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Laura Olkkonen

Stakeholder Expectations

Conceptual Foundations and Empirical Analysis

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Conceptual Foundations and Empirical Analysis

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ABSTRACT

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Expectations are an inseparable part of interaction, whether in interpersonal, intragroup, or organization–stakeholder relations. As a concept, expectations appear frequently in the public relations literature, yet definitions are scarce or narrow. This thesis contributes to the conceptual and empirical understanding of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations and, more specifically, studies how organizations translate their societal roles and how stakeholders form expectations of these roles. The theoretical framework is drawn from Scandinavian institutionalism and corporate responsibility as social connectedness that, first, places organization–stakeholder relations in an institutional context in which meanings are translated by both organizations and stakeholders and, second, recognizes that when the responsibilities of business organizations are assessed as both liabilities and structural embeddedness, expectations can touch upon complex issues with shared responsibilities.

This thesis shell synthesizes findings from five original articles by posing two overarching research questions: (RQ1) What characterizes expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations? and (RQ2) How can stakeholder expectations be approached analytically? The thesis comprises four substudies that include a narrative analysis of corporate reports from three companies, a concept analysis of academic articles, and two thematic analyses of (multi-stakeholder and single-stakeholder) interview data from stakeholders of the media sector, in which corporate responsibility is starting to become established.

As its central results, this thesis presents a model and definition for stakeholder expectations in organization–stakeholder relations that introduce the baseline of the expectations, the organization-specific assessment, and the tone of the outcome. These results strengthen the conceptual foundation of expectations in public relations research and recognizes expectations as both positive and negative constructions. As a practical input, expectation management—systematic mapping and analysis of stakeholder expectations—is suggested as a new, intersecting function for public relations.

Keywords: expectations, stakeholder relations, corporate responsibility, expectation management, translation, social connection

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PREFACE

The completion of this doctoral dissertation was not a self-evident goal that I envisioned early on in my life. Rather, it was something I grew into. Passionately grew into. And, for the most part, literally grew into, as some of the most defining moments of my life have occurred while I have been writing this dissertation. As many before me have said, this has been a process of many elements, including learning, succeeding, questioning, and, at times, doubting. I have been lucky to have mentors to look up to and peers to be inspired by along the journey.

The support and encouragement of my supervisor, Vilma Luoma-aho, have been among the most important reasons I started and, more importantly, was able to finish this work. I have had the privilege to have her as my mentor since my bachelor's studies, and I am proud to be her first doctoral student. Over the years that we have worked together, she has trusted me with tasks that have been both challenging and inspiring. I thank Vilma for guiding me through this process. My second supervisor, Marita Vos, has also been my long-term teacher and a valuable academic advisor. I thank her not only for her advice but also for telling me that I have it in me to be a researcher. My reviewers, Professor Øyvind Ihlen and Adjunct Professor Elisa Juholin, helped me to polish my arguments. I thank them for asking clarification and making comments that pushed me toward completing this process. I am honored to have such esteemed scholars involved in my dissertation.

While writing this dissertation, I have been surrounded by an exceptional selection of interdisciplinary colleagues at the South Karelian Institute at Lappeenranta University of Technology. Their day-to-day support has been irreplaceable, as they have always been available to comment and assist with problem solving. They have also offered welcome distractions in the form of mysterious travel plans and lunchtime getaways. I am especially thankful to Mikko Kohvakka and Kristiina Korjonen-Kuusipuro for their thoughts and comments while I developed the thesis shell. I have also had the pleasure of working with peers in my doctoral seminars both at the University of Jyväskylä and in the VITRO doctoral program of communication studies. Having such groups with which to share and exchange the experiences of writing a dissertation with all its relevant and nonrelevant edges has been not only useful but often also fun.

I owe a debt of gratitude to the funders of this dissertation for enabling me to work as a full-time researcher. The "What is Expected of the Media in a Reputation Society?" (WEM) project, funded by the Helsingin Sanomat Foundation, was very important for my work, as it locked my interest in expectations. I am thankful to the foundation for funding the project and to Vilma for making me a part of the project team. Thank you for the personal grants from the Jenny and Antti Wihuri Foundation, Otto A. Malm Foundation, the Department of Communication at the University of Jyväskylä, and the South Karelia Chamber of Commerce. These grants were crucial for securing the quiet time necessary for finalizing this dissertation. I also thank the VITRO program for the many travel

grants, without which I would have missed important international visits that enabled me to meet many interesting scholars and to learn from their research.

Although they had no idea how seriously I would eventually take their advice, my parents, Raili and Juha, always encouraged me to invest time in my studies. I thank them for showing me their unconditional support. My parents have witnessed not only the defining moments connected to this process but also those of my entire life. They have also been forced to teach me that not all defining moments in life are happy. Holding my father's hand as he passed away is the saddest, most unexpected event I have ever had to encounter, and it took place while I was in the middle of this process. When I started my studies, I could never have imagined that he would not be here by the time I finished. While I am now left to miss him, I am grateful for my mother and her "wows" and "well dones", which are now said for them both. My mother and my father have taught me to be an independent woman with ambition, and this process has required both independence and ambition.

Rather than a defining moment, growing up with my big sister, Kirsi, has been one of the defining journeys of my life. I thank her for the good company she continues to offer. She has set an excellent example of how one should not only chase but also actively make their dreams.

Friends and family, I thank you for being in my life. Writing a doctoral dissertation is sometimes a lonesome quest, but you have proven to me along the way that I am not alone. Thank you for connecting me to so many areas of life, most of which have nothing to do with research. Such richness in life is a beautiful gift.

I started this chapter by referring to the defining life moments that took place while I wrote this dissertation, and it seems suitable to end with the two that make me the happiest. The first is becoming a wife to my husband, Pekka. To him, I owe so much not only when thinking back on this process but also for the last 12 years. I have learned about life from him and with him. I thank him for his support and for believing in me in ways that I do not always understand myself. Most importantly, I thank him for loving me in ways that scientific methods cannot explain. The second, equally defining moment is becoming a mother. The mental rewiring that followed from holding our newborn is on a level that escapes my scales. I thank our son, Pauli, for giving me giggles, hugs, and kisses that would easily get me through any day. To our unborn child, I owe a thank-you for the literal kicks in the gut and for reminding me that life still has exciting deadlines in store after finishing this process.

Lappeenranta October 2015
Laura Olkkonen

ORIGINAL ARTICLES

I. Timonen, L., & Luoma-aho, V. (2010). Sector-based corporate citizenship. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 19(1), 1–13.[1]

II. Olkkonen, L., & Luoma-aho, V. (2011). Managing mental standards with corporate citizenship profiles. *Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and Organization Studies*, 16(1), 13–20.

III. Olkkonen, L., & Luoma-aho, V. (2014). Public relations as expectation management? *Journal of Communication Management*, 18(3), 222–239.

IV. Olkkonen, L., & Luoma-aho, V. (2015). Broadening the concept of expectations in public relations. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 27(1), 81–99.

V. Olkkonen, L. (2015). Audience enabling as corporate responsibility for media organizations. *Journal of Media Ethics*, 30(4), 268-288.

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[1] This article was published under my maiden name: Laura Timonen.

AUTHOR’S CONTRIBUTION TO THE ORIGINAL ARTICLES

I: Prepared the research plan, collected the data, and executed the analysis. Was mainly responsible for writing the article and collaboratively responsible for the review process and revisions.

II: Applied the previously collected data and was mainly responsible for writing the article. Was responsible for the review process and revisions.

III: Prepared the research plan, collected part of the data, executed the analysis for the entire data set, and was mainly responsible for writing the article. Was responsible for the review process and revisions.

IV: Prepared the research plan, collected the data, executed the analysis, and was mainly responsible for writing the paper. Was responsible for the review process and revisions.

V: Sole author

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1 INTRODUCTION

Oft expectation fails and most oft there
Where most it promises, and oft it hits
Where hope is coldest and despair most fits.

Helena in William Shakespeare's "All's Well That Ends Well", Act 2, Scene 1

In William Shakespeare's play "All's Well That Ends Well", Helena persuades the king to take a potion in an attempt to cure him. The extract above is part of Helena's reply to the king when he expresses his reluctance to try Helena's remedy because he already took potions that did not work. This example captures some of the key characteristics of expectations, which is the topic of this dissertation. First, expectations are part of human logic regarding how we as humans make sense of things (Gärdenfors, 1993; Jones, 1986): the king has past experience of unsuccessful remedies, and he is not expecting this one to work either. In the extract, Helena acknowledges the king's cynical expectations that have resulted from failed hopes that promised a lot but did not deliver. As Helena comes to notice, once expectations have been formed, it can be difficult to change them. However, what can be done, and what Helena does in her reply, is to recognize and acknowledge the expectations and understand where they stem from. While this may seem trivial, without doing this, it could be difficult for Helena to relate to the king and his concerns. Unfortunately, however, the origins of expectations are not always as explicitly articulated as in this example.

As a component of human logic, expectations are an inseparable part of interaction, whether in interpersonal, intragroup, or organizational relationships (Thomlison, 2000). People have expectations when they enter a room, when they encounter a new person, or when they choose to act in a certain way (Gärdenfors, 1993). According to Roese and Sherman (2007, p. 92), expectations draw information from previous experience and form an assessment "where past and future meet to drive present behavior." In other words, people search for causal explanations of others' behavior and make predictions of future behavior as a way of making sense of the social world. Expectations frame and filter social interaction either as general anticipation

grounded in societal norms, typicality, or appropriateness, or as adaptations depending on individual persons or situations grounded in previous knowledge and experience of a specific interaction style (Burgoon, 1993).

Part of the importance of expectations for my field of research—public relations—is that they can provoke intense positive or negative emotions depending on the outcome upon which they are weighed. According to Turner (2008), expectations have the ability to escalate emotions, as met or unmet expectations are connected to intense emotions, such as satisfaction, appreciation, shame, sadness, and anger. Consequently, these emotions may have profound impacts on the formation or continuation of relationships (cf. Jo, 2006; Ledingham, Bruning, & Wilson, 1999). In general, people seek to renew their positive emotions and avoid reliving the negative (Nesse, 1990); therefore, one can intentionally lower one's expectations by adjusting one's confidence, in the hopes of avoiding future disappointments (Van Dijk, Zeelenberg, & Van Pligt, 2003). This was exactly the case with Helena and the king. However, in this thesis, I will argue that it is difficult to understand these sorts of changes in the expectations of stakeholders, or the overall dynamics that expectations bring to organization–stakeholder relations, without understanding expectations concretely as concepts. Concepts can be considered as the basic building blocks in theory construction, but, thus far, the concept of expectations has not been "solid and strong" in public relations research in the sense that it clearly names the thing to which it refers (Walker & Avant, 2011, p. 157).

This thesis is dedicated to stakeholder expectations and how they unfold in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. The main inspiration of this thesis is the societal role of business organizations and corporate responsibility, as these are issues in regard to which the gaps between expectations and current conduct are discussed visibly and vividly. Furthermore, as corporate responsibility is often explained as compliance with societal or stakeholder expectations (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011), this thesis seeks to clarify what exactly we are talking about when we talk about stakeholder expectations. In this chapter, the topic is introduced in more detail: first, by positioning the study within the field of public relations and then by presenting the research questions that guided the dissertation and by outlining the research process.

1.1 Positioning the study

Expectations appear frequently in the public relations literature. Take reputation for an example. In the systematic literature search that was executed for this thesis (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015), reputation was often defined as the ability or capacity to fulfill the expectations posed by stakeholders or as an assessment of how well the organization is meeting these expectations. Furthermore, exceeding stakeholders' expectations was seen as a way to strengthen or improve reputation, whereas failing to meet expectations was seen as a source of reputational threats.

Besides reputation, expectations are used in the public relations literature to describe (corporate) responsibility, relationships, legitimacy, satisfaction, trust, and identity (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). Figure 1 below presents the number of academic articles that mention expectations in my sample of public relations literature by year (full years included; see Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015 and chapters 2.1 and 3.2 for more detailed reports on the literature search). The literature search targeted six central public relations journals (*Corporate Communications*, *Corporate Reputation Review*, *Journal of Communication Management*, *Journal of Public Relations Research*, *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, and *Public Relations Review*), the majority of which published their first issues in the early 1990s. This explains why the earliest article in my data is from 1992 although no time limits were set. As Figure 1 shows, there has been increasing interest in expectations in these journals after the turn of the millennium, peaking in my sample in 2008. Despite the interest, the conceptual understanding of expectations has not been strong in the literature; hence, it has not been clear how exactly expectations affect organization–stakeholder relations. This conceptual gap will be discussed in more detail in chapter 4.2.

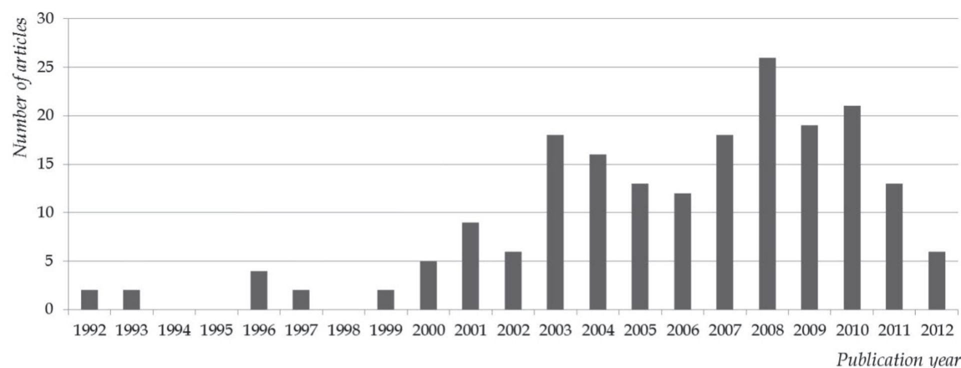

FIGURE 1 Academic articles that mention expectations

As in any other field of research, there are different research orientations within public relations (Botan & Taylor, 2004; Ihlen & van Ruler, 2009). The main concern of this thesis is the relationships that organizations have with their stakeholders and how these relationships resonate more widely with how organizations are positioned in society (cf. Ihlen & van Ruler, 2009). From this perspective, the gap in understanding stakeholder expectations is important as, according to some views, relationships are defined by the expectations that the relational partners have of each other (e.g., Podnar & Golob, 2007; Thomlison, 2000), or, more moderately, expectations are seen as factors among others, such as needs, values, and norms that affect organization–stakeholder relations (e.g., Broom, Casey, & Richey, 1997; Johansen & Nielsen, 2012).

The primary objective of this thesis is to contribute to the conceptual and empirical understanding of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. The understanding of organization–stakeholder relations in this thesis is framed in institutional theory and, more specifically, in translation in Scandinavian institutionalism (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009; Czarniawska & Sevón, 1996). Translation is a perspective that is not explicitly present in the original articles, but I use it in this thesis shell to frame and synthesize the sub-studies. By acknowledging translation, organization–stakeholder relations are seen to take place within an institutional context and organizations are seen to take part in shaping their contexts when they translate (edit and transform) institutional pressures.

Within the different orientations in public relations research, I position my work within the cocreational perspective that "sees publics as cocreators of meaning and communication" (Botan & Taylor, 2004, p. 652). When outlining the cocreational perspective, Botan and Taylor (2004) use the term publics, whereas I refer to both publics and stakeholders in the original articles to discuss the groups or communities that are connected to an organization directly or indirectly[2]. For clarity, I use the term stakeholder in this thesis shell, as it refers to any group that is tied to an organization via a direct or indirect link—that is, a group that can affect or is affected by the organization (cf. Freeman, 1984).

The idea of stakeholders as cocreators applies especially to the thesis shell, as the original articles represent different stages of development. In particular, the first two articles (see chapter 1.2) lean more toward a managerial or functional perspective (cf. Botan & Taylor, 2004; Ihlen & van Ruler, 2009), whereas the last three articles progress toward a cocreational perspective. The difference between a functional and a cocreational perspective is in what is valued over the other, the organization and its mission (functional), or the relationships and the actors within it (cocreational) (Botan & Taylor, 2004).

Cocreation is an idea that is also present in the literature on corporate responsibility—for example, in the sense that stakeholders are cocreators in the (social) construction or meaning of corporate responsibility (Ihlen, 2008; Okoye, 2009; Schrempf, 2012). In building an understanding of corporate responsibility for this thesis, I follow Schrerer and Palazzo (2007, 2011) to acknowledge that the societal role of organizations is part of the negotiation that takes place between organizations and (the rest of) their institutional context.

The analysis in this thesis takes place primarily at the level of sectors as collective groups of organizations that engage in the production of similar products or services (as meant, for example, in the Global Reporting Initiative's sector disclosures; see Global Reporting Initiative, 2014) and the expectations placed on these sectors, as opposed to a specific analysis of the actions of a single organization. With regard to organizations, in this thesis, I refer to companies, corporations, or enterprises—that is, business organizations. My interest is

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[2] The notions of publics or stakeholders are not problematized in this thesis. On the differences between the concepts see, for example, Ihlen (2008).

primarily in how organizational behavior appears when assessed from the outside by me as a researcher and by members of different stakeholder groups. This choice evidently pays less attention to internal groups (article III is an exception, as it presents data that include both internal and external stakeholder groups). This is not to downplay the importance of internal groups, such as personnel, whose views can explain how meanings and translations are formed within an organization (cf. Fredriksson, Pallas, & Wehmeier, 2013). Rather, this is a choice of perspective that steers the interest in this thesis primarily toward organizations' external relations, although in the current communication environment, any message or action is (potentially) received and assessed by both internal and external stakeholders in different physical and nonphysical arenas, which makes the division between external and internal communication or relations somewhat artificial (see, e.g., Christensen, Morsing, & Cheney, 2008; Vos, Schoemaker, & Luoma-aho, 2014).

1.2 Research objectives and process

The objective of this thesis is to contribute to the conceptual and empirical understanding of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. The research objective is approached by posing two main research questions and sub-questions that further frame the focus:

RQ1: What characterizes expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?

Sub-questions: What factors affect the formation of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?
How can expectations be defined in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?

RQ2: How can stakeholder expectations be approached analytically?

Sub-questions: What factors can be analyzed to map stakeholder expectations?
How does an analysis of expectations relate to public relations in practice?

The main research questions are overarching research questions for this dissertation, which comprises five original articles and a shell that synthesizes them. The articles are given different emphases in this thesis shell, depending on how they relate to the overarching research questions. The main purpose of the thesis shell is to evaluate the overall input of the sub-studies by synthesizing findings from the five original articles and revisiting the data to the extent that is relevant to the two research questions.

The research process for this dissertation included four sub-studies that each had a different focus. My initial interest in starting this research stemmed from how business organizations narrate and translate their societal status and,

more specifically, how business organizations specialize in their corporate responsibility. This interest guided the formulation of the first study and constituted corporate responsibility as the main context for my research, which was later narrowed down to the expectations of corporate responsibility and to a specific sector of interest: the media sector.

The research process was driven by the findings of the previous study or, more specifically, by the gaps that stemmed from the previous study. Thus, the course of the research process was not predetermined, which is not unusual for qualitative research, especially one with an interpretive approach, such as the one at hand. Interpretive research often works with a topic or puzzle that it tries to understand and interpret, rather than with a fine-tuned research question or hypothesis (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2013). This is why there has been movement in what has been the focal concept and analytical lens for each study and, consequently, for each article (see also Figure 3 and chapter 4.1). For all the studies included in this thesis, the context of research was Finland, and I used Finnish data, which limits the application of the results to similar countries with similar systems and traditions, especially the Nordic countries.

Study 1 focused on corporate responsibility as narration (and, as discussed in chapters 2.2 and 3.1, as translation) and it is reported in articles I and II (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010; Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2011). Study 1 is what led me to the main question of this thesis, as expectations came up in the narration of corporate responsibility. However, it was unclear what exactly stakeholder expectations are. This gap was addressed in study 2, which concentrated on explicating expectations at a conceptual level. The concept analysis of study 2, reported in article IV (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015), positioned stakeholder expectations in the field of public relations and used literature from customer management, customer satisfaction, and interpersonal communication to address expectations as a multidimensional concept.

Studies 3 and 4, in turn, studied stakeholder expectations at an empirical level and tested expectation mapping in practice. The context for studies 3 and 4 was the media sector. The media organizations that comprise the media sector are unique kinds of businesses that entail both editorial and financial management (Adams-Bloom & Cleary, 2009). Hence, the issues and expectations they face are also likely to be unique. Study 3 used multi-stakeholder interview data from different stakeholder groups of media organizations and tested how their expectations can be analyzed and categorized. The focus of study 4 was, in particular, on expectations concerning corporate responsibility that were studied with an in-depth analysis of a single stakeholder group in the media sector. Study 4 opened up media organizations' corporate responsibility, which can be seen to include issues that relate both to media ethics and business ethics, and discussed, in particular, the sector-based responsibilities of media organizations and expectations connected to them.

Finally, this thesis shell synthesizes the studies on a meta-level, explains expectation formation, and introduces a definition for expectations in the con-

text of organization–stakeholder relations, and explicates what kind of function expectation management could be for public relations. The overall course of the research process is presented in Figure 2 below.

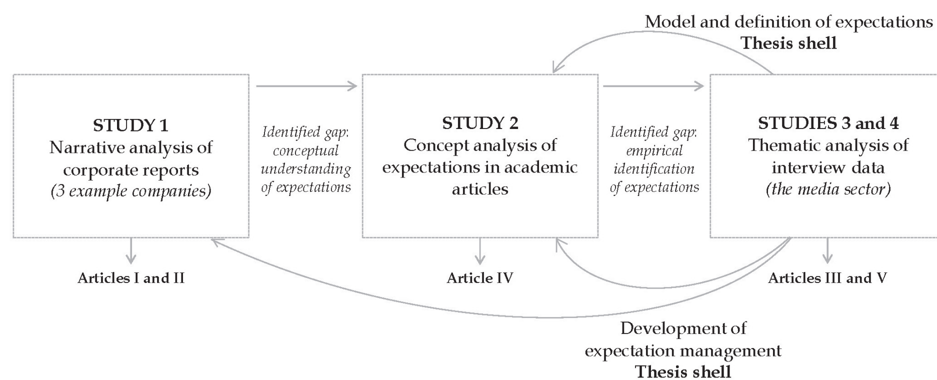

FIGURE 2 The research process and sub-studies

Before providing a more detailed introduction to the sub-studies, the theoretical framework of this thesis shell will be outlined (chapter 2). Next, the methodology and data for each sub-study will be presented (chapter 3), followed by the central findings of this thesis (chapter 4). I will end the thesis by explicating the theoretical and practical implications of the findings, and by discussing the limitations and suggestions for future research (chapter 5).

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the theoretical framework for how I approach expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations is presented. The framework draws primarily from translation, as explained in Scandinavian institutionalism, and corporate responsibility as social connectedness. With these two theoretical anchors, organization–stakeholder relations are placed in an institutional context, and corporate responsibility is introduced as an element in organization–stakeholder relations that is translated by different actors both when business organizations present their actions and when stakeholders form expectations concerning responsibility.

Scandinavian institutionalism belongs to a large pool of research within institutional theory and, more specifically, neo-institutional theory (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009). Institutional theory originates from organization studies and organizational management (Greenwood, Oliver, Sahlin, & Suddaby, 2008), and hence, its primary focus is not public relations. However, scholars of public relations have used (neo-)institutional theory and Scandinavian institutionalism to explain public relations' embeddedness in social environments (Fredriksson *et al.*, 2013), the role of communication in institutionalization (Frandsen & Johansen, 2013), and the institutionalization processes of communication practices (Kjeldsen, 2013). Furthermore, the intersections of institutionalism, communication, and corporate responsibility have been studied, for example, by Schultz and Wehmeier (2010).

On a general level, the focus of institutional theory is the organization and its relationship with its context (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008, p. 7). Institutional theory approaches the questions of how and why organizations behave as they do and adopt organizational structures that are influenced by their institutional contexts (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008). Neo-institutional theory, in particular, takes interest in why organizations seek social fitness and approval (i.e., legitimacy) by adopting certain structures and behavior (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008; Suddaby, 2010). The notion of translation in Scandinavian institutionalism describes how these structures and behavior are not passively diffused or adopted in the institutional context but are actively modified by organizations to fit their specific

settings (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009; Czarniawska & Sevón, 1996; Sahlin & Wedlin, 2008). By translating, organizations take part in shaping their institutional contexts (Sahlin & Wedlin, 2008). Translation is explained in more detail in chapter 2.2.

Corporate responsibility is connected to institutionalism when corporate responsibility is studied as an institutionalizing or institutionalized practice (see, e.g., Carroll, 1999; Matten & Moon, 2008; Scherer & Palazzo, 2007; Waddock, 2008). Furthermore, institutional theory has been used to explain why the meanings and practices of corporate responsibility—or irresponsibility—differ between geographical and cultural areas (Matten & Moon, 2008). Different institutional factors, such as political, financial, educational, labor-related, and cultural systems have resulted in different emphases in corporate responsibility; for example, voluntary programs have been more widespread in the United States than in Europe (e.g., Matten & Moon, 2008). These systems have developed over time, and hence, they have been influenced by historical events—for example, in Finland, the formation of the Northern European welfare state and the tradition of factory owners to take care of their employees' accommodation, schooling, and health care in the beginning of industrialization have affected the foundations of corporate responsibility (Juholin, 2004).

While this dissertation contributes to the understanding of the variety within corporate responsibility, especially concerning the sector-based differences in responsibility, my interest is less in the actual processes of institutionalization and more in how translation and social connectedness frame the relationships that organizations have with their stakeholders and how these relationships resonate more widely with how organizations are positioned in society (cf. Ihlen & van Ruler, 2009). While translation (as the active transfer and transformation of ideas) does not always deal with responsibility, I presuppose that corporate responsibility always includes the element of translation both when organizations engage in corporate responsibility and when stakeholders assess it (cf. Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Chapter 2.3 will introduce corporate responsibility as social connectedness, including the direct (such as product liability) and indirect (such as the contribution to climate change or obesity) consequences of conducting business (Schrempf, 2012; Young, 2006). As Scherer and Palazzo (2011) have suggested, social connection adds complexity to the negotiations concerning the societal role of business between different actors, and hence, it can also add complexity to the translation of corporate responsibility and to the stakeholder expectations that are influenced by translation.

Translation and social connection are the lenses that I use to synthesize the sub-studies and findings in this thesis shell. In the original articles, the focus of interest and the analytical lens have varied as the research has progressed. Figure 3 presents the theoretical framework that combines translation and social connection and shows the connections between the two central concepts of this study: expectations and corporate responsibility. Furthermore, Figure 3 depicts my movement between these concepts throughout the research process.

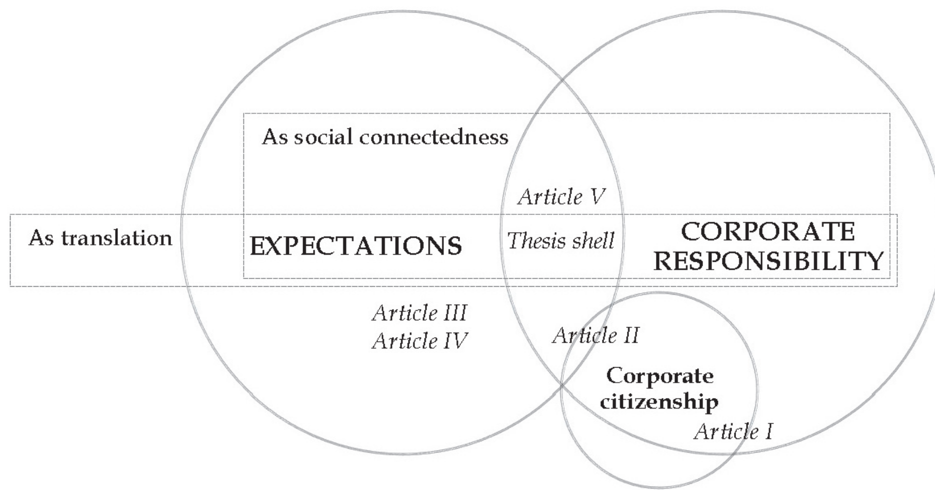

FIGURE 3 Original articles on the theoretical framework

In articles I and II (from study 1), the focus is on corporate responsibility and on understanding how business organizations narrate and translate their societal role. Corporate citizenship was used as a tool to explore the corporate responsibility of three example organizations in article I. More specifically, as an organizational metaphor that implies societal membership, corporate citizenship was a frame for analyzing the societal roles that the organizations included in study 1 gave themselves in their narration, and how they specialized in their responsibility, depending on the issues that they perceived as most relevant to their business. Article II continues with corporate citizenship and specialization in the three example companies but moves the focus toward expectations. As the concept of corporate citizenship became less focal after article II, this thesis shell does not discuss the concept of citizenship in more detail. Articles III (from study 3) and IV (from study 2) address stakeholder expectations at a general level and are not limited to expectations of corporate responsibility. Thus, articles III and IV build the groundwork for a conceptual understanding of stakeholder expectations, which is reconnected with the context of corporate responsibility in article V (from study 4) and in this thesis shell. Article V focuses specifically on the expectations of corporate responsibility in the media sector and uses the lens of social connectedness. In the thesis shell, the lens of translation is added to offer a broader context for the sub-studies and their findings.

Before introducing translation and social connectedness in more detail, the next chapter first presents an overview of the different ways in which expectations have been addressed in the public relations literature.

2.1 Expectations in the public relations literature

Expectations is a concept that appears across many areas of academic research on public relations. Expectations can be mentioned, for example, as one of the factors that organizations should try to identify and monitor to keep abreast of changes in their environment, along with attitudes, values, and norms (Heath & Bowen, 2002; Ledingham, 2003). The concept may be familiar to scholars of issues management, as expectations can be recognized as one of the factors that can result in issues when left unanswered (e.g., Jaques, 2009; Reichart, 2003). Scholars of relationship management may refer to expectations as the makings of the "relationship history" between an organization and its stakeholders, which is shaped by met and unmet expectations (Coombs, 2000) or as factors that can induce changes in relationships or even cause relationships to end (Coombs, 2000; Ledingham, 2003). For scholars of reputation management, expectations can unfold as assessments of organizational ability (e.g., Eisenegger, 2009). Mismatched or misinterpreted expectations can also appear in the crisis management literature, this time as potential causes of crises (Brønn, 2012; Coombs, 2000). Besides the academic literature, expectations have been mentioned in the declarations of public relations practitioners—for example, in the Melbourne Mandate published by the Global Alliance for Public Relations and Communication Management, in which the ability to identify stakeholder expectations has been assigned as a task for public relations professionals (Global Alliance for Public Relations and Communication Management, 2012).

The areas of research mentioned above are all wide, established fields with a vast amount of existing research. To zoom further in on how expectations have been understood and positioned in the academic research on public relations, the results of the systematic literature search executed as part of study 2 are used (see Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015 and chapter 3.2 for more details regarding how the sample was collected and analyzed). Namely, the concepts to which expectations were connected in the literature sample of 197 academic articles, published in six central public relations journals (*Corporate Communications*, *Corporate Reputation Review*, *Journal of Communication Management*, *Journal of Public Relations Research*, *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, and *Public Relations Review*) are introduced to place stakeholder expectations in the research field of public relations and to pinpoint where the contribution of this thesis falls. Later, when the findings of this thesis are discussed, the different definitions identified in my sample will be introduced in more detail and, more specifically, their scarcity will be discussed (chapter 4.2).

An overview of the conceptual use of expectations in my literature sample is summarized in Table 1, which presents illustrative examples of how expectations are currently mentioned in the literature. The concepts to which expectations were most often connected in my literature sample are reputation, responsibility, relationship, legitimacy, satisfaction, trust, and identity.

TABLE 1 Examples of the conceptual use of expectations

Concept	Referring articles[3]	Examples
Reputation	64	"Reputations are based in large part on how stakeholders evaluate an organization's ability to meet their **expectations** for treating stakeholders." (Coombs, 2007, p. 164) "[…] if a firm has nurtured its reputation and attends to it carefully with stakeholders, stakeholders as part of their assessment of the firm develop **expectations** as to how the firm will act in a given situation. These 'reputational **expectations'** offer both benefits and challenges for the firm." (Mahon & Wartick, 2003, p. 23) "When customers get what they **expect** from a company time and time again (i.e., the corporate brand promise is kept), reputation is strengthened." (Argenti & Druckenmiller, 2004, p. 372)
Responsibility	42	"[…] CSR [corporate social responsibility] can be understood as a balance of all responsibilities and policies which meet or exceed **expectations**, values and norms of stakeholders and society at large." (Podnar & Golob, 2007, p. 328) "Social norms and **expectations** regarding business conduct are formulated and expressed in civil society." (Ihlen, 2008, p. 136) "CSR means bringing corporate behavior up to a level where it corresponds to currently prevailing social norms, values and performance **expectations**; it furthermore entails anticipating new societal **expectations** before they are codified into legal requirements" (Westhues & Einwiller, 2006, p. 145)
Relationship	31	"The formation of relationships occurs when parties have perceptions and **expectations** of each other, when one or both parties need resources from the other, when one or both parties perceive mutual threats from an uncertain environment, and when there is either a legal or voluntary necessity to associate." (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 1997, p. 95) "The continuation of organization–public relationships is dependent on the degree to which **expectations** are met. […] Those **expectations** are expressed in interactions between organizations and publics." (Ledingham, 2003, p. 195) "In the corporate setting for instance, employees, customers, shareholders, transaction partners and the local community initially incur risk from organizational activities as they invest tangible or intangible capital into the relationship. However, over time, as they assess the degree to which the organization has successfully met their **expectations** for how these 'investments' should be managed, such assessments can act to impose risk on the organization if **expectations** are not fulfilled."(Vidaver-Cohen, 2007, p. 286)
Legitimacy	24	"Legitimacy arises from congruence between a firm's actions and societal **expectations**. While loss of legitimacy may arise when a firm acts contrary to societal **expectations**, loss of legitimacy may also result from changes in societal **expectations**." (Barnett, 2007, p. 7)

(continues)

[3] An individual article can be connected to several concepts

TABLE 1 (continues)

Concept	Referring articles	Examples
		"Organisations strive to be perceived as legitimate by the societies in which they operate. Acting responsibly–i.e. according to societal **expectations**, norms and values –is the means by which organisations seek legitimacy." (Johansen & Nielsen, 2012, p. 436)
		"[…] organizations have legitimacy when they conform to social **expectations** associated with a particular population." (King & Whetten, 2008, p. 192)
Satisfaction	16	"[…] each partner in a relationship has a standard or **expectation** of the other. When the partner meets or exceeds that standard, or comparison level, satisfaction with the relationship occurs. When the standard or **expectation** is not met, dissatisfaction is the condition." (Ledingham, Bruning, & Wilson, 1999, p. 172)
		"[…] quality involves a comparison of **expectations** with performance, and thus satisfaction with services is related to fulfilling **expectations**." (Brønn, 2012, p. 81)
		"[…] one party's satisfaction is determined by the evaluation of perceived discrepancy between **expectations** and actual performance. If one feels that actual performance exceeds the level of **expectations**, he or she is more likely to be satisfied with the relationship. In contrast, if the actual performance is lower than the level of **expectations**, he or she would feel unsatisfactory with the relationship in which he or she is engaged." (Jo, 2006, p. 243).
Trust	13	"First, it [trust] relates to **expectations** about the reliability of the statements and commitments of corporations in general. Second, it relates to **expectations** about the way in which business is conducted. That is, the extent to which an individual **expects** organizations' goals, intentions and outcomes to be consistent with social norms." (Adams, Highhouse, & Zickar, 2010, p. 40)
		"[…] collective trust is largely about individuals' diffuse **expectations** and generalized beliefs regarding other organizational members' trustworthiness." (Kramer, 2010, p. 83)
		"Just as the public's trust increases the public's commitment to an organization, the organization's commitment to meet the public's **expectation** and maintain the relationship probably increases the public's trust in the organization." (Hong, Park, Lee, & Park, 2012, p. 63)
Identity	12	"[…] the identity of an individual organization is linked to the development and establishment of organizational forms and the identity-related norms and **expectations**." (Foreman & Parent, 2008, p. 237)
		"[…} the ideal identity [is] not only […] an identity which meets internal needs and external **expectations**, but environmental changes as well."(Illia, Schmid, Fischbach, Hangartner, & Rivola, 2004, p. 11)
		"If there is any discrepancy between the **expectations** of those stakeholders that the company considers to be important and the company's own perceived identity, the company will find itself compelled to modify those deviant elements in its identity." (Piechocki, 2004, p. 107)

In my literature sample, expectations were used to explain reputation as the ability or capacity to fulfill the expectations posed by stakeholders or publics or as an assessment of how well the organization is meeting expectations (e.g., Coombs, 2007; de Quevedo-Puente, de la Fuente-Sabaté, & Delgado-García, 2007; Westhues & Einwiller, 2006). Furthermore, exceeding expectations was mentioned as a way to strengthen or improve reputation, whereas failing to meet expectations was seen as a source for reputational threats (e.g., Brønn, 2012; de Quevedo-Puente *et al.*, 2007). Responsibility was explained in my sample as conformance to societal expectations or as anticipation of societal expectations (e.g., Golob, Jancic, & Lah, 2009; Westhues & Einwiller, 2006), much in the same vein as legitimacy, which was defined as societal support for organizational actions that result from congruence with societal expectations and norms (e.g., Barnett, 2007; Johansen & Nielsen, 2012).

In terms of organization–stakeholder relations, expectations were mentioned as something that starts relationships (Broom *et al.*, 1997), as well as factors that affect relationships after they are formed, for example, in the sense that relationships include an interchange of needs, expectations, and fulfillment (Ledingham, 2003). My sample also included articles in which relationship management was mentioned as a tool for aligning or reconciling organizational behavior with the expectations of stakeholders or publics (e.g., Bruning & Galloway, 2003). In relation to satisfaction, expectations were mentioned as factors that contribute to why relationships end, particularly as dissatisfaction can result from unfulfilled expectations (e.g., Jo, 2006; Ledingham, Bruning, & Wilson, 1999). In addition to satisfaction in relationships, expectations were connected to satisfaction attached to products and services (e.g., Brønn, 2012).

Expectations were also connected with stakeholder trust in my sample in the sense that trust can be seen to reinforce future positive expectations and generate a feeling of satisfaction—that is, expectations and experiences meet (e.g., Kramer, 2010). Trust was seen to include a willingness to rely on another based on a positive expectation (e.g., Poppo & Shepker, 2010). Finally, the articles that connected expectations with identity called for congruence between organizational identity and expectations. Much in a similar manner as articles that mentioned expectations in connection with reputation, mismatches between expectations and organizational conduct were seen as future threats for identity (e.g., Illia *et al.*, 2004).

These examples from the literature show how widely expectations are used in the public relations literature. As an overall observation, expectations are seen as positive constructions that, when met or fulfilled, will strengthen organizations and/or their relationships with their stakeholders. Furthermore, the connections to reputation, responsibility, relationship, legitimacy, satisfaction, trust, and identity presented above give hints regarding what could possibly be understood better by clarifying expectations at a conceptual level in the academic research on public relations. Besides these individual concepts, expectations were sometimes used in my sample to explain the interlinking between two or more concepts—for example, the expectations of responsibility were

connected to how reputations are assessed (e.g., Berens & van Riel, 2004; Ponzi, Fombrun, & Gardberg, 2011). Thus, expectations can be seen as an intersecting phenomenon in the research field of public relations.

This dissertation contributes in particular to clarifying how expectations form in organization–stakeholder relations and, more specifically, when they concern corporate responsibility. Thus, the theoretical lens is now narrowed down—first to translation as a frame for organization–stakeholder relations and then to corporate responsibility and, more specifically, to corporate responsibility as social connectedness.

2.2 Translation as a frame for organization–stakeholder relations

Scandinavian institutionalism introduces translation as a central term that, though borrowed from linguistics, does not refer to translation from one language to another but from one setting to another (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009; Czarniawska & Sevón, 1996). Translation refers to movement and circulation, where ideas are repetitively modified and transformed, and it describes how organizations actively edit—that is, reformulate—circulating ideas to fit their specific organizational settings (Czarniawska & Sevón, 1996; Sahlin & Wedlin, 2008). Translation explains why seemingly similar organizations can turn out to be heterogeneous upon closer inspection as they have responded differently to the same institutional pressures (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009). Therefore, Scandinavian institutionalism does not treat ideas or pressures that shape organizations as something that emerge from a vacuum, nor are they seen to be passively imitated or copied; rather, they are actively translated, and in the process, they are influenced by other ideas and actors (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009; Sahlin & Wedlin, 2008).

To understand translation as part of neo-institutional theory, three concepts need to be defined: institution, institutional context, and institutionalization. While some applications of institutional theory see institutions as (only) the regulatory forces that shape organizational conduct, I adopt a broader view, according to which institutions are "more-or-less taken-for-granted repetitive social behavior that is underpinned by normative systems and cognitive understandings that give meaning to social exchange and thus enable self-reproducing social order" (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008, pp. 4–5). Based on this view, institutions can be many different things, such as routines, rules, regimens, occupations, society-wide norms, and codified patterns of meaning and interpretation (Haveman & David, 2008). For this thesis, values and norms as shapers of the institutional context are important, especially as I connect them to how expectations are formed (see chapter 4.3). The institutional context, which can also be referred to as the institutional environment, can be defined as the "common understandings of what is appropriate and, fundamentally, meaningful behavior" (Zucker, 1983, p. 105) or as the "rules, norms and ideologies of the wider society" (Meyer & Rowan, 1983, p. 84). Institutionalization can be described as

"the social processes by which obligations or actualities come to take on a rule-like status in social thought and action" (Clegg, 2010, p. 7) or the creation of collective meaning structures through social processes (Strandgaard Pedersen & Dobbin, 2006).

Overall, the importance of the neo-institutional theory and translation for this thesis is that the institutional context is *where* stakeholder expectations are formed. Sahlin and Wedlin (2008, p. 222) assert that when individuals and organizations make sense of a situation and contemplate how to act in it, they are embedded in environments that provide them "with expectations, identities, and rules for action." Expectations are an underlying current in translation and neo-institutional theory in the sense that socially defined expectations define what is considered "appropriate conduct" (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008, p. 26). For example, Schultz and Wehmeier (2010, p. 13) place expectations within the process of institutionalization:

> […] institutionalization can be described as the interplay between (communicative) actions, meanings and actors and the mutual observations and expectations. What triggers institutionalization processes within organizations is the interaction of external conditions, negotiated definitions of problems and mutual constructions of expectations between corporations and other organizations.

Scandinavian institutionalism emphasizes agency, as it shuns the idea that organizations are somehow detached from their institutional contexts or that institutional forces are detached from actors; rather, organizations are seen to take part in shaping and constructing their institutional contexts, and they are seen to negotiate meanings and what becomes institutionalized as part of their interaction with the institutional context and other actors within it (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008, p. 17; Sahlin & Wedlin, 2008, p. 233). It is this quest for agency that has stressed the role of communication and interactions in institutional processes (Fredriksson *et al.*, 2013; Suddaby, 2010; 2011). One of the key scholars of contemporary neo-institutional theory, Roy Suddaby, has stated that "at its core, institutional theory is a theory of communication", as "institutions are formed by, maintained, and changed by communication" (Suddaby, 2011, p. 188).

Scholars of public relations have stressed that the translation of institutional pressures requires communicative actions and strategies, as it requires adjusting something that comes from different settings into something that has (new) meaning in the context within which it is applied (Fredriksson *et al.*, 2013). According to Frandsen and Johansen (2013) the importance of communication and communicative actions has grown as neo-institutional theory has developed: the institutional context is no longer seen as the sender and the organization as the receiver, as, overall, institutional change is seen less as structural determinism and more as a result of the choices and interactions of different actors. The role of public relations in institutionalization has been suggested to be the translator, maintainer, and creator of institutional elements, and thus, public relations is seen to take part in framing and narrating institutional change (Fredriksson *et al.,* 2013).

While Scandinavian institutionalism explains translation that is done by organizations (or the dominant actors inside organizations such as the CEOs and public relations professionals; cf. Frandsen & Johansen, 2013), the idea of translation resonates more widely, as noted in "social translation" (Fuchs, 2009). According to this view, translation is part of all social life, as translation is needed to understand social heterogeneity—that is, the different forms of life in society (Fuchs, 2009; Wolf, 2011). Hence, I see the importance of translation for public relations to be how it explains how different actors, both organizations and stakeholders, take part in shaping the institutional context in which they interact with each other.

