DONOR EMPOWERMENT: ENHANCING NONPROFIT-DONOR RELATIONSHIPS AND SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIOR

By

MOONHEE CHO

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

2012

To my beloved family

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have been so fortunate by having many great people who have always encouraged and supported me in the completion of my academic goals.

First, I would like to thank my dissertation committee chair, Dr. Kathleen S. Kelly. With her expertise, intelligence, professionalism, and passion for public relations and fundraising, Dr. Kelly has always inspired me to be a promising scholar in the field of public relations and nonprofit management. As an academic advisor for both my master's and doctoral programs, she has been with me through every moment. She was sincerely pleased with my achievements and comforted me when I was frustrated. Without her trust and genuine care, I could not have completed this long journey. It was a great honor for me to work with her for the past five years.

I would also like to thank Dr. Linda C. Hon for providing her sincere advice and shaping my research interests. Her encouragement and feedback were crucial for enhancing the quality of the dissertation. I owe special appreciation to Dr. Mary Ann Ferguson who always enlightened me with critical insights. Research experience with her helped me pursue theoretical development and envision where to go. I am also grateful to have Dr. Elizabeth Bolton as my outside committee member. She guided me in expanding the knowledge of nonprofit management and supported me in recruiting nonprofit organizations for my dissertation. I would also like to thank Dr. Spiro Kiousis, the department chair of Public Relations, who provided me with many teaching and research opportunities. I would like to show my gratitude to Dr. Sylvia Chan-Olmsted, who always encouraged me to be a productive scholar and offered me wonderful opportunities to learn and conduct research. Special thanks are given to Dr. Debbie Treise for her support during my time at UF. I also want to express my special and

sincere gratitude to Jody Hedge, Kimberly Holloway, Sarah G. Lee, and Karen Hart for their support and kindness.

My deepest gratitude also goes to wonderful friends in Korea and the United States. I would especially like to thank great Korean Communigators: Jinsook Lee, Sangwon Lee, Soojin Kim, Jooyun Hwang, Jiyoung Cha, Sooyeon Kim, Bumsub Gabriel Jin, Hyejoon Rim, Jaejin Lee, Jungmin Park, Sun-Young Park, Ji Young Kim, Hyunji Lim, and Jihye Kim. I am also grateful for my dearest friends with whom I have shared great memories in Gainesville: Giselle A. Auger, Maria de Moya, Vanessa Bravo, Rajul Jain, and Joy Rodgers. I cannot forget the days and nights we shared both the joys and the agony of research and teaching. I would also like to thank members of the Korean Baptist Church in Gainesville. In particular, I am very indebted to the group members of Graceful Eden, who always prayed for me and helped my spiritual growth.

My heartfelt thanks go to my beloved family in Korea and Hawaii for endless support. This long journey through the doctoral program truly taught me what my family means to me in my life. My parents in Korea and parents-in-law in Hawaii are the greatest supporters who always encourage me in my choice of academic career. Their love and trust in me were the core motives for me to accomplish what I dreamed. I am also thankful for my brother, sister, and brother-in-law, and two precious nieces. Most of all, I would like to express my special appreciations to Jinkyu Kim, my husband and soul mate. Without his everlasting love, patience, and dedication, I could not even dream about my academic journey and completing this journey. Thank you for standing by me always.

I also greatly appreciate five nonprofit organizations and their individual donors who participated in my dissertation research. Lastly, but not least, I want to express my sincere gratitude to the Association for Academic Women for their financial and emotional support of my dissertation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

DONOR EMPOWERMENT: ENHANCING NONPROFIT-DONOR RELATIONSHIPS AND SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIOR

By

Moonhee Cho

August 2012

Chair: Kathleen S. Kelly
Major: Mass Communication

By introducing the concept of psychological empowerment to public relations scholarship, the main purpose of this study was to advance relationship management theory, a main research stream in the field of public relations. More specifically, the study explored the dynamic linkages among relationship management strategies, psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and behavioral intention. An online survey with individual donors from five nonprofit organizations that have various missions was employed to test the proposed model. Three hundred fifty seven responses were used for data analysis.

This study found a new role of relationship management strategies as an antecedent of donors' psychological empowerment. Of seven relationship management strategies, openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, access, and reciprocity are significantly related to donors' psychological empowerment, as well as each empowerment element, such as meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. However, the study did not find an effect of participation strategy on donors' psychological empowerment, while it was considered as a key factor in enhancing publics' empowerment. In addition, this study found that there was a significant effect of

donors' psychological empowerment on four relationship quality outcomes of control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment.

Revealing that relationship management strategies are both directly and indirectly related to relationship quality outcomes, the study also found the partial mediating role of donors' psychological empowerment in the association between relationship management strategies and quality outcomes. Finally, the study showed that both donors' psychological empowerment and the overall relationship quality outcomes have significant effects on behavioral intention.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, relationship management as a major public relations research stream and the need for effective relationship management in the nonprofit sector are presented as the background of the study. Then, the chapter introduces a new approach in relationship management, which incorporates publics' psychological empowerment. Finally, the purpose of the study and its potential contribution to public relations and nonprofit management are discussed.

Background

Many organizational scholars have highlighted the interdependent nature of organizations with their surroundings, and the value of relationships these organizations have with various publics (Freeman, 1984; Frooman, 1999; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Pfeffer, 1972). Putting the value of public relations into an organization-public relationship management function, public relations scholars have sought effective relationship management over several decades. Indeed, relationship management has been considered a main stream of inquiry of the field (Botan & Taylor, 2004). The relationship-focused approach in public relations created a paradigm shift in the field from the traditional function of public relations, such as information dissemination and publicity, to meaningful relationship building and management with key publics (Ehling, 1992). The importance of relationship management is well illustrated in one of the most prevalent definitions of the field: "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (Broom, 2009, p. 7).

Many scholars have proposed and empirically tested the effect of organization-public relationships in terms of the effective management of organizations (Dozier, L. A. Grunig, & J. E. Grunig, 1995; L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Dozier, 2002), enhancement of organizational reputation (Hutton, Goodman, Alexander, & Genest, 2001; Yang, 2007; Yang & J. E. Grunig, 2005), and publics' positive attitudes and behavior (Bortree, 2010; Bruning, 2002; Jin, 2009; Ki & Hon, 2007; Ledingham & Bruning, 1998).

Relationship management theory has been developed by two major research streams. One stream addresses the multi-dimensions of public relationships and the association between organization-public relationships and publics' behavior (Bruning, Castel, & Schrepfer, 2004; Bruning & Ledingham, 2000; Ledingham & Bruning, 1998; 1999), whereas the other stream focuses on relationship antecedents, strategies, and outcomes (J. E. Grunig & Huang, 2000; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999). In an extension of the work of the second research camp, recent relationship studies have focused on organizational efforts and strategies to cultivate and manage desired outcomes of relationships (Bortree, 2010; Ki & Hon, 2009; Waters, 2011).

The significant importance of public relationships for organizational success and survival applies to not only for-profit but also nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations, in general, provide public goods or services not commonly provided by the other two economic sectors, businesses and government agencies (Breckenridge, 1999; Herman, 2005; Salamon, 2003). The nonprofit sector continues to grow in terms of size and impact. For example, there were more than 1.6 million nonprofit organizations in 2010 (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2010). Serving diverse

social interests, such as healthcare, religion, and education, nonprofit organizations are "the most rapidly growing types of organizations in the world" (Hall, 2005, p. 3).

Tightly woven with other social entities (Czerwinski, 2007), the interdependent nature of nonprofit organizations has been underlined in various literature (Dee & Henkin, 2006; Herman, 2005; Herman & Renz, 1997; Saidel, 1989; 1991). To accomplish their missions to provide beneficiaries with aid and services, nonprofit organizations rely heavily on government and private support. Herman (2005) argued that resource dependence on government and donor groups is a distinct characteristic of nonprofit organizations in comparison to for-profit organizations.

High interdependence and resource dependence within the nonprofit sector has become more pronounced as the sector has been faced with various environmental changes, including a critical decline of government aid to the sector in the Reagan era (Levy, 1999) and a significant increase in the number of nonprofit organizations since the 1990s (Salamon, 2002). Moreover, various scandals involving nonprofit organizations have presented a threat to public trust, so nonprofit organizations are struggling with meeting public expectations and gaining legitimacy in the eyes of various stakeholders. In this sense, the management of the nonprofit organization's relationships with its key publics has drawn the attention of the nonprofit sector (Bryce, 2007; Saidel, 1991; Van Til, 2005; Wright & Bocarnea, 2007).

Among the various publics with whom nonprofit organizations have relationships, donors are considered one of the most important as they may actually determine the survival of nonprofit organizations. As a result, many nonprofit experts advocate that nonprofit organizations should be equipped with effective donor relationship

management strategies (Nudd, 1991; O'Neil, 2007; 2008; Rosso, 1991; Worth, 2002). In this sense, the value of public relations practice and effective communication management has been underlined in the sector. In particular, finding similarities between fundraising and public relations, Kelly (1991; 1998) asserted that fundraising is a specialization of public relations. Further proposing the ROPES process—the acronym of research, objectives, programming, evaluation, and stewardship—as applicable for both public relations and fundraising practice, Kelly (2001) emphasized the importance of relationship management. While some public relations scholars concentrate on the nonprofit-donor relationship (Cho, 2009; Kelly, 1998; O'Neil, 2007; 2008; Waters, 2011), there is still little research to provide guidelines for effectively managing nonprofit-donor relationships.

Need for a New Approach in Relationship Management Theory

While current relationship management theory has emphasized the value of public relations as a management function responsible for organization-public relationships, the existing relationship management studies have ignored an important element in explanation of dynamic relationships between an organization and its publics: the publics' psychological state in relationships with organizations. In other words, the public relations literature has neglected the fundamental premises that organization-public relationships involve such factors as one party's autonomy in the relationship, power or impact on the other party, and motivation to develop or maintain relationships with the party. In fact, successful relationships are based on both autonomy and accountability of each party in the relationship (L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Ehling, 1992; Kelly, 1998). However, existing relationship management studies overestimate organizations' ability to easily persuade their publics toward favorable attitudes and

behavior and overlook publics' autonomy in their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors toward the organization. Moreover, understanding publics' motivation to build relationships with organizations and enact desirable behavior is pivotal to building and maintaining quality relationships between organizations and their publics.

Filling this gap, the present study introduces the concept of publics' psychological empowerment, which involves publics' sense of substantial autonomy, competence, impact, and meaning. As the publics' intrinsic motivation to engage in quality relationships with organizations, the concept of psychological empowerment is vital to better understanding of organization-public relationships.

Importance of Empowerment in the Relationship Context

Empowerment is a concept actively adopted in numerous disciplines, and, in general, has become a buzzword in social science (Knight, 2011; Page & Czuba, 1999). Especially with the introduction of new technology and digital media that allow publics to easily access organizational information or participate in the organizational decision-making process, public empowerment has drawn a great deal of attention from both the academy and practice (Chang, 2005; Mehra, Merketl, & Bishop, 2004; Pires, Stanton, & Rita, 2006; Psoinos, Kern, & Smithson, 2000). Empowerment has been researched in various settings, such as community development (Craig & Mayo, 1995; Papineau & Kiely, 1996), social movements (Dufour & Giraud, 2007; Hoodfar, 2007; Mwaura-Muiru, 2010), healthcare (R. M. Anderson & Funnel, 2005; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Ouschan et al., 2006), education (Cho & Auger, 2011; Duhon-Haynes, 1996; McQuillan, 2005), marketing (Fuchs, Prandelli, & Schreier, 2010; Wright et al., 2006), and organizational management (Kanter, 1993, Spreitzer, 1995; 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowerment is "a social process, since it occurs in relationship to others"

(Page & Czuba, 1999, para. 12). Page and Czuba continued “One important implication of this definition of empowerment is that the individual and community are fundamentally connected” (para. 12). Yet there is a lack of scholarly research to incorporate the concept of empowerment into the public relations management literature.

While numerous approaches in defining empowerment exist due to the concept’s active adoption in various fields, the present study focuses on psychological empowerment, which highlights publics’ intrinsic motivation to engage with quality relationships with organizations and enact desirable behavior. Mainly conceptualized in the organizational management literature, psychological empowerment involves publics’ sense of competence, autonomy, meaning, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The effects of publics’ psychological empowerment on both the publics, themselves, and organizations have been well reported. Empowered publics have lower feelings of isolation and a higher sense of community than disempowered publics (Lord & Hutchison, 1993; Zimmerman, 1990). Empowerment also leads to effective organizational management, including enhancement of publics’ satisfaction, trust, loyalty, and innovative behaviors (Amabile, 1988; Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2001b; Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993; Spreitzer, 1995; Ugboro & Obeng, 2000). In sum, given the logical role that public empowerment plays in relationship management, it is necessary to investigate how public relations practices can enhance publics’ psychological empowerment, which, in turn, influences organization-public relationships and publics’ behavior.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to expand relationship management theory by introducing the new concept of psychological empowerment, which accounts for publics’

perceptions of power and autonomy in organization-public relationships and the intrinsic motivation of publics to further engage with an organization and to enact desired behavior. More specifically, to reflect the importance of publics' sense of empowerment, the present study suggests that organizations should implement relationship strategies that enhance publics' psychological empowerment, which, in turn, influences relationship quality outcomes and inspires publics to enact desired behavior.

To this end, the study will revisit relationship management studies. First suggested in the late 1990s, public relations scholars' efforts to incorporate relationship management strategies in relationship management research and develop appropriate measurement have been observed more frequently within the past 5 years. For example, based on Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) monograph, Ki (2006) and Ki and Hon (2009) developed relationship management strategies and tested the linkages between the strategies and relationship outcomes. Based on the distinctive nature of the public she studied, youth volunteers, Bortree (2007; 2010) introduced guidance strategy to Ki's (2006) strategies. Waters (2007; 2011) adopted Kelly's (1998) stewardship concept and tested 10 different relationship management strategies—6 from Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) study and 4 from stewardship—in nonprofit-donor relationships. While each study has made unique significant contributions to relationship management theory, some strategies conceptually overlap with other strategies. Therefore, by explicating each relationship management strategy and visiting publics' empowerment literature, the present study will refine relationship management strategies that enhance both publics' empowerment and relationship quality outcomes.

Also, by exploring the existing literature of empowerment in many disciplines and relevant relationship outcome studies, this study will further investigate the effects of psychological empowerment on relationship quality outcomes and donor publics' intended behavior, such as repeat giving.

Significance of the Study

As widely adopted in social science studies, public empowerment is a crucial concept in maintaining meaningful relationships among social entities. Even though, along with interdependence, the importance of publics' empowerment in two-way symmetrical public relations practice and effective organizational management has been underlined by many public relations scholars, there is no research that actually incorporates the concept and empirically tests it in organization-public relationships. By introducing the notion of publics' psychological empowerment—publics' internal state that involves autonomy, power or impact, and motivation in the relationship context—the present study will advance relationship management theory and enrich the bodies of knowledge of public relations, nonprofit management, and fundraising.

Incorporating publics' psychological empowerment in relationship management theory, the study will explore the dynamic linkages among relationship management strategies, relationship quality outcomes, publics' empowerment, and publics' behavioral intention. Moreover, after revisiting the relevant literature, the study will propose a new role of relationship management strategies in not only influencing organization-public relationship quality outcomes but also improving publics' empowerment. In doing so, the study will provide both academic and practical guidelines to manage high quality relationships between an organization and its publics, to enhance publics' sense of empowerment, and to lead to desired behaviors of publics.

The proposed model in the study will be tested in the nonprofit-donor relationship setting. Given that nonprofit organizations have experienced substantial changes in their surroundings, including high competition within the sector and with the business and government, nonprofit scholars and practitioners have sought to determine the most effective strategies for enhancing donors' motivation to engage in quality relationships with organizations and to continue their donation behavior. By focusing on nonprofit-donor relationships, the present study will advance nonprofit organizations' fundraising and public relations efforts to yield desired outcomes—high quality relationships with donor publics and, thereby, increased revenues for nonprofits.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the central concepts of psychological empowerment and relationship management are discussed. The chapter begins with an overview of the nonprofit sector and the need for effective relationship management in the sector, followed by an overview of relationship management theory. Then, the concept of psychological empowerment is introduced to the context of relationship management. Finally, the linkages among relationship management strategies, psychological empowerment, relationship outcomes, and behavioral intentions are examined and hypotheses and research questions are proposed.

The Nonprofit Sector

Brief Introduction to the Sector

The *nonprofit sector* is a collective term that describes and explains institutions and organizations that do not fall into the first two social sectors of government and business and the fourth sector of family (Kelly, 1998). There is no single definition of the sector despite the numerous terms assigned to it, such as *nonprofit*, *independent*, and *voluntary*, and it is difficult to generalize about the sector due to its wide scope and scale (Hall, 2005; Salamon & Anheier, 1992). However, nonprofit organizations are founded to fulfill public demands that government or the private sectors (business & family) are unable or reluctant to provide (Breckenridge, 1999; Herman, 2005; Salamon, 2003). As Herman (2005) pointed out, nonprofits exist because “the services they offer would not be provided otherwise” (p. xvi).

Moreover, the nonprofit sector contributes to pluralism and prosperity of civil society. Eikenberry and Kluver (2004) asserted the role of nonprofit organizations in

building social capital, which Putnam (1993) defined as “the features of social organization, such as trust, norms and networks, that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating co-ordinated actions” (p. 167). Backman and Smith (2000) also argued that even though all sectors can build social capital and community capacity, “nonprofits may be more capable than government or market organizations of generating social norms of trust, cooperation, and mutual support due to their noncoercive character and appeals to charitable and social motives” (p. 362). Saxton and Benson (2005) also found a positive correlation between the growth of nonprofit organizations and social capital in community. In short, nonprofit organizations provide individuals with goods and services that lead to community development and make the world a better place.

Salamon and Anheier (1992) identified five characteristics of the sector: formal, private, non-profit distributing, self-governing, and voluntary. More specifically, the sector is institutionalized with formal organizational systems and is separate from government. The goal of the nonprofit sector is not to generate earnings for owners of the organizations but to provide benefits to society. Indeed, in the United States, it is illegal for nonprofits to distribute their profits to individuals who control the organizations, which is called the *nondistribution constraint* (Kelly, 1998). In addition, nonprofit organizations are equipped with their own internal governance or control procedures, and involve a certain degree of voluntary participation.

The nonprofit sector has rapidly grown in size and importance, serving a variety of social needs and providing common goods, as opposed to public goods from government and private goods from business (Kelly, 1998). In fact, more than1.6 million

U.S. nonprofit organizations are currently registered with the International Revenue Service (IRS) (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2010). Czerwinski (2007) identified the main reasons for the exponent growth of the sector in the United States:

- a shift in recent decades away from government providing most services directly;
- the expansion of service-related industries in the U.S., of which many nonprofits are a part;
- deinstitutionalization during the 1960s and 1970s that eliminated large, public care facilities in favor of smaller, community-based organizations, often operated by nonprofit entities; and
- the trend in devolution in certain policy areas such as welfare, which contributed to a lessening role of the federal government and more localized control in the hands of state, local, and nonprofit organizations. (p. 5)

In addition to having grown in size, the nonprofit sector has also grown in importance. Focusing on the United States, nonprofit organizations create employment opportunities for 9.6 million workers, accounting for approximate 10 percent of the total workforce (Czerwinski, 2007). Nonprofit organizations enjoy tax-exempt status, which differentiates them from businesses (Czerwinski, 2007; Kelly, 1998). According to the Internal Revenue code, the sector is further divided into more than 30 types of nonprofit organizations (Wing, Roeger, & Pollak, 2010). The majority of the sector consists of *charitable organizations* that have a philanthropic nature to promote human progress (Kelly, 2008). In 2008, about 950,000 nonprofits were designated charitable organizations, making up 63% of the sector. Unlike other types of nonprofits, charitable organizations, or 501(c)(3) under the Internal Revenue Code, offer a tax deduction benefit to donors for their gifts. Public charities holding 501(c)(3) status include eight sub-categories: arts, culture, and humanities; education; environment and animals; health; human services; international and foreign affairs; public and societal benefit; and religion (Wing, et al., 2010).

In short, nonprofit organizations and the sector as a whole fulfill diverse public demands and are in society. Czerwinski (2007) highlighted the sector's deep intertwinement with all societal entities:

> Virtually every American interacts with the nonprofit sector in his or her daily life through a broad range of concerns and activities such as health care, education, human services, job training, religion, and cultural pursuits. In addition, federal, state, and local governments rely on nonprofit organizations as key partners in implementing programs and providing services to the public. (p. 13)

The Need for Effective Relationship Management in the Nonprofit Sector

Nonprofit organizations have been faced with various environmental changes over the past several decades (Helmig, Jegers, & Lapsley, 2004; Ryan, 1999; Salamon, 1996; 2005; Van Til & Ross, 2001). Salamon (2005) explained the social and demographic shifts that led to public demands for social service, introduction of a new form of philanthropy (i.e., venture philanthropy), resumption of government social welfare spending, and increased visibility based on the opportunities for the nonprofit sector to further flourish. Likewise, nonprofit organizations face many challenges that threaten their existence, including declining government support; competition with other nonprofits and for-profit organizations working in the social welfare field; difficulties in demonstrating and measuring performance, which may lead to public distrust; and the challenge of keeping up with technology in order to meet external demands. Broom (2009) also identified a climate of change with which nonprofit organizations deal:

> 1. Shifting responsibility for public service and assistance from government programs to voluntary organizations
> 2. Increasing competition among charitable groups for financial, in-kind (goods and services), and volunteer support
> 3. Growing public concern about the credibility and accountability of tax-exempt organizations
> 4. Increasing cost and difficulty in raising funds

> 5. Lessening of community ties on the part of corporate leaders and professional staff, who tend to move frequently for career advancement
> 6. Growth of cause marketing in the corporate sector. (p. 522)

These dynamic changes in their environments have led many nonprofit organizations to realize the interdependent nature of the sector, as well as the need for quality relationships with various publics who support or hinder advancement of the organizations' missions and the organizations' survival.

Many scholars have stressed the fundamental nature of interdependence in the nonprofit sector (Dee & Henkin, 2006; Gordon, Strode, & Brady, 1993; Herman, 2005; Kelly, 1998; Saidel, 1991). That is, nonprofit organizations are a part of society, existing along with other social entities that influence nonprofits' success or survival. In comparison to other sectors, Herman (2005) explained that resource dependency and interdependence are innate characteristics of nonprofit organizations, stating:

> Nonprofit organizations, like businesses, rely on voluntary exchanges to obtain revenues and other resources. In business, customers supply the resources for the service they receive. Unlike business, nonprofit organizations (especially publicly supported charities, the sort of nonprofit organization on which this volume focuses) typically depend, at least to some extent, on one group, donors or government, for the resources necessary to provide a different group, the clients or beneficiaries, with services. (p. xv-xvi)

This interdependence can be explained by systems theory, espoused by Katz and Kahn (1978), who argued that an organization operating as an open system exchanges inputs and outputs with other systems and has a better chance to survive than an organization operating as a closed system. They emphasized that organizations need to respect their interdependence with other groups and cope with their surroundings in order to survive. In fact, there are numerous organizations, both corporate and nonprofit, that struggle with public distrust as a result of indifference to

internal and external publics.

Katz and Kahn's (1978) argument shed light on the significance of relationship management and inspired many organizational management scholars, as well as public relations researchers. Several scholars have underlined the importance of stakeholder management as a crucial strategy to achieve nonprofit organizational effectiveness and secure accountability (Balser & McClusky, 2005; Herman & Renz, 1997; Ospina, Diaz, & O'Sullivan, 2002). For example, in response to the increase in government outsourcing of social services and the participation of savvy businesses in the competition market, Ryan (1999) argued that nonprofit organizations should cope better with the circumstances and recognize for-profits as both competitors and collaborators. Viewing nonprofit organizations as social institutions, Van Til (2005) emphasized the need for effective public relationship management, stating:

> If nonprofit administrations are truly to be effective, they need to recognize that their organization is linked in myriad ways to the world outside it. Theirs, like any other organization, exists in a complex net of relations with other organizations and institutions, each of which affects each other in some way. (p. 40)

Similarly, connecting systems theory with public relations models, Kelly (1998) argued that press agentry and public information practice based on one-way communication represent a closed-system, whereas two-way asymmetrical and symmetrical models reflect an open-system. She asserted that nonprofit organizations should build quality relationships with various publics based on two-way communications. In conclusion, for surviving dynamic changes, nonprofit organizations should develop and implement effective stakeholder management.

Donor Publics: A Major Stakeholder of Nonprofit Organizations

There are numerous publics with whom nonprofit organizations have

relationships. Van Til (2005) identified givers, intermediaries (i.e., consultants, trainers, counselors, and program officers), regulators who monitor the sector, other nonprofits, beneficiaries, and clients as the major players in the nonprofit arena. Among the diverse groups who enable or limit an organization's activities, such as donors, government agencies, boards, and employees, the nonprofit-donor relationship has been highlighted because donors actually determine success and survival for many nonprofits.

Donor publics who contribute to nonprofit organizations are usually categorized into three groups: individuals, foundations, and corporations. Despite the recent economic downturn, contributions from the three groups accounted for $290.89 billion in 2010 (Giving USA, 2011). The largest portion of dollars given comes from individual donors, followed by foundations, and corporations. The amount of gifts by individuals, including bequests, was $234.60 billion in 2010, or approximate 81% of the total amount given. While each group has distinctive characteristics (Kelly, 1998), donor publics as a whole are one of the most vital publics of nonprofit organizations.

Nonprofit scholars and practitioners have asserted that nonprofit organizations should dedicate their time to developing and maintaining relationships with donors for organizational endurance (Ahern & Joyaux, 2008; Burlingname & Hulse, 1991; Dee & Henkin, 1997; Nudd, 1991; O'Neil, 2008; Rosso & Associates, 1991; Worth, 2002). Dee and Henkin (1997) emphasized the need for social skills to facilitate effective communication in donor relations, listing several critical reasons, such as the following: helping donors understand the organizational mission and organizations understanding donors' wishes; securing public trust; strengthening donor relations to overcome the restriction of public budgets; securing major gift donors; satisfying an increasingly

diverse group of donors; adapting to environmental changes, and demonstrating professionalism to recruit future donors. Emphasizing the value of nonprofit-donor relationship, Nudd (1991) asserted that nonprofit organizations should conduct research on donors to cultivate quality relationships with donor publics.

Ahern and Joyaux (2008) claimed that nonprofit organizations should be donor-centric to build donor trust in organizational effectiveness. Donor-centric organizations treat donors as a central part of the organization, are accountable to donors, and appreciate the donors and their gifts. In other words, donor-centered organizations "make it clear that without the donor, the nonprofits' mission would not go forward and people's lives would not change" (Ahern & Joyaux, 2008, p. 213). Donor-centric fundraising and organization management is well embedded in Kelly's (1998) definition of fundraising, which underscores the importance of donor relations. Kelly described fundraising as "the management of relationships between a charitable organization and its donor publics" (p. 8).

Understanding donor motives is essential to cultivating and maintaining quality relationships with donors. A prominent approach to studying donor motivation is the mixed-motive model for giving behavior, which results from the combination of two opposite viewpoints: self-interest and altruism (Kelly, 1998). Rather than being either purely altruistic or purely egoistic, individuals' giving behavior is motivated by these dual interests, which are not mutually exclusive. In fact, the notion of this mixed-motive model is well embedded in the norm of reciprocity. Gouldner (1960) argued that "there is an altruism in egoism, made possible through reciprocity" (p. 173).

Van Til (1990) was the first nonprofit scholar to adopt the mixed-motive model to

understand giving behavior. Viewing philanthropic behavior as a social exchange, he claimed that “philanthropy *does involve* a complex exchange of money, power, values, and expectations between the donor and the donee” (p. 31, italics in original). This means that dynamic interactions between donors and nonprofit organizations may trigger or even enhance donors’ giving behavior.

Furthermore, from the intrinsic motivational approach, several psychologists have sought to understand individuals’ motivation for prosocial behavior, such as giving or volunteering. For example, adopting self-determination theory, Gagné (2003) argued that individuals’ feeling of being self-regulated or autonomous has a positive relationship with prosocial behavior. In other words, the more individuals feel they have autonomy, the more likely they are to donate or to volunteer. In addition, Gagné asserted that an individual’s internal orientation or external contexts (i.e., autonomy support from family or nonprofit organizations) can enhance socially desirable behavior. Similarly, a qualitative study with volunteer groups found that volunteers who feel a sense of personal empowerment within the relationship with nonprofit organizations increase their voluntary behavior on behalf of the organization (Hibbert, Piacentini, & Dajani, 2003).

In short, relationship management is highly valued in the nonprofit sector, especially in uncertain circumstances. Nonprofit-donor relationships are crucial for organizational success and survival, because donors directly provide nonprofit organizations with financial resources to carry out the organization’s mission. Considering that quality relationships can enhance donor’s internal motivation and giving behavior, building and managing desired nonprofit-donor relationships are

essential for nonprofit organizations. In this thread, public relations is vital to provide guidance of public relationship management. Therefore, the present study explores a sub-function, or specialization, of public relations and adopts a public relationship perspective to better understand how to develop and manage nonprofit-donor relationships.

Public Relations as Relationship Management

Defining Public Relations

Considered as "both a social science field of study and a professional practice" (Vasquez & Taylor, 2000, p. 319), public relations has been one of the most prosperous research areas in communication (Botan & Taylor, 2004). In accordance with the field's growing popularity, numerous attempts to define public relations have been made since the early 20th century (Broom, 2009; J. E. Grunig & Hunt, 1984; Harlow, 1976; Kruckeberg & Starck, 1988). While the definitions have been changed over time and have reflected a wide variety of aspects (Harlow, 1976), the most common premise among the definitions of public relations is the emphasis of a management function. J. E. Grunig and Hunt (1984) simply defined public relations as "management of communication between an organization and its publics" (p.6). Thomsen (1997) highlighted two major management aspects of public relations—both communication and relationships. He defined public relations as "the building of relationships and the management of communication between organizations and individuals" (p. 12). This view is further expanded by Broom (2009) who defined public relations as "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (p. 7).

Public relations' role in managing relationships between an organization and its publics is highlighted by many public relations scholars. Ferguson (1984) called for research on organization-public relationships as a central unit of study among public relations scholars. The emphasis on relationship management was also embedded in the Excellence study that sought determinants of effective organization management and the value of public relations within an effective organization (e.g., L. A., Grunig et al., 2002). Advocating systems theory that stresses the importance of interdependency with publics and adopting open-systems for greater success, the Excellence theory scholars explained that the unique contribution of public relations to an organization is managing the relationships with various publics. They stated:

> Building relationships—managing interdependence—is the substance of public relations. Good relationships, in turn, make organizations more effective because they allow organizations more freedom—more autonomy—to achieve their missions than they would with bad relationships. By giving up autonomy by building relationships, ironically, organizations maximize that autonomy. (L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, & Ehling, 1992, p. 69)

The scholars defended the financial contribution of relationship management to an organization, noting that public relations advances organizational effectiveness "when it helps reconcile the organization's goals with the expectations of its strategic constituencies. This contribution has monetary value to the organization. Public relations contributes to effectiveness by building quality, long-term relationships with strategic constituencies" (L. A. Grunig et al., 1992, p. 86).

The definition of public relations undergirding the management function widens the scope of public relations practice within an organization, from a mere publicity function or media relations to collaborative efforts for mutual benefits. Coombs (2007) further asserted that public relations is "designed to create mutual engagement and

benefits to society" (p. 2). Advocating the concept just discussed, the present study defines public relations as a management function that leads to building and managing high quality relationships to advance mutual benefits between an organization and its publics.

Defining Organization-Public Relationships

Relationship management is now one of the major research paradigms in the field (Botan & Taylor, 2004; Ehling, 1992). Although it took several years for public relations scholars to concentrate on relationship management, Ferguson's (1984) assertion yielded a paradigm shift from a functional to a co-creational perspective (Botan & Taylor, 2004). Ehling (1992) viewed the paradigm shift from the manipulation of public opinion to relationship management with key publics as "an important change in the primary mission of public relations management" (p. 622). Yet few scholars have actually explicated the definition of the relationship between an organization and its publics or how to measure it (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 1997; 2000), even though many scholars have researched relationships in various settings (Botan & Taylor, 2004; Ki & Shin, 2006). In a review of research on organization-public relationships over two decades, Ki & Shin also found little consensus in the definition and measurement of organization-public relationship research.

However, responding to the need for a useful definition of organization-public relationship, definitions of the concept have evolved. Broom et al. (1997) argued for the necessity of a well-explicated definition of organization-public relationships to develop valid measurements of the concept and to advance theory building. They extensively reviewed literature from various disciplines, such as interpersonal relations,

psychotherapy, inter-organizational relations, and systems theory. Later, taking the exchange perspective, Broom, Casey, and Ritchey (2000) defined organization-public relationships as follows:

> Organization-public relationships are represented by the patterns of interaction, transaction, exchange, and linkage between an organization and its publics. These relationships have properties that are distinct from the identities, attributes, and perceptions of the individuals and social collectivities in the relationships. Though dynamic in nature, organization-public relationships can be described at a single point in time and tracked over time. (p. 18)

Taking a different viewpoint, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) embraced the new direction of public relations, focusing on theory building in organization-public relationships. They defined the organization-public relationship as “the state which exists between an organization and its key publics in which the actions of either entity impact the economic, social, political and/or cultural well-being of the other entity” (p. 62). The definition underlines the dynamic influences of both parties on a relationship. Ledingham and Bruning further argued that an ideal organization-public relationship exists only when both parties provide economic, social, political and/or cultural benefits to the other and they perceive the relationship as mutually positive. Based on existing literature on organization-public relationships, Ledingham (2003) proposed consideration of relationship management as a general theory of public relations and asserted: “Effectively managing organization-public relationships around common interests and shared goals, over time, results in mutual understanding and benefit for interacting organizations and publics" (p. 190).

Reflecting systems theory and interdependence from an interpersonal communication perspective, Hung (2005) contended that organization-public relationships “arise when organizations and their strategic publics are interdependent,

and this interdependence results in consequences to each other that organizations need to manage constantly" (p. 396). Her definition added the interdependent nature into Ledingham and Bruning's (1998) definition of organization-public relationships. Thomlison (2000) understood a relationship as "a set of expectations two parties have for each other's behavior based on their interaction patterns" (p. 178). Also, Yang and J. E. Grunig (2005) underlined both the processes and outcomes of relationships, stating that "organization-public relationships have commonly been defined by focusing on either the processes of relationship formation or the outcomes of a relationship produced between an organization and its publics" (p. 307).

While the different definitions of organization-public relationships illustrate diverse aspects of relationships, the concept involves interdependence, interaction, and influence among the parties involved in the relationship. Thus, the present study defines organization-public relationships as the state in which both an organization and its publics are interdependent and can influence or be influenced by each other through dynamic interactions.

Relationship Management Theory: Two Main Streams of Research

Theory on organization-public relationships has been developed in two primary streams of research. The first branch has been conducted by scholars at Capitol University in Columbus, Ohio, and the second one has been led by scholars at the University of Florida and the University of Maryland.

The first research team was initiated by Ledingham, Bruning, Thomlison, and Lesko (1997), who identified 17 different relationship dimensions through extensive reviews of literature from various academic disciplines. These 17 dimensions of

relationship were: investment, commitment, trust, comfort with relational dialectics, cooperation, mutual goals, interdependence/power imbalance, performance satisfaction, shared technology, summate constructs, structural bonds, and social bonds, intimacy, and passion. Ledingham and Bruning (1998) later operationalized the five major dimensions in an organization-public relationship: trust, openness, involvement, investment, and commitment. Testing these five dimensions to a telephone company-customer relationship, Ledingham and Bruning found that these five relationship dimensions can predict the publics' behavioral relationships with the company in a competitive environment. Three different groups of customers—1) those who would stay with the current telephone company, 2) those who planned to leave the company, and 3) those who were unsure about staying or leaving the company—had different degrees of the five dimensions. Testing the influence of the five relationship dimensions on organization-public relationship and on the level of publics' satisfaction with the organization has been extended to different relationship contexts, such as employee-community relationship (Wilson, 2000), and business-to-business relationship (Bruning & Ledingham, 2000).

In addition, Bruning and Ledingham (1999) developed the organization-public relationship scales and suggested the multi-dimensional characteristics of relationships. Finding three different types of organization-public relationship expectations from publics—professional, personal, and community— they argued that public relations practices should be employed to advance the professional, personal, and community relationships between an organization and its publics. Studies exploring the three types

of relationships have been conducted in government-citizen relationships (Ledingham, 2001) and university-student relationships (Bruning, 2002).

Bruning and Galloway (2003) later added two different commitment aspects— personal commitment and structural commitment— to the original dimensions Bruning and Ledingham (1999) found. Personal commitment occurs when relational partners want to keep a relationship because they have positive feelings toward the partner or earn benefits from the relationship, whereas structural commitment occurs when one party remains in the relationship because he or she does not find an alternative partner who can fulfill the needs as effectively as the current relational partner does. In doing so, Bruning and Galloway (2003) not only refined the original relationship dimensions of professional, personal, and community relationships but also highlighted that personal commitment and comparison of alternatives enrich the multidimensionality of relationships.

In their early work, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) emphasized the importance of effective communication within the relationship management process, viewing it as a strategic tool for accomplishing organizational goals. Later, a longitudinal approach of communication intervention in relationship building confirmed the role of strategic communication implementation in achieving relationship goals by enhancing the levels of the five relationship dimensions (Ledingham & Bruning, 2000).

Whereas the first organization-public relationship team has dealt largely with the multidimensionality of relationships, linkages between the relationship dimensions and publics' satisfaction and behavior, and the importance of communication to enhance the relationship, the second stream of relationship research has focused on antecedents or

determinants of organization-public relationships, as well as outcomes of the relationship.

Like the first relationship study stream, the second research team also found the value of public relations in organization-public relationships. Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) considered that organization-public relationships are formed when one party has potential or actual consequences on another party. Relationships, they explained, are characterized as 1) two or more parties involved, 2) situational, and 3) behavioral. Reflecting on the characteristics of organization-public relationships, J. E. Grunig and Y.-H. Huang (2000) proposed a three-stage model of relationship development: antecedents, maintenance strategies, and outcomes, which was initially developed by Broom et al. (1997).

Recognizing a lack of reliable and valid measurement of relationships that could be used to demonstrate the contribution of public relations to organizations, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) proposed six relationship variables obtained from the interpersonal communication and psychology literature. They divided the variables into two groups: relationship outcomes and relationship types. The relationship outcomes or qualities based on successful relationship management strategies are trust, satisfaction, control mutuality, and commitment, which are considered “good indicators of successful interpersonal relationships” (p. 18). The two different types of relationships between an organization and its publics are exchange and communal relationships. Whereas exchange relationships are similar to the notion of *quid pro quo,* in which one party provides benefits to the other expecting returned benefits, communal relationships are those in which both parties offer benefits to the other, not because they expect to get

something in return but because they care about the other party's welfare. Communal relationships involve higher degrees of relationship qualities in publics' trust, satisfaction, control mutuality, and commitment than exchange relationships. Thus, Hon and J. E. Grunig asserted that public relations practice should be able to nurture communal relationship between an organization and its publics, rather than to cultivate exchange relationships.

