murphy's (1991) "balance of influence between an organization and its constituencies" (p. 115) by thinking of "cooperation and conflict as being opposite but also expressible in degrees" (p. 118).

As countless dots align themselves to form a solid line, innumerable possible stances created by the dynamics of multiple variables create a line, the advocacy-accommodation continuum. As the situation unfolds, the dynamics of variables — the composite of an organization's environmental/organizational, internal/external variables — enables transition of the stance between the two poles of pure advocacy and pure accommodation, which denote "complete advocacy of a position, regardless of stakeholder pressure" and "total accommodation or capitulation to a public demand," respectively.

The organization's stance, which is represented as a point on the continuum, is one of the characteristics deconstructing the theoretical frame of the four models. Cancel, Mitrook, & Cameron (1999) noted that the contingency theory "depicts the stance of the organization, not the outcome of interaction" (p. 173); unlike clusters of techniques or strategies characterized by the models (e.g. public information model, publicity model), a stance is operationalized as an organization's position based on decision-making or judgments from which strategies or tactics are determined and implemented interchangeably and jointly (Jin & Cameron, 2006). By entangling techniques from stance, therefore, Cameron et al. (2001) contended that the stance of the organization could bring about decision-making by the public relations practitioners

regarding the distance from accommodation on the continuum, which designates greater or lesser accommodation.

86 Variables in the Contingency Theory

In proposing the contingency theory of accommodation, Cancel et al. (1997) identified 86 variables affecting an organization's stance along the continuum (a list of contingency variables and its abbreviations are presented in Table 1). In determining the stance of the organization, public relations practitioners can consider this wide number of factors and pick the best fits to the current needs of the organization. Different variables function with different weights and valence, thereby creating a unique stance each time; the variables not only work as drivers toward accommodation but also function as qualifications and reservations hindering accommodation of an organization, especially in conflict situations and bottom-line issues (Cameron et al., 2001).

The 86 variables, identified from extensive literature review, mostly have been hypothesized as contingent factors in organization theory, co-orientation theory, game theory, and conflict theory. In large part, these variables stem from the research programs of J. Grunig and his colleagues, which attempted to identify the relationship among various organizational environmental factors with the four models (e.g. Fabiszak, 1985; Buffington, 1988; E. Pollack, 1984; R. Pollack, 1986).

Cancel et al. (1997) grouped the 86 variables into 11 subcategories, which are divided again by internal and external variables; the mix of advocacy and accommodation on the continuum is contingent upon these internal and external variables of the organization. Out of 11 subcategories, external variables include External Threats, Industry Environment, General

Political/Social Environment/External Culture, External Public, and Issue Under Question; internal variables include Corporation Characteristics, Public Relations Department Characteristics, Dominant Coalition Characteristics, Internal Threats, Individual Characteristics, and Relationship Characteristics.

Later, Cancel et al. (1999) refined the variables by clarifying the influence that the set of variables have on a stance on the continuum. They recategorized the variables into predisposing variables and situational variables; predisposing variables form the organization's position before it enters into a particular situation involving an external public, and this stance of the organization dynamically changes along the continuum of advocacy and accommodation according to situational variables. Thus, predisposing variables determine location along the continuum, and situational variables lead to shifts from the predisposed stance and determine its direction and degree (p. 191).

DEVELOPMENT AND SOPHISTICATION OF THE CONTINGENCY THEORY

The contingency theory of accommodation has been continuously firmed up by several of the following studies, where both qualitative and quantitative efforts have nourished the theoretical groundwork of the contingencies in public relations practice.

Through case studies (e.g. Yarbrough, Cameron, Sallot, & McWilliams, 1998; Reber & Cameron, 2003; Zhang, Qiu, Cameron, 2004) and in-depth interviews (e.g. Cancel et al., 1999; Cameron et al., 2001), qualitative research on the contingency theory has mainly focused on "grounding the theory in the terminology and perspective of practitioners" (p. 55) and identifying

factors driving greater accommodation or advocacy in real settings as a reality check, as Cancel et al. (1997) envisioned earlier.

Cancel et al. (1999) examined the validity of the concept of the accommodation-advocacy continuum and contingency variables identified in their 1997 study through in-depth interviews with 18 public relations practitioners. They confirmed the idea that multiple variables simultaneously influence the degree of accommodation and advocacy. Focusing on the qualification of the proposition in the excellence theory, Cameron et al. (2001) interviewed eight professionals to assess if six proscriptive factors clustered from the contingency factors, such as legal constraints or moral convictions, prohibit any degree of accommodation by an organization of a given public at a given time. The advantage of a qualitative study is well presented in Cameron et al. (2001)'s study, which probed the practitioners' platitudes about two-way symmetrical communication and found that lofty sentiments toward it tended to quickly alter its direction toward advocacy when specific cases were examined.

Quantifying contingencies by identifying meaningful patterns or building quantitative knowledge about the dynamics between advocacy and accommodation, however, has only started recently. Earlier, Cancel et al. (1997) anticipated that with more generalizable data collection, quantitative works could proceed to test the role of contingency variables and to better understand the place of accommodation in the practice of public relations (p. 57). In addition to the need to test the validity of those variables (Cancel et al., 1999, p.192), Cameron et al. (2001) noted that extensive surveys were required to generalize the contingency variables and to determine the effectiveness of accommodative or symmetrical strategies (p. 257) and asserted the need to "start toward parsimony", as stated below:

> Previous contingency theory studies using in-depth interviews and a case study illustrate the remarkable sophistication of practitioners in considering numerous, intertwined

> factors as a stance toward a given public changes. … It is another for teachers and theorists to manage over 80 distinct factors in any useful way. Parsimony, or simplification, is needed (p. 247).

As the notion of a continuum tells us, pursuing parsimony among these countless stances of an organization might seem to be pointless; even one organizations' stance toward a certain public could not be limited as one or two. However, when the myriad of stances is accumulated according to a common theoretical framework, we could possibly find a general pattern by clustering them into unique factors. Hence this seemingly complicated picture of the contingency variables are briefly organized, and here quantitative efforts have its own advantage.

Therefore, any interpretation of the underlying proposition of contingency would need to strike a careful balance between naturalistic descriptions and generalization of common patterns. As context-specific studies have provided a thorough understanding of specific contingencies that individual organizations are facing, more quantitative work is necessary for a concise, systematic understanding of the theory.

Scale Building in the Contingency Theory

Reber & Cameron (2003) are the first researchers to attempt to "bring the parsimony to the contingency theory" (p. 434) by constructing scales measuring contingencies. Segments of the contingency variables, five subcategories consisting of 29 factors relevant to crisis communication and organizational relationships, were used in this quantitative study. Based on results of a survey of U.S. public relations practitioners, they reported that the five scales generated showed a preference for theoretical scales over those that arose from data reduction. External public characteristics such as size, credibility, commitment, or power, and

organizational characteristics including harmony among staff, negative experiences in the past, and the presence of influential in-house counsel appeared to be important among the set of tested contingency variables.

Beyond selective testing of the variables, Shin, Cameron, & Cropp (2006a) quantified all of the 86 variables to construct a set of simple factors thematically categorized through factor analysis. From the survey with the practitioners, the authors reported that the variables were grouped into 12 factors on two dimensions, internal and external. Similarly, Jin & Cameron (2006) developed a scale specifically measuring stance; by drawing items from relevant literature and refining them through surveys, rather than the conventional item pool of the contingency theory, two dimensions of action-based-accommodation, which denote stances enacted by agreeing to and accepting the public's demands, and qualified-rhetoric-mixed accommodation indicating expressing regrets and qualifying collaboration without explicit and concrete actions, were identified.

To date, quantitative efforts in the theoretical development of the contingency theory have predominantly been based on exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which involves exploring the data with no prior knowledge about whether items measure the intended factors and finding out how many factors can best represent the data. In EFA, factors are generated from statistical results, therefore they can be labeled and theoretical backgrounds consulted only after the factors are formulated. For this reason, depending on different purpose of the research, different studies on the contingency theory tend to produce a different number of factors with inconsistent patterns of categorization and unparalleled labels (e.g. Reber & Cameron, 2003; Shin et al., 2006a). Consequently, without a single reference, it would be quite difficult to establish a shared

body of quantitative knowledge by expanding on each other's findings and producing generality, which is the very purpose of quantitative work.

In this regard, this study chooses to retain the existing structure of 11 subcategories of 86 contingency variables as the scale or dimension affecting the degree of accommodation. If these scales are eligible for systematic measuring of contingencies regarding any stance of the organization, that is, if they prove to be valid and reliable scales not merely theoretically conceived categories, maintaining the categories of variables would be more meaningful for the development of the contingency theory. This also provides a stable single reference for the future studies to expand on.

CFA (Confirmative Factor Analysis) enables us to test this retainability of the categories grouped by theory. In CFA, researchers first specify the relationships between the theoretical construct and observed measure based on the knowledge of the theory or empirical research, or both, and examine this hypothesized structure statistically (Byrne, 2001). Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham (2005) noted that a major difference between CFA and EFA is whether the researcher can test the theory by specifying the correspondence between variables and dimensions. Admittedly, the former quantitative contingency studies effectively presented how the contingency variables are grouped into a number of dimensions and how much influence these individual dimensions have on the degree of accommodation. However, beyond measurement validations, no studies have attempted to explore further how these scales relate to each other and having different weights, how these unique combinations of scales create a willingness to dialogue with a public. For example, assessing the influence of individual dimensions on accommodation cannot indicate whether the influence is created solely by the

dimension or by the mixed effects of that dimension's direct and indirect influence by correlation and interaction with other dimensions in the set.

In conclusion, the present study takes a pragmatic approach in scale building of the contingency variables by retaining the existing structure and pursues a deeper understanding among these categories in creating a stance of an organization by validating the theoretical categories as the significant scale measuring a degree of accommodation using CFA. If the theoretical categorization of the contingency variables is proved to be successful, we could proceed to utilize them to measure the role of each contingency in organizations' dialogue with external publics as well as the place of accommodation in the public relations practice, and further continue cross-cultural analyses to explore cultural differences in dynamics in contingencies of organizations' accommodative action toward external publics.

THEORETICAL VERIFICATION OF SCALES AND HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

The notion of multiplicity of factors affecting an organization's stance on the advocacy-accommodation continuum is represented by a wide variety of variables surrounding the organization when it faces its public. Based on numerous public relations and organizational studies, the contingency theory provides this array of variables by noting "sound variables that merit consideration as factors in the simpler, more direct contingency theory" (Cancel et al., 1997, p. 40).

To confirm the dimensionability of the 11 theoretical categories of contingency variables and delineate their structural relationship influencing the organization's willingness to dialogue, the theoretical groundings of each category were reaffirmed by reviewing pertinent literature.

First, I reviewed and analyzed literature that reflected the appropriateness of each category as a "scale" from a theoretical perspective. Based on this theoretical understanding, these factors' relationships with the organization's accommodation of its publics were specified through several hypotheses, which will be tested in the following section of confirmatory factor analyses.

External Variables

Citing Jones & Chase's (1979) assertion that "the overwhelming important challenge faced by professional senior management is how to develop and establish a systems approach to the management of public policy issues in order not to surrender corporate autonomy and efficiency to the whims of bureaucrats and activist groups" (p. 8), L. Grunig (1992) asserted that pressure from external issues challenges many of today's corporate communicators. External variables include external threats, industry environment, general political/social environment/external culture, external public, and issue under question.

External Threats. Severe constraints imposed by external threats usually cause organizations to lose more autonomy, thus changing their communication patterns (R. Pollack, 1986). Organizations return to asymmetric public relations either to try to eliminate or to justify maintaining regulation (J. Grunig, 1976, p. 22). Alternatively, they communicate symmetrically to show they can behave in a socially responsible manner without government regulation (Fabiszak, 1985, p. 29). Similar constraints by pressure groups arise, and the need to acknowledge the legitimacy of the groups becomes an issue; L. Grunig (1992) found few instances of two-way symmetrical communication in acknowledging the legitimacy of the groups. However, collaboration with activist groups influences the other external threats by

reducing negative publicity and regulation, litigation, and opposition (L. Grunig, J. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002).

Industry Environment. Hambrick (1981) noted that industry's landscape tends to be dominated by environmental requirements; as an open system, organizations are constrained by environmental demands including raw material shortages, pressures for lower costs, technological uncertainty, or supply-demand imbalances (p. 255). In addition, moves by competitors in the industry and events in the general environment such as product innovation interact and therefore result in a change in organization's environment, which entails the organization's adaptive action correspondingly (Frishammar, 2006). As such, assessing environmental demands such as major competitive issues, diversity of parts in each environment, and interdependence of these different parts provides a good understanding of the requirements for effective conflict resolution (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969, p. 88).

General Political/Social Environment/External Culture. Since organizations exist, operate and utilize resources in a superordinate social system, social norms and values impose both motivation for organizational change and pressure for organizational legitimization (Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975). Organizational legitimacy, they asserted, is a "dynamic constraint" that organizations adapt as the social definition of legitimacy changes (p. 126). R. Pollack (1986) maintained that constraints on political environment could be measured by asking whether the political climate supports the mission of the organization; organizations facing greater constraints tend to employ a press agentry model or two-way symmetric communication depending on how much uncertainty they perceive in the political climate (p. 70). Stating that

legitimacy is the interaction between stakeholders' expectation and organization's action rather than based on organizations' own decision, Massey (2001) pointed out that a dialogic process through communication is the best management strategy for organizational legitimacy.

External Public. In dealing with the public, L. Grunig (1992) pointed out that understanding the characteristics of an external group – its size, formation and commitment of members; its goals, activities, and media coverage – determine organizations' strategic communications. Especially, beyond organizational-level concepts, variables based on game and conflict theories are included as candidate variables for a better reflection of "dynamics of interaction" or "relational dynamics" in conflict situations (Cancel et al., 1997, p. 46). For example, Druckman & Broome (1991) suggested that familiarity significantly affects negotiating perceptions and behaviors in conflicts. They reported that, when facing an opponent that they know and like, negotiators' tend to increase their willingness to reach compromise agreements with more flexibility (p. 587). In addition, Christen (2004) noted that perceived trustworthiness has strong positive relationship with willingness to negotiate, and organizations' perception of their own power is negatively associated with it.

Issue Under Question. Hallahan (2001) noted that the characteristics of an issue itself, such as an issue's inherent social significance, temporal relevance, complexity, and similar issues' resolution in the past, determine continuation of issues and its advocates' success (p. 30). Dant & Schul (1992) pointed out that conflict resolution mechanisms used by parties in conflict are affected by the characteristics of an issue. The size of the issue, which determines whether it involves potential "substantive precedent" such as settlement of policy issues, results in an

organization's reluctance to rely on proactive but high-risk behaviors. Additionally, more involvement in conflict situations is expected when the stakes are high, which indicates "potential financial implications," and similarly, complexity of issues results in "dogmatic behaviors, discourage(s) flexibility, and thereby reduce(s) the likelihood of integrative negotiations" (Dant & Schul, 1992, p. 42).

Internal Variables

Internal variables consist of corporate characteristics, public relations department characteristics, characteristics of dominant coalition, internal threats, individual characteristics, and relationship characteristics. Various factors of internal influencers, which determine the outcome and reflect the organization's goals by making decisions and taking action on a permanent and regular basis (Mintzberg, 1983, p. 26), are included as potential variables affecting the extent of accommodation of an organization.

Corporate Characteristics. Characteristics that an organization holds, such as organizational culture, structure, and resources, influence how the organization determines and changes its stance in conflict. Significance of corporate culture on public relations activities is versed in public relations literature. Sriramesh, Grunig, & Buffington (1992) argued that worldviews about public relations ranging from asymmetrical to symmetrical covary with broader presupposition of corporate culture, autocratic culture links to one-way models of public relations, and a democratic culture could demonstrate the use of two-way models (Buffington, 1988, p. 189). In addition to the organization's physical structure such as geographical location, distribution of decision-making power in the organization, and its level of formalization, stratification also impacts an organization's symmetrical communication (Grunig, 1976). For

example, Hage and Aiken (1970) noted that the higher the centralization of decision-making, formalization and stratification, the lower the rate of changes and developments in an organization. Resources that the organization possesses, including financial, human/departmental, and knowledge capability, are also combined into corporate characteristics.

Public Relations Department Characteristics. Various aspects of public relations departments ranging from professionalism of public relations practitioners to the departments' representation in the organization have been suggested as having the capacity to influence the organization's decision-making in regards to its stance in conflicts. O'Neil (2003) noted that public relations practitioners' organizational influence to accelerate the achievement of their organizations' goals can be assessed by their organizational role, inclusion in the dominant coalition, reporting relationship, and employee support, and department structure. Additionally, the staff's capabilities, including training, education and experiences, which are critical factors of a public relations practitioner's professionalism, demonstrate the association with two-way communication (Grunig, 1976; E. Pollack, 1984; Buffington, 1988). Also, the percentage of female upper-level staff could correlate with the practice of and preference for the two-way symmetrical model (J. Grunig & L. Grunig, 1992). In the same manner, the department's physical/hierarchical position, its autonomy and its potential in the organization have significant impact on the organization's communication behavior (e.g. R. Pollack, 1986; Buffington, 1988). Resources such as time and funding available also matter in dealing with external publics (for detailed illustration, see L. Grunig, 1992). In conclusion, the public relations department category is appropriate to be a dimension affecting the organization's willingness to dialogue when it deals with an external public in a conflict.

Characteristics of Dominant Coalition. If the dominant coalition in an organization is aware of the significance of communication with external publics based on the understanding of the dynamic environments around the organization, the organization will practice "the model of public relations that will be in equilibrium with its environment" (R. Pollack, 1986, p. 27). Characteristics such as political ideology, management style, and altruism level are associated with the dominant coalition's response to the external environment. For instance, Hage (1980) indicated that an organization with liberal ideology is highly responsive to external environment, while one holding conservative ideology is the opposite (p. 143-144). Understanding of public relations also has a substantial impact on the organization's communication activities; the dominant coalition's support generates an "atmosphere most suitable for practicing two-way public relations behavior" (R. Pollack, 1986, p. 87), which is reflected in the organization's external contact with the public.

Internal Threats. How much is at stake for internal influencers in organizations also determines an organization's predisposition toward dialogue. Mintzberg (1983) defined internal influencers, including the CEO, line managers and support staffs, as those having a serious commitment and attachment to the organization because they devote substantial amounts of time to the organization and depend on its well-being. Since the decisions and actions they make are combined into the organization's initiative, any threatened expectation would influence actions the organization takes.

Individual Characteristics. Unlike the public relations department and dominant coalition characteristics categories, which mainly deal with variables at a group level, this

category focuses on organization members such as public relations practitioners, dominant coalition members, and line-managers as individuals. Noting that "employees bring their values into the work setting," Hemingway & Maclagan (2004) maintained that organizational decision-making is in large part driven by individual managers' personal values, beliefs, and interests (p. 36-37). In conceptualizing professionalism in excellent organizations, Ehling (1992) presented key characteristics distinguishing a profession from a skilled occupation: a defined area of competence, an organized body of knowledge of some consequence, self-consciousness, competence of entrants determined by controlled access, continuing education, support of research, aid in education of competent replacement, and independence (p. 440). The category embraces various items from professional competencies to personal aspects such as personality as potential influences on organizations where each individual works. As an example, Turhune (1970) illustrated personality as a "configuration of behavior potentials, or internal programs, within the individual"; since individuals bring the personality to act in a certain way, it is an important determinant of a cooperation-conflict behavior (p. 195).

Relationship Characteristics. Characteristics of perceptions in a relational context influence an organization's conflict-handling processes. Dant & Schul (1992) noted that if the dependency between the two parties is high and the parties perceive their relationship as typified by trust, high-risk behaviors such as voluntary restraints on the use of power are likely to occur (p. 42). Meanwhile, conflicts resulting from deep ideological differences impede face-to-face collaboration in favor of judiciary actions (Gray, 1989, p. 249).

In conclusion, the 11 contingency categories were supported by a wealth of theoretical evidence to be valid measures of an organization's accommodative actions toward external publics (e.g., L. Grunig, 1992; Mintzberg, 1983; Massey, 2001; Hage, 1980; Dant & Schul, 1992; Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975). Based on these theoretical understandings, each contingency category will be tested to see if it can be a qualitatively significant scale to measure the contingency surrounding the organization.

CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON IN THE CONTINGENCY THEORY

> The world is full of confrontations between people, groups, and nations who think, feel and act differently (Hofstede, 1991, p. 3).

As Hofstede (1991) stated, embarrassing confrontations with "strangers" from different societies and cultures have led many researchers to a realization that a single framework alone cannot explain human behaviors, which differ greatly in actuality. Now beyond ethnocentric ideas that force every social phenomenon into the viewer's own binoculars, a notion of cultural variability has been introduced into social science for a better understanding and adjustment into a "strange world."

Public relations practices have also suffered from this ethnocentric misinterpretation of reality imposed by the authority of the dominant cultural framework. Pointing out that ethnocentric notions, such as applying knowledge about public relations from one culture to another, taking "a nearly automatic approach," will result in ineffectiveness in achieving public

relations goals at best, Botan (1992) emphasized the need for a more sophisticated understanding of cultural differences (p. 151-152). Similarly, Taylor & Kent (1999) asserted that because practical differences exist in international contexts, an "international dynamic" in various contexts must be accounted for to achieve effective international public relations (p. 141).

Additionally, Botan (1992) warned that the failure to identify cultural variability in assumptions about public relations could decrease the chance of achieving public relations goals, stating:

> …It reduces the potential for using public relations as a lens for better understanding how organizations in other cultures use communication to adapt their relationships with relevant publics. It thereby obscures our understanding of how these organizations and publics see each other and limits part of what we can know about that culture (p. 152).

Thus, a cultural sensitivity of the theory, which encompasses different public relations practice across different cultures and countries, needs to be identified for public relations theory to ensure more sophisticated and versatile public relations practice.