The research process for Scandinavian institutionalists often includes detailed observations of practice, including how certain organizational structures are adopted or by whom (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009). Hence, my use of translation is not one that seeks answers to some of the most typical questions of Scandinavian institutionalism. My interest is in the embeddedness of organization–stakeholder relations in institutional contexts and in the institutional context as a context where stakeholder expectations are formed. Therefore, the interest is less in institutionalization as a process or as the mechanics of adopting change and certain structures and more in the institutional context as "complex, often consisting of competing institutional demands" (Greenwood *et al.*, 2008, p. 15), whereby struggle and conflict can arise when different actors negotiate meanings (Clegg, 2010).

When perceived as an action of an organization, translation can be unintentional or deliberate, involving a varying degree of strategizing (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009). Thus, while translation can, at times, have pragmatic motives, at other times, how organizations choose to interpret and translate ideas can have strategic aims and interests. This strategizing can also have communicative dimensions, as strategic communication can be perceived as deliberate and purposeful communication that aims to advance an organization's mission (Hallahan, Holtzhausen, van Ruler, Verčič, & Sriramesh, 2007). Strategizing is, however, not automatically good or bad, but it may include elements that Greenwood *et al.* (2008, p. 25) call the "dark side" of institutionalization, such as manipulation and surface-level or hypocritical conformance. In the field of corporate responsibility, accusations of hypocritical adoptions of corporate responsibility as window dressing are a case in point (e.g., Wagner, Lutz, & Weitz, 2009). Less dramatically, organizations can stress certain areas of corporate responsibility in their translation more strongly than others as a form of strategizing.

In public relations research, the strategic view of translation can be connected to areas such as agenda setting and framing, which aim to focus attention or create salience for certain issues (or certain aspects of a certain issue) over others (Hallahan, 1999; see also Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). In other words, organizations' translations can become visible to others in their communication when they formulate and frame their messages. As noted in the framing literature, the tendency to stress certain aspects over others is not necessari-

ly an attempt to manipulate or spin an issue, as a certain amount of framing is often needed to provide access and context for understanding (complex) issues and processes (Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). However, framing, such as translation, can involve a struggle or a debate over meaning and importance, as different actors can have various, competing frames for the same issue (Hallahan, 1999).

For the purposes of this thesis, translation asserts that organization–stakeholder relations or the institutional context in which they take place are not fixed—that is, there are no fixed meanings and automatic sense–making processes as it is people who interpret, translate, and alter meanings (Schultz & Wehmeier, 2010). Thus, this thesis takes interest in translation as interplay between organizations and other members in their institutional context, and translation is used as a frame for actions and agency when organizations and stakeholders actively shape institutional elements, such as corporate responsibility.

How expectations can contribute to understanding the agreements and disagreements between organizations' and stakeholders' translations will be elaborated in the empirical studies. First, however, corporate responsibility is introduced as a social connection that can add complexity to translation.

2.3 Corporate responsibility as social connection

The research field of corporate responsibility is infused with an abundance of concepts and meanings (Amaeshi & Adi, 2007; Dahlsrud, 2008; Scherer & Palazzo, 2007). To recognize the different forms and areas of corporate responsibility, earlier research has introduced different dimensions, such as environmental, social, economic, stakeholder, or voluntary dimensions (Dahlsrud, 2008) or economic, legal, ethical, or discretionary/philanthropic dimensions of corporate responsibility (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Equally, scholars of corporate responsibility have differentiated between various ways to understand corporate responsibility, for example, from the instrumentalist/positivist view (corporate responsibility as value creation), the normative view (corporate responsibility as moral evaluation), and the political view (corporate responsibility as political engagement) (Scherer & Palazzo, 2007, 2011).

In this chapter, first, definitions are given for how corporate responsibility is understood in this research before moving on to introduce corporate responsibility as social connectedness that includes both direct consequences of action and indirect responsibilities in interdependent processes (Schrempf, 2012; Young, 2006). Overall, I understand corporate responsibility as a phenomenon that deals with the societal role of business (Okoye, 2009, p. 623). As such, I take corporate responsibility as a reflection of social imperatives and the social and environmental consequences of business (Matten & Moon, 2008). I use corporate responsibility as an umbrella term for different concepts that define business–society relations and the responsibilities of business (cf. Scherer & Palazzo, 2007; for an overview of concepts, see Amaeshi & Adi, 2007), and I see corpo-

rate responsibility as something that becomes defined in societal processes, practices, and meanings in which business organizations are embedded in (Dahlsrud, 2008; Okoye 2009). When compared to business ethics as a term, I connect corporate responsibility more concretely to the actual actions that, along with their incentives and consequences, can be discussed and assessed from the viewpoint(s) of ethics. Hence, in a way, corporate responsibility is one way of putting business ethics into practice. However, I see ethics and responsibility as somewhat interrelated concepts, as what they entail and how they are perceived depend on collective assessments, which means that no actor can decide alone what counts as ethical or responsible behavior.

Though the societal role of business can be interpreted through different lenses, Scherer and Palazzo (2011, p. 900) note a "widespread understanding" of corporate responsibility as "compliance with societal expectations", although as the authors note, in an increasingly globalizing context, it can be difficult to identify what these expectations are. Furthermore, business organizations engage in discourses in which the standards and expectations for corporate responsibility are set or redefined (Scherer & Palazzo, 2007, p. 1109). Following these interpretations, I see the demands and expectations of the stakeholders as an important driver of corporate responsibility, but, as discussed in chapter 2.2, I presume that it is both business organizations and stakeholders who construct and negotiate the meaning of corporate responsibility. Thus, it is the different actors in the institutional context, and, ultimately, society at large, who define what counts as responsibility and what is considered ethical business conduct.

Scherer and Palazzo (2011) note a change in the scope of corporate responsibility when they suggest that the division of labor between business and state systems is changing profoundly as businesses now address issues that have previously been responsibilities assigned to nation-states, such as public health, education, social security, business regulation, human rights, and social stability. How this has come to be is a complex process of growing transnational interdependence, new forms of global governance beyond state monopolies, and scrutiny of (global) civil society actors, to mention a few (see Scherer and Palazzo [2011] for a more detailed account). Due to these changes, it is likely that there are no universal or heterogeneous societal expectations to which business organizations can respond, but rather, values, norms, and lifestyles that guide expectations are increasingly diverse (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Consequently, as Scherer and Palazzo (2011) argue, responsibility that depends on liability (legal reasoning for guilt or fault and immediate interaction) explains corporate responsibility and the expectations that are connected to it only to a limited extent; instead, responsibility depends increasingly on social connectedness.

Social connection acknowledges that complex and global problems cannot necessarily be pinned on a single actor. From the viewpoint of social connection, corporate responsibility depends not only on liability and direct links between an action and an outcome (although they are important) but also on the indirect responsibilities that different actors have in interdependent pro-

cesses (Schrempf, 2012; Young, 2006). Social connectedness deals with shared responsibility and demands placed on business organizations based on the consequences of their structural embeddedness (Scherer & Palazzo, 2007; Schrempf, 2012; Young, 2006). These consequences can result, for example, from direct or indirect support, tolerance, or the encouragement of injustice (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011), but the consequences can also include unintentional collective outcomes despite individual actors' good intentions (Young, 2006). Therefore, business organizations can be criticized or even held accountable for benefitting from someone else's ill-doing (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011).

Scherer and Palazzo (2011) argue that, ultimately, social connectedness changes the way in which the legitimacy of business organizations is assessed. Young (2006, p. 122) formulates a somewhat similar idea when she describes social connection as forward-looking responsibility, where the "point is not to blame, punish, or seek redress from those who did it, but rather to enjoin those who participate by their actions in the process of collective action to change it". Thus, legitimacy does not rest only on keeping away from causing (direct) harm but also on engaging in shared responsibility, whereby agents are accountable to each other and challenge one another to address injustices (Young, 2006).

The issues that a single business organization faces via social connectedness can vary depending on the sector or industry (cf. Vidal, Bull, & Kozak, 2010). Different actors are connected to different structural injustices and, in the case of most actors, to more injustices than one can respond to; hence, actors can focus, for example, on the issues over which they have the most influence (Young, 2006). In articles I and V, I call this sector-based responsibility that recognizes that while there are universal corporate responsibility issues that apply to all businesses in general, there are also corporate responsibility issues that vary depending on the industry or sector. Sector-specific traits depend on the operations and unique impacts of the sector and the wider societal issues to which organizations operating in the sectors are connected. This is due to the different ecological and social impacts of different products that ultimately define what corporate responsibility entails for each sector or even each organization. Focusing on sector-based responsibilities narrows the focus to the issues that are relevant to a certain sector, rather than mapping the whole range of generic and nongeneric responsibility issues.

What is important for this thesis is that social connectedness can add complexity to the different ways in which corporate responsibility is translated when stakeholders assess not only liability but also indirect responsibilities. While social connectedness can impose new types of expectations on business organizations, business organizations can also proactively attempt to set or negotiate expectations (Scherer & Palazzo, 2007), for example, by choosing to focus on certain areas of structural injustice to signal their participation in shared responsibilities (Young, 2006). I suggest that the expectations that concern the societal role of business cannot be profoundly understood without first understanding what expectations are in general at a conceptual level that opens room for further theorizing.

The next chapter moves on to introduce the empirical studies that shed more light on how organizations translate their societal role and how stakeholders form expectations concerning this societal role. To begin, the methodological foundations for each sub-study are presented.

3 METHODS AND DATA

In this chapter, the methods and data that were used in the original articles are introduced. As an overall frame, this thesis was guided by a qualitative, interpretive research approach. When following an interpretive approach, knowledge and meaning (or rather, meanings) are not considered to exist out there to be discovered and collected by the means of research; instead, they are interpreted by different actors, including the researcher. Thus, the data does not consist of "things given" but things "observed, and made sense of, interpreted" (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2013, p. xxi). Furthermore, the data is often generated in an interaction that involves the researcher, and throughout the research process, the researcher's presuppositions, choices, and interpretations that are made at the time shape the outcome of the interpretive research (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2013).

Three methods of analysis were used in the original articles: narrative analysis (study 1), concept analysis (study 2), and thematic analysis (studies 3 and 4). For the narrative analysis, the interest was in how the three selected Finnish companies narrate their corporate responsibility and especially their specialization in corporate responsibility—how they give meaning to corporate responsibility and, as viewed from the perspective of Scandinavian institutionalism, how they translate it. The data consisted of corporate reports. For the concept analysis, the goal was to make sense of expectations as they have been identified and understood in the public relations literature by analyzing academic articles. Finally, for the thematic analysis, the aim was to map and interpret stakeholder expectations and to test how expectations can be dismantled into different expectation types. The thematic analysis was targeted to one sector—the media sector—in which several changes are taking place simultaneously, among them the establishment of corporate responsibility alongside journalism ethics (e.g., Adams-Bloom & Cleary, 2009; Jaehnig & Onyebadi, 2011). The thematic analysis was employed in two studies, where the first tested expectation mapping with multi-stakeholder data and the second with single-stakeholder data. The data, selection criteria, and methods are summarized by study in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2 Data, selection criteria, and methods by study

Study	Data	Selection criteria	Generation method	Analysis method
1	Corporate reports (n=16)	Reports from three companies included in the top five listing of the 2007 reputation study of Finnish companies (Arvopaperi, 2007)	(Publicly available)	Narrative analysis
2	Academic articles (n=197)	Targeted searches in most cited, academic, peer-reviewed journals (Pasadeos, Berger, & Renfro, 2010) and test searches	Systematic literature search	Primary: concept analysis Secondary: content analysis
3	Interview transcripts (n=64)	Snowball sampling	Semi-structured interviews	Thematic analysis
4	Interview transcripts (n=13)	Snowball sampling	Semi-structured interviews	Thematic analysis

Each sub-study addressed different questions and gaps; hence, the methods and data were selected to fit their individual focus. The following chapters elaborate on the focus, methods and data of each sub-study.

3.1 Study 1: Narrative analysis of corporate reports

Narratives and narration are embedded in human behavior and interaction (Czarniawska, 2004; Polkinghorne, 1995). Narratives are stories that have a plot to follow, and they are used to organize, process, and pass on information "to entertain, to teach and to learn, to ask for an interpretation and to give one" (Czarniawska, 2004, p. 10). The plot organizes and integrates events, happenings, and actions into a whole with narrative meaning and temporal limits (Polkinghorne, 1995). Narratives can exist in different forms, such as texts, speeches, or discourse and they usually have protagonists (main characters) that, besides individuals, can be institutions, organizations, or groups of people (Czarniawska, 2004; Polkinghorne, 1995). The notion of plotting was the main reason I chose narrative analysis for study 1, as I was interested in the development of corporate responsibility over time. This steered the focus of the analysis to the (ongoing) story or process of adopting responsibilities instead of taking interest in, for example, individual functions of corporate responsibility.

Using narratives in research can take two forms; one can either analyze narratives that are already in a narrative form, such as biographies, or look at any material with a narrative approach by trying to make sense of the material by synthesizing it into a story. This is the difference between *analysis of narratives* and *narrative analysis* (Polkinghorne, 1995, p. 12). As the data used in this

study—publicly available corporate reports—can be seen as ready-made stories in a plotted form, my approach could be described as an analysis of narratives. However, my study also included elements of narrative analysis, such as the synthesizing and plotting that is done by the researcher. As, according to some scholars, the term narrative analysis can be seen as superordinate for different approaches (Boje, 2001; Czarniawska, 2004), I use this term to describe my approach in study 1. Next, I explain in more detail what my approach focused on and what it entailed (as both analysis of narratives and narrative analysis).

The primary focus of study 1 was to understand how business organizations specialize in their responsibility and to familiarize with the research field and become acquainted with its central concepts and practices. This was investigated by looking into the changes and developments of corporate responsibility over time in the three Finnish companies that were selected for the analysis: Metso, Marimekko, and Nokia. The companies were selected based on a reputation study of listed Finnish companies where all three companies were ranked in the top five in 2007 (Arvopaperi, 2007). Each of the three companies represents a different sector: industrial engineering and technology (Metso), textile and clothing design (Marimekko), and information technology (Nokia). As they were highly ranked in the reputation study, the companies are well-known and established. At the time of the selection Metso and Nokia were also among the biggest companies in Finland (by turnover and employees). All three companies have a decades-long history of operating in Finland but they also have international, even global, operations, and hence, they can be perceived as international players in the field of corporate responsibility.

Table 3 lists the reports that formed the data for the narrative analysis.

TABLE 3 Sample of corporate reports in study 1

	Metso	**Marimekko**	**Nokia**
2002	Sustainability report	Annual report	*Not available*
2003	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2004	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2005	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2006	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2007	Sustainability report	Annual report	*Not available in comparable form*

An interesting element for the reports that form the data is that they represent the beginning of the narratives, as Metso's sustainability reports and Nokia's corporate responsibility reports are the first ones the companies ever published, and Marimekko first mentioned corporate responsibility in its annual report in 2002. The time frame for the analysis was set for five years (2002–2007). Though five years is a relatively short period, these particular years are important as they were when these companies started to include corporate responsibility in their reporting. Thus, it is the period when the companies first established—and translated—what corporate responsibility means in their organizations. For Nokia, the time frame was shorter (2003–2006), as the first corporate responsi-

bility report came out in 2003, and a printed or downloadable report was not produced in 2007. However, as my research approach did not depend on accurate measurement but on interpretation, the data from Nokia was analyzed in the same manner as the other two sets of reports. The companies published reports in multiple languages, but my study included only the Finnish reports. This selection was done for the opportunity to execute the analysis in my native language. While the contents of the different language versions are similar, it is possible that some of the terms and vocabulary are different in the English versions produced by the companies, as opposed to my own translations from Finnish to English.

As a narrative is a selection of events and the meanings given to them (Polkinghorne, 1995), the narratives plotted by the companies were not taken as a given; rather, the analysis included dismantling and resynthesizing. In the case of corporate reporting, the narratives are rewritten every year. Hence, they are organizational narratives that are typically not static but change over time, and they can be fragmented and polyphonic (Boje, 2001). These disruptions can be interpreted by the researcher by means of narrative analysis, whereby the researcher (re)plots the story into a coherent whole.

During the analysis, I took interest in *how* companies narrate their corporate responsibility, as well as *what* they narrate when they talk about their corporate responsibility and, more specifically, their specialization in corporate responsibility. Furthermore, my interest was in whether the narrative changed over a period of time. Thus, the goal was to uncover the commonalities but also the differences that existed across the stories (for different years) of each company (cf. Polkinhorne, 1995, p. 14). In the language of institutional theory, I was interested in how the companies have translated corporate responsibility into their operations and structures. The analysis had three phases that are elaborated next (see also Appendix 1).

Phase I essentially involved reading the corporate reports as ready-made narratives to get a sense of the concepts, themes, and elements the companies discussed in their reports.

Phase II entailed identifying narrative elements from the reports in which the companies discussed their own roles as societal actors or their company-specific emphases or niches in corporate responsibility. These extracts from different years were then analyzed company by company to identify recurrent themes and causalities and to organize narrative elements, such as beginnings, ends, stages of development, and turning points (Boje, 2001; Czarniawska, 2004). While the three companies each operated in different sectors, their reports included similar narrative elements and plots, although the actual contents of the narratives were different in each company. At the end of phase II, I chose three narratives for further examination, and these were used to compare the differences between the companies. These three narratives were (1) the role and position of the company, (2) the company’s specialization in corporate responsibility, and (3) the company’s stance on corporate citizenship. Of these narratives, 1 and 2 can be considered more as ready-made narratives plotted by the organi-

zations, whereas narrative 3 was more strongly plotted by the researcher from what was included in the reports and what was not. The concept of corporate citizenship was used in narrative 3 to assess the differences between the organizations (reported in Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010) and later to model different, sector-based corporate citizenship profiles (reported in Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2011).

Phase III started with grouping individual extracts to form the narratives for each company. First, the extracts were organized depending on which narrative they referred to, and consequently, extracts that described other narratives that were out of my scope of interest, such as how different standards or programs of corporate responsibility have been adopted, were omitted. While the groups of extracts now covered the same theme, they were not necessarily plotted, as they were taken from different years' reports. For example, the narrative of Metso that concerned role and position included elements such as descriptions of its status as a pioneer (Metso, 2002, pp. 3, 14; 2003, pp. 3, 12), a leading actor (Metso, 2002, p. 10), and a forerunner company (Metso, 2004, p. 7). Equally, the analysis included extracts of how Metso narrated the consequences of this status:

> Metso is the industry leader in technology and markets. This position alone obliges us to be more transparent and responsible. (Metso, 2004, p. 3)

> We fulfill our environmental and social responsibility by delivering our customer efficient products that utilize different materials efficiently and spare the environment. (Metso, 2007, p. 15.)

For the third narrative, corporate citizenship was used as a tool to compare the companies and to replot and synthesize narratives that describe them as social actors. Two of the companies—Metso and Nokia—used the term corporate citizen in their reports, while Marimekko did not mention the concept when describing general corporate responsibility nor any area of specialization. Metso and Nokia used the concept differently, as the importance of corporate citizenship diminished for Metso during the reporting years, whereas, for Nokia, the importance grew to finally cover the whole philosophy of corporate responsibility. For example, Nokia stated that part of its corporate citizenship is to address societal issues that are connected to its products, such as the role of mobile communication in societal and economic development.

> The role of mobile communication in societal and economic development is a topic we would like to address in more detail and promote via active actions as a corporate citizen. Studies (for example, The Impact of Telecoms on Economic Growth in Developing Countries) have stated that mobile communication has macro-level impacts. We need more evidence of the local impacts on, for example, employment, education and health. This is why we have launched research projects in Sub-Saharan Africa, India, and South-East Asia to examine what kind of societal and economic impacts micro-funding, mobile entrepreneurship and the co-use of mobile phones have on the development of the rural areas of developing countries. (Nokia, 2005, p. 17)

The narrative analysis resulted in a comparison of what kind of citizens the companies were and how their societal role had been translated in their publicly available reports. The three narratives that were formed for each company explained how the companies narrate their specialization or "niche" in corporate responsibility and with which terms they describe it.

As the main purpose of study 1 was to become acquainted with the research field, it was difficult in the beginning to assess which terms and concepts would prove useful in the later stages of the study. The use of corporate citizenship in the narrative analysis allowed for an exploration of the differences between the companies, although in the later studies of the dissertation, corporate citizenship was given less attention. However, what remained important for later studies is the specialization or niche in responsibility, which is referred to as sector-based corporate responsibility in the final article (Olkkonen, 2015). Moreover, the narrative study brought forth expectations as a driver of corporate responsibility, yet expectations were often referred to by the three companies with rather general remarks, such as "We anticipate our customers' and society's environmental expectations" (Metso, 2005, p. 31; 2006, p. 45) and "Good corporate citizenship is listening to stakeholders and responding to their questions and expectations" (Nokia, 2006, p. 10). This raised an important question for the following studies: If expectations are drivers of corporate responsibility, should they be understood more profoundly?

The conceptual approach of studying expectations in study 2 is introduced next, followed by the empirical examples of studying expectations in studies 3 and 4.

3.2 Study 2: Concept analysis of academic articles

Concept analysis can be used to clarify or refine the meaning of concepts (Walker & Avant, 2011). It is a systematic approach to addressing abstract, non-established concepts, as well as established, overused, or vague concepts (Puusa, 2008; Takala & Lämsä, 2001; Walker & Avant, 2011). I use the term concept analysis to refer to an interpretive study of concepts, as opposed to formal concept analysis that uses mathematical calculations to make sense of concepts and concept hierarchy (cf. Takala & Lämsä, 2001).

The goal of (interpretive) concept analysis is to dismantle the concept of interest, to understand the meanings attached to it, and to clarify its connection to adjacent concepts (Puusa, 2008; Walker & Avant, 2011). As a method, concept analysis rests on hermeneutics, and the data typically consists of a wide selection of research literature that mentions and interprets the concept (Puusa, 2008; Takala & Lämsä, 2001). I chose a deductive approach to interpretive concept analysis for study 2, as the aim of the study was to understand and dismantle the different meanings given to expectations in the existing literature. Puusa (2008) notes that the phenomena investigated in scientific research are often

abstract and that concepts travel from one field of research to another. Hence, it may not be evident what the same concept means in different settings.

While concept analysis can be used to formulate an operational or a uniform definition of a concept, the interest of my study was rather to embrace different interpretations of the concept of interest—expectations—and to dismantle and broaden the concept rather than limit it (cf. Puusa, 2008). The reason expectations was selected as the concept of interest was influenced by study 1 in which the concept came up both in the academic literature and in the empirical data. Thus, the goal in study 2 was, first, to make sense of expectations as they have been identified and understood in the public relations literature and, second, to assess this understanding in light of different the expectation types identified in other fields of research. The second phase was added to fill the gap identified in the systematic literature search of public relations research.

The concept analysis was executed in different phases, although the phases overlap and become intertwined as part of the circular (or hermeneutic) process. I loosely followed the analysis framework of Walker and Avant (2011), starting with identifying the concept and setting aims for the analysis and, then moving on to identify different uses of the concept and adjacent concepts, determining the defining attributes of the concept, and, finally, clarifying the concept based on the analysis (see also Appendix 2).

The process started with the formation of an initial understanding of the concept of expectations that was influenced most essentially by the literature stemming from psychology, interpersonal communication, and customer research (see Olkkonen and Luoma-aho, 2014, 2015), as these are areas in which, since the 1970s, expectations have been conceptualized as a multifaceted phenomenon that affects relationships and, more broadly, human interaction. This was followed by the most extensive phase of the analysis: the systematic literature search that targeted journals of public relations research.

In the systematic literature search, the interest was in how expectations have been understood in the public relations literature, as well as what is possibly missing from this body of literature and the different interpretations of expectations within it. The ultimate goal of study 2 was to be able to present a justified definition of stakeholder expectations (see chapter 4.3), but an essential part of the analysis was first to familiarize broadly with different explanations, interpretations, and meanings of the concept to be able to justify a more narrow framing later (Puusa 2008; Walker & Avant, 2011). In my case, the interest was narrowed down to expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. Next, the process of the systematic literature is elaborated in more detail.

First, the articles touching upon the selected concept of expectations were systematically searched for in targeted public relations journals. The final keywords were based on literature from psychology, customer satisfaction, and customer management (see Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2014, 2015), in which both "expectation" and "expectancy" are used to define the same phenomenon. Moreover, the plural forms of both words were used; hence, the final keywords

were expectation, expectations, expectancy, and expectancies. The search was conducted on August 13th, 2013 using EBSCO.

The selection of journals was based on Pasadeos, Berger, and Renfro's (2010) list of the most cited public relations journals and test searches that indicated central journals with relevant hits. After conducting the searches in these selected journals, the results were scanned by reading the abstracts to become familiar with the data and to conduct an initial review of the sample. This phase further limited the number of articles, as only articles that mentioned expectations in relation to organization–stakeholder relations were included. Table 4 below presents the data for study 2. The final number of articles in the sample (n=197) was influenced by the availability of full files and by double-checking the selection criteria.

TABLE 4 Sample of academic articles in study 2

Journal	**First results**	**After applying criteria**	**Final sample analyzed**
Corporate Communications	11	10	9
Corporate Reputation Review	134	107	102
Journal of Communication Management	15	10	9
Journal of Public Relations Research	164	71	68
Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly	10	1	1
Public Relations Review	19	8	8
TOTAL	**353**	**207**	**197**

Next, the actual analysis of the sample was begun by reading each article more carefully and loosely determining a category for how expectations were understood in each article. This was done by reading the parts of the articles in which expectations were mentioned and by determining (1) how expectations were defined (if at all) and (2) to what other concepts expectations were connected. Quantitative content analysis (e.g., Krippendorff, 2012) was used as a secondary method to map the other concepts to which expectations were connected. The content analysis was done by counting how many articles connected a specific concept to expectations (see Table 1; Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015), and its main purpose was to get a sense of the concepts to which expectations were most frequently connected in the targeted literature.

While the targeted literature search was successful in mapping the concepts that were explained with the help of expectations in the public relations literature, the sample included very few actual definitions of expectations. Thus, this gap was filled by identifying different uses of the concept from literature from other fields (cf., Walker & Avant, 2011, p. 161), primarily by turning back to the literature on customer management, customer satisfaction, and interpersonal communication. As this phase was supplementary, it was not systematic, but it included both database searches and snowball sampling. Finally, the analysis was drawn together by presenting an overview of how expectations

have been understood in the academic literature on public relations, and these results were reflected on with the help of literature on customer management, customer satisfaction, and interpersonal communication, which led to the building of the Expectation Grid (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015).

3.3 Studies 3 and 4: Thematic analysis of interview data

Thematic analysis can be seen as a generic tool for different qualitative methods (such as grounded theory or discourse analysis), or, as in my study, as a method in its own right (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is a flexible tool that can be used to "provide a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 78). It is a method that organizes, describes, and interprets the data by identifying and analyzing recurring patterns—that is, themes (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis can be applied across a range of ontological and epistemological approaches (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006). For example, the aim can be to translate qualitative information into quantitative data by scoring, scaling, and clustering themes (Boyatzis, 1998, pp. 128–143). My aim in using thematic analysis, however, was to employ a structured and systematic qualitative analysis that organizes the data with codes and themes. Hence, my own interpretations, observations, and ways of seeing patterns were central to the analysis (cf., Boyatzis, 1998, pp. 7–9). I could also have continued to employ narrative analysis in studies 3 and 4, but as my aim was now to understand a snapshot (of the current expectations) rather than a story developed over time, thematic analysis was chosen to explore the different dimensions and especially the recurrent patterns in the data.

Thematic analysis was used in studies 3 and 4 to analyze the transcripts from semi-structured interviews. The focus of studies 3 and 4 was on a specific sector—the Finnish media sector—and the interviews were conducted with members of different stakeholder groups of Finnish media organizations. Media organizations' corporate responsibility was chosen as the focus of interest, as their societal role and responsibilities have attracted relatively little interest, namely from the point of view of corporate responsibility, whereas the perspectives of media ethics and journalism ethics are explored much more often (Adams-Bloom & Cleary, 2009; Richards, 2004). Corporate responsibility is a relevant angle, as media organizations operate as businesses under economic imperatives, use power as economic entities and, increasingly today, are large conglomerated companies (Richards, 2004). Thus, although media organizations hold a unique and powerful societal position as producers of media content, they are also subject to many of the same forces that affect how the societal role of business is perceived, and how they use their power is a matter of public interest (e.g., Global Reporting Initiative, 2014; Wring, 2012). The perspective of corporate responsibility does not omit media and journalism ethics, but sees them as parts of the sector-specific responsibilities that are always unique to each sector (cf. Global Reporting Initiative, 2014).

The data included 56 individual interviews and eight group interviews, which were used as a whole in study 3 (reported in Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2014), whereas study 4 involved an in-depth analysis of only one stakeholder group (reported in Olkkonen, 2015). In both studies, expectation mapping was tested by means of thematic analysis. Table 5 below lists the interview data.

TABLE 5 Interview data in studies 3 and 4

Interview group	Individual interviews	Group interviews	Used in study
NGO experts	13	-	3 and 4
Advertisers	13	-	3
Journalists	16	-	3
Editors-in-chief	7	-	3
Heads of PR agencies	7	-	3
Digital natives	-	8 (31 participants)	3
TOTAL	**56**	**8**	

Of the representatives of the different stakeholder groups that were interviewed, advertisers' and heads of public relations agencies' relationships with media organizations was business to business, whereas journalists and editors-in-chief looked at media organizations from an insider perspective. The digital natives (those born in the digital era—i.e., the "native speakers" of the digital language; see Prensky, 2001) and NGO experts represented members of the audience. Naturally, the selected group of digital natives and NGO experts represent only a narrow fraction of the audience, but to facilitate a qualitative study, the data had to be limited to keep it manageable. The digital natives were interviewed in particular to tap into the changes induced by the developments of the Internet and especially social media, whereas the NGO experts were interviewed primarily to get a sense of the societal issues connected to media organizations. Together, the six stakeholder groups represented different views, although there were still groups that were framed out, such as investors, suppliers, and governmental representatives. Adding more groups would have brought in more perspectives but would also have made the analysis more complex.

The generation of the interview data was a collaborative effort of a research project to which this dissertation was connected (see Appendix 3). I conducted the interviews of the NGO experts. The interview frames were designed collectively and altered to some degree per group due to the different foci of the relationships with the media organizations. The main topics were similar in all interviews: the interviewees' relationships with media organizations; the interviewees' expectations, needs, and concerns as stakeholders of media organizations; and the interviewees' wishes for the development of their relationships with media organizations. All interviews were conducted in Finnish, except for one interview with the advertisers that was done in English. The collaborative phase extended only to data generation, whereas the analyses in both studies 3 and 4 are my own.

The thematic analysis in study 3 addressed the interviewees' expectations of media organizations in general (that were not limited to corporate responsibility), and it was a phase of testing of what I had conceptualized about stakeholder expectations so far. In study 4 the data was narrowed to include only the interviews with NGO experts to allow for a more in-depth analysis, and particular focus was on the interviewees' expectations of corporate responsibility in the media sector. Part of my interest in the NGO experts was in how NGOs "advocate [citizens'] causes in a broader public context" (Scherer & Palazzo, 2007, p. 1107) but even more on how the interviewees had followed the development of the media sector closely as part of their work, including issues that concern specific stakeholder groups, such as employee treatment or advertising policies, as well as broader societal issues, such as privacy, media literacy, and transparency (that is, issues of social connection). Thus, although the interviewees comprised a limited group, they were able to offer insights into the responsibilities of the media sector, which is a novel field internationally and in the Finnish context (Olkkonen, 2015). Furthermore, the limited group offered the opportunity to execute an in-depth analysis, which was needed to explore the characteristics and formations of expectations in organization–stakeholder relations, which was also a topic about which there was little prior knowledge.

The analyses of studies 3 and 4 were guided by Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps of thematic analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) introduce thematic analysis as a recursive process in which movement takes place back and forth between different steps and over time. The steps progress from recognizing the depth and breadth of content by familiarizing oneself with the data, to coding the data and further onwards to searching, reviewing, and defining themes (see Appendix 3). By coding, the data is organized by identifying features that the researcher finds meaningful in relation to the research question. The purpose of a code is to capture a specific feature of the data and to describe the qualitative richness of the phenomenon (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 31; Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 88).

My approach to coding was primarily data driven, although the initial understanding of the phenomenon had been influenced by a theoretical background. For example, the literature from customer management and customer satisfaction had an influence as it recognizes expectations as positive *and* negative assessments, as opposed to the existing public relations literature (cf. chapter 2.1). However, as this background stemmed largely from fields outside the scope of public relations, there was no preexisting frame for understanding expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. This is why the aim was not to try to fit the data into a preexisting coding frame (as opposed to a theory-driven approach; see Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp. 83–84), but to keep the coding open for themes that had not been addressed by previous research. I saw this as important because the theoretical background, especially in relation to different types of expectations, was mainly concerned with consumers and customers, whereas my interest was in the expectations of a range of stakeholders (study 3) and the expectations of corporate responsibility (study 4). Thus, I added codes in different phases of the analysis as the data was read and reread.

The aim of the coding was to identify the interviewees' expectations both explicitly and implicitly, for example, in the form of needs, hopes, or wishes concerning their relationships with media organizations. This strategy assumed that expectations are not always articulated, but they can be interpreted, for example, in instances in which recent experiences and events are described. Furthermore, it was acknowledged that expectations come from different origins, take place on different levels, and can convey different meanings that deal, for example, with normative as well as predictive issues (cf. Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). In the analysis of study 4, the focus was further narrowed in particular to patterns that were relevant to the responsibility of the media as organizations—as businesses, and as social actors.

After coding, the analysis was taken from the level of codes to the level of themes by combining codes into patterned meanings—that is, overarching themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). The idea of a theme was to form a coherent pattern that described and organized the observations that were made from the data and thus helped to interpret a certain aspect of the phenomenon that was under investigation (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4). I used mind maps to sort codes and to analyze the relationships between them. I organized the patterns that described expectations into larger expectation themes that encompassed different, related expectations. This phase was extensive especially in study 4, in which three aspects were assessed during the analysis: the basis of expectations, the tone (positive or negative) of the outcome, and interviewees' confidence that the expectation would be fulfilled (Olkkonen, 2015). I continued to work with mind maps to review, refine, and, finally, to name the themes.

Figure 4 below presents an example of how one interview extract in study 4 was analyzed: first, by attaching codes and later by connecting them to an overarching theme and, second, by determining (or, rather, interpreting) the tone and confidence the interviewee attached to the expectation.

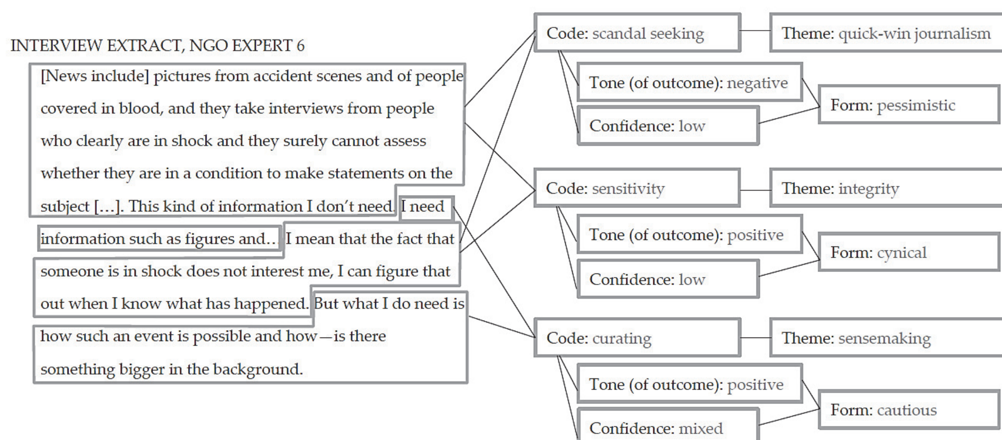

FIGURE 4 Example of an analyzed interview extract

As Figure 4 shows, the extract was given three codes; scandal seeking, sensitivity, and curating. By tone, I mean whether the foreseen outcome that was expressed by the interviewee was seen as positive or negative (for example, scandal-seeking was seen as a negative development, whereas sensitivity and curating were seen as positive behavior). By confidence, I mean how likely the interviewees felt the issue would be resolved by media organizations. For example, in the extract below, the interviewee states scandal-seeking in a rather matter-of-fact manner, implying that this type of development is likely to continue. This likelihood affects the assessment of sensitivity and curating. Thus, the interviewee expects pessimistically that scandal-seeking will continue, cynically that sensitivity will not be achieved, and cautiously that curating is threatened (the different forms of expectations are explained in more detail in chapter 4.3).

The final product of a thematic analysis is a report that embeds the evidence from the data within "an analytic narrative that [...] illustrates the story you are telling about your data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 93). Braun and Clarke (2006) stress the importance of the analytic narrative in thematic analysis, as it is a sign that the analysis is not just a description of the data; instead, the analysis results in illustrative points or analytical arguments that the researcher actively makes based on the data. For the larger data set, I used the fourfold framework of *must*, *will*, *should,* and *could* expectations to report the results, and for the smaller data, I used the Expectation Grid that was developed as a result of study 2 (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). The difference in the frameworks was because studies 3 and 4 took place in different phases of the research process: the Expectation Grid was not yet developed at the time that study 3 was finished. Moreover, the different frameworks are an example of how I worked with partial definitions of expectations in different articles.

4 CENTRAL FINDINGS

This chapter concentrates on presenting a synthesis of the findings reported in the five original articles included in this doctoral dissertation. The aim of this chapter is not to repeat but to provide an overall discussion of the findings and, with it, provide answers to the overarching research questions that guided this thesis: (RQ1) *What characterizes expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?* (including sub-questions: What factors affect the formation of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations? How can expectations be defined in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?) and (RQ2) *How can stakeholder expectations be approached analytically*? (including sub-questions: What factors can be analyzed to map stakeholder expectations? How does an analysis of expectations relate to public relations in practice?). Hence, the articles and their findings are weighed differently in this synthesis, depending on their input to the overarching research questions.

The primary purpose of this thesis was to contribute to the conceptual and empirical understanding of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. In this chapter, first, a short overview of the findings of the original articles is presented. Then, the most central findings for the overarching research questions are discussed. These findings include (1) the conceptual gap identified in the concept analysis of how expectations have been defined and positioned in the public relations literature, (2) a model of expectation formation and a definition of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations by combining results from the concept analysis and the thematic analysis of the media sector data, (3) the elements of a social connection expectation introduced primarily with the results from the thematic analysis of the media sector data, and (4) expectation management as a tool for analyzing stakeholder expectations, developed by combining the overall input of the original articles.

Of these four findings, the first relates primarily to RQ1 and raises the need for a more profound definition that explains the characteristics and formation of expectations. The second result is relevant to both RQ1 and RQ2, as it offers a definition and explains expectation formation that can be used as a ba-

sis for expectation analysis. The third relates to RQ1, as it explains the added complexity of the social connection that is relevant in organization–stakeholder relations, especially when discussing corporate responsibility. Finally, the fourth is most relevant to RQ2, as it aligns expectation management as a function of public relations.

In this chapter, the empirical data is presented to the extent that it expands or elaborates what has been presented in the original articles. The corporate reports and academic articles are referred to by company name or author(s), publication year, and, when needed, page number. The interview data is referred to by identifying the interview group and using a running number for each group (for example, the group of NGO experts are identified as NGO experts 1–13). The translations of the data from Finnish to English are my own.

4.1 Overview of article results

In Timonen and Luoma-aho (2010) (article I), the focal concept was corporate citizenship, which was used to explore and understand how business organizations specialize in their responsibility. The article first opened up citizenship as a political concept and then discussed different interpretations of corporate citizenship. In the article, it was suggested that more than one type of citizenship is needed to fully describe citizenship when it is attached to business organizations. The analysis drew on newer citizenship theories that emphasize citizenship as identity and practice rather than as legal status (for example, Isin & Wood, 1999), and based on the results of a narrative analysis of corporate reports, three types of sector-based corporate citizenship were presented: environmental citizenship (for Metso), technological citizenship (for Nokia), and cultural citizenship (for Marimekko). What was important for the later phases of the research was that, in their narrations, companies seemed to respond to stakeholder expectations by differentiating and specializing in their corporate responsibility. In the article, it was suggested that this specialization could be supported better with communication that names and frames the specialization, or the niche in responsibility, as sector-based corporate citizenship.

The exploration of corporate citizenship was continued in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2011) (article II). The article further conceptualized the different forms of corporate citizenship of the narrative analysis into sector-based corporate citizenship profiles. Furthermore, stakeholder expectations were discussed in this article more strongly in terms of the ever-growing pressures to adopt more responsibility and in terms of the met, unmet, and exceeded expectations. In the article, it was suggested that by using corporate citizenship profiles, companies can articulate their niche to their stakeholders and possibly manage stakeholder expectations by giving expectations a suitable direction and keeping them realistic (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2011, p. 13).

In Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2014) (article III), the main interest shifted to expectations. In the article, expectation mapping was tested empirically with

multi-stakeholder interview data from the media sector that was analyzed with thematic analysis. The media sector formed the context for studying expectations, and media organizations were approached in the article as focal organizations with different stakeholders who can have different expectations. As a theoretical input, expectations were discussed in relation to issues management, relationship management, reputation management, and crisis management in terms of what these areas have taught public relations about expectations and what a more concrete understanding of expectations could add to these established areas. Expectation management was defined as the management of the information that can be extracted from stakeholder expectations. The article introduced a fourfold framework of *must*, *will*, *should*, and *could* expectations that was synthesized from customer management and customer satisfaction research. *Must* expectations were introduced as the basic premises of a relationship and *will* expectations as probability that can be perceived as positive or negative. *Should* expectations were, in turn, defined as normative hopes and wishes that are perceived as possible, whereas *could* expectations represent the ideal level that is not always perceived as possible to attain. Both positive (*must*, *should*, *could*, and positive *will*) and negative expectations (negative *will*) were empirically demonstrated in the context of the media sector.

Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015) (article IV) concentrated on the concept of expectations and how it relates to the research field of public relations. The article reported results from the systematic literature search that mapped how expectations have been defined and conceptualized in the targeted public relations journals. Reputation, responsibility, relationships, legitimacy, satisfaction, trust, and identity were identified as concepts with which expectations were most often associated. An important result presented in the article was the lack of definitions in the sample that will be discussed in detail in the next chapter (4.2). In the article, the gap in the conceptual understanding in the literature sample was addressed by presenting an overview of the different ways in which expectations have been conceptualized in the customer management and customer satisfaction literature. Value-based, information-based, experience-based, and personal interest-based expectations were introduced in the article, and these were further applied to the context of organization–stakeholder relations by presenting the Expectation Grid (Figure 5 below).

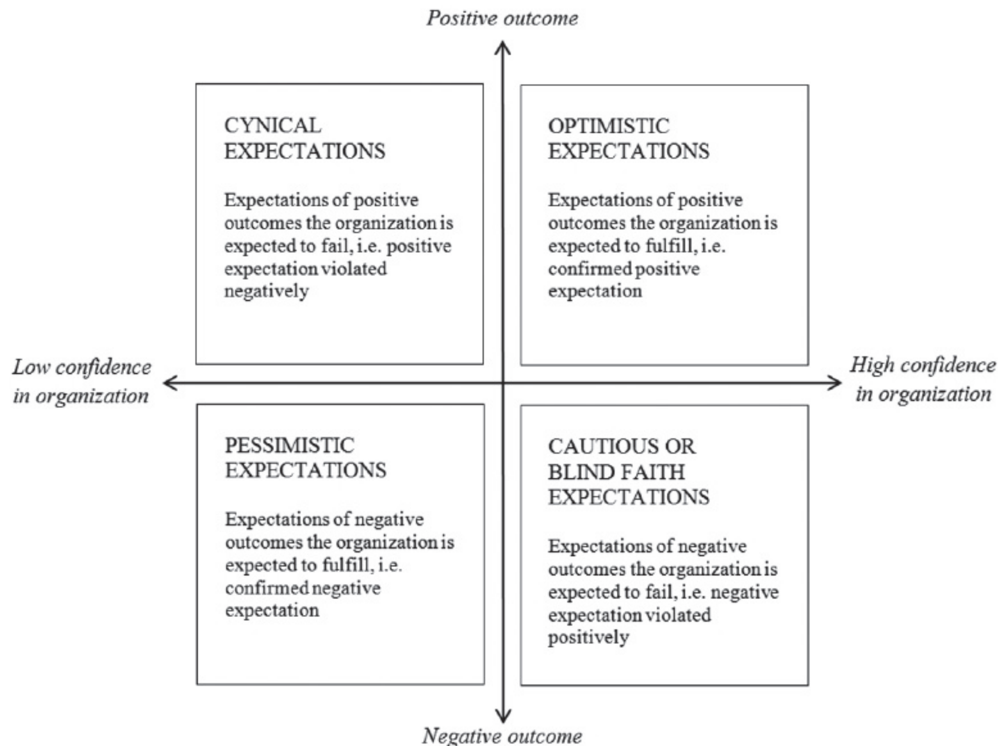

FIGURE 5 The Expectation Grid

Olkkonen (2015) (article V) used the Expectation Grid to test expectation mapping in the context of the media sector. The article discussed the dual responsibilities of media organizations connected to both business ethics and media ethics, and it looked specifically at the sector-specific and social connection responsibilities of media organizations. The article used the in-depth thematic analysis of NGO expert interviews, and it presented three positive and three negative expectation themes for media organizations' sector-based corporate responsibility that were placed on the Expectation Grid, depending on how confident the interviewees were about the fulfillment of the expectations of each theme. The mapping with the Expectation Grid revealed that many of the expectations were intertwined with other expectations, especially in the sense that the positive potential invested in positive expectations was reduced by the negative influence of a negative expectation. The Expectation Grid was, to some extent, revised in this article, particularly in terms of the cautious (unsure) expectations that were repositioned between the cynical and optimistic expectations and the pessimistic and blind faith expectations (along the vertical axis). The Expectation Grid is further revised in chapter 4.3.