In furthering the relationship measurement scales, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) also tested them in relation to five distinct organizations that have distinct natures, ranging from profit to nonprofit, and good or bad reputations, and showed that the scales are reliable and somewhat valid measures of organization-public relationships.

In addition to the relationship antecedents and outcomes, the scholars in this second stream of relationship scholarship suggested key relationship management strategies drawn from the research on interpersonal relationships and conflict resolution strategies (J. E., Grunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000; Hon & J. E., Grunig, 1999; Ki & Hon, 2009).

These relationship management scholars used different terminologies to refer to an organization's efforts to build and maintain relationships with publics. Some scholars (e.g., J. E. Grunig & Huang, 2000; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Huang, 2000; Ki & Hon, 2007) used the term *maintenance*, which considers relationships as remaining steady. On the other hand, Hung (2005) observed the dynamic nature of organization-public relationship, which involves not only maintain a positive relationship but also restore a damaged relationship. She asserted that "behaviors in relationships are an on-going cultivating process. Therefore, the term 'cultivation strategies' fits more in the context of

relationship management" (Hung, 2005, p. 23). Aligning with Hung's assertion, Waters (2007) endorsed the term 'cultivation' than maintenance. Despite the inconsistency in terminology, the scholars highlighted the role of public relations as a management function in building and maintaining mutually beneficial relationships. Given that management is a broader term that includes development, cultivation, and maintenance, the study utilizes the term 'management' to refer to an organization's efforts in advancing quality organization-public relationship.

These relationship management strategies were developed in response to Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) emphasis on the need for strategic public relations practices that involve effective communication management that can lead to fostering desirable relationship outcomes. However, they also admitted that "not all strategies for maintaining relationships are equally effective… we must recognize that not all public relations strategies, techniques, and programs are equally likely to produce relationship outcomes" (p. 13), which also speaks to the need for measuring the effectiveness of the adopted strategy. Defining relationship management strategies as "any organizational behavioral efforts that attempt to establish, cultivate, and sustain relationships with strategic publics" (p. 5), Ki and Hon (2009) described relationship management strategies as process indicators that yield positive relationship quality outcomes.

Drawing from interpersonal relationships, Y.-H. Huang (1997) introduced conflict management strategies (i.e., integrative, distributive, and avoidance/non-confrontational strategy) to public relations as means for fostering productive relationships between an organization and its publics. Embracing both interpersonal relationships and conflict resolution strategies, Hon and J.E. Grunig (1999) proposed nine relationship

management strategies. Among the relationship management strategies proposed, the strategies derived from interpersonal relationships are considered symmetrical public relationship management practices, through which both parties can benefit from the relationship, whereas the conflict resolution strategies involve both symmetrical and asymmetrical approaches.

Applying Hon & J. E. Grunig's (1999) work, several studies empirically tested how organizations utilize relationship management strategies in online contexts (Hong, 2006; Ki & Hon, 2006). Later, Ki and Hon (2009) developed measures of relationship management strategies—access, assurances, openness, sharing of tasks, positivity, and networking—and tested them with a nonprofit-association's relationships with its members. Each relationship management strategy will be further discussed later in this section.

Summarizing the current relationship management studies, although the two research streams have somewhat different dimensions to explain organization-public relationship, both streams have advanced relationship management theory and emphasized the contribution of effective public relations practice in organization-public relationship management.

Understanding Relationship Building Theory from a Two-Way Symmetrical Communication Perspective

Describing the history of public relations practices, J. E. Grunig and Hunt (1984) identified four different public relations models: press agentry, public information, two-way asymmetrical, and two-way symmetrical. The first two models, press agentry and public information, are described as one-way communication models by which public relations is restricted to only sending messages to publics, whereas the latter two

models, two-way asymmetrical and two-way symmetrical, are described as sophisticated practices of communication. In contrast to one-way models, which do not have any feedback from publics, two-way models involve scientific research on understanding publics to help dominant coalitions make better decisions and close the communication loop by providing publics with channels for feedback (Dozier et al., 1995).

By adopting Murphy's (1991) game theory and mixed-motives approach, Dozier et al. (1995) elaborated understanding of two-way communication models in public relations. Public relations practices within the win-win zone, where both an organization and its publics benefit from each other, are called the *mixed-motive model* or *two-way model*. In the win-win zone, public relations practitioners negotiate with both publics and dominant coalitions to help both parties benefit from the relationship. On the other hand, public relations practices outside the win-win zone in which one party tries to persuade, convince, and manipulate the other party for its own goals are labeled *pure asymmetrical*. Even though the two-way model involves both asymmetrical and symmetrical public relations practices, Dozier and his colleagues viewed the two-way model as essentially symmetrical because "such practices are bounded by a symmetrical worldview that respects the integrity of long-term relationships" (p. 49). Adopting the two-way model, Kelly (2003) explained the continuum of fundraising. She described the win-win zone as where interests of both organization and donors exist but are well balanced, thus bringing mutual benefits.

The virtue of the two-way symmetrical model is to provide negotiation or a conflict resolution process to lead to mutual benefits for both parties, which is the notion

of relationship management (Ledingham, 2003). Ledingham argued that “mutual benefit occurs when organization-public relations are effectively managed, and describes how a symmetrical relationship emerges (by management focused, over time, on common interests and shared goals)” (p. 191). Similarly, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) characterized that the most successful relationships can be nurtured by two-way communications. They added that relationships are most productive in the long run if they benefit both parties, rather than only the organization.

The importance of two-way symmetrical public relations practices for fostering a quality relationship between an organization and its publics has been emphasized by public relations scholars. J. E. Grunig (2006) argued that “the concept of relationship cultivation strategies is the heir to the models of public relations and the two-way symmetrical model, in particular” (p. 168). Also, in a longitudinal study of organization-public relationships, Ledingham and Bruning (2000) contended that “organizations that utilize the two-way symmetrical approach, constructed around the organization-public relations, may gain a competitive advantage that can serve as an additional organizational incentive to ‘do well by doing right’” (p. 68).

In short, a two-way symmetrical approach to identifying and providing mutual benefits within the win-win zone has been valued through extensive public relations literature as crucial to managing effective organization-public relationships. This approach requires strategic research that seeks to understand publics’ needs, motivations, and behaviors that influence the relationship with an organization, as well as effective communication to figure out common ground (Dozier, et al., 1995).

Missing Elements in Relationship Management Theory

Yet, while both research streams have contributed to building relationship management theory by developing multiple measures of organization-public relationships and replicating research with various relationship settings, the existing studies have ignored some significant premises in relationship building.

First, existing studies have neglected to explain the dynamic power relations between the parties involved in the relationships even though power is an inherent characteristic of relationship (Dahl, 1957; Foucault, 1995). Through interactions between an organization and its publics, both parties exert power over the other in order to achieve their own goals. Interpersonal communication scholars argue that the power ratio between the two players demonstrates the level of interdependence (Millar & Rogers, 1987). Similarly, in defining the concept of relationship, Broom et al. (1997) also viewed a relationship as involving the exchange or transfer of one's resources and influences, such as information and energy.

Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) also assumed that power is embedded in organization-public relationships, asserting that one party has an impact on the success of the other party. Looking at power from the perspective of empowerment, the Excellence study emphasized the expansion of organizational power to its external publics. The study demonstrated that "the more people inside and outside the organization that were included in the dominant coalition, the more likely it was that the head of public relations and outside stakeholders and activists were included" (J. E. Grunig, 2006, p. 165). However, current public relations studies have failed to

incorporate the concept of empowerment in relationship management and seldom address when and how publics are empowered within the organization-public context.

Secondly, most relationship management studies have relied heavily on the assumption that organizations can persuade their publics to believe and act in the ways they wish, somewhat overlooking publics' autonomy in their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors toward the organization. Even though successful relationships require both accountability and autonomy of each player in the relationship (L. A. Grunig et al., 1992), there is a lack of discussion regarding how organizations actually enhance publics' autonomy in relationships. From the symmetrical perspective, J. E. Grunig (1989) viewed that a symmetrical worldview respects publics' autonomy to influence their own behavior. He argued: "People are more innovative, constructive, and self-fulfilled when they have the autonomy to influence their own behavior, rather than having it controlled by others. Autonomy maximizes employee satisfaction inside the organization and cooperation outside the organization" (p. 38). J. E. Grunig (1984) argued that players in the win-win zone have both autonomy from and accountability to the other players.

Applying the notion of autonomy to relationship management, positive organization-public relationships are achieved when both parties somewhat exercise their autonomy while remaining interdependent with each other. Similarly, based on the norm of reciprocity, when one party in a relationship gives up a certain degree of its own autonomy to foster the other party's autonomy, the partner may feel more responsible or accountable, pay back in their own autonomy to the other party, and become more devoted to the relationship. To date, few studies actually account for the publics' autonomy in the relationships. Along those same lines, little has been done to address

how publics respond to an organization's efforts to foster publics' autonomy in interdependent relationships.

Furthermore, existing relationship management studies have neglected the cognitive and behavioral reactions of publics in a relationship with an organization. Broom et al. (1997) proposed that publics' perceptions, motives, needs, and behaviors are not only the antecedents of relationship formation, but also the sources to cause changes in relationships. In addition, they contended: "Relationship formation and maintenance represents a process of mutual adaptation and contingent responses" (p. 95). In other words, they argued that one party in a relationship has cognitive and/or behavioral responses to the other party's efforts to build and maintain the relationship. Put another way, rather than automatically holding positive attitudes toward organizations or enacting desired behaviors as organizations wish, publics, having their own perspectives, perceive, evaluate, and behave independently in relationships with organizations. Thus, it is imperative to understand publics' psychological states within the relationship context, on which current scholars forego research.

Lastly, while some public relations scholars have sought the association between relationship and publics' behavior (Ki & Hon, 2007; Ledingham & Bruning, 1998, Waters, 2007), they have ignored which publics' internal states or motivations are likely to lead or not to lead to a certain behavior. Even though Ki and Hon (2007) explained publics' behavior based on a hierarchy of effect that describes the links among relationship perceptions, attitudes toward the organization, and behavioral intention, they failed to account for motivational aspects. Considering that relationship, itself, is a contextual factor and may facilitate or inhibit publics' behavior, it is suggested that scholars gauge

how relationships between an organization and its publics can influence the publics' motivation to perform a desired behavior.

In sum, the existing literature has neglected the fundamental premises that organization-public relationships involve such factors as power or impact on the other party, one party's autonomy in the relationship, and motivation to maintain or develop relationships with the party. To address these gaps, there is a need for research that provides insight into the publics' psychological state, which ultimately influences the quality of a relationship with an organization and publics' behavioral intention.

Among various psychological concepts that describe publics' inner states, the current study introduces publics' empowerment to relationship management theory. For the purpose of this study, psychological empowerment is understood as publics' motivation that involves autonomy and self-efficacy to influence the relationship and their own behavior (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Publics' psychological empowerment can be cultivated and maintained by two-way symmetrical relationships that permit a certain degree of publics' autonomy. Moreover, the publics' empowerment state not only influences their relationships with organizations but also determines publics' attitudes toward organizations, as well as their behaviors. Therefore, exploration of public empowerment is pivotal to developing relationship management theory.

In the following section, the concept of empowerment and definition of psychological empowerment will be discussed. Given that empowerment inherently stems from the concept of power, the definition of power will be presented prior to discussing empowerment.

Understanding the Concept of Empowerment

Definition of Power

As an integral part of any relationship, power is embedded in individuals' daily lives (Dahl, 1957; Oksiutycz, 2006). While the concept of power has drawn a lot of attention from scholars from different academic settings over time, there is no formal definition of power that is applicable to all different contexts and that provides a solid measurement tool for the concept. In general, power can be understood as an individual's capacity to achieve something (Barnes, 2004). From a sociological perspective, Dahl (1957) viewed power as a relation among individuals. He defined power as one party's ability to control another's behavior to the point the other would do something they would not otherwise do. In other words, Dahl argued that power is the degree to which a person possesses the ability to control another. It is important to note, however, that, rather than static or unchanging, power has dynamic, multidimensional features and can be understood differently depending on context or circumstance (Veneklasen, 2002).

Huczynski and Buchanan (2001) explained power as an abstract concept within three different contexts: personal, structural, and relational characteristics. They explained that whereas power as a personal attribute refers to the energy or stamina that an individual possesses, structural power stems from a formal position and authority of an individual within an organizational structure, and relational power is considered a social power that accounts for the relationships between the power holder and others. Similarly, Oksiutycz (2006) explained that power as an individual attribute, as well as power embedded in relationship contexts, can be used occasionally to lead to

behavioral changes in others. Structural power rooted in daily life of an organization is pervasive and omnipresent, as well as hard to observe.

From the organizational communication perspective, Oksiutycz (2006) emphasized the importance of power in explaining organizational relationships. He asserted that not only the organization but also lower-level employees have substantial power. Each party in organization-public relationships influences the amount or the way the other party exercises its power. For example, Pheby (2004) argued that organizational power is more influential if it is legitimized by its publics. In sum, power is one of the essential concepts that explain human behavior and dynamic relationships with other social entities.

The Concept of Empowerment

Closely related to power, the term *empowerment* has been adopted in various disciplines, from community development to psychology, healthcare, organizational management, and marketing. As a result, the definitions of empowerment are abundant, but there is little consensus regarding a definition of empowerment. Moreover, understanding the term is limited to a theoretical construct rather than practical use (Salzer, 1997). This is based on the fact that the concept of empowerment as population specific is heavily influenced by contexts (Zimmerman, 2000).

Kuokkanen and Leino-Kilpi (2000) argued that empowerment studies fall into three different theoretical roots: critical social theory, organizational theory, and social psychology. Whereas empowerment in critical social theory focuses on the improvement of oppressed groups' living conditions (i.e., minorities, women, and patients), empowerment rooted in organizational theory is highly related to leadership

and management, involving delegation of power and the subject's opportunity to take an action. Empowerment in the context of social psychology theory emphasizes individual development in response to the environment surrounding him/her. Kuokkanen and Leino-Kilpi further argued that empowerment based on both organizational and social psychology theories share commonalities and are heavily adopted in business or management studies, whereas empowerment in critical social theory exists as independent category.

In general, empowerment is defined as "an intentional ongoing process centered in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to and control over those resources" (Cornell Empowerment Group, 1989, p. 2). In simpler terms, some scholars view empowerment as a process of transferring power to subordinates (Greasley et al., 2005; The World Bank Group, 1999; Vogt, 1997), or the redistribution of power from those who possess it to the powerless in the organization (Cornwall & Perlman, 1990).

The definitions above emphasize the aspect of empowerment as a process or act that arises in dynamic circumstances. This approach is actively adopted by scholars from different disciplines (e.g. Cornwall & Perlman, 1990; Geroy, Wright, & Anderson, 1998; Salzer, 1997; Vogt, 1997). For example, in employee management research, Geroy et al. (1998) emphasized the process feature of empowerment, defining it as "the process of providing employees with the necessary guidance and skills, to enable autonomous decision making (including accountability and the responsibility) for making these decisions within acceptable parameters, that are part of an organizational culture"

(p. 57). Salzer (1997) also argued that customer empowerment in mental health organizations occurs in the process of change, and that it is a continuous process which requires more than one single event.

However, several empowerment scholars have asserted that empowerment should be considered as both process and outcome (e.g. Alsop & Heinshon, 2005; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Swift & Levin, 1987). Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) explained that empowerment indicates “both a process (of empowering groups or individuals) and an outcome (a person or group is empowered)” (p. 5). Rather than relying heavily on either processes or outcomes, it is recommended to understand the concept of empowerment from the holistic approach. Put another way, empowerment study needs to account for not only structures, activities, and interventions that lead to empowerment, but also for the level of being empowered as the outcomes resulting in the process.

There are two different points of view in defining the concept of empowerment, either as structural or psychological empowerment. Based on the assumption that people respond rationally to a situation surrounding them, structural empowerment refers to a situation that inspires people to feel empowered (Kanter, 1977; 1993). Kanter argued that an organization’s effectiveness could be enhanced by creating empowering work structures, such as access to organizational information and resources, as well as opportunities to grow within the organization. On the other hand, psychological empowerment focuses on an individual’s reaction to external environments that may enhance their feeling of empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

To conceptualize psychological empowerment, Conger and Kanungo (1988) classified the concept of power into two categories: the acquisition or possession of formal authority and the individual's capacity to perform a behavior. Whereas empowerment from formal authority derives from delegating power to the powerless or authorizing a group to do something, empowerment based on the ability to perform a behavior derives from enhancing an individual's personal efficacy. Conger and Kanungo argued that psychological empowerment can be understood as an individual's motivation to enact certain behavior, rather than an individual's acquisition or possession of authority.

Recognizing the interpretive process in an individual's cognitive response, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) further developed Conger and Kanungo's (1988) assertion. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) understood the concept of psychological empowerment as an individual's intrinsic motivation to conduct a task. Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason (1997) viewed psychological empowerment as "what individuals need to experience or feel in order for such interventions to be effective" (p. 681). In other words, psychological empowerment is an outcome of structural empowerment as well as a trigger to lead to a desired behavior. Several studies in nursing also confirmed the influence of structural empowerment on psychological empowerment, as well as the mediating role of psychological empowerment in the relationship between structural empowerment and desired behaviors (e.g. Laschinger et al., 2001b; Knol & van Linge, 2009).

While both approaches are actively adopted in empowerment research, outcomes of structural empowerment do not guarantee that publics actually feel

empowered within the relationship they have with an organization and the empowering contexts that an organization offers. Bowen and Lawler (1992) argued that empowerment and employee's involvement that improves organizational performance is contingent upon various organizational circumstances, such as corporate business strategies, relationships with consumers, and technology. Moreover, structural empowerment does not reflect the publics' internal reactions and aspects within relationship contexts, nor their motivation to enhance both the relationship and the desired behavior. Likewise, Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, and Jennings (1988) found that there are different forms of participation in the decision-making process, and the organization's participatory nature, itself, does not assure publics' empowerment. Therefore, in this study, empowerment will be explored as a psychological state of an individual in a relationship with an organization, defining it as donors' intrinsic motivation not only to devote themselves to relationships with nonprofit organizations but also to enact giving behavior.

Psychological Empowerment and its Constructs

Rooted in management and psychology literature, Conger and Kanungo (1988) emphasized the psychological aspect of empowerment. Influenced by the concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; 1986) and effort-performance expectancy of individuals (Lawler, 1973), Conger and Kanungo (1988) highlighted a motivational trait in the feeling of empowerment to conduct a task, rather than the degree of formal authority or control over an organization. They defined empowerment as "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal

organizational practice and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (p. 474). By viewing empowerment as an individual's motivation to conduct a task, Conger and Kanungo's definition allows scholars to explore the initiation and persistence of an individual's behavior. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expanded Conger and Kanungo's (1988) concept of psychological empowerment, viewing it as intrinsic task motivation. They argued that the feeling of empowerment is determined by an individual's interpretation of reality or a situation. In other words, empowerment is more subjective than objective, and the level of empowerment within the same circumstance may differ by individuals. Spreitzer (1995) further asserted three important characteristics of psychological empowerment. First, empowerment is a set of cognitions reflecting a situation or environment. Second, empowerment is a continuous variable, rather than a dichotomy of either empowered or not empowered. Third, empowerment is situational-specific, not a global reaction to various environments.

Similarly, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued for the multifaceted features of psychological empowerment, identifying these features: competence, self-determination, meaning, and impact. Later, Spreitzer (1995) developed measurements for the four constructs and tested the validity of the constructs.

Meaning

Meaning refers to the evaluation of the value of the task role from the standards of an individual's own beliefs and values (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). In other words, it denotes the degree of congruence between the value or requirement of the task role and an individual's own beliefs, values, and behaviors. It is also a matter of caring for a task, since individuals invest their intrinsic energy to the task if the task values fit well with their own (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Whereas a low degree of meaning causes apathy, detachment, and indifference to a task (May, 1969), a high level of meaning leads to commitment and involvement (Sjoberg, Olsson, & Salay, 1983). In the consumer empowerment context, Han (2006) defined meaning as “the value of the consumption judged by the consumer according to his life style and consumption ideas” (p. 48). In the current study, meaning is defined as the level to which donors’ personal values and beliefs meet with the values of nonprofit organizations’ missions.

Competence

Closely related to self-efficacy or personal mastery as defined by Bandura (1977; 1986), competence accounts for an individual’s belief in his or her own capacity to accomplish a task skillfully (Gist, 1987; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). This concept is called potency in team empowerment (Kirkman & Rozen, 1999). High self-efficacy leads people to initiate behaviors and overcome an obstacle to accomplish a task, whereas low self-efficacy prevents a person from confronting fears or situations that require certain relevant skills (Bandura, 1986). Han (2006) renamed competence in consumers as ability, defining it as a “customer’s confidence on the ability of the consumption” (p. 48). Applying this concept to donor empowerment, competence is defined as donors’ perceived capacity to manage quality relationships with nonprofit organizations and contribute to the causes that the nonprofit organizations support.

Impact

In management literature, impact is the degree to which individuals believe they can have influence on their task environment, as well as on task outcomes (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). As a concept closely related to the locus of control (Bandura, 1977), impact is highly influenced by external work settings (Spreitzer, 1995). The feeling of

impact is perceived control over the environment, which can be fostered by a history of work experience or work contexts. In consumer empowerment, impact refers to the degree to which customers can influence the service process and outcomes. The current study defines impact as the degree to which donors perceive that they can influence their relationships with nonprofit organizations.

Autonomy

Whereas impact or locus of control is an individual's influence on outcomes, autonomy refers to a perceived choice in initiating or managing a task (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Autonomy involves an individual's self-determination in performing a task. The term is also known by other names. For example, Spreitzer (1995) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) equated autonomy with self-determination, and deCharms (1968) called it the locus of causality. Labeling it "self-choices," Han (2006) argued that autonomy denotes the degree to which a "customer can select the products and service that he wants in the service encounter, and control his own consumption experience" (p. 48). Many scholars argue that autonomy is a vital factor in determining an individual's intrinsic motivation to take an action (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci et al., 1989; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Thus, this study defines autonomy as the level of donors' perceived choice or freedom in managing their relationships with nonprofit organizations and their giving behavior.

Explanation of these four elements of psychological empowerment allows scholars to better understand the concept (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Together, the four dimensions provide a comprehensive explanation of a publics' psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995). An individual is more empowered when all four dimensions are present at high levels. In fact, Spreitzer argued that the lack of any

single one of these dimensions in the individual reduces the individual's overall level of empowerment, even though it does not eliminate it completely.

Additionally, some studies have found that the four dimensions of empowerment respond differently to the same contextual conditions (Siegall & Gardner, 2000; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). By conducting a survey among employees, Siegall and Gardner (2000) found that, even though the patterns are somewhat varied by the type of employment, either full time or part time, employees' communication with their supervisor and their general relationship with the company are highly correlated to meaning, autonomy, and impact; teamwork is positively related to meaning and impact; and employees' concern for their performance is linked with meaning and autonomy. Zimmerman (1995) further argued that psychological empowerment can be applied in different populations and settings.

Given that these constructs of psychological empowerment, individually or together, have been measured in various types of publics, such as employees, consumers, and members of voluntary organizations (Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Han, 2006; Spreitzer, 1995; 1996; Zimmerman, 1995), the current study adopts the four dimensions of psychological empowerment for further exploration.

The Values of Empowerment

The effect of empowerment on individuals has been well documented. At a personal level, empowerment leads to a reduced feeling of isolation and increases a sense of community (Lord & Hutchison, 1993). Also, people who feel empowered show more innovative behaviors (Amabile, 1988; Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993; Spreitzer, 1995), higher job satisfaction and less job strain (Laschinger et al., 2001b) than those who are less empowered. A study also found that employees' perceived

empowerment can enhance their loyalty to the company for which they work; their ability to care for others, including customers; and their job satisfaction (Ugboro & Obeng, 2000). By adopting the empowerment concept to the marketing field, a recent study found that consumers who are empowered by participating in a new product development process have a sense of ownership which may increase the perceived value of the product (Fuchs et al., 2010).

At an organizational level, viewing patients as a customer group, Ouschan et al. (2006) addressed how patients' empowerment is related to a collaborative patient-physician relationship. The study found that patients have a tendency to trust and commit more to the physicians who employ empowering communication styles, such as patient control, patient participation, and physician support. Similarly, providing an environment that empowers employees at work is also highly associated with employees' trust of and commitment to the organization for which they work (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005). Also, emphasizing the value of empowerment, scholars in marketing have discussed how a sense of empowerment can enhance relationships with customers (Wright, Newman, & Dennis, 2006).

Power and Empowerment in Public Relations

Even though public relations practitioners contribute to an organization by managing relationships with key publics and power is inherent in any relationship, there is a lack of discussion about the concept of power in public relations literature. Most public relations discussions on power are led by Excellence theory scholars, who explain the concept of power in regard to effective management of an organization (Dozier et al., 1995; J. E. Grunig, 1992).

Viewing power as a resource or capacity to exercise influence, the Excellence study scholars claim that public relations department and communication managers should possess power within an organization. Describing the dominant coalitions as a "group of people with the power to set directions and affect structure in organizations" (p. 15), Dozier et al. (1995) affirmed that public relations managers serve as members of dominant coalitions in effective organizations. In addition, J. E. Grunig (2006) argued that dominant coalitions, as an informal alliance, are composed of both internal and external members of organizations and include internal members having a variety of hierarchy.

Similarly, L. A. Grunig (1992) claimed that for effective organizational management, dominant coalitions should view public relations as a managerial function rather than a technical function and that public relations managers should be involved in the organization's decision-making process. Also, applying the concept of power to gender, Hon, L. A. Grunig, and Dozier (1992) argued that female public relations practitioners experience discrimination and are deprived of the opportunity to serve in a manager role.

From a critical theory perspective, Berger (2005) explicated power in dominant coalitions and public relations practitioners. Based on review on relevant literature and interviews with public relations executives, he discussed three different aspects of power in relations. The first, power over relations is dominant when dominant coalitions pursue organizational self-interest values and confine approaches or plans from different perspectives. The second, power with relations, refers to the organization's willingness or ability for self-reflection and inclusion of different perspectives, as well

shared power that values interaction, dialogue, collaboration, cooperation, and relationship building. Third and last, power to relations refers to public relations practitioner's activist role.

As detailed above, the power with relations aspect can be understood to include an empowerment model that involves public voice in the decision-making process. This strategy, according to Berger (2005), is an opportunity for public relations practitioners and scholars to exert power with relations and power to relations to make society better.

Expanding the discussion of power to relationships with external publics, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) viewed control mutuality as an important aspect of relationship qualities. Defining control mutuality as "the degree to which parties agree on who has rightful power to influence one another" (p.19), Hon and J. E. Grunig asserted that both organizations and publics have a certain degree of control or power to exert influence on the other in positive relationships.

Additionally, the concept of power is entrenched in the development of the four public relations models suggested by J. E. Grunig and Hunt (1984): the press agentry/publicity model, the public information model, the two-way asymmetrical model, and the two way symmetrical model. These scholars argued that two major criteria are reflected in the four distinctive public relations models: direction (one-way or two-way) and balance (symmetrical or asymmetrical). The first model, press agentry/publicity, is characterized with one-way and asymmetrical features. This model uses persuasion and manipulation to obtain desirable behaviors from publics. Similarly, the two-way asymmetrical model uses persuasion to obtain desired organizational outcomes, but does so while engaging in two-way communication with key publics. Rather than

manipulating publics, this model involves scientific research to better shape messages that they will accept. The public information model focuses on the distribution of factual organizational information. Lastly, the two-way symmetrical model engages publics in a dialogue designed to negotiate, resolve conflict, and reach mutual understanding, which is believed to lead to mutually beneficial outcomes. In sum, the two-way symmetrical model highlights the roles of public relations in achieving mutual benefits and understanding between an organization and its publics. Here the organization and the publics are assumed to have equal power. In contrast, the other three public relations models assume unequal power distributions and view public relations as a tool to maximize organization's power within the relationship with publics.

To a lesser degree Excellence study scholars have addressed the question of empowerment. Analyzing power in the context of empowerment, Excellence study scholars define empowerment as an organization's efforts to expand its power to external stakeholders (J. E. Grunig, 2006). J. E. Grunig suggested that an organization should empower its publics to have a voice in the organization's decision-making process for effective organization management. He added that by promoting a sense of empowerment in its internal and external stakeholders, an organization can scan the environment better, hear what its publics want, and make appropriate decisions for organizational survival.

The concepts of power and empowerment are also salient in the relationship management strategies defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999). These strategies include: opening organizations' decision-making processes to publics, being willing to engage publics in open discussion, assuring the other party that the organization

considers their concerns legitimate and values the relationship with them, and sharing tasks with publics in the joint solution of problems.

Despite the aforementioned research that explicitly addressed power and empowerment in organization-public relationships, existing literature lacks discussion regarding how public relations can enhance publics' sense of empowerment through relationship management. Given that empowerment, as a social process, mainly occurs in relations to others (Page & Czuba, 1999), and empowerment benefits not only empowered publics but also organizations that enhance publics' empowerment, it is necessary for public relations scholars to address which public relationship strategies can enhance publics' feeling of empowerment. Moreover, although many nonprofit scholars highlight the value of relationships with donor groups who determine nonprofits' success, they have rarely discussed donor publics' psychological empowerment. Therefore, in the following section, the study explores relationship management strategies that may improve donor publics' psychological empowerment and enhance positive relationship quality outcomes.

Understanding Empowerment in the Relationship Management Context

Acknowledging the value of empowerment, many scholars and practitioners have sought the antecedents of empowerment in various settings. Simply put, publics' perception of empowerment can be influenced by numerous internal (e.g., individual's empowerment orientation, gender, and age) and external factors (e.g., circumstances surrounding individuals), and the majority of empowerment studies in the management arena have focused on external factors.

Individual factors that can affect a person's sense of empowerment include education, gender, and age (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Research has shown that women may feel less empowered in organizations, because they are considered a minority in the workplace (Kanter, 1977); individuals who have a higher level of education tend to feel more empowered than those that do not (Spreitzer et al., 1997); and older managers can feel less empowered because they can be seen as being somewhat stagnant in the organization (Ettington, 1992). Based on self-determination theory, Gagné (2003) also argued that the feeling of autonomy differs by individual's orientation toward being autonomously self-regulated.

Managerial theorists account for various factors that enhance or depreciate public empowerment. Simply put, psychological empowerment may be fostered "by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 474). Formal organizational practices refer to organizational structures (e.g., job designs in employee empowerment), whereas informal techniques involve numerous contextual factors, such as social interactions and relationships between an organization and its publics. In fact, several studies report that the influence of relationships or support from an individual's networks can enhance a person's sense of empowerment which, in turn, improves his/her level of satisfaction or positive behaviors (e.g., volunteering, academic performance, and school adjustment), and prevents negative outcomes (e.g., volunteer turnover) (Deci et al., 1989; Deci, Eghari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Frone, 2000; Gagné, 2003; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Rhoades, Eisengberger, & Armeli, 2001; Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997). Gagné found that autonomy-supportive contexts (e.g., parent support or work

support) predict individuals' prosocial behavior. Hghlighting the role of public relations in effective communication with internal and external publics, Oksiutycz (2006) sustained that communication is a useful tool to provide appropriate responses to various social systems. He argued:

> Effective communication systems in an organization allow the organization to cope with variety, though not through tighter controls. On the other hand, they do allow the system to achieve greater autonomy so that it can be more effective at absorbing variety. (p.36)

Yet, despite its significant influence, research on the critical contextual factors that facilitate a sense of empowerment, especially through relationships, has been overlooked (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000). Recognizing that publics' empowerment can be enhanced by organizations' relationship management strategies and influence quality relationships with organizations, the current study examines the concepts of relationship management strategies and outcomes, and explores dynamic associations among relationship management strategies, relationship quality outcomes, and donor empowerment. In other words, donors' psychological empowerment has a mediating role in relationship management, linking between relationship management strategies and relationship outcomes.

Thus, in the following section, conceptual definitions and constructs of both relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes are reviewed, followed by the linkages of publics' empowerment with both relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes.

Conceptual Definitions of Relationship Management Strategies

As briefly mentioned above, a group of relationship management scholars have explored how public relations practices enhance organization-public relationships.

Relationship management strategies have been studied by the second research group described earlier. Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) emphasized the needs of relationship management strategies that involve effective communication management to produce positive relationship outcomes. They also argued that “not all strategies for maintaining relationships are equally effective… we must recognize that not all public relations strategies, techniques, and programs are equally likely to produce relationship outcomes” (p. 13). Therefore, it is important to understand the strategies of public relationship management and their effects on the relationship quality outcomes.

Among various strategies that help organizations cultivate relationships with their publics, strategies adopted from interpersonal communication and conflict management are actively adopted in organization-public relationships (J. E., Grunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Ki & Hon, 2009). Whereas conflict management strategies involve both symmetrical and asymmetrical approaches, interpersonal relationship management strategies represent the symmetrical approach (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999). Reflecting the basic assumption that public empowerment can be achieved in symmetrical relationships and that relationship strategies are more often used in equitable relationships (Canary & Stafford, 1992), Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) focused heavily on the six two-way symmetrical relationship management strategies. Also, Kelly (1998) proposed the stewardship strategy that builds two-way symmetrical relationships. Assuming that high quality relationships are based on a two-way symmetrical approach, the present study explores Hon and J. E. Grunig’s 6 relationship management strategies and Kelly’s stewardship. In addition, the study

proposes another relationship management strategy, participation, to enhance both public empowerment and relationship outcomes.

Openness

Openness, also called disclosure, involves active and honest information sharing with the other party in a relationship (Hon & J. E. Grunig; Ki, 2006). Canary and Stafford (1992), interpersonal communication scholars, defined openness as “directly discussing the nature of the relationship and disclosing one’s desires for the relationship” (p. 243). Along those same lines, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) asserted the importance of revealing both thoughts and feelings for effective organization-public relationship management. Bok (1989) explained openness as a tool to equally distribute power in a relationship, viewing that one’s behavior to intentionally restrict access to information as an act of power.

Linked to the virtue of symmetry, openness has been extensively emphasized in relationship management research. In the early stages of the research paradigm, L.A. Grunig et al. (1992) contended that openness is one of the most important variables for assessing strategic organization-public relationships. Ledingham and Bruning (1998) also pointed to openness as one of the most important relationship dimensions –along with trust, commitment, involvement, and investment— for predicting publics’ behavior and satisfaction. J. E. Grunig and Y.-H. Huang (2000) suggested that public relations managers can gauge openness by evaluating suggestions, complaints, inquiries, or comments from various stakeholders, such as members of publics, the media, government, and activist groups.

Closely related to ethics, Bivens (1987) argued that organizations that do not fully inform all motives behind messages violate publics’ rights. In a similar thread,

openness is an indispensable practice for transparent communication (Rawlins, 2009). Given the increase of publics' distrust of organizations due to various corporate scandals, such as Enron and Worldcom, Rawlins emphasized the value of transparent communication in public relations practice and argued that openness is one of the crucial transparency traits. Rawlins further argued that just giving information or disclosure to publics does not fulfill transparency, but rather that substantial completeness of information that includes all information that publics seek for.

Positivity

Positivity includes the actions by either party of a relationship to make the other one enjoy the relationship. Interpersonal communication scholars define positivity as "any attempt to make interaction pleasant" (Canary & Stafford, 1994, p. 15). For example, positivity involves acting nice and cheerful, showing prosocial behaviors, demonstrating affection, being polite in conversation, providing favors, and treating partners in uncritical manners (Canary & Stafford, 1994; Canary, Stafford, Hause, & Wallace, 1993).

From an organization-public relationship perspective, positivity refers to "anything the organization or public does to make the relationship more enjoyable for the parties involved" (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999, p. 14). Later, Ki and Hon (2009), focusing on organizational attempts to build relationship with publics, defined positivity as "the degree to which members of publics benefit from the organization's efforts to make the relationship more enjoyable for key publics" (p. 7). J. E. Grunig and Y.-H. Huang (2000) found a similarity between positivity and the unconditionally constructive principle for conflict resolution (Fisher & Brown, 1988). Similarly, proposing the concept of "positive organizational behavior," Luthans and Church (2002) proclaimed that

fostering employees' confidence, hope, optimism, happiness or subjective well-being, and emotional intelligence is crucial for effective organization-employee relationships. An empirical study adopting the concept shows the direct and indirect effects of positive organizational behavior on reducing undesired employee behavior, such as quitting a job or cynicism (Avery, Hughes, Norman, & Luthans, 2008).

The value of positivity in the nonprofit sector is also well documented. Facing the explosive growth in the size of the sector, volunteer management literature espouses the concept of volunteer friendliness, which is defined as "the extent to which an agency's staff, policies, and programs provide a positive, pleasant, and rewarding experience for volunteers and prospective volunteers" (Hobson, Rominger, Malec, Hobson, and Evans, 1996, p. 29). The concept highlights that volunteers who experience positive interactions with nonprofit organizations have positive and favorable perceptions of, and attitudes towards, the organizations. Moreover, volunteer friendliness benefits nonprofit organizations in terms of recruiting prospective volunteers, retaining current volunteers, enhancing volunteer productivity, and increasing the likelihood of volunteers' financial contributions (Hobson et al., 1996).

Along those same lines and given that successful relationship is characterized with intimacy and autonomy (Altman, Vinsel, &Brown, 1981), Dee and Henkin (2006) advocate that nonprofit organizations should be equipped with social skills for effective communication and positive relationships with donors. In fact, an empirical study with donors in the United Kingdom demonstrated the effect of positive interactions with nonprofit organizations on donor behavior (Sergeant & Lee, 2004).

Assurances

Defined as “covertly and overtly assuring each other of the importance of the relationship” (Canary et al., 1993, p. 9), assurances in interpersonal relationships involve all efforts to continue the relationship by demonstrating love, commitment and faithfulness (Stafford & Canary, 1991). In other words, assurances show the partner that the relationship has a future (Canary, Stafford, & Semic, 2002).

Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) described assurances as “attempts by parties in the relationship to assure the other parties that they and their concerns are legitimate” (p. 15). In the organization-public relationship literature, this concept is extended from assurances of relationship to assurances of legitimacy in the relationships (J. E. Grunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000). For example, in dealing with activist groups, acquiring assurances of legitimacy from publics requires to first offer assurances to the publics (L.A. Grunig, 1992). L. A. Grunig et al.(2002) also asserted that assurances in organization-public relationships occur when “each party in the relationship attempts to assure the other that it and its concerns are legitimate and to demonstrate that it is committed to maintain the relationship” (p. 551).

Nonprofit organization management scholars have sought various ways that nonprofit organizations demonstrate assurances of legitimacy to their key stakeholders (e.g. Barman, 2002; Bracht, Finnegan, Jr., Rissel, Weisbrod, Gleason, Corbett, & Veblen-Mortenson, 1994; Drucker, 2006; Ospina, Diaz, & O’Sullivan, 2002). For instance, Barman (2002) explored the differentiation strategy that a local United Way implemented to earn legitimacy of the organization within dynamic changes in the sector. Drucker (2006) argued that providing assurances to stakeholders allows nonprofit organizations to have competitive advantages. Similarly, Sargeant (2001) found that a

failure to assure the need for support or organizational missions causes lapsed supports or discontinuance of donation. Sargeant further argued that, in order to retain donors' support and not lose them to other causes, nonprofit organizations should "ensure that they give ongoing and specific feedback to donors as to how their funds have been put to use, in particular the benefit that has resulted for the beneficiary group" (p. 188).