To date, public relations studies that involved cultural differences have mainly sought to explicate a specific culture's communication from an insiders' perspective, by describing it in their own words. From these methods, various new cultural factors that render public relations practices in specific cultures different from others are introduced to fit the culture's unique characteristics. For example, Huang (2000) introduced the personal influence model for a better description of public relations practice in Eastern countries, and Choi & Cameron (2005) interviewed CEOs of multinational public relations agencies in-depth based on the framework of the contingency theory and derived additional contingency variables, such as fear of local media or local culture. This approach, which is known as the "emic" approach in social science, is

generally considered as an ideal for cross-cultural study because it elucidates every culture within its system with its own language (Berry, 1969).

However, the emic approach is not the best option for cultural comparison, since the senses are made in its own cultural settings using its particular terms, it can only examine one culture at a time. Likewise, in many public relations studies, as well as for the contingency theory, systematic meaning of cultural differences cannot be obtained solely by detailed descriptions of different cultures' unique characteristics; the theories are more valuable if they incorporate a systematic cross-cultural approach by using a valid framework applicable to all cultures in the same way, which could be explained by the "etic" approach. The etic approach focuses on understanding of cultures from the outside and makes comparisons across cultures using "predetermined characteristics" (Gudykunst, 1987, p. 329).

Therefore, how can we achieve valid cross-cultural comparability in a theory, without losing each culture's uniqueness in its description? To solve this dilemma, Berry (1969) suggested that aspects of behavior occurring in different cultural settings should be functionally equivalent; only when functional equivalency is achieved, would there be a valid comparative descriptive framework that could also depict specific behaviors in each setting, and only then would it be possible to construct and apply a reliable instrument to gauge behavior in these different cultural settings (p. 122).

This functional equivalency is closely linked to data equivalence in measurement instruments, which addresses psychometric and statistical issues in applying universal measurements to different cultures. As Byrne & Campbell (1999) pointed out, measurement invariance, whether the instrument is tapping the same construct equally for cultural groups, is of utmost importance in cross-cultural comparisons. Similarly, Steenkamp & Baumgartner (1998)

cautioned that lack of invariance in any measuring instrument in a cross-cultural study could make conclusions "at best ambiguous, and at worst erroneous," because in that case, any cultural difference could be due to "systematic biases in the way people from different countries respond to certain items" (p. 78). As such, only after the theory proves its measurement equivalence across cultures will systematic comparison as well as meaningful interpretation without losing each culture's uniqueness be possible.

Salzberger (2000) noted that the term "comparison" in cross-cultural study should be clarified by a hierarchical approach. Asserting that the traditional way of simply comparing construct means does not guarantee that the researcher will not compare "apples and oranges." He emphasized that equivalency in structural aspects of the construct need to be considered in a broader sense and need to be treated as a priori (p. 4).

As such, measurement invariance should be achieved in a hierarchical sense; equivalence of the measurement can be extended by imposing more restrictive criteria in addition to the model in order of equivalence in factor structure, factor loadings, intercepts, covariance, and so on. If covariances and means are proved to be invariant through these accumulative series of tests as an eventual outcome (though it is unlikely in empirical data), the data in different cultural samples can be pooled, making separate cultural analyses unnecessary (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998).

The level of equivalency can be determined depending on the purpose of the study. For example, if a researcher is interested in equivalence of factorial structures across cultures, that can be simply tested by assessing equivalency of the structure. However, if she aims at comparison between construct means between different cultures, additional tests of invariance factor loadings and intercepts need to be carried out and confirmed.

Following this argument, this present study attempts cross-cultural comparability of the contingency scales in order to produce a systematic, accurate cross-cultural comparison and meaningful interpretation of cultural variability. It will test multigroup invariance in the CFA model by way of imposing more restrictive criteria on the measurement model in a logical step-by-step manner and confirm the extent that the measurement invariance is supported. This procedure would nurture the contingency theory with cultural variability by understanding that different patterns of contingency exist for organizations in different cultures, thus providing a deeper appreciation of the dynamic in organizations' stances in dealing with external publics.

For the present study, the United States and South Korea were chosen as the samples of interest. The Korean market, as the 11th-largest economy in the world and the United States' 7th-largest trading partner (U.S. Department of State, 2006), along with its rapid expansion and potential for growth, has been an important target of global marketing efforts, thereby calling for a better understanding of Korean public relations practices. Moreover, the U.S. and South Korea, as two countries representing Western and Eastern culture that are quite opposite, provide a good example to compare how the contingency theory applies to two different cultures.

IDENTIFYING SOCIOCULTURAL VARIABILITY IN THE CONTINGENCY THEORY

After cultural differences are identified by valid cross-cultural comparisons, the next question would be how to interpret this variation in the contingencies across cultures. Why do the contingency scales have different roles in different cultures? And, why do some

organizations in a culture show more willingness in their dealing with external publics and other organizations show less sensitivity to it?

To answer these questions, we need to retrace the steps to an earlier argument that human behaviors differ greatly depending on the cultures they are rooted in. The term "cultural difference" implies that some observations of a common object are not homogeneous across cultures, but it also connotes that certain cultural characteristics were involved in generating the difference. Therefore, viewing culture as an independent variable, by making sense of how a society's unique culture influences its organizations' various actions, would help to grasp the cultural dynamics of the theory.

Knowing that contingencies affecting an organization's stance are rather complicated because conflict situations arise from the mixture of social/economical/political circumstances surrounding the organization, identifying cultural influence on the contingency theory would be better understood when untangling sociocultural aspects attached to the dynamics of contingency variables. As Gudykunst (1987) noted, society, social systems, and culture are all interrelated, thus this sociocultural value impacts communication. Keesing (1974) asserted that the complexity of interconnected elements in the world, such as groups or individuals' efforts at organizing and sustaining their social lives, social experiences that shape personalities, and differences/similarities in modes of thought and perception at different times and places need to be untangled by the formulation of culture in a sociocultural landscape.

Vasquez & Taylor (2000) suggested that understanding the role of culture in the field of public relations is to find a unique "cultural approach to public relations" depending on the culture. For example, there could be an American cultural approach, as well as a South Korean cultural approach to public relations practice. Following this point, the present study seeks to

identify the role of societal culture in affecting the contingency variables' dynamic relationships by looking at the relationships between the contingency scales and sociocultural values.

Hofstede's five cultural dimensions (1979, 1988) were utilized for identifying sociocultural influence on the contingency scales. Several characteristics of Hofstede's dimensions were expected to contribute to the present study's goals. Since substantial knowledge has been accumulated about the dimensions' operationalization of culture and the knowledge still prevails in the social science studies, we could also expect a synergy by referring to these rich resources. In turn, the findings of the study could be generalized into other various cultural settings that have similar theoretical attributes indicated by the dimensions. Additionally, since Hofstede's dimensions are built on the premise that "many theories of man, organization, and society bear the stamp of the national culture in which they were born" (Hofstede, 1979, p. 403) and focus on the dynamic interaction of social/economic/political systems creating the variability, it is expected to share much in common with the conceptual ground of the contingency theory.

Hofstede's Five Sociocultural Dimensions

Upon realizing that cross-cultural studies should be able to build on each other to create a synergy in developing an integrated body of knowledge about cultural differences, Hofstede (1979) attempted to build a significant reference frame for measuring patterns of values and beliefs among countries and systematically interpreting them. Based on empirical data collected from employee attitude surveys in 50 occupations and 66 nationalities within the subsidiaries of IBM, four universal, generalizable culture dimensions were identified: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity-femininity. Although they are originally developed for measuring work-related values, Hofstede (1979) asserted that the

dimensions “deal with some of the basic problems of humanity, with which every society must cope” (p. 401).

Power distance (PDI) deals with the issue of inequality in power, indicating, “the extent to which a society accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 1979, p. 393). Secondly, uncertainty avoidance (UAI) refers to “man’s search for truth” (Hofstede & Bond, 1988, p. 11) by assessing “the lack of tolerance in a society for uncertainty and ambiguity, which expresses itself in higher levels of anxiety and energy release, greater need for formal rules and absolute truth, and less tolerance for people or groups with deviant ideas or behaviors” (Hofstede, 1979, p. 395). Individualism versus collectivism (IDV) describes the degree of integration. While individualism “opposes a loosely knit social framework in society in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only,” collectivists tend to “expect their relatives, clan, or organization to look after them” (p. 398). Lastly, the masculinity versus femininity (MAS) dimension stands for “the extent to which masculine values of assertiveness, money and things prevail in a society,” in contrast to feminine values such as “nurturance, quality of life, and people” (p. 400).

A fifth dimension, long- versus short-term orientation (LTO), stemmed from conceptual/methodological concerns that the four original dimensions might be culturally biased due to the “western mind” dominating their formulation. To assess whether the dimensions are sound enough to reflect cultural variability, a Chinese Value Survey (CVS) was conducted. The survey results, from a 40-item questionnaire exclusively generated from Chinese basic values, showed a pattern that was quite similar to the original survey results except for one factor called Confucian dynamism. This dimension reflects some of the teachings of Confucius, and is illustrated through a continuum where the left side of it denotes an orientation toward the future

demonstrated by perseverance or thrift, namely long-term orientation, and the other side expresses the short-term orientation toward the past and present valuing such as respect for tradition, preservation of 'face,' or fulfilling social obligations (Hofstede, 2001, p. 359).

Especially, Hofstede & Bond (1988) noted that this dimension highlighted a cultural link to an economic phenomenon. They found that the Confucian dynamism dimension was scored high by those in East Asian countries including Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore. This gives a clear explanation of these countries' extraordinary economic successes during the late 1980s. Hofstede & Bond (1988) pointed out that with the high correlation to the measures of economic growth, the Confucian dynamic filled a missing link between the extraordinary economic success of East Asian countries during the late 1980s and its sociocultural implications, which Hofstede (1979) failed to clarify in his earlier conceptualization of the dimensions.

In Hofstede's 1991 study, the United States was classified as a moderate power distance ($M = 40$), high individualism ($M = 91$) and masculinity ($M = 62$), moderate uncertainty avoidance ($M = 46$), and low long-term orientation ($M = 29$). Meanwhile, South Korea was categorized as a society with large power distance ($M = 60$), a collectivist culture ($M = 18$), moderate masculine characteristics ($M = 39$), less tolerance for uncertainty ($M = 85$), and more emphasis on the long-term characteristics ($M = 75$) (Hofstede, 1991).

PUBLIC RELATIONS IN SOUTH KOREA

Understanding the dynamic relationship between the government, corporations and media in South Korean society would provide a better grasp of public relations in South Korea. Most of the economic achievements that South Korea demonstrated so far, especially since the 1960s, have been substantially driven by *chaebol*, a traditional pyramid structure of family-owned conglomerates in South Korea. After the Korean War in the 1950s, the South Korean government undertook an effort to spur economic development. *Chaebols* were given free rein to produce and export and were often endowed with monopolies. In exchange, *chaebols* gave substantial political funds to the South Korean regime. The close relationship of the business-government establishment, referred to as "Korea, Inc." (Richard, Shin, & Gerardo, 1989), culminated in the military regime in the 1970s. A highly authoritarian rule provided a free ticket for *chaebols* to exert their will at their convenience, strictly eliminating press freedom and suppressing any open discussion of civil society. In the same manner, c*haebols* also utilized public relations to avoid criticism of their connections with the authoritarian government and business malpractices (Jo & Kim, 2004). South Korean public relations organizations have focused on defensively influencing the media, thus conventionalizing a "publicity-oriented" media relations practice committed to building close personal relationships with journalists by giving gifts or bribes (Kim & Hon, 1998; Jo & Kim, 2004). South Korean public relations practitioners are primarily involved with media relations; Jo & Kim (2004) referred to Korean Advertising Yearbook and reported that 95% of Korean public relations activities focus on media relations (p. 295).

However, the sociopolitical transformation spurred by the democracy movement expanded the landscape of Korean public relations into various publics, not just activities limited to government and media relations. The demise of the dictatorship in the 1980s and the advent of social democracy, such as the civil upheaval in 1989, provided a fertile ground for the development of professional public relations (Kim, 2003, p. 107). Democratization of society, characterized by civil protest and activism, forced South Korean corporations to realize that they could not rely solely on their "partnership" with the government. The maturation of public relations practice in South Korea was driven particularly by crisis communication, as several big *chaebols* such as *Doosan*, confronted a major lawsuit and nationwide boycott for discharging a toxic substance into the Nakdong River in March 1991 and ended in being charged a large legal fine (Kim, 2003, p. 107).

Civic participation, reinforced through the democracy and labor movements, precipitated the emergence of active non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Non-governmental initiative was not limited to non-profits; a recent shareholders' movement for corporate governance, for the most part targeting *chaebols*, was mostly led by NGOs (Choi & Cho, 2003). Society also triggered turning points for the South Korean media, from its changed relationship with government to the confrontation of various legal issues. Korean media outlets face conflicts resulting from breaking old routines characterized by close, therefore personal, journalist-government official relationship, because South Korean President Roh Moo-Hyun declared in 2003 that his government would begin to maintain "tense" relations with the press (Berkowitz & Lee, 2004). For instance, libel suits against news media, which had been a rarity in South Korea, have increased exponentially since the 1980s (Youm, 2005).

However, many South Koreans have not been convinced by the promise of civilian rule and the proclamation of a "New Korea." Dissidents have resisted the easy embrace of social and political transformation that culminated in civilian rule of democracy, such as consumer capitalism (Abelmann, 1997, p. 251). Moreover, compared with the United States, litigation is a still a rare phenomenon in South Korean society, which traditionally preferred conciliation to litigation (Youm, 1996, p.16). The reluctance to go to the courts is usually interpreted as an unwillingness to mobilize formal legal processes, except as a last resort (Lee, 2004).

As Jo & Kim (2004) remarked, culture is embedded in every aspect of a nation, from interpersonal communication to its political system. Therefore, in public relations literature in South Korea, many issues regarding PR practice have been identified in the context of cultural variability. Dominating the public relations research paradigm in South Korea conceptualizes culture as a variable (Shin & Cameron, 2004), and that cultural variability has been clarified by Confucian ideologies and Hofstede's cultural dimensions (e.g., Rhee, 2002), the personal influence model (e.g. Sriramesh, Kim, & Takasaki, 1999), or the impact of Korean words such as *Cheong*, which denotes unique emotion based on unconsciously established spiritual ties that nurture close relationships among Koreans (Berkowitz & Lee, 2004; Choi & Cameron, 2005) and *Yon* (Jo & Kim, 2003) that means Koreans' personal network by which relationships are "predetermined or sustained" (p. 4). Professional factors such as source-reporter relationships (Shin & Cameron, 2003), job satisfaction of public relations practitioners (Kim & Hon, 1998), professional standards (Park, 2003), and ethical standards (Kim & Choi, 2003) have also been studied.

The contingency theory has been discussed only recently in a South Korean setting; Choi & Cameron (2005) attempted to identify contingency factors determining organizational stances

in South Korea through in-depth interviews with public relations professionals in multinational corporations and noted that multinational corporations in South Korea tend to move toward accommodation based on the fear of local culture and sentiment related to national identity. Shin, Park, & Cameron (2006b) tested the contingency variables via a survey of South Korean practitioners and reported that organization-level variables are important in that they distinguish management from staff of public relations practitioners, and it also discriminates interest group relations and government relations from other public relations activities.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the literature and the gaps therein, the following research questions were posed in this study.

Study 1. Scale Building of the Contingency Variables via Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

RQ 1: Do the theoretically conceptualized categories describe public relations practices empirically?

H1: External threats of legal/regulatory restrictions, potential damage in public reputation, or activists' pressures will be a significant measure when assessing the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H2: Industry's environmental demands imposed on an organization, such as competition or resources in the industry, will be a significant measure when assessing the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H3: Degrees of political/social support for an organization which maintains its organizational legitimacy will be a significant measure to assess the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H4: External public's characteristics, from its formation to goals and activities, will be a significant measure when assessing an organization's willingness to dialogue with the external public.

H5: Size, stakes, and complexity of the issue that an organization is questioned/questioning will be a significant measure when assessing the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H6: An organization's characteristics including its culture, structure, knowledge, and resources will be a significant measure when assessing the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H7: Public relations department's characteristics including its hierarchical/organizational stability or its members' qualification will be a significant measure when assessing an organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H8: Dominant coalition's values, perceptions, and involvement in external affairs will be a significant measure to assess an organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H9: Internal threats to an organization, such as potential economic loss or marring of perception of the organization among its internal members, will be a significant measure when assessing the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H10: Public relations practitioners' personal and work-related attributes will be a significant measure when assessing an organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

H11: Level of trust/dependency, or ideological issues in relationship characteristics between an organization and an external public will be a significant measure when assessing the organization's willingness to dialogue with an external public.

RQ 2: What are the general structural characteristics of the Contingency scales in the CFA model?

2-1: Are the contingency scales significantly correlated with each other?

2-2: What is the role of each contingency scale in creating willingness to dialogue?

Study 2. Cross-Cultural Analysis of the Contingency Scales

RQ 3: Are the contingency scales functionally equivalent across the U.S. and South Korea?

RQ 4: What are the differences in contingencies affecting willingness to dialogue with an external public, between U.S. and South Korean practitioners?

4-1: In comparing the U.S. and South Korean models, what are the differences in each contingency scale's relationships with the other scales?

4-2: In comparing the U.S. and South Korean models, what are the differences in each contingency scale's role in creating organizations' willingness to dialogue with external publics?

Study 3. Identifying Sociocultural Variability in the Contingency theory

RQ 4: What cultural values influence contingencies surrounding organizations' dialogue with external publics?

4-1: Are Hofstede's cultural dimensions associated with the contingency scales in the U.S. sample?

4-2: Are Hofstede's cultural dimensions associated with the contingency scales in the South Korean sample?

4-3: Do these cultural dimensions drive or impede accommodation of organizations?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

As noted earlier, the theory has been and would be rightly validated only by the "rich texture of everyday practice and the complex dynamism that confronts public relations professionals from day to day" (Cameron et al., 2001, p. 256). To prove the theory by achieving more external validity and better reflect the real-life experiences of public relations professionals, this study conducted a cross-national survey conducted in the United States and South Korea.

An Internet, self-administered survey method was employed to overcome geographical restrictions and recruit a larger sample through a common communication tool. From a survey of 432 U.S. public relations practitioners, Porter & Sallot (2003) reported that most public relations practitioners (98.6%) use the Web in their work, and 85.4% use e-mail (p. 608). Public relations practice using the Internet also prevails in South Korea, which is one of the fastest-growing countries in Internet use (Jo & Jung, 2005). Methodologically, Internet surveys not only introduce new ways to minimize non-response and measurement error, they also create relatively larger samples more easily than other data-gathering methods (Couper, Traugott, & Lamias, 2001; Wimmer & Dominick, 2005).

Five thousand U.S. and 10,000 South Korean public relations practitioners were randomly selected from the member directory of PRSA (Public Relations Society of America)

and KPRA (Korean Public Relations Association), respectively. Contrary to the PRSA member directory consisting only of public relations professionals, the KPRA member directory is a mixed population of professionals, students, and other interested individuals. To overcome this lack of decency in population, double the number of prospective respondents was selected from KPRA. Respondents were recruited by e-mail, and the survey was administered by providing the subjects with the Web address of the survey and having them visit the site to complete the questionnaire. Two follow-up e-mails were sent to non-respondents and those who began but did not complete the survey.

Two sets of questions covering the 86 contingency variables and Hofstedes' five cultural dimensions were incorporated into the survey. First of all, with regard to the contingency questions, specific terms denoting theoretical concepts are assured here again. The scale developed here is for measuring "contingencies," and a contingency is manifested in a certain stance of an organization dealing with a conflict with an external public that requires decision-making regarding how much advocacy or accommodation the organization would take. Adopting Reber & Cameron's (2003) idea linking dialogue as an essential precursor to accommodation, this study assesses the degree of accommodation by asking "willingness to dialogue," which is believed to be a stronger indication of willingness to interact symmetrically with a public.

Dialogic communication has been a critical concept in building relationships mindful of both an organization and public's interests, with "genuine concern for each other, rather than merely seeking to fulfill their own needs (Botan, 1997, p. 192). Having characteristics such as authenticity, inclusion, confirmation of each other as human beings, presentness, mutual equality, and supportive climate (Johannesen, 1996), dialogue "manifests itself more as a stance, orientation, or bearing in communication rather than as a specific method, technique, or format"

(p. 66). Additionally, as Kent & Taylor (2002) illustrated that dialogue is a "product" rather than a procedural way such as the symmetrical model (p. 23), Reber & Cameron (2003) argued that accommodation is an "antecedent to dialogue," therefore dialogue is a better measure of whether practitioners are involved in an accommodative relationship with a public.

The first set of survey questions based on the 86 contingency variables were designed so that the respondents could relate to the questions enough to attach their own experiences, values, and beliefs. Under the umbrella question "under the following situation, I would engage in dialogue," specific questions were generated in a subjunctive form by providing each contingency variable as a supposable situation starting with "when" or "if."

Embracing the fact that contingencies or stances are determined by reciprocal actions between advocacy and accommodation, the measurement scale was designed to be fully reflective of the structural characteristics of the advocacy-accommodation continuum; 7-point Likert scale, where 7 corresponds to "very likely," and 1 corresponds to "very unlikely", with 0 as "neutral" located in the middle of the scale.

Secondly, Hofstede's VSM' 94 (Value Survey Module) original questionnaire (Hofstede, 2001, p. 495) was utilized for addressing cultural variance among the contingency variables. Of 26 questions, 20 questions except 6 demographic questions, including personal evaluations, subjective descriptions of the work situations and personal goals and beliefs related to an ideal job, were used; five clusters of four questions represent five cultural dimensions, and across countries, the mean scores on the four questions under the same dimension usually vary together, which gives an idea about culturally determined values of people from different countries. Additionally, Hofstede (2001) noted that cultural index scores could be calculated using this set

of questions based on the formulas, which generally produces a score value between 0 and 100 for each dimension.

An English-language questionnaire was first translated into Korean by the current author, and both the English and Korean questionnaires were examined by five Korean-American bilingual judges. The judges were asked to review each translated statement and rate them using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 corresponds to "very bad (need for correction)" and 7 corresponds to "very good (no need for correction)," and they were also encouraged to provide written recommendations or comments. Appropriate changes were made according to the ratings and feedback, and this procedure was repeated until the entire set of questions received ratings greater than 4.