In the remaining chapters, the findings of this thesis are discussed more on a meta-level. This is done by seeking answers to the overarching research questions of this thesis shell by synthesizing and elaborating on the findings of individual articles.

4.2 The conceptual gap

The concept analysis of study 2 included a review of how expectations have been defined and positioned in the public relations literature. This study included data in the form of academic articles from six central public relations journals (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). The results of the study indicated a conceptual gap concerning expectations, which is elaborated in this chapter.

Of the 197 academic articles analyzed in the study, only eight offered a definition of expectations. Among these eight, there was variance in how expectations were defined and especially in the depth offered in the definitions. Table 6 below sums up the definitions.

TABLE 6 Definitions of expectations from the literature sample

Definition of expectations	Source
influenced by institutional factors, such as moral values, cultural norms, legal demands, and generally acceptable performance norms in the particular sector	Brønn (2012, p. 81)
determined by the institutional context: norms, values, beliefs, and social definitions	de Quevedo-Puente, de la Fuente-Sabaté, and Delgado-García (2007, p. 66)
beliefs about what should happen	Golob, Jancic, and Lah (2009, p. 458)
standards that are used to judge actual or perceived performance	Grunwald and Hempelmann (2010, p. 266)
originate from culturally based and learned mental prototypes that are used for comparisons	Hallahan (2001, p. 49)
reference points for future assessments	Luoma-aho, Olkkonen, and Lähteenmäki (2013, p. 248)
beliefs about what is to be expected	Podnar and Golob (2007, p. 329)
originate from the mental models people use as internal representations of the manner in which the world works	Reichart (2003, p. 62)

The definitions offered in the sample open up different views of expectations—such as expectations as normative constructions of what should happen (Golob *et al.*, 2009) and expectations as predictive constructions of what will happen (Podnar & Golob, 2007)—that are similar to what has been noted earlier in customer management and customer satisfaction studies (e.g., Summers &

Granbois, 1977). Furthermore, expectations were referred to as judgment standards (Grunwald & Hempelmann, 2010; Hallahan, 2001), reference points (Luoma-aho *et al.*, 2013; Reichart, 2003), and products of the institutional context (Brønn, 2012; de Quevedo-Puente *et al.*, 2007). Together, these eight definitions sum up important characteristics of expectations as beliefs, reference points, standards, or prototypes against which judgments, comparisons, and interpretations are made and as reflections of organizations' institutional contexts. However, very few articles from the sample of 197 articles offered a definition, and even fewer concentrated on studying expectations. Instead, expectations were primarily used to define other concepts, as reported in more detail in Olkkonen & Luoma-aho (2015) and in chapter 2.1.

Three of the eight articles that offered a definition of expectations concentrated on studying expectations. Podnar and Golob's (2007) article studied expectations of corporate responsibility and stakeholder support, Brønn (2012) studied expectations in connection with reputation risks, and Luoma-aho *et al.* (2013) studied expectation analysis in a case organization. The other five articles that included a definition focused on other topics—more specifically, issues management (Hallahan, 2001; Reichart, 2003), corporate responsibility (Golob *et al.*, 2009; de Quevedo-Puente *et al.*, 2007), and crisis management (Grunwald & Hempelmann, 2010)—and thus did not study expectations as such.

The lack of definitions applied to the concept of expectations in general, as well as to expectations that were connected to corporate responsibility. For example, Golob *et al.* (2009, p. 458) define social and stakeholder expectations as the main drivers of corporate responsibility, and Westhues and Einwiller (2006, p. 145) see corporate responsibility as the anticipation of societal expectations and correspondence with corporate behavior and prevailing social norms, values, and performance expectations. Societal expectations were also mentioned by Bitektine (2008), Colleoni (2013), Golob *et al.* (2009), Ihlen (2008), Johansen and Nielsen (2012), and Westhues and Einwiller (2006) in relation to legitimacy that was seen to derive from congruence with societal expectations and norms, or to be dependent on the ability to meet, exceed, or even anticipate different societal expectations. What these societal expectations are in more detail—and, in particular, how they are formed—was often left unexplained. Some hints were given, for example, by Podnar and Golob (2007), who mention that societal expectations can be economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary and that they can touch upon issues such as legislative rules, ethical conduct, trustworthiness, transparency, and responsiveness.

Besides the lack of definitions, study 2 revealed a bias concerning the tone of expectations (see, e.g., Weber and Meyer [2011] for an introduction to negative and positive tones). The sample included only five articles that recognize expectations as both positive and negative constructions. Of these five, the article by Golob *et al.* (2009) is the only one that was included in the articles that offer a definition of expectations. They briefly mention "skeptical expectations" that are connected to issues such as nontransparency and distrust (Golob *et al.*, 2009, p. 462). However, in their definition of expectations, Golob *et al.* (2009, p.

458) see expectations as positive and normative ("beliefs of what should happen"), which makes their presentation somewhat ambiguous.

Of the other four articles that recognize expectations as negative, Adams *et al*. (2010, p. 42) and Poppo and Schepker (2010, p. 133) explain distrust with the help of negative expectations. Mahon and Wartick (2003, pp. 23–24) connect expectations to reputation and use the term "reputational expectations", which can create assets (when positive) or difficulties (when negative) for organizations. Finally, Heath and Abel (1996, p. 164) note negative expectations when they define "sense of risk" as an expectation that something unfortunate could or would occur. The articles that recognize expectations as negative broaden the understanding of expectations in the public relations literature. However, they form a feeble voice, as they are a clear minority in the sample, and, more importantly, none of the articles concentrated on studying expectations empirically.

The rest of the articles either mentioned expectations only as positive constructions or mentioned expectations only briefly without taking a stance on whether they are positive or negative. For example, Coombs (2007, p. 164) describes how "stakeholders compare what they know about an organization to some standard to determine whether or not an organization meets their expectations for how an organization should behave", and Bennett and Gabriel (2003, p. 278) note how "reputational judgments create expectations in the public mind" concerning future behavior. The ways in which expectations have been connected to other concepts as positive constructions are reported in more detail in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015) and in chapter 2.1. On a general level, expectations were typically treated almost as observable data in the article sample, as if one automatically knows, first, what is meant by expectations and, second, how to identify what they are.

To conclude, the concept analysis revealed a scarcity of definitions for expectations in the analyzed sample. Furthermore, the definitions that were given typically concerned a single dimension of expectations (as beliefs or judgment standards, for example). This proves that expectations are an under-conceptualized area in the public relations literature, yet expectations are connected to central concepts of the field, such as reputation, responsibility, and relationships. In the sample, expectations were seldom defined and even more rarely problematized as a research topic.

The next section concentrates on addressing this conceptual gap by building a model of expectation formation and a definition of expectations based on empirical data and analysis.

4.3 Formation and definition of expectations

To understand the information that expectations convey about organization–stakeholder relations, the findings are discussed next from the viewpoint of multiple explanations of expectations. More specifically, this chapter introduces

a model of expectation formation and a definition of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations by utilizing three perspectives that were used in the original articles to dismantle expectations: the basis of expectations (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015), the level of expectations (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2014), and expectations assessed in the context of organization–stakeholder relations (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). Next, each is briefly summarized.

First, in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015), a synthesis of different expectation types was presented. In this article, expectation types were given different categories depending on the basis on which they are formed: values, information, experience, or personal interest. Essentially, the basis refers to the factors that drive expectation formation. The article used literature from customer management and customer satisfaction to broaden the under-conceptualized view of expectations that has dominated the public relations literature. The review of this literature is not systematic, but it draws together a vast body of literature, most of which addresses two to four expectation types at a time (see, in particular, Table 2 in Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). Therefore, different characteristics of expectations are connected in the article and are further synthesized by categorizing them according to the basis that predominantly drives their formation; value-based expectations rest on ideals or norms, information-based expectations depend on the information that is available (or unavailable), experience-based expectations stem from direct or indirect previous experience, and personal interest-based expectations are expectations that are influenced by what is considered as deserved or desired.

The second perspective of expectations was presented in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2014), in which expectations were given four levels in an empirical analysis: minimum acceptability (*must* expectations), probability (*will* expectations), normative hopes and wishes (*should* expectations), or ideal possibilities (*could* expectations). The level refers to the notion that expectations can differ in what they address; the minimum level that must be, the probable level that is likely to be, the normative level of what should be, or the ideal level of what could be. This level affects how the fulfillment of the expectation is assessed, as a violation of a *must* expectation is not likely to be tolerated, whereas a *could* expectation might not be expected as a general rule. There is some overlap between the levels of expectations presented in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2014) and the expectation categories presented in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015); for example, *should* expectations are included in the category of value-based expectations, and both articles differentiate between different "bases" of expectations. However, in retrospect, *must*, *should* and *could* are not actually bases but future-oriented statements about how things must, should, or could be in the future, whereas *will* is always attached to a context-specific assessment about the future and how an individual or organization will behave in the future. This will be elaborated later in this chapter.

The third perspective concentrates on expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations or, more specifically, on assessment that affects the final form of an expectation when viewed from the perspective of an organ-

ization. In Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015), the context of organization–stakeholder relations was built on expectancy violation theory from interpersonal communication (Burgoon, 1993; Thomlison, 2000) that recognizes expectations within relationships. Central to expectancy violation theory is the assessment of expectations that depend on whether expectations prove to be accurate or whether they are violated by the relational partner. The article presented expectations as positive and negative and, furthermore, presented the Expectation Grid as a four-quadrant model of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations, including cynical expectations, optimistic expectations, pessimistic expectations, and cautious/blind faith expectations. These expectations depend on the confidence invested in the organization—that is, the perceived willingness and ability of an organization to provide outcomes that are valued by the stakeholders. Essentially, the Expectation Grid combined the expectation tone (positive or negative) and the confidence placed in an organization (high or low) and, thus, acknowledged that expectations are not a unidimensional concept. The Expectation Grid was tested in Olkkonen (2015) and further revised, especially in terms of the cautious expectations that were seen to exist in between the cynical and optimistic expectations, as well as between the pessimistic and blind faith expectations.

Figure 6 presents a synthesis of the three perspectives introduced above. The figure revises and organizes the perspectives presented in the original articles, and, moreover, specifies some of the inconsistencies, especially concerning terminology and how different characteristics of expectations were paralleled or contrasted in the original articles. The most important revisions are the following:

- Associating the different "bases" of expectations from Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015) with different phases of expectation formation. More specifically, while values, information, experience, and personal interests can all affect expectation formation, they belong to different processes that are not separate but embedded: values and interests are relatively static and not dependent on any particular organization, whereas information and experience affect the assessment when it is applied to a specific organization.
- Separating *will* from *must*, *should*, and *could*. This is also connected to the embeddedness of different phases of expectation formation: *must*, *should*, and *could* are about normative (static) assessments that are related to values and interests, whereas *will* is predictive, and hence always connected to an organization-specific assessment.
- Replacing "blind faith" expectations with "hopeful" expectations. This is to revise the Expectation Grid; the counterpart of optimistic expectations was pessimistic expectations, and initially, the counterpart of cynical expectations was suggested to be blind faith or cautious expectations. Later, the area of cautious expectations was moved (in study 4, Olkkonen, 2015), and hence, the term that was left to describe the confidence in preventing negative outcome—

"blind faith"—might be too extremist, especially when compared to the other forms of expectations on the Expectation Grid. Revisiting the interview data gives hints that expectations that might suit the description of hopeful expectations exist, especially when there was interlinking between the interviewees' positive and negative expectations. I present two interview extracts in which the interviewees discuss their *hopes* for avoiding negative outcomes. First, an interviewee talks about entertainment saturation:

> […] that if you have active and participative and smart media users, it is only a good thing, I hope it will go in that direction—that they will not only rely on that if everyone buys [the yellow press], then they only make more of the same, offer the same thing. That the media would have more courage to bring forth such issues that are important and not only serve this existing cycle that there is one celebrity that is taken for a spin for a while, and then there is another. (NGO expert 1)

The interlinking takes place between a negative outcome—that media content becomes saturated with entertainment and light news—and a hope that the media can break this cycle.

In the next extract, the interviewee talks about media concentration:

> We have great things happening—there are magazines […] that form a counterforce somehow, even though one can argue that even their journalism is produced from an elitist perspective. But there are attempts to break [mainstream journalism]—for example, the youth have their own [magazine]. There are attempts, and as a media educator I would hope that we will not stay in this [state] that we already have some [new forms] but that we try to develop it further and bring forth opportunities. And this has to do with the future in the sense that I would be very hopeful to see how mainstream journalism might be a lot different than it currently is. (NGO expert 8)

This extract shows interlinking with concentrated media and the hope brought about by the development of new media forms. The interviewee even indicates examples of where that hope is stemming from—for example, the youth magazine. These extracts provide support for the notion of hopeful expectations, although this expectation type was not dominant in my data. Hence, this category might need further clarification.

With these revisions, Figure 6 sums up a model of expectation formation in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. It associates the different bases of expectations with different phases of expectation formation—values and interests with the normative baseline, and information and experience with the predictive assessment. As a result of the normative and predictive phases, stakeholders can form optimistic, hopeful, cynical, or pessimistic expectations that form the positive and negative realms of stakeholder expectations (which are the revised version of the Expectation Grid from Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). If stakeholders are unsure about their confidence in an organization, they are likely to have cautious expectations that are neither positive nor negative. These expectations exist between the positive and negative realms of expecta-

tions. Next, the details of each phase of expectation formation are discussed individually, followed by a definition of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations.

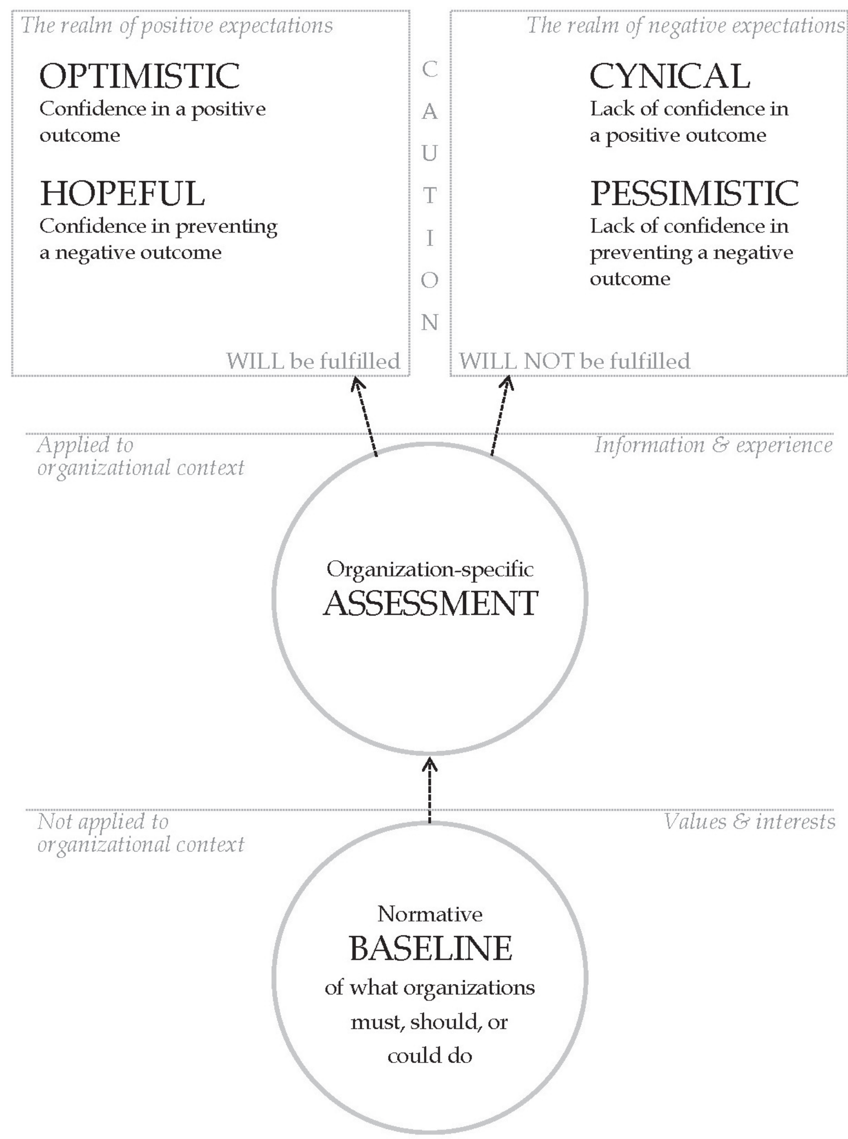

FIGURE 6 Formation of stakeholder expectations

Expectation formation starts with what I call the baseline of expectations (bottom of Figure 6). The baseline is affected by values and interest, and in the con-

text of organization–stakeholder relations, it refers to stakeholders' perceptions, attitudes, and opinions of what organizations must, should, and could do. The *must* represents the minimum requirements, the *should* is something that is seen as reasonable and possible, and the *could* represents the ideal level. The baseline of expectations is relatively static, and it is not applied to any organization in particular. The baseline of expectations is illustrated with two interview extracts from the NGO expert interviews:

> […] the whole original idea of media is to share information, share information that is as honest as possible, and that is how it should be (NGO expert 4)

> […] it is the media's responsibility that as many people as possible know what is going on and how different events affect people's own lives (NGO expert 1)

In these extracts, the interviewees assess media organizations on an abstract level: they are not applying these assessments to any particular physical organization, but they talk about how things should be based on what they perceive as valuable.

The expectation moves under the influence of information and experience when it is applied to a specific organization and the relationship with that organization (center of Figure 6). This is when the predictive element of *will* affects the assessment based on the information that is available, as well as previous experience. This assessment is fundamental for expectations from the viewpoint of organizations, as it determines whether an expectation turns out positive or negative. How the expectation develops when applied to the context of organization–stakeholder relations is demonstrated in this interview extract, in which a journalist talks about employment and current working conditions:

> […] the working conditions of journalists are getting worse all the time. All media companies are under huge pressure to kick out [employees], to increase efficiency. Then, it will probably lead to working conditions getting worse because people must be laid off, and then the journalist needs to do more in the same amount of time as now, and […] it is bad concerning the role [of journalists], because the journalist should be even more active than before in order to transmit relevant information and offer background, to make things concrete. But if […] there is less time to dig into those issues, then it necessarily gets thinner, and [the journalist] becomes a more superficial serial writer. At least I am scared that it will lead to that. (Journalist 7)

The interviewee expresses negative expectations that employment will be unsteady, that there will be layoffs, and that those who manage to keep their jobs are put under increasing pressure. Implicitly, one can also interpret the state of affairs that the interviewee wishes to exist (the normative baseline)—that is, that journalists would be able to concentrate on transmitting relevant information, offer background, and have time to dig deeper into issues that are important. However, due to experience and information, the interviewee sees that these hopes (or values) are not likely to be met when applied to an actual organization.

The predictive assessment leads to the actual expectation (top of Figure 6). A positive expectation can be either optimistic, when the organization is ex-

pected to deliver a positive outcome, or hopeful, when the organization is expected to prevent a negative outcome. A negative expectation can be either cynical, when the organization is expected to fail to deliver a positive outcome, or pessimistic, when the organization is expected to deliver a negative outcome. These different forms of expectations comprise the positive and negative realms of stakeholder expectations that are the revised version of the Expectation Grid. Between these realms is the area of caution, which occurs when stakeholders are unsure whether they can trust the organization's willingness and ability to either deliver a positive outcome or prevent a negative outcome. The difference between the cynical and pessimistic expectations is subtle, as they both indicate a lack of confidence. In the context of corporate responsibility, for example, a pessimistic expectation would be that an organization pollutes the environment or utilizes child labor (active contribution to a negative outcome), whereas a cynical expectation perceives the company as incapable of applying the latest environmental technology or ethical supply chain management (an undelivered positive outcome). The same applies to optimistic and hopeful expectations; the difference is in how active the role of the organization is perceived to be—that is, whether the organization is actively contributing to something positive or merely preventing something negative from happening.

To illustrate the whole process of expectation formation in the context of organization–stakeholder relations, I take three interview extracts under closer examination. In these extracts, the interviewees talk about impartiality and about accommodating different voices in media production:

> […] of course, I would hope that many other perspectives would be represented in the media than the views that are usually there. In my work, somehow, I come across, for example, that immigrants are in the news only in connection to certain issues, and they get to speak only in relation to certain issues, but otherwise, they are very invisible. (NGO expert 8)

> […] that one gets current information, information that—of course it can never be completely objective, but it would […] bring forth different perspectives. (NGO expert 10)

> […] how children are portrayed in the media, children and adolescents. Do they get to speak, or does someone speak on their behalf? Are they portrayed as victims, passive actors, objects, or active actors? And how issues that concern children and adolescents are portrayed in the news in Finland. And this also applies to other groups, if you think about it more broadly; how, for example, do refugees get [to speak]? Is there someone always speaking on their behalf? […] Or socially excluded people […] do they get to speak? If there is always someone else telling that this and this is happening, but the people don't get to [speak for themselves]. (NGO expert 7)

The expectations expressed in these three extracts all share the same baseline: that multivocality and impartiality are good and are something that media organizations should promote. The interviewees recognize that objectivity is an ideal that already lowers their confidence in their expectations concerning impartiality. Furthermore, the interviewees draw on their experience of how certain groups are represented only narrowly in the media. This sets a cynical tone for their expectations: although they think that the media should produce im-

partial news (positive outcomes), in reality, this is rarely achieved (lack of confidence) due to the unachievable ideal of objectivity or due to bias regarding who gets to speak for whom. Thus, the expectations that are formed are cynical.

In study 4, the majority of the expectations that were identified were cautious. The expectations were cautious when the interviewees were hesitant about how things would evolve—for example, when positive expectations were interlinked with negative expectations, thus pulling in opposite directions. Here, an NGO expert reflects on recent experiences with the media:

> […] my stance has become a little bit critical. And this stems from my own experiences when I have given an interview and then the interview has come out, and although the things I have said are correct, the journalist has, for example, made such choices in terms of the headline and framing that, in my opinion, they have changed [the original] meaning. And if I have looked through the comments that people have made […] I have noticed that I am not the only one who thinks that the meaning has changed. So I have learned to think about things in terms of if, for example, I read that someone has said this and that, I have reservations, especially concerning headlines. And when one is familiar with journalistic principles to some extent, how they do things nowadays. Clicks are so incredibly important, for example, in newspapers and how stories are shared, so, of course they have to make headlines that are attractive. I understand it, but it also upsets me. (NGO expert 8)

The interviewee's own experiences are contrasted with the baseline of how media must and should act concerning issues such as informing, curating, and society building. The assessment is affected by the experience of previous disappointments, and the interviewee is unsure whether media organizations can break this behavior. The interviewee describes an increase in criticism and reservations toward the style of media production. Thus, the interviewee has reservations—that is, has cautious expectations regarding whether informing, curating, and society building can be achieved.

To summarize the findings on expectations as a concept, I suggest that in the context of organization–stakeholder relations, the baseline for expectations is derived from stakeholders' values and interest that are not dependent on the actions of any particular organization. When the baseline level is assessed in the context of a specific organization, it is affected by information and experience. This assessment makes an expectation positive or negative, depending on the confidence placed on an organization's willingness and ability to provide desired outcomes or prevent undesired outcomes. Therefore, I define expectations as *positive or negative future-oriented assessments of an organization's ability and willingness that form in the interplay between normative and predictive factors and can, ultimately, convey optimism, hope, cynicism, or pessimism toward the organization and its actions*. This definition plays a part in filling the conceptual gap in current the public relations literature. Specifically, the definition takes into account that expectations are multi- rather than one-dimensional, and to understand them, different phases in expectation formation and different factors that influence the process are to be understood simultaneously.

From the viewpoint of translation, the formation and definition of stakeholder expectations presented in this chapter suggest that that there are no val-

ue-free expectations, as even when the expectation deals with a negative outcome, it is compared with the values and interests that relate to a desired state of affairs (the baseline in Figure 6). However, values can take many different forms, for example, from economic values to societal values. Interests can also vary, for example, from very limited self-interest to utilitarianism. Overall, the value of a more profound understanding of expectations and their formation lies in how it can open up how stakeholders translate institutional contexts and how they respond to organizations' translations: whether they agree (have optimism or hope) or see gaps (are cynical or pessimistic) regarding the ways in which the organizations have translated pressures related, for example, to the organizations' societal roles and responsibilities.

4.4 Social connection expectations

To demonstrate what an expectation of corporate responsibility would look like when it deals with social connection, this chapter takes an example from study 4 under closer inspection. Based on the interviews with NGO experts, in Olkkonen (2015), it was suggested that audience enabling that consisted of the expectations of media literacy, participation, and challenging the audience is an important future area of corporate responsibility as social connection to the media organizations. These three expectations deal with providing the audience with tools to help them develop their own (critical) thinking and abilities to assess media messages and, in a digital era, to increasingly take part in media production. Similar to several other expectations in study 4, these expectations relate both to media/journalism ethics and business ethics, as organizational practices, standards, and policies affect how well the positive outcomes assessed in the expectations can be achieved in media production or in the actions of individuals, such as journalists, who engage in this production. The interviewees had confidence in media organizations' willingness and ability to fulfill these expectations, and they noted that a great deal is already being done in this area; for example, many media organizations have in-house media education experts.

The expectation of promoting media literacy is an illustrative example of an expectation that deals with social connection, as it is essentially about the impacts that media organizations' end products have on individuals and society at large. My interviewees saw a growing need for media organizations to take part in promoting media literacy, as it is their products that are at the center of the debate:

> […] there is so much information that it [media literacy] is perhaps a citizen skill, especially for the young people to master, and for us too. When there is so much information, you should know how to choose what information you actually need and what you don't need. (NGO expert 4)

> […] we should get parents to take more interest in their children's media content and to participate in their children's everyday media [use]. I feel that this would need co-operation from the media. That media houses, producers, content producers and makers are involved in this discussion. And in my view this conversation does not have to have an accusing tone at all; [instead] there could be a conversation in which no scape goats are sought, but the realities are out in the open. (NGO expert 8)

> […] why couldn't the media industry or media houses get more involved in building people's own media skills even more than they are now? (NGO expert 1)

The expectation of participation was also closely connected to media production, and it was criticized as being mostly welcomed in the entertainment media, as opposed to media content with more societal weight:

> Now when people's and citizens' own ways of influencing and own opinions and views and knowledge become visible, I see it as a good thing, but I see that people would have so much more potential than to merely participate in various reality shows. (NGO expert 1)

The interviewees felt that the (societal) use of participation has not reached its full potential, and in fact, they felt that media organizations have lacked ambition in regard to using participatory tools and processes. Even at its best, participation was seen to be used for interactive journalism in which participation is limited mostly to discussion and feedback from the audience's side, whereas genuine coproduction is much rarer. However, the interviewees felt optimism about participation, as the Finnish public is digitally competent and well equipped to take a more active participatory role, especially when it comes to future generations.

Compared to media literacy and participation, the expectation of challenging the audience is a more abstract expectation that does not imply direct recommendations for organizational actions. Challenging the audience refers to the development of critical thinking, and it is about finding a balance between offering the audience different views and leaving room for making one's own conclusions and assessments. The expectation is about social connection in the sense that it is about how media products influence people and the role of the media as a sensemaker in society:

> […] I call for a certain kind of trust in the media users' ability to interpret and in their own skills. I feel that it is incredibly difficult to find such information that is not already very simplified or processed, except for the original sources. (NGO expert 6)

> I hope that media companies and the media industry would […] have more courage to challenge more and more people to confront important and meaningful information—information, issues, and phenomena that are relevant to their own lives. And to encourage people to bring forth their own opinions and thoughts (NGO expert 1)

The expectation of challenging the audience is perhaps a bit contradictory to the expectation of promoting media literacy, as on the one hand, the interviewees call for education on media literacy, but on the other hand, they mention that media organizations should trust their audience's abilities. However, the two

expectations can also be seen as supportive of each other if media literacy is about increasing critical thinking and challenging the audience is about offering such content where that criticism can be put to use. What is important from the viewpoint of social connection is that all three of the aforementioned expectations touch upon the consequences of media organizations' core business—the impacts that media products have on people's lives. The interviewees recognize that there are also other actors involved, for example, concerning media literacy, but media organizations have a central role, as it is their products that are at the center of the debate.

This example of social connection expectations adds to the understanding of expectation analysis and why more profound analytical tools might be needed. Although the example of audience enabling involved expectations—media literacy, participation, and challenging the audience—that had an optimistic outlook, the example discussed how media production is connected to the impacts of the media business on important societal issues that are often complex and involve different actors. As the interviewees were optimistic about these issues, they expect the issues to be translated firmly to media organizations' corporate responsibility agendas, or there will be a mismatch between the translations of the interviewees and the organizations. The notion of social connection helps to explain how far and in which direction expectations of responsibility extends—that is, what is the range of societal issues that a certain organization is associated with and is expected to address. This connects expectation analysis to public relations as a function that takes interest in what is taking place in the (institutional) environments that surround organizations and which issues are gaining importance.

The next chapter gives expectation mapping and analysis a more formalized structure as expectation management and discusses how it relates to public relations practice.

4.5 Expectation management

To address the information that stakeholder expectations convey from a more managerial and practical perspective, this chapter presents an approach to analyzing expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. I call this approach expectation management and discuss it as part of public relations. In essence, expectation management uses the model of expectation formation, as explained in chapter 4.3, as a tool for systematic analysis. The notion of expectation management is derived from two routes; first, from the analysis of corporate reports in which expectations played a role in the narration of corporate responsibility (study 1) and, second, from the concept analysis that connected expectations with central areas of public relations, such as reputation, responsibility, relationships, and legitimacy (study 2). Studies 3 and 4 support the development of expectation management with findings from the media sector. Thus, the idea of expectation management as a function of public relations

is developed throughout the original articles. The findings of the sub-studies are discussed in this chapter from a more normative perspective (how organizations should deal with expectations), as opposed to the conceptual perspective of the two former chapters.

The idea of expectation management is sparked as a result of study 1. However, the perspective in the first version of the idea in Timonen and Luoma-aho (2010) is close to what Botan and Taylor (2004) call functional: that by building a corporate citizenship niche organizations can more accurately (or strategically) describe what they are doing in terms of responsibility, and by this, they may be able to adjust stakeholder expectations for their own advantage. Though my understanding of expectation management becomes less functional as it progresses, study 1 was important for starting this process, as it brought forth the notion that expectations are part of responsibility narration, especially when companies position themselves as societal actors.

Expectations were mentioned throughout each company's reporting in study 1. Metso mentioned expectations in connection to its niche in responsibility which concentrated on environmental sustainability:

> Metso's customers expect responsible conduct from us concerning all stakeholders and the environment. (Metso, 2004, p. 24)

> We anticipate our customers' and society's environmental expectations. (Metso, 2005, p. 31; 2006, p. 45)

> Sustainable solutions can be expected of Metso everywhere we operate. (Metso, 2007, p. 2)

Marimekko mentioned expectations as drivers of how it develops its corporate responsibility:

> As our business grows and diversifies, the company faces new demands and expectations. (Marimekko, 2005, p. 5)

> In order to respond to stakeholders' expectations better than before, and to develop responsibility actions, Marimekko launched the building of a corporation-wide social responsibility management system. (Marimekko, 2007, p. 28)

Finally, Nokia put stakeholder expectations at the center of its strategy development concerning not only corporate responsibility but overall business strategy:

> It is equally important to understand what our customers expect from our products as it is to understand what different stakeholders expect from us as a company. Interaction with stakeholders is an opportunity to discuss their views and expectations and to transform them into added value for business. (Nokia, 2003, p. 5)

> In our view, setting financial objectives for corporate citizenship actions is not meaningful. However, we acknowledge the expectations directed at our corporation in this area, and we aim to meet them as well as possible. (Nokia, 2004, p. 39)

> Good corporate citizenship is listening to stakeholders, responding to their questions and expectations, and developing business accordingly. Nokia's strategy is to transform stakeholders' expectations into business value. (Nokia, 2006, p. 10)

Of the three companies that were studied, Metso was the only one that reported how it understands stakeholders' expectations and how it comes to know what they are—for example, via customer satisfaction studies, meetings and events, and employee satisfaction studies (Metso, 2004, p. 13; 2005, p. 12; 2006, p. 14); however, only positive expectations were mentioned. Nokia mentioned expectations on many occasions in its reporting, whereas Marimekko mentioned expectations only briefly. However, based on the narrative study, expectations were part of the translation process of corporate responsibility in each company; according to the reports, expectations affected how organizations "behave" and what actions they engage in regarding responsibility (or, at least, how they were reported and narrated).

In Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2011), the results of study 1 were elaborated, in particular from the viewpoint of corporate citizenship "profiles" that were derived from the different niches of responsibility based on the narrative analysis. It was suggested in the article that organizations can "exceed and manage stakeholder expectations" (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2011, p. 13) and avoid the "slippery slope" (Fredriksen, 2010, p. 364) of unfocused and unintegrated corporate responsibility with the help of a corporate citizenship profile (as a means to streamline actions and communication). This view was, however, mostly functional, although it was noted in the article that "both what is expected of the company and what the company is willing to deliver needs to be constantly negotiated between companies and their stakeholders" (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2011, p. 15).

In the concept analysis of study 2, the idea of expectation management was developed by investigating how expectations have been connected to various areas of public relations (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). To summarize the findings, a good reputation could be seen to result from fulfilled expectations, and the continuation of relationships could be seen as dependent on whether or not expectations are met. Moreover, according to the concept analysis, the disparities between societal expectations and organizational actions were often seen as threats to organizational legitimacy, whereas meeting societal expectations was a sign of responsibility. This analysis located expectations in the field of public relations in the intersection between reputation, responsibility, relationships, legitimacy, satisfaction, trust, and identity.

As part of study 3, four areas of public relations were discussed in more detail in connection with expectations: issues management, relationship management, reputation management, and crisis management (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2014). It was suggested that, as a function, expectation management is part of monitoring, especially concerning weak signals that are relevant to the four areas of public relations that were discussed. As was stated in the article, expectation management can help organizations to analyze (1) the causes and priority of issues; (2) the willingness to begin, continue, or end relationships; (3) reputa-

tion as confidence and lack of confidence in organizations; and (4) mismatches in expectations that can cause crises for organizations. Therefore, expectation management bridges different areas of public relations, such as issues management, relationship management, reputation management, and crisis management, by providing information about stakeholder expectations as positive or negative future-oriented assessments that can convey optimism, hope, cynicism, or pessimism toward the organization and its actions. The strategic value of expectation management lies especially in how it can add depth to how organizations understand their stakeholders and, in particular, fragmented environments that may have conflicting expectations.

To address the lack of definitions for expectations in the literature sample, different ways to understand expectations were introduced in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015). Most importantly, the Expectation Grid acknowledged expectations as positive and negative constructions, and the empirical data from studies 3 and 4 supported this idea (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2014; Olkkonen, 2015). In the article, understanding, analyzing, and categorizing expectations were stressed as the means to derive information from expectations. These functions were weaved into a definition of expectation management in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2014, p. 233):

> We define expectation management as an organization's ability to manage its own understanding of what is expected of it, especially in terms of different expectation types and their differences in relevance and priority.

This definition resulted in an important shift in how the notion of expectation management develops in the original articles, and, more specifically, what exactly was suggested to be managed. The earlier articles talked about managing (or adjusting) stakeholders' expectations, whereas the focus was now on managing the information that is derived from a systematic analysis of stakeholders' expectations. More specifically, the definition resulted in a shift from a functionalist view toward an emphasis on relationships (cf. Botan & Taylor, 2004).

Instead of claiming that organizations can adjust their stakeholders' expectations, the definition above acknowledges that organizations can influence expectations at best only partially. This notion is also important from the point of view of public relations ethics and the value that is given to the stakeholders; do all attempts to understand stakeholders and organizations' environments aim to avoid problems (as perceived by the organization), or does public relations have other aims, such as bridging an organization's and its stakeholders interests, or even serving as an in-house activist for the stakeholders (Edwards, 2011)? My own view stresses cocreation, which links back to translation and social connection in the sense that organizations cannot justify their translations solely by defining by themselves what responsibility means and what it is seen to entail, but stakeholders can agree or disagree with organizations' translations and attach organizations to a variety of social issues, which can affect their expectations and the mindsets that follow (cf. Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; Schrempf, 2012).

To sum up the development of expectation management, I conclude that expectation management is not a separate function for public relations; rather, it is an intersecting approach that weaves together different areas and, at best, adds depth to them. Besides expectation management, this approach could be equally called expectation analysis or expectation mapping. I use the term management to highlight that expectations are complex and, hence, the information they convey needs to be managed rather than observed. Expectation management is closely connected to monitoring, as it takes interest in stakeholder assessments, how these assessments influence the relationships stakeholders have with organizations, and how the assessments can change over time. My interpretation of expectation management stresses the importance of analysis: when analyzed comprehensively—for example, by using the model of expectation formation put forward in Figure 6—expectations contain information about stakeholders' values and interests, as well as their confidence in organizations. Thus, expectations convey important information about relationships not only as opportunities to exceed stakeholders' positive expectations but also as indications of cynicism or pessimism conveyed in negative expectations. An analysis of expectations helps to explain how stakeholders assess organizations and their translations and how the stakeholders themselves translate what organizations must, should, and could do.

Although, in this chapter, I have made a (normative) proposal that organizations can use expectation management to organize, analyze, and interpret the information from their institutional context, I note that expectation management is not inherently good or bad. It depends on how organizations use expectation management—for example, when they translate institutional pressures and negotiate what gets translated in the first place. Expectation management does not automatically change an organization's outlook on its stakeholders (whether, for example, they are perceived as a means to an end or as cocreators) or make it more ethical; this depends on the overall strategy, policies, and practices of an organization, as well as the overall that role public relations is given (see Edwards, 2011). However, for receptive organizations that see stakeholders as cocreators of meaning (Botan & Taylor, 2004), expectation management can aid in understanding stakeholders' different perspectives and their ways of translating. I suggest that for issues of corporate responsibility, especially when viewed as social connectedness, expectation management is a valuable tool for understanding different stakeholder mindsets, such as optimism and cynicism, and for bringing forth the stakeholders' voices, whether they are pleasant or unpleasant from the organization's perspective.

5 DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this thesis was to contribute to the conceptual and empirical understanding of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. This was done by posing two overarching research questions for this thesis shell: (RQ1) *What characterizes expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?* and (RQ2) *How can stakeholder expectations be approached analytically?* In this chapter, the answer to each research question is summarized, and the findings are discussed in the light of translation and social connectedness. I then sum up the theoretical and practical inputs of the thesis and offer a discussion on the limitations and evaluation of the thesis. The thesis ends with some concluding remarks for future studies.

The focus of RQ1 was on the characteristics of stakeholder expectations. The sub-questions narrowed the interest to the formation of stakeholder expectations (*What factors affect the formation of expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?*) and to the seeking of conceptual clarity (*How can expectations be defined in the context of organization–stakeholder relations?*). This dissertation detected a conceptual gap in the public relations literature related to expectations in organization–stakeholder relations, which was addressed by conceptual (study 2) and empirical analyses (studies 3 and 4). As a result, the factors that affect expectation formation in organization–stakeholder relations were seen to be (1) the normative baseline for expectations, influenced by values and interests; and (2) the organization-specific assessment of expectations that concern likelihood, influenced by information and experience. These factors determine the tone of the outcome (positive or negative) and, finally, lead to four possible types of expectations: optimistic and hopeful expectations (the realm of positive expectations), and cynical and pessimistic expectations (the realm of negative expectations). These results were drawn by synthesizing the findings of studies 2, 3, and 4. More specifically, the review of the literature from the customer management and customer satisfaction research in study 2 identified different bases for expectations that contributed to the understanding of how expectations are influenced by normative (values and interests) and organization-specific (information and experience) factors. Study 3 addressed the

different levels of expectations that contributed to the understanding of how expectations can be positive or negative. Furthermore, study 2 crafted four expectation types for the organization–stakeholder context that were empirically tested and revised in study 4 (Olkkonen, 2015) and in this thesis shell.

In chapter 4.3, all the aforementioned input was synthesized into a model of stakeholder expectation formation. The model was accompanied by a definition of expectations, whereby expectations were explained as positive or negative future-oriented assessments of an organization's ability and willingness, forming in *embedded* normative and predictive assessments. Expectations can convey different mindsets, as an organization and its actions can be perceived with optimism, hope, cynicism, or pessimism. It was asserted first conceptually and then empirically with data from the media sector that stakeholders can have positive and negative expectations. Positive expectations are a sign of confidence in an organization's ability and willingness to offer outcomes that are valued or to prevent outcomes that are not valued, whereas negative expectations signal a lack of confidence in an organization's ability and willingness to offer outcomes that are valued, or to prevent outcomes that are not valued. As a specific empirical example from the media sector, study 4 explained social connection expectations as expectations that deal with corporate responsibility and the societal role of business.

The answer to RQ2 rests on the conceptual foundations of stakeholder expectations identified for RQ1 (model and definition), without which it would be difficult to approach expectations analytically. The sub-questions of RQ2 sought to clarify expectations analysis, namely in terms of factors (*What factors can be analyzed to map stakeholder expectations?*) and the role of analysis within public relations (*How does an analysis of expectations relate to public relations in practice?*). Essentially, it was suggested that expectations can be analyzed by identifying the values and interests to which they are connected (the baseline) and the information and experience that affect the organization-specific assessment. By analyzing these factors, it is possible to determine whether the expectation belongs to the realm of positive or negative expectations, or whether it takes place somewhere between these realms, indicating caution. It was suggested that the information conveyed in expectations become more organized with a systematic analysis and, thus, it can reveal information about the institutional context of an organization, as investigated empirically in study 4.

In practice, an analytical approach to stakeholder expectations was suggested to form a new intersecting function for public relations, named in this thesis as expectation management. The development of expectation management started as a result of the narrative analysis (study 1) that asserted that organizations respond to expectations by translating (conforming, editing, and interpreting). Thus, by translating, organizations make intuitive or deliberate attempts to address stakeholder expectations, but the academic literature and the empirical findings in study 1 offered little concrete examples of how to analyze and interpret expectations. The findings of this thesis show that expectations convey information especially about stakeholders' values and interest that

guide how organizational performance is assessed and compared with existing information and experience (studies 2, 3, and 4). From the viewpoint of organization–stakeholder relations, I suggest that it is important to analyze expectations in order to understand both the positive opportunities invested in expectations and the negative pitfalls.

With these findings, this thesis has outlined the conceptual foundations for understanding expectations in organization–stakeholder relations and has offered empirical examples and tools for analyzing expectations in academic research and public relations practice.

Translation suggests that even within the same institutional context, different actors make different interpretations. Translation includes the potential of struggle and conflict over meanings (cf., Clegg, 2010), and thus, I suggest that an important part of translation is negotiation with (the rest of) the institutional context over positive and negative expectations. Furthermore, I suggest that misinterpreting expectations can explain why organizations are sometimes unsuccessful in their translation or, in other words, why stakeholder expectations are sometimes conflicting and negative instead of supportive and positive. My model and definition of expectations helps scholars of public relations to understand how stakeholders form expectations and, hence, it opens up translation as done by stakeholders, as well as how stakeholders assess organizations' translations of the same issues.