Sharing of tasks

From the interpersonal relationship literature, sharing of tasks implies equally taking responsibility on the tasks in a relationship. More specifically, sharing of tasks in family or couple relationships means equal contribution to household duties or chores (Canary & Stafford, 1994; Stafford & Canary, 1991). Defining it as "performing routine tasks and chores in a relationship" (p. 10), Canary et al. (1993) viewed sharing of tasks as a crucial strategy to make the partner satisfied with the relationship.

In public relations literature, sharing of tasks is portrayed by jointly addressing a task or responsibility that an organization and its publics share. Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) defined sharing of tasks as "organization's and publics' sharing in solving joint or separate problems" (p. 15). Examples of this strategy are addressing community issues, resolving pollution, creating employment opportunities for community members, and staying in business (J. E. Grunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999). Organizations' engagement in socially responsible behaviors that address their publics' interests and concerns is one of ways engage in sharing of tasks. Ki and Hon (2009) explained that "sharing of tasks entails the organization's willingness to address its and its publics' joint responsibilities so that both may achieve their interdependent goals" (p. 8).

Witnessing the significant growth of partnerships of the nongovernmental organizations with various sectors, Fowler (1998) identified shared responsibility among partners as one of the authentic partnership features along with commitment to long-term interaction, reciprocal obligation, equality, and balance of power. From corporate philanthropy perspective, Porter and Kramer (2002) espoused the concept of a convergence of interests of both corporate and community partners. According to them, corporations can enhance their reputations by providing community members with solutions to concerns that influence both entities. McCort (1994) also insisted that nonprofit organizations can enhance their relationships with donors by finding a way to help donors develop within the scope of the organizations' missions.

Networking

The use of social networks is also an important strategy to manage relationships. Interpersonal relationship scholars view networking as an individual's interaction with, and reliance on, mutual friends, family, and colleagues to get support and make the relationship enjoyable (Canary & Safford, 1992; 1994). Any social actors, such as individuals, organizations, industries, or nations can utilize social networking achieved through various ways of conversation, friendship, authority, economic or information sharing (Nohria & Eccles, 1992).

Applying the concept to organization-public relationship research, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) referred to networking as "organizations' building networks or coalitions with the same groups that their publics do, such as environmentalists, unions, or community groups" (p. 15). One of the ways to measure organization's networking strategies is to contact activist groups who also engage with organizational publics (J. E. Grunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000). Previously referred to as an organizational members'

formal and informal connectedness (Jin, 2009), organizational networks are also considered as one of indicators of organizational social capital suggested by Putnam (2000). Adopting the social capital theory to organization-community relationships, Jin (2009) revealed that the indicators of social capital—networks, trust, communication, and inclusion—are highly related to communal relations and engender collaborative values.

In the nonprofit organizations' policymaking process, Nyland (1995) emphasized nonprofit organizations' networking with various players, such as individuals, a single nonprofit organization, or government. Networking, collaboration, or partnerships within the sector or with other sectors are commonly seen. For example, a recent survey showed that over 60% of respondent nonprofit organizations claimed to have made collaborative efforts with other organizations to cope with the economic downturn and to successfully pitch to donors (Gose, 2011). In addition, some scholars emphasized the financial benefits that can be obtained through using networks and collaborating with other organizations (Abzug & Webb, 1999; Austin, 2000).

Access

In contrast to other relationship management strategies, access is not found in the interpersonal relationship management strategies, but originally suggested in the organization-public relationship literature. Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) proposed access as one of relationship management strategies, noting that:

> Members of publics or opinion leaders provide access to public relations people. Public relations representatives or senior managers provide representatives of publics similar access to organizational decision-making processes. Either party will answer telephone calls or read letters or e-mail messages from the other. Either party is willing to go to the other when they have complaints or queries, rather than taking negative reactions to third parties. (p.14)

Access allows both an organization and publics to be available to the other side of the relationship. Reflecting Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) notion of access to organizations' efforts as an effort to manage quality relationships with publics, Ki and Hon (2009) defined access as "the degree of effort that an organization puts into providing communication channels or media outlets that assist its strategic publics in reaching it" (p. 6). Whereas Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) delimited the significance of access to opinion leaders relevant to the stakeholders, access to organizations can be extended to individuals of stakeholder groups, especially in the digital media era. Recognizing that the Internet has become indispensable for a large group of people's everyday life, and that organizational websites have become an important tool to build relationships with publics, Ki and Hon (2006) contended that anyone with Internet access can make an impact on an organization's decision-making processes, especially as it can facilitate reaching senior managers in organizations when the contact information is available online.

This strategy has been actively adopted and valued by the nonprofit sector for efforts to build positive relationship with donors. For example, the Minnesota Council of Nonprofits (2010) provided nonprofit board members, managers, and staff with a guideline of principles and practices for nonprofit excellence. The guideline emphasized the value of access, which is highly related to transparency, and accountability of nonprofits. The Council noted:

> Boards of directors should provide information to the public that describes their decisions and decision-making processes. They should make meeting agendas and descriptions of significant decisions available to those who request them. A nonprofit should provide its constituents with ongoing opportunities to interact with the board and management regarding its activities. (p. 10)

Donors' desire to gain access to nonprofit organizations also has been documented. A recent survey of donors ages 20 to 40, called Millennial donors, shows that these donors want to not only provide financial support to nonprofits, but also to have access to the board leadership of these nonprofit organizations (Johnson Grossnickle & Associates, 2010).

Even though Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) access strategy suggested an organization's efforts to provide access to both organization resources and organizational decision-making processed, promoting a participatory communication culture has been less salient in existing relationship management literature. Organizations' participatory communication invites publics to the organizations' decision-making processes and fundamentally leads to two-way symmetrical relationships; therefore, the current study introduces participatory communication as an additional relationship management strategy for quality organization-public relationships.

Participation as a strategy for managing relationships

Participation is a key element of transparency and involves both feedback and interaction with stakeholders. Considering that providing publics with substantial information is satisfied only when organizations identify what the publics want to hear or know, Rawlins (2009) viewed participation of stakeholders as an important part of transparency.

Participation can take many forms. Adopting Broom et al.'s (1997) antecedents and consequences in a model of relationships, Johnston (2010) specified different levels of community engagement: participation, consultation, information, and pseudo engagement. Out of these four levels, Johnston argued that participation is the highest level of community engagement.

The value of participation for building two-way symmetrical relationships is well recognized. Conceptualizing the notion of transparency, Cotterrell (1999) underlined participatory practice over sharing mere information. He explained that transparency as a process “involves not just availability of information but active participation in acquiring, distributing and creating knowledge” (p. 419). That means that organizational transparency is accomplished by a participatory culture that invites publics to speak up and reflect their opinions rather than simply providing a channel for them to access.

Participation is highly related to symmetrical relationships between organizations and publics. J. E. Grunig and White (1992) valued the publics’ input as a key component of a symmetrical world view. Focusing on employee relations, one of the most crucial stakeholders groups for any organization, Bowen (2004) considered that employee participation leads organizations to be ethical, based on the assumption that “equality, dialogue, and a participative culture play a vital role in ethical deliberations and also in enabling the issues management function to have input into decision-making at the highest level of the organization” (pp. 313-314). Similarly, in a comparison with bureaucracy that is described as secrecy and red tape, Dagron (2009) characterized a democratic society as “participation, transparency, and sharing knowledge and power with others” (p. 457). He also warned that access to information should be distinguished from participation, which encompasses two-way communication. Janse and Konijnendijk (2007) also asserted that truly successful participation is only found in a two-way symmetrical communication process based on mutual understanding and long-term relationships between organizations and publics.

Stewardship

In addition to Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) six relationship management strategies, Kelly's (1998) stewardship concept also reflects symmetrical relationships between organizations and publics. Stewardship was originally conceptualized in the fundraising arena but can be easily applied to various organizational settings, such as for-profit, nonprofit, and government, for managing effective organization-public relationships. Kelly (1998) asserted "Stewardship is necessary for all relationship management" (p. 433).

Adding the stewardship step to the ROPE model of the public relations process, Kelly (2001) proposed the ROPES model. Stewardship, as the fifth step of the public relations process, makes the public relations process cyclical and offers an "essential loop back to the beginning of the process for new efforts" (Kelly, 1988, p. 433). While Kelly (2001) asserted that stewardship is the second most crucial step in the public relations process, little research has been dedicated to testing stewardship in organization-public relationship management (Waters, 2007). Stewardship is composed of four elements: reciprocity, responsibility, reporting, and relationship nurturing.

Reciprocity. An organization's efforts to demonstrate gratitude toward supportive stakeholders are called reciprocity. As a fundamental virtue of all moral codes (Gouldner, 1960), the concept of reciprocity has been actively adopted in human relation settings (Bagozzi, 1995; Neufeld & Harrison, 1995; Van Horn, Schaufeli, & Taris, 2001; Wentowski, 1981; Xiang & Wang, 2008). In relationship marketing, customers who perceive a company's efforts to enhance its relationship with them have a tendency to reciprocate and have higher loyalty toward the company than those who do not (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schroder, & Iacobucci, 2001). Reciprocity is the norm of individuals'

obligation to pay back to those who offer benefits to them. Kelly (2001) asserted that repaying obligations helps the entities in relationships to acquire balance, and reciprocity reinforces “a sense of equal worth—a characteristic of symmetrical public relations” (p. 284).

Reciprocity can be manifested by showing appreciation and recognition (Kelly, 1998; 2001). The most common way of showing appreciation is to say “thank you” to publics on whom the organization’s success and survival depends. Yet many nonprofit organizations do not often thank their donors (Fredricks, 2001). One of the simple and effective ways of recognition is to personalize recognition efforts to reflect donors’ preferences. Even though it seems like common sense, many nonprofit organizations overlook the donor’s preference (Fredricks, 2001). A series of experimental studies revealed that showing gratitude enhances an individual’s prosocial behavior (Bartlett & DeStreno, 2006).

Reporting. To develop and manage quality relationships with publics, organizations should keep publics informed about progress on issues for which support was sought (Kelly, 1998; 2001). Closely related to accountability and social responsibility, all types of organizations—for-profit, nonprofit, and government—are required to provide publics with appropriate and substantial information. Keeping publics updated allows organizations to reinforce publics’ positive attitudes and behaviors, and increases the likelihood that the public will support them in similar situations (Kelly, 2001).

Especially after various financial scandals in the nonprofit sector, nonprofit organizations are required to demonstrate their social accountability by filling 990 IRS

Forms, providing audited financial documents, and updating current and potential programs and services through on- and off-line communication tactics (Waters, 2007). Sharing an organization's annual report, producing newsletters, and holding telephone conversations or fact-to-face meetings are examples of common communication tactics for reporting. Presently, thanks to new technology and digital media, many organizations keep publics updated with organizational news in cost-efficient ways. For example, nonprofit organizations heavily utilize social media for information dissemination and disclosure of information (Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009).

Dove, Martin, Wilson, Bonk, and Beggs (2002) argued that organizations can enhance fundraising environments by keeping donors updated. Reporting is very similar to substantial information sharing in transparent communication (Rawlins, 2009) and openness, the relationship management strategy suggested by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999).

Responsibility. Organizations' socially responsible actions are an element of stewardship. The notion of social responsibility means "organizations act as good citizens" (Kelly, 2001, p. 285). Responsibility is driven by systems theory, which emphasizes that an organization, as a part of a larger society, does not exist by itself, but is interdependent with other organizations and publics. Thus, organizations acting in a socially responsible manner is a necessity for interdependence. Failure to fulfill its responsibility is considered as betrayal of publics, which is costly. Fulfilling the organization's social responsibility is closely related to Hung's (2002) relationship management strategy, called keeping promises.

Applying the notion of responsibility to the nonprofit sector, organizations and fundraisers have responsibilities for ethical behavior and carry out their duties to use the gifts for the purpose for which the donations were given or designated. Describing the current nonprofit sector as *standing at crossroads*, having various challenges due to government budget cuts and the exponential growth of the number of nonprofit organizations, Salamon (1999) asserted that nonprofit organizations should fulfill responsibility to manage organizations effectively and acquire legitimacy. Grace (1997) also highlighted that nonprofit organizations have an obligation to use gifts wisely and to show accountability to publics. Understanding responsibility as accountability, Jeavons (2005) contended:

> All nonprofit organizations have an ethical responsibility to be accountable to their supporters, their members, and their donors; most of all, the public-benefit organizations have a larger responsibility to be accountable to the broader public for the ways in which they undertake to fulfill their philanthropic purposes. (p. 219)

Kelly's (1998) responsibility element of stewardship shares common ground with the assurances strategy defined by Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) relationship management strategies in terms of acquiring organizational and relationship legitimacy.

Relationship nurturing. The last element of stewardship is nurturing relationships with publics who have an impact on an organization's success and survival. Emphasizing the value of quality relationships between organizations and publics, Kelly (2001) asserted that "treating publics well goes beyond reciprocity, responsibility, and reporting; relationships so critical to the organization's success must be nurtured" (p. 286). In other words, organizations should recognize the value of supportive publics and make an effort to enrich the relationship quality.

Examples of relationship nurturing are sharing copies of the organization's publications (e.g., annual reports and newsletters), inviting publics to special events, and sending handwritten cards to publics for special occasions (Kelly, 1998). More recently, Waters (2011) claimed that organizational efforts to cultivate relationships with publics will benefit organizations in terms of publics' continuous support and buffer the organizations against the impact of potential crises.

In the fundraising context, Kelly (2002) argued that relationship nurturing is vital because the cost of soliciting a donation from a previous donor is substantially less than the cost of requesting a donation from a new donor and that previous donors are more likely to donate to the organization than non-donors. In light of relationship fundraising, Burnett (2002) also emphasized the value of relationship nurturing. Using the analogy of friendship, Burnett highlighted the mutual benefits from the long-term relationships with donors:

> Your donors are your organization's friends. With friends you can share good news and bad, keeping in touch and developing a long-term relationship that brings benefits to both sides. Your donors benefit from their role in the work you do, from sharing in your success and achievements and from the satisfaction of knowing their contribution has been effective. You benefit, of course, from the level and frequency of their donations, but also because they will often be the most enthusiastic ambassadors of your cause…They will also, in the fullness of time, make their largest contribution to your cause by leaving you a bequest in their will. (p. 4)

Similarly, providing fundraisers with a concept of the donor's lifetime value, Sargeant and Jay (2004) emphasized the financial rewards of long-term interaction with donor publics. Relationship nurturing is a broad concept that is inclusive in relationship management strategies.

Thus far in the literature review of relationship management strategies, various relationship management strategies have been explored, prior to linking publics' psychological empowerment to relationship strategies. More specifically, Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) six relationship management strategies—openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, networking, and access—and Kelly's (1998; 2001) stewardship with four constructs—reciprocity, reporting, responsibility, and relationship nurturing—were reviewed. Also, a new relationship strategy of participation was introduced.

However, adhering to the principle of parsimony, the present study will exclude the networking strategy and three of the four elements of stewardship—reporting, responsibility, and relationship nurturing—for the following reasons. First, networking with other stakeholders has not been found to be directly related to publics' empowerment, and the influences of networking on relationship outcomes are not universally supported across studies dealing with relationship strategies (Ki, 2006; Waters, 2011). Second, even though each element of stewardship makes a unique contribution to cultivating and managing quality relationships with publics, all but reciprocity overlap with Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) relationship management strategies. Furthermore, the measurement of stewardship has been less adopted and tested than Hon and J. E. Grunig's strategies. On the other hand, many scholars have reported that providing rewards, an exemplar of reciprocity, influences publics' sense of empowerment.

Therefore, for the purpose of modeling empowerment and relationship management, this study focuses on seven strategies of relationship management: Hon

and J. E. Grunig's (1999) openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and access; Kelly's (1998; 2001) reciprocity; and original to this study, participation,.

Conceptual Definitions of Relationship Quality Outcomes

As the result of implementing relationship management strategies, organizations can expect desired relationships with publics. Broom et al. (1997) used the term *consequences of relationships*. Relationship scholars have extensively explored the dimensions of relationships (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Ki, 2006; Ki & Hon, 2007, Waters, 2007; 2011). Through an exhaustive review of interpersonal communication literature, Ferguson (1984) suggested several attributes of relationships: 1) dynamic versus static, 2) open versus closed, 3) the degree to which both organizations and publics are satisfied with the relationship, 4) the degree of power distribution in the relationship, 5) the degree of mutual understanding and consensus, and 6) the degree of formalization of the relationship. Later, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) identified five relationship dimensions—openness, trust, commitment, involvement, and investment—which determine publics' behaviors in relationships with organizations, such as staying, leaving, or unsure.

Drawing from interpersonal communication and psychology literature, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) proposed four indicators of successful relationships developed through relationship management strategies: control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment. Given that the four relationship outcomes have been widely tested in various settings, ranging from for-profit to nonprofit and from Western to Eastern cultures (Bortree, 2010; Y.-H. Huang, 2001; Ki & Hon, 2007; Jo, 2006; Waters, 2011), the current study will adopt the four indicators as relationship quality outcomes. Each of these indicators is detailed below.

Control mutuality

In interpersonal relationships, control mutuality is defined as “the degree to which partners agree about which of them should decide relational goals and behavioral routines” (Stafford & Canary, 1991, p. 224). It also refers to the extent of mutual agreement on influence in relationships (Morton, Alexander, & Altman, 1976; Canary & Stafford, 1992). Distinguished from one-sided attempts to control the partner, bilateral or mutual control is a matter of whether each party in a relationship may rightfully have an impact on the other (Kelley, 1979). Stafford and Canary (1992) further argued that control mutuality reflects interdependence and stability of relationships.

Drawing from interpersonal communication, control mutuality in organization-public relationships is conceptualized as “the degree to which parties agree on who has rightful power to influence one another” (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999, p. 19). However, Hon and J. E. Grunig warned that control mutuality does not mean the equal distribution of power in relationships, but the acknowledgement that there is some degree of unbalanced power held by the entities. Even though equality of power is desired, the norm of reciprocity may create positive relationship outcomes when power is unequally distributed (L. A. Grunig et al., 1992). Stafford and Canary (1992) claimed that the sense of control mutuality is essential for interdependence and stability of relationship regardless the power balance.

J. E. Grunig and Y.-H. Huang (2000) viewed control mutuality as a similar concept to Aldrich’s (1975) reciprocity, Ferguson’s (1984) distribution of power in the relationship, Millar and Rogers’ (1976) power, and Moore’s (1986) empowerment. However, Moore’s empowerment, in the context of a mediator’s role in conflict resolution, focuses heavily on *supporting the weaker party* in negotiation, to influence

the behavior of the stronger. In other words, this concept of empowerment is highly related to equally distributing power rather than publics' psychological state or motivation for a behavior. In simpler terms, desired relationships can be obtained when both nonprofit organizations and donors perceive control over the other side's behavior.

Satisfaction

As one of the indicators of successful interpersonal relationships (Canary & Stafford, 1992; Stafford & Canary, 1991), satisfaction of the parties involved in a relationship has been commonly studied by relationship scholars (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). Adapted to various academic disciplines, such as marketing, psychology, and public relations, scholars have sought the facilitators and consequences of publics' relationship satisfaction. In the field of public relations, satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which one party feels favorably toward the other because positive expectations about the relationship are reinforced" (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999, p. 20).

Based on social exchange theory, relationship satisfaction occurs when "the distribution of rewards is equitable and the relational rewards outweigh the costs" (Stafford & Canary, 1991, p. 225). In other words, individuals are satisfied when they receive more benefits than they expect or when the benefits exceed the costs (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Jo, Hon, & Brunner, 2004). Compared to trust or control mutuality, satisfaction reflects emotion and affection (J. E. Gunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000). Ki and Hon's (2007) study revealed that satisfaction and control mutuality are the best indicators for predicting publics' positive attitudes toward organization.

Emphasizing the value of donor satisfaction in the nonprofit sector, several scholars have explored the factors that lead donor satisfaction and outcomes of donor satisfaction on nonprofit management (Arnett, German, & Hunt, 2003; Sargeant, 2001;

Shabbir, Palihawadana, & Thwaites, 2007; Waters, 2011). For example, Sargeant (2001) insisted that improving the level of donors' satisfaction can lead donors' loyalty to nonprofit organizations and increase donation amounts. Additionally, Shabbir et al. (2007) revealed that satisfaction offers donors a sense of positive affective reinforcement that yields emotional commitment as well as enhances fundraising efforts. They also found donors often describe their satisfaction, such "feeling, emotion, sensation, mood, pleasure, or a good feeling" (p. 286).

Trust

The concept of trust has drawn a lot of attention from scholars whose research focuses on civic engagement and collaboration with various social entities (Burke, 1999; Coleman, 1988; Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 2000). It serves as a key source of social capital, which is defined as "a variety of different entities, with two elements in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of actors – whether personal or corporate actors – within the structure" (Coleman, 1988, p S98). Put another way, trust, along with the networks and norms of reciprocity, facilities "coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit" (Putnam, 1995, p. 67).

Trust has been considered an important construct to assess successful relationships in various fields of social science, such as relationship marketing (Casalo, Flavian, & Guinaliu, 2010; Doney & Cannon, 1997; Jarvenpaa, Tractinsky, & Vitale, 2000; Moorman, Deshpandé, & Zaltman, 1993; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), interpersonal communication (Burgoon & Hale, 1984; Rotter, 1967), organizational communication (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Wells, 2001), community development (Marquart-Pyatt, & Petrzelka, 2008; Soska, 2011), and political communication (M. R. Anderson, 2010). From an interpersonal relationship perspective, trust is defined as "an expectancy held

by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (Rotter, 1967, p. 651). Rotter also highlighted the value of trust, stating that "the efficiency, adjustment, and even survival of any social group depends upon the presence or absence of such trust" (p. 651).

In the organization-public relationship, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) defined trust as "a feeling that those in the relationship can rely on each other" (p. 58). They also explained that dependability, forthrightness and trustworthiness are key components of trust. Similarly, Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) conceptualized trust as "one party's level of confidence in and willingness to open oneself to the other party" (p. 19). A complicated concept, trust is composed of three dimensions: integrity, dependability, and competence (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Whereas integrity refers to the belief in an organization's fairness and justice, dependability denotes the belief that an organization keeps its promises, and competence is related to the belief that an organization is able to accomplish what it says it will do (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999).

In public relations literature, trust of various types of publics, such as consumers, community members, employees, government, and investors, is considered a crucial factor in determining organizations' existence and survival (Vercic & J. E. Grunig, 1995). This notion is also applicable to the nonprofit sector. Viewing trust as "the lifeblood of the nonprofit sector" (p. 207), Jeavons (2005) insisted that nonprofit organizations are not able to function effectively without public trust.

Commitment

The last dimension of relationship quality is commitment. Like trust, commitment has been a focal construct to explore relationships in various areas. A traditional

definition of commitment is “an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship” (Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpandé, 1992, p. 316). In the interpersonal relationship literature, commitment is defined as “one’s desire to remain indefinitely in the relationship” (Canary & Stafford, 1992, p. 247). From a normative viewpoint, Wiener (1982) understood commitment as a motivational process to better understand work behavior.

In the field of public relations, commitment is defined as “the extent to which one party believes and feels that the relationship is worth spending energy to maintain and promote” (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999, p. 20). As a product of one’s investment in a relationship (Rusbult, 1987), commitment involves two underlying aspects: affect and continuance (J. E. Grunig & Y.-H. Huang, 2000; Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1984). Whereas affective commitment refers to publics’ emotional orientation or psychological attachment to an organization, continuance commitment is “commitment to continue a certain line of action” (Meyer & Allen, 1984, p. 373). Adding the socially responsible aspect to relationship management, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) also emphasized commitment as one of relationship dimensions. Unlike the three relationship outcomes stated above —control mutuality, satisfaction, and trust— commitment is the primary indicator of relational behaviors (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999). Commitment also contains a certain degree of self-sacrifice (Gabarino & Johnson, 1999; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Some scholars have explored the concept of donor commitment in the nonprofit setting (MacMillan, Money, Money, & Downing, 2005; O’Neil, 2008; Sargeant & Lee, 2004; Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2005a; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2005b). O’Neil (2008)

argued that donor commitment can be developed by implementing effective communication strategies. Donors' commitment to nonprofit organizations benefits the organizations in terms of increasing financial support, lowering attrition rates, requiring fewer communication efforts, and increasing a lifetime value (Sargeant & McKenzie, 1998). Sargeant and Woodliffe (2005b) further categorized commitment into two types depending on the engagement levels: active and passive commitment. Whereas passive commitment is characterized with inactive support only based on charity solicitations, active commitment is driven by a donor's passion for or genuine belief in the cause. Also, Sargeant and Lee (2004) proposed a sequential linkage among trust, commitment, and giving behavior. This means that donors' trust determines the level of donor commitment, which, in turn, predicts donors' giving behavior.

Linkages among Publics' Empowerment, Relationship Management Strategies, and Relationship Quality Outcomes

Relationship Management Strategies as Antecedents of Public Empowerment

Management theorists have addressed how organizations can enhance psychological empowerment of key stakeholders, such as employees, consumers, and community members (Füller et al., 2009; Kanter, 1977; 1993; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Even though scholars propose different variables as important factors to engender or enhance publics' empowerment, the common aspects of the variables highlight the virtue of two-way symmetrical relationships, which relationship management strategies pursue. For example, a study which included both an extensive literature review and focus groups found that, to maximize the benefits of empowerment, organizations should implement two-way

communication focusing on sharing expectations, roles, responsibilities, as well as capabilities (Klagge, 1998).

There are numerous studies that test the effects of the relationship management strategies introduced earlier on publics' empowerment in both explicit and implicit ways. In particular, Kanter's (1977; 1979; 1993) structural empowerment constructs, situational attributes that generate publics' psychological empowerment, are highly related to relationship management strategies. Kanter (1977; 1993) proposed that publics' empowerment can be enhanced by organizations' efforts, such as access to organizational information and resources, support, opportunities to learn and grow, formal power from job position, and informal power from various organizational relationships. More specifically, Kanter (1986) asserted the importance of providing access to information for empowerment, stating, "Organizations must make more information more available to more people at more levels through more devices" (p. 5). She also argued that organizations should make not only information but also various resources available to publics. Funds, materials, space, and time are examples of resources. The effects of access to information and resources on individual's feeling of empowerment have been well documented (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger et al., 2001a; Laschinger et al., 2001b; Spreitzer, 1996; Stewart, McNulty, Griffin, & Fitzpatric, 2010; Ugboro & Obeng, 2000).

Kanter's (1986) sociological support and informal power from relationships with organizations are closely related to assurances in Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) relationship management strategies. Defined as "endorsement or approval from or legitimacy granted by organizational constituencies" (Spreitzer, 1996, p. 488),

sociopolitical support or organizational assurances play an important role in enhancing publics' empowerment (Laschinger et al., 2001a; Laschinger et al., 2001b; Spreitzer, 1996; Stewart et al., 2010).

Besides Kanter's (1977; 1993) structural empowerment, many scholars consider participation in an organization's decision making as a key factor to enhance publics' empowerment. As a practice of two-way symmetrical communication, inviting publics to the organizational decision-making process is widely considered as an antecedent of empowering important publics, such as employees (X. Huang, Iun, Liu, & Gong, 2010; Spreitzer, 1996; Ugboro & Obeng, 2000) customers (Fuchs et al., 2010; Füller et al., 2009; Ouschan et al., 2006; Salzer, 1997), patients (R. M. Anderson & Funnel, 2005), and community members (Papineau & Kiely, 1996). In particular, Füller et al. (2009) emphasized that consumers perceive empowerment by participating in new product development projects through the Internet.

The emphasis of openness in enhancing stakeholders' empowerment has also been observed. For example, Sparrowe (1994) argued that compared to bureaucratic culture, constructive organizational culture, which is oriented toward appreciation, support, openness, and warmth, fosters stakeholder empowerment. Randolph (1995) viewed sharing information with publics as the first critical step to lead public empowerment. Similarly, Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) identified openness and teamwork as crucial characteristics of organizations whose employees feel empowered.

Closely related to reciprocity, providing rewards or showing appreciation is also considered as a factor in improving publics' empowerment. Traditionally in employee relations, management theorists have argued that appropriate rewards systems

enhance employee empowerment (R. E. Anderson & W. Huang, 2005; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Siegall & Gardner, 2000). In seeking contextual factors that lead psychological empowerment, Siegall and Gardner (2000) found that organizations appreciating their employees help the employees experience a sense of meaning about their work and self-determination or autonomy, which are aspects of empowerment. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) also suggested employees' sense of empowerment is reinforced by a reward system in their proposed circle of empowerment.

Lastly, some empowerment literature implies the value of positivity and sharing of tasks in fostering public empowerment. For example, adopting the concept of positive organizational behavior suggested by Luthans (2002), Avey, Hughes, Norman, and Luthans (2007) argued that positivity and transformational leadership can enhance empowerment, which in turn, decreases publics' negativity toward the organization (i.e., intention to quit). Altman et al. (1981) also considered intimacy and autonomy as indicators of successful relationships.

While the existing empowerment literature has not explicitly tested the effect of sharing of tasks, sharing publics' concerns and supporting publics is the core of empowerment. For example, as empowerment in the community health development context is defined as "the process by which disadvantaged people work together to increase control over events that determine their lives" (Werner, 1988, p. 1), organizations and community members work together to make the community better.

Relationship Quality Outcomes as the Consequences of Public Empowerment

As stated earlier, public empowerment leads to positive benefits for both publics, themselves and organizations. Relationship quality outcomes that public

relations practitioners anticipate for effective relationship management strategies are also influenced by publics' empowerment. In fact, the association between public empowerment and organizational trust has been highlighted in numerous empowerment studies (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Ergeneli, Ari, & Metin, 2006; Füller et al., 2009; Gómez & Rosen 2001; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger et al., 2001a). Most studies sought the causality between empowerment and trust, viewing trust as the outcome of empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Füller et al., 2009; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger et al., 2001a). Few studies assert trust as the antecedent of empowerment (Ergneli et al., 2006), show associations between trust and empowerment (Gómez & Rosen, 2001), or view both variables as outcomes of organizational management styles (X. Huang, 2010; Roth, 1994).

The effect of public empowerment on organizational commitment also has been well documented. For example, an empirical study showed the strong correlation between the four constructs of psychological empowerment and organizational commitment (Borghei, Jandaghi, Martin, & Dastani, 2010). More specifically, impact has the highest correlation coefficient with organizational commitment, followed by meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence. Laschinger et al. (2001a) also showed dynamic relationships between empowerment and organizational commitment. Furthermore, specifying organizational commitment into two categories of affective and continuance commitment, the scholars found that nurses' empowerment within the workplace influenced affective commitment both directly and indirectly through trust, but empowerment did not predict continuance commitment.

In addition, many scholars have shown the effect of public empowerment on satisfaction. Applied to customer relations, Han (2006) showed the indirect effect of consumer empowerment on consumer service quality and customer satisfaction. In employee relationships, all constructs of employee empowerment—meaning, impact, competence, and autonomy—are positively related to work satisfaction (Liden et al., 2000). Ugboro and Obeng's (2000) study found that employee empowerment enhances employees' job satisfaction, as well as customer satisfaction, in the organization.

Lastly, the influence of publics' empowerment on control mutuality is also embedded in the literature. Han (2006) defined empowered customers as those who have confidence in their ability to consume, perceive autonomy to control their own consumption, and feel that they have impact on service. Han found that customers' empowerment enhances their perceived control over the service process and outcome which, in turn, influences service quality and customer satisfaction. Even though the scholar did not explicate perceived control as control mutuality, empowered customers perceive that they can control a company's service quality as equally as the company controls it. Also, in employee-organization relationships (EOR), Ni (2007) asserted that employees' motivation to seek meaning, connectedness, and empowerment is a crucial factor in building the desired relationship, satisfying control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment.

Relationships and Behavioral Intention

Considered as one of the most important variables to predict the likelihood of behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), behavioral intention has drawn many social science scholars. Behavioral intention is defined as "a person's subjective probability that he will

perform some behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 288). More specifically, Warshaw and Davis (1985) explained behavioral intention as “the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behavior” (p. 214). Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) viewed behavioral intention as the most accurate predictor of actual behavior if it is estimated with an appropriate measurement.

Ledingham (2001) considered the linkage of organization-public relationships to public attitudes, perception, and behavior as one of the emerging frameworks in organization-public relationship research. In fact, many public relations scholars have devoted themselves to investigating not only the factors to enhance quality relationships with publics but also the effects of the quality relationships on publics’ behavioral intention (Bortree, 2010; Ki & Hon, 2007; Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). As stated earlier, Ledingham and Bruning found that relationship dimensions such as trust, openness, involvement, investment, and commitment are important predictors to determine consumers’ behavioral intention in a competitive market situation. By adopting a hierarchy of effects model, Ki and Hon (2007) explained the sequential linkages among relationship perceptions, attitude toward the organization, and behavioral intentions, and demonstrated the effectiveness of public relations. Expanding Ki and Hon’s approach to social capital theory and treating communal relationship as a cognitive indicator, Jin (2009) found a significant effect of communal relationships on publics’ attitudes toward organizations and their future behavior.

In studying the association between relationship quality outcomes and behavioral intention, some scholars have taken different approaches than the hierarchy of effects model. Given that Ki and Hon’s (2007) study found that attitudes toward an

organization are a stronger predictor of publics' behavioral intentions than relationship quality outcomes, Bortree (2010) tested direct influence of relationship quality outcomes on intended behavior. By studying teen volunteers, she found that relationship quality outcomes predict volunteers' intended behavior toward future volunteering. Unlike Ki and Hon's (2007) study that viewed trust, a relationship quality outcome, as a perception, Auger (2011) concurred with Jones (1996) and Jonker and Treur (1999) who considered trust as an attitude. By testing the effects of transparent communication on both trust and behavioral intentions of publics, she found that organizations implementing transparent communication have a higher level of public trust in the organization and enjoy positive behavioral intentions of publics (e.g., intention to support the organization by purchasing a product or service and positive word-of-mouth) than organizations without transparent communication practices.

In the nonprofit literature, scholars' efforts to understand the association between relationship quality outcomes and giving behavior are also well documented. Sargeant and Lee (2004) found that commitment plays a mediating role in the relationship between trust and giving behavior. Sargeant et al. (2005a) found that trust is correlated with organizational performance and communication, whereas commitment is associated with emotional and familial utility (i.e., affinity with friends or loved one). They further found that trust directly influences commitment and indirectly makes an impact on donation. Exploring factors in determining giving intentions in an academic institutional setting, Sung and Yang (2009) found that students' perceived relational outcomes with their university and students' perceived reputation of their university

determined their supportive behavioral intentions, such as donating to the university as alumni, continuing education at the university, and providing referrals to the university.

In sum, the empirical studies just reviewed highlight the value of public relations that holds responsibility for managing quality relationships with publics, which, in turn, lead to desired behaviors of publics.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study aims to expand relationship management theory by introducing the concept of publics' psychological empowerment. Whereas traditional relationship management studies have focused on the direct linkages between organizational efforts to manage relationships with publics and the relationship outcomes, the present study proposes another construct—publics' empowerment—to better understand the sequences of relationship management strategies and outcomes. Psychological empowerment is composed of four dimensions: meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. Given that these dimensions help to explain a sense of psychological empowerment, the following research question is addressed:

RQ1: With regard to donors' psychological empowerment, which dimension is perceived as the most important?

Also, based on the review of relationship management literature, the current study proposes a new set of relationship management strategies. The study adopts five relationship strategies suggested by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999)—openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and access—as well as reciprocity from Kelly's (1998) stewardship dimensions. Also, the study introduces a new relationship strategy of participation that enhances publics' psychological empowerment as well as relationship

quality outcomes. Applying these relationship management strategies to nonprofit-donor relationships, the present study addresses the following research question:

RQ2: To what extent do donors perceive that nonprofit organizations are employing the seven relationship management strategies?

Turning to linkages among the proposed variables, the present study suggests public empowerment plays a mediating role. That is, publics' empowerment influenced by organizations' relationship management strategies will make an impact on relationship quality outcomes. A mediator is understood in a causal sequence between two variables, compared to a moderator (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007). Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006) defined a mediating role as "the effect of a third variable/construct intervening between two other related constructs" (p. 844). More specifically, mediation effect is defined as "the addition of a third variable to this X →Y relation, whereby X causes the mediator, M, and M causes Y, so X →M →Y" (MacKinnon et al., 2007, p. 595).

Baron and Kenny (1986) explained that mediation effects can be shown by testing three relationship equations: 1) the independent variable has a direct effect on the mediator variable, 2) the mediator variable has a direct effect on the dependent variable, and 3) the independent variable has no direct effect on the dependent variable (perfect mediation) or less direct effect on the dependent variable (partial mediation). Reflecting Baron and Kenny's approach, this study attempts to explore 1) the relationship between relationship management strategies and publics' empowerment, 2) the relationship between publics' empowerment and relationship quality outcomes, and 3) the relationship between relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes. In other words, the study explores two direct effects—1) relationship

between relationship management strategies and publics' empowerment and 2) relationship between publics' empowerment and relationship quality outcomes—and an indirect effect of relationship management strategies on relationship outcomes through the intervention of publics' empowerment.

First of all, the study explores the linkages between relationship management strategies and donors' empowerment. Seven distinctive relationship management strategies are proposed as the antecedents of donors' empowerment. More specifically, Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) relationship management strategies of openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and access; reciprocity, one of the dimensions of Kelly's (1998) stewardship; and a newly introduced strategy, participation; are the independent variables of the study. For donors' empowerment, the study includes four dimensions of psychological empowerment: meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. The reviewed literature suggests relationship management strategies highly influence donor empowerment, in general, and each dimension of donor empowerment. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

> **H1: Nonprofit organizations' seven relationship management strategies will be positively associated with donors' psychological empowerment.**

Furthermore, considering that donors' psychological empowerment consists of four distinctive constructs, the study will explore the dynamic associations between the seven relationship management strategies and the four dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment, asking the following research question:

> **RQ3: Which of the seven relationship management strategies are most strongly associated with the four dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment?**

The second direct effect focuses on the association between donors' empowerment and relationship quality outcomes. In other words, the study examines how donors' psychological empowerment is related to donors' perception of their relationship with the nonprofit organization as measured by the outcomes of control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment. Based on the literature supporting the effect of publics' psychological empowerment on the relationship quality outcomes, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Donors' psychological empowerment will be positively related to the four quality outcomes of their relationships with nonprofit organizations.

Relationship management scholars have shown the positive effects of relationship management strategies—openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, access, and reciprocity—on relationship quality outcomes, such as control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment (Bortree, 2010; Ki, 2006; Waters, 2011). In her dissertation, Ki (2006) found significant effects of access, positivity, sharing of tasks, and assurances on the four different relationship quality outcomes. Applied to the nonprofit sector, Waters (2011) further expanded the relationship management strategies, incorporating variables suggested by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) and Kelly's (1998) stewardship. Dividing donors into two groups based on the level of donation, major gift donors who donate $10,000 or more and annual giving donors who donate less than $10,000, he found different effects of relationship strategies on relationship quality outcomes between the two groups. More specifically, six of Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) relationship strategies and four elements of Kelly's (1998) stewardship influence on relationship quality outcomes in nonprofits' relationships with annual giving donors, whereas 6 of the 10 strategies—access, sharing of tasks,

reciprocity, reporting, responsibility, and relationship nurturing—make significant impacts on the relationship quality outcomes in relationships with major gift donors. Furthermore, adding another relationship strategy, guidance, in relationships with adolescent volunteers, Bortree (2010) found that positivity, sharing of tasks, networking, assurances, and guidance have effects on relationship outcomes.