Then, another group of five Korean-American bilinguals answered the English-language questionnaire and the Korean-language questionnaire two weeks apart, and the extent to which the different individuals tended to give exactly the same answers to each question were tested, applying the concept of intercoder reliability. Each individual's two responses acquired from the English questionnaire and Korean questionnaire were respectively considered as different "coders," thus generating five tests.

The survey instrument was then pilot tested with several U.S. and Korean professionals, and appropriate changes were made accordingly.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Overview

A total of 364 U.S. practitioners and 101 South Korean practitioners completed the survey, therefore a total of 465 questionnaires were completed between December 5, 2006, and February 7, 2007. The response rate was 8.3% for the U.S. survey and 1.3% for South Korean survey, using the AAPOR calculation for Internet surveys (The American Association for Public Opinion Research, 2006), which divides the number of completed questionnaires by the number of completed and partial questionnaires and the number of non-interviews with known and unknown eligibility.

Web surveys normally show fairly low response rates, though it depends on the frame and population of interest (Fricker, Galesic, Tourangeau, & Yan, 2005). The overall response rates for Web survey generally reflect outcomes of several stages in the data collection including contacting potential respondents by e-mail, getting them to visit the survey Website, and persuading them to compete the survey once they have started (p. 373). Moreover, nonresponses from these phases are highly variable; for example, Manfreda & Vehovar (2002) reported that nonresponse due to undelivable e-mail invitations usually varies from 1% to 20%, and the percentage of respondents who received the e-mail invitation but failed to access the survey Website ranges from 1% to 96%. Considering that these variable response rates are accumulated

into the overall response rates, in conclusion, there appears to be no rule of thumb regarding the acceptable Web survey response rate.

A number of explanations could exist for the surveys' relatively low response rates. Due to the limited time schedule for this study, the surveys were released from the end of the year 2006 to the beginning of the new year, which may be the busiest time of the year for organizations as well as for individual practitioners in both countries. Also because the survey contained over a hundred questions including all the 86 contingency variable questions and cultural dimensions questions, going through all those questions might be burdensome to the practitioners who are always pressed for time. This was the very the reason, however, that the former quantitative studies on the contingency variables have been conducted only with a selective number of variables (e.g. Reber & Cameron, 2003).

For the U.S. practitioners, 66 (18.1%) respondents reported that the total number of years working as professionals is between five and 10, 54 (14.8%) have worked for between 20 and 25 years, 53 (14.6%) for between one and five years, and 51 (14.0%) for between 25 to 30 years. One hundred forty-six (40.1%) have worked for their current employers for between one and five years, and 77 (21.2%) for between five and 10 years. The primary businesses of their organizations are corporate (N = 94, 25.8%), non-profit (N = 60, 16.5%), and PR agency (N = 55, 15.1%), education (N = 50,13.7%), government (N = 30, 8.2%), and private consultant (N = 29, 8.0%). One hundred eighty-eight (51.6%) respondents are college graduates, and 152 (41.8%) have master's degrees. Ninety-four (25.8%) respondents are between 50 and 60 years old, and 87 (23.9%) and 79 (21.7%) respondents are between 30 and 40 years old and 40 and 50 years old, respectively. Two hundred thirty-six (64.8%) of the respondents are female, and 128 (35.2%) are male.

For South Korean practitioners, 35 (34.7%) respondents have worked as professionals for between five and 10 years, 30 (29.7%) have worked for between one and five years, and 15 (14.9%) for between 10 and 15 years. Forty-one (40.6%) respondents answered that they have worked for their current employers for between one and five years, and 30 (29.7%) for between five and 10 years. The primary businesses of their organizations are corporate (N = 39, 38.6%), PR agency (N = 32, 31.7%), government (N = 10, 9.9%), education (N = 7, 6.9%), non-profit (N = 6, 5.9%), and private consultant (N = 3, 3.0%). Fifty (49.5%) respondents are college graduates, and 43 (42.6%) hold master's degrees. Fifty-three (52.5%) respondents are between 30 and 40 years old, and 25 (24.8%) are between 20 and 30 years old. Fifty-three (52.5%) of the respondents are male, and 48 (47.5%) are female.

Table 2 presents the item means of the contingency variables in the U.S. and South Korea. Mean differences were assessed by performing t-tests.

Study 1. Scale Building of the Contingency Variables via Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

RQ 1: Do the theoretically conceptualized categories describe public relations practices empirically?

RQ 2: What are the general structural characteristics of the Contingency scales in the CFA model?

2-1: Are the contingency scales significantly correlated with each other?

2-2: What is the role of each contingency scale in creating willingness to dialogue?

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE CONTINGENCY VARIABLES

In this study, the purposes of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) are threefold: First, in the most essential respect, CFA enables us to empirically test how well collected data support the structure of thematic clusters of contingency variables proposed by theory. Second, CFA further provides a abstracted framework of the theoretical constructs providing lots of details as well; not only does it briefly tell us about each contingency factor's role in affecting willingness to dialogue, it gives us detailed description of each factor's relative influence on accommodation, or relationships with other factors, which are represented by CFA statistics. Additionally, by building multiple models depending on the focus of the information needed (i.e., first-order vs. second-order model), more meaningful interpretation could be obtained. Third, by testing equivalence of the measurement model across different groups, CFA particularly becomes useful for systematic analyses of cultural difference between the U.S. and South Korean samples. Based on this understanding, whether the empirical data support proposed hypotheses were tested via CFA, through building, specifying and examining a measurement model.

Building a Measurement Model for CFA: First- vs. Second-Order Model

As a starting point, a measurement model which best reflects the theoretical concepts and their structural relationships needed to be built by operationalizing the sets of contingency constructs. After carefully reviewing theory, two options of first-order and second-order CFA models appeared to be viable for the present study.

First, as a conventional form of CFA, the first-order model generally illustrates the observed variables with a single layer of latent factors, and all factors are correlated with all

other factors. As such, the first-order CFA model (Figure 1) was formulated, where 11 contingency constructs contain multiple reflective contingency variables, having 87 pairwise covariances between the scales reflecting dynamic relationships among the scales.

Next, by adding another level of constructs to the first-order model, the second-order CFA model generally consists of two layers of latent factors. Now the second-order CFA model of contingency theory is formulated by introducing a higher level of theoretical abstraction represented by willingness to dialogue, in order to explain the contingency scales. As Figure 2 presents the second-order CFA model, where a second-order factor (willingness to dialogue) is represented by 11 related first-order factors (contingency scales), and each scale is indicated by multiple items (individual contingency variables).

Beyond testing the validity as the contingency scales, the second-order model could achieve higher parsimony that explains the theory with a unidimensional factor Willingness to Dialogue; the structural one-way paths connecting the scales and the overarching factor Willingness to Dialogue indicates how much salience each contingency scale has in creating organizations' willingness to accommodate external publics. In this model, therefore, as well as each contingency factor's influence on willingness to dialogue can be compared in terms of their regression coefficients, but the degree of the general term "willingness to dialogue" can be assessed by obtaining the overarching factor's mean score.

Considering possible theoretical interpretations as above, both the first- and second-order models have advantages. Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black (1998) indicated that first-order models better illustrate covariances among latent constructs than the same data represented by a second-order model, but higher-order models are more parsimonious. As such, the first-order contingency model would give us useful comparisons of 11 scale means and covariances among

them, and the second-order contingency model, by including a simpler, abstract form of higher-order construct "willingness to dialogue," could depict how each contingency construct acts as a indicator of an overarching concept of organization's accommodation by combining them as the scales into the unidimension having different salience.

Shoemaker, Tankard, & Lasorsa (2004) noted that a model is not a mirror image of reality, but merely a portion of reality that certain key aspects are highlighted. Having different foci, therefore, both the models are expected to provide meaningful concepts we cannot miss. As far as the two models are theoretically sound and exhibit adequate fits, there is no reason to reject one model in favor of the other.

Following this line of thinking, to conclude, this study will explore both the first- and second-order contingency models. Findings from the two models will be used complementarily to understand the contingency scales' creating organization's willingness to dialogue. Therefore, in the following section, the two models will be separately tested to assess how well collected data supports them, then the contingency scales' roles in each model will be examined.

Testing First-Order CFA Model

Model Building

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on the first-order model using AMOS 7.0. The analysis was performed by assessing measurement validity and computing model fit for the pooled data of the U.S. and South Korean samples. First, measurement validation was performed through verification of reliability and validity of the contingency constructs. Second, the overall fit of the model was assessed. Third, the model was respecified

and finalized through diagnostic indicators such as parametric estimates and modification indices.

Reliability and Validity. Reliability and validity of the 11 constructs were examined using the combined data. As shown in Table 3, most of the scales indicated high internal consistency in the constructs with fairly good Cronbach's alpha coefficients greater than .70. As an exception, Relationship Characteristics scale showed especially low loadings ($\lambda = 0.62$), but still meets the minimum suggestions of .60 suggested in the literature (e.g. Hair et al., 2005). Discriminant validity was then tested for all factors by measuring the difference in Chi-square for one pair of factors at a time. Each pair was assessed by comparing two models: a correlation model that constrained the estimated correlation parameter between them to 1.0 and another model without a constraining parameter. Discriminant validity for all pairs was achieved: Chi-square differences between all pairs were more than 3.84, at Δdf=1, suggesting that the traits are not perfectly correlated (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982). As an example, the External Threats and the Dominant Coalition dimensions were found to be distinct from each other in that the chi-square statistical difference between two models (e.g., Model Mc: r=1 was constrained between two constructs; and Model Mu: r was unconstrained) was significant ($\Delta\chi^2$= 58.7 at Δdf=1, where χ^2 =5604.3, df=2653 for Model Mc and χ^2=5545.6, df=2652 for Model Mu).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). A confirmatory factor analysis was performed on all factors with data from the survey result based on maximum likelihood method. To evaluate the fit of the measurement model, five fit indices were used. First, instead of χ^2 statistic, which tends to unduly inflate in the case of a large sample, χ^2/df ratio was employed to reduce the sensitivity of the test to sample size; χ^2/df smaller than 3 generally indicates an acceptable fit

(Kline, 1998). Second, SRMR (Standardized Square Root Mean Residual), TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index), CFI (Comparative Fit index), and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Errors of Approximation) were used. SRMR .08 or less, TLI and CFI above .9, and RMSEA .07 or less are generally considered as indicators of a good fit (Hair et al., 1998). However, some researchers argued that in case of complex models, such as the hypothesized model in this study, CFI in the .80 range would still be acceptable (Netemeyer, Bentler, Bagozzi, Cudeck, Cote, Lehmann, McDonald, Heath, Irwin, & Amber, 2001; Chelminski & Coulter, 2006).

The result (χ^2/df=3.72, SRMR=0.08, TLI=0.69, CFI=0.70, RMSEA=0.08) indicated only limited extent of acceptable overall fit, thus suggesting the proposed model might need to be reexamined for improvement. First, factor loadings of individual items in the model were analyzed to assess the viability of their estimated values. Items ETE in External Threats scale (legitimizing activists' claims) and ICI in Individual Characteristics (personality: dogmatic or authoritarian) were removed because they showed regression weights too low to be in the factor as theorized, thereby demonstrating that they are inconsistent with the underlying theory.

Then Modification Indices (MIs) were reviewed to identify any areas of misfit in the model and detect theoretically justifiable respecifications. In analyzing MIs, pairs of errors, which are within a particular theoretical construct or closely related to each other in terms of their concepts or words, were correlated. Netemeyer et al. (2001) noted that correlating errors could be justified as a priori when 1) it is warranted on theoretical or methodological grounds; 2) it does not significantly change the structural parameter estimates or the measurement parameter estimates (p. 88).

MIs also indicated that the items EPB (external public's degree of source credibility/powerful members or connections), EPC (external public's past successes or failures

of groups to evoke change) and EPG (public's perception of the external group: reasonable or radical) in External Public category, and items DCB (dominant coalition's management style: domineering or laid-back), DCF (dominant coalition's frequency of external contact with publics) and DCG (dominant coalition's calculation of potential rewards or losses of using different strategies with external publics) in Dominant Coalition category have excessively high covariances with the items under other factors, thus weakening reliability and validity of the factor. Therefore, these items were removed from the analysis.

After that, the error covariances among 132 pairs of items were freed to estimate based on the suggestions from modification indices because the items in each pair, although asking different questions, measured the same respective concept in the same factor. Six pairs of items which from different factors, additionally, were also freed; items PRF (general communication competency of public relations staffs) and ICJ (individual's communication competency) correspondingly deal with communication competency; item DCC (general altruism level) is equivalent to ICM (individual's predisposition toward altruism) in that both items measure altruism; items measuring the influence of gender, PRL (gender: percentage of upper-level staff female in the public relations department) and ICQ (gender: female versus male) were freed; items EPI (whether representative of the public knows or likes representatives of the organization) and EPJ (whether representative of the organization know or like representatives of from the public) were respectively correlated with an item RCA (level of trust between organization and external public) because liking has been considered as a crucial determinant in building and maintaining trust in long-term relationship (Nicholson, Compeau, & Sethi, 2001); item EPJ and item ICP in Individual Characteristic (whether they like external public or their representative) were freed to estimate for the same reason.

In conclusion, the respecification procedure described above generated a significantly improved model fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.09$, SRMR = 0.06, TLI = 0.89, CFI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.05), indicating that the respecified first-order CFA model satisfactorily fits the actual data.

Hypothesis Testing

As hypothesized, the CFA result generally supported the measurement model. The fit statistics showed that the proposed first-order model is well supported by collected data, and the result provided sufficient evidences that 78 out of 86 contingency variables showed significant loadings toward the factors as theorized and the scales are significantly covarying each other. Thus, the measurement model satisfied the dimensionality of the contingency categories and their dynamic relationships.

The result confirmed that the 11 contingency categories have distinct value to be "scales" measuring an organization's willingness to dialogue with external publics, thus supporting all 11 hypotheses.

In each set of variables clustered into 11 scales, standardized regression weights of the 78 items were analysed to see which contingency variable has the largest factor loading, thus acting as the strongest indicator of each contingency construct. For External Threat, ETD (scarring of company's reputation in business community and in the general public) was the most salient indicator ($\lambda = .89$); IEC (richness or leanness of resources in the environment) showed the greatest factor loading to Industry Environment ($\lambda = .78$); GCA (degree of political support of business) was the strongest indicator of General Political/Social Environment/External Culture ($\lambda = .88$); EPM/EPN (relative power of organization/relative power of public) was the most salient indicator for External Public ($\lambda = .75$); IQA (size of the issue under question) has the

greatest factor loading on Issue Under Question (λ = .88); CCF (speed of growth in the knowledge level the corporation uses) was the most salient item loaded on Corporate Characteristics (λ = .79); PRM (potential of department to practice various models of public relations) was the strongest indicator of Public Relations Department Characteristics (λ = .77); DCD (support and understanding of public relations) has the greatest salience in Dominant Coalition Characteristics (λ = .75); ITB (marring of employees' or stockholders' perception of the company) was the most influential item for Internal Threats (λ = .96); ICK (cognitive complexity: ability to handle complex problems) showed the largest factor loading on Individual Characteristics (λ = .87); RCA (level of trust between organization and external public) was the strongest indicator of Relationship Characteristics (λ = .83). Table 4 presents the analyses of all 78 items' factor loadings.

Next, pairwise covariances among the 11 scales were analyzed. A notably large covariance was between scales Industry Environment and General Political/Social Environment/External Culture (φ = 1.23), suggesting that the two scales tend to vary together (correlate) at the greatest amount. Additionally, External Threats and Issue Under Question (φ = 0.90), General Political/Social Environment/External Culture and Issue Under Question (φ = 0.88), and Industry Environment and Issue Under Question (φ = 0.83) indicated notable correlations between the constructs. Table 5 summarizes the result of hypothesis testing and covariances among the scales.

Testing Second-Order CFA Model

Model Building

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were performed on the second-order model of contingency constructs. This was also analyzed by the pooled sample of the U.S. and South Korean sample.

The model fit (χ^2/df = 3.85, SRMR = 0.08, TLI = 0.68, CFI = 0.69, RMSEA = 0.08) indicated only limited extent of acceptable overall fit, thus suggesting the need to reexamine for fit improvement.

Respecification of the model fit followed the same procedure as in the first-factor CFA. The result of initial model fit suggested 12 individual items ETE (legitimizing activists' claim), EPB, (external public's degree of source credibility/powerful members or connections) CCA (open or closed culture of corporation), CCH (existence or nonexistence of issues management personnel or program), PRB (type of past training of employees), DCA (political values of dominant coalition), DCB (dominant coalition's management style), DCF (dominant coalition's perception of the organization's external environment), DCG (dominant coalition's calculation of potential rewards or losses of using different strategies with external publics), DCH (degree of line manager involvement in external affairs), ICI (individual personality: dogmatic or authoritarian), RCC (ideological barriers between organization and public) needed to be removed because of their unreasonably low regression weights to be included in the factors as theory suggests.

Next, Modification Indices (MIs) were reviewed; 99 pairs of errors within the same construct, and pairs of error terms DCC and ICM (altruism), DCE and ICO (contact with external public), ICP and RCA (liking and trust in relationship), ICJ and PRM (communication

competency) which cross different constructs, and 6 pairs of residual terms were freed to estimate. After respecification procedure, the model fit showed significantly improved fit (χ^2/df = 2.14, SRMR = 0.06, TLI = 0.89, CFI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.05), therefore the second-order CFA model was finalized.

In addition, the dropped 12 variables were compared with the eight variables that were left out in the first-order model building in order to see if any variables consistently show some irrelevance to the models, thus being excluded during the procedure. Six contingency items were overlapped between the two sets of variables; ETE (legitimizing activists' claim), EPB (degree of source credibility/powerful members or connections), ICI (personality of individual public relations practitioners; dogmatic or authoritarian), DCB (management style: domineering or laid-back), DCF (dominant coalition's perception of the organization's external environment), DCG (dominant coalition's calculation of potential rewards or losses of using different strategies with external publics), were removed in both the first- and the second-order model, therefore suggesting that they may not be as necessary for describing the contingencies as other variables. A summary of excluded variables from the model buildings is presented in Table 6.

Hypothesis Testing

The second-order CFA result also supported the structure of two-layered dimensions depicting the contingency scales' creating the organizations' willingness to dialogue with external publics. The statistics showed that collected data supports the model where 11 first-order factors with different weights are combined into a unidimensional second-order factor with acceptable fit.

Hypotheses H1 to H11 were all supported in this model and regression coefficients of the theorized structural relationships were all significant. Figure 3 shows the standardized coefficients of structural paths. As indicators of a second-order factor Willingness to Dialogue, the scales generally showed fairly high loadings. Corporate Characteristics ($\lambda = 0.93$) and Dominant coalition ($\lambda = 0.93$) showed the largest loadings, followed by Public Relations Department Characteristics ($\lambda = 0.89$), Individual Characteristics ($\lambda = 0.86$), and Relationship Characteristics ($\lambda = 0.86$), and etc. Whereas, External Threats ($\lambda = 0.54$) showed relatively low coefficient, and Internal Threats ($\lambda = 0.27$) indicated exceptionally lower loadings than the other scales, implying that these two scales are not as strong as indicators of willingness to dialogue compared to the other contingency scales.

Study 2. Cross-Cultural Analysis of the Contingency Scales

RQ 3: Are the contingency scales functionally equivalent across the U.S. and South Korea?

RQ 4: What are the differences in contingencies affecting willingness to dialogue with an external public, between U.S. and South Korean practitioners?

4-1: In comparing the U.S. and South Korean models, what are the differences in each contingency scale's relationships with the other scales?

4-2: In comparing the U.S. and South Korean models, what are the differences in each contingency scale's role in creating organizations' willingness to dialogue with external publics?

CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF THE CONTINGENCY SCALES

As preceding tests confirmed that the theoretically conceptualized categories describe public relations practices empirically, the specified models were then tested in a broader framework by assessing its measurement invariance. To examine the consistency of measures and their properties across cultures, several forms of measurement invariance, that is, configural invariance, metric invariance, and scalar invariance, were tested in a hierarchical order.

Configural invariance indicates that the items making up the measurement instrument show that the same number of factors and their patterns are the same across cultures by testing configuration of salient and nonsalient factor loadings (Bryne & Stewart, 2006; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). If configural invariance is supported, an item as an indicator of a construct in one culture identically designates the same construct in another culture and does not relate to other constructs. No constraints are imposed on the parameters of the measurement model.

After configural invariance is supported, metric invariance, which is also called factor loading invariance, can be tested by constraining factor loadings to be equal. As metric invariance denotes the equivalence of factor loadings, obtained ratings (scores) of different cultural groups can be meaningfully compared if the test is verified. Conceptually, achieving metric invariance can be the evidence for measuring the same construct in multiple groups—respondents in different cultural groups interpret and respond to measures in an equivalent manner (Yoo, 2002, p. 358).

Adding on configural and metric invariance, scalar invariance, or intercept invariance, enables latent (construct) mean comparisons across cultural groups, which is the main interest of this study. Scalar invariance means that the construct mean difference stems from differences in

the means of underlying constructs, not from additive biases from cultural differences in understanding item wording, etc. (Hong, Malik, & Lee, 2003; Salzberger, 2000). Scalar invariance is assessed by additionally constraining intercepts to be equal across two countries.

Measurement Invariance Test: First-Order Model

In order to assess the first-order model's cross-cultural comparability, a series of measurement invariance tests were performed. First of all, configural invariance was supported. All loadings of the contingency scales were statistically significant in each of the country samples, and the model yielded an acceptable fit (χ^2/df = 1.98, SRMR = 0.06, TLI = 0.82, CFI = 0.84, RMSEA = 0.04), thereby suggesting that the factorial structure and the pattern of the construct is equivalent across the U.S. and South Korea.

Consequently, metric invariance was tested by comparing the baseline model, in which all factor loadings are freed to vary between two countries, and the constrained model constraining the loadings to be equal across cultures. Full metric invariance was supported by a non-significant χ^2 difference between an unconstrained model and a constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(66)$ = 109.98, p = .0006) and acceptable fit (SRMR=0.06, TLI=0.82, CFI=0.84, RMSEA=0.04).