The idea of corporate responsibility as social connectedness asserts that expectations of corporate responsibility deal not only with the direct consequences of doing business and liability but also with indirect social connectedness and structural injustices. This adds complexity to translation and further supports the need for an analytical approach to expectations. Social connectedness challenges the notion of expectations in the public relations literature as observable data that can be derived from the stakeholders without a need for further analysis. Study 4 dealt specifically with expectations of corporate responsibility in the less-studied context of the media sector and shed light on how the societal role of business can be assessed as social connectedness. An analysis of expectations has the potential to map the range of social connection—that is, what areas are included in it and how far it extends. Hence, expectations deal with the direction of corporate responsibility both in terms of what stakeholders would like to see more of and in terms of what they are not satisfied with. I argue that understanding expectations and the dynamics from which they stem may help the field of public relations to understand the complexity of social connectedness and sector-based corporate responsibilities that are not universal or clear-cut functions but are rather interpretations of business organizations' societal roles and the societal consequences of doing business.

Expectations of corporate responsibility were at the center of this thesis, in relation to which the current literature often mentions societal expectations. This brings forth an interesting question concerning when, and under which circumstances, stakeholder expectations are societal. There is a chance that the

term societal expectations has been used too lightly and that to suggest that an expectation is societal when the baseline deals with an organization's societal role as a member of the society—that is, what organizations must, should, and could do as societal actors—is perhaps too simplistic, even when assessed from the viewpoints of liability and social connection. Based on what I know about expectations after completing this research, I see a difference between an expectation that concerns the societal role of business and an expectation that can be defined as societal. For an expectation to be societal, it needs to be a prevalent or integral part of the institutional context, *and* it needs to concern the societal role of business. In other words, it could be that a stakeholder expectation that concerns the societal role of business needs to establish some level of institutionalization before it can be defined as a societal expectation.

Making a distinction between societal and other types of stakeholder expectations does not mean that organizations should or could not take an interest in expectations before they become institutionalized or that expectations that are not institutionalized are not important to organizations. Rather, understanding how expectations are formed and become prevalent teaches organizations about the dynamics of their institutional contexts and highlights that different actors, among them stakeholders and organizations, take part in negotiating how the institutional context develops. The question of whose voices and opinions count relates to the discussion on ethics and different views of public relations: for cocreational or even activist views, the answer is likely to differ significantly from when a purely managerial or functional view is adopted. Overall, I suggest that it is valuable to recognize that public relations can be seen, on the one hand, as the translator of institutional elements and, on the other, as their maintainer and creator (Fredriksson *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, I suggest that the more equipped an organization is to understand expectations and to follow their development, the more equipped it is to take part in the discussion that involves issues that are relevant to the organization and its operations. For cocreational organizations, in particular, this helps public relations practitioners to mediate between the organization and its stakeholders.

Summary of theoretical and practical inputs

The theoretical input of this thesis is, in particular, how it clarifies and adds to the current understanding of expectations in the public relations literature at a conceptual level. As presented in chapter 4.2, there was a clear gap in the literature, as expectations were very rarely defined but they were connected to many central concepts of the field. The model and definition that were offered in chapter 4.3 were the synthesized results of many different explanations of expectations, and hence, they recognize stakeholder expectations as a multifaceted concept.

The definition of stakeholder expectations offered in this thesis can be treated as a "model case"—a product of concept analysis that demonstrates the defining attributes of a concept (Walker & Avant, 2011, p. 163). The definition was based on a model that embeds the predictive assessment (what will hap-

pen) in the normative assessment (what must, should, or could happen), and, thus, acknowledges positive and negative forms of expectation equally, as opposed to the majority of the literature that was reviewed in study 2. Furthermore, the findings of this thesis prove empirically that stakeholder expectations take different forms, some of which are positive and some negative. Based on this, I argue that treating expectations as only positive constructions reveals, at best, only half of the information that expectations convey about organization–stakeholder relations or, more broadly, about the institutional context within which organizations are embedded. Furthermore, this thesis has contributed to making the concept of expectations more "solid and strong" (Walker & Avant, 2011, p. 157) and can open opportunities for scholars of public relations to theorize with expectations, as concepts are the basic building blocks in theory construction (Walker & Avant, 2011). Judging by the connections presented in chapter 2.1, this theorization can involve several large areas of public relations research.

As a practical input of this thesis, expectation management was suggested as a new, intersecting function of public relations. My interpretation of expectation management is about a systematic mapping and analysis of stakeholder expectations; what is managed is the information that expectations convey about organization–stakeholder relations—that is, information about the positive outcomes that the stakeholders value and the negative outcomes about which the stakeholders have concerns. I suggest that, at best, expectation management can have strategic value by adding depth and bridging the existing areas of public relations, especially as my findings show that positive and negative expectations can be intertwined. To simplify, on the organization's agenda, positive expectations relate to opportunities to strengthen assets, such as reputation and legitimacy, whereas negative expectations can be signs of risks that the stakeholders perceive or issues about which they are concerned. When the potential of a positive expectation was decreased by the simultaneous possibility of a negative outcome, my interviewees were often indecisive about their confidence as the assessment became more difficult. This interconnectedness, however, illustrates the reality of an institutional context within which factors such as social connectedness make assessments more complex.

According to the definition of expectation management given in this thesis, a stance was not taken on how organizations should use the results of expectation management, but it was noted that this depends on how organizations perceive and treat their stakeholders in general. Expectation management and the results of expectation mapping and analysis can point out future opportunities as well as pitfalls, and it is a strategic choice whether, for example, the organization aims to align its actions with positive expectations, or whether the results of expectation management are used to negotiate or even to manipulate institutional pressures. Overall, I claim that stakeholder expectations that are identified and understood offer valuable information for organizations about their stakeholders and how the stakeholders perceive the organizations. As my own understanding of public relations is primarily cocreational, I suggest that

"managing" expectations, in the sense that they are attempted to be controlled or adjusted to advance organizational aims, is less fruitful than when a multidimensional understanding of expectations is put to use to help organizations take part in the discussion that involves them and to understand the other actors in it. Thus, especially for organizations that perceive their stakeholders from a cocreational perspective, expectation management can help public relations to act as an interpreter or translator between the organization and its stakeholders, or, more specifically, as a mediator between the organization's translation and stakeholders' translation(s).

Research ethics

In the execution of this dissertation, I have adhered to the guidelines of research ethics and research integrity set by the Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity, appointed by the Ministry of Education and Culture in Finland. These guidelines emphasize the role of honesty and integrity in ethically responsible research (Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity, 2012). Furthermore, responsible research conduct is a part of the quality assurance of research in terms of the reliability and credibility of the results. In this research, I have paid attention to integrity and accuracy in all phases of the research process, particularly concerning the use of scientific and ethically sustainable methods, respecting the achievements of other researchers and citing them accordingly, and reporting the financers of the research when publishing results (Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity, 2012, pp. 30–31).

The Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity publishes ethical principles for research in the humanities and social and behavioral sciences that concern three issues in particular: the autonomy of research subjects, avoidance of harm, and privacy and data protection (National Advisory Board on Research Ethics, 2009). These guidelines apply, for the most part, to my interview data. The autonomy of the interviewees was ensured by their voluntary participation and their right to leave any question unanswered or end the interview, as well as by informing the interviewees of the objectives of the study and what their participation meant in concrete terms. In practice, I contacted the interviewees by email and asked about their willingness to participate. I interviewed them in their location of choice, usually at the interviewee's office. I started the interviews with a short briefing of the research project, informed the interviewees about the use of the data in the research project, and, furthermore, asked for permission to use a recorder. The interviews proceeded in a conversation-like manner, and the interviewees were free to skip any question they wished or add any views they saw as important. The avoidance of harm was ensured by treating the interviewees with respect and politeness and by reporting the interpretations and results made of the data in a respectful way. Though my interview themes were not particularly sensitive in the sense that they would, for example, put the interviewees under a great deal of mental strain or stress, I took note of their voluntary consent during the interviews in terms of remaining sensitive to the interaction and observing, for example, if at any phase of the

interview, the interviewee seemed uncomfortable, annoyed, or simply too busy to continue, and I respected these implicit wishes throughout our interaction. Privacy and data protection were ensured by the anonymity of the interviewees, and the use and archiving of the data for the purposes of the particular research project only. Furthermore, I restricted the use of any extracts from the interviews in which the interviewees made personal notes that could even potentially risk their anonymity.

While the corporate reports and academic articles that were used as data in studies 1 and 3 were publicly available, their use did not require consent from the organizations or the authors (cf., National Advisory Board on Research Ethics, 2009, p. 5). However, in relation to study 1, I informed the companies involved about my research when I asked for paper copies of their corporate reports.

The research approach in this dissertation and in the sub-studies has been interpretive, as qualitative research often is. My goal as a researcher has been to conduct ethically sound research that adheres to the principles of research integrity by making careful and thorough interpretations in which the messages and opinions expressed in the data—not only in the interviews but in the corporate reports and academic literature—are respected and reported with sufficient detail.

Limitations

Next, the research process is assessed especially in terms of its plausibility and transparency. As the approach of this thesis was interpretive and qualitative, both of which recognize the researcher's active role as an interpreter of meaning, I note that my choices and interpretations that were made at a particular time have shaped the research process (cf. Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2013). Thus, it is likely that another researcher could have ended up with different results or at least brought forth different nuances. Hence, my main aim in reporting the research process has not been to increase the reliability and validity of the results, as is meant in quantitative research but to provide a transparent account of the choices made in analyzing the data and drawing conclusions. I have done this by reporting my steps and choices during different phases of analysis, by providing examples of how the data was analyzed, and by illustrating my findings with direct extracts from the data.

As a dissertation is a learning process, I use this opportunity to discuss some of the limitations of my choices. My first issue is the coherence of the data. The data did not concentrate, for example, on one specific sector; instead, study 1 included data from three different organizations that each represented different sectors, and studies 3 and 4 involved yet another sector in the analysis. Therefore, there is variety in the data that brought forth certain challenges for the analysis; for example, it was not possible to compare the sub-studies to investigate whether, for example, organizations' actions and stakeholders' expectations meet. While this would have made an interesting setting for studying expectations, my interests took me elsewhere; I became acquainted with differ-

ent ways to narrate and translate sector-based responsibilities in study 1, and then I studied stakeholder expectations in the context of the media sector in studies 3 and 4, as the sector is in an interesting phase in which, as opposed to many other industries, the practices of corporate responsibility are only just being formed. While this offered an opportunity to contribute to understanding something new, this was also a challenge, as in regard to both the conceptual foundations of expectations and corporate responsibility in the media sector, there was only a limited amount of previous research to build on.

The lack of previous research meant that I was constructing missing meanings and collecting and analyzing data in parallel, and thus, at times, I was unsure what I should be looking for. This brings me to my second issue—the interview design. As an interviewer, I quickly noticed how difficult it was to get the interviewees to talk about their expectations by asking direct questions about them (e.g., "What kind of expectations do you have for media organizations?"). Instead, I made much more fruitful observations about expectations when the interviewees described their relationships with media organizations and when they elaborated on recent events when they had been satisfied or disappointed. Thus, as an interviewee, it was important to remain sensitive to what the interviewees were saying and to ask for clarification, for example, regarding why they had felt satisfied or dissatisfied and what their hopes and wishes for similar situations were in the future. The interview data that I used for the in-depth analysis of study 4 was generated with NGO experts, who, as interviewees, were generally talkative, outspoken, and, most essentially, well equipped to assess the societal role of media organizations. This made my data rich, but I stress the importance of asking around the topic (of expectations), as the answers to direct questions about expectations tended to be less rich, even when interviewing an expert group.

The lack of definitions also caused wavering in some parts of the analysis, which is my third issue. In particular, many of the expectations that were identified from the multi-stakeholder data in study 3 were not clear regarding what they were attached to: an organization (or a collective of organizations) or an institutional context or other larger frame, such as the media environment in general. For example, in retrospect, the expectation of fragmented media use in study 3 is not so much attached to media organizations and their conduct as it is to the development of media use, although it can have implications for media organizations. The lack of satisfactory definitions for expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations probably contributed to this waver in precision, for throughout most of the period that I was writing the articles, I only worked with partial definitions of expectations.

Finally, I take issue with the embeddedness of my own study in an institutional context and with my data as a representation of the Finnish context. Finland is a small Nordic country with its own cultural and societal characteristics, and hence, it is likely that the findings, especially concerning the sector-specific traits of the companies and sectors that were analyzed, do not automatically apply elsewhere. This relates, in particular, to the Finnish media sector, which is

characterized by a high degree of professionalism and a strong tradition of journalism ethics (see, e.g., Heikkilä & Kylmälä, 2011). In Figure 6, values and interests were defined as the makings of the baseline of stakeholder expectations, but when it comes to my empirical data, these values and interests are evidently shaped by the institutional and cultural context in which they were formed. However, it is because of these variances across different settings that I am convinced that there is plenty for future research to explore. I end my discussion by pointing out the avenues for future research that I find most promising.

Future research

As expectations are a part of many areas of public relations research, I invite future research to take part in further strengthening the conceptual understanding of expectations and exploring connections to existing streams of literature. The findings of this thesis can help scholars of public relations to zoom into expectations and provide tools for analyzing the different bases, levels, and forms of expectations. While expectations are a fascinating research topic in general terms, the findings of this thesis already indicate some specific questions to be addressed in future research.

First, the interconnectedness of positive and negative expectations is an interesting question that deserves further clarification. How exactly does interconnectedness affect the overall assessment attached to organizations and how, for example, might understanding interconnections explain the dynamics of institutional contexts? Second, as expectation management was connected to monitoring in this thesis, an interesting question for future research, especially concerning public relations practice, is whether organizations already have functions that could be described as expectation management (perhaps with a different name), what kind of analyses these functions entail, and what strategic role they are possibly given. In addition, there are further distinctions to be made concerning the differences between different internal and external stakeholders. Third, I see a need to further clarify what determines whether or not an expectation is societal. As Ihlen (2008) notes, stakeholders are not a synonym for society, and as Suddaby (2010) notes, not all pressures that organizations face are institutional. Thus, the overlap and identification between a stakeholder expectation, societal expectation, and institutional expectation are interesting avenues for further conceptual and empirical work.

The empirical studies in this thesis tested expectation mapping both in multi-stakeholder and single-stakeholder settings. The findings show that even with a single stakeholder group, expectations can be not only interconnected but also so manifold that rigorous analysis is needed to unfold their meaning(s). This brings forth the question of resources and which stakeholders' expectations are such that should or can be understood and analyzed by academic research or by public relations practice. Here, I see important connections to public relations ethics and business ethics, possibly with more specific questions that explore the dominant versus silenced voices or power structures in general.

To conclude, expectations are an under-conceptualized area in the public relations literature, yet the topic intersects with some of the most central areas of research in the field: reputation, responsibility, relationships, legitimacy, satisfaction, trust, and identity. This thesis has asserted that, to date, public relations research has addressed expectations predominantly as positive constructions and with relatively little conceptual and empirical understanding, though the findings of this thesis demonstrate that stakeholders can have both positive and negative expectations and that the conceptual foundations of expectations are far from simple. With the conceptual and empirical input of this thesis, future research will be more equipped to address the richness of studying expectations in organization–stakeholder relations.

FINNISH SUMMARY

Sidosryhmäodotukset. Käsitteelliset perustat ja empiirinen analyysi.

Tutkimuksen tausta

Tämä yhteisöviestinnän väitöstutkimus keskittyy odotuksiin organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa. Ihmisten välisessä vuorovaikutuksessa odotukset on määritelty keinoksi ymmärtää, arvioida ja ennustaa muiden toimijoiden käytöstä (esim. Burgoon, 1993; Roese & Sherman, 2007), mutta yhteisöviestinnän tutkimuksessa odotukset on jätetty pääosin määrittelemättä ja varsinaista odotuksiin keskittyvää tutkimusta on vähän. Odotukset mainitaan kuitenkin usein liittyen yhteisöviestinnän keskeisiin käsitteisiin ja ilmiöihin, kuten maineeseen, vastuullisuuteen, suhteisiin, legitimiteettiin, tyytyväisyyteen, luottamukseen ja identiteettiin (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). Näissä tutkimuksissa odotukset on ymmärretty pääasiassa positiivisiksi rakennelmiksi, jotka tarjoavat organisaatioille mahdollisuuksia täyttää sidosryhmien vaateita ja toiveita.

Tässä tutkimuksessa avataan sidosryhmäodotuksia eri näkökulmista ja vallitsevasta yhteisöviestinnän kirjallisuudesta poiketen odotukset ymmärretään sekä positiviisina että negatiivisina. Erityistä huomiota kiinnitetään vastuullisuuden odotuksiin, jotka mainitaan usein sekä yhteisöviestinnän että liikkeenjohdon kirjallisuudessa yritysvastuun perustana.

Teoriakehys

Tutkimuksen synteesiosa nojaa skandinaaviseen institutionalismiin ja erityisesti sen ajatukseen ”kääntämisestä” (*translation*). Toinen teoreettinen lähtökohta on yritysvastuu, joka ymmärretään työssä sosiaalisina liitoksina (*social connection*).

Skandinaavinen institutionalismi (Boxenbaum & Strandgaard Pedersen, 2009; Czarniawska & Sevón, 1996) sijoittaa organisaatio-sidosryhmäsuhteet institutionaaliseen kontekstiin, joka vaikuttaa organisaatioihin, mutta jota organisaatiot myös aktiivisesti muokkaavat ”kääntämällä” eli tulkitsemalla ja soveltamalla institutionaalisia elementtejä omaan toimintaansa. Koska myös sidosryhmät kääntävät omia merkityksiään, sidosryhmien ja organisaatioiden käännösten välillä voi olla eroja, jotka voivat vaikuttaa sidosryhmien odotuksiin.

Yritysvastuu sosiaalisina liitoksina (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; Schrempf, 2012; Young, 2006) tarkoittaa, että yritysten vastuu ulottuu sekä toiminnan suoriin vaikutuksiin että sen epäsuoriin liitoksiin, jolloin yksittäisen organisaation toiminta voi linkittyä monimutkaisiin yhteiskunnallisiin ongelmiin. Sosiaaliset liitokset voivat monimutkaistaa vastuullisuuden odotuksia kun yritysten toiminnan vaikutuksia arvioidaan laajassa kontekstissa ja jaettuina vastuina.

Tutkimusasetelma ja kysymykset

Tutkimuksen päätarkoituksena on avata odotuksia käsitteenä sekä testata empiirisesti odotusten analysointia organisaation ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa. Väitöskirjan synteesiosaa ohjaavat seuraavat tutkimuskysymykset:

(1) Miten odotukset määrittyvät organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa? (alakysymykset: Mitkä tekijät vaikuttavat odotusten muodostumiseen organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa? Miten odotukset voidaan määritellä käsitteellisesti organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa?)
(2) Miten sidosryhmien odotuksia voidaan lähestyä analyyttisesti? (alakysymykset: Mitä tekijöitä analysoimalla odotuksia voidaan kartoittaa? Miten odotusten analysointi linkittyy käytännössä osaksi organisaatioiden viestintää?

Työhön sisältyvistä neljästä osatutkimuksesta ensimmäisessä tutkittiin kolmen esimerkkiyrityksen yhteiskunnallisia (vastuullisuuden) rooleja (artikkelit I ja II). Toisessa osatutkimuksessa tutkittiin odotuksia yhteisöviestinnän käsitteenä (artikkeli IV). Kolmannen ja neljännen osatutkimuksen keskiössä oli sidosryhmien odotusten analysointi ja kartoittaminen (artikkelit III ja V), joita tutkittiin mediasektorin kontekstissa. Mediasektorin organisaatioihin vaikuttavat niin toimitukselliset kuin liiketoiminnalliset tekijät (Adams-Bloom & Cleary, 2009), jotka voidaan yritysvastuun näkökulmasta nähdä osana mediasektorin sektorikohtaisen yritysvastuun erityispiirteitä (vrt. Global Reporting Initiative, 2014).

Metodit ja aineisto

Kaikissa neljässä osatutkimuksessa käytettiin laadullista ja tulkitsevaa tutkimusotetta (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2013), jota on osatutkimuksesta riippuen yhdistetty erilaisiin analyysimetodeihin.

Ensimmäisen osatutkimuksen analyysimetodina oli narratiivinen analyysi (Boje, 2001; Polkinghorne, 1995) ja aineistona oli kolmen esimerkkiyrityksen (Metso, Marimekko ja Nokia) vastuuraportit viiden vuoden ajalta (2002–2007). Vastuuraporteista tutkittiin yritysten vastuullisuuden erikoistumista ja yhteiskunnallista asemaa koskevia narratiiveja.

Toisen osatutkimuksen metodina oli (tulkitseva) käsiteanalyysi (Takala & Lämsä, 2001) ja aineisto koostui 197 tieteellisestä artikkelista, joissa mainittiin odotukset ja jotka olivat ilmestyneet yhteisöviestinnän keskeisissä tutkimusjulkaisuissa. Käsiteanalyysin tavoitteena oli tutkia miten odotukset määritellään yhteisöviestinnän kirjallisuudessa ja mihin käsitteisiin odotukset liitetään.

Kolmannen ja neljännen osatutkimuksen metodina oli temaattinen analyysi (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006), jonka avulla tutkittiin mediasektorin sidosryhmien odotuksia. Laajempi haastatteluaineisto koostui järjestöasiantuntijoiden, mainostajien, journalistien, päätoimittajien, viestintätoimistojen johtajien ja diginatiivien haastatteluista, ja sen analyysissa odotuksia jaoteltiin minimi- (*must*), todennäköisyys- (*will*), normatiivisiin (*should*), ja ideaaliodotuksiin (*could*). Syväanalyysissa käytettiin vain järjestöasiantuntijoiden haastatteluita ja siinä odotusten jaotteluun hyödynnettiin käsiteanalyysissa (osatutkimus 2) kehitettyä odotuskehikkoa (*Expectation Grid*, Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015).

Keskeiset tulokset

Tämä väitöstutkimus tarkentaa odotusten käsitteellisestä ymmärrystä yhteisöviestinnän tutkimuksessa rakentamalla sidosryhmäodotusmallin ja tarjoamalla malliin pohjaavan määritelmän sidosryhmäodotuksille

organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa. Sidosryhmäodotusmalli kuvaa odotusten muodostumista kaksivaiheisena prosessina, jonka ensimmäiseen vaiheeseen vaikuttavat arvot ja intressit ja toiseen vaiheeseen aiempi kokemus sekä käytettävissä oleva tieto. Näiden prosessien tuloksena organisaatioon kohdistuva odotus voi olla positiivinen (optimistinen tai toiveikas) tai negatiivinen (kyyninen tai pessimistinen). Työn tuloksiin pohjautuvan määritelmän mukaan organisaation ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa odotukset ovat *positiivisia tai negatiivisia tulevaisuuteen suuntaavia arvioita, jotka koskevat organisaation kykyä ja tahtoa, muodostuvat sekä normatiivisten että todennäköisyyteen perustuvien tekijöiden yhteisvaikutuksessa ja välittävät optimismia, toiveikkuutta, kyynisyyttä tai pessimismiä organisaatiota ja sen toimintaa kohtaan.*

Sidosryhmäodotusten mallin ja määritelmän lisäksi työn tulokset laajentavat odotusten ymmärtämistä sosiaalisina liitoksina. Mediasektorin kontekstissa sosiaalisen liitoksen odotukset liittyvät esimerkiksi yleisön taitojen ja osallistumisen mahdollistamiseen (*audience enabling*). Yhteisöviestinnän ammattilaisille odotusten analyyttisempi ymmärtäminen voi tarkoittaa aikaisempaa systemaattisempaa lähestymistapaa. Tässä työssä systemaattiseksi lähestymistavaksi ehdotetaan odotustenhallintaa (*expectation management*). Odotustenhallinnalla tarkoitetaan odotusten analyysia ja siitä saatavan tiedon hallintaa. Se voi tukea muita viestinnän osa-alueita, kuten teemojenhallintaa, suhteidenhallintaa, maineenhallintaa, ja kriisienhallintaa.

Loppupäätelmät ja tuleva tutkimus

Työssä esitetty sidosryhmäodotusmalli muodostaa aiempaa vahvemman käsitteelliseen perustan odotusten tutkimiseen organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välisissä suhteissa. Työssä myös tarjotaan malliin pohjaavia empiirisiä esimerkkejä odotusten analysointiin, joka voi välittää organisaatioille monenlaista tietoa sidosryhmistä. Näitä esimerkkejä voivat hyödyntää sekä yhteisöviestinnän tutkijat että ammattilaiset.

Odotusten tarkempi käsitteellistäminen havainnollistaa miten sidosryhmäodotukset voivat ilmentää sekä positiivista (optimismi ja toiveikkuus) että negatiivista asennoitumista (kyynisyys ja pessimismi) organisaatiota kohtaan. Vastuullisuutta ajatellen odotusten syvempi ymmärtäminen voi tuoda konkreettisesti esille mihin saakka yritysvastuun katsotaan ulottuvan ja mitä asioita se kattaa erityisesti sosiaalisten liitosten näkökulmasta. Työssä esitetty odotustenhallinta voi tukea yhteisöviestinnän ammattilaisten asemaa välittäjinä organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien välillä erityisesti kun yhteisöviestinnän tavoitteena on organisaatioiden ja sidosryhmien parempi keskinäinen ymmärrys.

Tämän työn tulosten avulla tuleva tutkimus voi lähestyä odotuksia entistä moniulotteisempana, analyysia edellyttävänä ilmiönä. Esimerkiksi positiivisten ja negatiivisten odotusten vaikutukset toisiinsa, sekä odotustenhallinnan strateginen rooli ja sen kytkökset yhteisöviestinnän etiikkaan ovat mielenkiintoisia kysymyksiä myös tulevalle tutkimukselle.

Avainsanat: odotukset, sidosryhmäsuhteet, yritysvastuu, odotustenhallinta, kääntäminen, sosiaaliset liitokset

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 ANALYSIS OF CORPORATE REPORTS IN STUDY 1

This appendix provides further details on how the corporate reports (study 1) were analyzed. More specifically, using further evidence from the data, I open up the narrative elements that were important for my analysis.

Table 7 summarizes the synopses and example extracts for the three narratives: (1) the role and position of the company, (2) the company's specialization in corporate responsibility, and (3) the company's stance on corporate citizenship. Narratives 1 and 2 were primarily plotted by the organizations, and together they represented the individual positioning or a "niche" of responsibility for each company: Metso concentrated on environmental aspects, Marimekko's specialization was in cultural issues, and Nokia stressed issues that concern technology, such as the digital divide. Metso and Nokia used the term corporate citizenship to describe this specialization, while Marimekko did not mention it. This was what was important for narrative 3 (corporate citizenship) that was different for each company. Next, I elaborate on each of the narratives of corporate citizenship and on which elements I plotted them.

Metso mentions corporate citizenship in its reports in the years 2002–2006, but it is given different emphases in different years. While the first report mentions corporate citizenship briefly, its importance grows in the following years, and it is given more precise definitions. For example, in the 2003 report, corporate citizenship is closely tied to social responsibility, and it is seen to include taking care of human rights and working conditions, taking part in societal discussions on responsibility, and taking care of the staff (Metso, 2003, p. 19). In the 2004 report, corporate citizenship is mentioned most frequently, and it is tied to societal issues in particular. After 2004, however, corporate citizenship is given less space: in the 2006 report, it is mentioned only as an expectation of society (Metso, 2006, p. 19), and finally, it is missing completely from the 2007 report. Thus, Metso's narrative of corporate citizenship is a narrative in which the concept is first used and then abandoned. Nevertheless, the actual actions that Metso takes remain fairly similar; thus, it could be that, for Metso, the concept was unsuitable for describing its actions, as it connects corporate citizenship primarily to societal issues and not to its niche of environmental issues.

For Marimekko, the narrative of corporate citizenship is a silent narrative or antinarrative, as the concept is not mentioned by the company. Corporate citizenship is not connected to any part of corporate responsibility, including Marimekko's specialization, which is cultural issues and cultural heritage (Marimekko, 2003, p. 45; 2004, p. 19; 2005, p. 24; 2006, p. 27; 2007, p. 31). There were elements that, especially in light of citizenship as identity and practice (cf. Isin & Wood, 1999), could be called corporate citizenship in the way in which Marimekko narrates its niche in responsibility, especially in terms of the active promotion of cultural issues. However, the company adopts a view that sees these actions only as a surplus on top of the basic building blocks of corporate responsibility, not as active citizenship.

TABLE 7 Synopses and extracts for narratives

NARRATIVE 1: Role and position
Most important narrative elements: introduction of protagonist, causal explanations, stages of development
METSO—Synopsis: *Metso is an industry leader that bears responsibility for the local impacts of its global operations* **Examples:** As a leading actor we know our responsibility for taking sustainability forward, which means better performance of the products we deliver, exemplary activities in terms of social responsibility, and the provision of economic well-being for our stakeholders. (2002, p. 10) As a market and technology leader we can advance the development and deployment of processes that preserve resources and are efficient, environmentally friendly, and safe. (2003, p. 5) As we expand our operations in Asia and South America, we have an impact on new local communities and how their business practices are shaped. We also operate in communities in which the impacts of legislation and other regulation are smaller than in our traditional markets and the role of businesses as the preservers of local well-being is greater. (2003, p. 8)
MARIMEKKO—Synopsis: *Marimekko is a design company that treasures its strong cultural heritage* **Examples:** The business culture of Marimekko was born in the Finnish terrain, [and in] values that included a strong urge to build the future. The business culture stemmed from creative persons' delicate interpretations of the ideals and realities of their own time. Behind it all are the human and basic values that guide life. (2003, p. 4) Besides own production Marimekko does subcontracting in Finland and abroad. The venue of production is selected depending on the features of the product, production volumes, and delivery time. As a Finnish company, Marimekko aims primarily to find a Finnish producer for its products. (2004, p. 17) As a design company Marimekko knows its responsibility in preserving creative culture, and aims in its own operations to actively promote the development of Finnish design. Marimekko treasures its strong cultural heritage by cooperating closely with educational institutions and communities in its field. This cooperation includes coaching students, design projects concerning the promotion of design, and taking part in exhibitions and other events in the field.(2007, p. 31)
NOKIA—Synopsis: *Nokia is a global leader that sets examples for the responsibility of others* **Examples:** Market leadership and Nokia's position as the leading brand bring with them responsibilities that are not limited to offering useful, safe, and high-quality products to consumers. These issues include, for example, to what extent mobile communication succeeds in diminishing inequality by bridging; how working conditions are taken care of in our company, as well as in our contractor and supplier network, and how we make mobile communication global while respecting local communities and cultures. (2003, p. 20) As the market leader of a global industry, we recognize that we have an obligation to be responsible ; our actions have impacts on the lives of billions of people. Commitment to responsibility is also in line with our strategies, which highlight technology from the human perspective. (2006, p. 3.) Nokia does not engage in heavy industrial manufacturing, which is why our energy consumption and CO2 emissions are seen to be minor. However, Nokia's position as the leader in its field and our targets for growth require that the company reacts to the global challenge of climate change and that these actions are a central part of the company's environmental and business strategy. (2006, p. 24)
NARRATIVE 2: Specialization
Most important narrative elements: causal explanations, stages of development
METSO—Synopsis: *Metso integrates environmental responsibility and eco-efficiency into its core business* **Examples:** We take the environmental perspective into account systematically in the development of products and solutions. Environmental know-how and eco-efficient applications are a profound part of the Metso Future Care business, with which we offer our clients added value by making their core processes more efficient. (2002, p. 3) We carry out our environmental and social responsibility by delivering our clients products that are effi-
(continues)

TABLE 7 (continues)

cient, utilize raw materials efficiently and preserve the environment. (2007, p. 15) Our environmental solutions are not a separate business activity; instead, products and services spring from our clients' needs and are born out of our research and development within our actual business areas. (2007, p. 14)
MARIMEKKO—Synopsis: *Marimekko takes responsibility in advancing and nurturing Finnish design* **Examples:** Being ethical is respecting different cultures and individuals and bearing the social, economic, and cultural responsibility of the company. (2002, p. 6; 2003, p. 5; 2006, p. 5) Marimekko advances the development of Finnish design. (2003, p. 45; 2004, p. 19; 2005, p. 24) As a design company Marimekko has actively participated in developing Finnish design by offering young yearly career designers opportunities to showcase their talents. (2002, p. 5)
NOKIA—Synopsis: *Nokia creates well-being and social cohesion with its technology* **Examples:** We believe that mobile communication can have a significant impact on social and economic development. Mobile communication is an essential part of everyday life almost everywhere in the world, and we aim to bring the same benefits to the areas where services are not within everyone's reach. (2003, p. 8) Nokia's core business—mobile communication—is in itself a good trend. Opportunities for affordable mobile communication in the developing markets and increasing economic well-being, societal networks, and quality of life are all clearly connected to each other. (2005, p. 3) In the next five years, the majority of new mobile phones will be taken into use in developing countries. The role of mobile communication in socio-economic development is a topic that we would like to address in more detail and promote via active actions as a corporate citizen. (2005, p. 17)
NARRATIVE 3: Corporate citizenship
Most important narrative elements: metaphors, stages of development, turning points
METSO—Synopsis: *Corporate citizenship is unsuccessfully connected to the specialization in corporate responsibility and then abandoned* (uses the term corporate citizenship in years 2002-2006) **Examples:** Metso aims to be a good corporate citizen in every working environment. (2002, p. 39) Relations with the surrounding society are important for Metso at the local, national, and international levels. Public affairs involves interaction with political decision makers, officials, interest groups, and research and education facilities. This is complemented by corporate social responsibility that is based on the building of good, long-term corporate citizenship and interaction with stakeholders. (2004, p. 25.) Metso operates as a good corporate citizen in every country, obeys national laws, and follows its own ethical principles and values.(2005, p. 27).
MARIMEKKO—Synopsis: *Corporate citizenship is not seen as important and is not connected to responsibility actions* (does not use the term corporate citizenship in reporting) **Examples: —**
NOKIA—Synopsis: *The importance of corporate citizenship grows from voluntary activism to the general philosophy of corporate responsibility* (uses the term corporate citizenship in years 2003-2006) **Examples:** Corporate citizenship is part of Nokia's corporate social responsibility, business strategy, and everyday operations. The purpose of our corporate citizenship programs is to have a positive impact on the lives of individuals and communities. (2004, p. 36.) Nokia takes part in local and global corporate citizenship projects that include a lot more than the technology, products and services our company produces. Besides catastrophe aid, donations, and voluntary work, we cooperate with governments, companies, and nonprofit organizations. With our programs that concentrate on the youth and education we give our contribution to important societal issues. (2005, p. 4) Good corporate citizenship means listening to stakeholders and responding to their questions and expectations, and developing business in accordance with them. (2006, p. 10)

The role that Nokia gives itself is perhaps more activist than the other two. Nokia refers frequently to itself as a corporate citizen in the reporting years that were analyzed (e.g., Nokia, 2003, p. 27; 2004, p. 36; 2005, p. 17). In the earlier reports, corporate citizenship is seen more as voluntary participation in the community and in societal issues in general (by, for example, launching education projects), but toward the later reporting years, it becomes more close to a general philosophy for responsibility that Nokia reports to develop on the basis of stakeholders' expectations (Nokia, 2006, p. 10). The reason I describe Nokia as a corporate citizen activist is because Nokia defines responsibilities not only for itself but also for others and, thus, it takes a clear stance on what companies can and should do in terms of responsibility. For example, in the 2006 report (Nokia, 2006, p. 9), Nokia states that "companies are not rules or legislators". Furthermore, Nokia stresses cooperation and shared responsibility (Nokia 2004, pp. 13, 27) and sees its own role as that of active promoter of certain societal issues, such as bridging the digital divide (Nokia, 2005, p. 17).

APPENDIX 2 Analysis of academic articles in study 2

This appendix provides further details on how the academic articles (study 2) were analyzed.

I loosely followed the analysis framework of Walker and Avant (2011), but the last three steps (identifying additional cases, identifying antecedents and consequences, and defining empirical referents) were left out, as they related more to the development of operational definitions that could be used for later (quantitative) analysis, which was not the intent of my study. I made this departure in step II (determining aims) and determined the systematical mapping of how expectations have been understood and defined in the public relations literature as my aim. I added step III (generating data), which was not included in Walker and Avant's framework. Walker and Avant (2011, p. 161) give quite general instructions for data generation, such as the use of dictionaries, thesauruses, colleagues, and available literature. As I wanted to investigate a possible gap in the literature, the analysis called for systematic data generation that could give justified proof of whether or not a gap existed and, hence, I describe data generation as an important step in my process.

Table 8 describes the analysis process in more detail step by step.

TABLE 8 Steps and process of the concept analysis

Step	Aim	Description of own process
I Selection of the concept	To select one concept as a focus of analysis	I familiarized myself with the research area of corporate responsibility and organization–stakeholder relations in study 1 both in terms of the academic literature and empirical analysis, based on which I selected expectations as the central concept for analysis. The selected concept seemed to be frequently mentioned in the literature and empirical data of study 1, but it was seldom explained or conceptualized. This was the hypothetical gap I wished to investigate in the concept analysis.
II Determining aims	To set justified aims for analysis	I started to create an initial understanding of expectations by doing test searches on academic databases targeting both public relations literature and literature from other fields: primarily customer management and customer satisfaction literature. Upon initial look, it seemed that the public relations literature offered few definitions when compared to the customer management and customer satisfaction literature. I wanted to further investigate this gap in the public relations literature and thus, I set the following aim for my analysis: to map systematically how expectations have been understood and defined in the public relations literature.
III Generating data	To generate a body of data in which the concept can be studied	I conducted a systematic literature search in targeted public relations journals. The journals were selected based on Pasadeos, Berger, and Renfro's (2010) listing of the most cited public relations journals and test searches that I conducted in different databases. I used EBSCO for the final searches and this resulted in a

(continues)

TABLE 8 (continues)

		sample of 353 articles. I used the keywords expectation, expectations, expectancy, expectancies for each journal, and the keywords were allowed to appear anywhere in the text. Only academic peer-reviewed articles were included, and there were no year boundaries used in the searches. I limited the sample further by reading the title, abstract, and keywords, and, if needed, the introduction and/or conclusions of each article to assess their relevance to my study. My premise was that expectations were mentioned in relation to organization–stakeholder relations and not, for example, in relation to research results or hypotheses, public relations as a profession, or financial performance. I also omitted articles that mentioned expectations very briefly without connecting them to other concepts, actors, or phenomena. Furthermore, the availability of a full-text article limited the final sample (n=197) that was analyzed in more detail.
IV Identifying uses	To identify as many uses of the concept as possible	To identify different uses of the concept of expectations, the data (academic articles) was first coded using Atlas.ti software. The data was coded to identify how expectations were mentioned in the articles, whether a definition was given, and to identify links to other concepts. I gathered this information into one analysis table that was then further analyzed by grouping articles that connected expectations to similar concepts. As part of this step, I gained important evidence for the gap I had hypothesized. Because of this, I went back to the customer management and customer satisfaction literature and continued to identify and group different uses of the concept. I grouped these uses into four categories: value-based, information-based, experience-based, and personal interest-based.
V Determining defining attributes	To identify characteristics of the concept that differentiate it from other, similar or related concepts	I formulated descriptions for the four categories I had identified in the previous step. I grouped the categories further by forming two scales for expectations: the positive–negative scale (based on value-based and personal interest-based categories) and the high confidence in organization–low confidence in organization scale (based on information-based and experience-based categories). I also reviewed the concepts to which expectations were connected in my sample of academic articles to determine where the concept is positioned in the field. I used quantitative content analysis as a supplementary method and counted the articles that were connected to each of the concepts that were mentioned in connection to expectations to support this review.
VI Identifying model cases	To provide an example or examples of the use of the concept that demonstrates the defining attributes	The Expectation Grid was presented in Olkkonen and Luoma-aho (2015) as an example for understanding expectations in the context of organization–stakeholder relations. This step was further continued in the thesis shell in which I present a model of expectation formation and then a definition for stakeholder expectations that can be considered a model case.

ADD9B8=L 3 Analysis of interview data in study 3 and 4

This appendix provides further details on how the interview data (studies 3 and 4) was analyzed.

The interviews were conducted in connection to a research project titled "What is expected of the media in a reputation society?" (WEM) as a joint effort of a group of researchers. The main research questions of the WEM project were the following: (1) What do the different stakeholders expect of the media today? (2) Have expectations changed due to developments in social media? and (3) Do the different expectations meet present-day practices? The interview frames for the semi-structured interviews were designed collectively, and they included questions that were relevant to the overall research questions of the WEM project, as well as questions that were relevant to each researcher's particular interest in his or her own study. I was the interviewer and transcriber of the NGO expert interviews that were used in studies 3 and 4. The NGO experts represented different organizations (in alphabetical order): Curly ry, Elämä On Parasta Huumetta ry, the Family Federation of Finland, the Finnish Red Cross, the Finnish Society on Media Education, Kepa ry, the Mannerheim League for Child Welfare, Mediakasvatuskeskus Metka ry, Plan Finland, Save the Children Finland, The UN Association of Finland, and Youth Against Drugs. The data generated by other researchers (advertisers, heads of public relations agencies, digital natives, journalists, and editors-in-chief) were used in study 3 to form a multi-stakeholder data. The analyses in both studies 3 and 4 are my own.

The interview frames were similar for each interview group and they covered the same themes: the interviewees' relationship with the media, whether they felt their needs and concerns had been taken into account, and how they wished the relationship would evolve in the future. As all of the interviews were semi-structured, they could and did include other themes that were brought up during the interviews. Using semi-structured interview frames also meant that the themes were not necessarily addressed in the same order and that the phrasing of the questions might have varied depending on the individual interview setting.

Below, the interview frame for the NGO expert interviews is presented.

INTERVIEW FRAME/NGO experts

Theme 1: Own media use
1. Could you tell me about your media day?
2. What types of media are you not currently using? Have you ever used them? Why have you decided not to use them / why have you stopped using them?
3. Which media of those that you use do you especially like?
4. How do you choose the media channels that you use?
5. When you hear about new media products/services, how do you get acquainted with them and decide if you are going to use them or not?
6. For what purposes are the media that you use especially good?
7. What kind of changes, if any, have you made in your media use recently? Why?

Theme 2: Relationship with media
8. How would you describe your relationship with the media that you use (e.g., with a verb/adjective)? What are the differences between different media?
9. Is it possible to differentiate between your relationship with a media service and your relationship with a media company?
10. Is there something you would like to change in your relationship with the media?
11. How are your needs as a media user currently fulfilled? Are there differences between different media?
12. Are there needs that are currently unfulfilled?

Theme 3: Expectations for media
13. Could you describe a situation of media use in which you have been disappointed (expectations have not been met)? How did it affect your media use, if at all?
14. Could you describe a situation of media use in which you have been particularly satisfied (expectations have been exceeded)? How did it affect your media use, if at all?
15. What expectations would you say you have of the media?
16. Which of these expectations do you see as realistic?
17. Which of the expectations that you described are such that you are not willing to yield on (minimum expectations)? Are there differences between different media?
18. What kind of expectations do you have concerning the media's usefulness? Are there differences between different media?
19. What kind of expectations do you have concerning the media's competence? Are there differences between different media?
20. What kind of expectations do you have concerning the media's responsibility? Are there differences between different media?

Theme 4: Social media
21. Do you use social media?
22. Has social media changed your use of media? How?
23. Has social media replaced another form of media? Which one(s)?
24. Has social media and what it enables (sharing, commenting, and discussing) changed your expectations of the media in general?
25. Has social media made it easier for you to express your expectations (e.g., with other users)?

Theme 5: Future of the media
26. Which media will you still be using in five years? Why?
27. Which media will you have stopped using in five years? Why?
28. What do you think will affect your media use most in the next five years? What will be the first thing to change, and what will be the last?
29. Is there a service that should be made better in the future? In what way?
30. Can you foresee any changes in your expectations of the media in the near future?

Ending questions:
31. Is there an important theme or area that has not been discussed in this interview? Would you like to add something?
32. Age, education, occupation, length of experience?
33. Suggestions for interviewees?

Before the interview, I asked the interviewees to fill out a pre-assignment that covered their own media day—that is, what media they use, when, and for

what purposes. This was to facilitate the actual interview situation as the questions concerned "the media" in general, and the pre-assignment helped the interviewees to differentiate between different types of media and media organizations.

The data for all interview groups were transcribed and entered into the Atlas.ti software to facilitate the coding and management of the data. I used thematic analysis that included six steps (Braun & Clarke, 2006) in studies 3 and 4. Table 9 below describes my process in more detail step by step.