In spite of the significant effects of relationship strategies on relationship outcomes, the findings from existing studies lack consensus. The only common finding among the three major studies that explored the linkages between relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes (i.e., Bortree, 2007; Ki, 2006; Waters, 2007) is that the assurances strategy is highly correlated with trust and control mutuality. Moreover, testing the effect of the newly proposed relationship strategy, participation, on relationship quality outcomes is essential for the present study. Therefore, it is necessary to test the associations between relationship strategies and quality outcomes, and the following research question is posed:

RQ4: Which of the seven relationship management strategies are most strongly associated with the four relationship quality outcomes?

The study also proposes a mediating role of donors' empowerment in the relationship between relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes. The mediating role denotes the intervention of a third variable in the relationship between two constructs. That is, relationship management strategies have indirect effects on the relationship quality outcomes through publics' empowerment. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's openness strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

H4: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's positivity strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

H5: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's assurances strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

H6: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's sharing of tasks strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

H7: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's access strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

H8: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's reciprocity strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

H9: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's participation strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

In addition, the present study aims to test the linkages between relationship quality outcomes and publics' intended behavior. The existing relationship literature shows direct and indirect effects of relationships (i.e., relationship quality outcomes) on publics' behavior. Ki and Hon (2007) found sequential linkages between relationship quality outcomes and publics' attitudes toward the organization and their behavioral intention. Bortree (2010) revealed a direct influence of relationship outcomes on future volunteer behavior. Sargeant and Lee (2004) and Sargeant et al. (2005a) found correlation between relationship dimensions, which differ from those used in public relations studies, and actual giving behavior. However, except for Sargeant and his associates' studies (2004; 2005a; 2005b), scholars have not explored the individual influences of each relationship quality outcome on behavioral intention. Therefore, the following research question is posed.

RQ5: To what extent are the four relationship quality outcomes positively associated with donors' intended future behavior?

Lastly, considering publics' empowerment as a motivational factor, many empowerment scholars have sought the effect of empowerment on behavior. For example, Amabile (1988) found that employee empowerment results in creative and innovative behavior. Even though the positive effects of public empowerment on both publics, themselves, and organizations have been addressed by many scholars, the effect of empowerment on behavior has not been tested in the nonprofit setting. Therefore, the following research question is proposed:

RQ6: To what extent is donors' psychological empowerment associated with donors' intended future behavior?

Figure 2-1 presents the proposed model to be tested in this study.

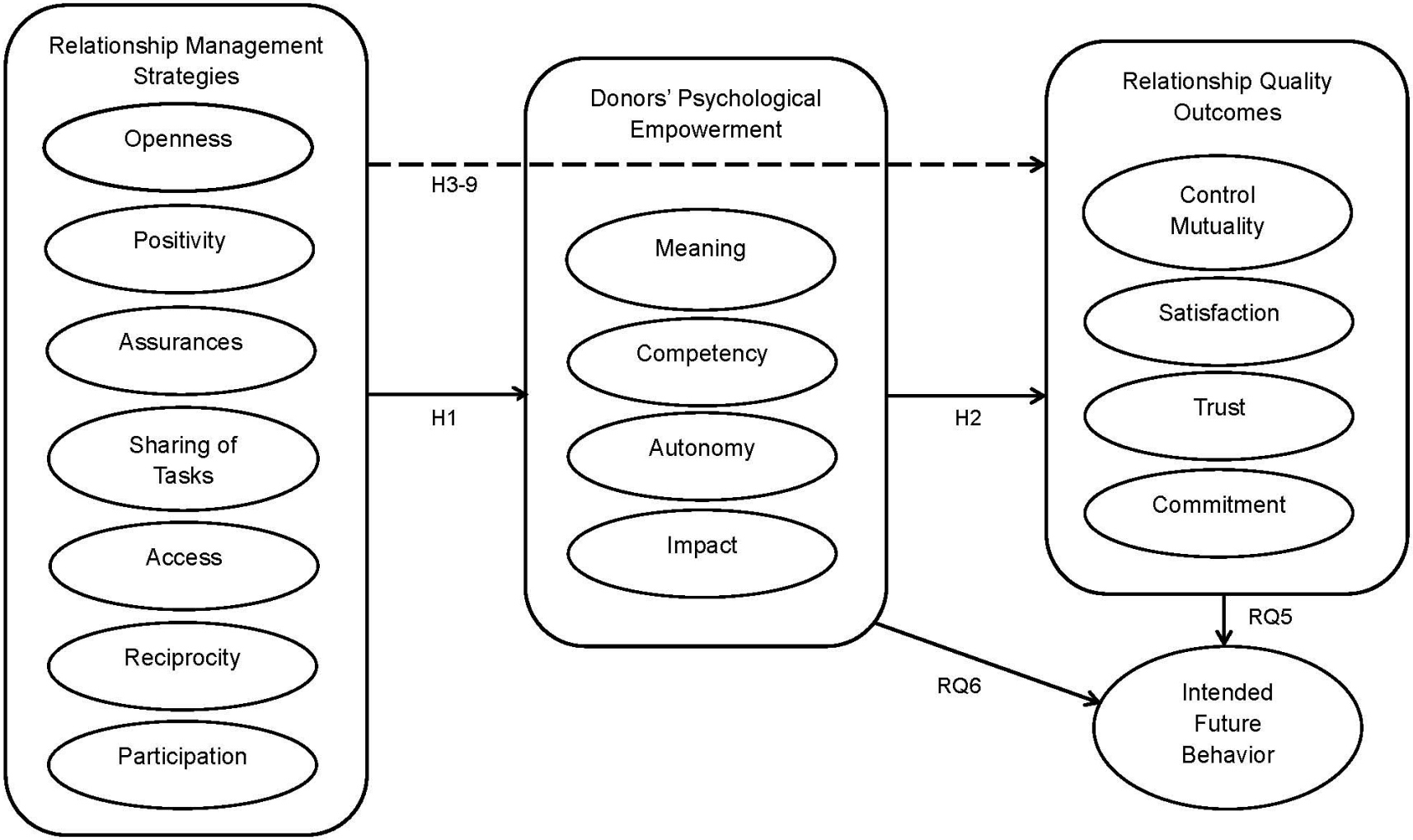


Figure 2-1. Proposed model

Direct relationship
Indirect relationship (Mediation effect of empowerment)

CHAPTER 3
METHOD

The purpose of the study is to examine the linkages among relationship management strategies, publics' psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and publics' behavioral intention. To address research questions and test hypotheses proposed in the previous chapter, this chapter describes the method employed in this study. More specifically, descriptions of the population and sample of the study, online survey procedures, measurement of the concepts, and data analysis are discussed.

Populations and Sample Selection

The population of interest in this study is all individual donors who contribute to nonprofit charitable organizations in the United States. As stated earlier, there are over 950,000 charitable nonprofit organizations registered with the IRS (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2010). However, the complexity of the sector and the IRS's reporting laws inhibit the identification of a comprehensive list of charitable organizations and individual donors. Moreover, access to donors of specific organizations is impossible without the organization's permission and its understanding of the value of research. Therefore, it was important to select charitable organizations that appreciate the value of research and consider the collaboration as an opportunity to improve donor relationships. Also, to ensure cross validation of the model proposed, the study aimed to recruit participants from donors of various nonprofit organizations, rather than focus on donors of a single nonprofit organization.

To recruit the charitable organizations to participate in the study, the researcher contacted more than 100 nonprofit charitable organizations located in Gainesville,

Florida, seeking their collaboration via sending a research invitation letter (Appendix A). The letter included a brief description of the purpose of the study and the research procedure. Also, the researcher highlighted the potential benefits of participation, explaining that by participating in the research, organizations would receive a custom report that provides: (1) insights about their donors' perceptions of their relationship with the organization, and (2) management strategies to enhance donors' relationship with organization and their future giving behavior. To avoid potential invasion of donor privacy, the researcher specified that the charitable organizations would administer the invitations to their donors themselves and their contact information, therefore would not need to provide the researcher with a list of donors.

After numerous follow-up calls and several meetings with nonprofit organizations that showed initial interests, five nonprofit charitable organizations with various missions agreed to participate in the study. To ensure the confidentiality of these organizations, the names and detailed information of all participating organizations are not revealed intentionally in this study. Instead, the researcher assigned each organization a designated code (organization A through E) and classified them by their field of work. Using this code, the organizations participating in this study are: an arts/cultural organization (organization A), a human services organization supporting the needs of girls (organization B), an environmental/animal-rights organization (organization C), a community service organization (organization D), and an immigrant support organization (organization E).

Organization A is a university-affiliated art museum whose mission is to promote the arts and culture. Organization B is a human services organization that has

supported girls in the local community for over 25 years. Organization C is dedicated to reducing the cat population in the local community by providing free spay/neuter services. As a local chapter of a national charitable organization, organization D supports various issues in the local community, such as education, financial stability and independence, and health. Lastly, organization E is established to assist migrant farm workers and their families in the United States.

In terms of sample size, some scholars recommend that 150 responses are a minimum number for structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis in the communication field (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Holbert & Stephenson, 2002), whereas Hoyle and Kenny (1999) suggest 200 responses as a fair guideline. Additionally, Hair et al. (2006) argued that at least 5 observations per measurement item are required for SEM. The study has a total of 70 items to measure the key variables (relationship management strategies, donors' empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and behavioral intention). Reflecting Hair et al.'s guidelines, the minimum sample size for this study would be 350 valid responses, which would also well exceed other scholars' recommendations for sample size in studies employing SEM. Thus, the study aimed to collect at least 350 valid responses from the sample.

To determine the sampling frame from the five organizations participating in the study, the researcher considered donors who had made a donation to the organization within five fiscal years as possible participants. Using this criterion, and excluding those donors who do not desire to receive any contact or whose email addresses were no longer valid, the organizations participating in the study compiled an available donor list.

The donors were split into two groups based on the size of their donations: major gift donors and annual giving donors. Major gift donors are those who contribute larger gifts to the organization than annual giving donors do. While there were different criteria to distinguish these strata, organizations A, B, C, and D included both annual giving donors and major gift donors in their sampling. Organization E had only had major gift donors because the majority of donors of the community service organization (organization D) are employees of various supporting companies and donate through a workplace campaign, this organization does not have direct contact with these donors. Considering this unique situation, only major gift donors with whom organization D does have direct contact were considered for sampling.

Following the sampling procedure at the organization level, a total of 2,592 donors from the five nonprofit organizations were pulled as the sample. More specifically, the sample consisted of 575 donors from organization A, 262 donors from organization B, 682 donors from organization C, 1,000 donors from organization D, and 73 donors from organization E.

All five nonprofit organizations preferred an online survey to further protect donors' privacy. In addition, the organizations reported that their most frequently used channel for communicating with donors was email. The researcher provided each nonprofit organization with tailored survey links, which included the organization's logos and the name. Except for organization D, the researcher provided two identical survey links to track responses from donor types: one for annual giving donors and another for major gift donors.

While the researcher, on behalf of the organization, distributed the survey link to the donors of organization B, the other four nonprofit organizations sent the survey links to their donors themselves. To encourage donors to participate in the survey, organizations A through D agreed to send out a survey invitation before sending the links to the survey, and to send two reminders after sending the survey links. Due to a lack of manpower, organization E sent only the invitation letter including survey link. After the researcher provided the participating organizations with draft letters of invitation, draft letters with links, and reminder email templates, the organizations made any necessary revisions. The letters emphasized the value of the study, and ensured the donors about the anonymity of their participation. Samples of the invitation, cover letters with links, and reminder messages are placed in Appendix B, C, and D, respectively.

Online Survey

To address the research questions and hypotheses proposed, a survey research method was employed. As the most widely adopted method in the social sciences, a survey method is appropriate for social scientists who seek to collect data describing a situation or phenomenon (Babbie, 2010). Moreover, survey is considered the best method to collect data from a population which is too large to directly observe (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006).

Wimmer and Dominick (2006) argued that there are two different types of survey methods: descriptive and analytical. Whereas a descriptive survey is used to depict a situation in the moment, an analytical survey is used to explain "*why* situations exist" (p. 179, emphasis in the original). An analytical survey offers researchers the opportunity to

understand interrelationships among the variables in which the researchers are interested. Therefore, this study employed an analytical survey to explore the dynamic linkages among relationship management strategies, donors' psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and behavioral intention.

An online survey was conducted to address the research questions and hypotheses proposed. An online survey, in general, has the advantages of convenience and efficiency in data collection, in spite of the lack of control over the data-gathering procedure (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). In addition, online surveys eliminate interviewer error and bias while ensuring anonymity in responses (Sheehan & Hoy, 1999).

The current study employed an online survey for two main reasons. First, a web-based survey is an effective method to collect data in the context of the fast growth and use of online communication. Adopting Internet technology has become common, and 80 percent of the American population use the Internet (Pew Internet and American Life Project, 2006). Moreover, early in the 21st Century, about 40 million full-time workers in the nation had Internet access in their work environment, and two-thirds of them accessed the Internet at least once per day (Pew Internet and American Life Project, 2000). The second reason for using a web-based survey was because it was the preferred method of the participating nonprofit organizations, who did not want to reveal their donors' names or mailing addresses.

Survey Instrument

The survey questionnaire for this study is composed of five measurement sets: 1) relationship management strategies, 2) donors' psychological empowerment, 3) relationship quality outcomes, 4) donors' intended future behavior, and 5) demographic

and donation history. The scales are revised to reflect nonprofit-donor relationships. Detailed explanations of each measurement scale are presented in the following sections. A 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 equals “Strongly Disagree” to 7 equals “Strongly Agree” was used for all measures except for the demographic variables. The University of Florida Institutional Review Board Informed Consent Form and the final survey questionnaire are placed in Appendix E and F, respectively.

Relationship Management Strategies

After a review of relevant literature, the present study proposes a new set of relationship management strategies that may influence both donors’ psychological empowerment and donors’ evaluation about the relationship quality outcomes. The new set of seven relationship management strategies are as follows: 1) five of Hon and J. E. Grunig’s (1999) relationship management strategies, 2) reciprocity from Kelly’s (1998) stewardship concept, and 3) participation from transparent communication, suggested by Rawlins (2009).

First, to measure the five symmetrical relationship management strategies of openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and access, the present study adopted the scales that Waters (2007) modified from Ki’s (2006) measurement scales. In her dissertation, Ki originally developed relationship management strategies that had been proposed by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999), by adapting interpersonal relationship indicators of Stafford and Canary (1991). Waters (2007; 2011) later revised the measurement scales to test nonprofit-donor relationships.

The second part of relationship management strategies is reciprocity, one element of Kelly’s (1998) stewardship. Revealing that Ki’s (2006) relationship management strategies failed to incorporate additional symmetrical strategies

suggested by Hung (2002) and Kelly (1998; 2001), Waters (2007) proposed measurement scales of stewardship. Whereas Waters' stewardship measurements were tested among healthcare nonprofit organizations, Dell (2009) later adopted and revised them to test museum fundraisers' stewardship practice. Of the four elements of stewardship, reciprocity, reporting, responsibility, and relationship nurturing, the present study adopts only reciprocity, which has a unique contribution to relationship management strategies.

In addition, the present study introduces participation as another important relationship management strategy, as well as a facilitator to enhance publics' psychological empowerment. As a key component of transparent communication, participation leads to two-way symmetrical relationships and publics' sense of empowerment. While Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) access strategy implies participatory communication in conceptualization, the scholars failed to highlight its value in effective public relationship management. This study employs measurement scales of participation, an element of transparent communication, suggested by Rawlins (2009).

In sum, measurement scales for relationship management strategies were composed of four items for each symmetrical relationship management strategy (i.e., openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and access), four items for reciprocity, and six items for participation. A total of 30 items were randomly ordered in the survey questionnaire. Table 3-1 presents the relationship management strategies to be tested in this study.

Donors' Psychological Empowerment

The study adopted Spreitzer's (1995) scales to measure psychological empowerment. Spreitzer developed measurement scales of four components of psychological empowerment, which were conceptualized by Thomas and Velthouse's (1990): meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. Each component has three measurement items; thus, a total of 12 items of psychological empowerment scales were adopted in this study. While the original scales were developed to measure employees' empowerment, the scales in the present study were modified to reflect a donor public. The items were randomly ordered in the survey questionnaire. Table 3-2 presents specific measurement items of donors' empowerment.

Relationship Quality Outcomes

The study measures the 4 dimensions of relationship quality outcomes—control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment—originally suggested by Y.-H. Huang (1997) and further illuminated by Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999). Hon and J. E. Grunig proposed two sets of relationship quality outcomes measurements: the full set includes 35 items (8 for control mutuality, 8 for satisfaction, 11 for trust, and 8 for commitment), whereas a shorter version set contains 21 items (5 for control mutuality, 6 for satisfaction, 5 for trust, and 5 for commitment). The purpose of having two sets of measurement scales was to anticipate wide adoption of scales, reflecting the diversity of organization-public relationships. Hon and J. E. Grunig suggested that researchers "can choose the number of items that best fit their research needs" (p. 28). Taking the suggestion, Waters (2007) adopted the shortened scales of the four constructs and one additional item from the full scales for both control mutuality and satisfaction. The present study employed the same items that Waters adopted. Consistent with other

measurement scales, a total of 23 relationship quality outcomes measures were randomly ordered in the survey form. Table 3-3 presents the relationship quality outcomes measurement scales to be tested in this study.

Donors' Intended Future Behavior

The study's model predicts the effect of both donors' psychological empowerment and relationship quality outcomes on donors' future behavior, including giving intentions. As the most reliable predictor of actual behavior, behavioral intention falls under the conative construct category with behavior and action (Ray, 1973). To measure donors' behavioral intention, the study adopts measurement scales developed by Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996), which have been employed in other public relations research, including Ki (2006) and Bortree (2007; 2010). Reflecting nonprofit-donor relationships, five items are used to measure behavioral intention, with three items related to donors' future giving behavior and two items related to donors' word of mouth (WOM) behavior. Table 3-4 presents the measurement items of the behavioral intention of donors.

Demographic and Other Information

At the end of questionnaire, several demographic items were asked, including age, gender, level of education, income, and ethnicity. Also, respondents' donation history and related information, such as donation amount and years of contribution to that charitable organization or to other organizations, were addressed.

Pretest

Prior to the actual survey, a pretest was conducted to detect any possible issues related to design, layout, and wording of the questionnaire, as well as the procedure of the survey. According to Wimmer and Dominick (2007), pretests are considered the

best way “to determine whether the study approach is correct and to help refine the questions” (p.194). Visser, Krosnick, and Lavrakas (2000) also emphasized the value of a pretest, by stating that “pretesting is especially important when data are to be collected via self-administered questionnaires, because interviewers will not be available to clarify question meaning or probe incomplete answers” (p. 243).

For this study, two steps of pretest were conducted. First, several fundraisers and donor-relationship managers in participating organizations reviewed the survey questionnaires. Once the survey questionnaires were reviewed and somewhat revised by suggestions from the nonprofit managers, the survey was tested among a general sample of people who have contributed to a nonprofit charitable organization. For the pretest, an online survey link was disseminated to acquaintances of the researcher and 100 donors of one of the participating nonprofit organizations. A total of 34 responses were collected for the pretest. Based on the results, the survey questionnaire was further revised to better reflect nonprofit-donor relationships and demographic information. For example, two items of reciprocity, which were originally stated in the first person, were slightly modified and re-written to third person to be consistent with other relationship management strategy items. Also, a “self-employed” option was added to the employment status question.

Data Analysis

To check the overall measurement validity and to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses proposed, several statistical analyses were used: confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), structural equation modeling (SEM), Pearson’s r correlation, simple linear regression, multiple linear regression, mediation analysis with regression, and the Sobel test. Also, basic descriptive statistics, such as means and standard

deviations of relationship management strategies, donors' psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and future behavioral intention were employed.

CFA was used to estimate a measurement model that explains the structure among observed and latent variables. After the measurement model was identified, SEM was used to check the overall fits of paths in the proposed model. SEM is also called path model. The AMOS 18.0 with maximum likelihood (ML) method was used to test both CFA and SEM. To evaluate the model fits for CFA and SEM, multiple goodness of fit indices were used. While the χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic was evaluated, this test is considered a very rigorous criterion because it tests whether the model fits the data perfectly rather than whether the model fits the data well. Also, χ^2 is highly sensitive to sample size (Kline, 2005). Thus, several additional goodness of fit indices were used to assess the model fit, such as χ^2 /df (the ratio of χ^2 to the degree of freedom), Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Root mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Dividing χ^2 by the degrees of freedom (χ^2 /df) is used to compensate the sensitivity of χ^2 to sample size (Kline, 2005), and the general benchmark for χ^2 /df ratio is 3.0 or less (Bollen, 1989). Comparative Fit Index (CFI) measures the relative improvement of the researcher's model fit in comparison to a null or baseline model (Kline, 2005). Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) is known as the Non-Normed Fit index (NNFI). Similar to CFI, TLI compares a theoretical measurement model to a baseline model. Both CFI and TLI values greater than .90 have been historically considered as good fit of the researcher's model (Bentler, 1992; Kelloway, 1998).

Whereas CFI and TLI are goodness-of-fit indices, Root mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) are badness-of-fit indices. Byrne (2010) and Kline (2005) consider RMSEA values less than or equal to .08 as the critical cut point. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested SRMR vales less than .08 may be considered as a good fit. Thus, the study adopted the following criteria for a model fit: χ^2 /df ≤ 3.0, CFI > .90, TLI > .90, RMSEA < .08, and SRMR < .08.

The study also conducted a series of Pearson's r correlation, simple regression, and multiple regression analyses to answer research questions and test hypotheses. Also, a mediation analysis test using regression and a Sobel test were conducted to test the indirect effects of relationship management strategies on relationship quality outcomes through donors' psychological empowerment. Whereas a mediation analysis test using regression shows whether the mediating effect exists or not, a Sobel test confirms whether the indirect effect is statistically significant.

Table 3-1. Measures of relationship management strategies

Variable	Item	
Openness	OPN1	The organization's annual report is a valuable source of information for donors.
	OPN2	The organization does not provide donors with enough information about what it does with donations. (Reverse)
	OPN3	The organization provides donors with enough information to understand the issues it faces.
	OPN4	The organization shares enough information with donors about the organization's governance.
Positivity	POS1	Receiving regular communications from the organization is beneficial to donors.
	POS2	The organization's communication with donors is courteous.
	POS3	The organization attempts to make its interactions with donors enjoyable.
	POS4	The information the organization provides donors with is of little use to them. (Reverse)
Assurances	ASS1	The organization makes a genuine effort to provide personal responses to donors' concerns.
	ASS2	The organization communicates the importance of its donors.
	ASS3	When donors raise concerns, the organization takes these concerns seriously.
	ASS4	Donors do not believe that the organization really cares about their concerns. (Reverse)
Sharing of tasks	STK1	The organization and donors do not work well together at solving problems. (Reverse)
	STK2	The organization is involved in managing issues that donors care about.
	STK3	The organization works with donors to develop solutions that benefit donors.
	STK4	The organization is flexible when working with donors to come to mutually beneficial solutions to shared concerns.
Access	ACC1	The organization does not provide donors with adequate contact information. (Reverse)
	ACC2	The organization provides donors with opportunities to meet its staff.
	ACC3	When donors have questions or concerns, the organization is willing to answer their inquiries.
	ACC4	The organization provides donors with adequate contact information for specific staff on specific issues.

Table 3-1. Continued.

Variable	Item	
Reciprocity	RCP1	The organization acknowledges donations in a timely manner.
	RCP2	The organization always sends donors a thank-you letter for their donations.
	RCP3	The organization is not sincere when it thanks donors for their contributions. (Reverse)
	RCP4	Because of their previous donations, the organization recognizes donors as friends.
Participation	PAR1	The organization asks for feedback from donors about the quality of its information.
	PAR2	The organization involves donors to help identify the information they need.
	PAR3	The organization provides detailed information to donors.
	PAR4	The organization makes it easy to find the information donors need.
	PAR5	The organization asks the opinions of donors before making decisions.
	PAR6	The organization takes the time with donors to understand who they are and what they need.

Table 3-2. Measures of psychological empowerment

Variable	Item	
Meaning	MEA1	My giving to the organization is very important to me.
	MEA2	My philanthropic activities with the organization are personally meaningful to me.
	MEA3	My giving to the organization is meaningful to me.
Competence	CPT1	I am confident about my ability to meet my and the organization's best interests.
	CPT2	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my philanthropic activities.
	CPT3	I have learned the skills necessary for giving effectively.
Autonomy	AUT1	I have significant autonomy in determining how I give to the organization.
	AUT2	I can decide on my own how to go about making my gifts.
	AUT3	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I give to the organization.
Impact	IMP1	My impact on what happens in the organization is large.
	IMP2	I have a great deal of control over what happens in the organization.
	IMP3	I have significant influence over what happens in the organization.

Table 3-3. Measures of relationship quality outcomes

Variable	Item	
Control mutuality	CMT1	The organization and donors are attentive to each other's needs.
	CMT2	The organization does not believe the opinions and concerns of its donors are important. (Reverse)
	CMT3	I believe donors have influence on the decision makers of the organization.
	CMT4	The organization really listens to what its donors have to say.
	CMT5	When donors interact with this organization, they have a sense of control over the situation.
	CMT6	The organization gives donors enough say in the decision-making process.
Satisfaction	SAT1	Donors are happy with the organization.
	SAT2	Both the organization and its donors benefit from their relationship.
	SAT3	Most donors are happy in their interactions with the organization.
	SAT4	Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship the organization has established with me.
	SAT5	The organization fails to satisfy the needs of its donors. (Reverse)
	SAT6	Most donors enjoy dealing with this organization.
Trust	TRU1	The organization respects its donors.
	TRU2	The organization can be relied on to keep its promises to donors.
	TRU3	When the organization makes an important decision, I know it will be concerned about its donors.
	TRU4	I believe that the organization takes the opinions of donors into account when making decisions.
	TRU5	I feel very confident about the organization's ability to accomplish its mission.
	TRU6	The organization does not have the ability to meet its goals and objectives. (Reverse)
Commitment	CMM1	I feel that the organization is trying to maintain a long-term commitment with donors.
	CMM2	I cannot see that the organization wants to maintain a relationship with its donors. (Reverse)
	CMM3	There is a long-lasting bond between the organization and its donors.
	CMM4	Compared to other organizations, I value my relationship with this organization more.
	CMM5	I would rather have a relationship with this organization than not.

Table 3-4. Measures of behavioral intention

Behavioral intention	
INT1	I will continue donating to the organization in the near future.
INT2	I will increase the amount of my gifts to the organization.
INT3	I will recommend to my friends and relatives that they donate to the organization.
INT4	I will say positive things about the organization to my friends and relatives.
INT5	If I am ever in the position of making a very large gift, I will talk to this organization first.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

This chapter details the study's results. It includes a brief description of samples, such as response rate and demographic information. Also, the chapter presents descriptive statistics of measurement items. Finally, research questions are answered and hypotheses are tested.

Description of Survey Participants

As stated in the previous chapter, the sample frame for the study was the donors of five nonprofit organizations. The participating organizations have various missions: an arts and cultural organization (organization A), a human services organization supporting the needs of girls (organization B), an environmental/animal-rights organization (organization C), a community service organization (organization D), and an immigrant support organization (organization E). The survey instruments were distributed from February 28 to March 23, 2012. The following section discusses response rates of the donor participants at each organization and the demographics of the respondents.

Response Rates

A total of 2,592 donors across the five nonprofit organizations were invited to participate in the survey, and a total of 455 responses were collected. Some respondents dropped out of the survey or failed to answer the questions related to the proposed model. Due to the advanced statistical analysis used in this study (i.e., structural equation modeling), a strict criterion on complete data was upheld. Therefore, a survey was considered complete when the participant answered the sections that are essential to test the proposed model (i.e. sections related to the relationship strategies

and outcomes, psychological empowerment, and future behavioral intention). Only complete surveys were used for the data analysis. Among the 455 questionnaires submitted, a total of 370 were complete. The response rate for all submitted questionnaires was 17.55%, and the response rate for complete questionnaires was 14.27%. Table 4-1 summarizes the response rates for all five organizations.

Looking at the response rate for each organization, 575 donors of organization A were invited to participate in the survey. Following the invitation email, an email letter with the survey link, and two reminders, 162 donors initiated filling out the questionnaires, but only 121 respondents completed it. Thus, the response rate of all submitted questionnaires was 28.17%, whereas the response rate for complete responses was 21.04%.

A total of 262 donors of the organizations supporting girls (organization B) were contacted for this study. Just like the previous organization, they received an invitation email, a message with the survey link, and two reminder emails. From these messages, 67 questionnaires were collected and the response rate was 25.57%. Among these 67 questionnaires, the complete questionnaires were 55, yielding a response rate of 20.99%.

A total of 682 donors of for the environmental/animal rights organization (organization C) received the survey link. With the four instances of communication to encourage their participation –same as those for the organizations listed above— a total 97 questionnaires (14.22% response rate) were collected, including 17 incomplete questionnaires. The response rate for 80 complete questionnaires was 11.73%.

The participation of donors of the community service organization (organization D) was quite low compared to other organizations. While 1,000 donors were contacted with four waves of emails, only 80 donors initiated the survey (8.0% response rate), and only 67 completed the questionnaires, yielding a 6.7% response rate.

On the other hand, even though the sample size of the immigrant support organization (organization E) was small, more than 60% of donors who received the survey link participated in the survey with only a one-time contact. Of the 73 donors invited to participate, 49 questionnaires (67.12% response rate) were collected, and 47 of them were complete. Therefore, the response rate for complete questionnaires was 64.38%.

The samples from the five organizations were integrated for this study. Of 370 donors, 121 (32.70%) were from organization A, 55 (14.86%) from organization B, 80 (21.62%) from organization C, 67 (18.11%) from organization D, and 47 (12.70%) from organization E (Table 4-2). The responses were further examined to detect outliers or invalid items. Whereas outliers were defined as responses whose standardized scores exceed 4 (Hair et al., 2006), invalid items were cases in which respondents answered the entire questions with the neutral point of 4. After excluding 13 questionnaires that were considered as either outliers or invalid, a total of 357 cases were used for data analysis.

Demographic Profile

As shown in Table 4-3, of the 357 donors, 352 respondents provided their gender information. The majority of the sample were female (*N* = 256 or 71.7%), whereas 96 (27.3%) were male. In terms of the highest level of education, 11 (3.1%) were high school graduates, 53 (14.8%) had some college degree, 95 (26.6%)

completed a four-year college degree education. The majority (*N* = 199 or 55.7%) held a graduate degree, including an MA or Ph.D.

Regarding the ethnicity of the respondents, the majority of the sample were Caucasian (*N* = 324 or 91.5%), followed by Hispanic/Latino (3.7%), African-American/Black (*N* = 8 or 2.3%), and Asian (*N* = 3 or .8%). Six of the respondents (1.7%) identified their ethnicity as “other” and 3 did not answer this question. Among the 331 respondents who provided their household income information for last year, 62 (18.7%) earned less than $50,000, 127 (38.4%) earned between $50,001 and $100,000, 63 (19.0%) earned between $100,001 and $150,000, 38 (11.5%) had income of between $150,001 and $200,000, 15 (4.5%) earned between $200,001 and $250,000. There were 26 respondents (7.9%) whose household income last year was more than $250,000. The majority were employed full-time (*N* = 203 or 57.5%), followed by those who were retired (*N* = 80 or 22.7%). Another 26 (7.4%) were self-employed while 25 (7.1%) were employed part-time. Four (1.1%) unemployed people, 4 (1.1%) homemakers, and 3 (0.8%) students also participated in the study. The average age was 57.21 (*SD* = 12.21). The majority (*N* = 193 or 54.4%) had lived in their current community for over 20 years. Seventy-nine (22.3%) had lived in their community for 10 to 20 years, and 72 (20.3%) had lived in their community for 2 to 10 years. Only 11 (3.1%) were newcomers, who had lived in their community less than 2 years.

The survey also asked some questions about donors’ charitable giving behavior. The average years of donation to the organization was 9.41 (*SD* = 8.22), ranging from less than one year to 41 years. The mean of total donation amount during the last three years was $1,821.66 (*SD* = $4,634.25). Including the organization through which they

were contacted, the survey respondents donated to an average of 8.79 nonprofit organizations (*SD* = 13.52) each year. The majority of sample were annual giving donors (*N* = 268 or 72.43%).

Descriptive Statistics

Prior to answering the research questions and testing hypotheses, descriptive statistical analyses were conducted. Means and standardized deviations of measurements of all items and constructs—relationship management strategies, psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and future behavioral intention—were calculated. The means and standard deviations for relationship management strategies and donors' psychological empowerment appear in Table 4-4 and Table 4-5, respectively. Table 4-6 shows the means and standard deviations for relationship quality outcomes, and Table 4-7 reports the descriptive statistics for donors' future behavioral intention.

Relationship Management Strategies

As Table 4-4 shows, donors in this study rated positively the seven relationship management strategies, with the mean score for the total relationship management strategies of 5.58 (*SD* = .90). Of these seven relationship management strategies, reciprocity (*M* = 6.12, *SD* = .88) was perceived by donors as the most used strategy, followed by positivity (*M* = 5.97, *SD* = .78), access (*M* = 5.71, *SD* = 1.05), assurances (*M* = 5.63, *SD* = 1.06), sharing of tasks (*M* = 5.35, *SD* = 1.06), and openness (*M* = 5.19, *SD* = 1.14). While participation (*M* = 5.07, *SD* = 1.14) was perceived as the least used strategy, it was still above the neutral point of 4.0, meaning that the study find nonprofits do employ participation as a relationship management strategy.

Of the 30 measurement items of relationship management strategies, donors perceived the following item as the most common indicator: “The organization’s communication with donors is courteous” (*M* = 6.34, *SD* = .95). On the other hand, respondents agreed the least with the following item: “The organization asks the opinions of donors before making decisions” (*M* = 4.39, *SD* = 1.36).

Donors’ Psychological Empowerment

As stated in the previous chapter, donors’ psychological empowerment consists of four constructs: meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. The overall mean of empowerment was 5.23 (*SD* = .84). Of the four constructs, donors reported feelings of meaning most strongly (*M* = 6.00, *SD* = .99), whereas they disagreed that they felt they had impact (*M* = 3.51, *SD* = 1.45). The average scores of competence and autonomy were 5.47 (*SD* = 1.36) and 5.93 (*SD* = .93), respectively. Among the12 empowerment measurement items, donors agreed with the following item regarding meaning: “My giving to the organization is meaningful to me.” (*M* = 6.12, *SD* = 1.06), and most disagreed with the item measuring impact: “I have a great deal of control over what happens in the organization” received the lowest score (*M* = 3.06, *SD* = 1.54). Table 4-5 shows more detailed information about means and standard deviations of empowerment measurement items.

Relationship Quality Outcomes

Table 4-6 shows means and standard deviations of measurement of the four relationship quality outcomes. The overall mean for the relationship quality outcome items was 5.49 (*SD* = 0.84), showing that donors, in general, have a positive perception of their relationship with the nonprofit organization to which they contributed. Of the four constructs measured, trust was the outcome most strongly reported by donors (*M* =

5.70, *SD* = .95), followed by commitment (*M* = 5.63, *SD* = .97), and satisfaction (*M* = 5.58, *SD* = .98). Although control mutuality (*M* = 5.06, *SD* = 1.02) was the least reported outcome, it was still above the neutral point of 4. Among the 23 items that measured relationship quality outcomes, the following trust indicator was the highest rated: “The organization does not have the ability to meet its goals and objectives [Reverse]” (*M* = 6.08, *SD* = 1.10). The lowest rated outcome item was the control mutuality indicator: “When donors interact with this organization, they have a sense of control over the situation” was the least positively perceived (*M* = 4.69, *SD* = 1.22).

Behavioral Intention

Five items were used to measure donors’ behavioral intentions. The overall mean for behavioral intention was 5.42 (*SD* = 1.00). Of the five items, donors most strongly agreed with the item stating “I will say positive things about the organization to my friends and relatives” (*M* = 6.27, *SD* = .97), whereas they least agreed with the item, “I will increase the amount of my gifts to the organization” (*M* = 4.48, *SD* = 1.37). Good news for the five nonprofits participating in the study was that donors strongly indicated that they would continue donating to their related organization in the near future (*M* = 6.20, *SD* = .93).

Reliability

To assess reliability, Cronbach’s alpha test was conducted. Adopting a guidance suggested by Langdridge (2004) and Hair et al. (2006), the study considered a Cronbach’s alpha score of .70 as an expected alpha to demonstrate good internal consistency of measurement. As Table 4-8 displays, Cronbach’s alphas for all constructs tested varied and ranged from .69 to .90. In particular, Cronbach’s alphas for control mutuality (.90), satisfaction (.90), and trust (.90) were excellent. While

Cronbach's alpha for positivity was the lowest (.69), it was acceptable. Thus, the Cronbach's alpha test demonstrated internal consistency in the constructs measured in this study.

Measurement Validity

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 18.0 was conducted to assess the validity of measurement used in this study. Whereas exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used to identify new factors among indicators, CFA is an appropriate method to explore the extent to which observed variables explain a latent variable (Kline, 2005). In other words, CFA is called a measurement model because it evaluates how well scale items fit with the constructs based on the theoretical evidence.

A series of confirmatory factor analysis was run for relationship management strategies, relationship quality outcomes, donors' psychological empowerment, and donors' behavioral intentions. More specifically, two sets of first order CFA analysis were conducted to explore 1) how well 30 measured items of relationship management strategies explain the seven relationship management strategies and 2) how well 23 measurement items of relationship quality outcomes describe the four dimensions of relationship quality outcomes. After modifying the relationship between items and latent variables based on the first two sets of CFA, another CFA analysis was conducted to assess the overall measurement model fit, including all items measured in this study.

As stated in chapter 3, five criteria for a good model fit were adopted to assess the measurement properties: 1) a ratio of Chi-square to degrees of freedom (≤ 3.00), 2) the comparative fit analysis (CFI) (≥ .90), 3) Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (≥ .90), 4) the

standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) (≤ .08), and 5) root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) (≤ .08).

The first CFA was conducted to assess the model fit of seven relationship management strategies. The initial CFA result indicated that the model fit did not meet criteria for a good model fit (χ^2/df = 4.63; CFI= .83; TLI = .80; SRMR = .064; RMSEA= 0.101). To improve the model fit, the factor loading scores of items on each relationship strategy variable were examined. Positivity 1 (β = .41) was deleted due to its undesirable factor loading , which scored less than .50, the critical value for measuring convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006). To keep parsimony of items, the items having the lowest factor loadings of each variable were dropped. Therefore, openness 1 (β = .51), access 2 (β = .65), reciprocity 1 (β = .65), sharing of tasks 2 (β = .72), participation 3 (β = .67), and participation 5 (β = .72) also were dropped.