However, full scalar invariance was not supported in the model; the increase of χ^2 was highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2(143) = 695.97$, $p < .0001$), and the fit indices showed noticeable deterioration in model fit, thus suggesting that all the item intercepts are not equivalent across the U.S. and the South Korean samples. However, partial invariance still held up well in terms of invariance test; rejection of full invariance does not invalidate some reasonable interpretation of the invariance tests (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Yoo, 2002), and if two items intercept on each construct are invariant across different groups, mean comparisons are valid (Hair et al.,

1998). As such, the model was tested again toward partial invariance. MIs indicated that 6 intercepts (for the item ETA, PRG, EPK, CCC, CCH, CCI) were not invariant across the U.S. and South Korea. Accordingly, freeing these intercepts to be equal yielded a highly significant improvement in fit compared to the full scalar invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2$ (6) = 186.22, $p < .0001$). Although the increase in chi-square from the metric invariance model is still significant, ($\Delta\chi^2$ (71) = 399.77, $p < .0001$), model fit was actually improved in terms of other indicators such as TLI, CFI, or RMSEA. The model of partial scalar invariance was compared to the configural invariance model; the difference in chi-square was significant ($\Delta\chi^2$ (132) = 376.97, $p < .0001$), but TLI, CFI, was only minimally decreased, and RMSEA was the same. Therefore, following Steekamp & Baumgartner's (1998) conclusion, partial scalar invariance is supported, thus allowing further comparison of latent means across two countries. Table 5 summarizes this measurement invariance test.

Bryne (2001) noted that in the latent mean analysis, the construct means can not be directly estimated; when the item intercepts are constrained to be equal, latent factor intercepts have no "definite origin," which means that it is not defined in a statistical term (p. 229). To define the origin, therefore, as a reference, the factor intercepts of one group must be fixed to zero and difference in construct means are estimated only in a relative sense.

The latent means for the 11 contingency scales were compared by constraining the 11 means to be invariant across countries. The constrained model yielded a significantly worse fit ($\Delta\chi^2$(11) = 1381.9, $p < .0001$), thus suggesting that the means are not invariant across two groups. The mean differences in the 11 scales between the U.S. and South Korea were analyzed consequently. As Table 8 presents, the scale means of the U.S. sample showed significantly higher ($p < .05$) than South Korean sample in 8 scales, External Threats, General Political/Social

Environment/External Culture, External Public, Issue Under Question, Corporate Characteristics, Dominant Coalition, Individual Characteristics, and Relationship Characteristics. However, the scale means of Industry Environment ($p = 32$), Public Relations Department ($p = .44$), and Internal Threats ($p = .19$) exhibited no significant difference between two samples.

The largest difference in construct mean was found in scale Issue Under Question ($\Delta M = .43$, $p < .05$), followed by General Political/Social Environment/External Culture ($\Delta M = .38$, $p < .05$), External Public ($\Delta M = .35$, $p < .05$), Relationship Characteristics ($\Delta M = .31$, $p < .05$), Individual Characteristics ($\Delta M = .30$, $p < .05$), Corporate Characteristics ($\Delta M = .22$, $p < .05$), External Public ($\Delta M = .18$, $p < .05$), Dominant Coalition Characteristics ($\Delta M = .17$, $p < .05$).

As the correlations between the contingency scales are also of main interest in the present study, additional test of covariance invariance was performed by constraining all covariance between the constructs to be equal across the U.S. and South Korea. The constrained model exhibited a significantly worse fit ($\Delta\chi^2(55) = 96.90$, $p < .001$), thereby providing evidence that the covariances between the scales are not invariant across the two cultural groups.

Accordingly, pairwise covariances were compared by constraining one covariance at a time to be equal across the two samples and testing chi-square difference between each constrained model and baseline model in which all covariances are freely estimated. All 55 covariance were not invariant across culture by showing significant chi-square difference. Table 9 summarizes the results.

The result suggested that as in the pancountry (pooled sample) analysis, all covariances of the structural paths were significant in both cultural samples. In general, the majority of the covariances between scales were significantly higher in the case of the U.S. than in South Korea; out of 55, the U.S. sample showed higher covariance in 46 covariances, and only 9 were higher

in South Korea. To detail, covariances between Public Relations Department Characteristics and Relationship Characteristics indicated the largest discrepancy between the two cultural samples ($\varphi = 0.81$ in the U.S., and $\varphi = 0.24$ in South Korea), suggesting that relationships between the two scales would be considered differently in decision-making of organizations in the U.S. and South Korea. Additionally, scales demonstrating a relatively large difference were: General Political/Social Environment/External Culture and Public Relations Department Characteristics ($\varphi = 0.74$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 0.18$ for South Korea), General Political/Social Environment/External Culture and Relationship Characteristics ($\varphi = 0.76$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 0.24$ for South Korea), Industry Environment and Relationship Characteristics ($\varphi = 0.74$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 0.24$ for South Korea), and Corporate Characteristics and Relationship Characteristics ($\varphi = 0.66$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 0.21$ for South Korea) and so on.

On the other hand, External Threats and Issue Under question showed a higher covariance in South Korea than in the U.S. ($\varphi = 0.71$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 1.27$ for South Korea). Although relatively small, differences in covariances between scales such as Issue Under Question and Internal Threats ($\varphi = 0.44$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 0.61$ for South Korea), and Industry Environment and Issue Under Question ($\varphi = 0.71$ for the U.S. and $\varphi = 0.83$ for South Korea) tended to be correlated higher in the South Korean model. Table 5 compares the covariances among the scales between the two samples.

Measurement Invariance Test: Second-Order Model

To assess its appropriateness for cultural comparison, the finalized second-order model was also assessed its measurement invariance across the U.S. and South Korean samples. First, a configural invariance test yielded an acceptable fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.95$, SRMR = 0.06, TLI = 0.84, CFI = 0.85, RMSEA = 0.04), thereby suggesting that the second-order model also demonstrates similar factorial structures or patterns of the constructs between the U.S. and South Korean samples.

Metric invariance tests followed a two-step procedure; since the model consists of 74 first-order loadings and 11 second-order loadings, invariance of the factor loadings were assessed first by performing a test constraining only first-order factor loadings, and then running another test by adding constraints to the second-order factor loadings. The result suggested that all the first-order factor loadings are invariant across the two samples by showing a non-significant chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2(61) = 110.4$, $p = .0001$). Additionally constraining second-order factor loadings yielded only minimal increase in chi-square value ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 13.8$, $p = 0.2443$), and comparison with the configural model yielded a non-significant chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2(72) = 124.2$, $p = .0002$), thereby implying that the second-order factor loadings are also invariant across two samples. Hence, full metric invariance was also supported.

Based on the configural and metric invariance, scalar invariance was tested. Bryne & Stewart (2006) noted that a common difficulty in testing latent factor intercepts is that the number of estimated intercepts exceeds the number of observed measures, which result in model underidentification. Model underidentification denotes that there are more parameters to be estimated than the number of data points, therefore generating insufficient information to get a single parameter estimation (Bryne, 2001, p. 35). The model under the present study exhibited

the same problem; there are 84 estimated intercepts (73 item intercepts and 11 latent factor intercepts) and only 73 observed intercepts. One of the solutions to the underidentification problem is to constrain the latent factor intercept to zero, thus claiming that the first-order latent means do not exist. Not only is this equivalent to constraining the factor intercept to be equal, but this method can reduce the estimated intercept from 84 to 73 (Bryne & Stewart, 2006, p. 301). Following this suggestion, this study fixed the latent factor intercept to zero and proceeded to the scalar invariance test.

Full-scalar invariance test on the second-model was not satisfactory; the increase of χ^2 from the configural invariance model was highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2(144) = 744.8$, $p < .0001$), and a considerable decrease in model fit was detected by the fit indices. To identify the source of the failure, each individual item's intercept parameter was inspected. The MIs indicated that 6 intercepts for the item PRG, CCJ, CCI, EPK, EPG, ETA in the model were not invariant across the U.S. and South Korea. Accordingly, relaxing these intercepts to vary demonstrated a highly significant improvement model fit compared to the full scalar invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2(6) = 309.8$, $p < .0001$). The increase in chi-square from the metric invariance model was still significant, ($\Delta\chi^2(56) = 310.8$, $p < .0001$), however, TLI, CFI, and RMSEA indicated improved fit from the full scalar invariance test. Comparison between partial scalar invariance model and the configural invariance model yielded similar outcome by showing a significant chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2(128) = 435.04$, $p < .0001$), but TLI, CFI, was only minimally decreased, and RMSEA was the same. Taken from this, partial scalar invariance was also supported in the second-order CFA model, followed by the comparison of only one latent mean in the model, willingness to dialogue. Table 10 summarizes the measurement invariance test.

Test of latent mean difference was performed by constraining the mean in one group to be zero. The U.S. sample showed significantly greater willingness to dialogue than the South Korean sample ($\Delta M = .27$, $p = 0.01$).

Study 3. Identifying Sociocultural Variability in the Contingency theory

RQ 4: What cultural values influence contingencies surrounding organizations' dialogue with external publics?

4-1: Are Hofstede's cultural dimensions associated with the contingency scales in the U.S. sample?

4-2: Are Hofstede's cultural dimensions associated with the contingency scales in the South Korean sample?

4-3: Do the cultural dimensions drive or impede accommodation of organizations?

IDENTIFYING CULTURAL VARIABILITY IN THE CONTINGENCY SCALES

In order to identify sociocultural variability among contingency variables, the relationship between Hofstede's five cultural dimensions and the contingency scales were analyzed.

Cultural Dimension Scores

As noted earlier, five cultural variability dimensions were calculated based on the formulas in Hofstede's VSM' 94 (Value Survey Module) (Hofstede, 2001, p. 495). An additional t-test was conducted to evaluate the differences in each cultural dimension's score between the U.S. and South Korea samples. As Table 11 summarizes, the result showed similar patterns as in Hofstede's 1991 study in general, but some were inconsistent.

T-tests were conducted to evaluate the differences of cultural scores in two samples. Individualism-Collectivism score was significantly higher in the U.S. (M = 107.45, SD = 42.05) than in South Korea (M = 96.58, SD = 44.54), t (463) = 2.27, $p < .05$, thus confirming the idea that individualism is more evident in the U.S. than in South Korea (Hofstede, 1991). Similarly, the U.S. sample showed significantly stronger masculinity by generating a higher Masculinity – Femininity score (M = 23.63, SD = 82.93) than the South Korean sample (M = 2.77, SD = 77.22), t (463) = 2.27, $p < .05$. Uncertainty Avoidance was significantly higher in South Korea (M = 95.99, SD = 47.04) than in the U.S. (M = 62.89, SD = 62.12), t (463) = -5.80, $p < .05$. Long-term Orientation Characteristics were slightly higher in South Korea (M = 48.32, SD = 19.03) than the U.S. (M = 42.15, SD = 21.05), t (463) = -2.66, $p < .05$ thus supporting that South Korean culture is more predisposed toward future-related values such as perseverance or thrift. These differences in four scores were significant at $\alpha = .05$. On the other hand, Power Distance scores actually showed no significant difference between two samples, t (463) = 1.21, $p = .23$, which contrasted with the general expectation that PDI would be higher in South Korea than in the U.S.

Identifying Relationships between Contingency Scales and Cultural Dimensions

Correlation coefficients were computed among the 11 contingency scales and five cultural dimensions, using SPSS 14.0. The results of the correlation analyses of the U.S. and South Korean sample are separately presented in Tables 10 and 11.

In the U.S. sample, External Threat was significantly ($p < .05$) correlated with Power Distance (PDI) ($r = -.123$), Individualism-Collectivism (IDV) ($r = .176$), Long-term Orientation (LTO) ($r = .132$), Industry Environment was correlated with IDV ($r = .179$), Masculinity-Femininity (MAS), ($r = -.128$) and General Political/Social Environment/External Culture was correlated with PDI ($r = -.121$) and MAS ($r = -.156$). External Public was associated with PDI ($r = -.131$), IDV ($r = .113$), Issue Under Question was correlated with PDI ($r = -.149$), MAS ($r = -.116$), and LTO ($r = .122$), and Corporate Characteristics was correlated with PDI ($r = -.132$) and LTO ($r = .120$). Public Relations Department was correlated with IDV ($r = .138$) and MAS ($r = -.154$), and Dominant Coalition was correlated with IDV ($r = .141$), MAS, ($r = -.154$) and LTO ($r = .121$). Internal Threat was correlated only with LTO ($r = .165$), but Individual Characteristics was correlated with PDI ($r = -.108$), IDV ($r = .130$), MAS, ($r = -.127$) and LTO ($r = .109$). Relationship Characteristics was correlated with IDV ($r = .136$) and MAS ($r = -.148$). Meanwhile, any contingency scales were not related with Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). Uncertainty Avoidance was not significantly correlated with any of the contingency scales.

In the South Korean sample, however, only a few significant relationships were identified. External Threat, External Public, and Issue Under Question were not significantly correlated with any of the cultural dimensions ($p > .05$). Most of the contingency scales had significant relationships only with IDV; Industry Environment ($r = .196$), Corporate Characteristics ($r = .225$), Public Relations Characteristics ($r = .229$), Dominant Coalition ($r =$

.270), Internal Threats (r = .203), Individual Characteristics (r = .294), and Relationship Characteristics (r = .209) were correlated with the dimension. General Political/Social Environment/External Culture was significantly correlated with PDI (r = .206). Uncertainty Avoidance showed no significant relationships with the scales.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present study sought a reliable scale building of the Contingency theory by confirming theoretical categorization of the contingency variables, and attempted to identify cultural variability among the scales by cross-cultural comparison.

The data supported the idea that the pool of contingency items are not only thematically clustered into 11 categories, but that these theoretical categories can also be appropriate measures to assess the extent of an organization's predisposition toward accommodating with an external public. Additionally, this study's cross-cultural data collected from U.S. and South Korean public relations practitioners, further confirmed that the structure of scales is equivalent across different countries, while those countries have quite different cultural backgrounds, thereby adding more generalizability to the Contingency theory.

The scales proposed by the theory were tested by building and testing two confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models which have common goals but different focuses: first- and second-order models.

The first-order CFA model proved that the contingency categories have sufficient dimensionability to be scales for measuring contingency by showing good fits with the empirical data. The strongest indicators of each scale found through analyses of each items' factor loadings could provide a cursory look at these scales' most representative characteristics defining the

scale in the large part. External Threats scale is largely indicated by threatened reputation of an organization in the business community and among the general public; Industry Environment can be most effectively characterized by resources' richness or leanness in the industrial environment; degree of political support of organization's operation characterizes General Political/Social Environment/External Culture; perceptions of organizations'/publics' relative power strongly indicate External Public; and Issue Under Question is largely explained by size of the issue.

Additionally, quickly growing knowledge level in the organization was a strong indicator of Corporate Characteristics; potential of public relations department practicing various specialties of public relations characterized Public Relations Department in large part; and support of public relations explained substantial part of Dominant Coalition Characteristics. Internal Threat was indicated by damaged employees' or stockholders' perception of the organization to a great extent; public relations practitioners' individual ability to handle cognitive complexity was the most salient indicator of Individual Characteristics; and trust between organization and external public mainly explained Relationship Characteristics.

A closer look at the relationships among the scales indicated that the contingency scales Industry Environment and General Political/Social Environment/External Culture tend to covary the greatest amount, suggesting that in affecting the organization's decision-making to accommodate an external public, the role of environmental demands imposed on an organization's industry such as competitive issues, resource shortages, or supply-demand imbalances, and the organization's legitimacy provided by social and political support of its business, are most closely related.

In the sense that the general political/social support of the business determines the viability of the industry in which an organization operates, this association shows that industrial environment and social climate of the business can jointly influence the organization's predisposition toward accommodation with external groups. For instance, an industry consistently nurtured and supported by the government would attract more competitors and therefore fewer resources, hence leading an organization in that industry to more responsive actions toward external publics.

Additionally, External Threats and Issue Under Question, General Political/Social Environment/External Culture and Issue Under Question, and Industry Environment and Issue Under Question were also identified to be highly associated with each other when practitioners make their decisions regarding the organization's accommodative actions. In particular, these sets of scales, External Threats, Industry Environment, General Political/Social Environment/External Culture, and Issue Under Question, all designated external issues of organizations, which exactly corresponded to the higher-order category External Variables from the original contingency theory (Cancel et al., 1997). This pattern provides clear evidence that scales denoting external contingencies affecting organizations' accommodation, including potential damage from external pressure, competitor's actions or sufficiency of resources in the industry, social/political support of the organization's business, and the characteristics of the external public issues that the organization faces, tend to be strongly connected.

An illustrative example of this finding is a case of the Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG)'s dealing with a series of conflict situations around a gay rights issue (Yarbrough et al., 1998) triggered by approval of a perceived anti-gay resolution in a county near Atlanta, where one of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Game events to be held. For ACOG, the need to

legitimize claims of polarized pressure groups between pro- and anti-gay rights activists (External Threats) was amplified by the fact that this could grow into a big issue since the Olympic Game attract global attention (Issue Under Question), thus affecting general publics' support of the ACOG's operation (General Political/Social Environment/External Culture) and even contracts with sponsor's marketing and contracts for the game (Industry Environment) (p. 52).

The second-order CFA model also showed that the contingency scales would generally have significant loadings on willingness to dialogue, thus confirming the idea that each scale is a valid component in representing a unidimensional scale: Willingness to Dialogue. An important point found during the model buildings is that a total of six contingency variables was excluded repeatedly at the first-order CFA and the second-order CFA either because they were not categorized into any of the contingency scales or strongly associated with several different variables in other scales, thus weakening dimensionability of the pool of contingency items.

These six items, ETE (legitimizing activists' claim) from External Threat scale, EPB (degree of source credibility/powerful members or connections) in External Public, ICI (personality of individual public relations practitioners) in Individual Characteristics, DCB (management style: domineering or laid-back), DCF (dominant coalition's perception of the organization's external environment), and DCG (dominant coalition's calculation of potential rewards or losses of using different strategies with external publics) in Dominant Coalition Characteristics, suggests that they could be omitted from the array of contingency variables for the purpose of parsimony in the theory.

Especially, contrary to extensive research about influence of various pressure groups on organizational actions (e.g. L. Grunig, 2002), a finding that threats from activists' claim (ETE)

did not cluster into external threats like other ET variables such as litigation/regulation issues or organizations' public reputation is somewhat unexpected. However, considering theoretical implications that this item could offer to the contingency theory, ETE's low factor loading would need to be revisited and carefully interpreted. One possible interpretation is that although public relations practitioners do care about activists' claims and moves, what really drives them to dialogic communications is careful deliberation about the accommodative actions based on many factors around the situation such as the public's characteristics or their organizations' goals, not just a fear of legitimizing activists' claims. Another possible reason is that the variable is actually tapping into a clearly distinct concept that is not associated with any other contingency items, and therefore being excluded from model building. Future research could test this idea by elaborating the variable into a number of items and creating a new construct particularly measuring threats from activists' moves, and assess how this construct interacts with other scales in the theory.

Nearly all scales except Internal Threats and External Threats showed fairly high loadings on the willingness to dialogue. In detail, the two scales Dominant Coalition and Corporate Characteristics were the most salient scales for practitioners to determine their organization's accommodative actions toward external publics. This finding suggests that the two most significant factors affecting public relations practitioners' engaging in dialogue with the external publics are the extent to which an organization's culture, structure, or its resources is inclined to support accommodating external publics, and the extent to which those who control the organization by exerting power is predisposed to support dialogue with an external public also has substantial importance on organizations' stance toward accommodation. That is, an organization and its top decision-makers' characteristics will tell us more about to what extent

the organization will accommodate to an external public than other factors. In addition, External Public, Public Relations Department, Individual Characteristics, and Relationship Characteristics also exhibited substantial loadings.

It is interesting to note that most of the scales that showed high salience toward willingness to dialogue were internal variables. Scales related to an organization's internal aspects, such as Corporate Characteristics, Dominant Coalition, Public Relations Department Characteristics, or Individual Characteristics, appeared to play a bigger role in representing practitioners' willingness to dialogue than other variables denoting external factors affecting the degree of accommodation. In all probability, this means that factors regarding various situations arising from inside the organization have a greater part in deciding its accommodative actions than situations arising outside the organization. Public relations practitioners' complying with angry external groups may be more pronounced by the organization's internal agreement that the action is acceptable or rather encouraging, than by the public's threatening moves such as protests or litigations.

However, this finding did not apply to the scale Internal Threats; it had the lowest salience toward willingness to dialogue, thereby suggesting that although it is an issue stemming from the inner boundary of the organization, threats to the reputations of internal members or their economic status do not have as much importance as other internal scales. The organization would not yield to the external public's call because the conflict situation is damaging employees' "face," nor due to any potential economic loss of the members of the organization.

Also, External Threats denoting litigation/regulation or activists' claims also showed visibly lower loadings than other scales, though the loading was still acceptably high. This result somewhat lessens, although it is still valid, existing studies' claims that litigation/regulation issue

would prescribe organization's ability to accommodate with the external public (e.g. Cameron et al., 2001). A quote from an interviewer in Cameron et al. (2001)'s study, "You can win in the court, but lose in the court of public opinion" (p. 253) might need to be literally understood in order to make sense of practitioners' relatively low recognition of litigation/regulation issue than other contingency scales.

Furthermore, External and Internal Threats' low salience in creating willingness to dialogue is quite noteworthy. Compared to other scales denoting *primary* factors such as the parties involved in conflict situation (e.g. external publics, organization) or the surroundings of that situation (e.g. political supports of the business, industry environment), the two scales External and Internal Threats rather signify *secondary* effects of "expected" threats, which become apparent after the other scales formulate a certain situation and start to generate problems. In this sense, factors about some expectations of immediate damage/harm in and out of organizations may be considered as less impending, therefore they may not be threatening enough to make the organizations hurry into dialogue.