TABLE 9 Steps and process of the thematic analysis

Step	**Aim**	**Description of own process**
I Familiarizing with the data	Transcribing, reading and re-reading, and noting initial ideas	I made initial notes about interesting patterns and meanings while transcribing the data (NGO experts) and while reading the transcripts (other groups).
II Generating initial codes	Systematically coding interesting features over the entire data set	I coded the data without a preexisting code list in the Atlas.ti software. The first codes stemmed from the relations I observed between the literature and my own data, and then both theory-based and data-based codes were added throughout the process of coding. Individual extracts were coded with as many codes as was seen as necessary. The main purpose of the coding was to identify the interviewees' needs, hopes, or wishes concerning their relationship with media organizations.
III Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes	I used mind maps to analyze my codes, the relationships between them, and to organize them into larger entities (themes). During this phase I divided my themes into positive and negative expectation themes.
IV Reviewing themes	Checking themes in relation to the coded extracts and data set and generating a thematic map	I continued to work with mind maps and analyzed, in particular, the level and connections of different themes, which is why some codes went on to form main themes, whereas others were collated or were merged with similar codes. The outcome of this phase was an initial thematic map that included positive and negative expectation themes.
V Defining and naming themes	Refining the specifics of each theme, and generating definitions and names	I reviewed the names I had given to the themes, wrote descriptions for each theme, and determined the aspects the themes captured in relation to my data.
VI Producing the report	Selecting vivid, compelling extract examples, conducting final analysis, relating back to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report	I used the framework of must, will, should, and could expectations to produce the report for study 3, and the Expectation Grid to produce the report for study 4.

ORIGINAL PAPERS

I

SECTOR-BASED CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP

by

Laura Timonen[4] & Vilma Luoma-aho 2010

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Sector-based corporate citizenship

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This paper approaches the much-debated issue of corporate citizenship (CC). Many models depict the development process of CC, and yet attempts to find one extensive definition remain in progress. We argue that more than one type of citizenship may be needed to fully describe the concept. So far, social factors have dominated the definitions of CC, but citizenship functions can also be found in other areas. In fact, for maximum benefit, the type of citizenship should be tied to the sector and business field of the corporation in question. Using data drawn from three internationally operating corporations headquartered in Finland, we introduce three different types of CC that are in line with their core business ideas: cultural citizenship, environmental citizenship and technological citizenship. These new types of citizenships can help in grasping the complexity of business responsibility and ethics, and offer tools for gaining competitive advantage by differentiation.

Introduction

Today, corporations in developed economies are expected to conduct business in a responsible way (Donaldson & Preston 1995, Hooghiemstra 2000, Berenbeim 2005, Matten & Crane 2005, Moon *et al.* 2005, Scherer *et al.* 2006, Amaeshi & Adi 2007, Luoma-aho 2008a, Néron & Norman 2008). It has even been suggested that in the future, the social policies implemented by enterprises might overtake in importance the actual delivery of products and services (Juholin 2004). Responsibility has links to, for example, profits, image, legitimacy, reputation and competitive edge (Gardberg & Fombrun 2006, Amaeshi *et al.* 2008), and thus it is considered important to communicate and report the motives and outcomes of responsible actions in a transparent manner.

Recent surveys show that corporate citizenship (CC) is considered important, and yet is often left without proper implementation (Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship 2007). This might be because CC is often locked into social aspects (Birch & Littlewood 2004, Williams & Zinkin 2008), which limits corporations from seeing its full potential such as being a tool for gaining competitive advantage. Many models depict the development process of CC, and yet attempts to find one extensive definition remain in progress. Without a clearer definition of CC or its relation to the more commonly used corporate social responsibility (CSR), it is difficult to utilise its entire potential. Juholin (2004) notes that CSR has raised considerable debate but only a few empirical investigations have followed. A similar lack of research into CC calls for empirical studies that could help to find out how this contemporary and controversial concept works in reality in business life.

Lately, expectations towards business organisations have grown. While corporations contribute largely to societal development by paying their regular taxes, large companies especially face greater demands when it comes to responsibility and ethics. For legitimacy, they need to go beyond paying taxes and pay special attention to the stakeholders, to the environment, and adopt a long-term perspective on responsibility (Meyer & Rowan 1977, Donaldson & Preston 1995, Deegan 2002, Warren 2003). While all Finnish companies are expected to carry out a

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certain number of (rather regulated) responsibility actions in the form of CSR, CC offers a tool for gaining competitive advantage by searching for areas in which to do more (Juholin 2004: 23). Taking an interest in the more sophisticated ways to perceive CC can be beneficial in finding one's own niche in responsibility actions.

This paper approaches the concept of CC and suggests that citizenship functions can be found in areas of responsibility other than merely social. It is important to acknowledge that citizenship has – and has always had – more than just social aspects. Modern citizenship studies, especially, have introduced many new forms of citizenship, which are not tied so much to duties and rights, but to citizenship practices and identity (Isin & Wood 1999). On the basis of these new and more sophisticated forms of citizenship, we argue that instead of merely one type of CC, several different types of citizenship may be needed to fully describe the concept. In fact, for maximum benefit, the type of citizenship should be tied to the sector and business field of the corporation in question. This paper aims to contribute to the ongoing debate on defining CC by suggesting that the corporate functions and sector play a major role in responsibility. Using narrative analysis of data drawn from three internationally operating corporations headquartered in Finland, we introduce three different types of citizenship that are in line with their core business ideas: cultural citizenship, environmental citizenship and technological citizenship. These new types of citizenship can contribute towards better understanding the complexity of business responsibility and ethics, and also provide tools of differentiation.

The paper is organised as follows: in the next section, we discuss a broad overview of approaches to CC and its relationship with the more established concept of CSR. We then discuss whether the concept of citizenship is merely a constructed metaphor or a real phenomenon, and suggest CC to benefit from being evaluated based on sectors and industries. Our methodology and the empirical data we draw on are discussed in the next section, followed by a summary of our findings for each of the three corporations in question. We end with a discussion and our conclusions, with some suggestions about future research avenues that could prove valuable.

CC: what is it?

CC can be linked differently to the responsibility functions of a corporation, and defined in more ways than one. Both the actual contents of CC and its suitability to different corporations and organisations are highly controversial (Néron & Norman 2008, Wood & Logsdon 2008). To some, the ambiguity of CC poses no problem, especially if CC is used simply as a trendy buzzword without genuine long-term targets. However, the problems arise especially when CC is to be implemented, measured and evaluated. Then the commonly used definition 'to act as a good citizen' simply does not seem to be enough. Defining CC is not an easy thing to do, as there is plenty of room to discuss, for example, what is expected from a good corporate citizen and how it can be evaluated, and whether those activities are expected from everyone equally or merely from those willing to meet the expectations and provide reports. Moreover, some corporations choose to call their good deeds something other than CC, and others do good without choosing to call it anything or much less report it in any form.

Traditionally, citizenship is connected with duties and rights, but citizenship can also be seen as a practice (Isin & Wood 1999). Citizenship can contribute to the building of an identity, and it can even be argued that one does not become a citizen, but grows into one (Oliver & Heater 1994). Equally important is that, even though citizenship can be seen as a granted status, broader and new forms of citizenship have nearly always been demanded – and those demands have ultimately been the driving force of the development of citizenship (Clarke 1994, Sujon 2007). This makes CC quite unusual in the field of citizenship, as it is a citizenship that is mostly demanded by those other than the new citizens themselves, and it is based heavily on voluntariness. Thus, from one perspective, CC could be described as a citizenship that is acquired simply by choice. CC also has to do with identity building, as it is common to link CC to organisational values. Other areas of emphasis are participation and activism rather than the aspiration of a legal status. In order to understand CC, the historical affiliations of citizenship need to be taken into account. Table 1 collects some of the most important shifts in the development of

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Table 1: Conceptions of citizenship

Time →

Citizenship in the antiquity	Liberalism	Communitarism	Marshall's threefold division	Global citizenship	New citizenships
Greece: Only free men Linked to ownership Considered a privilege Citizen as a political being, participation in focus Citizen vs. non-citizen *Rome*: Legal status Inequality: first/second-class citizenship	Individuals' relationship with the state Emphasis on rights State as a necessary guardian of rights	Emphasis on community, participation and common identity Self-governing community	Division to: civil rights, political rights, social rights	Goes beyond the nation-state Global civil society? Consumerism Ethical investments	Cyber citizenship, netizenship, technological citizenship Urban citizenship Ecological citizenship Cultural citizenship

citizenship, although it has to be noted that citizenship has not exactly evolved on a continuum, but more as a circle that tends to borrow aspects from both its contemporary and past definitions (Faulks 2000: 14–15).

When looking at the concept of CC in relation to traditional citizenship theory, firstly, it seems to be a rather community-centred concept, which resembles the communitarian citizenship tradition (Delanty 2000: 23, 27, Oliver & Heater 1994: 115, Faulks 2000: 57). The state's role is seen mainly as the legislator, while practically all responsibilities of the corporate citizen are aimed at the community – on a global and a local level. As many multinational corporations are acting globally, their CC has aspects both of a cosmopolitan/global citizenship (working for the global good, see for example Dover 2005) and of a local citizenship that is strongly tied to a small community (working for the local immediate community). Another interesting point is that the other side of corporate citizens' responsibilities are not actually rights (as in the traditional perspective), but in fact their power and importance.

CC is often defended for its positive effect on business. However, these positive effects are hard to measure accurately. Feasible measurements would be welcome, not least because CC among other responsible behaviour is believed to contribute to, for example, a better image and reputation, customer loyalty, profitability, competitiveness and preparation for future challenges (Morsing 2006, Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship 2007, Juholin 2004). A responsible way to conduct business can also contribute to the legitimacy of an organisation (Warren 1999, Deegan 2002, Juholin 2004, Gardberg & Fombrun 2006, Capriotti & Moreno 2007). With these relations in mind, it is easy to see why CC has been such a hot topic in recent years.

The linkage of CC to other functions in a corporation is also hard to specify. Some see CC as something that has evolved from CSR, and it differs from CSR by its strategic nature and a fuller 'understanding of the role of business in society' (McIntosh *et al.* 2003: 16). What this fuller understanding refers to is a challenging question. Mirvis & Googins (2006) try to model this by presenting a framework of the development of CC, ranging from the elementary stage of CC to engaged, innovative, integrated and, finally, the transforming stage of CC. According to this model, all corporations can

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be defined as citizens – they are just on different stages in the process of becoming the finest possible corporate citizen. The final stage is set apart from the earlier stages by transformational and visionary attributes. This, according to Mirvis & Googins (2006), can be defined as the citizenship-DNA that guides corporations on their path towards more responsible behaviour.

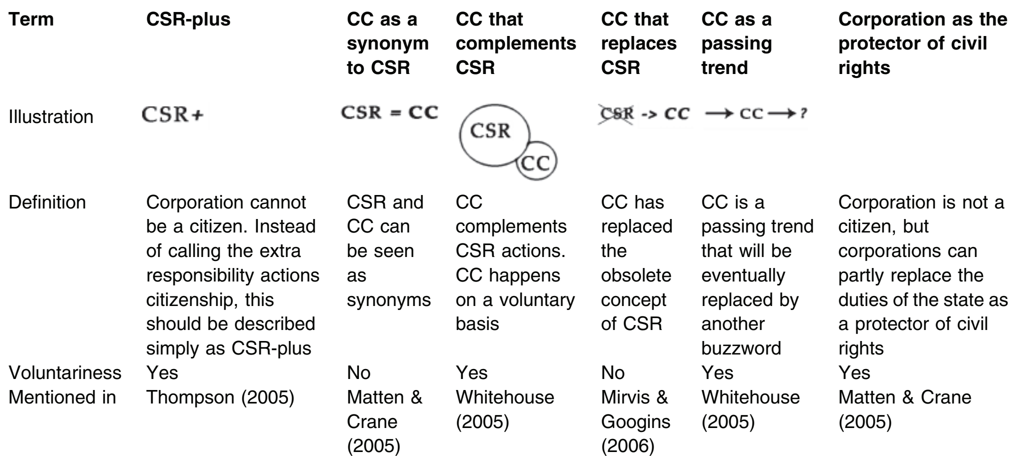
However, Mirvis and Googins' model is of course just one among many. A pattern that seems to repeat itself in many models is that many times, CC is in fact defined with the help of CSR. Thus, the relation between CSR and CC will be further explored next.

The relationship between CSR and CC

CC is not as much applied as the concept of CSR, although they are both most typically seen as part of business ethics and responsibility. Often, CC is defined in relation to CSR, although there are also other concepts that have to do with business ethics and responsibility, such as sustainability, corporate social behaviour, accountability, philanthropy and stakeholder engagement (Hooghiemstra 2000, Amaeshi & Adi 2007).

Table 2 presents several ways to look at CC in relation to CSR. According to one view, citizenship should not be connected to corporations at all – instead, those actions that exceed the 'normal' responsibility actions should be called *CSR-plus* (Thompson 2005: 148–149). Others see CC as a *synonym for CSR*, where they both mean the same thing, adding nothing more or leaving nothing out from each other (Matten & Crane 2005: 168–169). The third conception of CC sees it as a *complementary action to CSR*, and suggests that there is a form of voluntary CC and mandatory CSR (Whitehouse 2005). However, another view sees CC as something that has completely *replaced the obsolete CSR*, and suggests that CC is the new rule for everyone (McIntosh *et al*. 2003, Mirvis & Googins 2006: xi). CC can also be seen as a *passing trend*, a shooting star that will soon be replaced by the next big thing – or with a return to CSR (see Whitehouse 2005). Finally, the voluntary responsibility actions of a corporation can be seen not as citizenship that is an attribute of the corporation, but that citizenship, and especially citizenship rights, is something that the corporation should try to *protect* (Matten & Crane 2005, Crane & Matten 2008).

Table 2: Definitions of CC



Term	CSR-plus	CC as a synonym to CSR	CC that complements CSR	CC that replaces CSR	CC as a passing trend	Corporation as the protector of civil rights
Illustration	CSR+	CSR = CC	CSR CC	~~CSR~~ -> CC	→ CC → ?	
Definition	Corporation cannot be a citizen. Instead of calling the extra responsibility actions citizenship, this should be described simply as CSR-plus	CSR and CC can be seen as synonyms	CC complements CSR actions. CC happens on a voluntary basis	CC has replaced the obsolete concept of CSR	CC is a passing trend that will be eventually replaced by another buzzword	Corporation is not a citizen, but corporations can partly replace the duties of the state as a protector of civil rights
Voluntariness	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Mentioned in	Thompson (2005)	Matten & Crane (2005)	Whitehouse (2005)	Mirvis & Googins (2006)	Whitehouse (2005)	Matten & Crane (2005)

CC, corporate citizenship; CSR, corporate social responsibility.

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CC: for real or a mere metaphor?

Corporate responsibility actions have, in fact, both normative and instrumental characteristics. In the normative sense, companies are thought to have a moral duty to work for the well-being of society, and in the instrumental sense, responsibility is a means to other beneficial ends from corporations' point of view. Some view the normative part as the most important one; to others, all moral burdens should be skimmed out and responsibility should be made a purely managerial concept (Amaeshi & Adi 2007). Nevertheless, as the concepts of corporate responsibility have been derived from the social sphere, and refer to a social status, it is problematic to look at any of them, CC included, from a purely managerial point of view. Consequently, it has to be taken into account that as the concept of 'citizen' has been transferred and narrated into a new environment, it is not always clear whether it is used as an organisational metaphor that aims to lend legitimacy (Stone 2002: 154) or as an actual attempt to gain some kind of genuine citizenship. Moon *et al.* (2005) have been intrigued by the question of whether corporations *are* or *act like* citizens, and they end up presenting that CC indeed has features – involving especially direct action – that are analogous with real citizenship. However, applying citizenship to corporations is not unproblematic, as CC lacks a legal status. As the legal framework is missing, it is difficult to ensure that a corporation that is willing to adopt the language of CC is also willing to adopt the actual responsibilities, as De George (2008) points out. To some, it is not so important whether corporations are 'real' citizens or not, but rather the notion that citizenship discussion helps to illustrate corporations' societal involvement and, even more so, the political nature of this involvement (Crane & Matten 2008).

How relevant, then, is the concept of citizenship in the field of business? One can ask whether citizenship should be applied to corporations at all (see for example Van Oosterhout 2005). For example, Thompson (2005) sees CC only as quasi-citizenship, as it fails to complete the definition of citizenship in terms of rights and duties. Another note made by Thompson is that, if CC is to be treated as a genuine citizenship, it cannot be a 'voluntary association of like-minded participants' as it currently is. Thompson stresses that if citizenship is connected to corporations as a certain kind of behaviour in the public sphere, it should be used rather cautiously, as the concept of citizenship is anything but light (Thompson 2005: 148).

Perhaps the most radical view of CC is presented by Matten & Crane (2005: 170–174) as they claim that the social and political rights of citizenship cannot be applied to corporations, and thus citizenship could only be affiliated with corporations in the sense that corporations should act as supporters and guardians of citizenship. This would then mean that corporations are not acting like citizens but rather like the public administration. The three cases where Matten and Crane suggest corporations could have duties traditionally considered to belong to the state are (a) when the state alone cannot secure citizenship rights; (b) when the state has not begun to administrate citizenship rights; and (c) when the administration of citizenship rights is out of the state's reach. (a) happens, for example, when cooperating with educational issues, (b) takes place mostly in developing markets and (c) is most typical in a global context in general (Matten & Crane 2005).

Matten and Crane's own model takes CC to a whole different discussion. Most of the discussion, however, revolves around a citizenship that is a new feature for the corporation. In this sense, CC can be perceived as a personification. According to Warren (1999: 223), corporations can be looked at as new kinds of persons that act and operate in society. Whether corporations can be evaluated as persons or not, corporations are facing ever-growing demands from many sides, for example, when it comes to openness, trustworthiness and responsibility. Stakeholder engagement is sometimes seen as so important that it requires companies to establish a 'stakeholder democracy' (Crane *et al.* 2004, O'Dwyer 2005). Berenbeim (2005: 247), in fact, sees stakeholders as fellow-citizens to business organisations and Thompson (2005: 148) points out that there is a possibility of a 'stakeholder revolt' if stakeholders' claims are not met. The adoption of CC might be one way to answer to the growing demands on business life, and this adoption has been carried out by taking the parts of citizenship best suited for corporations' utilisation. Some of them are on a metaphorical level (e.g. acting

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like a responsible person) and some are on a more concrete level (e.g. organising a societal development project).

So far, the reasons to adopt CC might vary anywhere from altruism to pure self-interest (Matten & Crane 2005). Also, the business environment, expectations and pressures from society, values, power relations, isomorphism, pressures from peers, competition and globalisation, among other things, exert their effects on the development of responsibility (Amaeshi & Adi 2007).

Sector-based citizenship

The sector where a corporation functions and the type of industry it is involved in play a role in guiding stakeholder perceptions and expectations (Karilahti 2000, Luoma-aho 2008b). Hence, instead of trying to find an all-inclusive definition that could be applied to all corporations (which has proven to be problematic), a more fruitful way to approach the issue of CC could be to orient the citizenship of corporations towards sector-related definitions of citizenship. Gardberg & Fombrun (2006) have noticed the same advantage when they suggested that CC could be divided into different citizenship profiles that are in line with the companies' institutional environments (Gardberg & Fombrun 2006). However, Gardberg and Fombrun's conception of citizenship profiles does not solve the problem that CC is complex, multidimensional and also quite hard to communicate clearly. Naming and framing the CC profile to a transparent and communicative form can help to build up a message of CC that is clear and has direction. By utilising new citizenship theories, it would be possible to highlight the specific needs and responsibilities of different corporations. Some examples of this naming include ecological citizenship, cultural citizenship and technological citizenship (Isin & Wood 1999). A major benefit of steering CC in a more sophisticated direction would be that it would make it possible to better aim both stakeholders' and the whole society's expectations. This would in turn build more concrete ground to organisational legitimacy, and also benefit society in a more fruitful way. Compared with citizenship profiles suggested by Gardberg & Fombrun (2006), this would also give CC a more stable and long-standing direction that has more to do with the individual strengths of a company than merely trying to please the claims of the stakeholders. Instead of a fragmented responsibility field, this approach would mean more specialised areas of responsibility expertise to different organisations.

It is, however, important to note that should these targeted types of citizenship be adopted, it would not do away with the fundamentals of CC. Certain basic responsibility functions would always exist. For example, taking care of staff, respecting civil rights and maintaining an ethical supply chain are to be expected from every corporation regardless of its focus of voluntary responsibility. However, focusing on a specific topic would breathe life into CC, and it would also open up the concept of CC for measurement. More focused citizenship could be anything from developing more environmentally-friendly products to contributing to fostering cultural issues. Moreover, focusing on specific responsibilities would in many cases merely be giving a real name to what is already being done. Thus, it could be possible to speak about a CC that is sector specific or based on the operational environment.

By this more sophisticated conception of citizenship, the corporate citizens could act as specialised, active citizens who follow Buchanan's (2002) notion of citizens whose responsibilities are not eventually directed towards the state, but in fact to fellow citizens – both to other corporations as well as to the whole of civil society.

Empirical case studies

The empirical case studies focus on three internationally operating corporations headquartered in Finland and representing three very different industries:

(1) Metso, representing the engineering and technology industry;
(2) Marimekko, representing the textile and clothing design industry; and
(3) Nokia, representing the information technology industry.

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The context of Finnish-based companies is a fertile ground for responsibility and CC research, as they have a long history of being responsible. In fact, Nordic companies in general differ from their equivalents, for example in the United States, as their responsibility does not rely on charity or philanthropy, but rather on business ideology. The early forms of responsibility in Finnish companies were tied to the very basic need to attract and retain employees, which was believed to be best accomplished by providing, for example, accommodation, healthcare and schooling. This type of early responsibility action was guided by the same philosophy as it is today in Finnish companies, with a mixture of self-interest and genuine aspiration to benefit the society (Juholin 2004).

Our approach involves a narrative analysis of available responsibility reports and their contents. Narratives are said to be the basic forms of knowing and communicating, and they can be any type of texts or speeches that depict a series of events that are somehow connected to each other. Thus, narrative is a story that has a plot to follow (Czarniawska 2004). It has to be noted that there is a difference between analysing narratives and analysing with a narrative approach. As Polkinghorne (1995: 12) puts it, one can either analyse narratives (that are already in a narrative form) or look at any material with a narrative perspective by trying to make sense of the material by synthesising it into a story. In this study, both approaches become useful, as the data, responsibility reports of three Finnish companies, can be seen both as ready-made stories in a plotted form and as material that can be plotted into a narrative. This refers to the notion that narratives in corporate reporting are used both consciously and unconsciously; while the report itself forms a certain kind of constructed story with a structure, corporations also make conscious decisions to build narratives in their reporting to better meet the demands of transparent accountability, and to build legitimacy (Hooghiemstra 2000, Ambler & Neely 2008).

The benefit is that with a narrative analysis, it is possible to look into the reasons and causalities that have led to the incorporation of citizenship into business life. To understand these changes and the concept of CC, we qualitatively analyse the corporate responsibility reports of the three case companies in the time period 2002–2007. An annual responsibility report both describes the past and tries to give out guidelines and predictions for the future. While corporate stories are often fragmented, polyphonic and framed in more than one way, they might require even ante narrative (pre-narrative) analysing methods that take into account that there might be some frictions in the plot (Boje 2001: 1–5). Especially in fragmented stories, the turning points of the development of CC are of extra interest, because they are what are also the turning points in the plot and form the skeleton of the story. The reports go under the different names in the different organisations, and yet they well reflect the current thinking of each sector at the time. Table 3 shows the sources used for our study.

From each corporation's responsibility reporting, three types of narrative themes were recognised: (1)

Table 3: Sources of the empirical analysis listed by years

Year	Metso	Marimekko	Nokia
2002	Sustainability report	Annual report	Not available
2003	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2004	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2005	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2006	Sustainability report	Annual report	Corporate responsibility report
2007	Sustainability report	Annual report	Not available[a]

[a]In 2007, Nokia decided to change the format of the reports from traditional printed format to a webpage. While the format of the report has changed, year 2007 has been removed from this study, as it would have not been explicitly comparable with the rest of the data.

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the status of the corporation and the expectations it brings, (2) the specialisation or niche in the responsibility field and (3) the attitude to CC.

Metso

Metso publishes annual Sustainability Reports, which in fact already hints at where its responsibility focuses: Metso is, above all, concerned with environmental issues.

Metso's narrative about its status and expectations (story 1) focuses on its global activities and global expectations. Metso sees its broad working environment as a challenge to which it tries to answer with extensive care of environmental issues and voluntary local development projects. Its status as the market leader is thought to bring about certain expectations, especially when it comes to environmental responsibility:

> As a leading player we know our responsibility to promote sustainable development, which, in turn, will result in improved environmental performance of our products, exemplary corporate social responsibility and well-being for our stakeholders.
> (Metso Sustainability Report 2002: 10)

Metso clearly places an emphasis on environmental responsibility and sees it as the core area of its responsibility (story 2). In fact, environmental issues are seen as the basis of Metso's competitive edge. Metso displays itself as a voluntary developer of more environment-friendly techniques and wants to be the forerunner of environmental innovations.

When looking at Metso's view of CC (story 3), the story has a changing nature during the reporting years examined. Metso calls itself a corporate citizen during the years 2002–2006: first, it is only briefly mentioned; by the year 2004, it is used to describe practically all responsibility actions, and then it returns to a narrow, mostly social citizenship. Finally, by the last reporting year examined (2007), Metso has abandoned CC altogether. Metso's adoption of CC has thus been an unsuccessful one, as it attempts to expand the concept from its traditional social context, fails to do so, returns to the narrow conception and then abandons it as useless. What is interesting is that while Metso uses CC in different ways and finally chooses to dispose of it, the actual responsibility functions remain the same. This signifies that to Metso, CC has been just a term that has been replaceable. The reason for the abandonment of CC could be that Metso, although it attempts to implement a broader view, is stuck with the social sphere of CC and fails to apply it in Metso's core responsibility area (environmental issues).

Marimekko

Marimekko is a much smaller company than the other two companies studied here. Marimekko does not publish a separate responsibility report, but has included a special social responsibility segment on its responsibility in its Annual Report.

Where Metso presented itself as a global forerunner, Marimekko builds an image of a soulful Finnish company that also wants to gain ground internationally (story 1). Marimekko emphasises its history and future as a contributor to Finnish design culture – and a nurturer of Finnish culture altogether. Marimekko's core responsibility lies in cultural issues, which are embraced from an enlightened egoism point of view (story 2). Marimekko sees itself as a benefactor and developer of Finnish design culture, from which both the company and society gain: Marimekko can find the best designers and society gets to enjoy the unique design. This is seen as the special mission of Marimekko:

> Marimekko promotes the development of Finnish design.
> (Marimekko Annual Report 2003: 45)

The emphasis on culture is so strong that for several years, cultural responsibility is seen as the third responsibility alongside environmental and social responsibility.

During the reporting years examined, Marimekko does not see CC as a relevant issue. It does not mention CC at all, which makes the narrative of CC in Marimekko close to an anti-narrative (story 3). However, not mentioning CC is also a choice – thus, Marimekko seems to represent the CSR-plus view. They do some things that exceed their 'normal' responsibilities, but choose not to call it citizenship.

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Nokia

Nokia publishes annual Corporate Responsibility Reports to report on its responsibility functions. During the reporting years examined, Nokia, like Metso, displays itself as a global doer and a major player that has inevitable impacts on the lives of millions of people (story 1). Nokia stresses that it wants to take part in the communities where it operates, and also to use its status for building a better world. Nokia finds the core areas of responsibility in its core business area: by developing mobile communication means, societies can benefit on a global scale (story 2):

> We believe that the introduction of mobile communications can provide social benefits and an economic stimulus for communities. With mobile communications firmly established as part of everyday life in many parts of the world, we are seeking to bring the same benefits to people in regions where services are unaffordable or inaccessible.
> (Nokia Coporate Responsibility Report 2003: 8)

Nokia adopts an integrated view of CC that is tied to its core business, stakeholder dialogue and long-term survival (story 3). It also indicates transformational and encouraging approaches to how business can better benefit society and remain profitable at the same time. Nokia states that it aims to develop better ways to conduct responsible business and measure its impacts, and it invites others to join this quest. According to the picture Nokia paints, it seems to be the one with the most advanced CC functions.

Discussion

When looking at the corporations examined, they display three differently emphasised stories. However, in all cases, stories about status and specialisations (stories 1 and 2) gave direction to the story of CC (story 3). If one adopts the view that CC is not optional, one could argue that Metso, Marimekko and Nokia are merely in different developmental stages of CC. Drawn from the model (elementary, engaged, innovative, integrated and transforming CC) of Mirvis & Googins (2006), it could be suggested that Metso – although it does not label it CC – is rather developed in its responsibility structures, integration and volume. Metso also shows transformational qualities, as it seeks to be the best and the one that shows direction in environmental issues. Nokia is also quite far along when examined in the framework of Mirvis and Googins, as it also displays a high amount of integration and transformational thinking. Marimekko, on the other hand, might be slightly behind the other two, as it is only starting to build its responsibility structures, and it mainly seems to do the expected and aim for acceptance.

As Table 4 shows, the stories of CC vary: Metso abandons it, Marimekko ignores it and Nokia embraces it. Nokia is the only case where the story of CC is a successful one, and one that gains importance along the way. What is worth mentioning in the other two cases is that both Metso and Marimekko have their area of specialisation in responsibility somewhere other than in the sphere of the social. This could actually be the reason why CC does not seem to 'fit', no matter how broadly it is tried to be applied.

With these findings in mind, we suggest that instead of speaking of mere CC, different forms of citizenship should be acknowledged. This change is in line with the origin of the concept of citizenship, as for example, different countries and also individuals differ in their citizenship and expectations. We propose three new types of citizenship in view of the sectors studied here: *cultural citizenship, environmental citizenship* and *technological citizenship*. For Metso and other corporations that conduct business involving the use of natural resources, environmental citizenship is the most important. For Marimekko and the design industry, cultural citizenship describes its efforts more adequately. For Nokia and other technology companies, technological citizenship is more relevant in the eyes of stakeholders than the other types of citizenship. These different forms of citizenship identified here already seem to be in use, and yet have remained unnamed. By acknowledging them for what they are, corporations could better develop their responsibility and remain ethical in the most critical sectors.

Conclusions and critique

Responsibility is an ever-growing and complex field, and it seems that traditional divisions are changing.

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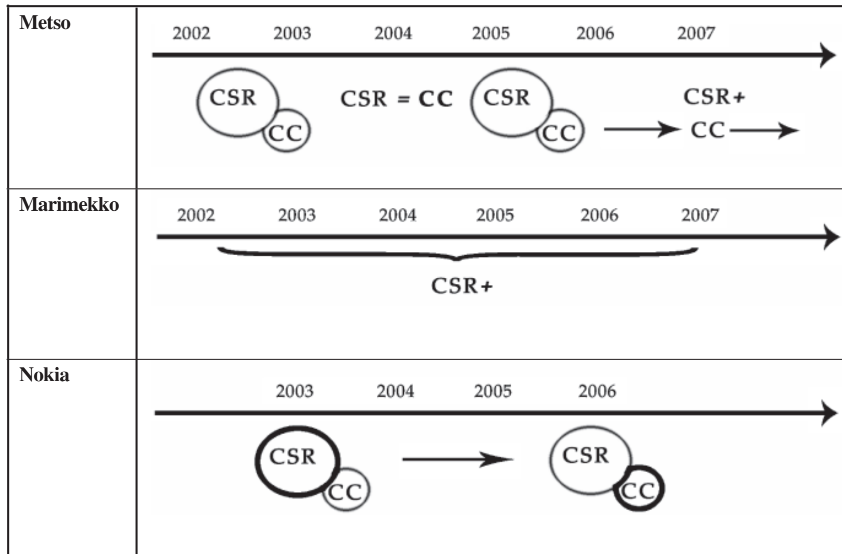
Table 4: Corporate citizenship of Metso, Marimekko and Nokia



For example, stakeholders' expectations towards the public sector and private sector are becoming increasingly similar: where the public sector incorporates market-oriented thinking, the private sector faces pressures to become more socially responsible, more for 'the common good'. In this study, all three companies studied seemed to do their best to minimise their environmental footprint and maximise their ethical footprint. Responsibility is seen as a positive legacy, by which the company is making a difference. While CC is no doubt the current buzzword, the study showed that its definitions vary among the case organisations and sometimes it is hard to apply to real cases. While the discussion about CC has long circled around social aspects, citizenship is much more than social. Many companies are already taking well directed and specialised actions in the field of responsibility (like Metso), but they fail to recognise that these actions could be described as a special kind of citizenship. In the case of Metso, its responsibility actions could well be described as environmental citizenship, where civil activism aims at the well-being and sustainable fostering of nature. Marimekko, in turn, could benefit from cultural citizenship, which aims to promote cultural values. Finally, Nokia already directs its well-established CC in a technological direction, but it could also benefit from labelling it technological citizenship, in order to emphasise the potential of technological solutions to create social channels.

We suggest an answer to the need for a more sophisticated definition that could help to develop CC in a more profitable way by introducing sector-based citizenship. While citizenship is certainly not the only concept that can be used to describe these specifications of responsibility, it certainly has the potential to better bind together companies' responsibility fields and even direct stakeholder expectations. This is in line with earlier studies (Juholin 2004, Amaeshi & Adi 2007: 7) that note the 'automaticness' of responsibility. What is new, however, is the type of responsibility and citizenship. The establishment of different types of citizenship

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would clarify and ease the aims of CC and make both CC and CSR more established and better understood. Moreover, distinguishing between different sectors will provide for more fruitful development and also benchmarking within each specific sector.

Regardless of the importance of responsibility, there are still many questions left to be answered. One such question is: which comes first: responsibility or profitability? It can be claimed that only a profitable corporation has the resources to act in a responsible way but also that responsibility is an essential asset if a corporation wants to become successful and profitable (Blowfield 2005). Therefore, responsibility and profitability could be understood to form a circle where one is always affected by the other (Juholin 2004). More research is needed, however, to determine these interrelations.

This study has its limitations, among which are the limited number of cases, and the focus of analysis on merely corporate reports. What is reported and what is done can be two different things, and hence the adjectives (cultural, environmental and technological) respond here to more circumstantial factors, although the intrinsic issues should not be ignored. For these reasons, interviews might have benefited the study and given it further depth. Moreover, other corporate stories and points of view on the corporate stories may have been left in the margin, and cultural aspects typical for Western society and Nordic countries have their own emphasis. Reports were chosen, however, as they represent the official publications and voice of the corporations. We note that future studies should concentrate on comparing the different points of view not only within an organisation but also among the different stakeholder groups and across cultures and additional sectors.

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II

MANAGING MENTAL STANDARDS WITH CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP PROFILES

by

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Managing Mental Standards with Corporate Citizenship Profiles

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Abstract

Stakeholder expectations of corporate responsibility are growing and thus understanding the dynamics of expectations is becoming important for companies. Stakeholder expectations that are met open doors for stakeholder favor, whereas unmet expectations may hinder or even prevent collaboration. While all companies are expected to be responsible enough to keep away from causing harm to others, a competitive edge can only be achieved if the minimum expectations are exceeded. The paper suggests that companies can both exceed and manage stakeholder expectations in practice by building up a corporate citizenship profile that gives direction to their specialization in responsibility. This niche can be labeled for example environmental, cultural or technological corporate citizenship. The value of such labeling is that it can make the corporate responsibility of an individual company easier to communicate. This is important, as creating competitive edge with responsibility sets high standards for communication, since stakeholders view messages concerning responsibility with a great deal of criticism, or even cynicism. As good deeds of today tend to turn into expectations of tomorrow, meeting stakeholder expectations can become crucial for company success. Thus, expectations need to be both understood and managed.

Keywords

Stakeholders, expectations, corporate citizenship

Introduction

As societies become more diverse and fragmented, expectations of how business should be run are becoming more complex as well. The recent buzz around the responsibilities of business mirrors the current societal values and changes (Matten & Moon, 2008). Some have argued the society to have turned into a Risk Society (Beck, 1992) where principles for operating are questioned and criticized openly (Beck, 1992; Jones, 2002). As a result, companies need to find ways to answer to increasing expectations that might whittle away stakeholder trust, and through it erode their legitimacy (Deephouse & Carter, 2005). Stakeholder expectations of responsibility have been on the rise (De Man, 2005) and as they are changing they transform also the way responsibility is perceived. However choosing what to emphasize and what to communicate is not easy for business, as cultural aspects cause variation in the notion of responsibility (see e.g. the Edelman Trust Barometer, 2009; Williams & Zinkin, 2008) and what responsibility is considered to be may change over time (Matten & Moon, 2008).

Companies and their stakeholders affect each other directly and indirectly, as the theory of stakeholder thinking depicts (Carroll, 1993; Freeman, 1984). When talking about corporate responsibility and stakeholder thinking, companies need to find ways to combine two profound needs to function; the society's need for production and companies' need for societal consent. Problems arise, as expectations for responsibility are sometimes higher than companies are willing to meet (Blowfield, 2005; de Man, 2005). This gap poses a risk for business, and requires attention. The size of the risk depends on how large a gap the stakeholders are willing to accept.

When risks become more visible, stakeholders take more interest in how business operates. Communication becomes a critical asset, as stakeholders need more information on how companies are conducting their responsibility. Stakeholders want to be able to assess if their expectations match reality. The paper proposes the different stakeholder expectations to form dynamic 'mental standards', that are sometimes congruent and sometimes very different from the standards used elsewhere (e.g. in reporting). Aligning these (mental & other standards) is of vital importance for companies wanting to succeed with corporate responsibility. As such, the underlying assumption of this paper is that corporate responsibility can only be effective if the different expectations toward it are managed. The paper suggests that one way to effectively manage expectations in practice could be through a corporate citizenship profile. But to manage expectations, they first need to be defined and understood.

To maintain basic legitimacy, companies need to achieve at least the minimum level of responsibility by causing no harm to others. However, this paper suggests that gaining competitive edge from responsibility requires not only answering to the minimum expectations, but exceeding them. What is more, responsibility does not end once a certain level of responsibility is demonstrated, but instead stakeholder demands may even rise (Dean, 2004). In fact, it is extremely challenging to get stakeholders to settle for less once a certain level of responsibility has been established (Morsing, 2003). That said, the management of stakeholder expectations can turn out to be crucial for successful corporate responsibility. Despite this, little research has focused on the dynamics of stakeholder expectations.

To address the issue of diverse and dynamic expectations, the paper proposes that companies can both exceed and manage stakeholder expectations by building corporate citizenship profiles that match the industry or the field of the company. By using such profiles stakeholder expectations can be given direction and kept realistic. The concept of corporate citizenship (CC) is used here, as it provides an analytical lens that locates companies into a societal context (Crane, Matten & Moon, 2008). The notion of "citizenship profiles" is derived from Gardberg & Fombrun (2006), but weighted for this paper's purposes with more profound communicative angles. In fact, the paper suggests communication to play a critical role for responsibility: first, communication can be of value when profiling the type of re-

sponsibility suitable for the company. Second, communication is the key to managing expectations through reputation.

As no communication can be successful without genuine actions behind it, companies need to know their stakeholders and listen to their expectations and demands. In addition, a company needs to know where it wants to focus and find a way to meet expectations with that focus. If a company fails to focus, responsibility can become a "slippery slope" (Frederiksen, 2010) with endless expectations. Thus, companies are not only required to know what the stakeholders are expecting, but also to know how the expectations can be filled while conducting everyday operations. This is challenging as stakeholders constitute an ecosystem that reforms itself whenever stakeholders' attitudes, values or expectations change.

The paper is organized as follows. To begin with, the paper sets out the scene for stakeholder expectations and their relevance for corporate responsibility. Next, attention is directed towards how company responses affect stakeholder expectations and why expectations need to be managed. Towards the concluding part, the paper discusses how companies can both exceed and manage stakeholder expectations in practice by specializing, and moreover, by building up a corporate citizenship profile.

Why expectations matter?

Companies are growingly interested in stakeholder expectations, since maintaining a good rapport with stakeholders is believed to strengthen organizational legitimacy and long-term performance (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Suchman, 1995). In fact, the relative importance of stakeholder expectations seems to be growing (Sinaceur, Heath & Cole, 2005). Expectations can be defined as mental standards on what is considered important or as heavily invested beliefs and anticipations about what will occur in the future, or how others behave. What makes these mental standards tricky is that they are subject to change and affected by emotions. Expectations can be positive (trusting) or negative (distrusting) (Lewicki, McAllister & Bies, 1998) and they may derive from personal or mediated experiences. However, often the origins of expectations are hard to define clearly, as both weak signals and individual clues are combined to form a scenario of what is likely to happen. Thus, stakeholder expectations are more subtle than stakeholder demands; expectations might not lead to visible outcomes such as boycotts, but instead result in silent manifests of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These are often demonstrated through choices in consuming, identification, and the willingness to cooperate.

What makes expectations worth understanding are the benefits they provide: fulfilled expectations are rewarded with the generation of trust, which in turn has a positive effect on reputation (Eisenegger & Imhof, 2008). Reputation is a record of trustworthy or untrustworthy past behavior (Andreassen, 1994; Sztompka, 2000; Webley, 2003), forming as a cyclical process: past experiences create a reputation based on which future expectations are matched (Luoma-aho, 2005). From the organization's point of view managing stakeholder expectations is important because suitable expectations among stakeholders open doors for stakeholder favor, whereas false expectations may hinder or even prevent collaboration.

As stakeholder expectations belong to the area of relationship management on the organizational agenda, they highlight the need to know and understand stakeholders that surround organizations. Communication becomes a central function, as relationships are maintained to a large part with the help of communication (Ledingham & Bruning, 2000). Furthermore, communication is essential in creating meanings and making sense (Schultz & Wehmeier, 2010) and in seeking support for actions (Hooghiemstra, 2000). From the point of view of communication the central questions relating to stakeholder expectations are what is communicated to the stakeholders, how the stakeholders react and how the stakeholders are placed in importance (Luoma-aho, 2008). Expectations are formed through experience and time (Vos & Schoemaker, 1999), but communication is what maintains, increases or diminishes them.

Stakeholders constitute the ecosystem for business operations – an ecosystem that reforms itself whenever stakeholders' attitudes, values or expectations change. It has been suggested that companies with strong brands face higher stakeholder expectations and through them more criticism than those with more decentralized trademarks (Haltsonen, Kourula & Salmi, 2009). Also companies with operations close to natural resources are considered prone to criticism (Peloza, 2006; De Villiers & Staden, 2006). Thus the expectations that companies face vary both in their content and intensity. Especially when corporate responsibility is monitored with intensity, honest communication and recognition of stakeholder expectations can provide room for organizational coping.

Expectations of responsibility

Previous research has suggested that there is an ideal level for conducting corporate responsibility that is related to attributes such as company size and industry (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). As corporate responsibility is often defined with the help of "the Triple Bottom Line" (TBL) that acknowledges three different responsibilities businesses today have (economic, environmental and social) (Elkington, 1994), stakeholder expectations of responsibility can refer to different areas on the organizational agenda. In fact, as the Triple Bottom Line suggests, an organization's responsibility is towards all different stakeholders that are connected to the company with either formal or informal bonds. A stakeholder can hence be anyone who is influenced by or aims to influence, either directly or indirectly, the actions of the organization (Carroll, 1993; Freeman, 1984). These stakeholders constitute the audience for corporate responsibility and seek various arenas to voice their own opinions on responsibility.

Balancing corporate responsibility with stakeholder expectations is a challenging task, as a good deed done today can turn into a prevailing expectation for tomorrow (Luoma-aho, 2008). In fact, how responsibility is perceived can change over time. According to several studies (Blowfield & Googins, 2006; Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship, 2009; De Man, 2005; Waddock, Bodwell & Graves, 2002) the direction of change has been constant for already some time: towards tackling ever more complex issues with corporate responsibility. Scholars have argued that responsibility has become a prerequisite for attracting investments (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 16), a central tool to secure business in the long run (Fombrun, Gardberg & Barnett, 2000; Vanhamme & Grobben, 2009), and even an all-pervasive business imperative (Waddock, Bodwell & Graves, 2002). In accordance to this development, responsibility will soon become a condition sine qua non for conducting business no matter where the operations take place.