An inspection of and modification indices (MI) scores was conducted to further improve the fit of the model. Defined as "the amount the overall model X^2 value would be reduced by freeing any singly particular path that is not currently estimated" (Hair et al., 2006, p. 772), MI scores offer a possible way for improving model fit. There were several large MI scores found. MI between sharing of tasks 1[1] and assurances 4[2] was 62.98; MI between participation 2[3] and sharing of tasks 3[4] was 87.44; MI between assurances 4[5] and access 1[6] was 41.24; and MI between reciprocity 2[7] and positivity

[1] The organization and donors do not work well together at solving problems.

[2] Donors do not believe that the organization really cares about their concerns.

[3] The organization involves donors to help identify the information they need.

[4] The organization works with donors to develop solutions that benefit donors.

[5] Donors do not believe that the organization really cares about their concerns.

2[8] was 7.46. By introducing covariance between these problematic items, the final model fit was significantly improved (χ^2/df = 3.89; CFI= .92; TLI = .90; SRMR = .064; RMSEA= .08). While the ratio of Chi-square to degree of freedom did not meet the critical point, the model did meet other criteria. Thus, the model fit was considered to be acceptable.

Turning to relationship quality outcomes, except SRMR, the CFA test failed to achieve the desired criteria for a good model fit (χ^2/df = 7.14; CFI= .81; TLI = .78; SRMR = .065; RMSEA= .13). The same techniques to improve a model fit were conducted. After detecting the factor loadings of items on latent variables, all factor loadings ranged from .60 to .86, well above .50, the critical point suggested by Hair et al. (2006). Despite the high factor loadings, high MI scores were observed. The largest MI score was found between control mutuality 2[9] and commitment 2[10] (188.08), followed by satisfaction 5[11] and commitment 2 (137.53), satisfaction 3[12] and satisfaction 6[13] (81.84), trust 5[14] and trust 6[15] (37.172), trust 4[16] and control mutuality 3[17] (31.64), commitment 5[18] and

---

[6] The organization does not provide donors with adequate contact information.

[7] The organization always sends donors a thank-you letter for their donations.

[8] The organization's communication with donors is courteous.

[9] The organization does not believe the opinions and concerns of its donors are important.

[10] I cannot see that the organization wants to maintain a relationship with its donors.

[11] The organization fails to satisfy the needs of its donors.

[12] Most donors are happy in their interactions with the organization.

[13] Most donors enjoy dealing with this organization.

[14] I feel very confident about the organization's ability to accomplish its mission.

[15] The organization does not have the ability to meet its goals and objectives.

[16] I believe that the organization takes the opinions of donors into account when making decisions.

commitment 4[19] (26.62). To achieve parsimony of items, control mutuality 2, satisfaction 5, commitment 2, trust 6, trust 4, and commitment 5 were deleted. Also, satisfaction 3 and satisfaction 6 were covariated. After dropping highly correlated items, the CFA result improved, meeting all desired criteria for a good model fit (χ^2/df = 2.25; CFI= .95; TLI = .94; SRMR = .037; RMSEA= .08).

While the model fits for two sets of measurement —relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes— were met, high correlation among the factors was detected. As Table 4-9 shows, the seven relationship management strategies are highly correlated with each other. Also, the four relationship quality outcomes are highly associated with each other and with the relationship management strategies. Given the high correlations, the second-order factorial structure approach (a second order CFA) for both relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes was adopted when testing the overall measurement fit.

The initial CFA model fit results needed to be improved (χ^2/df = 2.52; CFI= .86; TLI = .85; SRMR = .068; RMSEA= .065). MI scores recommended covariating competence with autonomy (MI = 64.47) and dropping behavioral intention 5, which was highly correlated with other items. After adjusting the MI scores, the CFA was re-tested. The final CFA test for all measurements in the model was as follows: χ^2/df = 2.41; CFI= .87; TLI = .86; SRMR = .065; RMSEA= .063. While the CFI and TLI values—indicators of the goodness-of-fit—did not meet the criteria, SRMR and RMSEA values—

---

[17] I believe donors have influence on the decision makers of the organization.

[18] I would rather have a relationship with this organization than not.

[19] Compared to other organizations, I value my relationship with this organization more.

indicators of the badness-of-fit—met the criteria. Because this model employed a second-order CFA whose goodness-of-fit is always lower than goodness-of-fit of the first-order CFA (Doll, Xia, & Torkzadeh, 1994) and meeting the badness-of-fit criteria is more appropriate than meeting the goodness-of-fit criteria in this study, it was considered as the final model fit.

Based on this measurement model, path analysis was conducted to test the linkages among relationship management strategies, donors' psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and behavioral intentions. Even though path analysis based on second-order CFA explains how the overall relationship management strategy as a uni-dimension is linked to donors' psychological empowerment and the overall relationship quality outcome, it does not evaluate how each relationship management strategy uniquely explains the variance of the dependent variables (i.e., donors' psychological empowerment and the four dimensions of relationship quality outcomes). Thus, multiple regression, correlation, and mediating test with regression were mainly used to test the hypotheses and answer the study's research questions, whereas path analysis was used to explain the overall linkages among the variables. Table 4-10 shows the summary of model fit indices for CFA models.

Evidence for Research Questions and Hypotheses

Linkages between Relationship Management Strategies and Donors' Psychological Empowerment

Research question 1

RQ1: With regard to donors' psychological empowerment, which dimension is perceived as the most important?

The first research question examined the four constructs of donors' psychological empowerment. As shown in Table 4-5, the data show that, of the four constructs, meaning was the one that was evaluated most strongly by the donors (*M* = 6.00, *SD* = .99). Donors also agreed that they have high autonomy (*M* = 5.93, *SD* = .93) and competence (*M* = 5.47, *SD* = 1.01). However, donors reported that they do not feel they have impact on the nonprofit organizations, to which they donate (*M* = 3.51, *SD* = 1.45).

Research question 2

> **RQ2: To what extent do donors perceive that nonprofit organizations are employing the seven relationship management strategies?**

The study proposed seven relationship management strategies that may enhance both donors' psychological empowerment and relationship quality outcomes. The seven relationship management strategies are openness, positivity, assurances, access, reciprocity, and participation. The second research question asked which of the relationship management strategies nonprofit organizations most used as perceived by donors. As shown in Table 4-4, reciprocity (*M* = 6.12, *SD* = .88) is the most used relationship management strategy perceived by donors, followed by positivity (*M* = 5.97, *SD* = .78), access (*M* = 5.71, *SD* = 1.05), assurances (*M* = 5.63, *SD* = 1.06), sharing of tasks (*M* = 5.35, *SD* = 1.06), openness (*M* = 5.19, *SD* = 1.14), and participation (*M* = 5.07, *SD* = 1.14).

Hypothesis 1

> **H1: Nonprofit organizations' seven relationship management strategies will be positively associated with donors' psychological empowerment.**

The first hypothesis predicted a positive correlation between relationship management strategies and donors' psychological empowerment. To test hypothesis 1, several statistical analyses such as Pearson's r correlation and multiple regression were employed. Pearson's r correlations demonstrate the degree of a linear relationship between two variables. As shown in Table 4-11, donors' psychological empowerment is positively and statistically significantly correlated with all seven relationship management strategies at the p = .00 level: openness (r = .55), positivity (r = .50), assurances (r = .56), sharing of tasks (r = .57), access (r = .47), reciprocity (r = .47), and participation (r = .54). While Pearson's correlations of access and reciprocity with donors' psychological empowerment are not as strong as the correlations for the other 5 strategies, they are still moderately strong and statistically significant.

To test hypothesis 1 with a more sophisticated analysis, multiple regression was employed. Even though none of the variance-inflating factors (VIF) for any of the independent variables was over 10, the widely accepted cutoff point for tolerance (Hair et al., 2006), the high correlation among the independent variables was considered. With this in mind, it was necessary to check the relative effect of each independent variable. Multiple regression analysis allows a researcher to explain the effect of an explanatory variable while controlling other independent variables in the model (Agresti & Finaly, 2009). For the regression analysis, the seven relationship management strategies were considered independent variables and donors' psychological empowerment was the dependent variable.

As shown in Table 4-12, the multiple regression analysis of donors' psychological empowerment as a dependent variable was significant [$F(7, 349) = 29.34$,

p = .00], accounting for 37% of the variance. Of the seven relationship management strategies, only two have significant effects on donors' psychological empowerment: openness (β = .19, t = 2.25, p < .05) and sharing of tasks (β = .23, t = 2.29, p < .05). Thus, based on the two levels of analysis, H1 was partially supported.

Research question 3

> **RQ3: Which of the seven relationship management strategies are most strongly associated with the four dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment?**

Research question 3 further explored the relationships between relationship management strategies and the four dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment—meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. To address the research question, a series of multiple regression analyses was conducted.

The first multiple regression was conducted with the seven relationship management strategies as independent variables and meaning as the dependent variable. As stated earlier, meaning was the dimension of psychological empowerment that donors perceived most strongly. The regression analysis result was significant [F(7, 349) = 20.05, p < .001], and R^2 was .29. As Table 4-13 shows, of the seven relationship management strategies, the effects of positivity (β = .21, t = 2.43, p < .05), sharing of tasks (β = .22, t = 2.06, p < .05), and reciprocity (β = .15, t = 2.01, p < .05) on meaning were statistically significant at p = .05. While the result also showed that there was a significant effect of access on meaning (β = -.22, t = -2.45, p < .05), the direction of effect was negative.

The second multiple regression analysis was employed with competence as the dependent variable, addressing which relationship management strategies were highly associated with donors' competence. The overall multiple regression was statistically

significant [F(7, 349) = 13.79, $p < .001$], explaining 22% of the variance. Similarly to the result for meaning, significantly positive effects of sharing of tasks ($\beta = .31$, $t = 2.78$, $p < .01$) and reciprocity ($\beta = .17$, $t = 2.19$, $p < .05$) on competence were found. Table 4-14 displays the results of the analysis.

Table 4-15 shows the result of multiple regression analysis that tested the effects of the seven relationship management strategies on donors' autonomy. The regression analysis result showed that openness ($\beta = .27$, $t = 2.74$, $p < .01$) and positivity ($\beta = .21$, $t = 2.30$, $p < .05$) had effects on donors' autonomy. The regression model explained 19% of the variance [F(7, 349) = 12.02, $p < .001$].

Lastly, the multiple regression of the seven relationship management strategies with impact was significant [F(7, 349) = 18.90, p < .001], accounting for 28% of the variance. As shown in Table 4-16, there were the significant effects of assurances ($\beta = .25$, $t = 2.34$, $p < .01$) and positivity ($\beta = -.24$, $t = -2.85$, $p < .05$) on impact. While a nonprofit organization's assurances strategy was positively related to impact, its positivity strategy was negatively linked with donors' impact. Also, there was a positive effect of participation strategy ($\beta = .20$, $t = 1.92$, $p = .06$) on impact at the $p = .10$ level. A summary of the effects of seven relationship management strategies on the four dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment is shown in Figure 4-1.

Linkages between Donors' Psychological Empowerment and Relationship Quality Outcomes

Hypothesis 2

H2: Donors' psychological empowerment will be positively related to the four quality outcomes of their relationships with nonprofit organizations.

The second hypothesis explored the positive linkages between donors' psychological empowerment and the relationship quality outcomes of control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment. Pearson's r correlation analysis was conducted to test the hypothesis. As shown in Table 4-17, the correlations between donors' psychological empowerment and the four relationship quality outcomes were positive and statistically significant at the p = .001 level, with coefficients ranging from .63 to .65. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Research question 4

RQ4: Which of the seven relationship management strategies are most strongly associated with the four relationship quality outcomes?

As an extension of previous relationship management theory studies (e.g., Bortree, 2010; Ki & Hon, 2007; Waters, 2011), the fourth research question addressed how the extent to which relationship management strategies are linked with relationship quality outcomes. Pearson's r correlation and multiple regression analyses were conducted. As Table 4-9 shows, the seven relationship management strategies were statistically significantly correlated with four relationship quality outcomes at the p = .001 level. In particular, the highest correlation was found in the relationship between assurances and trust (r = .82), whereas the lowest correlation, which still was relatively strong, existed between reciprocity and control mutuality (r = .65).

A series of multiple regression analyses of the relationship management strategies with the four relationship quality outcomes were conducted. The first multiple regression analysis was to test the effects of the seven relationship management strategies on control mutuality. The regression was significant [$F(7, 349) = 136.16$, $p < .001$], with explanation of 73% of total variance in control mutuality. As shown in Table

4-18, assurances (β = .26, t = 3.97, p < .001) and sharing of tasks (β = .25, t = 3.88, p < .001) had strong effects on control mutuality at the p = .001 level whereas openness (β = .13, t = 2.24, p < .05) had a moderate effect on control mutuality.

The second multiple regression analysis was run to test the relationships between the relationship management strategies and satisfaction. As shown in Table 4-19, the regression model significantly affected satisfaction [F(7, 349) = 119.72, p < .001], accounting for 71% of the total variance. Of the seven relationship management strategies, positivity (β = .19, t = 3.50, p < .001), assurances (β = .21, t = 2.99, p < .001), and sharing of tasks (β = .35, t = 5.15, p < .001) had significant correlations with satisfaction.

In terms of testing the effects of the relationship management strategies on trust, multiple regression analysis was significant [F(7, 349) = 148.44, p < .001] and explained 75% of the variance in trust. Positivity (β = .20, t = 3.95, p < .001), assurances (β = .28, t = 4.45, p < .001), sharing of tasks (β = .26, t = 4.03, p < .001), and reciprocity (β = .17, t = 3.72, p < .001) positively influenced the level of trust that donors perceived (Table 4-20).

The last multiple regression analysis examined the effects of the seven relationship management strategies on donors' commitment. Results were significant [F(7, 349) = 77.75, p < .001] and explained 61% of the total variance. As Table 4-21 shows, assurances (β = .25, t = 3.16, p < .001) was the strongest explanatory variable, followed by reciprocity (β = .18, t = 3.30, p < .001), sharing of tasks (β = .22, t = 2.81, p < .05), and positivity (β = .13, t = 2.03, p < .05).

A summary of the effects of the seven relationship management strategies on the four relationship quality outcomes is shown in Figure 4-2.

Mediating Role of Donors' Psychological Empowerment in the Association between Relationship Management Strategies and Relationship Quality Outcomes

Hypotheses 3 to 9 addressed the mediating effect of donors' psychological empowerment in the association between relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes. To test the mediating effect, four steps of regression analysis suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) were employed. The four steps of regression equations are as follows:

Step 1: simple regression analysis that test the effect of an independent variable on a mediating variable

$$M = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon 1$$

Step 2: simple regression analysis that test the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable

$$Y = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon 1$$

Step 3: simple regression analysis that test the effect of a mediating variable on a dependent variable

$$Y = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 M + \varepsilon 1$$

Step 4: multiple regression analysis that test the effects of both an independent variable and a mediating variable on a dependent variable

$$Y = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 M + \varepsilon 1$$

Where X = independent variable, M = mediating variable, Y = dependent variable, β_s = standardized regression coefficients, ε = error term

To test the mediating effect, significance on simple regression analyses from 1 to 3 is a prerequisite. Mediating effect exists if the effect of a mediating variable on a dependent variable remains significant while controlling for the effect of an independent variable. Mediating effect can be observed by comparing standardized βs of X in step 2 and step 4. When the standardized β of X in step 4 is smaller than the standardized β of

X in step 2, it can be concluded that M has a mediating effect in the relationship between X and Y. In other words, it is considered an indirect effect, which explains the effect of X on Y through M. Also, as a post-hoc test to examine whether or not the indirect effect is statistically significant, Sobel test statistics were examined. Sobel product of coefficients can be calculated by multiplying β_1 and β_2 in step 4.

Hypothesis 3

> **H3: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's openness strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.**

To test hypothesis 3 that predicted indirect effects in the relationship between a nonprofit's openness strategy on the four relationship quality outcomes mediated by donors' empowerment, a series of four-step regression analyses were conducted. Also, Sobel test statistics were calculated to check whether the indirect effect is statistically significant.

As Table 4-22 shows, the standardized βs of openness in step 4 were smaller than the standardized βs of openness in step 2. Also, the Sobel test statistics that explained the indirect effects of openness to relationship quality outcomes through donors' empowerment were statistically significant at the $p = .001$ level across all four relationship quality outcomes: control mutuality (Sobel's test = 9.83, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 9.77, $p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 9.70, $p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 9.72, $p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 3 was supported.

Hypothesis 4

> **H4: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's positivity strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.**

Hypothesis 4 predicted indirect effects of a nonprofit organization's positivity strategy on the four relationship quality outcomes through donors' psychological empowerment. As shown in Table 4-23, the effect of positivity on the four relationship quality outcomes decreased when controlling for donors' empowerment. Also, the Sobel test results showed that positivity has statistically significant indirect effects on control mutuality (Sobel's test = 9.00, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 8.95, $p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 8.90, $p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 8.92, $p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 4 was supported.

Hypothesis 5

> **H5: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's assurances strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.**

Hypothesis 5 predicted indirect effects of assurances on the four relationship quality outcomes that donors perceived in their relationships with nonprofit organizations. Results of the four steps of regression analysis showed that there were decreased standardized βs of assurances by introducing donors' psychological empowerment (Table 4-24). Sobel test results also confirmed the indirect effect of assurances on the four relationship quality outcomes: control mutuality (Sobel's test = 9.93, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 9.97, $p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 9.80, $p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 9.82, $p < .001$). As a result, hypothesis 5 was supported.

Hypothesis 6

> **H6: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's sharing of tasks strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.**

The sixth hypothesis addressed the mediating effect of donors' psychological empowerment in the association between the sharing of tasks strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes. As shown in Table 4-25, standardized βs of sharing of tasks in step 2 were bigger than those in step 4. Furthermore, Sobel test results were also significant at the $p = .001$ level. The indirect effects of sharing of tasks were as follows: control mutuality (Sobel's test = 10.04, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 8.41, $p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 9.90$p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 9.92, $p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 6 was supported.

Hypothesis 7

> **H7: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's access strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.**

To test hypothesis 7 that predicted the indirect effects in the relationship between a nonprofit's access strategy on the four relationship quality outcomes mediated by donors' empowerment, standardized βs of access in both step 4 and 2 were compared. The standardized βs of access when controlling for donors' psychological empowerment were smaller than the standardized βs of access in simple regression model (Table 4-26). Sobel test statistics were also significant for all relationship quality outcomes: control mutuality (Sobel's test = 8.45, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 8.41, $p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 8.37, $p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 8.38, $p < .001$). As a result, hypothesis 7 was supported.

Hypothesis 8

> **H8: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's reciprocity strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.**

Hypothesis 8 predicted the indirect effect of reciprocity, an element of stewardship, on the four relationship quality outcomes. Based on the comparisons of the standardized βs of reciprocity in step 2 to those in step 4, the indirect effects of reciprocity on the four relationship quality outcomes were observed (Table 4-27). Also, Sobel test results also confirmed the indirect effect of reciprocity on the four relationship quality outcomes: control mutuality (Sobel's test = 8.56, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 8.52, $p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 8.48, $p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 8.49, $p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 8 was supported.

Hypothesis 9

H9: Donors' empowerment mediates the positive association between a nonprofit organization's participation strategy and the four relationship quality outcomes.

Hypothesis 9 addressed the mediating effect of donors' psychological empowerment in the association between participation and the four relationship quality outcomes. As Table 4-28 shows, standardized βs of participation in step 2 were larger than those in step 4. In other words, by introducing the mediating variable (i.e., donors' psychological empowerment), the single effects of participation on the four relationship quality outcomes were reduced. Furthermore, Sobel test results were significant at the $p = .001$ level. The indirect effects of participation were as follows: control mutuality (Sobel's test = 11.23, $p < .001$), satisfaction (Sobel's test = 9.51$p < .001$), trust (Sobel's test = 9.45, $p < .001$), and commitment (Sobel's test = 9.47, $p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 9 was supported.

To assess the linkages among the overall relationship strategy, donors' psychological empowerment, the overall relationship quality outcome, and behavioral

intention, path analysis was conducted. The SEM model fit was as follows: (X2/df = 2.41; CFI= .87; TLI = .86; SRMR = .065; RMSEA= .063). As shown in Figure 4-3, direct effects of the overall relationship strategy on donors' psychological empowerment (β = .66, p < .001) and the overall relationship quality outcome (β = .70, p < .001) were significant at the p = .00 level. Significant direct effects of donors' psychological empowerment on the overall relationship quality outcome (β = .32, p < .001) and their behavioral intention (β = .67, p < .001) were found. The direct effect of the overall relationship quality outcome on donors' intended future behavior (β = .28, p < .001) was also statistically significant.

A Sobel test was conducted to test mediation effects of donors' psychological empowerment in the association between the overall relationship management strategy and the overall relationship quality outcome. The Sobel test (Sobel's test = 4.62, p < .001) was significant, indicating that donors' psychological empowerment mediates the effect of the overall relationship management strategy on the overall relationship quality outcome.

Research question 5

RQ5: To what extent are the four relationship quality outcomes positively associated with donors' intended future giving behavior?

Research question 5 addressed the relationship between relationship quality outcomes that donors perceive and their future behavioral intention. To answer the research question, a multiple regression of relationship quality outcomes with behavioral intention was conducted. As Table 4-29 shows, of the four relationship quality outcomes, only commitment was an explanatory variable predicting donors' future behavior (β = .80, t = 11.16, p < .001).

Research question 6

RQ6: To what extent is donors' psychological empowerment associated with donors' intended future behavior?

The last research question examined the direct relationship between donors' psychological empowerment and their future behavioral intention. As Table 4-30 shows, results of a simple regression analysis showed that donors' psychological empowerment has direct impact on donors' future behavior (β = .58, t = 13.37, p < .001). Similarly, path analysis results also confirmed the significant effect of donors' psychological empowerment on donors' intended future behavior, which includes future giving. As Figure 4-3 shows, the effect of donors' psychological empowerment on donors' future behavior (β = .67) was more than twice as large as the effect of the overall relationship quality outcomes on donors' future behavior (β = .28).

Post-hoc testing

To further explore the factors that may influence donors' psychological empowerment, a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was conducted. For this analysis, demographic information, such as education, income, and donor types, were entered to block 1, whereas the seven relationship management strategies were entered to block 2. All three demographic information variables were treated as dummy variables in the regression test. Education was coded 0 (from high school graduate to a four-year college degree) or 1 (graduate degree); income was coded as 0 (up to $100,000) or 1 (more than $100,000); and donor types were coded as 0 (annual giving donors) or 1 (major gift donors).

Prior to running the analysis, three major assumptions for multiple regression—normality, multicollinearity, and linearity—were checked. In terms of the normality check,

skewedness and kurtosis scores were examined. The scores of skewedness and kurtosis for the independent variables were within the range from -1.96 to +1.96, which are considered the critical values for normality (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the normality assumption was verified. To check multicollinearity, variance inflation factors (VIF) scores were examined. All the scores of VIF for independent variables did not exceed 10, the critical value for multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2006). Finally, linearity between the independent variables and the dependent variable was verified by examining the partial regression plots that represent the relationships between a single independent variable and the dependent variable. Therefore, all of these assumptions were met.

As presented in Table 4-31, the regression model explained 40.5% of the total variance in donors' psychological empowerment, indicated by the total R^2. More specifically, the first block regression model with three demographic variables accounted for 8.5% of total variance in donors' psychological empowerment [$F(3, 317) = 9.77$, $p < .001$]. Among the three demographic variables, only donor type had a significant effect on donors' psychological empowerment ($\beta = .28$, $t = 5.12$, $p < .001$). This means that major gift donors feel stronger psychological empowerment than annual giving donors do. Also, the second block regression model significantly contributed the explanatory power by R^2 change of 32.1% [$F(10, 310) = 21.14$, $p < .001$]. R^2 change explains that the added independent variables are significant in predicting donors' psychological empowerment, after controlling the existing independent variables. Among the seven relationship management strategies, only the sharing of tasks strategy had a significant effect on donors' psychological empowerment ($\beta = .25$, $t =$

2.42, $p < .05$). This means that, when controlling demographic information, the sharing of tasks strategy had a positive association with donors' psychological empowerment.

Reflecting the finding that donor type had a significant effect on donors' psychological empowerment, the study further explored which relationship management strategies were linked to donors' psychological empowerment for both annual giving donors and major gift donors. To address this question, multiple regression analyses of seven relationship management strategies with donors' psychological empowerment were conducted. As shown in Table 4-32, the multiple regression analysis for annual giving donors was significant [$F(7, 253) = 18.86$, $p < .001$], explaining 34% of the variance in psychological empowerment. Among the seven relationship management strategies, the openness ($\beta = .26$, $t = 2.58$, $p < .001$) and reciprocity ($\beta = .17$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$) strategies had significant effects on annual giving donors' psychological empowerment. Turning to major gift donors, the multiple regression model was also significant [$F(7, 88) = 15.01$, $p < .001$], accounting for 54% of the variance in psychological empowerment. Positivity ($\beta = .35$, $t = 2.50$, $p < .05$), sharing of tasks ($\beta = .79$, $t = 4.02$, $p < .001$), and access ($\beta = -.30$, $t = -2.14$, $p < .05$) had significant effects on major gift donors' psychological empowerment.

Table 4-1. Response rates

Name of organization	Formula	Application	Result
Organization A	Complete/Total	121/575	21.04%
	(Complete + Incomplete)/Total	162/575	28.17%
Organization B	Complete/Total	55/262	20.99%
	(Complete + Incomplete)/Total	67/262	25.57%
Organization C	Complete/Total	80/682	11.73%
	(Complete + Incomplete)/Total	97/682	14.22%
Organization D	Complete/Total	67/1,000	6.7%
	(Complete + Incomplete)/Total	80/1,000	8.0%
Organization E	Complete/Total	47/73	64.38%
	(Complete + Incomplete)/Total	49/73	67.12%
Total response rate	Complete/Total	370/2,592	14.27%
	(Complete + Incomplete)/Total	455/2,592	17.55%

Table 4-2. Composition ratio for the final sample from each organization

Name of organization	Frequency	Percentage
Organization A	121	32.70%
Organization B	55	14.86%
Organization C	80	21.62%
Organization D	67	18.11%
Organization E	47	12.70%
Total	370	100%

Table 4-3. Sample demographic description

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	96	27.3%
	Female	256	71.7%
	Total	352	100.0%
Education	High school	11	3.1%
	Some college degree	53	14.8%
	Four-year college degree	95	26.6%
	Graduate degree (e.g., MA, Ph.D.)	199	55.7%
	Total	357	100%
Ethnicity	African-American/Black	8	2.3%
	Asian	3	0.8%
	Caucasian	324	91.5%
	Hispanic/ Latino	13	3.7%
	Middle Eastern	0	0%
	Native American	0	0%
	Other	6	1.7%
	Total	354	100.0%
Income	Less than $50,000	62	18.7%
	$50,001- $100,000	127	38.4%
	$100,001 - $ 150,000	63	19.0%
	$150,001- $ 200,000	38	11.5%
	$200,001 - $250,000	15	4.5%
	More than $250,000	26	7.9%
	Total	331	100.0%
Employment	Employed full-time	203	57.5%
	Employed part-time	25	7.1%
	Self-employed	26	7.4%
	Unemployed	4	1.1%
	Retired	80	22.7%
	Student	3	0.8%
	Homemaker	4	1.1%
	Total	353	100.0%
Number of Years in Community	Less than 2 years	11	3.1%
	2 to 10 years	72	20.3%
	10 to 20 years	79	22.3%
	20 years or longer	193	54.4%
	Total	355	100.0%
Donor Type	Annual giving donors	268	72.43%
	Major gift donors	102	27.57%
	Total	370	100.00%

Table 4-3. Continued.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Age	335	21	86	57.21	12.21
Years Donated	342	0	41	9.41	8.22
Amount Donated 3 Years	319	0	$35,000	$1821.66	$4634.25
Number of NPOs Supported	342	0	200	8.79	13.52

Table 4-4. Means and standard deviations of relationship management strategies

Variable		*M*	*SD*
Overall relationship management strategies		5.58	.90
Openness- Overall		5.19	1.14
OPN1	The organization's annual report is a valuable source of information for donors.	4.99	1.42
OPN2	The organization does not provide donors with enough information about what it does with donations. (Reverse)	5.13	1.57
OPN3	The organization provides donors with enough information to understand the issues it faces.	5.55	1.30
OPN4	The organization shares enough information with donors about the organization's governance.	5.09	1.47
Positivity-Overall		5.97	.78
POS1	Receiving regular communications from the organization is beneficial to donors.	5.95	1.01
POS2	The organization's communication with donors is courteous.	6.34	.95
POS3	The organization attempts to make its interactions with donors enjoyable.	6.14	1.06
POS4	The information the organization provides donors with is of little use to them. (Reverse)	5.43	1.31
Assurances- Overall		5.63	1.06
ASS1	The organization makes a genuine effort to provide personal responses to donors' concerns.	5.54	1.32
ASS2	The organization communicates the importance of its donors.	6.08	1.15
ASS3	When donors raise concerns, the organization takes these concerns seriously.	5.18	1.34
ASS4	Donors do not believe that the organization really cares about their concerns. (Reverse)	5.72	1.41
Sharing of Tasks- Overall		5.35	1.06
STK1	The organization and donors do not work well together at solving problems. (Reverse)	5.64	1.31
STK2	The organization is involved in managing issues that donors care about.	5.69	1.26
STK3	The organization works with donors to develop solutions that benefit donors.	4.90	1.27
STK4	The organization is flexible when working with donors to come to mutually beneficial solutions to shared concerns.	5.18	1.30

Table 4-4. Continued.

Variables		*M*	*SD*
Access- Overall		5.71	1.05
ACC1	The organization does not provide donors with adequate contact information.	5.80	1.27
ACC2	The organization provides donors with opportunities to meet its staff.	5.65	1.28
ACC3	When donors have questions or concerns, the organization is willing to answer their inquiries.	5.80	1.26
ACC4	The organization provides donors with adequate contact information for specific staff on specific issues.	5.59	1.32
Reciprocity- Overall		6.12	.88
RCP1	The organization acknowledges donations in a timely manner.	6.14	1.01
RCP2	The organization always sends donors a thank-you letter for their donations.	6.27	1.08
RCP3	The organization is not sincere when it thanks donors for their contributions. (Reverse)	6.25	1.10
RCP4	Because of their previous donations, the organization recognizes donors as friends.	5.83	1.25
Participation- Overall		5.07	1.14
PAR1	The organization asks for feedback from donors about the quality of its information.	5.13	1.48
PAR2	The organization involves donors to help identify the information they need.	4.98	1.31
PAR3	The organization provides detailed information to donors.	5.13	1.43
PAR4	The organization makes it easy to find the information donors need.	5.48	1.32
PAR5	The organization asks the opinions of donors before making decisions.	4.39	1.36
PAR6	The organization takes the time with donors to understand who we are and what we need.	5.31	1.38

Table 4-5. Means and standard deviations of donors' psychological empowerment

Variable		*M*	*SD*
Overall empowerment		5.23	.84
Meaning- Overall		6.00	.99
MEA1	My giving to the organization is very important to me.	5.95	1.06
MEA2	My philanthropic activities with the organization are personally meaningful to me.	5.92	1.15
MEA3	My giving to the organization is meaningful to me.	6.12	1.06
Competence		5.47	1.01
CPT1	I am confident about my ability to meet my and the organization's best interests.	5.44	1.28
CPT2	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my philanthropic activities.	5.97	1.11
CPT3	I have learned the skills necessary for giving effectively.	5.00	1.40
Autonomy- Overall		5.93	.93
AUT1	I have significant autonomy in determining how I give to the organization.	6.06	1.06
AUT2	I can decide on my own how to go about making my gifts.	5.98	1.11
AUT3	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I give to the organization.	5.74	1.30
Impact- Overall		3.51	1.45
IMP1	My impact on what happens in the organization is large.	4.03	1.75
IMP2	I have a great deal of control over what happens in the organization.	3.06	1.54
IMP3	I have significant influence over what happens in the organization.	3.45	1.58

Table 4-6. Means and standard deviations of relationship quality outcomes

Variables		*M*	*SD*
Overall relationship quality outcomes		5.49	.84
Control Mutuality- Overall		5.06	1.02
CMT1	The organization and donors are attentive to each other's needs.	5.05	1.22
CMT2	The organization does not believe the opinions and concerns of its donors are important. (Reverse)	5.96	1.18
CMT3	I believe donors have influence on the decision makers of the organization.	4.82	1.37
CMT4	The organization really listens to what its donors have to say.	5.07	1.30
CMT5	When donors interact with this organization, they have a sense of control over the situation.	4.69	1.22
CMT6	The organization gives donors enough say in the decision-making process.	4.78	1.28
Satisfaction- Overall		5.58	.98
SAT1	Donors are happy with the organization.	5.27	1.21
SAT2	Both the organization and its donors benefit from their relationship.	5.83	1.10
SAT3	Most donors are happy in their interactions with the organization.	5.44	1.20
SAT4	Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship the organization has established with me.	5.72	1.30
SAT5	The organization fails to satisfy the needs of its donors. (Reverse)	5.75	1.23
SAT6	Most donors enjoy dealing with this organization.	5.44	1.20
Trust- Overall		5.70	.95
TRU1	The organization respects its donors.	5.97	1.14
TRU2	The organization can be relied on to keep its promises to donors.	5.67	1.18
TRU3	When the organization makes an important decision, I know it will be concerned about its donors.	5.32	1.27
TRU4	I believe that the organization takes the opinions of donors into account when making decisions.	5.15	1.27
TRU5	I feel very confident about the organization's ability to accomplish its mission.	5.99	1.11
TRU6	The organization does not have the ability to meet its goals and objectives. (Reverse)	6.08	1.10
Commitment- Overall		5.63	.97
CMM1	I feel that the organization is trying to maintain a long-term commitment with donors.	5.91	1.12
CMM2	I cannot see that the organization wants to maintain a relationship with its donors. (Reverse)	5.96	1.18
CMM3	There is a long-lasting bond between the organization and its donors.	5.42	1.25
CMM4	Compared to other organizations, I value my relationship with this organization more.	4.82	1.56
CMM5	I would rather have a relationship with this organization than not.	6.03	1.07

Table 4-7. Means and standard deviations of behavioral intention

Variables		*M*	*SD*
Overall behavioral intention		5.42	1.00
INT1	I will continue donating to the organization in the near future.	6.20	.93
INT2	I will increase the amount of my gifts to the organization.	4.48	1.37
INT3	I will recommend to my friends and relatives that they donate to the organization.	5.46	1.33
INT4	I will say positive things about the organization to my friends and relatives.	6.27	.97
INT5	If I am ever in the position of making a very large gift, I will talk to this organization first.	4.70	1.74

Table 4-8. Reliability of all measurement scales

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
Openness	4	.80
Positivity	4	.69
Assurances	4	.83
Sharing Tasks	4	.85
Access	4	.83
Reciprocity	4	.79
Participation	6	.89
Empowerment (Overall)	12	.87
Meaning	3	.89
Competence	3	.72
Autonomy	3	.73
Impact	3	.87
Control Mutuality	6	.90
Satisfaction	6	.90
Trust	6	.90
Commitment	5	.84
Behavioral Intention	5	.82

Table 4-9. Pearson's r correlation of relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Openness	——										
2. Positivity	.73***	——									
3. Assurances	.77***	.79***	——								
4. Sharing of Tasks	.81***	.72***	.85***	——							
5. Access	.71***	.76***	.82***	.78	——						
6. Reciprocity	.60***	.73***	.74***	.63***	.72***	——					
7. Participation	.83***	.71***	.79***	.85***	.76***	.64***	——				
8. Control Mutuality	.75***	.72***	.81***	.81***	.75***	.65***	.77***	——			
9. Satisfaction	.72***	.74***	.79***	.79***	.72***	.66***	.73***	.86***	——		
10. Trust	.74***	.77***	.82***	.79***	.73***	.71***	.74***	.87***	.90***	——	
11. Commitment	.67***	.68***	.74***	.71***	.67***	.66***	.66***	.80***	.86***	.85***	——

$p^{***} < .001$

Table 4-10. Summary of Model Fit

		χ^2/ df ≤ 3.00	CFI ≥ .90	TLI ≥ .90	SRMR ≤ .08	RMSEA ≤ .08
CFA for relationship management strategies	Initial	4.63	.83	.80	.064	.101
	Final	3.89	.92	.90	.064	.08
CFA for relationship quality outcomes	Initial	7.14	.81	.78	.065	.13
	Final	2.25	.95	.94	.037	.08
CFA for second-order model fit	Initial	2.52	.86	.85	.068	.065
	Final	2.41	.87	.86	.065	.063

Table 4-11. Pearson's r correlation of donors' psychological empowerment and relationship management strategies

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Empowerment	———							
2. Openness	0.55***	———						
3. Positivity	0.50***	0.73***	———					
4. Assurances	0.56***	0.77***	0.79***	———				
5. Sharing of Tasks	0.57***	0.81***	0.73***	0.85***	———			
6. Access	0.47***	0.71***	0.76***	0.82***	0.78***	———		
7. Reciprocity	0.47***	0.61***	0.73***	0.74***	0.64***	0.72***	———	
8. Participation	0.54***	0.83***	0.71***	0.79***	0.85***	0.77***	0.64***	———

$p^{***} < .001$

Table 4-12. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with donors' psychological empowerment

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	2.17 (.30)		7.24**	.00
Openness	.14 (.06)	.19	2.25*	.03
Positivity	.06 (.09)	.06	.69	.49
Assurances	.13 (.08)	.16	1.63	.11
Sharing of Tasks	.18 (.08)	.23	2.29*	.02
Access	-.11(.07)	-.14	-1.68	.09
Reciprocity	.12 (.07)	.13	1.81	.07
Participation	.03 (.07)	.04	.41	.68

Note: R = .61, R^2 = .37, F (7, 349) = 29.34, $p^{**} < .001$, $p^{*} < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-13. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with meaning

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	2.40 (.37)		6.42**	.00
Openness	.02 (.08)	.02	0.25	.81
Positivity	.26 (.11)	.21	2.43*	.02
Assurances	.17 (.10)	.18	1.72	.09
Sharing of Tasks	.20 (.10)	.22	2.06*	.04
Access	-.21 (.08)	-.22	-2.45*	.02
Reciprocity	.17 (.08)	.15	2.01*	.045
Participation	.01 (.09)	.01	.12	.90

$R = .54$, $R^2 = .29$, $F (7, 349) = 20.05$, $p^{**} < .001$, $p^{*} < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-14. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with competence

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	2.37 (.40)		5.90**	.00
Openness	.13 (.09)	.15	1.53	.13
Positivity	.18 (.11)	.14	1.58	.11
Assurances	-.10 (.11)	-.11	-.94	.35
Sharing of Tasks	.30 (.11)	.31	2.78**	.01
Access	-.16 (.09)	-.16	-1.73	.09
Reciprocity	.20 (.09)	.17	2.19*	.03
Participation	.00 (.10)	.00	.01	.99

$R = .47$, $R^2 = .22$, $F (7, 349) = 13.79$, $p^{***} < .001$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{*} < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-15. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with autonomy