The next part of studies assessed generalizability of the contingency scales via testing multi-group measurement invariance. By demonstrating full configural, full metric variance and partial scalar variance, both CFA models showed that they have the same factor structure, dimensionability, and pattern of factors that can be generalized to the U.S. and South Korea. It is particularly meaningful because this series of tests proved that although it is developed based on the U.S. culture, the dynamic interaction of multiple situational factors creating organization's stance toward dialogue can be uniformly applied to an Eastern culture such as South Korea. The theory is not only applicable in terms of general concepts, but most of the items as well as

theoretical constructs are universal enough to be understood equivalently by different public relations practitioners in different cultures.

Based on these findings, in the comparison of the U.S. and South Korea via the first-order CFA model, the analyses of the differences in individual scale means (latent means) between two cultural samples suggested that the U.S practitioners are generally more sensitive to the set of contingencies and tend to move toward accommodation than South Korean practitioners. The U.S. practitioners rated eight contingency scales higher than South Korean practitioners as factors they would consider when dealing with external publics: External Threats, General Political/Social Environment/External Culture, External Public, Issue Under Question, Corporate Characteristics, Dominant Coalition Characteristics, Individual Characteristics, and Relationship Characteristics. Meanwhile, three scales Industry Environment, Public Relations Department Characteristics, and Internal Threats were considered by the U.S. and South Korean practitioners as having the same importance, thereby indicating that environmental demands of the industry, characteristics of the organizations' public relations departments related to dealings with external publics, or threats perceived by the organizations' internal members would have the same importance for the U.S. and South Korean practitioners' accommodation of external groups. These differences would be possibly explained by Kim's (2003) note that South Korean public relations is still "early in its development," placing more emphasis on monologic and defensive practices such as publicity (p. 106); more responsive and dialogic public relations valuing accommodation with publics have not been fully developed in South Korea yet. Future research could elaborate those findings by thorough exploration of South Korean practitioners' detailed decision-making processes in dealing with external publics.

Additionally, comparison of the pairwise covariances of the contingency scales between the U.S. and South Korea showed that the all scales related to each other differently in affecting organizations' willingness for external accommodation in these two cultures, thus demonstrating that each scale's dynamic relationships to other scales in creating willingness to dialogue differ across the U.S. and South Korea.

To illustrate, in contrast to the U.S. result of close relationships between Public Relations Department Characteristics and Relationship Characteristics, the South Korean result showed much lower relationships, therefore suggesting that the South Korean practitioners do not relate supportive characteristics of public relations department toward accommodation with external public with the level of trust or dependency in their relationships with them as much as the U.S. practitioners do. This kind of pattern was also found in the relationships between General Political/Social Environment/External Culture and Public Relations Department Characteristics, General Political/Social Environment/External Culture and Relationship Characteristics and so on.

An interesting point to note is that the relationship that Public Relations Department has with the other contingency scales showed a notably different pattern between the U.S. and South Korean samples. Public Relations Department's correlations with the other 10 scales were fairly high (all coefficients were over .50) in the U.S., but South Korean Public Relations Department scale's correlations with the other scales were all below .40, thereby demonstrating clear discrepancy between two samples. This finding may partly show the role of public relations department in South Korean organizations. In a South Korean organization's accommodation, public relations department's characteristics neither affect or relate to other contingency factors nor are affected by them in creating the degree of accommodation. This low level of correlation

may suggest that public relations in South Korean organizations is less considered as a crucial role involving diverse aspects in conflict situations and having influence on top management's decision-making compared to the U.S. As Park (2001) noted that public relations in South Korea is still considered as "mere publicity" or "a part of advertising or marketing" (p. 407) as 95% of practices focus on media relations (Jo & Kim, 2004), the fact that public relations' potential as a managerial profession that can contribute to other part of organizational decision-making has not been fully appreciated in Korean society could explain weaker associations of Public Relations Department Characteristics with other contingency scales in the South Korean result.

In addition, the result from the second-order CFA model showed that as the indicators of willingness to dialogue, the set of contingency scales had the same weights to the U.S. and the South Korean practitioners. This finding implies that although the U.S. practitioners are more responsive to most of the contingency scales showing higher degree of accommodation, when these scales are combined into a single abstract willingness to dialogue, each scale's relative importance as indicators of willingness to dialogue is identical across the U.S. and South Korea. Therefore, the pancountry analysis of the second-order model, the importance of Corporate Characteristics and Dominant Coalition Characteristics as the most salient indicators of willingness to dialogue, as well as the rest of the scales' roles, are also uniformly applied to the two cultures.

Differences in the overarching dimension "willingness to dialogue" provided an idea that the U.S. practitioners are more willing to dialogue with external publics, in general terms, than South Korean organizations. Recalling that latent means of the contingency scales, as indicators of willingness to dialogue, were higher in the U.S. than South Korea in nine out of eleven

contingency scales, higher degree of accommodation shown in the U.S. practitioners is understandable.

Generally higher willingness to dialogue, or more sensitivity in relationships with external publics could call for a more detailed explanation, however, the most plausible and inclusive point, as mentioned earlier in discussion, would be found in the fact that the U.S. public relations is now a full-fledged profession in communication with a long history, therefore establishing more diverse and sophisticated specialties as managerial roles in organizations than in South Korea.

Additionally, in order to get a better idea about why the contingency scales play different roles, the next part of study explored (1) how sociocultural values, which vary across different cultures, are attached to the contingency scales, thus creating a unique public relations practice for each culture and (2) how these dynamic creations of cultural distinction are reflected by two countries' degree of accommodation in this study.

First of all, Hofstede's cultural dimension scores obtained from the U.S. and South Korea samples were generally consistent with the original patterns (Hofstede, 1991), thus suggesting that the framework of cultural value orientations conceptualized at a broader societal level is also valid in the specific case of public relations practitioners. As expected, the U.S. practitioners exhibited higher Individualism and Masculinity, and the South Korean practitioners showed higher Uncertainty Avoidance and Long-term Orientation.

However, Power Distance scores from the U.S. and South Korea samples showed no difference, thereby disagreeing with the general assumption that South Korean practitioners would be more predisposed to higher power distance that respects unequal power distribution in the society. Considering that the Hofstede's original scorse were obtained over 15 years ago, this

difference may partly reflect fast-changing sociocultural landscapes in both countries. In particular, South Korean society's gradual embracing of democratic, open culture nowadays would explain a great amount of this changed pattern in Power Distance scores.

In analyzing the relationships between the contingency scales and Hofstede's cultural dimensions, the result of this study indicated that the U.S. and South Korean contingency scores are associated with various different combinations of cultural dimensions. The U.S. contingency scores demonstrated dynamic relationships with various cultural values of Power Distance, Individualism-Collectivism, Masculinity-Femininity, and Long-Term Orientation, but the South Korean contingency scores did not show much variation by mostly associating strongly with Individualism-Collectivism, and some of the scales did not correlate with any of the cultural dimensions. Although the correlations might be considered somewhat low in a practical sense, it is still possible to find general relationships suggestive of cultural variation among the contingency scales.

Therefore, following Vasquez & Taylor (2000)'s suggestion of defining "cultural approach to public relations" using these sets of cultural factors, some general inferences about unique cultural combination of values which characterize the "U.S. approach" and "South Korean approach" to accommodation with external publics could be made based on these findings. First, based on the result of the analysis the relationship between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and the contingency scales, the following is a set of propositions we could label "U.S. approach" of organizations' dealing with external publics.

- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced external pressures is linked to smaller power distance and long-term orientations.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced various demands imposed by the industry is linked to individualism and femininity.

- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced lacking social/political support of the business is linked to smaller power distance and femininity.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced external public's threatening characteristics is linked to smaller power distance and individualism.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced large and complex issue is linked to smaller power distance and femininity.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced organizations' supportive characteristics toward dialogue is linked to smaller power distance and long-term orientations.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced public relations department's supportive characteristics toward dialogue is linked to individualism and femininity.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced dominant coalition's supportive characteristics toward dialogue is linked to individualism, femininity, and long-term orientations.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced internally imposed threats is linked to long-term characteristics.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced individual employees' supportive characteristics toward accommodation with external publics is linked to smaller power distance, individualism, femininity, and long-term orientation.
- U.S. practitioners' willingness to dialogue when there is trust or high dependency in relationship with the public is linked to individualism and femininity.

On the other hand, what we could call "South Korean approach" was only described by Individualism-Collectivism and Power Distance, thus providing the following interpretations:

- South Korean practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced various demands imposed by the industry, supportive characteristics of corporate, dominant coalition, or individual employees toward accommodation, some threats internally imposed, or high dependency or trust in the relationship with external publics is related to individualism.

- South Korean practitioners' willingness to dialogue when faced lacking social/political support of the business is related to smaller power distance.

Also, the findings above indicated that each cultural dimension's relationship with the contingency scales showed striking consistency in its direction (see Table 12 and 13), therefore implying that although the way the dimensions are combined with each other and associated with the scales differs between the U.S. and South Korea, once they are apparent in the relationship to each of the scales, the cultural dimensions have consistent directions in affecting willingness to accommodate. Statistically stating, the Power Distance and Masculinity-Femininity dimensions were negatively correlated with the contingency scales, and the Individualism-Collectivism and Long-term Orientation Characteristics dimensions had positive correlations with the contingency scales.

Therefore, it is possible to make general interpretations regarding the way the cultural dimensions relate to the contingency scales. Organizations in a society with smaller power distance, where "the power in institutions and organizations is distributed" more equally (Hofstede, 1979, p. 395), would be more likely to engage in dialogue with external publics. It could be interpreted that, as open or participative culture of an organization does, organizations with equally distributed power structure are more likely to accept the demands from external groups and more flexibly comply with them. In addition, organizations in a more individualistic society in which "people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families" (p. 398) would be more predisposed to accommodate the external public. Rather than collectivistic value such as order, duty, or group membership, individualistic concepts of independence and autonomy emphasizing that "everybody has a right on a private life and

opinion" (Hofstede, 1979, p. 399) could be strongly associated with accommodative idea that respects each other's right to have their own voice heard.

The result also suggested that organizations in a society which values "nurturance, quality of life, and people" (p. 400) would be more likely to be involved in dialogue with external groups, therefore agreeing with many public relations researchers asserting that feministic values such as cooperation, respect, or interconnection are closely related to effective public relations practice (e.g. L. Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2000). And organizations in a society that respects more long-term oriented values such as perseverance or thrift would be more inclined toward dialogue with the external public. Since public relations is grounded on the basic assumption pursuing long-term relationship building with various publics around organizations beyond short-term one instantly made and quickly terminated, those values having the long-term perspective would affect more accommodative stances.

One cautionary note is that these findings cannot be hastily applied to a general comparison between different cultural domains because they are only describing pure relationships among them without considering these relationships' combined effect, or the possible impact from other types of factors; only after controlling for every other possible variable will these relationships remain valid. Nevertheless, by singling out the roles of sociocultural dimensions in affecting organizations' degree of accommodation, we could possibly envision the mechanism by which dynamic combination of cultural values shape a society's unique pattern of willingness to dialogue. Future research could explore this deeper by splitting the sample into several groups according to the degree of accommodation and analyzing the pattern of correlations among the groups.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Grounded on practitioners' appreciation of the "reality" of public relations practices, the contingency theory has brought us a better representation of the subtle, sophisticated nature of organizations' decision-making in conflict situations. This study attempted to confirm this reality of the multiplicity of contingencies by pursuing parsimony among the multiple contingency variables, thereby obtaining a briefer but more accurate picture of the theory. Moving further, it also sought to identify cultural variability in the theory by a cross-cultural study of U.S. and South Korean practitioners.

The scale building via confirmatory factor analysis was successful. The result confirmed that the array of the contingency variables is nicely categorized into the 11 contingency categories as theorized, therefore, it proved the categories' sufficient dimensionability to be "scales" measuring organizations' willingness to accommodate to external publics. These scales, depending on practitioners' understanding of contingencies surrounding their organizations, dynamically correlate with each other and influence public relations practitioners' decision-makings regarding the extent of accommodation. Moreover, the scales can not only define themselves as valid for representing vast numbers of contingency variables by subsuming them as indicators, but the scales themselves become indicators of a higher-order abstract "willingness

to dialogue" and achieve unidimensionality by creating a single domain of willingness to dialogue.

As mentioned earlier, strong correlations among the scales under external variables suggest that the structure of the contingency scales could also be explained by various multi-layer systems, which would be an interesting subject for future contingency research. Either by adding new higher-order factors such as external and internal variables, or by reorganizing the scales themselves according to their roles and creating a hierarchical structure, will more refined multi-layer models contribute to the dynamic relationships between contingency variables. Cameron et al.'s (2001) suggestion of a "decision tree" (p. 257) could be an example of a multi-layer model.

The results of this study also showed that the theoretical framework of contingency is equivalent across different national samples, therefore confirming that the contingency theory not only effectively describes public relations practices in the U.S., but is generalizable to different cultural settings such as South Korea. Additional surveys of contingency in more diverse cultures would be necessary to strengthen this argument.

Although the contingency scales are culturally equivalent, the strength of the scales' relationships and each scale's relevance in determining degree of accommodation differed significantly between the two cultures. A notable difference that encapsulates specific discrepancies between the results of the U.S. and South Korean samples were that South Korean practitioners are generally less willing to engage in dialogue with external publics than the U.S. practitioners, which may be an ultimate answer to this study's research questions.

This study did not go back to the individual scales and explain "why" they have different importance across cultures and therefore determine different degrees of accommodation. Since

the study dealt with more than 80 variables and 11 scales, finding all possible reasons and examining them is beyond this study's scope. Again, good explanations for these differences may not be explained by a single study; as generalized information obtained in this study has helped us understand the place of accommodation in the practice of public relations across different cultures, now more studies, including in-depth interviews and more surveys of specific subjects, need to go back to details and probe into the factors explaining why some cultures tend to accommodate more and some do not.

Understanding how sociocultural dimensions affect different degrees of accommodation would help in proceeding to an interpretation of cultural variability in the contingency scales. As the result of this study showed, Hofstede's five cultural dimensions influence organizations' decision-making either by driving or impeding accommodation with external groups.

Cultural dimensions demonstrated a consistent pattern in affecting willingness to dialogue, which is reflected in their relationships to contingency scales. As it is presented in the propositions above, we can expect that more willingness to dialogue is associated with smaller power distance, individualism, femininity, and long-term orientation. Future studies could achieve more generalizability of these propositions by examining the relationships between the contingency scales and cultural dimensions with more diverse samples.

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Table 1

86 Variables of the Contingency Theory

External Threats (ET)	
ETA	Litigation
ETB	Government publicity
ETC	Potentially damaging publicity
ETD	Scarring of company's reputation in business community and in the general public
ETE	Legitimizing activists' claims
Industry Environment (IE)	
IEA	Changing or static
IEB	# of competitors/level of competitions
IEC	Richness or leanness of resources in the environment
General Political/social environment (GC)	
GCA	Degree of political support of business
GCB	Degree of social support of business
External Public (EP)	
EPA	Size and /or number of members
EPB	Degree of source credibility/powerful members or connections
EPC	Past successes or failures of groups to evoke changes
EPD	Amount of advocacy practiced by organization
EPE	Level of commitment/involvement of members
EPF	Whether the group has public relations counselors or not
EPG	Public's perception of group
EPH	Level of media coverage the public has received in past
EPI	Whether representatives of the public know or like representatives of the organization
EPJ	Whether representatives of the organization know or like representatives or the public
EPK	Public's willingness to dilute its cause/request/claim
EPL	Moves or countermoves
EPM, EPN	Relative power of organization/public
Issue Under Question (IQ)	
IQA	Size
IQB	Stakes
IQC	Complexity
Corporation Characteristics (CC)	
CCA	Open or closed culture
CCB	Dispersed widely geographically or centralized

(Table 1 Continued)

CCC	Level of technology the corporation uses to produce its product or service/complexity of products and/or services
CCD	Homogeneity or heterogeneity of employees
CCE	Age of the corporation/value placed on tradition
CCF	Speed of growth in the knowledge level the corporation uses
CCG	Economic stability of the organization
CCH	Existence or nonexistence of issues management personnel or program
CCI	Corporation's past experiences with conflicting outside organizations: positive or negative
CCJ	Distribution of decision-making power
CCK	Formalization: Number of rules or codes defining and limiting the job descriptions or employees
CCL	Stratification/hierarchy of positions
CCM	Existence or influence of corporation legal department
CCN	Business exposure (product mix and customer mix)
CCO	Corporate culture
PR Department Characteristics (PR)	
PRA	Total number of practitioners and number with college degrees
PRB	Type of past training of employees
PRC	Location of public relations department in corporate hierarchy
PRD	Representation in the dominant coalition
PRE	Experience level of public relations practitioners in dealing with conflict
PRF	General communication competency of department
PRG	Autonomy of department
PRH	Physical placement of department in corporate building
PRI	Staff trained in research methods
PRJ	Amount of funding available for dealing with external publics
PRK	Amount of time allowed to use dealing with external publics
PRL	Gender: percentage of upper-level staff female
PRM	Potential of department to practice various models of public relations
Characteristics of Dominant Coalition (DC)	
DCA	Political values: conservative or liberal/open or closed to change
DCB	Management style: domineering or laid back
DCC	General altruism level
DCD	Support and understanding of public relations
DCE	Frequency of external contact with publics
DCF	Their perception of the organization's external environment
DCG	Their calculation of potential rewards or losses of using different strategies with external publics
DCH	Degree of line-managers involvement in external affairs

(Table 1 Continued)

Internal Threats (IT)	
ITA	Economic loss
ITB	Marring of employees' or stakeholders' perception of the company
ITC	Marring of the personal reputations of the company decision makers
Individual Characteristics (IC)	
ICA	Training in public relations, marketing, journalism, engineering, and so on
ICB	Personal ethics
ICC	Tolerance or ability to deal with uncertainty
ICD	Comfort level with conflict or dissonance
ICE	Comfort level with change
ICF	Ability to recognize potential and existing problems
ICG	Extent to which their perception of reality is open to innovation
ICH	Extent to which they can grasp others' worldviews
ICI	Personality: dogmatic or authoritarian
ICJ	Communication competency
ICK	Cognitive complexity: ability to handle complex problems
ICL	Predisposition toward negotiation
ICM	Predisposition toward altruism
ICN	How they receive, process, and use information and influence
ICO	Whether they know or are familiar with external public or their representative
ICP	Whether they like external public or their representative
ICQ	Gender: female versus male
Relationship Characteristics (RC)	
RCA	Level of trust between organization and external public
RCB	Dependency of parties involved
RCC	Ideological barriers between organization and public.

Table 2

Means of Contingency Items

Items	Descriptions	Means				*t* - value
		United States		South Korea		
		M	SD	M	SD	
ETA	When litigation is pending against my organization.	4.18	2.11	5.37	1.72	-5.20*
ETB	In the face of government regulation	5.31	1.70	5.10	1.51	1.22
ETC	When faced with potentially damaging publicity	5.99	1.39	5.54	1.58	2.80*
ETD	When the external public's position threatens my organization's reputation in the business community and in the general public	6.18	1.24	5.76	1,42	2.92*
ETE	If, by engaging in dialogue, I may be legitimizing the external public's claims	3.79	1.84	3.69	1.73	.48
IEA	If the industry in which my organization functions is static rather than changing fast	4.94	1.60	4.50	1.43	2.62*
IEB	If the level of competition in my organization's industry is high	5.90	1.33	5.93	1.18	-.22
IEC	If the resources within my industry seem to be modest	5.34	1.45	5.06	1.52	1.65
GCA	If my organization lacks political support	5.37	1.66	4.93	1.57	2.46*
GCB	If there is not enough social support of my organization's business	5.59	1.54	5.32	1.45	1.62
EPA	If the external public has relatively small number of members	4.97	1.57	4.81	1.31	.91
EPB	If the external public lacks credibility	3.37	1.88	3.13	1.78	1.17

(Table 2 Continued)

		United States		South Korea		*t* - value
		M	SD	M	SD	
EPC	If the external public has failed to evoke change in the past.	4.12	1.57	3.82	1.48	1.75
EPD	If my organization lacks strong advocacy.	4.88	1.57	4.22	1.67	3.56*
EPE	If the external public's members are highly committed to their goal.	5.59	1.25	5.02	1.60	3.77*
EPF	If the external public does not have (a) public relations counselor/counselors.	5.19	1.37	5.01	1.30	1.21
EPG	If the general public's perception of the external public is radical.	4.03	1.80	5.17	1.21	-5.98*
EPH	If the external public has received substantial media coverage in the past.	5.57	1.22	5.35	1.32	1.56
EPI	If the representatives of the external public know or like the representatives of my organization.	5.86	1.22	5.35	1.39	3.37*
EPJ	If the representatives of my organization know or like representatives of the external public.	5.87	1.24	5.40	1.34	3.15*
EPK	If the external public is willing to dilute its cause/request/claim.	5.13	1.43	5.70	1.16	-3.72*
EPL	If there are frequent moves and countermoves in the situation.	5.03	1.53	5.38	1.33	-2.26*
EPM/ EPN	If the external public is relatively powerful compared to my organization.	5.57	1.33	5.29	1.26	1.94
IQA	If the issue under question is substantial	6.10	1.12	6.10	1.19	-.00
IQB	If there is a lot at stake with the issue under question	6.09	1.19	5.37	1.42	5.17
IQC	If the issue under question is complex	5.72	1.30	5.00	1.50	4.40*
CCA	If my organization has an open culture	5.95	1.26	5.67	1.19	2.00*

(Table 2 Continued)