When talking about responsibility, stakeholders expect many things. To maintain basic legitimacy, companies need to achieve at least a minimum level of responsibility of causing no harm to others with their business (Elkington, 1994; Waddock, Bodwell & Graves, 2002). This can relate to different spheres of respon-

sibility, starting from environmental considerations such as pollution control to social considerations such as fair treatment of employees and safety of production. In addition to keeping away from harm, stakeholder expectations address rather complex issues, such as human equality, education, and tackling social problems. (Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship, 2010.) Thus, business today is not faced only with demands on the minimum level (no harm done), but they are also expected to take part in promoting societal goals on a general level. To add to the complexity of stakeholder expectations, different stakeholders can expect different things, and what is more, the differing expectations might even contradict each other. This, if anything, makes it even more difficult to find the right responses to expectations from the perspective of an individual organization.

As companies cooperate with each other, they also have expectations for each other. To be able to ensure that expectations of responsibility are met throughout the supply chain and cooperation network, the business life has built self-regulatory systems to guide how much responsibility is considered as sufficient (Matten & Moon, 2008; Schultz & Wehmeier, 2010). For example, companies with operations abroad are usually expected to follow the laws and standards at least on the level of their country of origin. To prevent differing practices, international standardization systems have been established that oblige the certificate holders to follow them wherever they operate (Matten & Moon, 2008). Standards are a way to guarantee a uniform behavior that goes beyond national regulations, and as such, standards represent one to define how much responsibility can be expected.

Fulfilling minimum level of responsibility is especially vital for the formation of stakeholder assessments, and neglecting the minimums can cause permanent harm. If the minimums are not met, it is most often the stakeholders that bear the consequences e.g. in terms of health problems, contaminated living environment or economical loss. When companies gain in power they are also able to touch the lives of even more stakeholders. This, in turn, means bigger risks and bigger crises if the risks actualize. Especially in the wake of the 21st century, irresponsibility has been confronted with not only changes in attitudes (increased skepticism), but also with changes in regulation and legislation (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 414-415; Rockness & Rockness, 2005). In fact, tolerance for violations on the Triple Bottom Line is getting ever lower, and support is given increasingly to those willing to exceed the minimum level. Unfulfilled expectations may not always be displayed flamboyantly, but by simply turning to the competitor who can deliver the product with satisfactory social and environmental level.

Managing expectations

To manage expectations they need to be understood and known. In particular, companies need to understand that different stakeholders can have different expectations. Thus, creating uniform standards is not always sufficient for expectations management, as all stakeholder expectations are not necessary in congruence with the prevailing standards. To find a way to operate in a legitimate way, both what is expected of the company and what the company is willing to deliver needs to be constantly negotiated between companies and their stakeholders.

To maintain stakeholder support, expectations should be met – to gain a competitive edge, expectations should be exceeded. Whether a company strives to meet or exceed expectations of responsibility is a strategic question. Some companies might be pleased just to stay on the minimum level and not to invest in proactive monitoring of expectations that concern responsibility. However, those companies wanting to exceed expectations need a have a plan in order to succeed.

Managing expectations is related to managing relationships

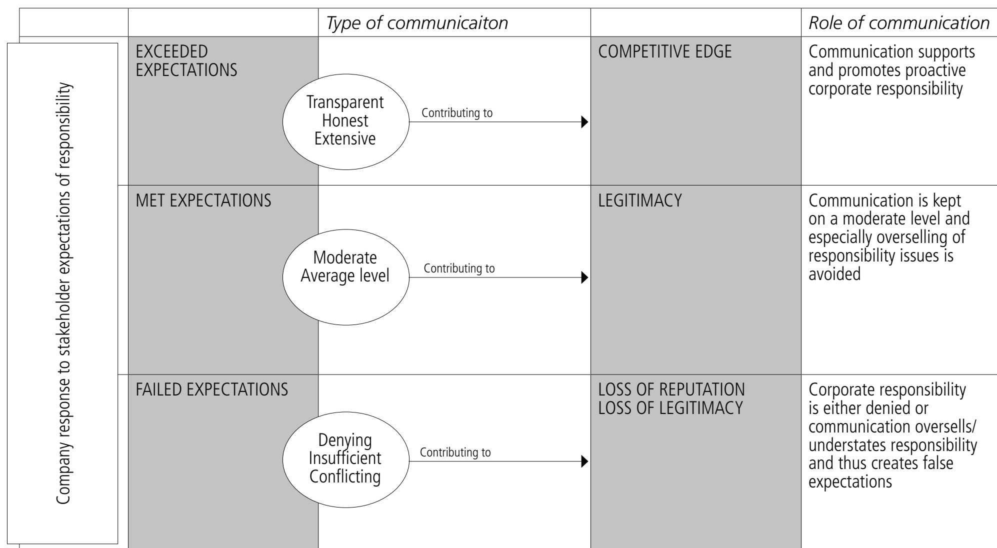

FIGURE 1 Company response to stakeholder expectations of responsibility and effects

(Ledingham, 2003). What makes relationship management important is that an established and known relationship offers opportunities for predicting and following how expectations develop and change. In order to know and understand both relationships and expectations, communication is needed to be able to exchange information and to make sense of it. Furthermore, managing expectations is important as a company cannot only adjust itself into the demands of the surrounding society, but rather needs to find ways to balance company needs with stakeholder needs and to find common ground and mutual benefit between them (Frederiksen, 2010; Ledingham, 2003).

How a company behaves and acts affect stakeholder expectations whether a company is aware of expectations or not. Company responses contribute to whether expectations are on the positive or the negative side (Lewicki, McAllister & Bies, 1998), which in turn can affect organizational reputation and legitimacy, as well as stakeholder trust. Basically, companies can either fail, meet, or exceed stakeholder expectations. Communication has a role here, as it can maintain, increase or diminish expectations and stakeholders' perceptions of the organization as a whole. Figure 1 offers (a simplified) framework for stakeholder expectations and company response, as well as presents the most important perspectives for communication.

As figure 1 suggests, failing stakeholder expectations is connected with denying or insufficient communication, or communication that is somehow conflicting with actions (see for example Bradford & Garrett, 1995; Luoma-aho & Paloviita, 2010). Thus, a company can fail in meeting stakeholder expectations of responsibility not only by refusing to take up responsibility, but by taking it and not communicating about it, or by telling about it but not actually doing it. This level of not meeting the minimum expectations of responsibility has the potential to cause harm for both organizational reputation and legitimacy.

On the level of meeting the minimum expectations it is generally sufficient to keep an average level of disclosure and not to oversell responsibility if nothing extra is done (Morsing & Schultz, 2006; Schultz & Wehmeier, 2010). However, exceeding expectations does set higher standards for communication, as stakeholders need to be able to judge for themselves if what is claimed matches what they consider to be responsible (Dawkins & Lewis, 2003; Lewis, 2003). Expectations can be exceeded with an extension (or several extensions) of responsibility, i.e. taking voluntary actions on some level(s) of responsibility, or with a more detailed niche or a clearly defined area of specialization. Either way, exceeding expectations offers a chance to create competitive edge. However, compared to an extension a clearly communicated niche could offer a package that can be easier to manage. Next, the paper turns to suggest that in practice this niche could be a corporate citizenship profile that utilizes the many variants of citizenship, among them environmental and cultural citizenship.

Specialization and focusing: finding a niche in responsibility

As a certain amount of responsibility is expected from all, fulfilling the minimum expectations (no harm done) does not provide competitive edge, but still has the potential to cause harm when left neglected. Thus, those companies wanting to gain extra benefits from their responsibility efforts need to find areas where to outperform the competition. These extra benefits are found somewhere beyond maintaining the basic legitimacy, in areas such as reputational capital, social capital and competitive edge (Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006; Jenkins, 2009; Porter & Kramer, 2002; White, 2006). These benefits, also referred to as intangible assets, are the most difficult characters for competitors to copy, which is why companies are increasingly interested in finding ways to acquire them (Kaplan & Norton, 2004; Wernerfelt, 1984). However, exceeding expectations is no easy business: it requires both resources and time. As the gap between the perceived performance in responsibility and expectations on it continues to widen (de Man, 2005), companies need to work ever harder to be able to top the increasing expectations.

Companies have different methods when trying to exceed the minimums of responsibility. In the U.S., corporate philanthropy has been a popular approach, whereas many European countries have preferred responsibility functions more closely tied to their everyday operations, such as enhanced product quality, environmental considerations and employee health & safety (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). The latest literature on corporate responsibility emphasizes that the area where companies should exceed the minimum expectations should ideally be somehow linked to the company's core business (Gardberg & Fombrun 2006; Lozano, 2008; McManus, 2008; Schultz & Wehmeir, 2010; Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010). Schultz & Wehmeier (2010) call this translation of responsibility to the organizational context, others call it integration (Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship, 2009; Stephenson, 2009), or specialization (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010).

Linking responsibility into core business is recommended especially because it has the potential to create benefit for both the company doing it as well as to the surrounding society. When there is something for the company to gain and not just to give, companies might find more motivation to take up extra responsibility and actually commit to it. Moreover, an integrated approach might also become more believable from the stakeholders' view since faked or artificial responsibility is one of the most common reasons for criticism (Fombrun, Gardberg & Barnett, 2000; Vanhamme & Grobben, 2009). Thus, the integration of responsibility requires not only knowing what the stakeholders are expecting, but knowing how these expectations could be filled while conducting everyday operations.

From communications point of view, creating competitive edge with responsibility sets high standards for communication in particular, as stakeholders view messages concerning responsibility with a great deal of criticism, or even cynicism (Morsing & Schultz, 2006; Ortiz Martinez & Crowther, 2008; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2008). However, with successful communication based on genuine actions, stakeholders can be turned into supportive faith-holders (Luoma-aho, 2005) whose trust form the basis for organizational legitimacy. Thus, communication can be a powerful tool for both managing expectations and profiling the type of responsibility suitable for the company.

In sum, building competitive edge with the help of corporate responsibility means that a company needs to figure out how stakeholder expectations can be exceeded without compromising business. This is where strategically aligned corporate citizenship can help, since it provides a framework for both framing and naming the specialization of voluntary responsibility. Here, corporate citizenship does not stay on a general level of acting in the society as responsible citizens would do (Carroll, 1991), but recognizes that citizenship can take different forms. While scholars have remained in disagreement about the relations of corporate citizenship to other concepts of business responsibility (Matten & Crane, 2005; Mirvis & Googins, 2006; Thompson, 2005; Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010), the definitions of corporate citizenship usually give added emphasis to voluntarism and especially activism (Mirvis & Googings, 2006; Moon,

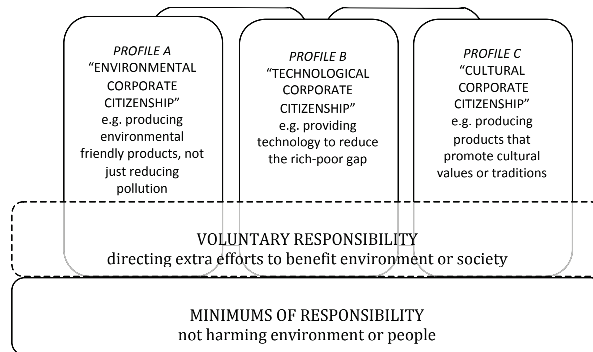

FIGURE 2 Examples of corporate citizenship profiles

Crane & Matten, 2005). It is exactly this activist nature where the potential of corporate citizenship lie with regard to gaining competitive edge.

Building competitive edge with corporate citizenship involves intensive, more than standard actions on one or more aspect besides making profit on the Triple Bottom Line: social or environmental. On a social level, the actions might be targeted to tackle problems such as the level of education or the rich-poor gap (Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship, 2010, p. 3), and on an environmental level to developing products that have minimum negative impact on the environment (Crane, Matten & Moon, 2008). In addition to the responsibilities listed in the TBL, the concept of citizenship does offer room for even more diverse definitions, including such labels as technological citizenship and cultural citizenship (Isin & Wood, 1999). Hence, with its room for profiling, corporate citizenship can contribute to more than creating competitive edge, as it has the potential to help companies communicate the niche where they are exceeding the expectations.

Specialization in corporate citizenship has been suggested before by Gardberg and Fombrun (2006), but so far such profiling has been quite challenging to communicate clearly. One adaptation has been the division of corporate citizenship into three different kinds of citizenships: environmental, technological, and cultural corporate citizenship. Environmental corporate citizenship would be beneficial especially for those companies operating closely with natural resources (such as heavy industry), whereas cultural corporate citizenship could be a good profile for companies that have something to do with contributing to the cultural heritage (such as design industry), and finally technological corporate citizenship to those companies contributing to the societal development by generating and distributing technological applications (such as IT industry). By creating a communicative citizenship profile, companies could emphasize their individual strengths in the field of responsibility and give direction to stakeholder expectations. (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010.) This is vital, as companies should know their stakeholders well and stay close to the industry expectations and trends.

Figure 2 depicts different corporate citizenship profiles. Besides the examples presented above, it is possible that additional corporate citizenship profiles could be defined. The three examples are drawn from a study where different types of citizenship were identified and named from existing corporate reports (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010). An important aspect is that all the examples profiled here rest on the minimums of responsibility, e.g. a level of minimum responsibility that is expected from all companies. While the profiles are based on the very minimums that often refer to rules that reduce the harm done, voluntary responsibilities lie in actions that aim to produce something good with responsibility not only by keeping away from harm but by having societal or environmental goals. Thus, a company with a corporate citizenship profile strives to have a positive (rather than a neutral) outcome from the area it has chosen to specialize in. Though companies can take voluntary responsibilities even without such profiles in more or less focused or strategic ways, the most important benefit of a profile is that it is clearly defined and structured – and easier to manage.

As companies continue to integrate corporate responsibility to their core business (Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship, 2009), more communicative responsibility profiles are needed. This is needed especially because corporate responsibility remains to be an ambiguous and multifaceted field. The profiles could help especially with finding the most suitable area of specialization for individual companies, and with finding tools for communicating where expectations are intended to be exceeded. Without a responsibility profile, or as suggested here, a citizenship profile (explanation of where minimum expectations are exceeded), the field of responsibility might be difficult to manage and communicate.

Especially environmental forerunners could benefit from a responsibility profile of environmental corporate citizen, as it is the hardest to intuitively connect to the term of corporate social responsibility (CSR) due to CSR's emphasis on social issues. In addition to the profiles suggested here, citizenship profiling might open also many other interesting doors to companies that find their area of specialization, their niche in responsibility, from untraditional fields.

Discussion

In the paper it was suggested that expectations create 'mental standards' that affect not only consuming, but also partnering, cooperating and identification. Furthermore, it was proposed that the creation of specific corporate citizenship profiles that match the industry or field of the company could ease the management of stakeholder expectations in practice by giving expec-

tations direction and keeping them realistic. The paper suggested communication to play a critical role in responsibility as it provides tools to profiling the type of responsibility suitable for the company and as it can assist managing expectations through reputation. As stakeholders need to know what to expect, inconsistent communication can make the whole corporate responsibility function seem fuzzy. To solve this, corporate citizenship profiles were presented to help align expectations and give clarity to responsibility actions.

The value of corporate citizenship profiles reveals itself especially to companies wanting to gain competitive edge from their responsibility functions. If exceeding expectations and reinforcing intangible assets is something a company wants to accomplish, a niche in the form of a corporate citizenship profile could help to direct efforts. As Frederiksen (2010) has noted, listening to expectations and demands of responsibility can become a "slippery slope" for companies if they do not know where to focus. A niche that is easy to communicate, integrate and to define, could help to give suitable direction to stakeholder expectations and help to avoid the emergence of unrealistic expectations.

One very relevant question is whether the profiles presented here need to be named corporate citizenship profiles and if for example CSR profiles would be as suitable or even more fitting. No doubt both corporate citizenship and CSR profiles could be used to describe the specialization and niche that the paper has discussed. The benefits of corporate citizenship lie, however, in the active doer that it implies – responsibility is not just happening, but an actor (the corporate citizen) is taking responsibility of doing it. As such, corporate citizenship places companies into a societal context as citizens among citizens. What is more, citizenship theory offers tools for companies wanting to profile themselves as specialized citizens – citizens whose citizenship actualizes in the form of different practices and identities and not so much as an uniform package of duties and right (see Isin & Wood, 1999).

One of the paper's central points was that the profiling suggested could be used as a practical tool for clearer communication about companies' responsibilities. However, communication does not offer an instant fix as disclosure on responsibility can also open doors for criticism (Schultz & Wehmeier, 2010; Vanhamme & Grobben 2009). Despite the challenges, communication can be a powerful tool for both managing expectation and profiling the type of responsibility suitable for the company. Fredriksson (2009) has suggested that communication's centrality to responsibility lies in its ability to serve organizational expressivity, and reduce both uncertainty and complexity. In other words, communication helps to interpret the society and place organizations in it. The key for succeeding in this is to match communication with both expectations and actions; even the best communicative tools cannot help if they are not based on genuine action. Yet, if what is said is matched and profiled with what is done, communication can make or break the success of responsibility actions.

This attempt to better understand the link between expectations and corporate responsibility relates to an area that has not so far been researched extensively. Thus, it is an area where future research should shed more light on. For example where companies land in meeting stakeholder expectations could prove to be a useful area for future research.

In reality the expectations of different stakeholder groups can be very different from each other, which is also something future studies should address. In addition to this, more studies are needed on how stakeholder expectations affect corporate responsibility together with other factors such as isomorphism, peer pressure, institutionalization and cultural environments. While more work is needed to be able to understand the full dynamics of stakeholder expectations, this paper can be considered as a move towards tying stakeholder expectations more profoundly to the field of corporate responsibility, and especially to corporate citizenship.

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III

PUBLIC RELATIONS AS EXPECTATION MANAGEMENT?

by

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Public relations as expectation management?

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to assess how expectation management can contribute strategically to communication management, and how understanding and managing expectations can increase organizations' sensitivity toward stakeholder voices and concerns.

Design/methodology/approach – An example of mapping and identifying expectations is presented as a result of a thematic analysis of qualitative interview data, collected from six stakeholder groups of the media industry.

Findings – Expectation types and gaps can be identified through the use of systematic expectation mapping, conceptualized in this paper as "expectation management." Expectation management analyzes expectation types and priorities, and it assists in crafting response strategies. Four types of expectations (must, will, should, and could) were identified in an empirical study of the media industry.

Research limitations/implications – As the empirical study focussed on one industry in one country, the findings should be considered an introduction to expectation mapping and expectation management, to be further developed in other settings.

Practical implications – Organizations can gain strategic advantages by using expectation management to deepen communication management. New skills and processes may be needed to enable communication professionals to analyze and understand the core level of expectations.

Social implications – Expectation management can help organizations respond to current societal pressures and help publics voice their concerns toward organizations.

Originality/value – A new concept with strategic value is presented. The reported study of mapping and identifying expectations helps to clarity and interpret factors that shape stakeholder relationships and satisfaction on a deeper level.

Keywords Expectations, Expectation management, Public relations theory, Weak signals

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

The information flows that surround organizations today are quick and potentially global (Coombs, 2002). This environment has introduced new challenges for organizations, especially as publics can combine powers and voice opinions through multifaceted and interconnected channels both online and offline (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Luoma-aho and Vos, 2010; Shirky, 2011). Reacting to publics is not enough, as weak signals can quickly become "contagious" (Coombs, 2002) and turn into demands (Olkkonen and Luoma-aho, 2011). Moreover, organizations are no longer at the center of the stakeholder map; rather,

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they are parts of interconnected networks (Steurer, 2006), which requires increased sensitivity to changing practices, values, and expectations (The Melbourne Mandate, 2012; The Stockholm Accords, 2010). In order to respond to these challenges, more sophisticated mapping and monitoring are called for, as well as a deeper understanding of the changes taking place in the minds and emotional responses of publics.

In this paper, we suggest that a broader understanding of publics' expectations can deepen communication management approaches. Thus far, expectations have been mentioned, but not elaborated in existing public relations approaches that aim to enhance organizations' ability to respond to changing preferences, claims, and pressures from their publics. Among these approaches are issues management (Grunig and Repper, 1992; Heath and Bowen, 2002; Jaques, 2002), relationship management (Ledingham, 2003, 2008; Welch, 2006), reputation management (Eisenegger, 2009; Eisenegger and Imhof, 2008), and crisis management (Coombs, 2000; Coombs and Holladay, 2012; Seeger *et al.*, 1998). Common to all four approaches is the aim to build harmony between organizational operations and publics, and in doing so create a working environment where support is high and resistance is low (Heath, 2002, 2006; Heath and Bowen, 2002; Ledingham, 2003).

These four approaches form the starting point for this study and serve as a springboard to a deeper understanding of publics' expectations. As such, these four approaches provide a framework for how expectations have been rooted and understood in public relations and how they continue to be relevant to such current topics as corporate responsibility (Coombs and Holladay, 2012; Jaques, 2011). Essentially, their aim is to safeguard organizations from legitimacy gaps (Sethi, 1979) that can threaten the whole existence of an organization. However, it is argued in this paper that reliance on these approaches alone may result in missing the deeper levels and roots of stakeholder relations; hence, a new approach is needed.

The aim of the paper is to broaden the understanding of expectations in public relations by looking into three issues:

(1) How can different expectation types be understood?

(2) What is the relevance of different expectation types to the public-organization relationships?

(3) How can expectation management contribute strategically to communication management?

The next section introduces the role of expectations in the light of previous literature of public relations, and brings forth a question of whether expectations can deepen the understanding of public-organization relationships and the changes that take place in them. In the section that follows, we introduce literature from customer management and customer satisfaction studies, which divide expectations into different types based on their origins. In the empirical section, an example of expectation mapping and identification is presented with qualitative data from the different stakeholders of the one industry, the Finnish media industry. As a result of the empirical study, four types of expectations along with their implications for public relations are presented. Following the empirical study, expectation management is discussed as a task for future public relations: what expectation management is, how it differs from earlier management approaches, and how it may become increasingly beneficial for public relations in the future. To conclude, it is claimed that management of issues, relationships, reputation, and crises can be

improved if expectations are managed first. For example, reputation building may backfire if expectations are conflicting or ignored.

The role of expectations in public relations

Public relations as a field is interested in publics, their actions, and their opinions that form through evolving trends, issues, and values (Dozier, 1986; Lauzen, 1995). The Global Alliance for Public Relations and Communication Management has noted that it is increasingly important for public relations and communication professionals to listen to stakeholder voices and concerns and to interpret societal expectations (The Melbourne Mandate, 2012; The Stockholm Accords, 2010, p. 6). In academic literature of public relations, expectations are often mentioned along with other factors that organizations should try to identify and monitor, such as attitudes, values, and norms (Heath and Bowen, 2002; Ledingham, 2003). However, little is known about how and why expectations matter for public relations, and the actual dynamics of expectations have not been strongly addressed.

To discuss how expectations have been previously understood in public relations, we explore four established management approaches that take an interest in an organization's ability to respond to preferences, claims, and pressures coming from their publics: issues management, relationship management, reputation management, and crisis management. These four approaches are to some extent intertwined, as, for example, a risk can cause an issue to emerge, trigger a crisis, and pose an immediate threat to reputation (Coombs and Holladay, 2012). They also have somewhat similar aims, as their purpose is to build a working environment where support is high, resistance is low, and harmony exists between an organization and its publics (Coombs and Holladay, 2006; Heath, 2002, 2006; Heath and Bowen, 2002; Eisenegger and Imhof, 2008; Ledingham, 2003). Furthermore, recognizing potential threats as well as opportunities as early as possible is a common goal (Brønn, 2012; Heath, 2006; Jaques, 2011). In other words, these approaches are about keeping track of factors that can influence organizations and their operations in the future.

Recognizing perceived inconsistencies or unresolved problems is central for issues management (Grunig and Repper, 1992; Heath, 1997). Issues management utilizes environmental scanning and monitoring to recognize new emerging issues and to keep track of existing issues that might have an impact on the organization and require a response (Grunig and Repper, 1992; Heath, 1997; Heath and Bowen, 2002; Jaques, 2002). Expectations are recognized as one of the factors that could result in issues when left unanswered (Jaques, 2009; Reichart, 2003). Consequently, if an organization can meet expectations proactively, issues are more likely to be resolved before they culminate in conflict (Jaques, 2002). Issues management is a tool for scanning not only threats but opportunities as well. To respond to emerging opportunities, organizations can create or promote issues if they believe the issue will create positive outcomes for the organization (Jaques, 2002). In other words, issues management can be about both keeping track of publics' expectations as well as proactively affecting them.

In relationship management, interaction in public-organization relationships is seen as the key to mutual understanding and benefit (Ledingham, 2003, 2008). The "relationship history" between an organization and its publics, shaped by met and unmet expectations, is seen to play an integral part in situations where the relationship is put under strain, such as in crisis situations (Coombs, 2000). The importance of relationships for organizations has been explained through their ability to generate trust (Ledingham and Bruning, 1998; Welch, 2006) and social capital (Luoma-aho, 2009).

One factor to be considered when predicting changes in relationships is suggested to be expectations (Ledingham, 2003), and failure to meet expectations or mismatched expectations between actors is considered as one of the reasons why relationships end (Coombs, 2000).

According to Fombrun and Rindova (1998), monitoring current and future stakeholder expectations is central for reputation management. Reputation influences, for example, how much an organization is trusted (Welch, 2006), and reputations can be said to depend on the ability to respond to expectations of competence, success, responsibility, and attractiveness (Eisenegger, 2009). According to Eisenegger and Imhof (2008), reputations have three dimensions: functional (based on performance), social (based on norms and values), and expressive (based on emotional appeal). All dimensions create expectations and, hence, reputation management is about dealing with expectations on different levels. However, as Eisenegger and Imhof (2008) note, simply adapting to expectations will not work, as a good reputation also requires differentiation from the competition. Hence, it could be argued that effective reputation management also requires the skill of negotiating expectations (cf. Olkkonen and Luoma-aho, 2011).

Reputation also plays a part in crisis management, as a reputation that is particularly favorable can offer protection in times of crisis (Coombs and Holladay, 2006). A crisis, by definition, is an unexpected, non-routine event that poses a threat (Seeger *et al.*, 1998), where often the concern is the potential loss of reputational capital (Coombs and Holladay, 2006). In addition to responding to crises that appear, sometimes without a warning, crisis management aims to prevent crises proactively or at least to minimize crises that occur, along with their consequences, by recognizing signals and issues that potentially pose threats or risks (Coombs and Holladay, 2012; Jaques, 2002). According to Brønn (2012), organizations can also create crises for themselves if they misinterpret their stakeholders' expectations, if they deliberately create expectations they cannot meet, or if they act in a manner that does not meet with what stakeholders expect of them.

Figure 1 summarizes how expectations and their role have been understood in the four presented approaches.

Established approaches of public relations recognize the role of expectations as signals of emerging issues and threats, as well as indications of confidence and

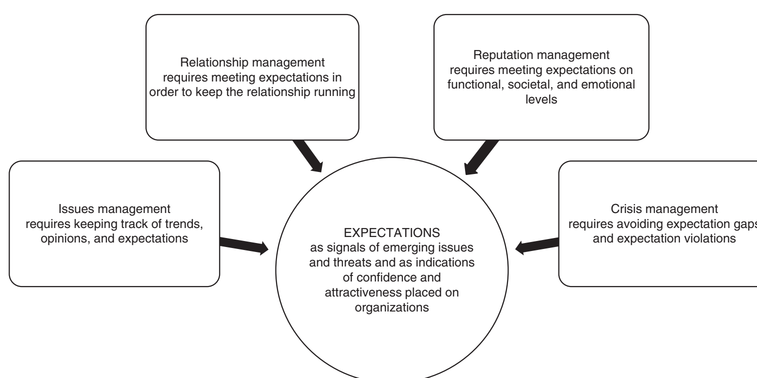

Figure 1.
The role of expectations in four public relations approaches

attractiveness placed on organizations. However, only a very limited amount of knowledge is offered by existing public relations theory on what expectations consist of and how exactly they affect organizational relations. Customer management and customer satisfaction studies assist with understanding expectations in more detail, as they see expectations as agents influencing assessments and perceptions (Creyer and Ross, 1997), leading eventually to behavioral responses (Boulding *et al.*, 1993). This background is introduced next in more detail.

Broadening the concept of expectation: multiple expectation types

Expectations play a part in everyday reasoning and help individuals make assessments about the future (Gärdenfors, 1993; Roese and Sherman, 2007). Besides psychology, expectations have been studied extensively in customer management and customer satisfaction literature (see, e.g. Creyer and Ross, 1997; Summers and Granbois, 1977; Swan *et al.*, 1982). Though customer management and customer satisfaction research focus primarily on marketing and the customer perspective, they deal with the dynamics of evaluations and satisfaction, which can be further utilized in a much broader context than only that of customers. Moreover, as expectations are said to intensify or even escalate intense emotions such as appreciation, satisfaction, dissatisfaction, shame, sadness and anger (Turner, 2009), understanding expectations can help organizations to understand the emotions their publics connect with organizational relations.

Customer management and customer satisfaction literature has recognized many different types of expectations. One of the earliest is the division drawn between predictive "will" expectations and normative "should" expectations (Summers and Granbois, 1977). The difference between these two expectation types is that the former is an expectation based on likelihood and probability, whereas the latter deals with values and norms. Hence the former indicates probability that can deal with either positive or negative outcomes, and the latter portrays an outcome of what should or ought to happen. The "should" expectation is quite close to a third expectation type, the "ideal" expectation (Miller, 1977) that conveys hopes and wishes. However, a "should" expectation is more realistic (what ought to occur), whereas an "ideal" expectation may not be held realistic even by the expectant (what could potentially occur, e.g. if limitless resources are available).

Several authors of customer management and customer satisfaction research also mention "desired" expectations that describe the level considered necessary to reach full satisfaction – a level that is both possible and deserved (Swan *et al.*, 1982; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1993). Following a somewhat similar logic, also "deserved" expectations are mentioned (Miller, 1977). The deserved expectations depend on the effort and resources invested by the expectant (Miller, 1977), recognizing that both parties in the relationship can have an influence on the outcome.

As expectations are closely related to assessment processes including both possibilities and probabilities, the expectant can intentionally lower their expectations to avoid disappointment (Van Dijk *et al.*, 2003). This is recognized in the literature of customer management and customer satisfaction as "minimum tolerable" or "adequate" level of expectations (Miller, 1977; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1993). These expectations lie at the lowest level of acceptability – i.e. they are the "musts" that need to be fulfilled in order to form a relationship in the first place, or to keep it going while it progresses.

The acknowledgement of different expectation types suggest that there are multiple ways to understand how expectations form. Their origins can vary from, for example, likelihood to hopes, ideals, or acceptability. Comparisons or previous experiences can

also play a part in expectation formation (Woodruff *et al.*, 1983). In other words, expectations can convey different things, ranging from values and norms to attitudes and beliefs, but it is these origins or basis that defines what type of expectation is about to form.

The empirical study described in the next section examines whether it is possible to recognize these theory-rooted expectation types using a qualitative data where different stakeholders were interviewed regarding their relations with organizations of a specific industry.

Empirical study: mapping expectation types

To tap into the roots and dynamics of expectations, the empirical study targeted one industry where change is current: the media. The media is not often studied as an industry, especially in the field of public relations, where the media is often seen as one of the stakeholders for other industries and organizations (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Heath, 2006, for exceptions, see Gulyás, 2011; Richards, 2004). However, it makes an interesting context for study because of its current restructuring process that can realign or even reset expectations (Chung, 2009).

The objective of the study was to examine whether different expectation types could be identified using interview data of different stakeholders of the media, and whether different expectation types have different relevance in public-organization relations. Six stakeholder groups were interviewed with semi-structured interviews: advertisers (13 interviews), journalists (16 interviews), digital natives (eight group interviews, 31 participants), NGO experts (13 interviews), editors-in-chief (seven interviews), and heads of public relations agencies (seven interviews). The themes of the interviews concerned the stakeholders relations with the media, how they felt their needs and concerns had been taken into account, and how they wished the relationship would evolve in the future. Some of the groups had a business-to-business type of relationship (advertisers and heads of public relations agencies), while others represented members of the audience (digital natives and NGO experts), or looked at the industry from an inside perspective (journalists and editors-in-chief). Though the interviewed groups were not comprehensive (e.g. groups like investors, suppliers, and governmental representatives are missing), the selected groups represented different backgrounds and views on a level that enables testing of how expectation mapping works in practice.

As a first step of the analysis, thematic analysis was used to code the data into recurring patterns (themes) (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The analysis aimed to identify patterns that could be interpreted as expectations directed at the media industry. For example, an extract could be coded if it indicated a need, hope, or wish that the interviewee had experienced in their relationship with the media. The extracts dealing with similar issues were then grouped into bigger entities, themes, which then formed different types of expectation themes. The analysis was kept free in the sense that no predetermined expectations existed, meaning that the expectations could come from different origins, dealing with, for example, normative as well as predictive levels. Because of its flexibility, thematic analysis was considered convenient for this study given the scarcity of comparable previous research; however, it has to be noted that as a qualitative approach the analysis method rests heavily on the interpretation of the researcher, thus leaving room for alternative constructions (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Table I sums up the results of the thematic analysis for each interviewed group. The three most prevalent expectations are presented from each group. As there was no predetermined knowledge of what expectation types would appear in organizational

Group	Expectation	Explanation	Basis
Advertisers	Measurability	Expectation based on the standard of easy measurability of advertising set by the Internet and social media that ideally would extend to offline media	Probability (online media)/ ideal (offline media)
	Holistic service	Expectation based on a hope that in order to build a long-term relationship with advertisers media would take an interest in the advertisers' entire communication mix	Confident hope
	Dialogue with consumers	Expectation based on the tools introduced by social media that would ideally lead to a dialogue where advertisers can build an interactive relationship with the customer	Ideal hope
Journalists	Media overlap	Expectation based on the ongoing trend of electronic and online formats that accelerate the overlapping of different media and introduce new challenges of mastering different formats and styles in the journalistic work	Probability
	Accelerating speed	Expectation based on the current trend of increasing speed of production with a continuous deadline that challenges time-consuming activities in the journalistic process, such as checking facts and in-depth reporting	Probability
	Unsteady employment	Expectation based on the current trend of redundancies and economic pressure that is believed to make the media sector an even more unsteady employer in the future	Probability
Digital natives	Convenience	Expectation based on the availability of easy-access and continuously updated media, mostly online, that can be accessed with multiple devices and where content can be picked or ignored depending on user preferences	Basic premise
	Interactivity	Expectation based on the availability of social tools, used primarily among own friends and contacts, that enable sharing, commenting, and liking	Probability
	Personality	Expectation based on user behavior of giving most attention to media content that holds some personal relevance in terms of preferences or values	Confident hope
NGO experts	Clarifier role	Expectation based on traditional tasks of the media as an informer, sense-maker and watchdog that are seen as essential as issues become more global and complex	Basic premise
	Enabling participation	Expectation based on a hope that participatory tools would ideally be used to their full potential in socially important issues (and not only in entertainment), and used for targeted participation according to issues and subgroups	Ideal hope

Table I.
Expectations from the interview data

(*continued*)

Group	Expectation	Explanation	Basis
	Promotion of media literacy	Expectation based on a hope that more media organizations would see promotion of media literacy as part of their responsibility as social actors and take part in educating their audiences to become active, aware, and capable to assess media content critically	Confident hope
Editors-in-chief	Media overlap	Expectation based on the ongoing trend of electronic and online formats that accelerate the overlapping of different media and call for a multitalented and flexible workforce	Probability
	International competition	Expectation based on the trend of globalization and an increasing amount of online media channels that make all media, whether local, national, or international, compete increasingly for the limited attention of the same audience	Probability
	Fragmented media use	Expectation based on the current trend of increasing media channels and tailoring where messages are pulled rather than pushed and users are able to mix and match according to individual preferences, making it difficult to catch the attention of the masses	Probability
Heads of PR agencies	Media overlap	Expectation based on the ongoing trend of electronic and online formats that accelerate the overlapping of different media and call for a multitalented and flexible workforce	Probability
	Meaning creation	Expectation based on the current environment of information overflow where attention is a scarce resource and the ability to create meaningful messages and gain deserved media coverage become more important than before	Confident hope
	Fragmented media use	Expectation based on the current trend of increasing media channels and tailoring where messages are pulled rather than pushed and users are able to mix and match according to individual preferences, making it difficult to attract the attention of the masses	Probability

Table I.

relations, the expectations identified in the thematic analysis were further analyzed to determine what drives the formation of the expectation. This analysis phase utilized the theoretical background of different origins of expectation, and each expectation was first given a basis based on its logic and origins (last column in Table I) before the expectation themes were categorized into any specific expectation types. For example, as the advertisers described how they felt that the media has sufficient resources to provide holistic services, but for some reason this expectation has not been fully met, its basis was defined as a confident hope. There were four different bases identified from the data: basic premise (i.e. an expectation that deals with minimum requirements), probability (i.e. an expectation that rests on current trends and developments), confident hope (i.e. an expectation that expresses a hope that is considered realistic), or ideal hope (i.e. an expectation that is based on an ideal situation is that may not be considered completely realistic).

To connect the findings of the empirical study to previous theory of public relations, the expectations' relevance for organizational relations was assessed in the light of the four public relations approaches presented above. The four bases identified from the empirical study suggested that there were four different expectation types present in the data, resting on the theoretical background of expectation types. Expectations that were labeled as basic premises were similar to minimum tolerable or adequate expectations (Miller, 1977; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1993), as they both indicate general standards or minimum level expectations. We call these expectations the "must" expectations. The must expectations were expressed in the interviews in a straightforward manner, as basic premises that need to be in place. Digital natives' expectation of convenience – currently fulfilled best by online media – was an example of this type of expectation:

> Everything is there [online]. At least I know I don't have to go read the newspaper. I can, sometimes, but I don't have to (digital native).

> […] we wouldn't know what's going on in the world, if there were no news in the Internet. Because everything is there immediately if something happens. It can be spread within a few minutes (digital native).

Another must expectation was the clarifier role of the media, described by an NGO expert as follows:

> I expect [the media] to be impartial, trustworthy and I expect and hope that it would deal with issues as broadly as possible. […] in the sense that it offers different viewpoints, for example, by interviewing different experts that can have conflicting views, because often there is no dominant consensus (NGO expert).

The expectations that had probability as their basis were similar to the "will" expectation (Summers and Granbois, 1977) as they were predictive assessments based on probability. In particular, the journalists and editors-in-chiefs had these types of expectations which were rooted in what they knew of the past and what they felt was probable in the future. For example, journalists' expectation of unsteady employment represented this type:

> I have been a long-term short-term employee myself, and when I look at the development of this industry and this effectiveness thinking [in it], of course I have been concerned. They cut down people, especially young and talented people, and it's hard to get a more permanent foothold. It feels like there is only one short-term job after another, and people get tired (journalist).

> It seems like a complete game of chance – no matter what you do and how you do it, the result might be that they're going to outsource you, they're going to fire you. The trust that my own behavior would have some impact on what happens to me once I've entered the working life [is gone] (journalist).

Will expectations were also expressed by the editors-in-chiefs, for example, concerning fragmented media use:

> When there is more and more information going around, in terms of publishing it means that we need to have a clearer focus of how we're going to differentiate from the others. Because there are so many messages, some of them are bulk, some of them are trustworthy, some of them are untrustworthy, so we want to distinguish ourselves clearly (editor-in-chief).

In turn, expectations based on confident hope were similar to a "should" expectation (Summers and Granbois, 1977) as they dealt with what should or ought to occur,

including an element of confidence – i.e. that the expectation was considered realistic. Here is how a head of a PR agency describes the expectation of meaning creation:

> […] we are moving from mass communication, from megaphone communication to magnetic communication. We have to be ambitious, competent and skillful – not only with our customers but as communicators, we need to be able to do storytelling, that kind of content and that kind of interaction that people will come to that information. Then the channel can be […] anything, as long as it has enough relevance (head of PR agency).

Another example of a should expectation was advertisers' expectation of holistic service:

> […] that we could see the 360 degrees of opportunities that are available, that we would know the target group, know how it behaves and functions, and how we can reach it. And that we can broadmindedly and surprisingly combine different solutions and the service package that the media provides. And that they provide also […] analysis and conclusions so we can genuinely see what worked and what we can learn from it (advertiser).

> The media mix is always very important for us, how the different media channels actually play together. So when we work with a bigger media owner we are happy when they can offer us a more holistic solution that really allow us to engage with consumers with different touch points (advertiser).

The fourth basis, ideal hope, matched the ideal expectation (Miller, 1977), as it was an ideal possibility or hope that may not be realistic but is held as an ideal. As these expectations describe what could be, we call them the "could" expectations. For example, the advertisers had a could expectation concerning the dialogue media can enable. This expectation dealt with unrealized potential and future possibilities, as the interviewees recognized that there are some limits especially when talking about traditional formats, but the emergence of social media had made them think about the possibilities of what could be expected in the future also from traditional media organizations:

> Due to social media, consumers have now much more power, and also the message of the marketer is simply not as one-way [as before], the marketers have to put themselves more out there, because what is wanted and hoped for is that the consumers can genuinely comment on things (advertiser).

In the same vein, the NGO experts saw enormous potential in the participatory tools of social media that could be utilized more ambitiously in news production. The NGO experts especially called for participation that has a societal purpose:

> […] now when people's and citizens' own ways to influence and own opinions and views and knowledge become visible, I see it as a good thing. But I see that people would have some much more potential in them, than to merely participate in various reality shows. And in putting people's participation to use in different ways (NGO expert).

> […] young people could be given more chances to participate, more chances to bring forth their own voice, which would then maybe reinforce that when given a chance, these young people would be more likely to take part as active participants of the civil society in the future (NGO expert).

In Table II, these four recognized expectation types (must, will, should, and could) are summarized and the expectations from the empirical study are placed along this framework. Furthermore, Table II makes suggestions for the relevance of each expectation type to organizational relations and public relations.

The four expectation types add to the previous understanding of public relations by explaining how expectations affect relationships and by explaining potential gain or

Expectation type and examples from data	Description	Influence on relationship	Relevance for PR
Must Convenience Clarifier role	Anticipation indicating a basic premise based on acceptability on the minimum level	Fulfilled must expectations set the base for relationship-building in terms of basic trust and legitimacy	Deals with acceptability and basic premises; gaps can prevent relationships from beginning or can cause legitimacy problems for existing relationships
Will Measurability (for online media) Media overlap Accelerating speed Unsteady employment Interactivity International competition Fragmented media use	Anticipation based on probability on a realistic level	Fulfilled will expectations can affect the relationship both positively and negatively, depending on whether the expectation itself is positive (optimistic) or negative (pessimistic).	Deals with realistic assessments; positive expectations contribute to organizational assets, such as reputation capital, only if met accordingly; negative expectations can be a sign of reputation loss
Should Holistic service Personality Promotion of media literacy Meaning creation	Anticipation based on hopes and wishes on a normative level	Fulfillment of should expectations is a sign that the relationship is developing as desired and that it is based on more than basic trust and legitimacy.	Deals with what is valued; gaps can indicate that organization's views on that is valued do not meet publics' views, can cause problems for reputation or even legitimacy
Could Measurability (for offline media) Dialogue with consumers Enabling participation	Anticipation based on possibilities on the ideal level	Fulfillment of could expectations is a sign that the relationship is able to become more than an average relationship	Deals with ideals; gaps that are not responded do not pose immediate threats, but gaps that are responded to can be valuable for distinguishing from the competition

Table II.
Four types of expectations and relevance for public relations

damage due to gaps between expectation and performance. For example, fulfilling a must expectation is crucial especially in terms of basic trust and legitimacy. If must expectations are not met and a gap occurs, this might prevent potential relationships from forming or jeopardize the legitimacy of existing relationships. The second type, the will expectation differs from the other three expectation types as it can hold both positive and negative anticipations of a probable future that could be perceived as either desirable or undesirable. Thus, fulfilling positive will expectations can result in opposite outcomes than when fulfilling negative will expectations (see expectancy violation theory, Burgoon, 1993). The empirical study of the media industry demonstrates this, as the will expectations of measurability and interactivity, for example, are positive, whereas unsteady employment is negative. Some expectations, such as fragmented media use, are a mix of positive and negative, as, on one hand, content might be more easily tailored to suit personal preferences, while, on the other hand, fragmentation makes it difficult for advertisers, media houses, and PR agencies to reach masses and attract attention.

The difference between a should and a could expectation is the subtlest, as they both deal with wishes or hopes. A should expectation is defined in Table II as an anticipation based on hopes and wishes on a normative level, where normative is understood broadly not only in terms of ethical norms but as norms describing what is valued. The difference between a should and a could expectation is that the former is believed to have a good chance to be realized with current resources and realities, whereas the latter is not always considered realistic. As such, fulfilling a could expectation gives the best chance to gain competitive advantage over the competition.