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	3.19 (.38)		8.47**	.00
Openness	.22 (.08)	.27	2.74**	.01
Positivity	.25 (.11)	.21	2.30*	.02
Assurances	.11 (.10)	.12	1.05	.29
Sharing of Tasks	.09 (.10)	.10	.89	.37
Access	-.15 (.09)	-.17	-1.75	.08
Reciprocity	.11 (.09)	.10	1.29	.20
Participation	-.15 (.09)	-.18	-1.63	.10

$R = .44$, $R^2 = .19$, $F(7, 349) = 12.02$, $p^{***} < .001$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{*} < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-16. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with impact

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	.74 (.55)		1.34	.18
Openness	.21 (.12)	.16	1.74	.08
Positivity	-.45 (.16)	-.24	-2.85**	.01
Assurances	.34 (.15)	.25	2.34*	.02
Sharing of Tasks	.14 (.15)	.10	.97	.34
Access	.06 (.12)	.04	.44	.66
Reciprocity	.01 (.12)	.01	.11	.91
Participation	.26 (.13)	.20	1.92	.06

$R = .52$, $R^2 = .28$, $F(7, 349) = 18.90$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{*} < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-17. Pearson's r correlation of donors' psychological empowerment and relationship quality outcomes

	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Satisfaction	Trust	Commitment
Empowerment	———				
Control Mutuality	.65***	———			
Satisfaction	.64***	.86***	———		
Trust	.63***	.87***	.90***	———	
Commitment	.63***	.80***	.86***	.85***	———

$p^{***} < .001$

Table 4-18. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with control mutuality

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	-.047(.24)		-.20	.84
Openness	.11 (.05)	.13	2.24*	.03
Positivity	.1 (.07)	.08	1.48	.14
Assurances	.25 (.06)	.26	3.97**	.00
Sharing of Tasks	.24 (.06)	.25	3.88**	.00
Access	.10 (.05)	.10	1.89	.06
Reciprocity	.03 (.05)	.03	.58	.56
Participation	.09 (.06)	.10	1.52	.13

R = .86, R^2 = .73, F (7, 349) = 136.16, $p^{**} < .001$, $p^{*} < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-19. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with satisfaction

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	.33 (.24)		1.38	.17
Openness	.05 (.05)	.06	1.08	.28
Positivity	.24 (.07)	.19	3.50*	.00
Assurances	.19 (.06)	.21	2.99*	.00
Sharing of Tasks	.33 (.06)	.35	5.15*	.00
Access	.03 (.05)	.03	.57	.57
Reciprocity	.09 (.05)	.08	1.69	.09
Participation	.00 (.06)	.00	.04	.97

R = .84, R^2 = .71, F (7, 349) = 119.72, $p^{*} < .001$, n= 357

Table 4-20. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with trust

	Unstandardized Coefficient (B)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	.29 (.21)		1.36	.18
Openness	.09 (.05)	.10	1.89	.06
Positivity	.24 (.06)	.20	3.95*	.00
Assurances	.25 (.06)	.28	4.45*	.00
Sharing of Tasks	.23 (.06)	.26	4.03*	.00
Access	-.04 (.05)	-.04	-.72	.47
Reciprocity	.18 (.05)	.17	3.72*	.00
Participation	-.002 (.05)	-.003	-.044	.97

$R = .87$, $R^2 = .75$, $F (7, 349) = 148.44$, $p^* < .001$, n= 357

Table 4-21. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with commitment

	Unstandardized Coefficient (B)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	.66 (.27)		2.40*	.02
Openness	.10 (.06)	.12	1.73	.09
Positivity	.16 (.08)	.13	2.03*	.04
Assurances	.23 (.07)	.25	3.16**	.00
Sharing of Tasks	.20 (.07)	.22	2.81*	.01
Access	.02 (.06)	.02	.27	.79
Reciprocity	.20 (.06)	.18	3.30**	.00
Participation	-.04 (.07)	-.04	-.59	.56

$R = .78$, $R^2 = .61$, $F (7, 349) = 77.75$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^* < .05$, n= 357

Table 4-22. Mediating effect test: Openness→ Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Openness	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.53	12.51	.00	.31	9.83***
			Step 2: X → Y	.75	21.58	.00	.75	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	15.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.57	14.97	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.33	8.67	.00		
Openness	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.53	12.51	.00	.31	9.77***
			Step 2: X → Y	.72	19.46	.00	.75	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.53	13.05	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.35	8.55	.00		
Openness	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.53	12.51	.00	.31	9.70***
			Step 2: X → Y	.74	20.69	.00	.75	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.56	14.24	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.32	8.16	.00		
Openness	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.53	12.51	.00	.31	9.72***
			Step 2: X → Y	.67	16.79	.00	.75	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.45	10.53	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.38	8.88	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-23. Mediating effect test: Positivity→ Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Positivity	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.50	10.98	.00	.25	9.00***
			Step 2: X → Y	.72	19.55	.00	.52	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	15.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.53	14.06	.00	.63	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.38	10.10	.00		
Positivity	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.50	10.98	.00	.25	8.95***
			Step 2: X → Y	.74	20.58	.00	.54	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.41	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.56	15.10	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.36	9.63	.00		
Positivity	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.50	10.98	.00	.25	8.90***
			Step 2: X → Y	.77	22.60	.00	.59	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.60	17.07	.00	.67	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.33	9.32	.00		
Positivity	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.50	10.98	.00	.25	8.92***
			Step 2: X → Y	.68	17.66	.00	.47	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.49	12.26	.00	.58	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.39	9.72	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-24. Mediating effect test: Assurances→ Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Assurances	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.56	12.65	.00	.31	9.93***
			Step 2: X → Y	.81	25.91	.00	.65	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	15.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.65	18.86	.00	.71	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.28	8.21	.00		
Assurances	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.56	12.65	.00	.31	9.97***
			Step 2: X → Y	.79	24.26	.00	.63	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.41	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.63	17.41	.00	.68	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.29	7.89	.00		
Assurances	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.56	12.65	.00	.31	9.80***
			Step 2: X → Y	.82	27.04	.00	.67	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.68	7.45	.00	.72	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.25	19.96	.00		
Assurances	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.56	12.65	.00	.31	9.82***
			Step 2: X → Y	.74	20.81	.00	.55	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.56	14.27	.00	.62	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.32	8.10	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-25. Mediating effect test: Sharing of Tasks→ Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Sharing of Tasks	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.57	13.00	.00	.32	10.04***
			Step 2: X → Y	.81	25.81	.00	.65	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	15.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.65	18.52	.00	.70	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.28	7.87	.00		
Sharing of Tasks	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.57	13.00	.00	.32	8.41***
			Step 2: X → Y	.79	24.54	.00	.63	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.41	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.64	17.45	.00	.68	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.28	7.55	.00		
Sharing of Tasks	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.57	13.00	.00	.32	9.90***
			Step 2: X → Y	.79	24.23	.00	.63	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.64	17.39	.00	.68	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.27	7.33	.00		
Sharing of Tasks	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.57	13.00	.00	.32	9.92***
			Step 2: X → Y	.71	19.03	.00	.51	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.48	12.26	.00	.58	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.41	10.47	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-26. Mediating effect test: Access→ Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Access	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.03	.00	.22	8.45***
			Step 2: X → Y	.75	21.41	.00	.56	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	19.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.57	16.69	.00	.67	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.38	10.95	.00		
Access	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.03	.00	.22	8.41***
			Step 2: X → Y	.72	19.72	.00	.52	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.41	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.54	14.97	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.38	10.51	.00		
Access	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.03	.00	.22	8.37***
			Step 2: X → Y	.73	20.11	.00	.53	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.56	15.37	.00	.64	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.37	10.27	.00		
Access	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.03	.00	.22	8.38***
			Step 2: X → Y	.67	17.03	.00	.45	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.48	12.26	.00	.58	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.41	10.47	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-27. Mediating effect test: Reciprocity → Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Reciprocity	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.11	.00	.22	8.56***
			Step 2: X → Y	.65	15.97	.00	.42	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	15.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.44	11.07	.00	.57	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.44	11.05	.00		
Reciprocity	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.11	.00	.22	8.52***
			Step 2: X → Y	.66	16.50	.00	.43	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.41	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.46	11.66	.00	.57	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.42	10.62	.00		
Reciprocity	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.11	.00	.22	8.48***
			Step 2: X → Y	.71	19.15	.00	.51	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.53	14.34	.00	.62	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.38	14.34	.00		
Reciprocity	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.47	10.11	.00	.22	8.49***
			Step 2: X → Y	.66	16.36	.00	.43	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.46	11.53	.00	.57	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.42	10.47	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-28. Mediating effect test: Participation → Empowerment→ Relationship quality outcomes

IV (X)	MV (M)	DV (Y)	Step	Standardized β	t-value	p-value	R^2	Sobel test
Participation	Empowerment	Control Mutuality	Step 1: X → M	.54	11.97	.00	.29	11.23***
			Step 2: X → Y	.77	22.72	.00	.59	
			Step 3: M → Y	.65	15.95	.00	.42	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.59	16.40	.00	.67	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.33	9.04	.00		
Participation	Empowerment	Satisfaction	Step 1: X → M	.54	11.97	.00	.29	9.51***
			Step 2: X → Y	.73	10.02	.00	.53	
			Step 3: M → Y	.64	15.58	.00	.41	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.54	13.90	.00	.62	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.35	8.87	.00		
Participation	Empowerment	Trust	Step 1: X → M	.54	11.97	.00	.29	9.45***
			Step 2: X → Y	.74	20.58	.00	.54	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.37	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.56	14.47	.00	.62	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.33	8.59	.00		
Participation	Empowerment	Commitment	Step 1: X → M	.54	11.97	.00	.29	9.47***
			Step 2: X → Y	.66	16.46	.00	.43	
			Step 3: M → Y	.63	15.43	.00	.40	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (IV)	.45	10.50	.00	.54	
			Step 4: X + M → Y (MV)	.39	9.26	.00		

*p**** < .01

Table 4-29. Multiple regression of relationship quality outcomes with behavioral intention

	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	1.02 (.27)		4.77*	.00
Control Mutuality	-.02 (.07)	-.02	-.27	.79
Satisfaction	.02 (.09)	.02	.18	.85
Trust	-.03 (.09)	-.03	-.33	.75
Commitment	.81 (.07)	.80	11.16*	.00

R = .77, R^2 = .59, F (7, 349) = 127.24, p^* < .001, n= 357

Table 4-30. Regression of donors' psychological empowerment with behavioral intention

	Unstandardized Coefficient (B)	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
Constant	1.85		6.85*	.00
Empower	.68	.58	13.37*	.00

R = 58, R2 = .34, F (7, 349) = 178.12, p^* < .001, n= 357

Table 4-31. Hierarchical regression on donors' psychological empowerment

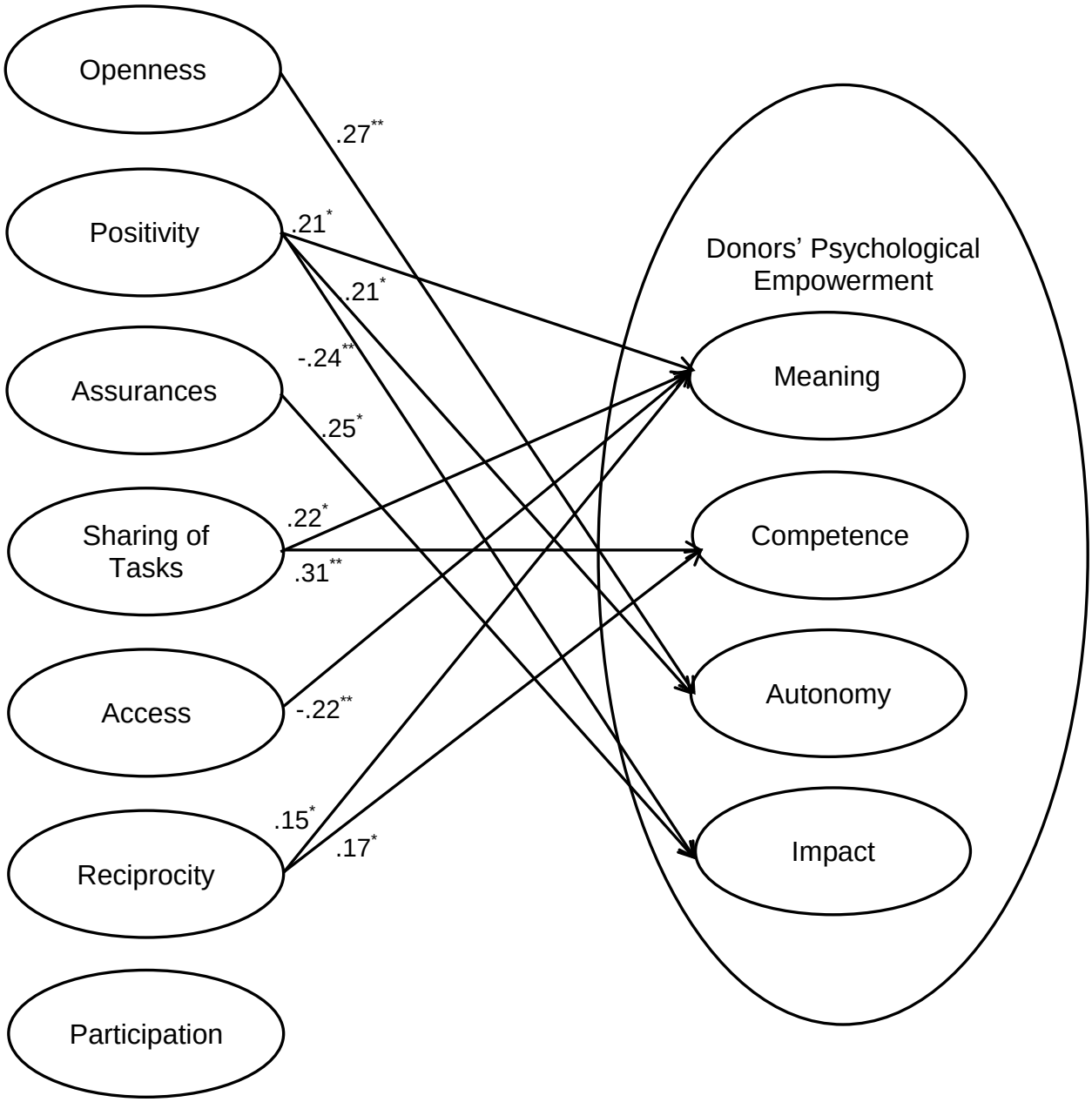
	Predictors	β (SE)
Block 1	Education	-.11
	Income	-.06
	Donor Type	.28**
R^2		.085
Block 2	Openness	.15 (.06)
	Positivity	.03 (.09)
	Assurances	.16 (.08)
	Sharing of Tasks	.25 (08)*
	Access	-.11 (.07)
	Reciprocity	.10 (.07)
	Participation	.05 (.07)
R^2 change		.321
R^2		.405

$p^{**} < .001$, $p^{*} < .05$

Table 4-32. Multiple regression of relationship management strategies with donors' psychological empowerment for both annual giving and major gift donors

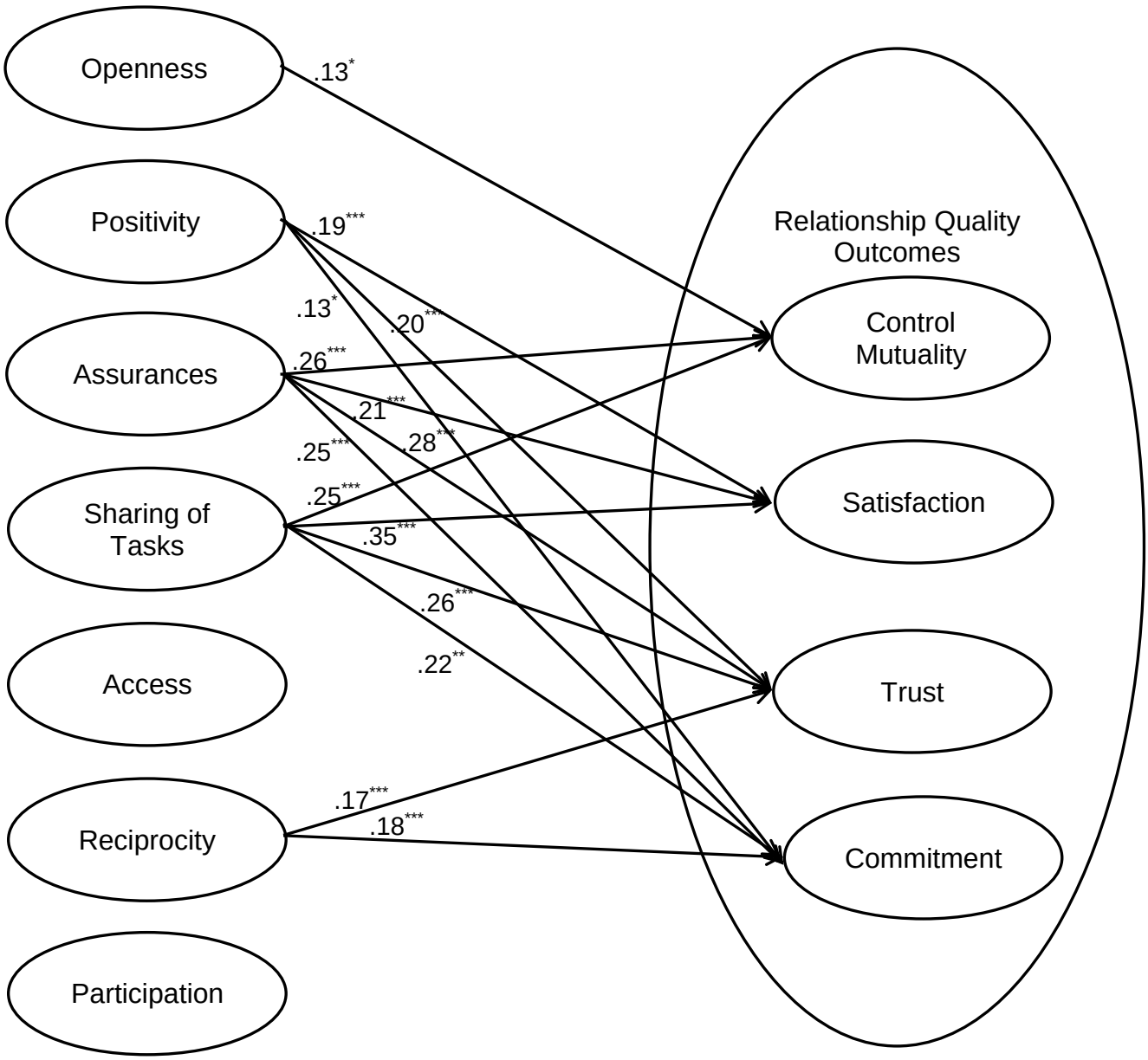
	Annual giving donors β (SE)	Major gift donors β (SE)
Constant	2.39 (.35) ***	1.69 (.60)**
Openness	.26 (.07)**	-.20 (.12)
Positivity	-.03 (.10)	.35 (.16)*
Assurances	.20 (.09)	.04 (.14)
Sharing of Tasks	.05 (.09)	.79 (.15) ***
Access	-.07(.08)	-.30 (.13) *
Reciprocity	.17 (.08)*	.04 (.12)
Participation	.07 (.08)	-.02 (.13)

$p^{***} < .001$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{*} < .05$



$p^{***} < .001$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{*} < .05$

Figure 4-1. Summary of the effects of seven relationship management strategies and four dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment



$p^{***} < .001$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{*} < .05$

Figure 4-2. Summary of the effects of seven relationship management strategies and four dimensions of relationship quality outcomes

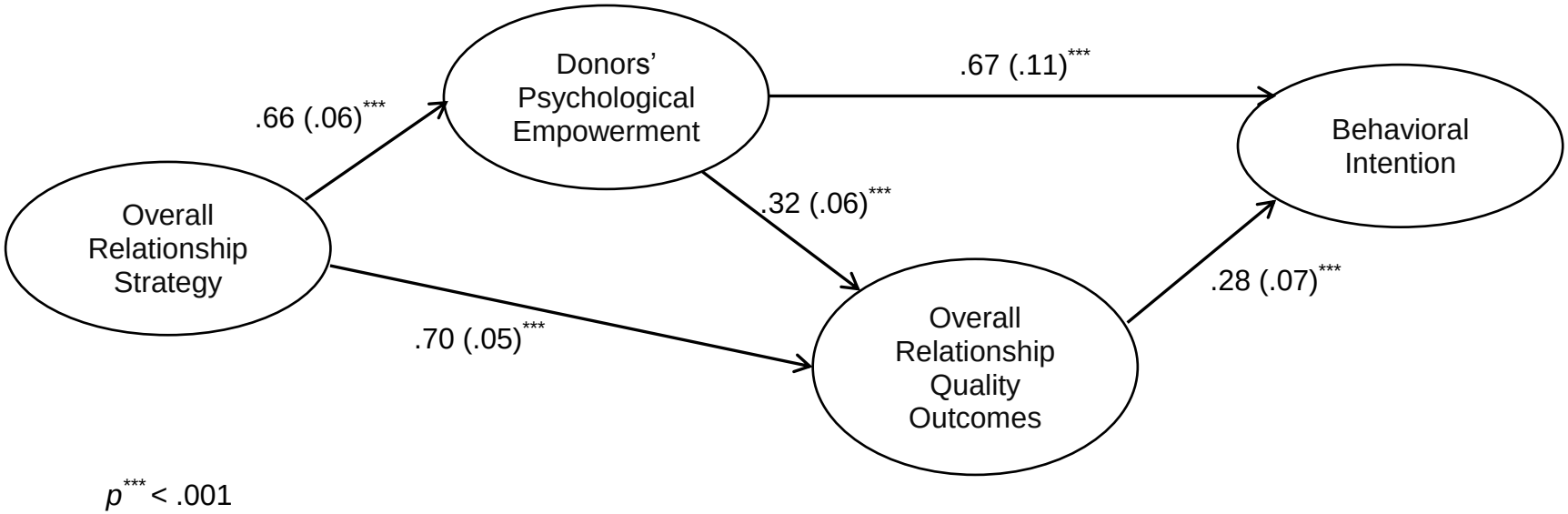


Figure 4-3. Standardized parameter estimates for second order factors of structural model

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

By introducing donors' psychological empowerment to public relations scholarship and proposing the role of relationship management strategies in fostering empowerment, this study sought to advance relationship management theory and inform public relations practice in nonprofit charitable organizations. Employing survey method to gain insight from the donors of five nonprofit organizations, this study explored the dynamic linkages among relationship management strategies, donors' psychological empowerment, relationship quality outcomes, and donors' behavioral intentions.

This chapter is composed of three parts: A discussion of the key findings, the theoretical and practical implications of the study, and a discussion of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

Donors' Psychological Empowerment

The present study introduced the concept of donors' psychological empowerment to enhance current relationship management theory. As stated in chapter 2, previous studies based on relationship management theory failed to address major premises in building and maintaining positive relationships with publics. First, there is a lack of research addressing the dynamic of power relations between an organization and its publics, despite the fact that power is inherently embedded in any relationship (Dahl, 1957; Foucault, 1995). Second, previous relationship management studies have ignored the notion of publics' autonomy in their relationships with an organization. While L.A. Grunig et al. (1992) and J. E. Grunig (1984) argued that successful relationships are characterized by each player's having accountability and autonomy in the

relationship, most public relationship scholars rarely pay attention to publics' autonomy or how this affects their beliefs, attitudes, and behavior. Moreover, previous relationship management studies have addressed neither the publics' cognitive responses to an organization's efforts to manage quality relationship with them, nor the internal state or motivation that leads to a certain behavior by publics (e.g., action to build a relationship with an organization). To fill these research gaps, the present study examined the influence of psychological empowerment in the organization-public relationship.

Publics' psychological empowerment is composed of the four dimensions of meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact, as suggested by Spreitzer (1995). Meaning refers to the degree of congruency between publics' personal values/beliefs and the organizations' mission. Competence denotes public's perceived capacity to manage relationships with organizations and to enact a certain behavior. Whereas impact is defined as the degree to which publics perceive that they influence an organization with which they have relationship, autonomy refers to publics' perceived freedom in that relationship. While these four dimensions are suggested "to combine additively to create an overall construct of psychological empowerment" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444), the concept of empowerment is new to the field of public relations and especially to the nonprofit-donor relationship setting. Thus, it is important to address which dimension donor publics believe is the strongest they hold.

The first research question addressed which dimension of psychological empowerment was perceived as the most important by donors. As reported in chapter 4, of the four dimensions of psychological empowerment, donors perceived meaning as

the most important, followed by autonomy, and competence. However, donors did not perceive that they have much impact on the organizations.

The mean score of impact was below the neutral point of agreement, denoting that donors disagree that they have impact on the organizations to which they contribute. The study also found that a large portion of donors' psychological empowerment as an aggregated concept is explained by meaning. This means that the more donors perceive congruency between their personal beliefs and the organization's mission, the more they feel empowered in the relationship with nonprofit organizations. Understanding publics' psychological empowerment as an intrinsic motivation to enact a certain behavior, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that publics will devote their intrinsic energy if they perceive congruency between their own belief and the organization's mission. This argument corresponds with Kelly's (1998) assertion that a match of donor interest as organizational mission is the leading factor in recruiting donors.

A possible explanation of the reason that donors do not believe they make an impact on nonprofit organizations may be rooted in the fact that donors, as an external public, are operating outside of the organization, regardless of the quality of the relationship they have with the organization. Even though donors, by contributing to the causes and missions that nonprofit organizations pursue, are considered enabler publics who influence nonprofit organizations' survival or failure, they may perceive that there is little room for them to influence nonprofit organizations unless they can get deeply involved in the organizations' operation (e.g., as a member of the trustees). Despite their gifts, donors may perceive their limits to make an impact on the

organizations and the limited impact they have on the organizations may not be a key feature of their psychological empowerment. Rather, as long as they perceive high levels of meaning, autonomy, and competence, these constructs compensate for the deflated impact and determine the levels of empowerment, as Spreitzer (1995) asserted.

Another interpretation is that charitable nonprofits should consider action to help donors gain strong feelings of impact. For example, they could do more research with donors on setting organizational priorities or offer more program-specific choices for donors to designate their gifts.

Nonprofit Organizations' Relationship Management Strategies

Emphasizing the importance of donors' psychological empowerment, the study proposed a new role of relationship management strategies that may enhance both donors' psychological empowerment and quality relationships with donors. Five relationship management strategies suggested by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) (i.e., openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and access); reciprocity from Kelly's (1998) stewardship concept; and participation, an aspect of transparent communication (Rawlins, 2008), were proposed as the antecedents of donors' psychological empowerment and their perceptions on relationship quality outcomes. In exploring the extent to which donors perceived that nonprofit organizations practice these relationship management strategies in their treatment of donors, the study found that the majority of donors strongly agreed that nonprofit organizations practice all seven strategies.

In particular, among these seven relationship management strategies, donors perceived that reciprocity is the most highly practiced strategy by the nonprofit organization to which they contribute. This result lines up with Waters' (2007) previous findings in his study of the relationships between healthcare nonprofit organizations and

their donors. Testing six relationship management strategies suggested by Hon and J. E. Grunig (1999) and four stewardship strategies, he found that the four stewardship strategies were most practiced, as perceived by donors. Among the four stewardship strategies, he also found that the reciprocity strategy was most used. Reflecting on these findings, the present study confirmed that one of the main strategies nonprofit organizations implement to manage relationships with donors is expressing gratitude to donors through sets of appreciation and recognition.

The present study also revealed that the participation strategy is less employed by nonprofit organizations than the other six strategies, but it is used to some extent (i.e., its mean was above the neutral point). Highly intertwined with transparent communication, the participation strategy includes active interaction between an organization and its publics. This strategy goes beyond merely sharing information with publics or allowing publics to access to organizational information (Cotterrell, 1999; Dagron, 2009).

Johnston (2010) argued that participation is the most advanced practice for community engagement. While many scholars (e.g., J. E. Grunig & White, 1992; Janse & Konijnendijk, 2007) view participation as a key strategy of two-way symmetrical communication, this study found that donors of nonprofit organizations perceived that nonprofit organizations implement the participation strategy (e.g., inviting donors to its decision-making process and incorporating donors' voices in the organization) the least, compared to other relationship management strategies.

Relationship Management Strategies as Antecedents of Donors' Psychological Empowerment

Linking relationship management strategies to donors' psychological empowerment, this research predicted the effects of the seven relationship management strategies on donors' psychological empowerment. As reported in chapter 4, each relationship management strategy was highly correlated with donors' psychological empowerment. Given the high correlations between the constructs, the study further explored the relative effect of relationship management strategies on empowerment. Of the seven strategies that nonprofit organizations implement to manage relationships with donors, openness and sharing of tasks had statistically significant effects on overall psychological empowerment. In other words, donors feel more empowered when charitable organizations are willing to share organizational resources or information with publics or to take responsibility for their publics' concerns.

The study further explored how the seven relationship management strategies are linked with the four dimensions of empowerment. A series of multiple regression tests showed that all relationship management strategies, except participation, had direct effects on the four dimensions of donors' empowerment. Examining each dimension, positivity, sharing of tasks, and reciprocity strategies had positive effects on meaning, while access had a negative effect on donors' feeling of meaning. In terms of the antecedents of competence related to donors' self-efficacy and confidence in their ability to manage quality relationship and donate to the organization, the effects of sharing of tasks and reciprocity strategies were significant. The study also found that nonprofit organization's openness and positivity strategies were positively associated with donors' perceived autonomy in their relationship with the organization. Lastly, the

results showed that positivity and assurances could influence donors' perceived feelings about their ability to influence the organization.

Put another way, the study found that the openness strategy is highly associated with donors' perceived autonomy and overall donors' psychological empowerment. The positivity strategy is positively associated with meaning and autonomy, but negatively correlated with impact. The assurances strategy is linked with donors' perceived impact, and sharing of tasks explains overall donors' psychological empowerment, meaning, competence. Access had a strong effect on meaning, but it is negatively related. Lastly, the reciprocity strategy influences donors' meaning and competence.

These findings correspond with existing studies that explored the antecedents of publics' psychological empowerment. For example, in a study on the hospitality industry, Sparrowe (1994) asserted that an organizational culture that promotes support, openness, and warmth can foster employees' psychological empowerment. Also Randolph (1995) and Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) emphasized openness and sharing information with publics as key factors in enhancing publics' psychological empowerment.

Closely related to the informal power and sociological support suggested by Kanter (1986), assurances refers to "attempts by parties in the relationship to assure the other parties that they and their concerns are legitimate" (Hon & J. E. Grunig, 1999, p. 15). The present study's results showed that Hon and J. E. Grunig's assurances strategy that guarantees legitimacy in relationships also has a significant effect on donors' psychological empowerment, more specifically donors' perceived impact. This

finding supports existing studies that tested the relationship between assurances and empowerment (e.g., Laschinger et al., 2001b; Stewart et al., 2010).

The current study also found significant effects of the reciprocity strategy on the meaning and competence dimensions of donors' psychological empowerment. This means that nonprofit organizations' efforts to show gratitude to their donors can increase perceived meaning, or the level of congruency between the donor publics' personal belief in supporting the organization and the organization's mission. Also, the reciprocity strategy enhances donors' perceived competence in their giving behavior and in maintaining their relationship with nonprofit organizations. This finding expands the findings of previous studies that revealed the value of reward systems to boosting employees' psychological empowerment.

The current study also found significant effects of positivity and sharing of tasks strategies on psychological empowerment, providing insights into the relationship between these strategies and empowerment, a previously unexplored area. More specifically, study results showed that positivity is positively related to donors' perceived meaning and autonomy but negatively related to impact. This means that an organization's effort to make relationships with its publics enjoyable may help donors feel more congruency between their personal beliefs and the organization's mission and have autonomy in their behavior. However, this strategy may discourage public's feeling that they can make an impact on the organization. This means that donors may not perceive control over the nonprofit organization to the extent to which they contribute if they perceive that the organization tries to make relationships and interactions with them pleasant. Also, the study found that the sharing of tasks strategy is linked with

meaning and competence. This means that an organization's action to take responsibility for its publics' concerns may positively enhance publics' perception about congruency between their personal beliefs and the organization's mission, as well as their self-esteem.

Another interesting finding of the study is the effect of access on empowerment. Similar to the openness strategy, the access strategy –by which organizations allow publics to have easy access to organizational resources and information– has been considered a required organizational factor in fostering empowerment (Kanter, 1986; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger et al., 2001a; Laschinger et al., 2001b; Spreitzer, 1996; Stewart et al., 2010, Ugboro & Obeng, 2000). However, this study obtained different results. While the access strategy had a positive effect on overall empowerment, results showed that access had a negative effect on a dimension of psychological empowerment, donors' perceived meaning. This finding could imply that the more donors have access to nonprofit organizations' staff and resources, the more they could identify points in the organization's vision, mission, programs, etc. that may not be compatible with their own beliefs. However, the present study did not specifically address the why behind this negative effect; therefore, further empirical research would be necessary to explain the finding.

The current study did not find an effect of participation on donors' psychological empowerment, which has been found in previous studies. Many scholars consider the participation strategy as a major factor in enhancing publics' empowerment in various settings, such as employees (e.g., X. Huang et al., 2010; Spreitzer, 1996), customers (Fuch et al., 2010; Ouschan et al., 2006), patients (R. M. Anderson & Funnel, 2005),

and community members (Papineau & Kiely, 1996). However, this study's results differ. Even though there was a moderate effect of participation strategy on donors' perceived impact, it was not statistically significant (p = .06). In the nonprofit setting, participation in an organization's decision-making process may not enhance donors' psychological empowerment. A possible explanation is that donors may feel a burden to respond on a nonprofit organization's participation strategy, which hinders donors' psychological empowerment. Unlike other relationship management strategies, the participation strategy requires the high level of engagement of donors in organization's activities, such as participating in an organization's decision making process or providing feedback. However, other relationship management strategies do not require a certain behavior of publics. For example, the positivity strategy, an organization's efforts to make relationships with its publics enjoyable, does not require publics' efforts to make relationship with the organization enjoyable. As an external public, donors may feel a burden if they are invited to participate in a nonprofit organization's important decision making process. The burden that publics may perceive to make quality relationship may inhibit the publics' intrinsic motivation or feeling of empowerment.

From the hierarchical regression analysis, the study also found that donor types had a significant effect on donors' psychological empowerment. In other words, major gift donors had stronger level of psychological empowerment than annual giving donors did. Also, the study found that the effects of seven relationship management strategies on donors' psychological empowerment differed by the types of donor. More specifically, openness and positivity strategies affected annual giving donors' psychological empowerment whereas positivity, sharing of tasks, and access had significant effects on

major gift donors' psychological empowerment. This means that nonprofit organizations should implement different relationship management strategies to enhance donors' psychological empowerment based on the type of donors.

Factors that Influence Relationship Quality Outcomes

This study also sought to identify what factors influence the four different relationship quality outcomes. First, based on the literature, the study hypothesized that donors' psychological empowerment predicted the relationship quality outcomes. As reported in chapter 4, donors' psychological empowerment was highly correlated with the four relationship quality outcomes. This finding supported the existing literature on the positive relationship of empowerment with control mutuality (Han, 2006; Ni, 2007), satisfaction (Han, 2006; Liden et al., 2000; Ugboro & Obeng, 2000), trust (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Füller et al., 2009; Laschinger et al., 2001a), and commitment (Borghei et al., 2010, Laschinger et al., 2001a). The finding explains that donors who feel empowered in their relationship with a nonprofit organization are more likely to perceive that they have balanced power, satisfaction, trust, and commitment in relations to the organization.

Moreover, the study explored the linkages between seven relationship management strategies and the four relationship quality outcomes. Results showed that the assurances strategy had significant effects on all four relationship quality outcomes. These findings align with those of previous relationship management studies. For example, Ki (2006) and Waters (2007) tested the linkages between these two relationship management constructs in different settings. In both studies, the common finding is that assurances is a significant factor that influences all four relationship quality outcomes. Even though Bortree (2007) did not find an effect of

assurances on satisfaction and commitment, her study also highlighted the value of assurances as an antecedent of control mutuality and trust. The present study confirms that organizations should assure their publics about its legitimacy and relationship with them to build and maintain quality relationships. Specific to this study, the more nonprofit organizations offer assurances to donors, the more satisfaction, control mutuality, trust, and commitment the donors will perceive.

Unlike the studies just mentioned, the present study also found that the sharing of task strategy is important in quality relationships. Similar to the assurances strategy, sharing of tasks had a significant effect on all four relationship quality outcomes. Ki (2006) and Bortree (2007) found only a partial effect of the sharing of tasks strategy on satisfaction and control mutuality, whereas Waters (2007) showed that sharing of tasks had a positive effect only on trust. In contrast, the present study found that a nonprofit organization's efforts to take responsibility for their donor publics' concern increase donors' perceived power balance, satisfaction toward the organization, trust in the organization, and commitment towards the organization.

Whereas Waters (2007) found that positivity had an impact on only one relationship quality outcome, control mutuality, Ki's (2006) study showed that positivity is highly related to control mutuality, satisfaction, and trust. In contrast, the present study found that positivity has an effect on satisfaction, trust, and commitment, but not on control mutuality. This means that the efforts by nonprofit organizations to make their donors have positive feelings about their relationship with the organization increase satisfaction, trust, and commitment.

In addition, the study found a positive relationship between openness and control mutuality, whereas neither Ki (2007) nor Bortree (2007) found that openness had an effect on any of the four relationship outcomes. Results of this study show that a nonprofit organization's efforts to open organizational information and resources to donors can enhance the levels of donors' satisfaction, trust, and commitment toward the nonprofit organization. Also, the study's results demonstrated that reciprocity, an element of Kelly's (1998) stewardship, has a significant effect on trust and commitment. In other words, showing sincere gratitude to donors for their gifts allows donors to trust the nonprofit organization more and commit themselves more to the organization and its mission.

Finally, this study did not find any effects of both the access and participation strategies on any relationship quality outcome. This means that allowing publics to have easy access or inviting them to participate in the organization's decision-making process does not directly lead to publics' perceived control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment.

Mediating Role of Donors' Psychological Empowerment on Relationship Management Strategies and Relationship Quality Outcomes

One of the most important premises of this study was the mediating role of donor's psychological empowerment in the association between relationship management strategies and quality outcomes. As a chain relationship among multiple variables, the mediation effect is defined as an "effect to a third variable/construct intervening between two other related constructs" (Hair et al., 2006, p. 844). While many public relationship management scholars (e.g., Bortree, 2007; Ki, 2006; Waters, 2007) have focused on the direct effect of organization's relationship management strategies

on the quality outcomes, they have ignored other variables that may intervene in the linkages between the main relationship constructs of strategies and outcomes. By examining the indirect effects of relationship management strategies on relationship quality outcomes through donors' psychological empowerment, this study rectifies the previous gap in research.

There are two types of mediating effects: full or complete mediating effects and partial mediating effects. Hair et al. (2006) defined full or complete mediation as a "relationship between a predictor and an outcome variable becomes nonsignificant after a mediator is entered as an additional predictor" (p. 844). They referred to partial mediation as an "effect when a relationship between a predictor and an outcome is reduced but remains significant when a mediator is also entered as an additional predictor" (p. 845).

