

Title: Effects of Crisis Response Tone and Spokesperson's Gender on Employer Attractiveness

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Highlights:

- The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of tone of apology and disclosure of spokesperson's gender on hospitality organisations' employer attractiveness
- The study tests theories of crisis communication in a social media employer branding context of hospitality
- The study used a 2 (apology tone: formal/corporate vs informal/human) by 2 (spokesperson gender: male vs female) between-subjects experimental design to determine the effect of apology of potential employees employer brand attractiveness
- The findings demonstrate a moderated mediation effect. Account acceptance mediates the relationship between message tone and organisational attractiveness, and this effect is conditional on gender of the spokesperson.

1 **Title: Effects of Crisis Response Tone and Spokesperson's Gender on Employer**

2 **Attractiveness**

3

4 **Abstract:**

5 Timely apologies to key publics on social media are becoming an important aspect of crisis
6 recovery but little is known of how the spokesperson's characteristics and the tone of apology
7 may influence the outcome. Recognising the importance of the need to attract quality
8 workforce, this study examines the impact of social media response to a preventable crisis on
9 organisational attractiveness. Specifically, a 2 (message tone: corporate/formal vs.
10 human/informal) x 2 (spokesperson's gender: male vs. female) between-subjects factorial
11 design was used to test the effectiveness of an apology. The results suggest a significant
12 moderated mediation effect. We find that account acceptance mediates the relationship between
13 message tone and organisational attractiveness, and this effect is conditional on gender of the
14 spokesperson. The results are relevant to crisis managers and brand managers that seek to
15 attract and retain talents.

16

17 **Keywords:** Crisis Communication; Organisational Attractiveness; Social Media; Framing;

18 Gender

19

1 **1. Introduction**

2

3 The environment in which today's hospitality companies operate has become
4 increasingly uncertain (Georgiadis et al., 2019), as changes in the political, economic, social-
5 cultural, technological and environmental landscapes are constantly threatening the
6 performance and viability of companies (Zhang et al., 2019). While such a turbulent
7 environment has led a growing number of companies to engage in risk and crisis management
8 practices to help protect and preserve their value and reputation (Gjerald and Lyngstad, 2015;
9 Waikar et al., 2016), it is no longer the question of 'if', but 'when', a company will be truly
10 tested by a crisis. The proliferation of personal smart devices and the widespread use of social
11 media have further increased the likelihood and magnitude of organisational crises (Liu et al.,
12 2015), as a minor, local incident can quickly spread, therefore causing substantial, corporate-
13 wide damage. For example, in April 2018, Starbucks found itself in crisis after one of its
14 Philadelphia stores called the Police to remove two 'non-buying' African-American customers.
15 The incident was video-recorded, which went viral on social media and led to a wave of protests
16 and global calls for boycotting the world's largest coffee chain. In response, Starbucks closed
17 all of its US stores for a half-day 'unconscious bias' training, which totalled an estimated loss
18 of \$30m just in revenue (Bissel-Linsk et al., 2018), let alone any other forms of damage the
19 crisis might have inflicted, such as on company reputation. A crisis can be defined as 'the
20 perception of an unpredictable event that threatens important expectancies of stakeholders and
21 can seriously impact an organisation's performance and generate negative outcomes' (Coombs,
22 2007a, pp.2-3). Depending on the 'origin' of the crisis and attributed responsibility, existing
23 research has distinguished three broad types of crises: *victim*, *accidental* and *preventable* crisis
24 (Coombs, 2007b). A *preventable* crisis, which is often caused by misbehaviours or intentional
25 wrongdoings of individuals or groups within a company and tends to result in the highest

1 reputational damage than *victim* or *accidental* crisis (Claeys et al., 2010), is the focus of our
2 study.

3

4 When a crisis strikes, a swift and carefully designed response from the company is
5 critical (Coombs, 2017a). Such a response usually manifests itself in the form of a formal
6 ‘message’, designed to satisfy the information needs of the stakeholders, clarify the company’s
7 attitudes and communicate the measures being taken to address the crisis situation (Coombs
8 and Holladay, 2009). Over the last decade, companies in crisis are increasingly making use of
9 social media platforms (e.g. Facebook, Twitter) to deliver such a response (Roshan et al., 2016;
10 Stephens and Malone, 2010). Whilst social media offers a unique communication channel
11 which allows the message to reach as many audiences and as quickly as possible, and may help
12 a company to contain damage and restore investor confidence (Austin and Jin, 2017), an
13 inappropriately crafted and delivered crisis response may provoke public resentment and, in
14 extreme situations, could engender a ‘collaborative brand attack’ (Rauschnabel et al., 2016).