In Table II, it is suggested that different expectation types have different impacts on organizational relations and relate to different areas on the public relations agenda. As the empirical study of the media industry presented an example of how expectations can be mapped and identified, the next section discusses this process in the light of public relations approaches presented earlier and makes suggestions on how expectation management might benefit public relations in the future.

Expectation-focussed public relations?

In a study dealing with customer expectations, Ojasalo (2001) suggested that mismatched expectations could be avoided with the help of well-managed relationships and communication. In another customer expectation study, Miller (2000, p. 95) proposed management of expectations that "does not mean trying to create an artificial reality, but rather calls for a conscious effort to monitor, identify, understand, and react to expectations." In this logic, expectations could be managed, for example, by proactively meeting them, by denying them, or responding to them only minimally by creating low enough expectations in order to avoid disappointment (Sethi, 1979). However, as meeting low expectations rarely results in fruitful relationships (Weber and Mayer, 2011), organizations wanting more out of their relationships with their publics need to do more.

Public relations is central to responding to expectations, as monitoring and fostering relationships are essential tools for keeping track of expectations and responding to them. We conceptualize this task as "expectation management." At its simplest, expectation management means that an organization ensures that publics have clear expectations of what the organization can actually deliver, as too high or too low expectations leave room for dissatisfaction (Coye, 2004; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985). Essentially, expectation management concentrates on publics' assessments and recognizes organizations' limited opportunities to influence expectations, as they derive from different sources, such as past experience, reputation, image, formal or informal recommendations, and personal needs (Robledo, 2001). Thus, expectation management differs from approaches like framing (Hallahan, 1999).

We define expectation management as an organization's ability to manage its own understanding of what is expected of it, especially in terms of different expectation types and their differences in relevance and priority. Relevance and priority depend on the expectation type, as there is a difference, for example, whether the nature of the expectation resembles a wish (i.e. a could expectation that can be responded to when competitive edge is sought), or a demand (i.e. a must expectation that the publics are not willing to negotiate). If, for example, a must expectation is misinterpreted and not responded to, severe problems or even legitimacy gaps can emerge.

On a practical level, the first step of identifying expectations is to monitor the arenas where discussions take place about the organization or issues central to the organization (cf. Luoma-aho and Vos, 2010). Taking part in discussions proactively can be valuable, as once the expectation has been formed, there may be little that public relations can do

to alter it. Monitoring helps to detect gaps between expectations and performance and to assess why the gap emerged (promising too much or performing too poorly, for example). Finally, a response strategy is needed for the expectation or expectation gap. In essence, an organization with good expectation management matches behavior with what is communicated and avoids creating unintended or misleading expectations. One task for public relations in expectation management is to aid publics expressing their expectations, since a known expectation can be responded to. However, as expectations can change, mapping only works if it is a continuous process.

Expectation management can strengthen existing approaches of public relations, such as the four management approaches presented previously. In fact, expectation management can contribute especially to deep-level analysis in the form of, for example, making sense of not only what issues are emerging, but of why and on what foundations they emerge. Figure 2 illustrates the input of expectation management to established public relations approaches.

Expectation management can add to the existing public relations approaches presented in Figure 2, especially as it distinguishes between different expectation types, such as must, will, should, and could from this empirical study. For example, in issues management, violated must expectations pose the most critical issues; however, a violated should expectation can also cause gaps that lead to issues, for example, when societal norms are concerned. In relationship management, fulfilled must expectations are the minimum requirement for the relationship to keep running, whereas a fulfilled should expectation can build more than basic trust and legitimacy. In reputation management, the must expectations need to be fulfilled even though they add little if any positive impact, as they indicate basic premises expected from all. A fulfilled could expectation, in turn, can offer the reputational surplus that distinguishes the organization from the competition. Furthermore, reputation management can benefit in particular from identifying possible negative will expectations that indicate distrust or lack of confidence in the organization. In crisis management, violated must expectations pose immediate threats, whereas unfulfilled could expectations most likely just need to be monitored.

As such, expectation management can help previous approaches to extend beyond the surface level of organizational relations, adding to organizations' ability to detect early signals and, hence, increase predictability and the ability to form early response strategies.

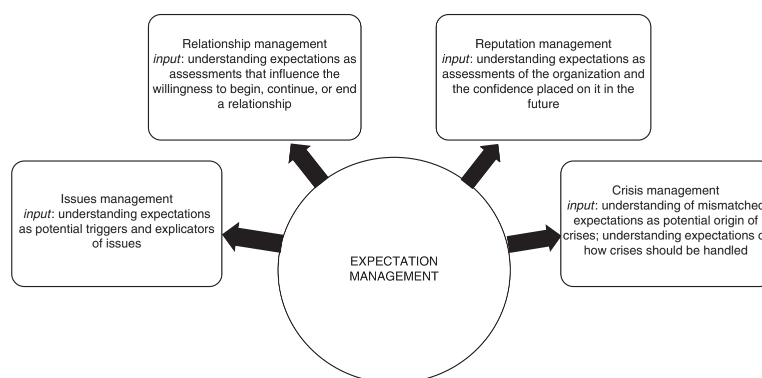

Figure 2.
Input from expectation management to four public relations approaches

Conclusion

Public relations is a future-oriented discipline. Though several management tools have already been adopted to enhance responsiveness toward publics, there is a need to go further below the surface-level of organizational relations and learn to understand and interpret factors that shape relationships and satisfaction. This paper has suggested a possible solution in the form of expectation mapping and identification that helps organizations to manage their understanding of publics' expectations. We call this approach expectation management. However, we stress that expectation management does not equal controlling or manipulating publics' expectations, but rather that organizations' own understanding of expectations requires a strategic approach that should be managed.

The empirical study of expectation mapping revealed different expectation types. Some types deal with basic premises that are not open for negotiation; some with probability, indicating both wanted and unwanted future scenarios; some with confident hopes toward the organization; and some with ideal hopes that may be expected to be fulfilled only in the best public-organization relationships. Expectation management is needed, in particular, to interpret these expectations, determine their type and priority, and track gaps between them and organizational performance. Most importantly, expectation management provides important views for crafting response strategies.

Because expectations change over time, expectation management is an ongoing process that tracks changes in expectations and between expectation types. It is important, for example, to be able to anticipate when a should expectation turns into a must expectation and fulfilling it is no longer a choice but a basic requirement for maintaining trust and legitimacy. As a strategic tool, expectation management can help organizations to succeed in an environment where support of the publics has perhaps never been a more important asset. Furthermore, as contemporary trends stress engagement and shared responsibility, expectation management might help to weave these values deeper into existing public relations theories and practices as it aims to find congruence between organizational operations and expectations, and, most importantly, take part in the process where expectations are created.

Expectations deal with the roots of potential issues, relationships, reputations and crises, and hence it can be argued that some existing practices might backfire, if expectations are not understood well enough. For example, though reputational capital is believed to protect organizations in the time of crisis, and hence building a reputation that is as strong as possible has been advised, expectation management acknowledges that an excellent reputation also creates very high expectations – a concern noted also by Coombs and Holladay (2006). Hence, if publics expect more than can be delivered, the organization might end up losing intangible assets instead of gaining them.

As this study concentrated on early-phase developing of a new approach, the study has several limitations. First, the empirical study was conducted in the context of only one country, Finland. Thus, the mapped expectations for the media industry are mostly comparable to other Nordic countries. Furthermore, as the study focussed on one unique industry, the media industry, the findings and conclusions should be considered an introduction to expectation mapping and to the novel function of expectation management.

It is for future research to determine how well this approach works in other settings, with other industries and other individual organizations, and also with other data types, such as surveys or panels. Furthermore, there might be more relevant expectation types for organizational relations for future research to identify. One interesting avenue

for future studies is whether expectation management can prevent other approaches from backfiring. We propose that expectation management will become a central task of public relations as new (social) media gains ground, and we call for more empirical examination, testing, and case studies to understand its full potential contribution to communication management.

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IV

BROADENING THE CONCEPT OF EXPECTATIONS IN PUBLIC RELATIONS

by

Laura Olkkonen & Vilma Luoma-aho 2015

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Broadening the Concept of Expectations in Public Relations

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Expectations have been connected to many central concepts of public relations research, yet definitions of what is meant by expectations are lacking. This article aims to broaden the understanding of expectations by taking into account their multidimensional nature, suggesting that there are several explanations to expectations depending on what the expectation is based on. We suggest that, in organizational context, expectations are two-fold assessments of what is considered good or desirable (expectation tone ranging from positive to negative) and the confidence placed in the organization (organization-specific context ranging from high to low confidence). As a result of the conceptual review with theoretical input from areas outside the scope of public relations, the article presents the Expectation Grid, where expectations are acknowledged as continuums of tone and context.

Public relations is a field that is concerned with the relationships that organizations have with their publics, i.e., groups, communities, or constituents connected to an organization directly or indirectly. These relationships are affected by many factors (Dozier, 1986; Lauzen, 1995), among them expectations (Thomlison, 2000), yet relatively little is known about what expectations are conceptually and how they can be approached analytically in public relations research. Many popular areas of public relations focus on organization–public relationships starting from their establishment, ranging from relationship management and strategies (Flynn, 2006; Ledingham, 2003) to reputation, risk and crisis communication (Coombs & Holladay, 2006; 2012). In this article, we propose that expectations are part of the vital process that take place both prior to and after the establishment of relationships. Furthermore, we suggest that expectations have been recognized rather narrowly in the literature of public relations, almost as observable data (cf. Lachmann, 1943) that can be derived from the publics without a need for further analysis. We address this gap and argue for a broader understanding of expectations and their formation: what contributes to their emergence and in what different ways they can be understood.

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To broaden the understanding of expectations in public relations research, we look into expectations with the help of different theoretical backgrounds outside the traditional scope of public relations research, and break expectations into different types, ranging from normative expectations to expectations based on probability, ideal hopes, or even cynicism (J. A. Miller, 1977; Summers & Granbois, 1977; Swan, Trawick, and Carroll, 1982). We suggest that a more thorough understanding of expectations can advance the theory and practice of public relations, as expectations act as reference points for assessments and can affect both how own behavior is adapted and how the behavior of others is assessed (Boulding, Kalra, & Zeithaml, 1993; Creyer & Ross, 1997; Roese & Sherman, 2007; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

The purpose of this article is to (a) review how expectations are currently understood in public relations literature; (b) dismantle the concept of expectations into different types of expectations, primarily with the help of literature from customer satisfaction and customer management; and (c) assess the relevance of expectations for public relations anew with the input drawn together in the conceptual review.

The article is organized as follows. First, we review previous literature of public relations with the means of a targeted literature search concentrating on expectations. Next, we add to the current understanding of expectations in public relations by exploring different types of expectations and by discussing two theories that deepen the understanding of how expectations affect relationships: expectancy violation and expectation gaps. In the final section, based on the conceptual review and analysis, we present a framework for understanding expectations in the public relations context. This framework, which we call the Expectation Grid, takes into account the spectrum of expectations as both positive and negative constructions, displaying a varying amount of confidence toward organizations.

EXPECTATIONS IN THE LITERATURE OF PUBLIC RELATIONS

To examine how the concept of expectations has been acknowledged in previous literature of public relations, we executed a targeted literature search in six journals: *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, Corporate Reputation Review, Journal of Communication Management, Journal of Public Relations Research, Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, and *Public Relations Review*. The selection of the journals was two-phased: First, an initial selection was made based Pasadeos, Berger, and Renfro's (2010) list of the most cited public relations journals, from where only the academic, peer-reviewed journals were included: *Public Relations Review, Journal of Public Relations Research*, and *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*; second, three more journals were added based on test searches that indicated central journals with relevant hits: *Corporate Reputation Review, Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, and *Journal of Communication Management*.

The searches were done on August 13th, 2013, using the keywords of *expectation, expectations, expectancy*, and *expectancies*, which were allowed to appear anywhere in the text. No time limit was set for the publication year to include both earlier and more recent contributions. To limit the search, only articles that mentioned expectations in relation to organizational relations were included in the analysis. This resulted in a sample of 197 articles (9 from *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 102 from *Corporate Reputation Review*, 9 from

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Journal of Communication Management, 68 from *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 1 from *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, and 8 from *Public Relations Review*).

The articles were analyzed to determine how, and to what depth, the concept of expectations was mentioned in the literature of public relations, and whether the concept was given explicit definitions. According to our results, expectations were often mentioned in the literature, yet only eight articles out of 197 offered a definition for expectations. Two of these articles defined expectations as beliefs of what will or should happen, affecting how stakeholders make decisions (Golob, Jancic, & Lah, 2009; Podnar & Golob, 2007). Four articles defined expectations as some form of reference points, standards, mental models, or prototypes against which judgments, comparisons, and interpretations are made, for example, concerning organizational behavior (Grunwald & Hempelmann, 2010; Hallahan, 2001; Luoma-aho, Olkkonen, & Lähteenmäki, 2013; Reichart, 2003). The two remaining articles concentrated on defining expectations by the institutional factors that influence their emergence, such as moral or cultural values and norms, legal demands, and general acceptability (Brønn, 2012; de Quevedo-Puente, de la Fuente-Sabaté, & Delgado-García, 2007). Hence, according to our findings, expectations are heavily underconceptualized in the current literature of public relations, despite the fact that they were frequently mentioned.

Based on the literature search, the concept of expectations is primarily used when defining other concepts. Expectations were most often mentioned connected to reputation (64 articles), responsibility (42 articles), relationships (31 articles), legitimacy (24 articles), satisfaction (16 articles), trust (13 articles), and identity (12 articles). In addition to these most often mentioned concepts, expectations were connected to a myriad of concepts (such as brand, crisis, norms, issues, and quality) that received fewer, one to eight, hits in our sample. Table 1 lists the interconnecting concepts to expectations based on our literature search and analysis.

Reputation was the most often mentioned concept in relation to expectations. Typically, reputation was defined as the ability to fulfill the expectations posed by stakeholders or publics. Furthermore, exceeding expectations was seen as a way to strengthen or improve reputation, whereas failing to meet expectations was seen as a reputational threat. Reputation was seen to be affected by past behavior that creates expectations for future performance; the better the reputation, the higher the expectations. The concept of reputation was linked, via expectations, to other central concepts that came up in the literature search. For example, reputation and

TABLE 1
Concepts Connected to Expectations in the Targeted Literature Search

Concept	*Referring Articles**
Reputation	64
Responsibility	42
Relationship	31
Legitimacy	24
Satisfaction	16
Trust	13
Identity	12
Other (1–8 hits per concept)	82

Note. *An individual article can be connected to several concepts.

responsibility were linked via societal expectations and, thus, performing in responsibility was seen to partly affect how an overall reputation is assessed or judged. *Relationships* were also mentioned together with reputation, as close organizational relations and interaction with the publics were seen as a way to stay on top of expectations and be able to build reputation. The reason expectations were seen central to reputation was the belief that the fulfillment of expectations will affect stakeholders' or publics' attitudes, motivation, behavior, and satisfaction toward the organization (e.g., Mahon & Wartick, 2003; Porritt, 2005; Vaaland & Heide, 2008; Wang, Kandampully, Lo, & Shi, 2006).

Responsibility, or more specifically corporate responsibility, was seen to be driven by societal expectations that relate to social and environmental consequences of organizational conduct. Being perceived as responsible was seen as essential for relationship forming (resonating also with the concept of *trust*) and for gaining legitimacy in the eyes of the publics or stakeholders. As *legitimacy* was typically defined in the articles as support of organizational actions that result from congruence with societal expectations and norms, responsibility and legitimacy often appeared together as concepts. However, the actual contents of expectations of responsibility and consequently the prerequisites for legitimacy were often left undefined, as they were seen to be dependent on the prevailing culture, values, and norms (that are conveyed in expectations). However, a common assumption presented was that the expectations for corporate responsibility have, and most probably will continue to increase (see, e.g., Hanson & Stuart, 2001; Lindgreen & Swaen, 2005; Steyn & Niemann, 2010). Hence, being able to meet, exceed, or even to anticipate different societal expectations was seen essential for gaining legitimacy (Bitektine, 2008; Johansen & Nielsen, 2012; Westhues & Einwiller, 2006).

The concept of *relationship* was explained through expectations, especially in the sense that meeting expectations is essential for the continuation of relationships. Relationship management was mentioned as a tool for aligning or reconciling organizational behavior with the expectations of stakeholders or publics (e.g., Bruning & Galloway, 2003; Hall, 2006). Two other concepts, *trust* and *satisfaction*, appeared frequently together with relationship, as trust was seen to be generated when a relational partner meets expectations, which, in turn, reinforces future positive expectations and generates a feeling of satisfaction, i.e., that expectations and experiences meet. Expectations of socially or morally accepted behavior were mentioned as factors that contribute to trust formation, as relational trust includes a willingness to take a risk or be vulnerable toward the other (e.g., Bekmeier-Feuerhahn & Eichenlaub, 2010; Yang & Lim, 2009). In relationships, each actor was seen to have expectations for other relational partner(s) and their behavior. When there is no prior experience to build expectations on, other factors, such as general acceptability and organizational messages, weigh more and generate initial expectations (Kim, 2011; Kramer, 2010).

The articles that connected expectations with *identity* asserted that organizational identity induces expectations that should be met with organizations' actions and responses. Identity was seen as one source of information when different groups or individuals assess an organization, and, ideally, the identity makes organizational actions more predictable by inducing expectations that the organization can meet. Some of the articles concerning identity saw identity management as a tool to direct or even control the expectations of stakeholders or publics (e.g., Hansen, Langer, & Salskov-Iversen, 2001); some saw identity more as a socially constructed concept that the organization can control only partly—rather, both internal and external expectations contribute to what organizational identity entails and how it comes to change over time (e.g., Jacobs, Christe-Zeyse, Keegan, & Pólos, 2008).

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Based on the literature search, expectations are connected to some of the most central concepts in the literature of public relations. However, explicit definitions for expectations are lacking. Many of the analyzed articles, regardless of the concept they connect expectations with, recognized that gaps between expectations and performance can cause threats to organizational operations and future vitality (e.g., Brønn, 2012; Kang, 2013; Kim, Park, & Wertz, 2010; Reichart, 2003). As such, the literature of public relations has recognized expectations as elements that affect how organizations are perceived and assessed and how publics shape their own behavior toward organizations. This is in line with research on cognitive science and interpersonal relations that see expectations as part of human logic and interaction (Gärdenfors, 1993; Jones, 1986)—people have expectations when they enter a room, when they encounter a new person, or when they choose to act in a certain way (Gärdenfors, 1993). Searching for causal explanations of others' behavior and making predictions of future behavior is a way of making sense of the social world, as addressed more broadly by attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Jones et al., 1972). Expectations play a part in this process by framing and filtering social interaction, either as general anticipations grounded in societal norms, typicality or appropriateness, or as adaptations depending on individual persons or situations grounded in previous knowledge and experience of a specific interaction style (Burgoon, 1993).

Although expectations were recognized as central to how stakeholders or publics experience their relationships with organizations, with very few exceptions the articles of the literature search treated expectations only as positive constructions—anticipations or hopes of a positive outcome the organization ideally is able to deliver. We claim that there are more sides to expectations left to be discovered and connected with public relations research. In the next section, we draw from customer management and customer satisfaction literature and explore expectations as a multifaceted concept that cannot be explained only with adjacent concepts or with a single definition; rather, several definitions for expectations are needed to grasp their full scope.

DISMANTLING THE CONCEPT OF EXPECTATIONS: MULTIPLE TYPES OF EXPECTATIONS

The concepts that expectations have been linked to in the literature of public relations give hints that expectations derive from different origins: For example, when expectations are mentioned together with responsibility, they are typically driven by ideals and aspirations of building a better society, and when expectations are connected with reputation they are influenced by past experience that may have been good or bad, depending on the case. To be able to explore the different origins of expectations more profoundly, we introduce customer satisfaction and customer management literature where a lot of conceptual work on expectations has been conducted.

In customer satisfaction and customer management literature, evaluations of quality and satisfaction are seen to result from a comparison between expectations and experience (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). This pool of literature has mentioned a number of different types of expectations that all relate to how assessments are made, yet they are acknowledged to arise from different origins. For example, a division has been made between *predictive* and *normative* expectations, where the former describes what is considered likely (a prediction of what will happen), and the latter represents what should or ought to occur (a hope or value-guided

estimation of what one should be able to expect; Summers & Granbois, 1977). However, this is only one typology among many. To summarize the vast amount of literature dealing with expectations in customer satisfaction and customer management literature, we list and categorize the different types of expectations we have identified in Table 2. We introduce each category next in more detail.

The first category we identify is value-based expectations. These expectations are normative or ideal in the sense that they indicate a level of what should or ought to be; an ideal state based on what is valued or wished for (H. Miller, 1977; Summers & Granbois, 1977). As they are value-based and describe an ideal level, they represent the highest possible level organizations can achieve, regardless of probability or likelihood.

The second category, information-based expectations, contains those expectation types that are formed based on what is known, i.e., what information is available (or unavailable) when the expectation forms. Precise, realistic (Ojasalo, 2001), explicit (H. Miller, 2000; Ojasalo, 2001), and official (Mittilä & Järvelin, 2001) expectations are all based on information that can be seen as factual and explicitly articulated. For example, H. Miller (2000) stated that explicit expectations are formed by assessing the actual attributes available, such as behavior, interface, and accuracy. Also lack of information can be the source of expectations, such as in the case of unrealistic and fuzzy (Ojasalo, 2001) expectations that are formed based on insufficient, incorrect, or imprecise information. Whereas a fuzzy expectation is vague, a feeling that something should be different without a clear picture of what should be changed, an unrealistic expectation is a wish or anticipation that is either impossible or highly unlikely to be delivered under any circumstances (Ojasalo, 2001). What is common to all expectations in this category is that there is some sort of information source that predominantly influences its formation, whether it is consciously acknowledged or not.

In the third category, experience-based expectations, we have grouped all expectations that are based primarily on direct or indirect previous experience. Simply put, experience-based expectations indicate a level that is believed to be possible based on past experience (Woodruff, Cadotte, & Jenkins, 1983). Expectations in this category can indicate a likelihood, as predictive expectations do (J. A. Miller 1977; Summers & Granbois, 1977; Swan et al., 1982), or they can be based on comparisons made with, for example, similar brands or organizations, as implicit (H. Miller, 2000), comparative (Prakash, 1984; Woodruff et al., 1983), and brand-based expectations (Woodruff et al., 1983) do. Furthermore, as prior experience can influence expectations in the sense that expectations are set lower to avoid future disappointments (Van Dijk, Zeelenberg, & Van der Pligt, 2003), experience-based expectations can also take the form of adequate (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993) or minimum tolerable (J. A. Miller, 1977; Zeithaml et al., 1993) levels, where satisfaction is not high but it is still maintained.

The last category, personal interest-based expectations, are those expectations that are primarily influenced by an evaluation of personal gains, dealing either with what is considered as deserved, based on, for example, the effort and resources invested (J. A. Miller, 1977), what is desired (Swan et al., 1982; Zeithaml et al., 1993), or what is unofficially hoped or wished for based on individual preferences (Mittilä & Järvelin, 2001). These expectations can even cause official information to be discarded or ignored, if it is not fitting with personal interests (Mittilä & Järvelin, 2001).

As the four categories of expectations identified from the literature of customer management and customer satisfaction show, expectations have been given different conceptual explanations.

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TABLE 2
Four Categories of Expectation Types

Expectation	*Description*	*Authors*	*Field*
Category 1: Value-based expectations			
Normative	Indicates a level of what should or ought to be	Summers and Granbois (1977)	Consumer research Service quality research
Ideal	Indicates an ideal state guided by what is valued, or is wished for, in ideal settings	Miller (1977)	Service quality research
Category 2: Information-based expectations			
Precise	Indicates a level that is consciously formed and acknowledged	Ojasalo (2001)	Service management
Realistic	Indicates a level that is possible to meet	Ojasalo (2001)	Service management
Explicit	Indicates a level based on actual attributes, or conscious assumptions or wishes	Miller (2000), Ojasalo (2001)	Information system management Service management
Official	Indicates a level based on official information	Mittilä and Järvelin (2001)	Relationship management (b-to-b)
Unrealistic	Indicates a level that is impossible or highly unlikely to be met, i.e., a level based on low, insufficient, or incorrect information	Ojasalo (2001)	Service management
Fuzzy	Indicates a level based on a vague feeling, i.e., a level based on low, insufficient, or subconscious information	Ojasalo (2001)	Service management
Category 3: Experience-based expectations			
Experience-based	Indicates the level based on what is believed to be possible based on past experience; what should be able to be achieved	Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins (1983)	Consumer research
Predictive	Indicates a level based on a likely scenario under certain settings or attributes	Summers and Granbois (1977), Swan, Trawick, and Carroll (1982), Miller (1977)	Consumer research Service quality research

(*Continued*)

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TABLE 2
Continued

Expectation	*Description*	*Authors*	*Field*
Implicit	Indicates a level based on outside cues based on what should be possible elsewhere and by other actors	Miller, 2000	Information system management Service management
Comparative	Indicates a level based on comparisons with similar brands or competitors	Prakash (1984), Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins (1983)	Consumer research
Brand-based	Indicates a level based on brand-comparisons	Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins (1983)	Consumer research
Adequate	Indicates a level based on the minimum level where satisfaction is maintained	Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1993)	Service quality research
Minimum tolerable	Indicates a level based on the lowest level where satisfaction is maintained	Miller (1977), Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1993)	Consumer research Service quality research
Category 4: Personal interest-based expectations			
Deserved	Indicates a level that a person considers (s)he appropriately deserves	Miller (1977)	Consumer research
Desired	Indicates a level based on what is considered desirable on a personal level.	Swan, Trawick, and Carroll (1982), Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1993)	Consumer research Service quality research
Unofficial	Indicates a level based on individual wishes or desires	Mittilä and Järvelin (2001)	Relationship management (b-to-b)

Dismantling the concept of expectations into different types may add to the previous understanding of public relations literature by explaining the many ways expectations form and how, consequently, their outcomes are assessed differently. For example, expectations for organizational behavior might be different whether the expectation is based on a normative, value-based evaluation, or a predictive, experience-based evaluation. Most essentially, although normative expectations are, presumably, always positive as they are based on what should or ought to be, experience-based expectations can take both positive and negative forms, depending on the experience. If prior experience has been a disappointment, expectation that is based on probability might predict the disappointment to repeat itself. This is important for the continuation of relationships, as, according to Nesse (1990), people seek to renew their positive emotions and avoid reliving the negative. This has been a central idea when discussing expectations from the viewpoint of interpersonal communication and relations (Burgoon, 1993; Thomlison, 2000).

To open up the negative side of expectations, we look next into expectancy violation theory stemming from interpersonal communication, and the theory of expectation gaps originating from customer management research. Expectancy violation theory offers insights on expectations as both positive and negative constructions—a notion that has not been strongly present in public relations literature. Expectancy violations can produce expectation gaps that, according to customer management literature, have significant effects on satisfaction and relationships. Hence, also literature explaining expectation gaps is introduced.

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EXPECTANCY VIOLATION AND EXPECTATION GAPS

The discrepancies between an organization's actions and publics' perceptions can be understood with the help of expectancy violation theory (EVT). In EVT, expectations are seen as integral for social interaction and guiding components for how relationships evolve: whether relationships are formed and continued, whether behavior is accepted, and whether a partner is trusted (Burgoon, 1993; Thomlison, 2000). EVT originates from the field of interpersonal communication and it aims to open up the process of how expectations and their fulfillment are assessed. Thus, expectations are seen to function as agents explaining social interaction and emotional exchange (Burgoon, 1993). A theory closely related to EVT is disconfirmation theory used in psychology of customer behavior and satisfaction literature (Oliver, 1980), in which expectations are either confirmed or disconfirmed. However, EVT stresses the importance of relationships, making it especially relevant for public relations.

According to expectancy violation theory, expectations can be either confirmed or violated—positively or negatively. When expectations are confirmed, the outcome is the same as had been expected, and when expectations are violated, the outcome is something different than initially expected. In the case of positive violation, the enacted behavior is more positive than initially expected, and in the case of negative violation, the enacted behavior is more negative than initially expected (Burgoon, 1993). Because not only outcomes, but also expectations, can be positive or negative, there is a significant difference in whether a positive expectation is violated positively (leading to an even better outcome than anticipated) or negatively (turning positive anticipation into a negative outcome); or, whether a negative expectation is violated negatively (leading to an even worse outcome than expected) or positively (turning negative anticipation into a positive outcome; Weber & Mayer, 2011).

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A violation of expectations has a tendency to distract attention from the original situation or issue, as the violation leads to emotional responses and a need to make sense of the violation, as well as to evaluate its consequences (Burgoon, 1993). In the organizational context, this can mean that the original issue turns into something else. However, people can also stick to their initial expectations despite disconfirming evidence, distorting the assessment process (Burgoon, 1993). For positive expectations, this can create a halo effect described in reputation studies (see, for example, Aula & Mantere, 2008; Coombs & Holladay, 2006), but for negative expectations, it implies the opposite: a vicious cycle or the stigma of a damaged reputation (see, for example, Reuber & Fischer, 2010).

An expectancy violation can be understood as an expectation gap, a central concept in customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction research. According to Zeithaml et al. (1990), a gap emerges when expectation differs from perception, affecting perceived quality and experienced satisfaction. Both positive and negative violations of publics' expectations can produce gaps that require attention and action from organizations. For example, a reputation that is too good compared to actual performance can pose as big a risk as a negative reputation (Luoma-aho, 2007). Gaps can originate from multiple sources: not knowing what is expected, offering a quality that does not meet expectations, not meeting expectations with performance, or promising something that cannot be delivered (Zeithaml et al., 1990).

Because expectations act as frames against which assessments are made and behavior is adapted (Burgoon, 1993; Roese & Sherman, 2007), they contribute to the dynamics of relationships and affect the way parties act in relation to each other and how they interpret the actions of the other. To understand this through the eyes of public relations, the next section narrows the scope back to the perspective of organizations, and presents the Expectation Grid as a framework for differentiating between different types of expectations in organizational context.

EXPECTATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS: TONE AND CONTEXT

As the characteristics of different types of expectations have previously been noted primarily by fields of research other than public relations, what they mean for organizational relations has not been explained. Connecting expectations more firmly with the organizational context may, however, bridge the gaps we detected in the literature of public relations. We attempt to start this bridging by leaning on expectancy violation theory, as it emphasizes that expectations take place in a reciprocal context where meeting or failing expectations is assessed, determining how the relationship will evolve in the future (Burgoon, 1993). As EVT theory is interested in both positive and negative expectations, it acknowledges that the task of simply fulfilling expectations—a typical goal mentioned in the literature of public relations—does not necessarily lead to prosperous relationships. Instead, expectations need to be interpreted in their proper contexts or according to their reference points; an idea also emphasized by behavior economics and prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979).

Understanding expectations as both positive and negative estimates might be the key to understanding expectations from a public relations perspective instead of, for example, a marketing perspective where cues for business opportunities are the main interest. For public relations, expectations can be acknowledged both as implications of future wishes, as well as

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critique. Expectations can express distrusting doubts and reservations that might, from the organization's perspective, feel inconvenient or difficult. Hence, understanding expectations as both positive and negative might explain more profoundly what they do for organizational relations. Moreover, taking positive and negative expectations equally into account can bring forth publics' voices that may have been previously left unheard.

Earlier we identified four categories for types of expectations (Table 2). Of these four, value-based and personal interest-based expectation categories deal with what the one who has expectations, i.e., the expectant thinks or feels is a desirable outcome, whereas the two others, information-based and experience-based, deal with assessments based on attributes possessed by the object of expectations. In the context of public relations the object of expectations is the organization, or more precisely, a particular relationship with a particular organization. Building on this, in Table 3, the expectation categories are combined into two groups based on their shared focus. Furthermore, we build a scale where expectations can land based on this grouping: the positive–negative scale and the high confidence in organization–low confidence in organization scale.

The positive–negative scale relies on the value-based expectation category and the personal interest-based expectation category, as they acknowledge that expectations take place on different levels and range from what the expectant feels is a desirable or undesirable outcome (based on values or personal preferences and interest). The high confidence–low confidence scale, in turn, deals with the experience-based expectation category and the information-based expectation category because the scale is built on the expectant's relationship with the organization, where both direct (e.g., proximity, own position, own experience, information available) and indirect (e.g., reputation, word-of-mouth) cues come into play. Hence, we define confidence here as the assessment of an organization's ability and willingness to fulfill the expectation. The two scales take into account that publics assess both what they expect and how probable this expectation is in the case of a particular organization. The scales rest partly on expectancy-value theory (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2008; Fishbein, 1963; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), which suggests that assessments are influenced by what is considered valuable and whether that outcome is considered probable. However, in an organizational context, probability is assessed based on whether the organization is considered able and willing to deliver certain outcomes.

We propose these two scales to form a framework for a four-quadrant grid. We call this framework the Expectation Grid (Figure 1). The Expectation Grid recognizes that the concept

TABLE 3
Organizational Focus of Expectation Categories

Grouped Categories	*Focus*	*Scale*
Value-based expectations and personal interest-based expectations	What the expectant thinks is or is not desirable, valuable, attractive or good without organizational influence	Positive—Negative
Information-based expectations and experience-based expectations	What the expectant thinks can be expected from an organization based on what (s)he knows based on information and experience	High confidence in organization—Low confidence in organization

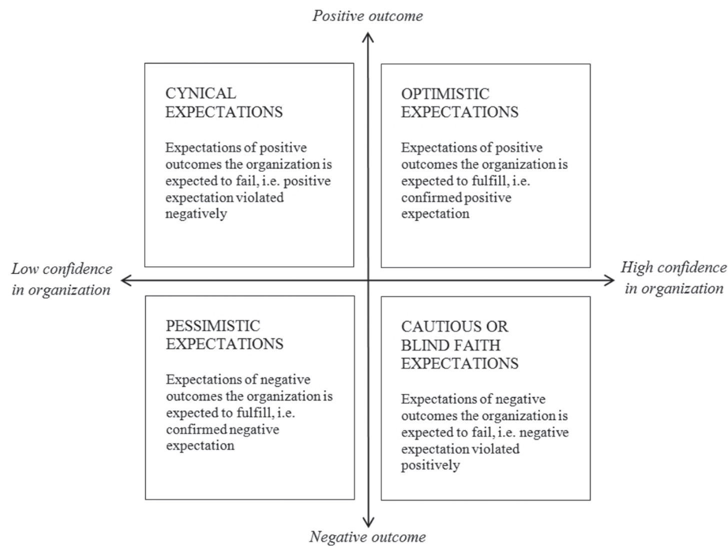

FIGURE 1 The Expectation Grid.

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of expectations is not flat—rather, it needs to be scaled on different dimensions to be able to explain and analyze its relevance for organizations.

The quadrants of the Expectation Grid form four areas that are a combination of whether the expectation, itself, deals with a positive or negative outcome and whether the expectant has confidence in the organization's ability and willingness to fulfill the expectation. As the first, top left quadrant of the Expectation Grid deals with positive expectations the organization is expected to fail, they could be described as *cynical expectations* (positive outcome/low confidence). In other words, the organization is seen to lack either ability or willingness to offer outcomes that are valued. These expectations can be, for example, expectations of broken service promises or green-washing, especially if the expectant has been previously disappointed. Hence, the expectant can lower their expectations by adjusting their confidence to avoid future negative emotions (cf. Van Dijk et al., 2003).

The second quadrant, in the top right corner, deals with positive expectations that the organization is expected to fulfill, i.e., *optimistic expectations* (positive outcome/high confidence). In this case, the organization is believed to offer outcomes that are valued by the expectant. These expectations can be based on previous good experience or positive information of the organization, dealing with, for example, products or community involvement. Positive expectations are signs of trust in the organization (its ability and willingness), and hence violating them can severely damage relationships and support.

The third type deals with negative expectations that the organization is expected to fulfill, described in the bottom left quadrant as *pessimistic expectations* (negative outcome/low low confidence). They are pessimistic in the sense that the organization is believed to offer negative outcomes. These expectations, as opposed to the optimistic expectations defined

previously, display distrust in the organization and its ability or willingness to offer outcomes that are valued by the expectant. Instead, the expectant feels the organization's actions actually harm or threaten the expectant's values or personal interest. Expectations in this quadrant can be, for example, expectations of poor quality, withheld or distorted information, or irresponsible behavior, such as causing safety risks or harming the community.

As the fourth quadrant, in the bottom right section, presents negative expectations that the organization is expected to fail (negative outcome/high confidence), this type is somewhat more complex than the other three. On the one hand, the fourth type can display caution, as publics can become, for example, cautious about a certain issue with negative impacts but might have confidence in the organization's ability to avoid the negative outcome. On the other hand, the fourth type might also indicate a form of blind faith toward the organization, if the organization is expected to be able to avoid the negative outcome despite the probability. Thus, the fourth type could be described as *cautious or blind faith expectations*.

The Expectation Grid forms a framework where expectations can land based on their tone and context. This framework suggests that expectations offer cues to why they are what they are—that they are affected by values and personal interest, setting the expectation tone, and past information and experience, setting the organizational context. Thus, the actions and behavior of organizations affect expectations, but there are also other, implicit and explicit factors that have an impact. How then, should the Expectation Grid be understood and what public relations can do with a broader understanding of expectations? We conclude the article with a discussion on this.

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DISCUSSION

Expectations need to be defined to understand their role in public–organization relationships. In this article, we have suggested that the concept of expectations is not flat or one-dimensional, but, rather, built on two continuums. The continuum of the tone ranges from what is considered good or desirable to what is not, and the continuum of confidence placed in the organization ranges from high to low. On these continuums, expectations take different forms, which affect how their fulfillment is assessed. This we acknowledge in the Expectation Grid, according to which expectations in organizational context can display cynicism, optimism, pessimism, or caution/blind faith toward an organization. We hope that the Expectation Grid helps to bridge some of the most crucial gaps currently existing in public relations literature about expectations and their relevance for the field.

First, the Expectation Grid addresses the lack of definitions we detected in the literature of public relations. As only eight out of 197 articles in our literature search sample offered a definition for expectations, expectations have been underconceptualized in public relations literature, and used primarily to explain other concepts. The concepts that expectations are most frequently attached to are some of the most central in the field, such as reputation, responsibility, relationship, and legitimacy. Hence, we suggest that an advanced understanding of expectations might help to understand these central concepts more profoundly. For example, the ability to fulfill expectations is a popular way to define a reputation. This view suggests that the expectations publics have for organizations are always about positive outcomes, such as good service, prompt communication, or taking part in community building. However, this view lacks the negative

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side of expectations, and concentrates on expectations such as hopes, wishes, or demands. As we have argued, expectations can also take the form of negative anticipations, especially if previous experience has been poor, and hence, they could help to decipher why publics sometimes display pessimism or cynicism toward organizations. This connects not only to how not meeting positive expectations can lead to reputational losses, but how meeting negative expectations might actively build or maintain an unfavorable reputation, or, for example, cause damage to legitimacy.

Thus far, it has been research in fields other than public relations that has divided expectations into different types. Although customer research stresses the importance of satisfaction for future business opportunities, the view of public relations is broader: how satisfaction or dissatisfaction affects organization–public relationships. Hence, the second gap the Expectation Grid addresses is the existence of different types of expectations. Although all types of expectations can contribute to assessments, dismantling the concept of expectations explains what expectations are built on and what, in fact, is assessed when they are compared with experience or performance. We used customer satisfaction and customer management literature to open up the different types, and assembled the Expectation Grid based on the categorizations we made from this literature to translate the different origins of expectations into the context of organizations and public relations. Hence, we suggest that expectations cannot be treated as observable data to be derived from the publics, but as a phenomenon that cannot be understood without analysis. The Expectation Grid is a possible tool to give this analysis structure.

Third, the Expectation Grid can be applied to understand expectation violations and gaps and determine their context. Although gaps resulting from mismatched or unfilled expectations have already been recognized in the literature of public relations, not much is known of how to interpret these gaps. Based on the Expectation Grid, we suggest that the significance of different gaps varies depending on the expectation type: A gap in optimistic expectations (positive outcome/high confidence) might indicate unrealistic assessments when it comes to, for example, the resources the organization is working with, whereas a gap in cynical expectations (positive outcome/low confidence) could indicate that the organization would be, in fact, able to deliver a positive outcome, but for some reason (lack of reputational capital, for example) publics are not confident in the organization's capability or willingness.

As such, the Expectation Grid does not do away with the previous understanding of expectations in public relations research; in fact, it complements it by adding understanding of the different ways expectations are formed, and possibly also why publics behave as they do. For example, violated value-based expectations can make publics cynical, even pessimistic, and make them withdraw their support. Expectations are delicate, as they may not lead to loud opposition (which is easy to recognize or even impossible to miss), but to silent manifestations in terms of turning away from the relationship when expectations are not matched properly. Expectations can eventually turn into issues or even prevailing demands (Luoma-aho, 2008), but the result can also be simply disengaged publics who turn away from the relationship without great turmoil. To organizations, however, disengaged publics are lost relationships.

Different views of expectations in existing public relations literature might give some direction to how organizations might utilize the information provided by the Expectation Grid. Organizations can employ different strategies to respond to expectations, ranging from denial of expectations, or minimal response to them, to proactive anticipation of expectations (Sethi, 1979). For example, creating realistic expectations (and thus avoiding disappointment) with a

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neutral, rather than an excellent reputation can serve as a strategy (Luoma-aho, 2007). However, meeting low positive expectations rarely results in prosperous relationships (Weber & Mayer, 2011). As such, the Expectation Grid is not inherently good or bad, but it depends on how it is used—whether the information organized by it is used in attempts to alter or restrain publics' expectations, or whether the information is used to adapt and align the organization and root the organization more firmly within society. In other words, there is a difference whether organizations try to manage publics' expectations, or whether they try to manage their own understanding of their publics' expectations. As expectations are influenced by notions of what is valued, and they are socially constructed in interaction that can take place between organization and publics or between publics, we suggest that organizations can influence them only partially.

Understanding expectations highlights organizational functions such as monitoring and listening. Keeping track of expectations is a continuous process, as expectations can change over time or turn from something that was desired into something that is undesired due to, for example, changes in societal values or attitudes. Especially from a dialogic and cocreational perspective, the Expectation Grid can help organizations make better sense of their publics' feedback, both in terms of future opportunities as well as threats. From the perspective of the publics, this might mean that their voices are acknowledged and publics are offered a way to be more included in organizational processes. As such, a more sophisticated interpretation of expectations might help to understand tensions between actors, and to identify power discrepancies. A broader understanding of expectations could also be connected to an activist interpretation of public relations that embraces differing, competing and conflicting interests.

We hope this article will inspire future research in terms of recognizing expectations as a multidimensional concept and in shedding more light on their role in organization–public relations. However, as this article is an introduction to a broader understanding of expectations, there are still many areas to cover. First, as the theoretical background utilized in the article was drawn primarily from areas outside the scope of public relations literature, one can argue whether this input can fit the organizational context and apply to understanding publics and their behavior. However, as the theoretical input we introduced is essentially about human behavior and interaction, we believe it can serve public relations research, though there can be other views still to be included. In addition, there can be more specific questions that still need answering, such as knowing how publics understand their role as contributors in relationships, and how this affects their expectations. In addition, the notion that all parties in relationships can intentionally lower their expectations to avoid disappointment is an area that deserves further investigation in the organizational context.

Furthermore, as this article is conceptual, we presented the Expectation Grid as a framework that organizes the input from various reviewed theories, but we did not test how the Grid works for mapping expectations in reality and whether, for example, all types of expectations we present actually exist. There might be interesting avenues for future research in assessing whether there are more types or categories of expectations to identify, and what types of expectations are most relevant for specific situations. For example, value-based expectations might become most relevant in terms of corporate responsibility, whereas information and experience based could matter most for reputation and trust.

We also call for case studies to test the Expectation Grid and its value in different cultural and environmental settings.

CONCLUSION

The concept of expectations lacks a clear definition and analytical understanding in public relations research, although expectations are connected to many central concepts in the field. To offer a broader conceptual understanding of expectations, we visited disciplines outside the scope of public relations which viewed expectations as frames and filters that affect both the way behavior is adapted and how the behavior of others is assessed. We explored the many dimensions of expectations, that is, the different types of expectations that may originate from values, information, experience or personal interest. As such, we proposed that expectations are multi-dimensional rather than one-dimensional constructs.

Based on our exploration into the concept of expectations, we proposed that in organizational relations expectations are two-fold assessment of what is considered good or desirable (expectation tone ranging from positive to negative) and the confidence placed in the organization (organization-specific context ranging from high to low confidence). This duality was depicted in the Expectation Grid, which divided expectations into four different types: cynical, optimistic, pessimistic and cautious/blind faith expectations. The Expectation Grid recognizes the spectrum of expectations from positive to negative and each quadrant of the Expectation Grid represents a different outlook on an organization and its ability or willingness to deliver outcomes that are valued by the publics.