As described in the previous chapter, mediation tests with both regression and second order path analysis were run to test seven hypotheses. The results supported the main premise of this study, the mediating role of donors' psychological empowerment. The mediation analysis with regression results showed that donors' psychological empowerment mediated the effect of the seven relationship management strategies on all four relationship quality outcomes of control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment. More specifically, the analyses found a partial mediation effect of donors' psychological empowerment because there were significant direct effects of relationship management strategies on relationship quality outcomes when donors' psychological empowerment was introduced as an additional variable.

While significant mediating roles of donors' psychological empowerment were found in all possible linkages between relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes, the highest value of the Sobel test score was found in the indirect effect of participation on control mutuality through empowerment, whereas the lowest mediating effect of empowerment was found in the path from access to trust. This means that donors' psychological empowerment intervenes most strongly in the association between the participation strategy and the relationship quality outcome of control mutuality, but its intervening role effect is the least between the access strategy and trust.

The Sobel test based on second-order path analysis also affirmed the mediating effect of donors' psychological empowerment in the association between overall relationship management strategy and overall relationship quality outcomes. Both direct and indirect effects of overall relationship management strategy on overall relationship quality outcomes were found. This means that when donors perceive that nonprofit organizations implement various relationship management strategies to manage their relationships with them, donors are likely to perceive that they have a quality relationship with the organizations in terms of balanced power satisfaction, trust, and commitment. In addition, when donors perceive the organizations' efforts to manage relationships with them, they also feel more empowered and, in turn, they are more likely to perceive that they have high quality relationships with the organizations.

The indirect effect of relationship management strategies on relationship quality outcomes aligns with existing empowerment studies. In the nursing industry, Laschinger et al. (2001a) found relationship management strategies, which were referred to as

structural empowerment in the study, had a direct effect on staff's trust in the organization. Expanding the study, Laschinger et al. (2001b) tested dynamic relationships among structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and job satisfaction. They found that structural empowerment had a direct effect on psychological empowerment, which in turn, had a direct effect on employees' job satisfaction.

Relationship Quality Outcomes, Empowerment, and Behavioral Intention

Because behavioral intention is considered as one of the most important indicators to predict the likelihood of certain behavior (Ajzen & Fisherbein, 1980), many scholars from various fields have researched the factors that predict behavioral intention. In the same vein, this study further explored how behavioral intention can be predicted by both the four relationship quality outcomes and donors' psychological empowerment.

First, the study sought the association between the four relationship quality outcomes and donors' intended future behavior. As the path analysis showed, relationship quality outcomes, as a whole, affected donors' intended future behavior. However, when testing the effect of each relationship quality outcome, results showed that the effect sizes varied. Of the four relationship quality outcomes, only commitment had a significant effect on donors' behavioral intentions, whereas control mutuality, satisfaction, and trust did not have a direct effect.

This finding corresponded with the findings of Ki (2006) and Bortree (2007), who demonstrated that relationship quality outcomes as a group had a significant effect on publics' behavioral intention. Along those same lines, looking at individual effects of the relationship quality outcomes, Ki (2006) found that among the four dimensions of relationship quality outcomes, only commitment had a direct effect on behavioral

intention. Similarly, the strong effect of commitment on behavioral intention or actual behavior has been well documented. For example, from the marketing perspective, Sargeant et al. (2004; 2005a; 2005b) conducted several studies that showed commitment is a predictor of donors' giving behavior.

A plausible explanation of why relationship quality outcomes other than commitment did not directly influence behavioral intention can be found in the dynamic linkages among these four relationship quality outcomes. Some scholars have explored the dynamic chain of associations among the relationship quality outcomes. Ki (2006) found that satisfaction is directly connected with trust, which, in turn, significantly affects commitment. Testing teen volunteers, Bortree (2007) also found that control mutuality and satisfaction directly predict both trust and commitment, whereas control mutuality also influences satisfaction. In other words, this chain of relationship is initiated by control mutuality. Also, Sargeant et al.'s (2004; 2005a) empirical studies found that trust had a direct effect on commitment but not on behavioral intention. The fundraising scholars concluded that commitment has a mediating role in the relationship between trust and behavior. Sargeant and Lee (2004) defined mutual influence (which is the same as control mutuality) as "the extent to which the donor feels that their views have been influenced or shaped by the nonprofit and the extent to which they believe that they might in turn influence the policy of that organization" (p. 616), They considered control mutuality as one of the aspects of trust.

Results should be interpreted with caution because of the high correlation among the four relationship quality outcomes, which were commonly found in relationship management studies (i.e., Bortree, 2007; Ki, 2006). Given the high

correlations, Bortree (2007) and Ki (2006) also tested the effect of relationship quality outcomes as a uni-dimension on behavioral intention, and found a significant effect of overall relationship quality outcomes on behavioral intention.

The present study predicted a positive effect of donors' psychological empowerment on behavioral intention. Both simple regression and path analysis results showed that there was a positive relationship between donors' psychological empowerment and donors' intended future behavior. This means that as donors feel empowered in the relationship with a nonprofit organization, they are more likely to donate in the future and share testimonials regarding the organization with others. Furthermore, in comparison to the effect of relationship quality outcomes on donors' intended future behavior, donors' psychological empowerment was a more powerful predictor of behavioral intention. Aligning these findings with existing empowerment research that gauged the value of empowerment, the present study demonstrates that donors' psychological empowerment enhances not only relationship quality outcomes but also desired behavior to support nonprofit organizations.

Implications for Public Relations Theory

In pursuit of better understanding of the dynamic nature of organization-public relationship, the present study introduced the concept of donors' psychological empowerment as an outcome of relationship management strategies and an important predictor of quality organization-public relationships. As a buzz word in social science (Knight, 2011; Page & Czuba, 1999), the concept of empowerment has been actively adopted by various academic fields to better understand the relationship between an organization and its publics. More specifically, it has been considered as the key construct to foster positive relationships between organizations and their publics as well

as to motivate desired behavior. Yet, there is a lack of empirical studies exploring empowerment in the field of public relations.

Filling a research gap that the current relationship management theory research has neglected, this study aimed to explain the dynamic power relations and autonomy that publics perceive in their relationships with organizations. Moreover, by introducing the concept of empowerment, the study explored publics' internal states that may elucidate their intrinsic motivation and cognitive reactions to the organizations' various activities and practices aimed at building and managing quality relationships. In doing so, this study makes several contributions to the field of public relations, especially the relationship management paradigm.

First, unlike existing research, this study empirically tested how public relations practices with publics influence publics' internal states, psychological empowerment. Also, the study explored how the internal state of publics is tied to publics' evaluation of the relationships they have with the organizations. To date, most relationship management studies have neglected publics' responses to or evaluations of organizations' activities. Following the assertion of Broom et al. (1997) that publics' "perceptions, motives, needs, behaviors, and so forth that are posited as contingencies or causes in the formation of relationships" (p. 94), this study bridges organizational behaviors or activities and publics' perceptions and internal motivations.

Also, in explicating the concept of relationship, Broom et al. (1997) argued that "relationships represent the exchange or transfer of information, energy or resources. Therefore, attributes of those exchanges or transfers represent and define the relationship" (p. 94). However, there has been a lack of research that addressed how

the exchange of organizational energy and resources influences publics' internal states. Addressing Broom et al.'s notion of relationship, the study found that organizations' efforts or strategies to manage positive relationships with their publics enhanced the publics' psychological empowerment, which can be an intrinsic motivation or energy for publics to enact a certain behavior in the future. In other words, organizations' energy and resources used in relationships with publics were transformed to publics' empowerment, which, in turn, motivated donors to pay back the organizations by perceiving the relationship positively and intending to enact desired behaviors in the future. Put another way, the transfers or exchanges of positive energy in the relationship between an organization and its publics can generate mutual benefits for both parties.

Considering these sequential linkages among various variables tested (i.e., organizations' efforts, publics' internal states, perceptions of relationship quality outcomes, and behavioral intentions), the study also illustrated the contribution of strategic public relations practices to organizations. Over decades, many public relations scholars have sought to address the fundamental question of how public relations practices enhance organizational effectiveness and contribute to organizations (J. E. Grunig, 1992). Under the name of the Excellence team, J. E. Grunig and his colleagues asserted that the value of public relations can be found in managing quality relationships between an organization and its publics. Also, they argued that public relations practices based on the two-way symmetrical model is the most effective and ethical. In other words, organizations' genuine efforts to seek equilibrium will benefit both parties in relationships. In this thread, many public relationship scholars introduced two-way symmetrical public relations practices, such

as Hon and J. E. Grunig's (1999) six symmetrical relationship management strategies and Kelly's (1998) stewardship. Moreover, many relationship management scholars (e.g., Bortree, 2007; 2010; Ki & Hon, 2007; Waters, 2007; 2011) sought the direct linkages between these relationship management strategies and the relationship quality outcomes. Yet, despite these efforts, previous studies did not explore how two-way symmetrical practices can enhance equilibrium in relationships by empowering publics who can have significant influence over an organization's survival and failure.

In response to this dearth of research, the study explored the dynamic linkages between relationship management strategies, psychological empowerment, publics' perceptions about relationship quality outcomes, and intended future behavior. More specifically, this empirical study found that psychological empowerment has a mediating effect in the path from relationship management strategies to relationship quality outcomes. This means that organizations' efforts and interactive activities (i.e., relationship management strategies) can have both direct and indirect effects on relationship quality outcomes. Put another way, organizations' relationship management strategies not only boost publics' psychological empowerment but also positively influence publics' evaluation about the relationships they have with organizations. Moreover, considering the strong and positive effects of empowerment and relationship quality outcomes on publics' behavioral intentions, organizations' effective relationship management strategies eventually determine publics' behavior.

Even though the study did not find a significant effect of the participation strategy, which is considered a fundamental facilitator for enhancing publics' psychological empowerment, it found the effects of the other relationship management

strategies. Similarly to other scholars, the study found that both publics' psychological empowerment and four dimensions of relationship quality outcomes were influenced by different relationship management strategies in various ways.

Another contribution of this study was finding that empowerment is a possible predictor of publics' future behavior. Noting the importance of behavioral intention, many relationship management scholars have also explored variables that affect publics' behavior (Bortree, 2007; 2010; Ki, 2006; Ki & Hon, 2007; Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). While these scholars focused heavily on the relationship quality outcomes as the predictors of behavioral intention, the present study added publics' psychological empowerment as another possible predictor. Results showed a strong effect of psychological empowerment on behavioral intention, an effect that was more than twice as strong as commitment, the only dimension of relationship quality outcome with a significant effect. In doing so, the study confirmed the value of publics' psychological empowerment on relationship quality outcomes and future behavioral intention.

Lastly, the study had a significant contribution to building theory in nonprofit management. It introduced the concept of empowerment and explored its linkages with major relationship management variables (i.e., strategies) in the nonprofit setting. Effective relationship management in the nonprofit sector has been the focus of many nonprofit management scholars as the sector has faced numerous challenges (Balser & McClusky, 2005; Harman, 2005; Herman & Renz, 1997; Ospina et al., 2002; Van Til, 2005). In special, understanding donors who can influence a nonprofit organization's success and survival has drawn many nonprofit management scholars.

Referring to the need for effective relationship management in the nonprofit sector, Kelly's (1991; 1998) argument to understand fundraising as a specialization of public relations is noteworthy. In fact, there are some public relations scholars dedicated to developing and testing public relations theory in the nonprofit sector (Cho, 2009; Kelly, 1998; O'Neil, 2007; 2008; Waters, 2011). However, public relations scholars' attention to this particular sector still is deficient. The deficiency is evident in Sallot, Lyon, Scosta-Alzuru, and Jones's (2003) research that explored the status of theory building in public relations. In their study, Sallot et al. found that of the 734 journal articles published by the year 2000 in major public relations journals, only four articles dealt with fundraising, accounting for less than 1% (0.54%) of all research articles. Even though this research was conducted 10 years ago and public relations scholars have since focused more on nonprofit management, the nonprofit sector needs more theoretical approaches by public relations scholarly research. Responding to the lack of research in nonprofit management, the present study contributed to building knowledge in the field of nonprofit management by exploring donors' intrinsic motivation and internal states.

Implications for the Practice

This empirical study offers numerous suggestions for public relations practitioners and nonprofit managers in terms of how publics' empowerment, quality relationships and desired behaviors may be developed.

First, by testing the effect of empowerment, the study provides practical guidance for public relations practitioners on how to develop and manage quality relationships with their important publics. As stated earlier, there are many organizations that want to foster publics' empowerment to improve relationships with their publics and the

organization's profits. For example, Pepsi's Refresh project that invited consumers to participate in the organization's decision-making process is a famous exemplar of the organizational practice to empower consumers by relinquishing its power or control (Norton & Avery, 2011). Even in managing an orchestra, Jonathan Spitz, artistic director of the Orpheus Chamber Orchestra, also exerts leadership in empowering orchestra members to further engage for better performance (MacDonald, 2011).

However, while many practices regarding publics' empowerment are restricted to inviting publics to participate in the organizations' decision making process (i.e, focused on participation), this study shows that the participation strategy may not be appropriate for enhancing publics' psychological empowerment. Rather, the study proposes the use of diverse strategies to enhance publics' empowerment, such as openness, positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, access, and reciprocity.

This study identified the unique effects of each relationship management strategy on publics' psychological empowerment and, as a result, on relationship quality. Reflecting on the findings, it can be concluded that by implementing the strategies identified in this study, public relations practitioners can enhance publics' psychological empowerment. For example, organizations can be more open to publics by sharing substantial information and share publics' tasks or concerns in order to improve publics' psychological empowerment.

Moreover, the study adopted multidimensional empowerment, consisting of the four dimensions of meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. By exploring which public relations strategies have positive effects on each element of empowerment, the study offers more detailed guidance on how to improve a specific empowerment

construct. For example, to boost publics' competence, public relations practitioners can utilize sharing of tasks and reciprocity strategies, while they can implement openness and positivity strategies to enhance publics' autonomy.

Similarly, the study explored how organization's relationship management strategies are tied to publics' perceptions about relationship quality outcomes. By implementing appropriate relationship management strategies, public relations practitioners can encourage publics to perceive their relationships with the organization positively and lead them to enact a desired behavior. For example, public relations practitioners may implement positivity, assurances, sharing of tasks, and reciprocity strategies to foster a public's feeling of commitment towards the organization, which is a strong predictor of intended future behavior among donors.

Also, by demonstrating the sequential linkages from organizations' public relations practices to publics' psychological states to their perceptions about relationship quality outcomes to publics' behavioral intention, the study explained how strategic public relations practices can benefit both publics and organizations themselves.

In particular, by testing this model in the nonprofit-donor relationship context, the study provided practical directions for fundraisers and other nonprofit managers on how to improve their fundraising results. By revealing how donors' psychological empowerment and their perceptions about relationship quality outcomes influence their behavioral intention (i.e., gift giving and endorsing the organization), the study suggests that nonprofit managers and fundraisers need to develop programs to enhance donors' psychological empowerment and quality relationships, which, in turn, could result in donors' intended future behavior. As suggested to public relations practitioners,

nonprofit managers can also utilize various strategies that enhance both donors' psychological empowerment and relationship quality outcomes. Moreover, this study reaffirms the findings by Gagné (2003), who argued that donors' psychological empowerment is positively related to their pro-social behavior. In doing so, this study offers practical fundraising advice for nonprofit managers. Also, the study recommends that, based on the type of donors (annual giving donors or major gift donors), nonprofit managers need to implement tailored relationship management strategies to enhance donors' psychological empowerment.

More importantly, the study helps fundraisers better understand their roles within the organizations. As Kelly (1998) argued, the purpose of fundraising is not to raise money, but to help a nonprofit organization build quality relationships with donor publics to achieve the organization's mission. Yet many people misunderstand the purpose of fundraising as merely soliciting gifts. This narrow-minded scope may threaten the positions of fundraisers within the organization when nonprofit organizations fail to reach philanthropic dollar goals, especially in the current economic situation. However, by highlighting the importance of quality relationships between a nonprofit organization and its donors, this study affirms the role of fundraisers as well as their contributions to nonprofit organizations.

Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

By seeking a more comprehensive model of the value of effective public relationship management, enhancing publics' psychological empowerment, managing positive relationship quality outcomes, and encouraging desirable behaviors, this study expanded existing relationship management theory and provided practical guidance for

the field of public relations. Yet, despite its unique and important contributions to both the academy and the practice, the study has several limitations that need to be acknowledged and the limitation point to future avenues of research, which also are discussed in this section.

First, the study limited its setting to only the nonprofit sector (and more specifically, to nonprofit charitable organizations), and a specific type of publics, donors. Thus, given the distinctive natures of the sector and its publics, it is possible that the findings may be different for other types of organizations and publics. Therefore, future studies should test the model presented here in various organizational settings, such as for-profit business, government agencies, or other types of nonprofits, as well as with different types of publics, such as employees, consumers, community members, and investors. Also, even in the nonprofit sector, while donors are one of the most important publics of charitable organizations, there are still many types of publics with whom nonprofit organizations should build and manage relationships, such as trustees, volunteers, employees, and clients who consume the services the organizations provide. By replicating the model in various settings, the study's findings may acquire greater external validity.

Similarly, the study has a generalizability limitation. Even though the study collected samples from five different nonprofit charitable organizations, which support various social issues (i.e., arts and culture, girls and youth support, environmental/animal-rights, community service, and immigrant support) rather than focusing solely on one nonprofit, there are numerous nonprofit charitable organizations that advance society with different and various missions. Moreover, even though

education and healthcare nonprofits are the ones that received most gift dollars (Kelly, 1998), the study did not include these types of organizations. Also, the organizations studied here are relatively small nonprofit organizations, which may have provided bias. Despite its attempt to ensure cross-validation of the model, the study did not include a comprehensive sample of the whole nonprofit organizations and their donors to portray the variety of the sector. Thus, the study's findings might not be generalizable to the entire population of nonprofits and donor publics.

In addition, although variances in giving exist by regions (Havens & Schervish, 2005), organizations participating in this study are located in a one, small geographic area. Moreover, the majority of the donor sample is skewed toward older (M = 57.21), female, well-educated Caucasians, and over half of the sample has lived the community 20 years or longer. Given the distinctive natures of both the geographic area and the sample, caution is required when interpretation of the findings.

Another concern related to external validity is the study's relatively low response rates of 17.55% for total responses and 14.27% for complete responses. Considering that the typical response rate for an online survey is between 1% and 30% (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006), the study yielded a moderate response rate. Yet the response rate is considered low, which may have resulted in response bias.

Another limitation of the study is related to its methodological approach. The study employed an analytic survey to describe interrelationships among the variables. This study used path analysis in SEM, based on theoretical assumptions to explain possible causality among the variables. Hair et al. (2006) argued that path analysis results can explain causal relationships if four conditions are met: 1) systematic

covariation (correlation) between independent variables and dependent variables, 2) temporal sequence between the cause and the effect, 3) nonspurious covariance, and 4) theoretical support. While the study satisfied the two conditions of covariation and theoretical support, the other two conditions were not met. To better explain the causality found in the model, experimental designs with some controlled manipulation or longitudinal studies should be adopted for future research.

Lastly, the study found high correlations among the variables, especially between the seven relationship management strategies and the four relationship quality outcomes. This phenomenon has also been traced in previous studies (e.g., Bortree, 2007; Ki, 2006). The high correlations suggest that relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes should be considered as uni-dimensional concepts, although each construct has unique theoretical aspects of public relationship management practices and quality. To address this issue, scholars are urged to revisit the existing literature that explores relationship management strategies and quality outcomes to modify the existing variables and provide redefined relationship management strategies and quality outcomes.

As some scholars have observed, some of the relationship management strategies suggested by many public relations scholars appear to be somewhat overlapping or interconnected. For example, an organization's openness and access strategies have commonalities in sharing organizational information and resources. Similarly, the sharing of tasks strategy that addresses an organization's efforts to help the other party's concerns may imply positivity, which helps publics enjoy the relationship through pleasant experiences. Also, even though they are defined

conceptually differently, public relations practitioners may utilize the strategies in combination. When an organization decides to be more open in communicating with publics, its efforts may involve both sharing information publically and giving publics easy access to organizational staff or resources. To make the relationship management strategies more applicable to practice, a more simplified and condensed list of relationship management strategies is recommended. In a similar manner, future research need revalidate the existing measurement scales to better measure the distinctive characteristics of relationship variables.

Conclusion

Public empowerment has been discussed for several decades in both the literature of numerous social science disciplines and their related practices. While empowerment, as a social process, arises in relationships between two parties, public relations scholars have neither participated in this debate nor actively explored the linking concept with public relations practices. Filling this scarcity of research, the present study examined the concept of publics' psychological empowerment, and antecedents and consequences of empowerment in the relationship management context. More specifically, applying the concept to the nonprofit sector, the study examined how public relations practices can enhance donors' psychological empowerment, which in turn, affects the relationship quality outcomes and results in positive intention by donors to enact desirable behaviors in the future.

This study empirically tested how relationship management strategies based on the two-way symmetrical model are linked to donors' psychological empowerment, which is composed of four dimensions: meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact.

Also, the study demonstrated how relationship management strategies affect donors' perceptions of the relationship quality outcomes of control mutuality, satisfaction, trust, and commitment. Furthermore, the study found that donors' overall psychological empowerment and commitment, a relationship quality outcome, are strong predictors of donors' future behavior. The effect of empowerment on donors' behavioral intentions is much stronger than the forecasting effect of commitment, which is a particularly noteworthy finding.

By revealing the sequential linkages between an organization's efforts to manage relationships with its publics, publics' internal states, and perceptions of relationship quality, this study highlighted how strategic public relations practices can benefit publics by empowering them, as well as contribute to organizations by improving publics' evaluations of their relationships with the organization and by increasing publics' intentions to enact desired behaviors. In short, the study demonstrates how public relations practices based on the two-way symmetrical approach can generate mutual benefits for both an organization and its publics. Resonating with J. E. Grunig and Hunt's (1984) two-way symmetrical public relations practices, the study empirically shows how public relations practices in the win-win zone described by Dozier et al. (1995) are normative and positive and lead publics to feel empowered.

APPENDIX A
RESEARCH INVITATION LETTER TO NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

Date

<Social Title> <Name of Executive Director>
<Title>
<Organization Name>
<Address>
<City>, <State> <Zip Code>

Dear <Name of Executive Director>:

The purpose of this letter is to invite your organization to participate in a study on the relationships that donors have with the charitable nonprofits to which they contribute. Research results will advance nonprofit organizations' fundraising and public relations efforts to yield desired outcomes—high quality relationships with donor publics and, thereby, increased revenues.

I am a doctoral student in my final year of study in the College of Journalism and Communications at the University of Florida. I am writing my dissertation under the direction of Dr. Kathleen S. Kelly and Dr. Elizabeth Bolton, leading scholars in the field of nonprofit management and fundraising.

By participating in my dissertation research, your organization will receive a custom report that provides: (1) insight of donors' perceptions about relationship with your organization and (2) management strategies to enhance donors' relationship with your organization and their future giving behavior.

If your organization agrees to participate in the study, I will conduct a survey with donors of your organization and several others during January and February 2012. Survey administration will be conducted either by USPS mail or by email. It will not be necessary to share donors' personal information with me. I will provide all materials and expenses so your organization can send out the survey packets to your donors. If you prefer, I can do the mailing if you provide donors' mailing addresses to me or email addresses. Moreover, your organization's name and donors' names will not be identified with the results in any report.

I would be very pleased to provide any additional information you might need. I will contact you in the next week to answer any questions you may have about the planned study and procedures. In the meantime, thank you for your interest in the study and I hope we have an opportunity to work together.

Sincerely,

Moonhee Cho

APPENDIX B
SURVEY INVITATION LETTER

(ORGANIZATION NAME) is preparing to launch a study to explore the relationships that donors have with the charitable nonprofits to which they contribute. We are working with a doctoral candidate in the UF College of Journalism and Communications to design the survey and analyze the results, under the supervision of her dissertation committee chair, Dr. Kathleen Kelly. Survey results will advance our fundraising and public relations efforts to yield desired outcomes – high quality relationships with donors and their continued loyalty to (ORGANIZATION NAME). I invite your participation in this study to assist our effort to improve (ORGANIZATION NAME)'s communication and ability to best serve your needs.

In a few days you will receive an email from (ORGANIZATION NAME) with a link to a survey that asks questions about relationships between (ORGANIZATION NAME) and its donors. The results will help rate the job (ORGANIZATION NAME) is doing and will help us improve the level of service to you in the future.

Please look for the survey link in the next few days. It is extremely important that you complete it promptly to allow the graduate student time to gather her data for analysis.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact (EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR NAME) at Phone number, or the researcher at (352) 870-9311 or moonhee.cho@ufl.edu.

Sincerely,

(NAME)
(TITLE)
(NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION)

APPENDIX C
COVER LETTER

DATE

(FIRST NAME) (LAST NAME)
(ADDRESS)
(CITY), (STATE) (ZIP CODE)

Dear (DONOR NAME):

(ORGANIZATION NAME) needs your help! No, we're not asking for money. We need your input to help make our fundraising efforts more efficient. We are working with a research team at the University of Florida that specializes in fundraising to better understand and improve the relationship we have with our donors.

This survey focuses on the different strategies that (ORGANIZATION NAME) uses to develop relationships with donors. Your answers will be combined with other donors to help us understand the views of our community. Your participation will help us streamline and improve our fundraising programs. Reevaluating our fundraising efforts will allow us to focus our efforts on ways that we can pursue the mission of (ORGANIZATION NAME) more efficiently.

The survey will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Your response is extremely important and valuable for the results because a limited number of surveys were distributed. Your answers will be used for statistical purposes and will be anonymous.

If you decide to participate in our efforts, please click the link below and complete the survey. [Insert survey link]

If you have any questions about the project, please feel free to contact me at (PHONE NUMBER) or e-mail me at (EMAIL ADDRESS).

Thank you for your continued support of (ORGANIZATION NAME).

Sincerely,

(NAME)
(TITLE)
(NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION)

APPENDIX D
REMINDER

Recently, you received an email encouraging your completion of a survey designed to help us improve our fundraising efforts. If you have already completed the survey, thank you!

If you have not had the time to finish the survey yet, we hope you will take a few moments to complete the survey. The results of the survey will help us design a fundraising plan that will help us more effectively and efficiently pursue the mission of (ORGANIZATION NAME).

Please click on this link: [Insert survey link]

Thank you in advance for your participation!

(NAME)
(TITLE)
(NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION)

APPENDIX E
UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD INFORMED CONSENT APPROVAL

Protocol Title: Public empowerment to enhance nonprofit-donor relationships and giving behavior

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Purpose of the research study:

This study explores donors' psychological empowerment, which may be related to their motivation for engaging with nonprofit organizations and their giving behavior. Additionally, the study investigates donors' perception about their relationship with nonprofit charitable organizations they donate.

What you will be asked to do in the study: Upon reading the description about the study and agreeing to participate, you will be asked to complete the survey questionnaire that asks your perception about the relationship with nonprofit organizations and your psychological state.

Time required: About 10-15 minutes

Risks and Benefits: We do not anticipate there will be any risks or direct benefits to you as a consequence of your decision to complete the survey.

Compensation: No monetary compensation will be given for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: Every person's answer from this study will remain anonymous. Your name will not be connected to your responses. Your identity will remain anonymous.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating. You can choose not to answer any question you do not wish to answer.

Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study:

Ms. Moonhee Cho, Ph.D. Candidate, Department of Public Relations, College of Journalism and Communications, University of Florida; 352-870-9311, moonhee.cho@ufl.edu

Dr. Kathleen S. Kelly, Professor, Department of Public Relations, College of Journalism and Communications, University of Florida; 352-392-9359, kskelly@jou.ufl.edu

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in the study:
IRB02 Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250; phone (352) 392-0433, irb2@ufl.edu

Agreement: If you agree to participate in the study, please click the button to proceed the survey.

Click here

APPENDIX F
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking time to participate in this survey. This research examines your perception about the relationship you have with *(Name of Nonprofit Organization)*. To complete the survey, please refer to *(Name of Nonprofit Organization)* as "the organization." Even though some questions seem repetitive, they are essential to measure your relationship with *(Name of Nonprofit Organization)*. Thus, please complete the survey without skipping.

Your answers will be used only for statistical purposes and will remain strictly confidential. Please read the instructions carefully and answer all questions.

- ***Please answer the following questions about you and your charitable giving.***

1. How long have you lived in your current community?

   a. Less than 2 years b. 2 to 10 years

   c. 10 to 20 years d. 20 years or longer

2. How many years have you been donating to (Name of Nonprofit Organization)?

_____ Years

3. Approximately how much in total did you donate to (Name of Nonprofit Organization) during the last three years? $_____

4. Including (Name of Nonprofit Organization), how many organizations do you donate to each year, on average? _____ Number of organizations

5. The items below may or may not describe how (Name of Nonprofit Organization) treats its donors. For each statement, please click/circle the number that best represents your response on the 7-point scale provided, where ***1 equals "Strongly Disagree," 4 equals "Neutral," and 7 equals "Strongly Agree.***

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
The organization's annual report is a valuable source of information for donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization provides detailed information to donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization makes a genuine effort to provide personal responses to donors' concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization is involved in managing issues that donors care about.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization provides donors with opportunities to meet its staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The organization always sends donors a thank-you letter for their donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization attempts to make its interactions with donors enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization communicates the importance of its donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization takes the time with donors to understand who they are and what they need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization shares enough information with donors about the organization's governance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization works with donors to develop solutions that benefit donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization involves donors to help identify the information they need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization's communication with donors is courteous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When donors have questions or concerns, the organization is willing to answer their inquiries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization makes it easy to find the information donors need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization provides donors with adequate contact information for specific staff to deal with specific issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization provides donors with enough information to understand the issues it faces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Because of their previous donations, the organization recognizes donors as friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization asks for feedback from donors about the quality of its information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization is flexible when working with donors to come to mutually beneficial solutions to shared concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Receiving regular communications from the organization is beneficial to donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization acknowledges donations in a timely manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization asks the opinions of donors before making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When donors raise concerns, the organization takes these concerns seriously.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization does <u>not</u> provide donors with enough information about what it does with donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The information the organization provides donors is of <u>little</u> use to them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Donors do <u>not</u> believe that the organization really	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

cares about their concerns.							
The organization and donors do not work well together at solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization does not provide donors with adequate contact information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization is not sincere when it thanks donors for their contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. *The items below describe feelings donors sometimes have about their giving. Please respond to each statement based on your giving to (Name of Nonprofit), referred to in the items as "the organization." Simply click/circle the number that best represents your response on the 7-point scale provided, where* ***1 equals "Strongly Disagree," 4 equals "Neutral," and 7 equals "Strongly Agree."***

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
My giving to the organization is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My impact on what happens in the organization is large.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have mastered the skills necessary for giving effectively.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I give to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have significant influence over what happens in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My giving to the organization is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a great deal of control over what happens in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can decide on my own how to go about making my gifts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am confident about my ability to give to meet my and the organization's best interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My philanthropic activities with the organization are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have significant autonomy in determining how I give to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my philanthropic activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. *The items below may or may not describe your relationship with (Name of Nonprofit Organization). For each statement, please click/circle the number that best represents your response on the 7-point scale provided,* ***1 equals "Strongly Disagree," 4 equals "Neutral," and 7 equals "Strongly Agree."***

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
The organization and donors are attentive to each other's needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Compared to other organizations, I value my relationship with this organization more.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Donors are happy with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization really listens to what its donors have to say.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel very confident about the organization's ability to accomplish its mission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Both the organization and its donors benefit from their relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would rather have a relationship with this organization than not.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization respects its donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization gives donors enough say in the decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generally speaking, I am pleased with the relationship the organization has established with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe donors have influence on the decision makers of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most donors enjoy dealing with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel that the organization is trying to maintain a long-term commitment with donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization can be relied on to keep its promises to donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most donors are happy in their interactions with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe that the organization takes the opinions of donors into account when making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a long-lasting bond between the organization and its donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When donors interact with this organization, they have a sense of control over the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When the organization makes an important decision, I know it will be concerned about its donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The organization fails to satisfy the needs of its donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot see that the organization wants to maintain a relationship with its donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization does not believe the opinions and concerns of its donors are important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization does not have the ability to meet its goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Based on your overall experience with (Name of Nonprofit Organization), please indicate how likely or unlikely you are to take the following actions. For each statement, please click/circle the number that best represents your response on the 9-point scale provided, where ***1 equals "Strongly Disagree," 5 equals "Neutral," and 9 equals "Strongly Agree."***

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I will continue donating to the organization in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will increase the amount of my gifts to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend to my friends and relatives that they donate to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will say positive things about the organization to my friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I am ever in the position of making a very large gift, I will talk to this organization first.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- ***Please answer the following questions based on your personal demographic information to help us better interpret your answers.***

9. What is your gender? a. Male b. Female

10. What is your age? _____ Years old

11. What is your ethnicity?

a. African-American/Black b. Asian c. Caucasian

d. Hispanic/Latino e. Middle Eastern f. Native American

g. Other (specify):_____

12. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed? (check one)

a. High school b. Some college degree

c. Four-year college degree d. Graduate degree (e.g., MA, PhD.)

e. Other (specify):_____

13. What is your current employment status?

a. Employed full-time b. Employed part-time c. Unemployed

d. Retired e. Student f. Homemaker

g. Other (specify):_____

14. What was your approximate household income last year before taxes?

a. Less than $50,000 b. $50,001- $100,000

c. $100,001 - $ 150,000 d. $150,001- $ 200,000

e. $200,001 - $250,000 f. More than $250,000

That completes the survey. Thank you for your help.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Abzug, R., & Webb, N. J. (1999). Relationships between nonprofit and for-profit organizations: A stakeholder perspective. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 28*(4), 416-431.

Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (2009). Statistical methods for the social sciences (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ahern, T., & Joyaux, S. P. (2008). *Keep your donors: The guide to better communications & stronger relationships*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Aldrich, H. E. (1979). *Organizations and environments*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Alsop, R. & Heinsohn, N. (2005). Measuring empowerment in practice: Structuring analysis and framing indicators. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 3510*. Retrieved January 19, 2010 from: http://www.sasanet.org/documents/Curriculum/ConceptualFramework/Measuring%20Empowerment%20in%20Practice.pdf

Altman, I., Vinsel, A., & Brown, B. (1981). Dialectic conceptions in social psychology: An application to social penetration and privacy regulation. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental psychology*. Vol. 14. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Amabile, T. M. (1988). A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 10, pp. 123-167). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Anderson, M. R. (2010). Community psychology, political efficacy, and trust. *Political Psychology, 31*(1), 59-84.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 10*, 411-423.

Anderson, R. E., & Huang, W. (2005). Empowering sales people: Personal, managerial, and organizational perspectives. *Psychology & Marketing, 23*(2), 139-159.

Anderson, R. M., & Funnel, M. M. (2005). Patient empowerment: Reflections on the challenge of fostering the adoption of a new paradigm. *Patient Education and Counseling, 57*(2), 153-157.

Arnett, R. B., German, S. D., & Hunt, S. D. (2003). The identity salience model of relationship marketing success: The case of nonprofit marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(2), 89-105.

Auger, G. A. (2011). *An experimental analysis of the effect of transparency on charitable nonprofit and for-profit business organizations*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Florida, Gainesville.

Austin, J. E. (2000). Strategic collaboration between nonprofits and business. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 29*(1), 69-97.

Avery, J. B., Hughes, L. W., Norman, S. M., & Luthans, K. W. (2008). Using positivity, transformational leadership and empowerment to combat employee negativity. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 29*(2), 110-126.

Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of social research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage.

Backman, E. V., & Smith, S. R. (2000). Healthy organizations, unhealthy communities? *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 10*(4), 355-73.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1995). Reflections on relationship marketing in consumer markets. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 23*(4), 272–277.

Balser, D., & McClusky, J. (2005). Managing stakeholder relationships and nonprofit organization effectiveness. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 15*(3), 295-315.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social-cognitive view*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barman, E. A. (2002). Asserting difference: The strategic response of nonprofit organizations to competition. *Social Forces, 80*(4), 1191-1222.

Barnes, B. (2004). The concept of power. In K. Pheby (Ed.), *Power and organizations*. Durham, NC: Durham Business School MBA, Durham University.

Baron, R. M, & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical consideration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

Bartlett, M. Y., & DeSteno, D. (2006). Gratitude and prosocial behavior: Helping when it costs you. *Psychological Science, 17*(4), 319-325.

Berger, B. K. (2005). Power over, power with, and power to relations: Critical Reflections on public relations, the dominant coalition, and activism. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 17*(1), 5-28.

Bok, S. (1989). *Secrets: On the ethics of concealment and revelation*. New York: Vintage Books.

Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York: Wiley.

Borghei, R., Jandaghi, G., Martin, H. Z., & Dastani, N. (2010). An examination of the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Sciences, 7*(2), 63-79.

Bortree, D. S. (2007). *Relationship management with adolescent publics: The role of relationship management strategies and relationship quality outcomes on adolescents' intended behavior*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Florida, Gainesville.

Bortree, D. S. (2010). Exploring adolescent-organization relationships: A study of effective relationship strategies with adolescent volunteers. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 22*(1), 1-25.

Botan, C. H., & Taylor, M. (2004). Public relations: State of the field*. Journal of Communication, 54*(4), 645-661.

Bowen, S. A. (2004). Organizational factors encouraging ethical decision making: An exploration into the case of an exemplar. *Journal of Business Ethics, 52*(4), 311-324.

Bowen, D. E., & Lawler, E. E. (1992). The empowerment of service workers: What, why, how, and when. *Sloan Management Review, 33*(3), 31-39.

Bracht, N., Finnegan, Jr., J. R., Rissel, C., Weisbrod, R., Gleason, J., Corbett, J., & Veblen-Mortenson, S. (1994). Community ownership and program continuation following a health demonstration project. *Health Education Research, 9*(2), 243-255.

Breckenridge, L. P. (1999). Nonprofit environmental organizations and the restructuring of institutions for ecosystem management. *Ecology Law Quarterly, 25*(4), 692-706.

Broom, G. M. (2009). *Cutlip & Center's effective public relations* (10th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Broom, G. M., Casey, S., & Ritchey, J. (1997). Toward a concept and theory of organization-public relationships. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 9*(2), 83-98.

Broom, G. M., Casey, S., & Ritchey, J. (2000). Concept and theory of organization-public relationships. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds). *Public relations as relationship management: A relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 3-22). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bruning, S. D. (2002). Relationship building as a retention strategy: Linking relationship attitudes and satisfaction evaluations to behavioral outcomes. *Public Relations Review, 28*(1), 39–48.

Bruning, S. D., & Ledingham, J. A. (1999). Relationships between organizations and publics: Development of a multi-dimensional organization–public relationship scale. *Public Relations Review, 25*(2), 157-170.

Bruning, S. D., & Ledingham, J. A. (2000). Organization and key public relationships: Testing the influence of the relationship dimensions in a business-to-business context. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds). *Public relations as relationship management: A relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 159-173). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bruning, S. D., & Galloway, T. (2003). Expanding the organization–public relationship` scale: Exploring the role that structural and personal commitment play in organization–public relationships. *Public Relations Review, 29*(3), 309–319.