		United States		South Korea		*t* - value
		M	SD	M	SD	
CCB	If my organization is geographically dispersed.	5.53	1.34	5.02	1.33	3.40*
CCC	If my organization uses a high level of technology to produce its product or service.	5.38	1.40	5.77	1.18	-2.54*
CCD	If my staff works well together	5.56	1.34	5.80	1.21	-1.65*
CCE	If my organization is older and well-established	5.56	1.33	5.22	1.19	2.34*
CCF	If the knowledge level of my organization advances quickly	5.74	1.20	5.62	1.16	.86
CCG	If my organization is economically stable	5.67	1.22	5.32	1.26	2.50*
CCH	If my organization has issues management personnel or an issues management program.	5.48	1.41	5.89	1.25	-2.65*
CCI	If my organization has had past negative experiences with conflicting outside organizations.	4.85	1.58	4.68	1.69	.90
CCJ	If my organization's decision-making power is centralized	5.28	1.31	4.17	1.44	7.00*
CCK	If there are lots of rules defining and limiting the job descriptions of employees in my organization	4.37	1.45	4.13	1.57	1.36
CCL	If my organization is highly stratified or hierarchical in structure	4.51	1.49	3.99	1.47	3.17*
CCM	If my organization has an influential in-house legal department	4.60	1.65	4.74	1.43	-.89
CCN	If my organization has a wide business exposure (product and customer mix).	5.62	1.25	5.39	1.34	1.56
CCO	If my organization has a strong corporate culture	5.61	1.24	5.32	1.15	2.25*
PRA	If there are several practitioners with college degrees in my department	5.21	1.37	4.82	1.25	2.58*

(Table 2 Continued)

		United States		South Korea		*t* - value
		M	SD	M	SD	
PRB	If the employees in my department have been trained in marketing in the past.	5.32	1.30	4.99	1.16	2.30*
PRC	If public relations department is not subservient to another department in my organization's hierarchy	5.60	1.31	5.35	1.34	1.70*
PRD	If public relations is represented in my organization's top decision-making structure	6.13	1.05	6.02	1.17	.90
PRE	If the public relations practitioners have substantial experience in dealing with conflict.	6.25	.94	6.13	1.03	1.07
PRF	If the public relations department is competent in general communication	6.13	.99	5.92	1.21	1.80
PRG	If the public relations department is independent from organizational authority	5.31	1.43	6.02	1.26	-4.54*
PRH	If the public relations office is physically located close to decision makers	5.41	1.33	5.83	1.26	-2.83*
PRI	If the public relations department has a staff trained in research methods	5.47	1.26	5.61	1.34	-.95
PRJ	If the public relations department has sufficient funding available for dealing with external publics	5.98	1.14	5.87	.99	.97
PRK	If there is enough time allowed to adequately deal with the external publics	6.10	1.05	5.94	1.03	1.40
PRL	If there is a high percentage of women among the upper-level staff in my organization	4.66	1.24	4.86	1.28	-1.43
PRM	If the public relations department is qualified to practice various specialties within public relations	5.58	1.23	5.94	1.10	-2.67*

(Table 2 Continued)

		United States		South Korea		*t* - value
		M	SD	M	SD	
DCA	If my organization's top decision-making group is politically conservative	4.31	1.37	3.87	1.41	2.80*
DCB	If my organization's top management style is domineering	3.76	1.58	3.86	1.50	-.59
DCC	If my organization's top decision-making group is altruistic	5.04	1.39	4.65	1.57	2.39*
DCD	If my organization's top decision-making group support and understand public relations	6.16	1.06	6.11	1.01	.42
DCE	If the top decision-making group of my organization frequently has contact with the external public	6.14	1.09	5.72	1.23	3.32*
DCF	If my organization's top decision-making group's perception of external environment is negative	3.87	1.75	4.02	1.81	.76
DCG	If the top decision-making group of my organization expects potential losses based on the different strategies for dealing with the external public	4.09	1.74	3.90	1.79	.95
DCH	If the line-managers in my organization are more involved in external affairs	5.23	1.34	5.14	1.21	.64
ITA	If economic loss is likely in that situation	3.96	1.91	4.04	1.79	-.38
ITB	If there are threats of marring of employees' or stakeholders' perception of the company	4.30	2.04	3.94	1.95	1.61
ITC	If there are threats of marring of the personal reputations of the company decision makers	4.16	2.01	3.90	1.83	1.17
ICA	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have formal training in their specialties	5.68	1.20	5.43	1.20	1.87

(Table 2 Continued)

		United States		South Korea		*t* - value
		M	SD	M	SD	
ICB	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have a strong sense of personal ethics	5.81	1.15	5.31	1.33	3.45*
ICC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have enough tolerance or ability to deal with uncertainty	5.81	1.14	5.50	1.24	2.31*
ICD	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are comfortable with conflict or dissonance	5.82	1.16	5.20	1.52	4.44*
ICE	If the public relations practitioners in my organization feel comfortable with change	5.80	1.14	5.18	1.52	4.37*
ICF	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to recognize potential and existing problems	5.93	1.06	5.33	1.24	4.90*
ICG	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are innovative	5.93	1.15	5.69	1.21	1.72
ICH	If the public relations practitioners in my organization can grasp others' worldview	5.91	1.14	5.46	1.21	3.37*
ICI	If the public relations practitioners' personalities are authoritarian	3.95	1.52	3.64	1.57	1.75
ICJ	If the public relations practitioners in my organization has communication competency	5.84	1.13	5.68	1.30	1.22
ICK	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to handle complex problems	5.96	1.12	5.64	1.37	2.42*

(Table 2 Continued)

		United States		South Korea		*t* - value
		M	SD	M	SD	
ICL	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward negotiation	5.44	1.34	5.51	1.24	-.51*
ICM	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward altruism	5.10	1.34	4.82	1.35	1.85
ICN	If public relations practitioners in my organization are quick to receive, process, and use information and influence	5.95	1.10	5.71	1.27	1.80
ICO	If the public relations practitioners know or are familiar with the external public or their representatives	6.16	1.00	5.63	1.27	4.38*
ICP	If the public relations practitioners in my organization likes the external public or its representatives	5.67	1.24	5.31	1.29	2.54*
ICQ	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predominantly women	4.62	1.21	4.51	1.23	.73
RCA	If my organization and the external public trust each other	5.99	1.16	5.75	1.27	1.81
RCB	If there is high level of dependency between my organization and the external public	6.12	1.13	5.72	1.27	3.01*
RCC	If there are ideological barriers between my organization and the external public	4.52	1.63	4.13	1.75	2.00*

* denotes significant at $\alpha = .05$

Table 3

Reliability Coefficients for the Contingency Scales

Contingency Scales	Cronbach's Alpha		
	Pooled	U.S.	South Korea
External Threats	.74	.75	.78
Industry Environment	.76	.78	.66
General Political/Social Environment/External Culture	.85	.86	.79
External Public	.87	.88	.85
Issue Under Question	.88	.91	.83
Corporate Characteristics	.93	.94	.92
Public Relations Department Characteristics	.93	.94	.92
Dominant Coalition Characteristics	.74	.76	.65
Internal Threats	.91	.91	.90
Individual Characteristics	.96	.96	.95
Relationship Characteristics	.62	.62	.65

Table 4

Factor Loadings of the Contingency Variables in the First-Order CFA Model*

Items	Descriptions	Loadings
ETA ← ET	When litigation is pending against my organization.	.441
ETB ← ET	In the face of government regulation	.709
ETC ← ET	When faced with potentially damaging publicity	.723
ETD ← ET	When the external public's position threatens my organization's reputation in the business community and in the general public	.888
IEA ← IE	If the industry in which my organization functions is static rather than changing fast	.688
IEB ← IE	If the level of competition in my organization's industry is high	.678
IEC ← IE	If the resources within my industry seem to be modest	.784
GCA ← GC	If my organization lacks political support	.882
GCB ← GC	If there is not enough social support of my organization's business	.840
EPA ← EP	If the external public has relatively small number of members	.491
EPD ← EP	If my organization lacks strong advocacy.	.540
EPE ← EP	If the external public's members are highly committed to their goal.	.703
EPF ← EP	If the external public does not have (a) public relations counselor/counselors.	.686
EPH ← EP	If the external public has received substantial media coverage in the past.	.744
EPI ← EP	If the representatives of the external public know or like the representatives of my organization.	.638
EPJ ← EP	If the representatives of my organization know or like representatives of the external public.	.635
EPK ← EP	If the external public is willing to dilute its cause/request/claim.	.547
EPL ← EP	If there are frequent moves and countermoves in the situation.	.683
EPM/ EPN ← EP	If the external public is relatively powerful compared to my organization.	.752
IQA ← IQ	If the issue under question is substantial	.879
IQB ← IQ	If there is a lot at stake with the issue under question	.866
IQC ← IQ	If the issue under question is complex	.874

(Table 4 Continued)

Items	Descriptions	Loadings
CCA ← CC	If my organization has an open culture	.732
CCB ← CC	If my organization is geographically dispersed.	.774
CCC ← CC	If my organization uses a high level of technology to produce its product or service.	.727
CCD ← CC	If my staff works well together	.778
CCE ← CC	If my organization is older and well-established	.710
CCF ← CC	If the knowledge level of my organization advances quickly	.792
CCG ← CC	If my organization is economically stable	.753
CCH ← CC	If my organization has issues management personnel or an issues management program.	.638
CCI ← CC	If my organization has had past negative experiences with conflicting outside organizations.	.647
CCJ ← CC	If my organization's decision-making power is centralized	.576
CCK ← CC	If there are lots of rules defining and limiting the job descriptions of employees in my organization	.552
CCL ← CC	If my organization is highly stratified or hierarchical in structure	.585
CCM ← CC	If my organization has an influential in-house legal department	.546
CCN ← CC	If my organization has a wide business exposure (product and customer mix).	.765
CCO ← CC	If my organization has a strong corporate culture	.727
PRA ← PR	If there are several practitioners with college degrees in my department	.733
PRB ← PR	If the employees in my department have been trained in marketing in the past.	.713
PRC ← PR	If public relations department is not subservient to another department in my organization's hierarchy	.766
PRD ← PR	If public relations is represented in my organization's top decision-making structure	.742
PRE ← PR	If the public relations practitioners have substantial experience in dealing with conflict.	.763
PRF ← PR	If the public relations department is competent in general communication	.744
PRG ← PR	If the public relations department is independent from organizational authority	.598
PRH ← PR	If the public relations office is physically located close to decision makers	.693
PRI ← PR	If the public relations department has a staff trained in research methods	.743

(Table 4 Continued)

Items	Descriptions	Loadings
PRJ ← PR	If the public relations department has sufficient funding available for dealing with external publics	.716
PRK ← PR	If there is enough time allowed to adequately deal with the external publics	.731
PRL ← PR	If there is a high percentage of women among the upper-level staff in my organization	.587
PRM ← PR	If the public relations department is qualified to practice various specialties within public relations	.774
DCA ← DC	If my organization's top decision-making group is politically conservative	.516
DCC ← DC	If my organization's top decision-making group is altruistic	.568
DCD ← DC	If my organization's top decision-making group support and understand public relations	.751
DCE ← DC	If the top decision-making group of my organization frequently has contact with the external public	.568
DCH ← DC	If the line-managers in my organization are more involved in external affairs	.564
ITA ← IT	If economic loss is likely in that situation	.759
ITB ← IT	If there are threats of marring of employees' or stakeholders' perception of the company	.956
ITC ← IT	If there are threats of marring of the personal reputations of the company decision makers	.923
ICA ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have formal training in their specialties	.769
ICB ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have a strong sense of personal ethics	.675
ICC ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have enough tolerance or ability to deal with uncertainty	.843
ICD ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are comfortable with conflict or dissonance	.794
ICE ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization feel comfortable with change	.808
ICF ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to recognize potential and existing problems	.822
ICG ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are innovative	.840

(Table 4 Continued)

Items	Descriptions	Loadings
ICH ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization can grasp others' worldview	.867
ICJ ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization has communication competency	.857
ICK ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to handle complex problems	.868
ICL ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward negotiation	.685
ICM ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward altruism	.583
ICN ← IC	If public relations practitioners in my organization are quick to receive, process, and use information and influence	.782
ICO ← IC	If the public relations practitioners know or are familiar with the external public or their representatives	.718
ICP ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization likes the external public or its representatives	.644
ICQ ← IC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predominantly women	.528
RCA ← RC	If my organization and the external public trust each other	.831
RCB ← RC	If there is high level of dependency between my organization and the external public	.781
RCC ← RC	If there are ideological barriers between my organization and the external public	.565

* standardized factor loadings.

Table 5

Covariances Between the Contingency Scales in First-Order CFA Model

Items	Covariances
ET – IE	.692
ET – GC	.661
ET – EP	.516
ET – IQ	.898
ET – CC	.512
ET – PR	.486
ET – DC	.362
ET – IT	.430
ET – IC	.439
ET – RC	.503
IE – GC	1.234
IE – EP	.659
IE – IQ	.834
IE – CC	.723
IE – PR	.702
IE – DC	.473
IE – IT	.365
IE – IC	.591
IE – RC	.636
GC – EP	.627
GC – IQ	.884
GC – CC	.653
GC – PR	.623
GC – DC	.450
GC – IT	.368
GC – IC	.571
GC – RC	.647
EP – IQ	.677
EP – CC	.566
EP – PR	.492
EP – DC	.346
EP – IT	.332
EP – IC	.420
EP – RC	.460
IQ – CC	.767
IQ – PR	.652
IQ – DC	.526
IQ – IT	.509

(Table 5 Continued)

Items	Covariances
IQ – IC	.602
IQ – RC	.673
CC – PR	.724
CC – DC	.475
CC – IT	.388
CC – IC	.601
CC – RC	.573
PR – DC	.587
PR – IT	.264
PR – IC	.776
PR – RC	.692
DC – IT	.237
DC – IC	.516
DC – RC	.501
IT – IC	.316
IT – RC	.375
IC – RC	.710

Table 6

Contingency Variables in the First- and Second-Order Model

Items	Decriptions	First-Order	Second-Order
ETA	When litigation is pending against my organization.	O	O
ETB	In the face of government regulation	O	O
ETC	When faced with potentially damaging publicity	O	O
ETD	When the external public's position threatens my organization's reputation in the business community and in the general public	O	O
ETE	If, by engaging in dialogue, I may be legitimizing the external public's claims	X	X
IEA	If the industry in which my organization functions is static rather than changing fast	O	O
IEB	If the level of competition in my organization's industry is high	O	O
IEC	If the resources within my industry seem to be modest	O	O
GCA	If my organization lacks political support	O	O
GCB	If there is not enough social support of my organization's business	O	O
EPA	If the external public has relatively small number of members	O	O
EPB	If the external public lacks credibility	X	X
EPC	If the external public has failed to evoke change in the past.	X	O
EPD	If my organization lacks strong advocacy.	O	O
EPE	If the external public's members are highly committed to their goal.	O	O
EPF	If the external public does not have (a) public relations counselor/counselors.	O	O
EPG	If the general public's perception of the external public is radical.	X	O
EPH	If the external public has received substantial media coverage in the past.	O	O
EPI	If the representatives of the external public know or like the representatives of my organization.	O	O

(Table 6 Continued)

Items	Decriptions	First-Order	Second-Order
EPJ	If the representatives of my organization know or like representatives of the external public.	O	O
EPK	If the external public is willing to dilute its cause/request/claim.	O	O
EPL	If there are frequent moves and countermoves in the situation.	O	O
EPM/ EPN	If the external public is relatively powerful compared to my organization.	O	O
IQA	If the issue under question is substantial	O	O
IQB	If there is a lot at stake with the issue under question	O	O
IQC	If the issue under question is complex	O	O
CCA	If my organization has an open culture	O	X
CCB	If my organization is geographically dispersed.	O	O
CCC	If my organization uses a high level of technology to produce its product or service.	O	O
CCD	If my staff works well together	O	O
CCE	If my organization is older and well-established	O	O
CCF	If the knowledge level of my organization advances quickly	O	O
CCG	If my organization is economically stable	O	O
CCH	If my organization has issues management personnel or an issues management program.	O	X
CCI	If my organization has had past negative experiences with conflicting outside organizations.	O	O
CCJ	If my organization's decision-making power is centralized	O	O
CCK	If there are lots of rules defining and limiting the job descriptions of employees in my organization	O	O
CCL	If my organization is highly stratified or hierarchical in structure	O	O
CCM	If my organization has an influential in-house legal department	O	O
CCN	If my organization has a wide business exposure (product and customer mix).	O	O
CCO	If my organization has a strong corporate culture	O	O
PRA	If there are several practitioners with college degrees in my department	O	O
PRB	If the employees in my department have been trained in marketing in the past.	O	X

(Table 6 Continued)

Items	Decriptions	First-Order	Second-Order
PRC	If public relations department is not subservient to another department in my organization's hierarchy	O	O
PRD	If public relations is represented in my organization's top decision-making structure	O	O
PRE	If the public relations practitioners have substantial experience in dealing with conflict.	O	O
PRF	If the public relations department is competent in general communication	O	O
PRG	If the public relations department is independent from organizational authority	O	O
PRH	If the public relations office is physically located close to decision makers	O	O
PRI	If the public relations department has a staff trained in research methods	O	O
PRJ	If the public relations department has sufficient funding available for dealing with external publics	O	O
PRK	If there is enough time allowed to adequately deal with the external publics	O	O
PRL	If there is a high percentage of women among the upper-level staff in my organization	O	O
PRM	If the public relations department is qualified to practice various specialties within public relations	O	O
DCA	If my organization's top decision-making group is politically conservative	O	X
DCB	If my organization's top management style is domineering	X	X
DCC	If my organization's top decision-making group is altruistic	O	O
DCD	If my organization's top decision-making group support and understand public relations	O	O
DCE	If the top decision-making group of my organization frequently has contact with the external public	O	O
DCF	If my organization's top decision-making group's perception of external environment is negative	X	X
DCG	If the top decision-making group of my organization expects potential losses based on the different strategies for dealing with the external public	X	X
DCH	If the line-managers in my organization are more involved in external affairs	O	X

(Table 6 Continued)

Items	Decriptions	First-Order	Second-Order
ITA	If economic loss is likely in that situation	O	O
ITB	If there are threats of marring of employees' or stakeholders' perception of the company	O	O
ITC	If there are threats of marring of the personal reputations of the company decision makers	O	O
ICA	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have formal training in their specialties	O	O
ICB	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have a strong sense of personal ethics	O	O
ICC	If the public relations practitioners in my organization have enough tolerance or ability to deal with uncertainty	O	O
ICD	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are comfortable with conflict or dissonance	O	O
ICE	If the public relations practitioners in my organization feel comfortable with change	O	O
ICF	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to recognize potential and existing problems	O	O
ICG	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are innovative	O	O
ICH	If the public relations practitioners in my organization can grasp others' worldview	O	O
ICI	If the public relations practitioners' personalities are authoritarian	X	X
ICJ	If the public relations practitioners in my organization has communication competency	O	O
ICK	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to handle complex problems	O	O
ICL	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward negotiation	O	O
ICM	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward altruism	O	O
ICN	If public relations practitioners in my organization are quick to receive, process, and use information and influence	O	O
ICO	If the public relations practitioners know or are familiar with the external public or their representatives	O	O

(Table 6 Continued)

Items	Decriptions	First-Order	Second-Order
ICP	If the public relations practitioners in my organization likes the external public or its representatives	O	O
ICQ	If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predominantly women	O	O
RCA	If my organization and the external public trust each other	O	O
RCB	If there is high level of dependency between my organization and the external public	O	O
RCC	If there are ideological barriers between my organization and the external public	O	X

*X denotes that the variable is excluded from the model building.

Table 7

Model Comparison for the First-Order CFA Model

	χ^2 value	*Df*	SRMR	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Configural Invariance	10449.65	5304	.06	.82	.84	.04
Full Metric Invariance	10559.63	5370	.06	.82	.84	.04
Initial Partial Scalar Invariance	11145.62	5447	.07	.81	.82	.05
Final Partial Scalar Invariance	10959.40	5441	.06	.82	.83	.04

Table 8

Latent Mean difference for the First-Order CFA Model*

	Mean difference	*SD*
ET	.350**	.137
IE	.209	.130
GC	.377**	.167
EP	.179**	.087
IQ	.431**	.127
CC	.221**	.106
PR	.086	.112
DC	.172**	.078
IT	.205	.158
IC	.294**	.108
RC	.307**	.113

* Default group was the U.S. sample

** denotes significant at $\alpha = .05$

Table 9

Covariances Between Contingency Scales

	Covariances	
	United States	South Korea
ET – IE	.657	.755
ET – GC	.651	.583
ET – EP	.482	.571
ET – IQ	.710	1.273
ET – CC	.480	.514
ET – PR	.519	.257
ET – DC	.379	.219
ET – IT	.435	.378
ET – IC	.467	.244
ET – RC	.550	.264
IE – GC	1.211	1.325
IE – EP	.698	.496
IE – IQ	.712	.833
IE – CC	.769	.498
IE – PR	.773	.359
IE – DC	.528	.241
IE – IT	.432	.032
IE – IC	.639	.326
IE – RC	.736	.236
GC – EP	.676	.411
GC – IQ	.808	.664
GC – CC	.732	.322
GC – PR	.735	.180
GC – DC	.517	.191
GC – IT	.409	.145
GC – IC	.633	.252
GC – RC	.756	.243
EP – IQ	.595	.641
EP – CC	.606	.366
EP – PR	.565	.197
EP – DC	.406	.145
EP – IT	.369	.159
EP – IC	.483	.153
EP – RC	.535	.191
IQ – CC	.679	.579
IQ – PR	.640	.287
IQ – DC	.503	.340
IQ – IT	.438	.611

(Table 9 Continued)

	United States	South Korea
IQ – IC	.563	.378
IQ – RC	.665	.324
CC – PR	.812	.319
CC – DC	.548	.199
CC – IT	.428	.165
CC – IC	.665	.307
CC – RC	.664	.214
PR – DC	.676	.233
PR – IT	.346	.025
PR – IC	.853	.399
PR – RC	.805	.241
DC – IT	.272	.128
DC – IC	.551	.301
DC – RC	.567	.217
IT – IC	.329	.191
IT – RC	.361	.394
IC – RC	.733	.439

Table 10

Model Comparison for the Second-Order CFA Model

	χ^2 value	*df*	SRMR	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Configural Invariance	9235.46	4728	.06	.84	85	.04
Metric Invariance – first-order loadings	9345.9	4789	.06	.84	.85	.04
Metric Invariance – first and second-order loadings	9359.7	4800	.06	.84	.85	.04
Initial Partial Scalar Invariance	9980.3	4872	.06	.82	.83	.05
Final Partial Scalar Invariance	9670.5	4856	.06	.83	.84	.04

Table 11

Hofstede's Cultural Dimension Scores

	United States		South Korea		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*T*
PDI	3.52	40.89	-2.52	49.89	1.08
IDV	107.45	42.05	96.58	44.54	2.19*
MAS	23.63	82.93	2.77	77.21	2.36*
UAI	62.58	62.11	95.99	47.04	-5.00*
LTO	42.15	21.05	48.32	19.03	-2.81*

* denotes significant at $\alpha = .05$

Table 12

Correlations Between Five Cultural Dimensions and The Contingency Scales (U.S.)