We argue that understanding expectations requires analysis, as there are several explanations to expectations. As a central point, we discovered that expectations do not always convey positive aspirations which organizations can, when the right opportunities and resources are available, start fulfilling. Instead, expectations can convey caution or distrust toward organizations, changing the dominant understanding of expectations in the literature of public relations as hopes, wishes or demands of only positive outcomes. Thus, we conclude that understanding also negative expectations and their origins may significantly broaden the understanding of organization–public relations, and with this we hope to both advance the theoretical understanding of expectations in public relations research, as well as better meet the current needs of public relations practitioners when they interact with publics.

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AUDIENCE ENABLING AS CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY FOR MEDIA ORGANIZATIONS

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Audience Enabling as Corporate Responsibility for Media Organizations

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Media organizations engaging in journalistic production face ethical challenges that concern business ethics as much as journalism ethics. This article studies expectations of responsibility for media organizations that engage in journalistic production and assesses them from the viewpoint of sector-specific corporate responsibility. The data are obtained from interviews with Finnish nongovernmental organization experts who work closely with media issues. Of the three positive and three negative expectation themes identified, audience enabling was associated with most confidence. Audience enabling deals with the impacts of media products and social connectivity that links media organizations (as businesses) into larger societal processes and issues. It is concluded that without the synchronization of journalism ethics and business ethics, it can be difficult to address complex corporate responsibility issues.

Loss of trust in media institutions and content has been a recent challenge for media organizations (Quandt, 2011). Trends, such as tabloidization and sensationalism (Connell, 1998), “infotainment,” and the “dumbing down” of media content (Thussu, 2007), and, more recently, the impact of big data technologies on privacy (Fairfield & Shtein, 2014) have been sparking new discussion on ethics in the media sector. Furthermore, individual events, such as the *News of the World* phone hacking scandal, have raised concerns regarding corporate practices and the corporate power of media organizations (Wring, 2012). In addition, newer media have been confronted with ethical dilemmas, such as Google and its decision to censor servers in China (O’Rourke, Harris, & Ogilvy, 2007). This article views these disputes not only as challenges for journalism but also for organizational conduct and the values that guide it.

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The media sector of today is characterized by a concentration of media ownership and market-driven media production (Adams-Bloom & Cleary, 2009; Stern, 2008; SustainAbility, UNEP, & Ketchum, 2002). Despite these new developments, the social responsibility of the media sector is a challenging topic since any regulation but self-regulation can be interpreted as a threat to a free press (Christians & Nordenstreng, 2004; Pickard, 2010). Martin and Souder (2009) note how "any discussion of media ethics is made more challenging by the additional complexities of organizational structures and institutional issues" (p. 129). This complexity is embedded in media organizations that produce journalistic content but also act as businesses under economic imperatives and use power as economic entities (Richards, 2004).

Besides journalism ethics, the tensions between economic and ethical concerns in news production have been addressed from the viewpoint of corporate responsibility (CR) that focuses on the social role of business and the social and environmental consequences of doing business (Matten & Moon, 2008; Okoye, 2009). These consequences can be both direct (causality) and indirect (social connectivity) (Schrempf, 2012). Despite the commercial impact of the media, previous studies (Webb, 2009; Gulyás, 2011) have noted that media organizations lag behind in CR compared to other sectors, even when media organizations are being increasingly corporatized (Richards, 2004). Webb (2009) pointed out that the slow development of CR in the media sector could be due to a lack of pressure to report CR issues and practices. Hence, the media sector might need to recognize organizational- and sector-level responsibilities more so than before; otherwise, important areas of CR will be overlooked.

In this article, CR is approached by examining the expectations of responsibility that media organizations face. Expectations can be defined as guiding components for relationships (Burgoon, 1993) because they influence whether relationships are formed and continued, what sort of behavior is accepted, and whether a partner is trusted (Thomlison, 2000). Hence, expectations play a role in how organizational endeavors are assessed, making them central for CR. In this study, expectations are used as a tool to tap into the phenomenon of CR in the media sector, as the CR practices of this sector are largely still forming. An underlying assumption for the study is that the practices and expectations for CR vary depending on the industry or sector (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010; Vidal, Bull, & Kozak, 2010). The empirical study maps sector-specific CR issues for media organizations (concentrating on media organizations that engage in journalistic production) and takes a future-oriented stance with its key research question: What sector-specific responsibilities are expected from media organizations that engage in journalistic production?

The context for the study is Finland, where similar to many other Western countries, issues such as tabloidization and commercialization have questioned whether journalist-ethical principles can be sustained under growing market pressures (Heikkilä & Kylmälä, 2011; Raittila, Koljonen, & Väliverronen, 2010). The political and socio-economic structures in Finland are typical of the Northern European welfare model, and the media system is characterized by a small and distinct language area, a relatively concentrated media market, high reach of news (both offline and online), and a high degree of professionalism in journalism and well-integrated professional norms (Heikkilä & Kylmälä, 2011; Karppinen, Nieminen, & Markkanen, 2011). Although Finland has ranked first in the World Press Freedom Index for the fourth year running (Reporters Without Borders, 2014), Finnish scholars have been concerned about a gradual decline of ethics (Jyrkiäinen, 2008), as new technologies and narrative story-telling are said to turn journalism into a fast-paced "instant gratification business" (Raittila et al., 2010, p. 73).

Not only have Finnish journalistic principles and methods been scrutinized for their ethical soundness (Raittila et al., 2010), but the behavior of the media as a business and as an industry also has raised new concerns (The Union of Journalists in Finland, 2012; Wilenius & Malmelin, 2009).

To frame the context of the empirical study, the next section introduces what is meant by CR, and more specifically, sector-based corporate responsibility in this article. Next, an overview of literature on CR for the media sector is presented. The empirical part of the article presents data from Finnish nongovernmental organization (NGO) experts who specialize in media issues. The findings are presented with the help of the Expectation Grid (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015), where both positive and negative expectations are acknowledged. The article ends with a discussion on one of the identified expectation themes—audience enabling—as a sector-based corporate responsibility, followed by a broader discussion on CR of media organizations that engage in journalistic production as a combination of journalism ethics and business ethics.

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SECTOR-BASED CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY

CR can entail different elements depending on its societal context (Dahlsrud, 2008; Okoye, 2009). Overall, CR is wide, both as a concept and a phenomenon, and it has been divided into different dimensions, such as environmental, social, economic, stakeholder, and voluntariness (Dahlsrud, 2008), or economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary/philanthropic dimensions (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Therefore, it is essential to define what is meant by CR in this study.

First, in this article CR is understood as a concept that attempts to identify the social role of business (Okoye, 2009, p. 623). As such, CR is a reflection of social imperatives and the social consequences of business (Matten & Moon, 2008). Second, CR is used as an umbrella term for different concepts that define business-society relations and the responsibilities of business (for an overview of concepts, see Amaeshi & Adi, 2007). Third, Greenwood's (2007) notion that CR depends largely on the organization's ability to engage stakeholders, understand their legitimate right to be included in organizational processes, and respect them is acknowledged. Lastly, and most essentially, Schrempf's (2012) interpretation of CR as a responsibility that depends on social connection rather than only on causality and direct links between an action and an outcome is adopted. Social connectivity depends on whether actors have a direct or indirect shared responsibility in interdependent processes (Schrempf, 2012). Thus, the understanding of CR in this article recognizes that stakeholders define what counts as responsibility and that complex and global problems cannot necessarily be pinned on a single actor.

Social connectivity serves as a frame to understand sector-based corporate responsibility. The literature of CR has recognized that while there are universal issues that apply to all businesses in general, there are also CR issues that vary depending on the industry or sector (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010; Vidal et al., 2010). Universal responsibilities include issues such as adherence to laws and regulations, environmental protection, occupational safety, and respecting human rights (Global Reporting Initiative, 2013). Sector-specific traits, in turn, depend on the operations and unique impacts of the sector, and the wider societal issues organizations operating in the sectors are connected to.

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Sector-based CR means that different areas of responsibility can weigh differently depending on the sector. For example, for businesses in resource-intensive sectors, environmental issues are often most visible and pressing, while businesses operating in, for example, high tech might find their core responsibility in areas such as the global digital divide (Timonen & Luoma-aho, 2010). This is due to different ecological and social impacts of different products that ultimately define what CR entails for each sector, or even each organization. The different sector-based emphases of responsibility are also acknowledged by the Global Reporting Initiative that publishes distinct guidelines for different sectors (building on top of standard guidelines), among them, the media sector (Global Reporting Initiative, 2014).

The media are a special sector compared with many others, as media organizations not only serve the role of a watchdog for societal players, such as businesses, but they are also businesses operating under economic imperatives (Grayson, 2009; Napoli, 1997). They are, however, a unique kind of businesses, as the structures of media organizations that engage in journalistic production entail both managerial (financial) management and editorial management (Demers & Merskin, 2000). The media are both a business and an institution, with a role that needs to find a balance between profit-seeking and public service (Jaehnig & Onyebadi, 2011). In organizational studies, the media are often seen as stakeholders for other organizations, but seldom treated as an industry or sector with stakeholders of its own (e.g., Donaldson & Preston, 1995; for exceptions see Gulyás, 2011; Richards, 2004; Stern, 2008; see Wilenius & Malmelin, 2009 for a Finnish example). However, studies focusing on the media as business have been called for, as the media consist of different actors that engage in media production in a landscape heavily influenced by convergence, technological growth, and global exchange (Holt & Perren, 2009). Hence, the sector faces pressures and challenges that might affect how their (business) responsibility is perceived.

In this article, media are approached as businesses with responsibilities by investigating the expectations media organizations face regarding their responsibility as social actors. Media organizations are understood as entities that engage in professional media production, either in commercial or public broadcasting. To distinguish further between different types of media organizations, the main focus in this article is on media organizations that engage in journalistic production. The next section introduces in more detail what CR in the media sector can entail in the light of existing literature.

CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE MEDIA SECTOR

The idea of the media's responsibility toward society is not new and can be found in literature as early as the 1940s (McIntyre, 1987). Originally the social responsibility of media referred to preserving democratic and journalistic ideals, such as providing a truthful, comprehensive, and intelligent report on events; safeguarding individual rights; enlightening the public; and separating these ideals from commercial goals (Commission on Freedom of the Press, 1947; Peterson, 1956). In the digital age, the discussion on the media's responsibilities has been reforming, as, for example, the audience can "easily communicate and comment on the quality of journalistic products in a digital public sphere" (Fengler, Eberwein, & Leppik-Bork, 2011, p. 15). Furthermore, the public now has more means to monitor transparency and criticize journalistic content, or even participate in the process by which it is created (Deuze, 2005;

Hayes, Singer, & Ceppos, 2007; Karlsson, 2011). Besides digitalization, the media landscape is being altered by the "corporatization of the newsroom" (Richards, 2004, p. 122), meaning that journalists of today work increasingly for large, conglomerated companies that have both priorities and responsibilities as business entities.

The balance between editorial independence and economic necessities, and the tensions between the economic and ethical concerns in news production, are persistent questions for the research of journalism ethics (e.g., Adams-Bloom & Cleary, 2009; Martin & Souder, 2009), as well as the question of who should or can bear responsibility as individual journalists are part of larger collectives, institutions, and cultures (e.g., Wyatt, 2014). For example Martin and Souder (2009) note that the economic interdependence between journalists, audience, and financiers such as advertisers is inescapable as news outlets cannot be economically self-sufficient if they do not sell their journalism in the marketplace where economic transactions occur. Adams-Bloom and Cleary (2009) have suggested that the double structure of financial and editorial management in media organizations could be acknowledged by a dual model of responsibility, including financial responsibility (to the shareholders) and social responsibility (to the audience). However, as the literature of business ethics and corporate responsibility assert, the responsibility of businesses is not defined only by financial responsibilities, but rather the overall responsibility is a combination of financial, social, and environmental impacts of doing business (Dahlsrud, 2008).

From the viewpoint of CR, journalism ethics is part of the sector-specific traits that characterize corporate responsibility for a certain sector, consisting of organizations that operate in the same industry. Compared with the more established field of journalism ethics, the notion of CR for media organizations is significantly newer, as it has been gaining ground since the turn of the millennium (Gulyás, 2011; Jaehnig & Onyebadi, 2011). It might not be a coincidence that this discussion has been sparked along with corporatization, as the interest in CR often increases along with growing corporate size, power, and influence (e.g., Banerjee, 2008).

There have been both academic and practical attempts to address media responsibility as CR. Adams-Bloom and Cleary's (2009), dual responsibility model is one attempt to combine business (economic) responsibilities with social (journalistic) responsibilities. Scholars such as Grayson (2009) and Gulyás (2011) have listed an abundance of issues that are important for responsible media organizations, such as freedom of expression, impartiality, transparent editorial policies, respecting privacy, aligning corporate values and advertisers' values, the duty to educate and inform, the promotion of media literacy, diversity of output, creative independence, and valuing creativity. Both Grayson (2009) and Gulyás (2011) have also mentioned general-level responsibilities that are common for all industries, such as the environmental impact of products, labor practices, human rights, and community relations. In addition, Jaehnig and Onyebadi (2011), Ingenhoff and Koelling (2012), Hou and Reber (2011), and Wilenius and Malmelin (2009) have listed different attributes they consider as the CR of the media sector, including, for example, stewardship, media diversity, and operational transparency.

Outside academia, the Global Reporting Initiative (2014) has defined what CR means for media organizations in their media sector disclosures, where freedom of expression, information, and education; pluralism and diversity; acting as a watchdog; cultural expressions and social inclusion; engagement; raising awareness on sustainability; and the "brainprint" of content are defined as central CR issues for the media sector (Global Reporting Initiative, 2014, pp. 8–9). In addition, the U.K.-based Media Corporate Social Responsibility Forum has suggested the CR agenda for the media sector to be a combination of three different issues:

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generic business issues (such as corporate governance, climate change, customer relationships); issues with special implications for the media sector (such as information integrity, promotion of sustainable development, citizenship); and unique sector issues (such as transparent and responsible editorial policies, impartial and balanced output, freedom of expression) (Media CSR Forum, 2008). In a report by SustainAbility et al. (2002), CR in the media sector was seen to include promoting the awareness and development of CR and sustainability.

The different interpretations of what CR consists of in the media sector are summarized in Table 1, following the division made by the Media CSR Forum (2008) into three different levels (generic issues, issues with special implications to the sector, and unique sector issues).

The existing literature shows little consensus on what CR in the media sector entails. Gulyás (2011) has argued that the CR agenda for the media sector remains underdeveloped compared to many other industries, and despite media organizations' recent interest in reporting their CR activities and goals, media-specific CR issues have not been given much attention. In fact, Gulyás's (2011) study on media organizations' CR reporting showed that media organizations rarely tackle important social issues in their CR plans and reports. The argument of Gulyás (2011) addressed the media sector as whole including both journalistic and non-journalistic entities (e.g., entertainment media), alike to many of the other examples listed in Table 1. As the media sector is wide and it includes different branches of media, the analysis of this article is narrowed down to media organizations that engage in journalistic production. The next section introduces the empirical study of CR expectations and places the study in the context of the Finnish media sector.

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TABLE 1
Interpretations of Corporate Responsibility for the Media Sector

Generic Issues	*Issues with Special Implications to the Sector*	*Unique Sector Issues*	*Author/document*
Economic responsibility to the shareholder		Social responsibility to the audience	Adams-Bloom and Cleary, 2009
Economic aspects Environmental aspects Social aspects	Economic performance and impacts Environmental aspects Labor practices and decent work Human rights Society and community Product responsibility	Freedom of expression Information and education Pluralism and diversity Acting as a watchdog Cultural expressions and social inclusion Audience engagement Raising awareness on sustainability Media's brainprint Portrayal of human rights Cultural rights Intellectual property Protection of privacy Content creation Content dissemination Audience interaction Media literacy	Global Reporting Initiative, 2014

(*continued*)

TABLE 1
(*Continued*)

Generic Issues	*Issues with Special Implications to the Sector*	*Unique Sector Issues*	*Author/document*
Environmental impact of products	Duty to educate and inform	Editorial policy and freedom of expression Privacy and public decency Advertising	Grayson, 2009
Environmental sustainability Labor practices Human rights Product responsibility Society/community relations		Impartial and balanced output Freedom of expression Transparent and responsible editorial policies Media literacy Diversity of output Creative independence Valuing creativity	Gulyás, 2011
Environmental policies and activities Community relations Employee relations Human rights	Diversity	Providing responsible media content Committing to diversity in content Supporting creativity	Hou and Reber, 2011
Responsibility for employees Responsibility for society	Responsibility for the environment	Editorial responsibility	Ingenhoff and Koelling, 2012
Stewardship	Truth telling Societal betterment	Media diversity	Jaehnig and Onyebadi, 2011
Climate change Community investment Corporate governance Customer relationships Environmental management Staff investment Supply chain integrity Staff diversity	Citizenship Compliance Data protection Digital divide Education Entertainment and gaming Health, safety, and security Human rights Information integrity IP and copyright Plurality Promotion of causes Promotion of sustainable development Transparent ownership Treatment of freelancers	Creative independence Diversity of output Freedom of expression Impartial and balanced output Media literacy Transparent and responsible editorial policies Valuing creativity Responsible advertising Awareness of the impact of communication	Media CSR Forum, 2008
Corporate governance	Accountability Transparency Honesty Respect Consistency	Informing the public about CR and sustainability	SustainAbility, UNEP and Ketchum, 2002
Operational sustainability	Operational transparency		Wilenius and Malmelin, 2009

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EMPIRICAL STUDY

The empirical study concentrated on the expectations that media organizations face as social actors (as businesses and as journalistic entities). Thus, the focus was on sector-specific responsibilities, rather than generic CR issues. The central research question for the study was *What sector-specific responsibilities are expected from media organizations that engage in journalistic production?* To specify the study, the following subquestions were posed: *Are the expectations of responsibility connected to journalism ethics or business ethics? Are there emerging expectations of responsibility that are especially relevant for the era of social media?* The data were collected from Finland. While the Finnish media are said to have a strong tradition of acting responsibly and serving the public (Heikkilä & Kylmälä, 2011; Reporters Without Borders, 2014), a recent study has identified unethical trends, such as the increasing amount of media content that exposes the private lives of individuals (Wilenius & Malmelin, 2009). Furthermore, a recent survey reported that Finns' trust in the media's ability to cover important social issues has declined (T-media, 2013).

The data were generated through individual interviews with 13 NGO experts between March and November 2011. Though NGOs can be seen as important actors in defining what counts as responsibility for different social and cultural settings (Joutsenvirta, 2011), the primary interest was in individual experts' viewpoints rather than official NGO messages and causes. The selection of interviewees was influenced by the novelty of research on CR of media organizations, especially in Finland, that led to the need for in-depth data. Since the goal was to address different CR issues broadly, NGO experts were selected because they had followed the development of the media sector closely as part of their work, including issues that concern specific stakeholder groups, such as employee treatment or advertising policies, and broader societal issues, such as privacy, media literacy, and transparency. The interviewees worked in different NGOs, where their fields of expertise were either directly (e.g., media education) or indirectly (e.g., global education, Internet issues) linked to media issues. Although the sample was small, the interviewees represented a relatively wide range of experts in the scale of the small Finnish nation.

In the study, expectations were used as a tool to tap into the phenomenon of CR in the media sector. Expectations were chosen as a tool as they can be defined as frames for making sense of other's behavior and for predicting future behavior (Burgoon, 1993). Furthermore, expectations have been connected to organizational legitimacy—the social acceptance of an organization (Deephouse & Carter, 2005)—that may be threatened when an organization is knowingly doing something the stakeholders consider inappropriate or illegitimate, or when society's expectations and norms of what is considered appropriate and legitimate have changed (Sethi, 1979).

The interviews were semi-structured; some of the themes dealt specifically with responsibilities of media organizations, while others dealt more broadly with the interviewees' relationship and experiences with the media. This strategy was chosen, as it was thought that expectations are not always explicitly articulated, but they can appear implicitly, for example, when the interviewees describe recent events and observations.

The interviews were analyzed and coded with thematic analysis, following a six-step process of familiarizing, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and reporting, as described in detail by Braun and Clarke (2006). The focus was

on patterns that were relevant to the responsibility of the media as organizations, as businesses, and as social actors. The theoretical background generated an initial understanding of what the CR of media organizations can be (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006), but since the field of CR in the media sector is not established, the coding was kept open for themes that had not been addressed by previous research, as long as they included the element of responsibility.

The analysis acknowledged that expectations take place on different levels and can convey different meanings. Three aspects were assessed during the analysis. First, the basis of expectations was determined—whether rooted in values or ideals of what one thinks should or ought to be, available information or experience, or driven by personal interest of what one thinks appropriate or deserved (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015). Furthermore, expectations can be positive or negative (Burgoon, 1993), and thus they indicate not only opportunities to satisfy stakeholders but also gaps in stakeholders' confidence toward the organization. This determined the expectation tone as the second aspect. The third aspect was the confidence the interviewees had that the expectation would be fulfilled. To assess this, the Expectation Grid (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015) of cynical, optimistic, pessimistic, cautious, or blind-faith mindsets toward the organization was used.

The thematic coding produced extracts that dealt either with the interviewees' expectations toward media organizations as social actors (expressed either implicitly or explicitly) or issues they found to be socially important for media organizations. Hence, both causality and social connection were acknowledged (see Schrempf, 2012). To form more general expectation themes, the extracts were grouped depending on what sort of broader issue they dealt with. This resulted in expectation themes that encompassed different, related issues. Below, the results of the thematic analysis are introduced in more detail.

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Sector-Specific Corporate Responsibilities in the NGO Expert Interviews

The results of the thematic analysis are summarized in Table 2 in the form of six expectation themes. While three themes took a positive tone (sensemaking, integrity, audience enabling), the other three had a negative tone (complex production chains, overcommercialization, quick-win journalism). Two to six expectations were connected to each theme. Each expectation was given a primary basis that depended on what had mostly affected its formation. While the positive expectations were mostly value-based, the negative expectations were mostly experience-based. Next, each expectation theme is introduced in more detail and a summarization of the findings is presented on the Expectation Grid, followed by a discussion on the centrality of audience enabling as CR of media organizations.

The first positive expectation theme, *sensemaking*, was founded in the traditional roles of the media as an informer, shaper of society, and organizer of information:

> The entire, original point of the media is that it shares information, information that is as honest as can be, and that is what media should be. (ngoexpert_4)
>
> If the idea is that people can assess society by themselves, then I think that the media should somehow be able to offer that kind of information so that people have the tools to do that. So that they can make decisions and know what is going on around them. (ngoexpert_10)

When rooting current issues within larger processes and phenomenon, media organizations were expected to honor divergent views and voices without being biased: however, the interviewees

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TABLE 2
Expectation Themes from NGO Expert Interviews

Tone	*Expectation Theme*	*Theme Description*	*Expectations*	*Basis*	*Connection*
Positive	Sensemaking	Media organizations are needed for organizing information, informing on important issues and events, building society, acting as watchdogs, and bringing forth different voices, opinions, and human interest without being biased to any	Society-building Curating Informing Acting as a watchdog Diversity Impartiality	Value Value Value/Experience Value Value/Experience Value/Experience	Journalism ethics
	Integrity	Media production should be transparent and aim for accuracy. Media organizations should recognize the values their products convey and base their business on sound values. The privacy of individuals should be respected and media organizations should treat the people that are the objects of media production with human sensitivity.	Transparency Accuracy Value-based business Ensuring privacy Sensitivity	Value Value Value Value/Personal-interest Value	Journalism ethics Business ethics
	Audience enabling	Media organizations should seek to enable their audience by offering information that challenges people intellectually, by improving individuals' media literacy and critical reading skills, and by using participatory tools that allow opinion-sharing and coproduction	Participation Media literacy Offering challenges	Value/Personal-interest Value/Personal-interest Value/Personal-interest	Journalism ethics Business ethics
Negative	Complex production chains	Due to hidden commercial goals and subcontracting, the process and backgrounds of media production are difficult to assess for the audience	Hidden commercial goals Subcontracting	Experience Experience/Information	Business ethics
	Overcommercialization	Media content becomes more and more saturated with direct and indirect commercial messages and due to commercial pressure, different media products start to resemble each other	Media concentration Entertainment saturation	Experience/Information Experience	Business ethics
	Quick-win journalism	Media content covers issues that have the best entertainment value and even purposefully seeks scandals to try to attract attention with, for example, misleading headlines and by being the first to publish even when facts are unchecked	Inflated content Mistakes caused by speed	Experience Experience	Journalism ethics Business ethics

acknowledged that some kind of bias always exists. Part of sensemaking was offering different perspectives that allow the audience to form their own opinions. As such, sensemaking rests in many ways on journalistic codes and ethics. However, organizational policies can ensure that there is room to realize these ideals.

The need for sensemaking was seen to be increasing, as information is fragmented and issues are often global and complex. Social media help people take part in media's watchdog role and navigate information flows, as friends and contacts recommend content and involve each other in previously private media routines. However, this same development was seen to create isolated "bubbles" in which like-minded people share views and opinions they already agree on. Thus, social media was considered good at bringing people together and facilitating discussions and opinion-sharing. But it was also seen to create silos, where different views do not mix—in fact, differing views are possibly being pushed even further apart. Thus, one expected task for media organizations was to broaden these bubbles by covering their blind spots and by acting as a bridge between diverging bubbles.

The second positive expectation theme, *integrity*, was also rooted in values and dealt with some of the traditional ideals of the media as a transparent and accurate actor. In this theme, journalistic responsibilities were intertwined with organizational-level responsibilities. This was most apparent in the expectation of value-based business. A responsible media organization was considered one that has clear and societally sound values on which its business is based, and one whose products are reflections of those values:

> That sort of value debate should exist, and it has been going on lately, and on some level all the time. But there shouldn't be excuses to hide behind the fact that something sells. But [for media organizations] to really think about whom we are doing this for, and on what premises. (ngoexpert_9)

Furthermore, publishing implicitly or explicitly biased content was seen as a bad organizational policy, and overall, the interviewees valued that media users are given the possibility to assess production processes by themselves.

In the digital era, sensitivity and privacy were seen as important parts of integrity because information travels rapidly, and every click leaves a track. Some of the interviewees talked about how they avoid rewarding certain type of content by not clicking on them, and about how they were conscious of or even concerned for their own privacy, especially online. Hence, this expectation was partly affected by personal interest. Sensitivity was called for, especially in news production, as the interviewees saw that privacy should be respected both in the case of media users, as well as for those portrayed by the media:

> What I would want to see more of, in fact, is a certain sensitivity. Nowadays, more and more media go into that kind of, a little bit of a yellow press style that pigs out on details and that sort of thing, what to me seems very irrelevant. (ngoexpert_6)

> In my opinion, media should bear the responsibility for protecting children when they are the object of the media. [. . .] an important aspect is also what sort of media content children see and experience, of course, and in this sense, the Finnish media is pretty good when you think about TV companies and so forth, but also when news concern children [. . .]. For example, if the news is about a mother or a father, then it should be taken into account that there are also other people [involved]. (ngoexpert_5)

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Audience enabling formed the third positive expectation theme. This theme was about providing the audience with tools to help them develop their own (critical) thinking and, in a digital era, to increasingly take part in media production. The expectations in this theme were based on values and personal interest. Many of the interviewees noted that much is already being done by media organizations in this area, for example, by having in-house media education experts. However, as anyone can now produce their own media, there is a growing need for media literacy that helps people when they are producing media, and when they assess the accuracy, usefulness, and legitimacy of media content:

> I would hope that the media would have more will to cultivate media users'—whether they are readers, or listeners, or whatever—own healthy criticism, that you don't just surrender to all that you are fed, but you know how to express your wishes, and you know how to distinguish what is important, and on what you should get more information, and this should be taken more into consideration. I mean the media houses, that they would take this into consideration. (ngoexpert_1)

> Part of the media's responsibility could be that the leading commercial media would cooperate somehow in terms of media education, that they would offer, for example, some tools for it, kind of like the Newspaper Week and others. But, somehow, more broadly connected to social media. (ngoexpert_6)

Participation was a central expectation within the theme of audience enabling. Participation was criticized for mostly being welcomed in the entertainment media (e.g., reality TV or yellow press) as opposed to media content that deals with societal issues:

> Now when people's and citizens' own ways to influence and own opinions and views and knowledge become visible, I see it as a good thing, but I see that people would have so much more potential in them, than to merely participate in various reality shows. And in putting people's participation to use in different ways. (ngoexpert_1)

> These social platforms have already existed for several years, but in my opinion, recognizing them has been slow. Their commercial value has been seen: Advertising slots and the like have been put up fast, but, in a way, their social value has been, so far, very light, or it has not been utilized as well as it should have been. (ngoexpert_6)

Participation, however, was not seen as completely unproblematic. First, the interviewees' own experiences of participating in media production had created higher expectations than when merely observing the media. Participation had changed expectations of how and on what level the issue should be covered, as the participator automatically has a higher stake in the process. In the vocabulary of expectations, participation can raise the level of what is considered deserved, or what "should be," as the participator has invested his/her own resources (time, expertise, personality) in the process. Second, some of the interviewees acknowledged that participation is not always inherently good, with issues such as privacy, safety, and sensitivity playing a part in it. Problems were seen especially when talking about entertainment news:

> [They say] that their gossip section [. . .] is the first and most popular form of interactive media. I say this as an aggravation to point out that, at worst, anything can be apparently justified with anything—if in my view it is an invasion of privacy and people are spied on [. . .], but they frame it as something fun, readers participating in information production. (ngoexpert_13)

Hence, if media companies are to increase their responsibility by enabling participation, they should not only acknowledge societal issues, but also ensure that participation is coupled with high organizational-level standards of privacy and sensitivity.

The three negative expectation themes depicted negative scenarios that the interviewees considered likely to take place or continue in the future. *Complex production chains* was one of the negative expectation themes. Subcontracting in media production was one expectation in this theme, and it concerned, for example, using big news agencies instead of in-house reporters. This expectation was based on personal experience and available information, as the interviewees quoted recent news where, for example, layoffs of foreign correspondents were reported. According to the interviewees, subcontracting had made the journalistic process less transparent and more difficult for the media user to assess:

> [They have] cut down on journalists who are assigned abroad, so they don't have first-hand information anymore. I think it is a big limitation that they trust [. . .] the services of big news agencies. [. . .] it does erode some of their credibility; it is not so trustworthy, and then you have to investigate a bit where the news has come from. (ngoexpert_7)

Furthermore, the interviewees expressed how media production was so complex that it was hard to assess who or what influences what. Thus, hidden commercial goals formed the second expectation in this theme. Examples such as intermedia puffing and other forms of hidden advertising were mentioned:

> You notice that you don't really understand [media production]. Maybe the easiest way is to look how some TV format is puffed in the yellow press, but that's probably too obvious, and it would be nice to hear some deeper views. If you listen to journalists, they read in a completely different manner to how the texts are produced, and they know the production process. (ngoexpert_13)

> A TV series, even if it comes from a non-commercial channel, can still have hidden messages that have been written in together with some actor. (ngoexpert_5)

Another negative expectation theme was the *overcommercialization* of media content. This theme was rooted in the interviewees' observations, based on information and personal experience of how media companies are becoming more and more centralized, threatening diversity, and how the intensifying commercial pressures saturate media content with direct and indirect commercial messages:

> Even in [public broadcasting], what sells, dominates. They compete, especially in children's programs, more directly [with commercial media], and [they] probably have to go based on what people want. (ngoexpert_7)

> In every type of media, I think it is quite selective what they bring forth and how. But I don't think that it would make a difference what newspaper I read, for example, or which channel's news I watch; in my opinion they follow more or less the same pattern [. . .]. And, perhaps especially when they choose their headlines and what topic they want to produce (ngoexpert_12)

To counteract this negative expectation, it was hoped that media organizations would put more effort into defining and clarifying their business values.

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The third negative expectation theme was *quick-win journalism*, which was connected to entertainment saturation and commercialization, where clicks guide what is produced. This, according to the interviewees' experience, directs attention in a questionable way and leads into inflated, misleading content and unhealthy competition to publish first, despite possible mistakes:

> When the lives of self-destructive people with drug problems or mental health problems are feasted upon on a weekly basis and a lot of papers are sold on that, it does not feel morally right. (ngoexpert_6)
>
> Why is, at the moment, the hunt for clicking headlines so strong that the headlines have to be so, in my opinion, tasteless? (ngoexpert_8)
>
> Even before the facts are available, they are already publishing news. (ngoexpert_7)

The negative expectation themes relate strongly to the organizational level, because, for example, policies for subcontracting and response strategies for commercial pressures are usually management decisions.

Expectations on the Expectation Grid

The Expectation Grid (Olkkonen & Luoma-aho, 2015) encompasses four types of expectations, each of which has a different outlook on an organization's willingness and ability to fulfill expectations. *Cynical expectations* deal with expectations of positive outcomes, but the organization is perceived as incapable of fulfilling them. In other words, the organization is expected to fail to meet positive expectations. *Optimistic expectations*, in turn, are positive expectations the organization is perceived as capable of offering. In *pessimistic expectations*, the expectation is negative and the organization is believed to fulfill it, leading to a negative outcome. *Cautious or blind-faith expectations* deal with negative expectations the organization is expected to fail, suggesting a situation where, for example, an issue with negative impacts brings forth caution, but confidence is placed in the organization's ability to avoid the negative outcome. Blind faith may occur if the organization is expected to be able to avoid a probable negative outcome.

To be able to place the expectations identified from the interviews on the Expectation Grid, the data were coded again to identify the (explicit or implicit) confidence the interviewees had for the fulfillment of their expectations. This coding determined whether the tone was optimistic or cynical (for positive expectations), or pessimistic or involved caution or blind faith (for negative expectations). For example, when an interviewee saw that the ideal of impartiality was currently poorly attained, it was coded as a cynical expectation:

> Immigrants are only in the news in certain contexts and they get to speak only in certain types of content, but otherwise they are very invisible. [. . .] Or children and young people. (ngoexpert_8)

While determining this level, it was acknowledged that some of the positive expectations were seen clearly as ideals that were not expected to be reached in full. Hence, media organizations were forgiven for their inability to fulfill certain expectations. In addition, it became evident

whilst coding that for many positive expectations, the confidence expressed was cautious, but not completely cynical. Especially for the positive expectations, on many occasions the resources were seen as sufficient to fulfill the positive value-based expectations, but, for example, previous experience or knowledge had made the interviewees cautious regarding the outcome. Thus, as an adaption to the original model, expectations of cautious confidence were moved from the bottom-right quadrant to the vertical axis.

Figure 1 presents how the expectations were placed on the Expectation Grid, depending on the interviewees' confidence regarding each expectation. At the moment, it seems that media organizations are facing many expectations with a cautious outlook, and their ability to respond to these expectations will define the direction of the confidence in the future.

In addition to placing the expectations on the Expectation Grid, the expectations were grouped per theme on the Grid. This grouping revealed that the interviewees were most confident that the theme of audience enabling could be fulfilled by media organizations, while the outlook was seen as the most pessimistic for complex production chains. The remaining four themes, two positive and two negative themes, were placed somewhere in the middle, mostly because of the interviewees' cautious confidence. No expectations were identified as blind-faith expectations; thus, their existence is not confirmed by this study.

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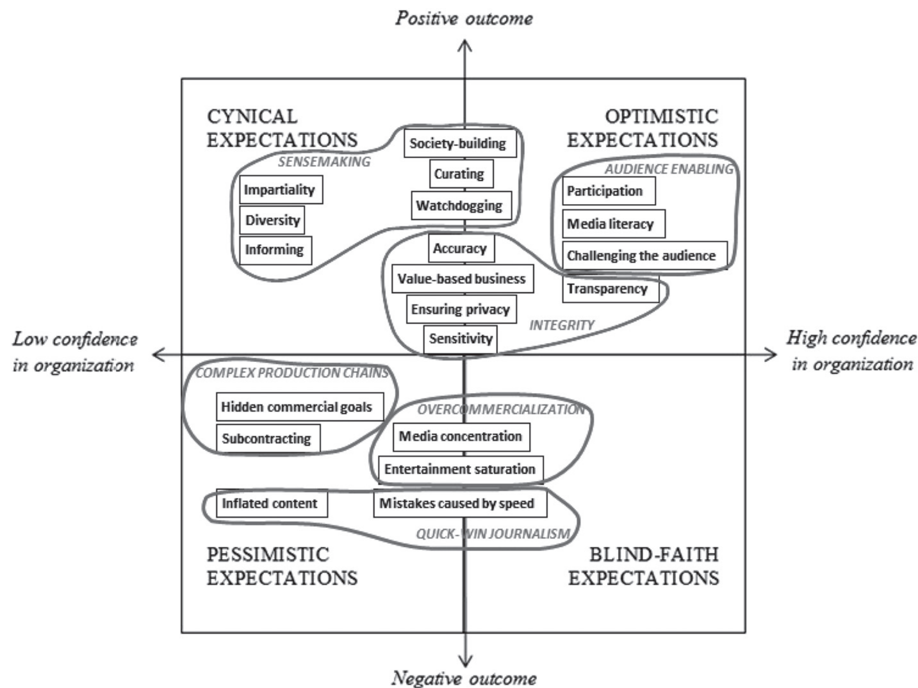

FIGURE 1 Expectations placed on the adapted Expectation Grid.

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Of the positive expectations, only impartiality, diversity, and informing were seen as purely cynical, as it was acknowledged that media products are always produced within a certain frame, and there is always a certain agenda for publishing. The reason why many of the positive expectations involved a cautious outlook could be that many of them were interlinked with negative expectations. For example, the interviewees felt that media organizations had a good opportunity to build society and act as a curator and a watchdog, but negative expectations such as entertainment saturation and inflated content had made the outlook cautious, and the interviewees were hesitant as to whether the negative outcomes were hindering the positive potential. Moreover, most of the positive expectations were primarily value-based while the negative expectations were primarily experience-based. The different origins might explain interlinking between expectations, as value-based expectations can be mirrored by experience-based expectations when stakeholders make assessments between "what ought to be" and "what is" (Panwar, Hansen, & Kozak, 2014).

Audience Enabling as a Sector-Based Corporate Responsibility

The interviewees were most confident about expectations belonging to the theme of audience enabling: participation, media literacy, and challenging the audience. Audience enabling is an emerging theme with strong connections to the organizational level; thus, it is an example of how journalism ethics and business ethics become intertwined, especially from the viewpoint of sector-based corporate responsibility and social connectivity. Audience enabling differs from the other two positive expectation themes, sensemaking and integrity that, when achieved, are vital for building a sound base for responsibility and organizational legitimacy, and also for countering the negative expectation themes of complex production chains, overcommercialization, and quick-win journalism. Succeeding in audience enabling can build on top of that basic legitimacy and demonstrate organizational commitment to societal betterment—a commitment to CR that is tied to media organizations' core business. Moreover, the interviewees had invested the highest confidence in expectations belonging to the theme of audience enabling; that is, they assume media can meet these expectations. Thus, the interviewees place it high on the CR agenda for media organizations that engage in journalistic production.

Audience enabling is an expectation theme that is affected by the current changes of the media sector especially in the era of social media. For example, concerning the expectation of participation, the interviewees felt that it has not yet reached its full potential brought about by technology. In fact, the interviewees felt that media organizations have lacked ambition in using participatory tools and processes. According to the interviews, participation was currently welcomed in a sense that could be described as interactive journalism (see Nip, 2006), where participation is only limited to discussion and feedback from the audience. In fact, the observations made by the interviewees confirm the findings of recent studies (Cision, 2011; Pew Research Center, 2010; Villi, 2012) whereby journalists use social media tools mostly for publishing their content and sourcing a story, not for genuine coproduction. However, as Paulussen, Heinonen, Domingo, and Quandt (2007) noted, the Finnish public rate highly in terms of digital competence; hence, they should be well-equipped to take a more participatory role in journalism if the established media welcomes them. This optimism was shared by the interviewees.

To summarize, audience enabling is central for media organizations for two reasons. First, it deals with the impacts media organizations' end products have on people and society at

large. Second, it deals with responsibility via social connectivity, and not just, for example, the ethics of the production process. For example, while the issue of media literacy is a shared responsibility between different actors, media organizations are expected to take an active role in it, as it is their products that are at the center of the debate. Hence, for media organizations that engage in journalistic production, addressing audience enabling is a way to acknowledge the impacts their business has on important social issues. However, how audience enabling is addressed by media organizations depends largely on whether organizational practices and policies support it. This discussion is continued in the concluding part of the article.

CONCLUSION

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This article set out to study the sector-specific corporate responsibility of media organizations that engage in journalistic production. To address the phenomenon, NGO experts' expectations of responsibility were studied. The point of departure was the realization that media organizations can face ethical challenges that concern both journalism and business ethics. Thus, the analysis acknowledged responsibility for media organizations engaging in journalistic production as a combination of journalism ethics and business ethics. Based on the results, both sides of responsibility influence assessments that are made concerning the social role of media organizations and the expectations that deal with media organizations' future behavior.

When assessed from the viewpoint of social connectivity that links the products and conduct of media organizations (as businesses) into larger societal processes and issues, it was suggested based on this data that audience enabling (participation, media literacy, and challenging the audience) is of special importance for CR of media organizations that engage in journalistic production. Because these expectations deal with the impacts of media products on individuals and on society at large, they sit firmly in the core of journalistic production. The Finnish interviewees were confident that media organizations can fulfill these expectations as organizations. This, however, can suggest that they need to be addressed and endorsed as organization-level policies or they can become overwhelming to fulfill.

As a general observation, expectations identified in this study suggest that journalism ethics and business ethics become intertwined in expectations that concern the sector-specific responsibilities of media organizations. In other words, the interviewees assessed the responsibilities and ethics of media organizations as a whole—as journalistic entities *and* businesses. This overall assessment often seemed to make expectations cautious. This raises an interesting question for both research and practice of journalism ethics: If journalistic responsibility can ensure the ethical production of media content, and business ethics can ensure ethical practices and ethical operation of an economic entity, how—if at all—is it possible to synchronize these two sides of responsibility in media organizations that have a dual structure of editorial management and financial management?

Business ethics can support journalism ethics by linking it to organizational- and sector-level policies and strategies, but journalism ethics and business ethics (or lack thereof) can also pull in opposite directions if they are not synchronized. Though many of the positive expectations in this study dealt with (journalistic) ideals and many of the negative expectations could be seen to result from insufficient or unacceptable organizational conduct, the division between the two is not black and white. Synchronization may be needed especially to address responsibility

issues that are connected to media organizations through social connectivity. These issues are often complex and require sufficient organizational resources.

The analysis of positive and negative expectations and what has contributed to their emergence can shed light on the connections and mismatches between journalism ethics and business ethics and how they become intertwined in expectations that concern media organizations' future behavior. Based on these results, it seems that journalism ethics and business ethics are assessed together even when there are organizational structures to separate them. Thus, the results encourage studies that address the social responsibilities of media organizations to draw both from journalism ethics and business ethics in order to address media organizations as entities where ethics is not isolated in either half of the dual structure.

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Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The data and analysis of this article can serve as an example of how expectations can be analyzed to explicate the elements of media organization's responsibility as both journalism and business ethics. Future research is invited to take this investigation and discussion further and extend it to include other stakeholder groups as well as different cultural settings.

This study has presented results from interviews with a limited group. Therefore, there can be other important expectations to identify and other important groups to interview, such as journalists, chief executive officers, and media users. Interviewing these groups can provide more detailed insights into stakeholder-specific CR issues, such as employee treatment or subcontracting, media management, and media ownership. Furthermore, future research can open up new nuances of responsibilities for more specified groups of organizations within the media sector, such as newspaper outlets or TV stations.

Though there can be characteristics of responsibility and ethics that apply in a global context, every cultural and institutional setting can have its own unique areas of emphasis. As the context for this study was Finland, the results apply best to similar countries with a strong tradition of journalism ethics. For countries where, for example, the freedom of the press is not on a similar level, there might be other more urgent issues to solve before addressing the range of responsibilities that social connection suggests. However, for example, audience participation is a phenomenon that appears across many cultural and geographical settings, and the results of this article can resonate wider.

Finally, the data for this study were collected in 2011, and it is likely that there have been new developments since then that might affect expectations and assessments about the responsibilities of media organizations. While the snapshot presented by the current study is likely to change as expectations and the meaning of responsibility are a moving target, it is for future research to investigate which direction they will take.

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