Bruning, S. D., Castle, J. D., & Schrepfer, E. (2004). Building relationships between organizations and publics: Examining the linkage between organization–public relationships, evaluations of satisfaction, and behavioral intent. *Communication Studies, 5*(3), 435–446.

Bryce, H. J. (2007). The public's trust in nonprofit organizations: The role of relationship marketing and management. *California Management Review, 49*(4), 112-131.

Burgoon, J. K., & Hale, J. L. (1984). The fundamental topoi of relational communication. *Communication Monographs, 51*(3), 193-214.

Burlingname, D. F., & Hulse, L. J. (Eds.). (1991). *Taking fund raising seriously: Advancing the profession and practice of raising money.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Burnett, K. (2002). *Relationship fundraising: A donor-based approach to the business of raising money*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Burke, E. M. (1999*). Corporate community relations: The principle of the neighbor of choice*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Canary, D. J., & Stafford, L. (1992). Relational maintenance strategies and equity in marriage. *Communication Monographs, 59*, 239-267.

Canary, D. J., & Stafford, L., Hause, K. S., & Wallace, L. A. (1993). An inductive analysis of relational maintenance strategies: Comparisons among lovers, relatives, friends, and others. *Communication Research Reports, 10*(1), 5-14.

Canary, D. J., & Stafford, L. (1994). Maintaining relationships through strategic and routine interaction. In D. J. Canary & L. Stafford (Eds.), *Communication and relational maintenance* (pp. 3-22). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Canary, D. J., Stafford, L., & Semic, B. A. (2002). A panel study of the associations between maintenance strategies and relational characteristics. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 64*(2), 395-406.

Casalo, L. V., Flavian, C., & Guinaliu, M. (2010). Generating trust and satisfaction in e-services: The impact of usability on consumer behavior. *Journal of Relationship marketing, 9*(4), 247-263.

Chang, W. (2005). Online civic participation, and political empowerment: Online media and public opinion formation in Korea. *Media, Culture & Society, 27*(6), 925-935.

Cho, M. (2009, August). *Unveiling types of relationships between corporate donors and charitable organizations based on the coorientation model*. Paper presented to the Public Relations Division, Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication National Convention, Boston, MA.

Cho, M., & Auger, G. (2011, Auguest). *Perceptions of public relations students' empowerment, faculty interaction, and perceived relationship investment as determinants of relationship quality with their academic department.* Paper presented to the Public Relations Division, Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication National Convention, St. Louis, MO.

Coleman, J. C. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94*, S95-S120.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review, 13*(3), 471-482.

Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2007). *It's not just PR: Public relations in society*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Cornell Empowerment Group. (1989, October). Empowerment and family support. *Networking Bulletin, 1*(2), 1-23.

Cornwall, J. R., & Perlman, B. (1990). *Organizational entrepreneurship.* Homewood, IL: Irwin.

Cotterrell, R. (2000). Transparency, mass media, ideology and community. *Cultural Values, 3*, 414-426.

Cotton, J. L., Vollrath, D. A., Froggatt, K. L., Lengnick-Hall, M. L., & Jennings, K. R. (1988). Employee participation: Diverse forms and different outcomes. *The Academy of Management Review, 13*(1), 8-22.

Craig, G., & Mayo, M. (1995). *Community empowerment: A reader in participation and development*. London: Zed Books.

Czerwinski, S. J. (2007). *Nonprofit sector: Increasing numbers and key role in delivering federal services*. United States Government Accountability Office (GAO-07-1084T): Testimony before the Subcommittee on Oversight, Committee on Ways and Means, House of Representatives.

Dagron, A. G. (2009). Playing with fire: Power, participation, and communication for development*. Development in Practice, 19*(4-5), 453-465.

Dahl, R. A. (1957). On the concept of power. *Behavioural Science, 2*, 201-215.

deCharms, R. (1968). *Personal causation: The internal affective determinants of behavior*. New York: Academic Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 580-590.

Deci, E. L., Eghari, H., Patrick, B. C., & Leone, D. R. (1994). Facilitating internalization: The self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Personality, 62*, 119-142.

Dee, J. R., & Henkin, A. B. (2006). Communication and donor relations: A social skills perspective. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 8*(2), 107-119.

Dell, C. (2009). *Stewarding culture and donors: A study of stewardship in the fundraising practices of U.S. accredited museums*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Florida, Gainesville.

De Wulf, K., Odekerken-Schroder, G., & Iacobucci, D. (2001). Investments in consumer relationships: A cross-country and cross-industry exploration. *Journal of Marketing, 65* (4), 33–50.

Doll, W. J., Xia, W., & Torkzadeh, G. (1994). A confirmatory factor analysis of the end-user computing satisfaction instrument. MIS Quarterly, 18(4), 453-461.

Doney, P. M., & Cannon, J. P. (1997). An examination of the nature of trust in buyer-seller relationships. *The Journal of Marketing, 61*(2), 35-51.

Dove, K. E., Martin, V. L., Wilson, K. K., Bonk, M. M., & Beggs, S. C. (2002). *Conducting a successful development services program*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Dozier, D. M., & Grunig, L. A. (1992). The organization of the public relations function. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management (pp. 395-417)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dozier, D. M., Grunig, L. A., & Grunig, J. E. (1995). *Manager's guide to excellence in public relations and communication management*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Drucker, P. F. (2006). *Managing the nonprofit organization.* New York: Collins.

Dufour, P., & Giraud, I. (2007). Globalization and political change in the women's movement: The politics of scale and political empowerment in the World March of Women. *Social Science Quarterly, 88*(5), 1152-1173.

Duhon-Haynes, G. M. (1996, March). *Student empowerment: Definition, implications, and strategies for implementation*. Paper presented at the Third World Symposium, Grambling, LA.

Ehling, W. P. (1992). Estimating the value of public relations and communication to an organization. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management (pp. 617-638)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Eikenberry, A. M., & Kluver, J. D. (2004). The marketization of the nonprofit sector: Civil society at risk? *Public Administration Review, 64*(2), 132-140.

Ellis, K., & Shockley-Zalabak, P. (2001). Trust in top management and immediate supervisor: The relationship to satisfaction, perceived organizational effectiveness, and information receiving. *Communication Quarterly, 49*(4), 382 - 398.

Ergeneli, A., Ari, G. S., & Metin, S. (2006). Psychological empowerment and its relationship to trust in immediate managers. *Journal of Business Research, 60*, 41-49.

Ettington, D. (1992). *Successfully plateaued middle managers*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI.

Ferguson, M. A. (1984, August). *Building theory in public relations: Interorganizational relationships*. Paper presented to the Public Relations Division, Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication National Convention, Gainesville, FL.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975), *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley

Fisher, R., & Brown, S. (1988). *Getting together: Building a relationship that gets to yes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Foucault, M. (1995). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison* (A. Sheridan, Trans.). New York: Vintage.

Fowler, A. F. (1998). Authentic NGDO partnerships in the new policy agenda for international aid: Dead end or light ahead? *Development and Change, 29*, 137-159.

Fredricks, L. (2001). Stewarding your donors for their next enhanced gift. In L. Fredricks (Ed.), *Developing major gifts: Turning small donors into big contributors* (pp. 177-196). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Freeman, E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.

Frone, M. R. (2000). Interpersonal conflict at work and psychological outcomes: Testing a model among young workers. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5,* 246-255.

Frooman, J. (1999). Stakeholder influence strategies. *The Academy of Management Review, 24*(2), 191-205.

Fuchs, C., Prandelli, E., & Schreier, M. (2010). The psychological effects of empowerment strategies on consumers' product demand. *Journal of Marketing, 74*, 65-79.

Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Trust: The social virtues and the creation of prosperity*. New York: Free Press.

Füller, J., Mühlbacher, H., Matzler, K., & Jawecki, G. (2009). Consumer empowerment through internet-based co-creating. *Journal of Management Information Systems, 26*(3), 71–102.

Gagen MacDonald. (2011). Empowering others. Retrieved April 20, 2012, from http://www.letgoandlead.com/2011/08/jonathan-spitz-empowering-others/

Gagné, M. (2003). The role of autonomy support and autonomy orientation in prosocial behavior engagement. *Motivation and Emotion, 27*(3), 199-223.

Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *Journal of Marketing, 63*(2), 70-87.

Geroy, G. D., Wright, P. C., & Anderson, J. (1998). Strategic performance empowerment model. *Empowerment in Organizations, 6*(2), 57-65.

Gist, M. E. (1987). Self-efficacy: Implications for organizational behavior and human resource management. *Academy of Management Review, 12*, 472-485.

Givens, T. H. (1987). Applying ethical theory to public relations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 6*(3), 195-200.

Giving USA Foundation (2011). *Giving USA: The annual report on philanthropy for the year 2010, Executive summary*. Retrieved August 2, 2011, from http://www.givingusareports.org/products/GivingUSA_2011_ExecSummary_Print.pdf

Gómez, C., & Rosen, B. (2001). The leader-member exchange as a link between managerial trust and employee empowerment. *Group & Organization Management, 26*(1), March 2001 53-69.

Gordon, S. E., Strode, C. B., & Brady, R. M. (1993). Student affairs and educational fundraising: The first critical step. *New Directions for Student Services, 63*, 5-15.

Gose, B. (2011). Charities that work together do better in tough times*. The Chronicle of Philanthropy*, 23(9), p. 19.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*(2), 161-178.

Grace, K. S. (1997). *Beyond fund raising*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Greasley, K., Bryman, A., Dainty, A., Price, A. Soetanto, R., & King, N. (2005). Employee perceptions of empowerment. *Employee Relations, 27*(4), 354-368.

Grolnick, W. S., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (1991). The inner resources for school achievement: Motivational mediators of children's perceptions of their parents. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*, 508-517.

Grunig, J. E. (1984). Organizations, environments, and models of public relations. *Public Relations Research and Education, 1*(1), 6-29.

Grunig, J. E. (1989). Symmetrical presuppositions as a framework for public relations theory. In C. H. Botan & V. Hazleton, Jr. (Eds.), *Public relations theory* (pp. 17-44). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grunig, J. E. (Ed.). (1992). *Excellence in public relations and communication management*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grunig, J. E. (2006). Furnishing the edifice: Ongoing research on public relations as a strategic management function. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 18*(2), 151-176.

Grunig, J. E., & Huang, Y-H. (2000). From organizational effectiveness to relationship indicators: Antecedents of relationships and outcomes. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds.), *Public relations as relationship management: A relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 23–53). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grunig, J. E., & Hunt, T. (1984). *Managing public relations*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Grunig, J. E., & White, J. (1992). The effect of worldviews on public relations theory and practice. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 31-64). Hillside, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grunig, L. A. (1992). Power in the public relations department. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management (pp. 483-502)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grunig, L. A., Grunig, J. E., & Dozier, D. M. (2002). *Excellent public relations and effective organizations: A study of communication management in three countries*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grunig, L. A., Grunig, J. E., & Ehling, W. P. (1992). What is an effective organization? In J. E. Grunig, (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 65-90). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Hall, P. D. (2005). Historical perspectives on nonprofit organizations in the United States. In R. Herman & Associates, *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership & management* (2nd ed., pp.3-38). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Han, X. (2006). An investigation of the relationship between customer empowerment and service. *Service Systems and Service Management, 1*, 47-52.

Harlow, R. F. (1976). Building a public relations definition. *Public Relations Review 2*(4), 34-37.

Havens, J. J., & Schervish, P. G. (2005). *Geography and generosity: Boston and beyond*. Boston College: Center on Wealth and Philanthropy.

Helmig, B., Jegers, M., & Lapsley, I. (2004). Challenges in managing nonprofit organizations: A research overview. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 25*(2), 101-116.

Herman, R. D. (2005). *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership and management*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (1997). Multiple constituencies and the social construction of nonprofit organization effectiveness. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 26*, 185–206.

Hibbert, S., Piacentini, M., & Dajani, H. A. (2003). Understanding volunteer motivation for participation in a community-based food cooperative. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 8*(1), 30-42.

Hobson, C.J., Rominger, A., Malec, K.L., Hobson, C., & Evans, K. (1996). Volunteer-friendliness of nonprofit agencies: Definition, conceptual model, and applications. *Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing, 4*(4), 27-41.

Hon, L. C., & Grunig, J. E. (1999). *Guidelines for measuring relationships in public relations*. Gainesville, FL: Institute for Public Relations.

Hon, L. C., Grunig, L. A., & Dozier, D. M. (1992). Women in public relations: Problems and opportunities. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management (pp. 419-438)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hong, Y. (2006). *Relationship maintenance with financial publics: Investor relations link of Forbes 200 best small company Web sites.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Hoodfar, H. (2007). Women, religion and the 'Afghan Education Movement' in Iran. *Journal of Development Studies, 43*(2), 265-293.

Hoyle, R. H., & Kenny, D. A. (1999). Sample size, reliability, and test of statistical mediation. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Statistical strategies for small sample research* (pp. 195–222). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*, 1-55.

Huang, Y.-H. (1997). *Public relations strategies, relational outcomes, and conflict management strategies*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Maryland, College Park.

Huang, Y.-H. (2001). OPRA: A cross-cultural, multiple-item scale for measuring organization-public relationships. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 13*, 61-90.

Huang, X. Iun, J., Liu, A., & Gong, Y. (2010). Does participative leadership enhance work performance by inducing empowerment or trust: The differential effects on managerial and non-managerial subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*, 122-143.

Huczynsi, A., & Buchanan, D. (2001). *Organisational behavior: An introductory text*. Harlow, UK: Prentice-Hall.

Hung, C. J. F. (2002). *The interplays of relationship types, relationship cultivation, and relationship outcomes: How multinational and Taiwanese companies practice public relations and organization-public relationship management in China*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Maryland, College Park.

Hung, C. J. F. (2005). Exploring types of organization-public relations and their implications for relationship management in public relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 17*(4), 393-426.

Hutton, J. G., Goodman, M. B., Alexander, J. B., & Genest, C. M. (2001). Reputation management: The new face of corporate public relations? *Public Relations Review, 27*, 247–261.

Janse, G., & Konijnendijk, C. C. (2007). Communication between science, policy and citizens in public participation in urban forestry: Experiences from the Neighbourhoods project. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening, 6*(1), 23–40.

Jarvenpaa, S., Tractinsky, N., & Vitale, M. (2000). Consumer trust in an internet store. *Information Technology and Management, 1*(1), 45-71.

Jeavons, T. H. (2005). Ethical nonprofit management. In R. Herman & Associates, *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership & management* (2nd ed., pp.204-229). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Jin, B. (2009). *The roles of public relations and social capital for communal relationship building: Enhancing collaborative values and outcomes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Florida, Gainesville.

Jo, S. (2006). Measurement of organization-public relationships: Validation of measurement using a manufacturer-retailer relationship. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 18*, 225–248.

Jo, S., Hon, L. C., & Brunner, B. R. (2004). Organization-public relationships: Measurement validation in a university setting. *Journal of Communication Management, 9*, 14–27.

Johnson Grossnickle Associates. (2010, April 5). New survey of Millennial donors finds they want relationships, specific appeals and input opportunities. *Achieve*. Retrieved July 19, 2011, from http://www.achieveguidance.com/news/new-survey-of-millennial-donors-finds-they-want-relationships-specific-appeals-and-input-opportunities

Jones, K. (1996). Trust as an affective attitude. *Ethics, 107*(1), 4–25.

Jonker, C. M., & Treur, J. (1999). Formal analysis of models for the dynamics of trust based on experience. In F. J. Garijo & M. Bowman (Eds.*), Proceedings of MAAMAW'99: Multi-agent system engineering*. Berlin/Heidelberg: Springer.

Johnston, K. A. (2010). Community engagement : Exploring a relational approach to consultation and collaborative practice in Australia. *Journal of Promotion Management, 16*(1 & 2), 217-234.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation*. New York: Basic Books.

Kanter, R. M. (1979). Power failure in management circuits. *Harvard Business Review, 57*(4), 65-75.

Kanter, R. M. (1986). Empowering people to act on ideas. *Executive Excellence*, *2*, 5-6

Kanter, R. M. (1993). *Men and women of the corporation* (2nd ed.). New York: Basic Books.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Kelley, H. H. (1979). *Personal relationships: Their structure and processes*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kelley, H. H., & Thibaut, J.E. (1978). *Interpersonal relations: A theory of interdependence*. Wiley, New York.

Kelloway, K. (1998*). Using LISREL for structural equation modeling: A researcher's guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kelly, K. S. (1991). *Fund raising and public relations: A critical analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kelly, K.S. (1998). *Effective fund-raising management*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kelly, K.S. (2001). Stewardship: The fifth step in the public relations process. In R. L. Heath. (Ed.), *Handbook of public relations* (pp. 279-289). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kelly, K.S. (2002).The state of fund-raising theory and research. In M. J. Worth (Ed.), *New strategies for educational fund raising* (pp. 39-55). Westport, CT: Praeger.

Kelly, K. S. (2003). *Continuum of fundraising*. Unpublished class materials. University of Louisiana at Lafayette, Lafayette, LA.

Kelly, K. S. (2008). Fundraising. In W. Donsbach (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of communication*, 5 (pp. 1914-1917). Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ki, E. J. (2006). *Linkages among relationship maintenance strategies, relationship quality outcomes, attitude, and behavioral intentions*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville.

Ki, E-J., & Shin, J. H. (2006). Status of organization-public relationship research from an analysis of published articles, 1985-2004. *Public Relations Review, 32*, 194-195.

Ki, E.-J., & Hon, L. C. (2006). Relationship maintenance strategies on Fortune 500 company web sites. *Journal of Communication Management, 10*(1), 27-43.

Ki, E.-J., & Hon, L. C. (2007). Testing the linkages among the organization-public relationship and attitude and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 19*(1), 1-23.

Ki, E-J., & Hon, L. C. (2009). A measure of relationship cultivation strategies. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 21*(1), 1-24.

Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond self-management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *The Academy of Management Journal, 42*(1), 58-74.

Klagge, J. (1998). The empowerment squeeze: Views from the middle management position. *Journal of Management Development, 17*(8), 548-558.

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. (2nd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Knight, P. (2011, February). Employee empowerment: Is it just a buzz word? Message posted to http://patriciaknight.wordpress.com/2011/02/22/employee-empowerment-is-it-just-a-buzz-word/

Knol, J., & van Linge, R. (2009). Innovative behaviour: The effect of structural and psychological empowerment on nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 65*(2), 359-370.

Kruckeberg, D., & Starck, K. (1988). *Public relations and community: A reconstructed theory*. New York: Praeger.

Kuokkanen, L., & Leino-Kilpi, H. (2000). Power and empowerment in nursing: Three theoretical approaches. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 31*(1), 235-241.

Langdridge, D. (2004*). Introduction to research methods and data analysis in psychology.* Harlow, ENG: Pearson Prentice-Hall.

Laschinger, H. K. S., & Finegan, J. (2005). Using empowerment to build trust and respect in the workplace: A strategy for addressing the nursing shortage. *Nursing Economics, 23*(1), 6-13.

Laschinger, H. K. S., Finegan, J., & Shamian, J. (2001a). The impact of workplace empowerment, organizational trust on staff nurses' work satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Health Care Management Review, 26*(3), 7-23.

Laschinger, H. K. S., Finegan, J., Shamian, J., & Wilk, P. (2001b). Impact of structural and psychological empowerment on job strain in nursing work setting. *Journal of Nursing Administration, 31*(5), 260-272.

Lawler, E. E., III. (1973). *Motivation in work organizations*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Ledingham, J. A. (2001). Government–community relationships: Extending the relational theory of public relations. *Public Relations Review, 27*(3), 285–295.

Ledingham, J. A. (2003). Explicating relationship management as a general theory of public relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 15*(2), 181-198.

Ledingham, J. A., & Bruning, S. D. (1998). Relationship management in public relations: Dimensions of an organization–public relationship. *Public Relations Review, 24*(1), 55–65.

Ledingham, J. A., & Bruning, S. D. (2000). A longitudinal study of organization-public relationship dimensions: Defining the role of communication in the practice of relationship management. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds). *Public relations as relationship management: A relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 55-69). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ledingham, J. A., Bruning, S. D., Thomlison, J. A., & Lesko, C. (1997). The transferability of interpersonal relationship dimensions into an organizational setting. *Academy of Managerial Communications Journal, 1*, 23–43.

Levy, R. (1999). *Give and take: A candid account of corporate philanthropy*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Lewis, R. A., & Spanier, G. (1979). Theorizing about the quality and the stability of marriage. In W. R. Burr, R. Hill, F. I. Nye & I. L. Reiss (Eds). *Contemporary theories about the family*. New York: Free Press.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrowe, R. T. (2000). An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 407-416.

Lord, J., & Hutchison, P. (1993). The process of empowerment: Implications for theory and practice. *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health, 12*(1), 5-22.

Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*, 695-706.

Luthans, F., & Church, A. H. (2002). Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *The Academy of Management Executive, 16*(1), 57-75.

MacKinnon, D. P., Fairchild, A. J., & Fritz, M. S. (2007). Mediation Analysis. *Annual Review of Psychology, 58*(1), 593-614.

MacMillan, K., Money, K., Money, A., & Downing, S. (2005). Relationship marketing in the not-for-profit sector: An extension and application of the commitment–trust theory. *Journal of Business Research, 58*(6), 806-818.

Marquart-Pyatt, S. T., & Petrzelka, P. (2008). Trust, the democratic process, and involvement in a rural community. *Rural Sociology, 73*(2), 250-274.

May, R. (1969). *Love and will*. New York: Dell.

McCort, J. D., (1994). A framework for evaluating the relational extent of a relationship marketing strategy: The case of nonprofit organizations. *Journal of Direct Marketing, 8*(2), 53-65.

McQuillan, P. J. (2005). Possibilities and pitfalls: A comparative analysis of student empowerment. *American Educational Research Journal, 42*(4), 639-670.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. (1984). Testing the side-best theory of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(3), 372–378.

Mehra, B., Merketl, C., & Bishop, A. P. (2004). The internet for empowerment of minority and marginalized users. *New Media & Society, 13*(5), 781-802.

Millar, F. E., & Rogers, L. E. (1976). A relational approach to interpersonal communication. In G. R. Miller (Ed.*), Explorations in interpersonal communication* (pp. 87-104). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Millar, F. E., & Rogers, L. E. (1987). Relational dimensions of interpersonal dynamics. In M. E. Roloff & G. R. Miller (Eds.), *Interpersonal processes: New directions in communication research* (Vol. 14, pp. 117-139). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Minnesota Council of Nonprofits (2010). *Principles & practices for nonprofit excellence: A guide for nonprofit board members, managers and staff*. Retrieved July 19, 2011, from http://www.minnesotanonprofits.org/Principles_Practices.pdf

Moore, C. W. (1996). *The mediation process*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Moorman, C., Deshpandé, R., & Zaltman, G. (1993). Factors affecting trust in marketing research relationships. *Journal of Marketing, 57*(1), 81–101.

Moorman, C., Zaltman, G., & Deshpandé, R. (1992). Relationships between providers and users of marketing research relationships. *Journal of Marketing Research, 29*, 314-329.

Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 58*(3), 20–38.

Morton, T. L., Alexander, J. F., & Altman, I. (1976). Communication and relationship definition. In G. R. Miller (Ed.), *Explorations in interpersonal communication* (pp. 105-126). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Murphy, P. (1991). The limits of symmetry: A game theory approach to symmetric and asymmetric public relations. In L. A. Grunig & J. E. Grunig (Eds.), *Public relations research annual* (Vol. 3, pp. 115-132). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mwaura-Muiru, E. (2010). Empowerment for grassroots women. *Development, 53*(2), 197-199.

National Center for Charitable Statistics (2010, November). NCCC quick facts. The Urban Institute, Washington, DC. Retrieved July 31, 2011, from http://nccs.urban.org/statistics/quickfacts.cfm

Neufeld, A., & Harrison, M. J. (1995). Reciprocity and social support in caregivers' relationships: Variations and consequences. *Qualitative Health Research, 5*(3), 348-365.

Ni, L. (2007). Refined understanding of perspectives on employee-organization relationships: Themes and variation. *Journal of Communication Management, 11*(1), 53-70.

Nohria, N., & Eccles, R. G. (1992). Face-to-face: Making network organizations work. In N. Nohria & R. G. Eccles (Eds.), *Networks and organizations: Structure, form, and action* (pp. 288-308). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Norton, M. I, & Avery, J. (September, 2011). The Pepsi refresh project: A thirst for change. Harvard Business Review. Retrieved April 20, 2012, from http://hbr.org/product/the-pepsi-refresh-project-a-thirst-for-change/an/512018-PDF-ENG?referral=00304

Nudd, S. P. (1991). Thinking strategically about information (pp.174-189). In H. A. Rosso (Ed.), *Achieving excellence in fund raising*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Nyland, J. (1995). Issue networks and nonprofit organizations. *Review of Policy Research, 14*, 195-202.

Oksiutycz, A. (2006). Power, empowerment and organizational communication. *Communicare: Journal for Communication Sciences in Southern Africa, 25*(2), 25-41.

O'Neil, J. (2007). The link between strong public relationships and donor support. *Public Relations Review, 33*(1), 99-102.

O'Neil, J. (2008). Linking public relations tactics to long-term success: An investigation of how communications contribute to trust, satisfaction, and commitment in a nonprofit organization. *Journal of Promotion Management, 14*, 263-274.

Ospina, S., Diaz, W., & O'Sullivan, J. F. (2002). Negotiating accountability: Managerial lessons from identity-based nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 31*(1), 5-31.

Ouschan, R, Sweeney, J., & Johnson, L. (2006). Customer empowerment and relationship outcomes in healthcare consultation. *European Journal of Marketing, 40*(9/10), 1068-1086.

Page, N., & Czuba, C. E. (1999). Empowerment: What is it? *Journal of Extension, 37*(5). Retrieved, August 23, 2011, from http://www.joe.org/joe/1999october/comm1.php

Papineau, D., & Kiely, M. C. (1996). Participatory evaluation in a community organization: Fostering stakeholder empowerment and utilization. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 19*(1), 79-93.

Perkins, D.D., & Zimmerman, M.A. (1995). Empowerment theory, research, and application. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 23*(5), 569-579.

Pew Internet and American Life Project. (2000). Wired workers: Who they are and what they're doing online. The Pew Research Center, Washington, DC. Retrieved November 10, 2008, from http://www.pewinternet.org/PPF/r/20/report_display.asp

Pew Internet and American Life Project. (2006). Daily Internet activities. The Pew Research Center, Washington, DC. Retrieved November 10, 2008, from http://www.pewinternet.org/trends/Daily_Internet_activities_7.19.06.htm

Pfeffer, J. (1972). Merger as a response to organizational interdependence. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 17*(3), 382-394.

Pheby, K. (2004). *Power and organizations*. Durham, NC: Durham Business School MBA, Durham University.

Pires, G. D., Stanton, J., & Rita, P. (2006). The internet, consumer empowerment and marketing strategies. *European Journal of Marketing, 40*(9/10), 936-949.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2002). The competitive advantage of corporate philanthropy. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(12), 56-68.

Psoinos, A., Kern, T., & Smithson, S. (2000). An exploratory study of information systems in support of employee empowerment. *Journal of Information Technology, 15*, 211-230.

Putnam, R. D. (1993). *Making democracy work: Civic traditions in modern Italy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press..

Putnam, R. D. (2000). B*owling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Quinn, R.E., & Spreitzer, G.M. (1997). The road to empowerment: Seven questions every leader should consider. *Organizational Dynamics, 26* (2), 37-49.

Randolph, W.A. (1995). Navigating the journey to empowerment. *Organizational Dynamics, 23*(4), 19-50.

Rawlins, B. (2009). Give the emperor a mirror: Toward developing a stakeholder measurement of organizational transparency. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 21*(1), 71-99.

Ray, M. L. (1973). Marketing communication and the hierarchy-of-effects. In P. Clarke (Ed.), *New models for mass communication research*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Redmond, M. R., Mumford, M. D., & Teach, R. (1993). Putting creativity to work: Effects of leader behavior on subordinate creativity. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 55*(1), 120-151.

Rhoades, L., Eisengberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organizations: The contribution of perceived organizational support*. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 825-836.

Roth, M. S. (1994). Enhancing consumer involvement in health care: The dynamics of control, empowerment, and trust. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 13*(1), 115-132.

Rosso, H., & Associates. (1991). *Achieving excellence in fund raising: A comprehensive guide to principles, strategies, and methods*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Personality, 35*(4), 651-665.

Rusbult, C.E. (1987). Responses to dissatisfaction in close relationships: The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect model. In D. Pernal & S. Duck (Eds.), *Intimate relationships: Development, dynamics, and deterioration* (pp. 209-237). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ryan, W. P. (1999). The new landscape for nonprofits. *Harvard Business Review*, *77*(1), 127-136.

Saidel, J. R. (1989). Dimensions of interdependence: The state and voluntary-sector relationship. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 18*(4), 335-347.

Saidel, J. R. (1991). Resource interdependence: The relationship between state agencies and nonprofit organizations. *Public Administration review, 51*(6), 543-553.

Salamon, L. M. (1996). The crisis of the nonprofit sector and the challenge of renewal. *National Civic Review, 85*(4), 3-16.

Salamon, L. M. (1999). The nonprofit sector at a crossroads: The case of America. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 10*(1), 5-23.

Salamon, L. M. (2002). *The state of nonprofit America*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Salamon, L. M. (2003). *The resilient sector: The state of nonprofit America*. Washington, D.C: Brookings Institution Press.

Salamon, L. M. (2005). The changing context of American nonprofit management. In R. D. Herman (Ed.), *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership & management* (2nd ed, pp. 81-101). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Salamon, L. M., & Anheier, H. K. (1992). In search of the non-profit sector. I: The question of definitions*. Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 3*(2), 125-151.

Sallot, L. M., Lyon, L. J., Acosta-Alzuru, C., & Jones, K. O. (2003). From aardvark to zebra: A new millennium analysis of theory development in public relations academic journals. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 15*(1), 27-90.

Salzer, M. S. (1997). Consumer empowerment in mental health organizations: Concept, benefits, and impediments. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health, 24*(5), 425-434.

Sargeant, A. (2001). Relationship fundraising: How to keep donors loyal. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, *12*(2), 177-192.

Sargeant, A., & Jay, E. (2004). *Building donor loyalty*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sargeant, A., & Lee, S. (2004). Donor trust and relationship commitment in the U. K. charity sector: The impact on behavior. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 33*(2), 185-202.

Sargeant, A., & McKenzie, J. (1998). *A lifetime of giving: An analysis of donor lifetime value*. West Malling, UK: Charities Aid Foundation.

Sargeant, A., Ford, J. B., & West, D. C. (2006). Perceptual determinants of nonprofit giving behavior. *Journal of Business Research, 59*(2), 155-165.

Sargeant, A., & Woodliffe, L. (2005). The antecedents of donor commitment to voluntary organizations. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 16*(1), 61-78.

Saxton, G. D., & Benson, M. A. (2005). Social capital and the growth of the nonprofit sector. *Social Science Quarterly, 86*(1), 16-35.

Shabbir, H., Palihawadana, D., & Thwaites, D. (2007). Determining the antecedents and consequences of donor perceived relationship quality: A dimensional qualitative research approach. *Psychology & Marketing, 24*(3), 271–293.

Sheehan, B., & Hoy, G. (1999). Using e-mail to survey internet users in the United States: Methodology and assessment. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 4*(3). Retrieved January 31, 2012, from http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol4/issue3/sheehan.html

Siegall, M., & Gardner, S. (2000). Contextual factors of psychological empowerment. *Personal Review, 29*(6), 703-722.

Sjoberg, L. Olsson, G., & Salay, F. (1983). Cathectic orientation, goal setting and mood. *Journal of Personal Assessment, 47*(3), 307-313.

Soska, T. M. (2011). If they build it, they will come-or letting the people decide: Lessons in building community participation, partnership, and public trust for social and economic justice. *Journal of Community Practice, 19*(1), 1-9.

Sparrowe, R. T. (1994). Empowerment in the hospitality industry: An exploration of antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 17*(3), 51-73.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(5), 1442-1465.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1996). Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(2), 483-504.

Spreitzer, G.M., Kizilos, M.A. & Nason, S.W. (1997) A dimensional analysis of the relationship between psychological empowerment and effectiveness satisfaction and strain. *Journal of Management 23*(5), 679-704.

Stafford, L., & Canary, D. J. (1991). Maintenance strategies and romantic relationship type, gender and relational characteristics. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 8*, 217-242.

Stewart, J. G., McNulty, R., Griffin, M. T. Q., & Fitzpatrick, J. J. (2010). Psychological empowerment and structural empowerment. *Journal of the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners, 22*(1), 27-34.

Sung, M., & Yang, S.-U. (2009). Student–university relationships and reputation: A study of the links between key factors fostering students' supportive behavioral intentions towards their university. *Higher Education, 57*(6), 787-811.

Swift, C., & Levin, G. (1987). Empowerment: An emerging mental health technology. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 8*, 71-94.

Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(4), 666-681.

Thomlison, J. A. (2000). An interpersonal primer with implications for public relations. In J. A. Ledingham & S. D. Bruning (Eds.), *Public relations as relationship management: A relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 177–203). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Thomsen, S. R. (1997). Public relations in the new millennium: Understanding the forces that are shaping the profession. *Public Relations Quarterly, 42*(1), 11-17.

Ugboro, I., O., & Obeng, K. (2000). Top management leadership, employee empowerment, job satisfaction, and customer satisfaction in TQM organizations: An empirical study. *Journal of Quality Management, 5*, 247-272.

Vallerand, R. J., Fortier, M. S., & Guay, F. (1997). Self-determination and persistence in a real-life setting: Toward a motivational model of high school dropout. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72*, 1161-1176.

Van Horn, J. E., Schaufeli, W. B.,& Taris, T. W. (2006). Lack of reciprocity among Dutch teachers: Validation of reciprocity indices and their relation to stress and well-being. *Work & Stress, 15*(3), 191-213.

Van Til. J. (1990). *Critical issues in American philanthropy: Strengthening theory and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Van Til, J. (2005). Nonprofit organizations and social institutions. In R. D. Herman (Ed.), *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership & management* (2nd ed, pp. 39-62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Van Til, J., & Ross, S. W. (2001).Looking backward: Twentieth-century themes in charity, voluntarism, and the third sector. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 30*(1), 112-129.

Vasquez, G. M., & Taylor, M. (2000). Public relations: An emerging social science enters the new millennium. *Communication Yearbook, 24*, 319–342.

VeneKlasen, L., & Miller, V. (2002) *Power and empowerment*. *PLA Notes, 43*, 39-41.

Vercic, D., & Grunig, J. E. (1995, July). *The origins of public relations theory in economics and strategic management*. Paper presented at the Second International Public Relations Research Symposium, Bled, Slovenia.

Vogt, P. (1997). Transfer of power. *Credit Union Management*, *20*(6), 44-45.

Warshaw, P. R., & Davis, F. D. (1985). Disentangling behavioral intention and behavioral expectation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 21*, 213-228.

Waters, R. D. (2007). *Advancing relationship management theory: Coorientation and the nonprofit-donor relationship*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Florida, Gainesville.

Waters, R. D. (2011). Increasing fundraising efficiency through evaluation: Applying communication theory to the nonprofit-organization-donor relationship. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 40*(3), 458-475.

Waters, R. D., Burnett, E., Lamm, A., & Lucas, J. (2009). Engaging stakeholders through social networking: How nonprofit organizations are using Facebook. *Public Relations Review, 35*(2), 102-106.

Wells, C. V. (2001). Trust, dependency, and control in the contemporary organization. *Journal of Business & Psychology, 15*(4), 593-604.

Wentowski, G. J. (1981). Reciprocity and the coping strategies of older people: Cultural dimensions of network building. *The Gerontologist, 21*(6), 600-609.

Werner, D. (1988). Empowerment and health. Contact*. Christian Medical Commission, 102*, 1-9.

Whitener, E. M., Brodt, S. E., Korsgaard, M. A., & Werner, J. M. (1998). Managers as initiators of trust: An exchange relationship framework for understanding managerial trustworthy behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 513–530.

Wiener, Y. (1982). Commitment in organization: A normative view. *The Academy of Management Review, 7*(3), 418-428.

Wilson, L. J. (2000). Building employee and community relationships through volunteerism: A case study. In J. A. Ledingham & Bruning, S. D. (Eds). *Public relations as relationship management: A relational approach to the study and practice of public relations* (pp. 137-144). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wimmer, R. D., & Dominick, J. R. (2006). *Mass media research: An introduction* (38th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Wing, K. T., Roeger, K. L., & Pollak, T. H. (2010). The nonprofit sector in brief: Public charities, giving, and volunteering, 2010. Urban Institute. Retrieved, July 31, 2011, from http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/412209-nonprof-public-charities.pdf

World Bank Group (1999). *The World Book Participation Sourcebook*. Retrieved April 18, 2011, from http://www.worldbank.org/afr/particip/keycon.htm

Worth, M. J. (Ed.). (2002). *New strategies for educational fund raising*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Wright, L. T, Newman, A., & Dennis, C. (2006). Enhancing consumer empowerment. *European Journal of Consumer Marketing, 40*(9/10), 925-935.

Wright, W. H., & Bocarnea, M. C. (2007). Contributions of unrestricted funds: The donor organization-public relationship and alumni attitudes and behaviors. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 18*(2), 215-235.

Xiang, Y., & Wang, L. (2008). Socially oriented values and reciprocity norm predict organizational commitment. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 11*, 247-252.

Yang, S-U. (2007). An integrated model for organization-public relational outcomes, organizational reputation, and their antecedents. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 19*(2), 91-121.

Yang, S-U., & Grunig, J. E. (2005). Decomposing organisational reputation: The effects of organisation-public relationship outcomes on cognitive representations of organisations and evaluations of organisational performance. *Journal of Communication Management, 9*(4), 305–325.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing, 60*(1), 31–46.

Zimmerman, M. A. (1995). Psychological empowerment: Issues and illustrations. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 23*(5), 581-599.

Zimmerman, M. A. (2000). Empowerment theory: Psychological, organizational, and community levels of analysis. In J. Rappaport & E. Seidman (Eds.), *Handbook of*

community psychology (pp. 43-63). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Moonhee Cho received her Ph.D. from the College of Journalism and Communications at the University of Florida. Her research interests include public empowerment, nonprofit management, organization-public relationship management, and the effects of emerging media on public engagement. During her doctoral studies, Moonhee was recognized as an emerging scholar by the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organization and Voluntary Action in 2010 and won best paper awards at the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication for three consecutive years. Also, her master's thesis won the Northwestern Mutual 2009 Best Master's Thesis Award, sponsored by the Institute for Public Relations. Her research work has appeared in various journals and a book chapter.

She is a former fundraiser at Partners for the Future Foundation, the charity arm of the American Chamber of Commerce in Korea. She also worked at United Way North Central Florida to develop a donor relations program.

Moonhee received her Master of Arts degree in mass communication, with an emphasis of public relations, from the University of Florida in 2009 and her Bachelor of Arts degree in psychology and advertising and public relations from Ewha Women's University in 2003.