	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
ET	r = -.123* (p = .019)	r = .176* (p = .001)	r = -.100 (p = .056)	r = .043 (p = .409)	r = .132* (p = .012)
IE	r = -.077 (p = .143)	r = .179* (p = .001)	r = -.128* (p = .014)	r = -.006 (p = .911)	r = .068 (p = .198)
GC	r = -.121* (p = .021)	r = .090 (p = .087)	r = -.156* (p = .003)	r = -.012 (p = .814)	r = .020 (p = .703)
EP	r = -.131* (p = .012)	r = .113* (p = .031)	r = -.102 (p = .051)	r = .023 (p = .658)	r = .102 (p = .053)
IQ	r = -.149* (p = .004)	r = .078 (p = .136)	r = -.116* (p = .027)	r = .006 (p = .902)	r = .122* (p = .020)
CC	r = -.132* (p = .012)	r = .075 (p = .151)	r = -.095 (p = .070)	r = .010 (p = .847)	r = .120* (p = .022)
PR	r = -.062 (p = .235)	r = .138* (p = .009)	r = -.154* (p = .003)	r = .021 (p = .694)	r = .073 (p = .162)
DC	r = -.085 (p = .105)	r = .141* (p = .007)	r = -.154* (p = .003)	r = -.006 (p = .907)	r = .121* (p = .021)
IT	r = -.069 (p = .192)	r = .045 (p = .396)	r = -.045 (p = .396)	r = -.034 (p = .514)	r = .165* (p = .002)
IC	r = -.108* (p = .039)	r = .130* (p = .013)	r = -.127* (p = .015)	r = -.017 (p = .741)	r = .109* (p = .038)
RC	r = -.085 (p = .104)	r = .136* (p = .010)	r = -.148* (p = .005)	r = -.033 (p = .527)	r = .096 (p = .067)

Table 13

Correlations Between Five Cultural Dimensions and The Contingency Scales (South Korea)

	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
ET	*r* = -.024 (*p* = .813)	*r* = .083 (*p* = .407)	*r* = -.068 (*p* = .499)	*r* = .078 (*p* = .439)	*r* = .132 (*p* = .189)
IE	*r* = .014 (*p* = .890)	*r* = .196* (*p* = .050)	*r* = -.116 (*p* = .247)	*r* = .054 (*p* = .590)	*r* = -.001 (*p* = .989)
GC	*r* = .206* (*p* = .039)	*r* = .021 (*p* = .836)	*r* = -.043 (*p* = .667)	*r* = -.011 (*p* = .914)	*r* = .060 (*p* = .552)
EP	*r* = -.048 (*p* = .631)	*r* = .158 (*p* = .115)	*r* = -.062 (*p* = .539)	*r* = .013 (*p* = .898)	*r* = .107 (*p* = .285)
IQ	*r* = .036 (*p* = .723)	*r* = .179 (*p* = .073)	*r* = -.072 (*p* = .471)	*r* = .091 (*p* = .365)	*r* = .016 (*p* = .873)
CC	*r* = -.189 (*p* = .059)	*r* = .225* (*p* = .023)	*r* = -.110 (*p* = .274)	*r* = -.101 (*p* = .313)	*r* = .103 (*p* = .306)
PR	*r* = -.054 (*p* = .595)	*r* = .229* (*p* = .021)	*r* = -.170 (*p* = .090)	*r* = .044 (*p* = .664)	*r* = .093 (*p* = .356)
DC	*r* = -.050 (*p* = .616)	*r* = .270* (*p* = .006)	*r* = -.100 (*p* = .321)	*r* = .-.051 (*p* = .612)	*r* = -.047 (*p* = .638)
IT	*r* = -.029 (*p* = .776)	*r* = .203* (*p* = .042)	*r* = .052 (*p* = .603)	*r* = .-.005 (*p* = .961)	*r* = -.004 (*p* = .970)
IC	*r* = -.040 (*p* = .692)	*r* = .294* (*p* = .003)	*r* = -.106 (*p* = .292)	*r* = .050 (*p* = .616)	*r* = -.059 (*p* = .560)
RC	*r* = -.062 (*p* = .539)	*r* = .209* (*p* = .035)	*r* = -.039 (*p* = .699)	*r* = -.039 (*p* = .699)	*r* = -.005 (*p* = .963)

Figure 1

First-Order CFA Model of the Contingency Theory

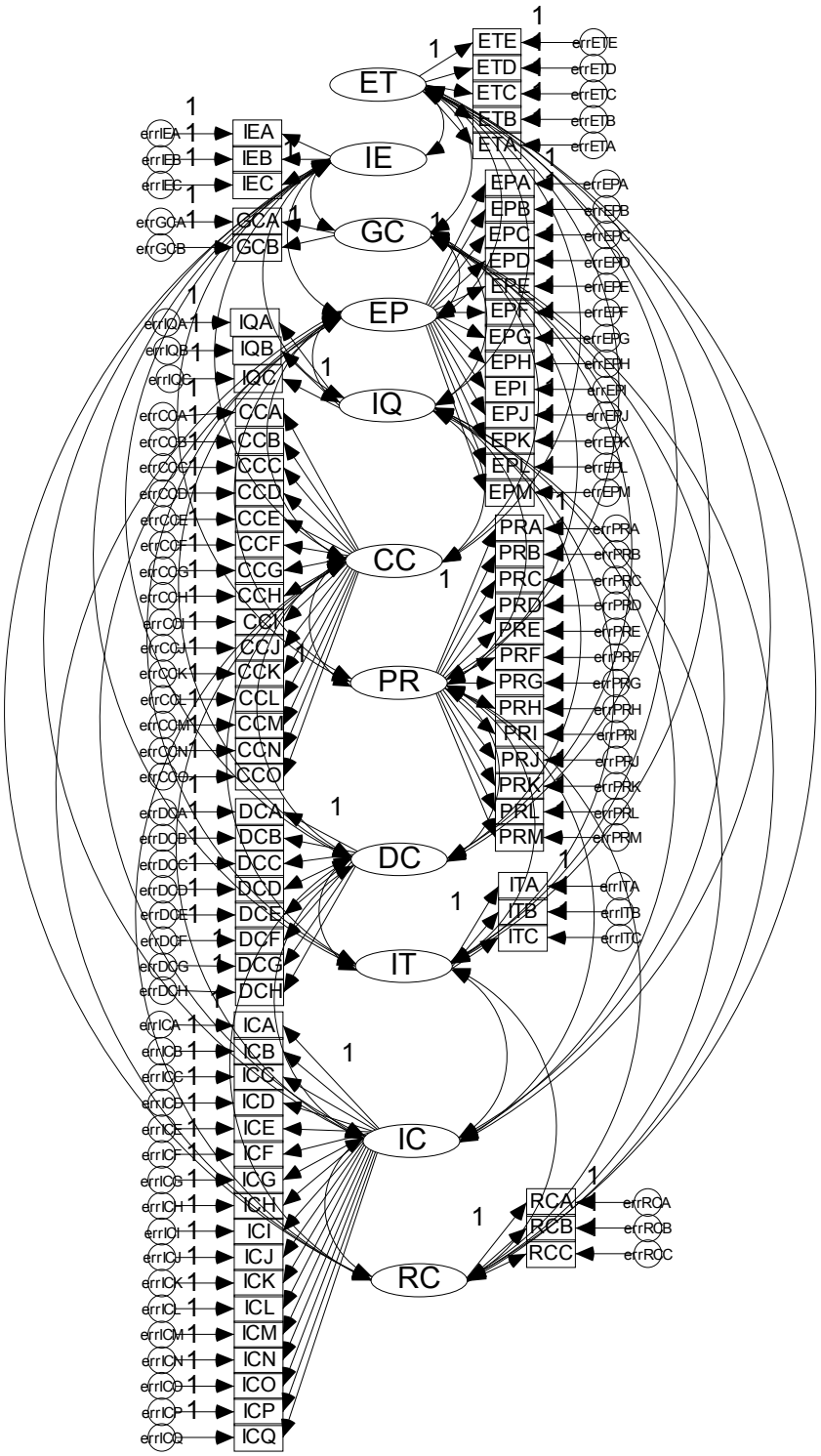


Figure 2

First-Order CFA Model of the Contingency Theory

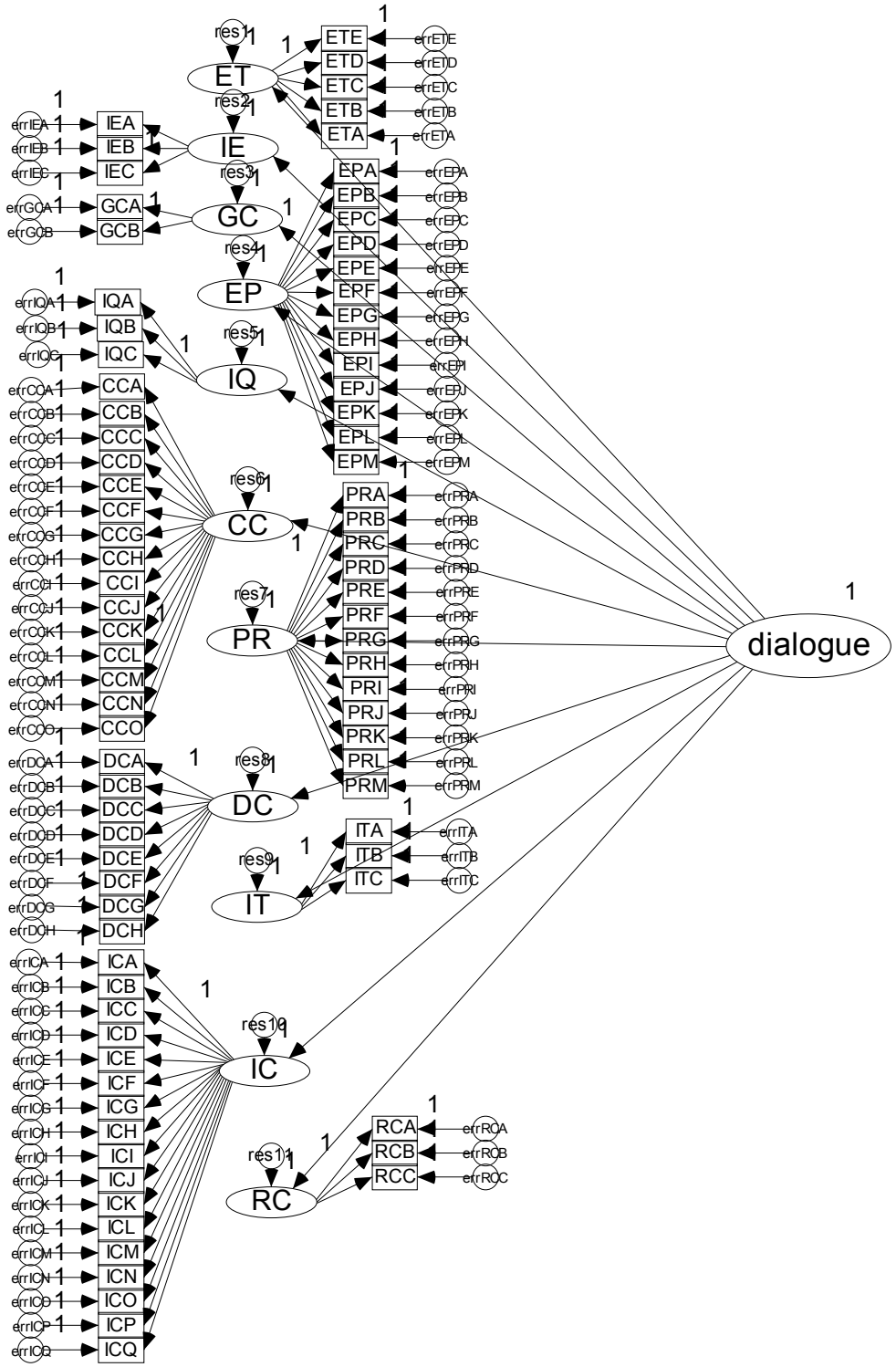
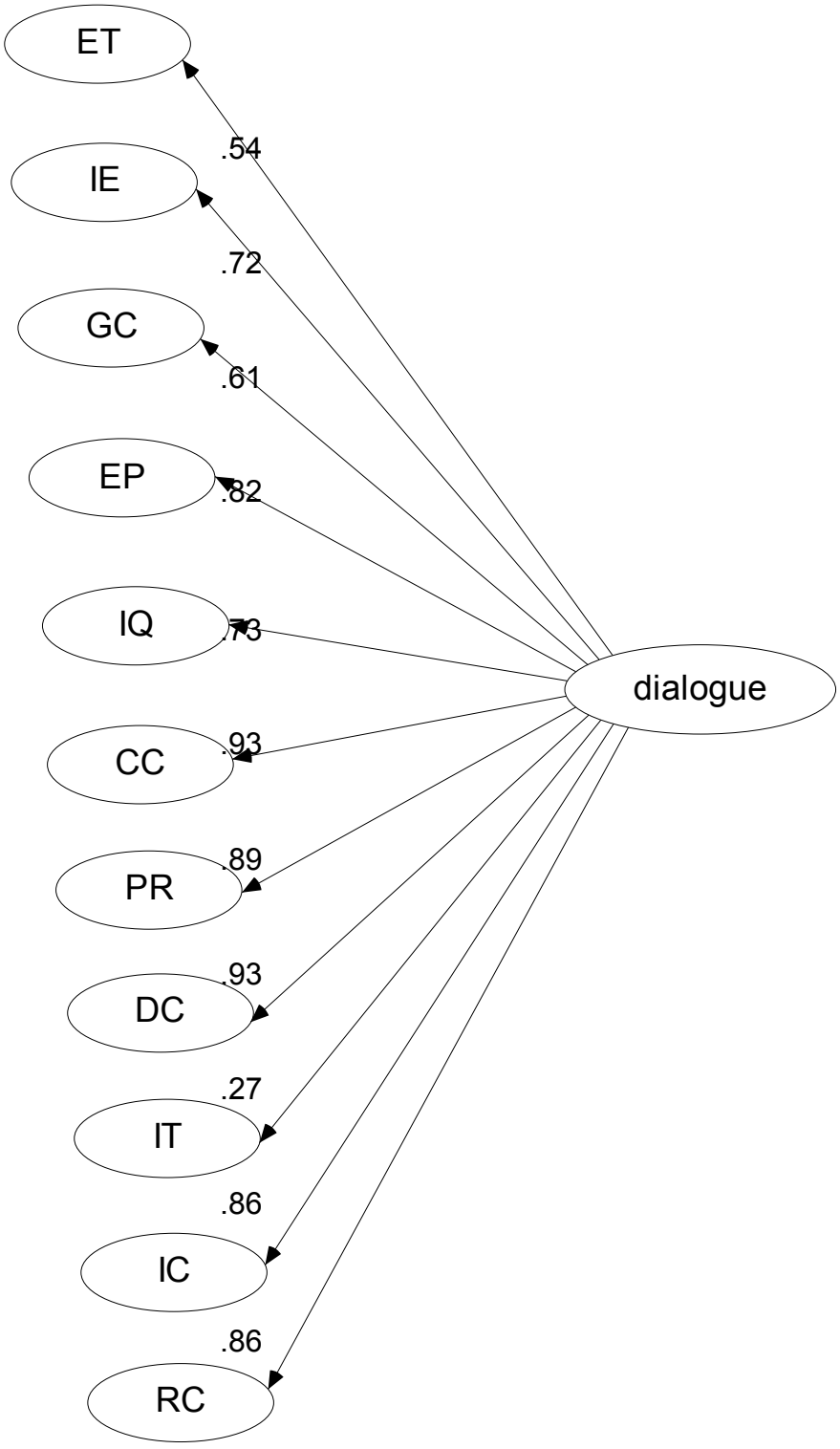


Figure 3

Hypotheses Test of the Second-Order CFA Model



* The error terms are not depicted for simplification purposes.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

E-MAIL INVITATION MESSAGE (U.S)

Dear public elations practitioner,

Hello, my name is Jungwon Lee, a graduate student studying public relations at the University of Georgia under the direction of Dr. Bryan H. Reber. I am writing to ask if you would volunteer to take part in a web survey for my Master's thesis. Your opinion is imperative; your professional insights will contribute to an academic effort to help build the body of knowledge in public relations.

The purpose of my thesis is to examine public relations practitioners' attitudes about contingencies in decision-making in a conflict situation with an external public, and its relationship with the work-related cultural values. Based on valuable insights from PR practitioners like you, this study will provide a better understanding of the dynamic variables that affect the organization's willingness to dialogue with external publics. This survey is also being sent to South Korean practitioners to look for any cultural differences.

Here are some issues regarding your participation in this survey:

- The link below will take you to the web survey. Please read the introductions carefully and answer the survey questions. The survey will take about 15-20 minutes.

- When you feel that you do not have enough time to complete this survey at one time, you could also leave the survey and then resume it later by clicking "save & continue this survey later" on the left top of the survey screen. By default, the web survey places a cookie on your browser, so you will be routed to the last completed page you left off from when you resume, as long as you use the same computer.

Below is the link to the web survey. Please click on this link or copy and paste it onto your web browser.

<survey web URL>

Please let me know (jungwonly@gmail.com) if you have any questions about this survey or any problems with completing the survey. Again, your opinion is desperately needed and sincerely valued! Thank you for your time and consideration.

Best regards,
Jungwon Lee

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (U.S.)

Subject Consent

I agree to participate in the research titled "Cross-Cultural Study of the Contingency Theory," which is being conducted by Jungwon Lee, a graduate student in the Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication at the University of Georgia under the direction of Dr. Bryan H. Reber (706-542-3178). I understand that this participation is entirely voluntary; I can refuse to participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have information related to me returned to me, removed from the research record, or destroyed.

The purpose of the research is to examine public relations practitioners' understanding about contingencies in decision-making in a conflict situation with an external public, and its relationship with the work-related values based on culture. The result of this study is expected to provide significant knowledge about the organization's dynamic public relations decision-making process by understanding the dynamic contingency variables creating the organization's willingness to accommodate with the public and identifying cultural variability among these variables.

No discomforts, stresses or risks are expected in participating in this study. I will be given the opportunity to receive the results of the study.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to answer a set of questions asking my degree of agreement about 1) contingency variables in accommodating with an external public; 2) work-related attitudes and behaviors. My part will last approximately 15-20 minutes.

Please note that Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. I understand that my participation is confidential; once the surveys are submitted, the result will be stored on a password protected computer, and the results of this participation will remain confidential without any names or contact information.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached at: jungwon@uga.edu or (706) 224-4996.

Please feel free to print out and keep a copy of this consent form. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address: IRB@uga.edu.

By clicking "Next," I consent to volunteer for this study and start answering the questions.

Part 1. Contingency Questionnaire

* Under the following situation, I would engage in dialogue with an external public:

Very likely…….Neutral……..……...Very Unlikely
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. When litigation is pending against my organization.

2. In the face of government regulation.

3. When faced with potentially damaging publicity.

4. When the external public's position threatens my organization's reputation in the business community and in the general public.

5. If, by engaging in dialogue, I may be legitimizing the external public's claims.

6. If the industry in which my organization functions is static rather than changing fast.

7. If the level of competition in my organization's industry is high.

8. If the resources within my industry seem to be modest.

9. If my organization lacks political support.

10. If there is not enough social support of my organization's business.

11. If the external public has relatively small number of members.

12. If the external public lacks credibility.

13. If the external public has failed to evoke change in the past.

14. If my organization lacks strong advocacy.

15. If the external public's members are highly committed to their goal.

16. If the external public does not have (a) public relations counselor/counselors.

17. If the general public's perception of the external public is radical.

18. If the external public has received substantial media coverage in the past.

19. If the representatives of the external public know or like the representatives of my organization.

20. If the representatives of my organization know or like representatives of the external public.

21. If the external public is willing to dilute its cause/request/claim.

22. If there are frequent moves and countermoves in the situation.

23. If the external public is relatively powerful compared to my organization.

24. If the issue under question is substantial.

25. If there is a lot at stake with the issue under question.

26. If the issue under question is complex.

27. If my organization has an open culture.

28. If my organization is geographically dispersed.

29. If my organization uses a high level of technology to produce its product or service.

30. If my staff works well together.

31. If my organization is older and well-established.

32. If the knowledge level of my organization advances quickly.

33. If my organization is economically stable.

34. If my organization has issues management personnel or an issues management program.

35. If my organization has had past negative experiences with conflicting outside organizations.

36. If my organization's decision-making power is centralized.

37. If there are lots of rules defining and limiting the job descriptions of employees in my organization.

38. If my organization is highly stratified or hierarchical in structure.

39. If my organization has an influential in-house legal department.

40. If my organization has a wide business exposure (product and customer mix).

41. If my organization has a strong corporate culture.

42. If there are several practitioners with college degrees in my department.

43. If the employees in my department have been trained in marketing in the past.

44. If public relations department is not subservient to another department in my organization's hierarchy.

45. If public relations is represented in my organization's top decision-making structure.

46. If the public relations practitioners have substantial experience in dealing with conflict.

47. If the public relations department is competent in general communication.

48. If the public relations department is independent from organizational authority.

49. If the public relations office is physically located close to decision makers.

50. If the public relations department has a staff trained in research methods.

51. If the public relations department has sufficient funding available for dealing with external publics.

52. If there is enough time allowed to adequately deal with the external publics.

53. If there is a high percentage of women among the upper-level staff in my organization.

54. If the public relations department is qualified to practice various specialties within public relations.

55. If my organization's top decision-making group is politically conservative.

56. If my organization's top management style is domineering.

57. If my organization's top decision-making group is altruistic.

58. If my organization's top decision-making group support and understand public relations.

59. If the top decision-making group of my organization frequently has contact with the external public.

60. If my organization's top decision-making group's perception of external environment is negative.

61. If the top decision-making group of my organization expects potential losses based on the different strategies for dealing with the external public.