15

16 Nevertheless, the literature on what constitutes an effective crisis response on social
17 media seems to have been patchy (Crijns et al., 2017a; 2017b). Whilst much existing research
18 has explored the question of ‘*what*’ should be said in a crisis response message (i.e. the message
19 ‘*content*’) (Kiambi and Shafer, 2016), relatively little is known about ‘*how*’ the message should
20 be framed (e.g. the message ‘*tone*’) (Crijns et al. 2017b) and ‘*who*’ is appropriately placed to
21 deliver it (i.e. the message ‘*source*’) (Hill and Boyd, 2015; Wei and Ran, 2019). In the context
22 of social media where communications primarily take place in a textual format, we argue that
23 these two considerations in crafting and delivering crisis response messages, i.e. the message
24 ‘*tone*’ and ‘*source*’, could play a vital role in determining response effectiveness. For example,
25 should the message adopt an *informal, human* tone to signal a sense of empathy from the

1 company (e.g. Kelleher, 2009; Park and Cameron, 2014), or should it adopt a *formal, corporate*
2 tone to underscore rationality and professionalism (Kerkhof et al., 2011), which may be
3 expected in official company responses to a crisis (Barcelos et al., 2018). Similarly, it is unclear
4 whether disclosing information about the characteristics of the ‘spokesperson’ within the social
5 media message, such as gender, would affect the effectiveness of the crisis response, despite
6 some studies (e.g. Crijns et al., 2017a; Wei and Ran, 2019) confirming that gender similarities
7 between the spokesperson and the audience indeed influence response effectiveness, albeit in
8 a traditional, face-to-face communications setting.

9

10 Moreover, the literature on crisis communications have predominantly conceptualised
11 companies as providers of consumer products/services and examined the effect of crisis
12 communication on *consumer* perceptions of the company, such as reputation (Crijns et al.,
13 2017b; Lee and Atkinson, 2019) and trustworthiness (Chen and Jai, 2019). However, there
14 appears to be limited studies that have viewed companies as ‘employers’ and explored the effect
15 of crisis communication on *employee* perceptions of the company. This omission is surprising,
16 as in addition to consumers, employees’ evaluations of the company may also be affected by
17 how well the company responds to a crisis (Rabl, 2015). Responded inappropriately, it may
18 lead to a significant negative impact on company image as an attractive employer to work for
19 (Carpentier and Van Hoye, 2020). Further, there appears to be an increase of organisational
20 crises that particularly affects employees. For instance, in 2018 Marriott International were in
21 crisis following employee strikes and protests on low pay and poor working conditions (Philip,
22 2018). We focus on such employer-specific organisational crises and argue that company crisis
23 response needs to be tailored to address the needs of employees, both current and potential.
24 Given that employee attraction and retention is a constant challenge for hospitality companies

1 (Deery and Jago, 2015), top management must be aware of the potential effects of their crisis
2 management strategies on employee perceptions of the company.

3

4 Against this background, this study seeks to examine the effect of social media crisis
5 response on employer attractiveness. We focus on potential employees and aim to understand
6 if and how, in the context of social media, the tone of a crisis response message (i.e.
7 human/informal tone vs. corporate/formal tone), as well as explicit information about the
8 gender of the crisis spokesperson, would influence their evaluations of the attractiveness of an
9 employer. Moreover, we consider the role of account acceptance in mediating the effect of tone
10 and gender, and organisational attractiveness. Our study contributes to the literature in the
11 following ways: First, we are the first study to link hospitality-specific literature on crisis
12 management and talent attraction. Second, we refine the guidelines of Situational Crisis
13 Communication Theory (SCCT) by expanding the knowledge of the causal link between crisis
14 response strategy (i.e. accommodative response) and organisational attractiveness, and
15 showing why the effect takes place. Third, we contribute to the growing body of literature
16 regarding the role of spokesperson's gender disclosure and gender-trait associations in
17 effectiveness of crisis responses. The results of this study could help crisis and/or public
18 relations managers and HR managers in designing appropriate crisis response messages on
19 social media.