62. If the line-managers in my organization are more involved in external affairs.

63. If economic loss is likely in that situation.

64. If there are threats of marring of employees' or stakeholders' perception of the company.

65. If there are threats of marring of the personal reputations of the company decision makers.

66. If the public relations practitioners in my organization have formal training in their specialties.

67. If the public relations practitioners in my organization have a strong sense of personal ethics.

68. If the public relations practitioners in my organization have enough tolerance or ability to deal with uncertainty.

69. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are comfortable with conflict or dissonance.

70. If the public relations practitioners in my organization feel comfortable with change.

71. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to recognize potential and existing problems.

72. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are innovative.

73. If the public relations practitioners in my organization can grasp others' worldview.

74. If the public relations practitioners' personalities are authoritarian.

75. If the public relations practitioners in my organization has communication competency.

76. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are able to handle complex problems.

77. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward negotiation.

78. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predisposed toward altruism.

79. If public relations practitioners in my organization are quick to receive, process, and use information and influence.

80. If the public relations practitioners know or are familiar with the external public or their representatives.

81. If the public relations practitioners in my organization likes the external public or its representatives.

82. If the public relations practitioners in my organization are predominantly women.

83. If my organization and the external public trust each other.

84. If there is high level of dependency between my organization and the external public.

85. If there are ideological barriers between my organization and the external public.

Part 2. Hofstede's Cultural Value Questionnaire (VSM '94)

Please think of an ideal job, disregarding your present work. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to....

1 = of very little or no importance
2 = of little importance
3 = of moderate importance
4 = very important
5 = of utmost importance

1. Have sufficient time for your personal or family life
2. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)

3. Have a good working relationship with your direct superior

4. Have security of employment

5. Work with people who cooperate well with one another

6. Be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions

7. Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level job

8. Have an element of variety and adventure in the job

In your private life, how important is each of the following to you?

1 = of very little or no importance
2 = of little importance
3 = of moderate importance
4 = very important
5 = of utmost importance

9. Personal steadiness and stability

10. Thrift

11. Persistence (perseverance)

12. Respect for tradition

13. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?

1 = never
2 = seldom
3 = sometimes
4 = usually
5 = always

14. How frequently, in your experience, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?

1 = very seldom
2 = seldom
3 = sometimes
4 = frequently
5 = very frequently

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = undicided
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

15. Most people can be trusted.

16. One can be a good manager without having precise answers to most questions that subordinates may raise about their work.

17. An organization structure in which certain subordinates have two bosses should be avoided at all costs.

18. Competition between employees usually does more harm than good.

19. A company or organization's rules should not be broken - not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.

20. When people have failed in life it is often their own fault.

Part 3: Demographic Questions

What is your gender?

Male
Female

How old are you?

Less than 20 years old
More than 20 years old but less than 30 years old
More than 30 years old but less than 40 years old
More than 40 years old but less than 50 years old
More than 50 years old but less than 60 years old
More than 60 years old but less than 70 years old
More than 70 years old

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Less than high school
High school graduate
Some college
College graduate
Master's degree
PhD degree
Other (please specify)

What is the total number of years that you have worked as a professional in your chose discipline?

Less than 1 year
More than 1 year but less than 5 years
More than 5 years but less than 10 years
More than 10 years but less than 15 years
More than 15 years but less than 20 years
More than 20 years but less than 25 years
More than 25 years but less than 30 years
More than 30 years

How many years have you worked for your current employer?

Less than 1 year
More than 1 year but less than 5 years
More than 5 years but less than 10 years
More than 10 years but less than 15 years

More than 15 years but less than 20 years
More than 20 years but less than 25 years
More than 25 years but less than 30 years
More than 30 years

What best describes your organization's primary business?

Corporate
Education
Government
Non-profit
PR agency
Private consultant (freelancer)
Other (please specify)

This is the end of the survey.

Thank you so much for your time and consideration. Please e-mail me (jungwon@uga.edu) if you have any comments/questions or would like a copy of the results.

APPENDIX B

E-MAIL INVITATION MESSAGE

안녕하십니까,
저는 현재 미국 조지아 대학교 (University of Georgia) 석사 2 년차에 재학 중인 이정원이라고 합니다. 귀하께 이렇게 메일을 보낸 것은 다름아니라 제가 현재 졸업 논문을 위해 한국과 미국에서 동시에 진행 중인 PR 실무자 대상 온라인 웹 서베이(Web Survey)에 참여해 주십사 하는 부탁을 드리기 위해서입니다.

제 논문의 성패는 바로 귀하의 설문 참여에 달려 있다고 해도 과언이 아닐 정도로 저에게는 여러분의 응답 하나 하나가 절실히 필요합니다. 귀하께서 주시는 소중한 실무적 경험과 의견들은 PR 의 학문적 발전에 든든한 바탕이 될 것이라고 믿습니다.

제 논문은 외부 공중과의 갈등 상황에서 PR 실무자들의 의사 결정에 영향을 미치는 다양한 상황적 요소들, 그리고 이러한 상황적인 요소들이 문화/국가별로 다른 직무 관련 가치들과 어떻게 관련되는지 알아보는 것을 목적으로 하고 있습니다. PR 실무자 여러분들께서 주시는 답변들은 동시에 미국 PRSA (Public Relations Society of America) 의 PR 실무자들을 대상으로 진행되는 설문과 비교 분석을 거쳐, 조직/기업이 공중과의 대화를 수용할 의사를 만들어내는 다이내믹한 상황 요소들에 대한 이해와 이 요소들 중에서 국가별로 다른 문화적 다양성을 찾아내는 데 기여할 수 있을 것으로 기대됩니다.

다음은 여러분의 설문 참여와 관련한 몇 가지 사항입니다.

- 아래의 링크를 클릭하시면 웹 서베이 창이 뜰 것입니다. 지시 사항을 잘 읽어보시고 설문에 답변해 주시면 됩니다. 설문은 약 15-20 분 가량이 소요될 것입니다.
- 설문을 한 번에 다 완성하기에 시간이 부족하다고 느끼시면 언제라도 서베이 창 우측 상단에 있는 “Save & Continue this survey later”를 클릭하시어 나중에 다시 나머지 설문을 완성하실 수 있습니다. “Save & Continue this survey later” 는 기본값으로 여러분의 브라우저에 쿠키 (cookie)를 남겨, 언제라도 아래의 링크를 통해 웹 서베이에 다시 접속하시면 여러분이 이전에 작성하시던 페이지로 안내할 것입니다 (단, 이 기능은 여러분이 동일한 컴퓨터를 사용하시는 경우에 한해 적용됩니다).

아래의 링크를 클릭하시거나 복사하여 새 브라우저 창에 붙여 넣으시면 진행중인 웹 서베이로 연결됩니다. 이 설문과 관련한 어떤 질문이나 문제에 관해서 언제라도 jungwon@uga.edu (1-706-224-4996)로 연락 주십시오. 귀하의 참여가 절실히 필요합니다, 많은 참여 부탁드리겠습니다. 감사합니다, 좋은 하루 되세요.

이정원

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (SOUTH KOREA)

Subject Consent

안녕하십니까,

이 설문은 University of Georgia (United States)의 대학원생 이정원이 Dr. Bryan H. Reber의 지도 하에 진행 중인 논문 “상황 이론: 한국-미국 PR 실무자 비교 연구” 를 위해 실시되고 있습니다. 이 설문의 참여는 전적으로 자발적입니다. 귀하는 이유를 불문하고 언제라도 설문 참여를 거절하거나 중단할 수 있으며 이에 따른 어떤 피해도 없을 것입니다. 귀하는 본인에 관한 정보를 요청하여 되돌려 받거나, 연구 기록에서 빼거나 폐기할 수 있습니다

이 연구는 한국과 미국 PR 실무자에게 있어 외부 공중과의 갈등 상황에서의 의사 결정에 영향을 미치는 상황 변수들, 그리고 이러한 변수들이 각국의 문화를 바탕으로 한 직무 관련 가치들과 가지는 관련성에 대한 이해를 목적으로 하고 있습니다. 이 연구의 결과는 조직이 공중과 대화하려는 의도를 만들어내는 여러 가지의 상황 변수들을 이해하고 이들 중 문화적 특성을 반영하는 변수들을 찾아냄으로써 조직의 역동적인 PR 의사결정 과정에 대한 중요한 정보를 제공할 것으로 기대됩니다.

이 설문에는 어떤 위험도 없습니다. 또한 설문에 참여하신 분들께서는 연구 종료 후 언제라도 연구자에게 요청하시면 이 연구의 결과를 받아보실 수 있습니다.

설문의 참여와 답변은 모두 익명으로 처리될 것입니다. 이 연구와 관련한 어떤 정보도 법의 요구를 받지 않는 한 외부에 공개되지 않을 것입니다.

설문을 시작하시면 1) 외부 공중과의 대화와 관련한 상황 변수들; 2) 직무와 관련한 태도와 행동과 관련한 설문 문항에 답하시게 될 것이며, 시간은 약 15-20분 정도가 소요될 것입니다.

인터넷을 통한 커뮤니케이션은 기술과 관련한 자체적 이유로 인하여 완벽한 익명성의 보장에 한계가 있을 수도 있다는 점을 양해 바랍니다. 귀하의 참여는 철저히 비밀로 유지될 것입니다; 귀하께서 설문을 마치신 후 제출하시면 관련 정보는 어떤 이름이나 연락처와도 분리된 후 패스워드로 보호되는 컴퓨터에 저장될 것입니다.

이 연구와 관련된 질문, 그리고 설문 중이나 후 궁금한 사항이 있으시면 언제라도 연구자 이정원에게 연락 바랍니다. (e-mail: jungwon@uga.edu, 전화: 1-706-224-4996)

또한 연구 참여에 관한 권리에 관한 문제나 추가적인 질문은 The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411로 연락하실 수 있습니다.

(이메일: IRB@uga.edu, 전화: 1-706-542-3199)

아래 “다음” 링크를 클릭하시면 귀하는 이 설문의 참여에 동의하시면서 설문을 시작하시게 됩니다.

Part 1. Contingency Questionnaire

나는 다음과 같은 상황에서 외부 공중과의 대화에 관여할 것이다:

전혀 그럴 것 같지 않다			보통			매우 그럴 것 같다
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. 우리 조직에 대해 소송이 진행중이라면

2. 정부의 규제가 있다면

3. 잠정적으로 손해를 끼치는 퍼블리시티를 대한다면

4. 그 외부 공중이 업계와 일반 대중 사이에서의 우리 조직의 평판을 위협하는 위치에 있다면

5. 내가 그 외부 공중과의 대화에 관여하는 것이 그들의 주장을 정당화하는 것이 될 지도 모른다면

6. 우리 조직이 속해 있는 업계가 빨리 변화하기 보다는 정(靜)적이라면

7. 우리 조직이 속해 있는 업계의 경쟁이 치열하다면

8. 우리 조직이 속한 업계의 자원이 충분하지 않은 편이라면

9. 우리 조직에 정치적인 지원이 부족하다면

10. 우리 조직의 사업에 대한 사회적 지원이 충분하지 않다면

11. 그 외부 공중의 구성원 수가 상대적으로 적다면

12. 그 외부 공중의 신뢰성이 떨어진다면

13. 그 외부 공중이 과거에 변화를 일으키는 데 실패했었다면

14. 우리 조직이 우리의 입장을 강하게 옹호하지 않는다면

15. 그 외부 공중의 구성원들이 그들의 목표에 강하게 전념한다면

16. 그 외부 공중 집단에 PR 담당자가 없다면

17. 대중들이 대체적으로 그 외부 공중 집단을 진보적이라고 인식하고 있다면

18. 그 외부 공중이 과거에 상당한 양의 언론 보도를 받은 적이 있다면

19. 그 외부 공중의 대표자가 우리 조직의 대표자를 잘 알거나 좋아한다면

20. 우리 조직의 대표자가 그 외부 공중의 대표자를 잘 알거나 좋아한다면

21. 그 외부 공중 집단이 그들의 의도/요구/주장을 완화하거나 조절할 용의가 있다면

22. 갈등 상황에서의 움직임(행동, 조처), 또 그에 대항하는 움직임이 자주 있다면

23. 그 외부 공중 집단이 우리 조직에 비해 상대적으로 힘이 크다면

24. 문제되고 있는 상황이 매우 중요하다면

25. 문제되고 있는 상황에 많은 위험 요소가 걸려 있다면

26. 문제되고 있는 상황이 복잡하다면

27. 우리 조직이 개방된 문화를 갖고 있다면

28. 우리 조직이 지리적으로 흩어져 있다면

29. 우리 조직이 높은 수준의 제품/서비스 생산 기술을 사용한다면

30. 우리 조직의 구성원들이 함께 잘 일한다면

31. 우리 조직이 오래 되고 안정적이라면

32. 우리 조직의 지식 수준이 빠른 속도로 발달한다면

33. 우리 조직이 경제적으로 안정되어 있다면

34. 우리 조직에 이슈 관리(issues management) 담당자나 프로그램이 있다면

35. 우리 조직이 갈등 중인 외부 공중과 과거에 부정적인 경험이 있었다면

36. 우리 조직의 의사 결정력이 중앙에 집중되어 있다면

37. 우리 조직에 구성원들의 직무 내용(job description)을 정의하고 제한하는 규정들이 많이 있다면

38. 우리 조직이 구조적으로 상당히 계층/계급화 되어 있다면

39. 우리 조직에 영향력 있는 사내 법무팀이 있다면

40. 우리 조직이 제품 구성(product mix)이나 고객 구성(customer mix)에 있어 넓은 사업 노출 범위를 갖고 있다면

41. 우리 조직이 강한 기업 문화를 갖고 있다면

42. 우리 부서에 학사 학위를 소지한 다수의 실무자들이 있다면

43. 우리 부서원들이 과거에 마케팅 교육을 받은 적이 있다면

44. 우리 홍보 부서가 조직 내의 다른 부서에 종속되어 있지 않다면

45. 홍보 부서가 우리 조직의 최고 의사 결정 구조에 반영된다면

46. 홍보 담당자들이 갈등 상황을 처리하는 데 많은 경험을 갖고 있다면

47. 홍보 부서가 일반적 커뮤니케이션에 능통하다면

48. 홍보 부서가 조직 권력으로부터 독립되어 있다면

49. 홍보 부서 사무실이 실제로 의사 결정자들에게 가까운 위치에 있다면

50. 부서원들이 연구 방법론에 대해 교육/훈련을 받았다면

51. 그 외부 공중을 다룰 때 사용 가능한 충분한 자금이 있다면

52. 그 외부 공중을 적절히 다룰 수 있는 충분한 시간이 허락된다면

53. 우리 조직의 상위 직급자들 중 여성의 비율이 크다면

54. 홍보 부서가 다양한 전문 분야의 PR 프로그램을 실행하기에 충분하다면

55. 우리 조직의 최고 의사결정 집단이 정치적으로 보수적이라면

56. 우리 조직 최고 의사결정 집단의 경영 스타일이 지배적(domineering)이라면

57. 우리 조직의 최고 의사결정 집단이 이타주의적이라면

58. 우리 조직의 최고 의사결정 집단이 PR을 이해하고 지원한다면

59. 우리 조직의 최고 의사결정 집단이 그 외부 공중과 잦은 접촉이 있다면

60. 우리 조직의 최고 의사결정 집단이 그 외부 공중에 대해 부정적으로 인식하고 있다면

61. 우리 조직의 최고 의사결정 집단이 그 외부 공중을 다루는 전략들이 잠정적으로 손실을 가져올 것으로 예상하고 있다면

62. 우리 조직의 라인 관리자들 (line managers)이 기업의 외부 사정에 더 관심을 갖고 관여한다면

63. 그 상황에서 경제적인 손실이 예상된다면

64. 직원들이나 이해관계자들이 조직에 대해 갖는 인식이 손상될 위험이 있다면

65. 조직 의사결정자들의 개인적 평판을 훼손시킬 위험이 있다면

66. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 그들의 전문 분야에 있어 정식 교육을 받았다면

67. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 강한 개인적 윤리 의식을 가지고 있다면

68. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 불확실한 상황에 대처하는 능력이나 인내심을 충분히 가졌다면

69. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 갈등이나 부조화에 대해 불편하게 느끼지 않는다면

70. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 변화에 대해 불편하게 느끼지 않는다면

71. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 잠재적 또는 현존하는 문제들을 인식할 수 있다면

72. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 혁신적이라면

73. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 다른 사람들의 세계관을 이해한다면

74. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들의 성격이 권위적이라면

75. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 커뮤니케이션에 능통하다면

76. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 복잡한 문제를 처리할 수 있다면

77. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 협상을 선호한다면

78. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 이타주의를 선호한다면

79. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 정보를 신속히 수신, 처리, 사용하여 영향력을 행사한다면

80. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 그 외부 공중이나 그들의 대표자들에 대해 잘 알거나 친근하다면

81. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들이 그 외부 공중이나 그들의 대표자들을 좋아한다면

82. 우리 조직의 PR 실무자들 중 우세하게 여성이 많다면

83. 우리 조직과 그 외부 공중이 서로 신뢰한다면

84. 우리 조직과 그 외부 공중과의 의존 정도가 크다면

85. 우리 조직과 그 외부 공중 사이에 이념적인 장벽이 있다면

Part 2. Hofstede's Cultural Dimension Questionnaire (VSM '94)

귀하의 현재 직업에 관계 없이 이상적인 직업을 하나 생각해 주십시오. 그 이상적인 직업을 선택하는 데 있어 다음 항목들은 귀하에게 어느 정도로 중요합니까?

1 = 거의/전혀 중요하지 않다
2 = 별로 중요하지 않다
3 = 중요하다
4 = 매우 중요하다
5 = 최고로 중요하다

1. 개인적 또는 가족과의 삶을 위한 충분한 시간

2. 좋은 물리적 직무 환경 (좋은 환기와 조명 시설, 적절한 직무 공간)

3. 직속 상사와의 좋은 직무 관계

4. 고용의 안정성

5. 서로 잘 협력하는 사람들과 일하는 것

6. 직속 상관이 의사 결정을 할 때 조언을 구할 수 있는 사람이 되는 것

7. 상위 직급으로 승진할 수 있는 기회

8. 직무에 있어 다양하고 모험적인 요소를 가지는 것

귀하의 사적인 생활에 있어서 다음의 것들은 어느 정도로 중요합니까?

1 = 거의/전혀 중요하지 않다

2 = 별로 중요하지 않다
3 = 중요하다
4 = 매우 중요하다
5 = 최고로 중요하다

9. 개인적인 지속성과 안정성

10. 절약

11. 인내

12. 전통에 대한 존중

13. 귀하는 일할 때 얼마나 자주 초조하거나 긴장을 느끼십니까?

전혀 느끼지 않는다
거의 느끼지 않는다
가끔 느낀다
보통 느끼는 편이다
항상 느낀다

14. 귀하의 경험에 비추어 볼 때, 부하 직원들이 얼마나 자주 상관과의 의견 차이를 표현하는 것을 두려워합니까?

매우 드물게
드물게
가끔
자주
매우 자주

다음의 문장들에 어느 정도로 동의하십니까?

1 = 전혀 그렇지 않다
2 = 그렇지 않다
3 = 보통
4 = 그렇다

5 = 매우 그렇다

15. 대체적으로 사람들은 신뢰할 수 있다.

16. 부하 직원들이 제기할 수 있는 대부분의 업무 관련 질문에 정확한 답을 못하더라도 좋은 상사가 될 수 있다.

17. 조직 구조에 있어 부하 직원이 두 명의 상사를 갖는 것은 무슨 일이 있어도 피해야만 한다.

18. 직원들간의 경쟁은 일반적으로 좋은 결과를 낳기 보다 해를 끼친다.

19. 설사 직원들이 기업/조직의 규칙을 어기는 것이 그 기업에게 가장 이익이 된다고 생각하더라도, 그러한 규칙은 깨져서는 안 된다.

20. 사람들이 인생에서 실패하는 것은 종종 그들의 잘못이다.

Part 3. Demographic Questions

귀하의 성별을 체크해 주십시오.

남자
여자

귀하의 나이는 몇 살이십니까?

20살 미만
20살 이상 30살 미만
30살 이상 40살 미만
40살 이상 50살 미만
50살 이상 60살 미만
60살 이상 70살 미만
70살 이상

귀하의 최종 학력에 해당하는 곳에 체크해 주십시오.

고졸 미만

고졸 이상
대졸 (2년제)
대졸 (4년제)
석사
박사
기타

귀하가 현재 일하고 계신 분야에서의 총 근무 년수는 어떻게 되십니까?

1년 미만
1년 이상 5년 미만
5년 이상 10년 미만
10년 이상 15년 미만
15년 이상 20년 미만
20년 이상 25년 미만
25년 이상 30년 미만
30년 이상

귀하는 현재 직장에서 몇 년간 일하셨습니까?

1년 미만
1년 이상 5년 미만
5년 이상 10년 미만
10년 이상 15년 미만
15년 이상 20년 미만
20년 이상 25년 미만
25년 이상 30년 미만
30년 이상

귀하가 속한 조직의 사업 분야를 선택해 주십시오.

기업(corporate)
교육
정부 관련
비영리
PR 대행사
개인 컨설턴트 (프리랜서)

기타 (상세히 적어 주십시오)

설문이 끝났습니다.

설문에 참가해 주셔서 감사합니다. 설문과 관련한 의견이나 질문 사항이 있으시거나 이 연구의 진행 상황과 결과를 받아보고자 하시는 분은 언제라도 연구자 이정원 (jungwon@uga.edu, 1-706-224-4996)에게 연락 부탁드립니다.

다시한번 설문에 참가해 주셔서 감사드립니다. 좋은 하루 되세요.