20

21 **2. Theoretical framework**

22 *2.1. Crisis communication and the use of social media*

23

24 Crisis communication is the use of words and actions to manage information and
25 meaning during a crisis in order to shape stakeholders perceptions and to mitigate and repair

1 any reputational damage inflicted by the crisis (Coombs, 2010). Given the process nature of a
2 crisis, at different ‘phases’ the needs and requirements for communication may vary (Coombs,
3 2019). This study focuses on communication at the ‘post-crisis phase’, which begins with the
4 management’s realisation that a triggering event is a crisis (Coombs and Holladay, 2009), e.g.
5 a news report that employees are being treated poorly by the organisation. Coombs’s (2007)
6 seminal work on SCCT suggests that a *preventable* organisational crisis requires the most
7 carefully designed and crafted communication strategies. Empirical evidence which explores
8 such strategies (e.g. Crijns et al., 2017b; Liu et al., 2011) suggests that an *accommodative*
9 response, which seeks to repair and rebuild the relationships with key stakeholders (e.g.
10 customers), is more effective than a *defensive* response that either denies the crisis or seeks to
11 play down the organisation’s responsibility. This accommodative response often takes the form
12 of an official message, through which the organisation expresses sympathy for those affected
13 by the crisis, apologises for its wrongdoings, accepts full responsibility, and identifies
14 corrective actions (Claeys et al., 2010; Kiambi and Shafer, 2016).

15

16 The increasing convenience and accessibility of the Internet and mobile technology has
17 enabled organisations to move away from traditional to digital media channels, and to utilise
18 social media (e.g. Twitter and Facebook) as a new official channel of communication for crisis
19 responses (Coombs, 2017a; Eriksson and Olsson, 2016; Graham et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2017).
20 Compared with traditional media where organisations inform, and respond to, the public via
21 journalists, social media enables organisations to reach and interact with stakeholders directly
22 in an instant fashion (Cheng, 2018; Zheng et al., 2018). While such an openness and potential
23 for high interactivity are clear advantages of social media as a communication channel,
24 empirical studies examining the effectiveness of social media for crisis response in comparison
25 to traditional media have produced mixed results (e.g. Liu et al., 2011; Schultz et al., 2011).

1 Rauschnabel et al. (2016) note that existing crisis communication theories were mostly
2 developed to deal with crisis ‘offline’, whereby the ‘best practice’ provided may not help
3 today’s managers to manage crises within an increasingly interconnected world. Despite
4 growing scholarly efforts to address this shortcoming (e.g. Crijns et al., 2017b; du Plessis, 2018;
5 Eriksson and Olsson, 2016; Liu et al., 2015), further research is required to better understand
6 how an effective crisis response message on social media may be designed. If messages are not
7 crafted carefully and appropriately, social media may pose a serious risk to effective crisis
8 communication and reputation management (Coombs, 2017b; Opitz et al., 2018).

9

10 *2.2 Crisis communication from an employer brand perspective*

11

12 Existing literature of crisis communication, particularly in the context of social media,
13 has mostly conceptualised organisations as providers of products/services, i.e. consumer brands
14 (Claeys et al., 2010; Crijns et al., 2017a), whereas the consideration of organisations from other
15 conceptual perspectives, such as organisations as employer brands, has been rare (Rabl, 2015;
16 Steiner and Byrne, 2019). The term ‘employer brand’ appears to have been first coined by
17 Ambler and Barrow (1996, p. 187) who defined it as *‘the package of functional, economic and*
18 *psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employing*
19 *organisation’*. Unlike consumer brand, the central concern of employer brand is the
20 organisation’s image as an employer (Bondarouk et al. 2014; Sivertzen et al., 2013) and its
21 target audience is current and potential employees (Biswas and Suar, 2016). A strong or
22 preferred employer brand sends a clear signal that the organisation is a distinctive and desirable
23 workplace (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004), which helps the organisation to compete in the
24 increasingly intensive War for Talent (Sommer et al., 2016).

25

1 A closely related concept to employer brand is employer attractiveness, which describes
2 the extent to which a job-seeker is interested to be employed by an organisation (Ritz and
3 Waldner, 2011). Berthon et al. (2005, p. 156) define employer attractiveness as ‘the envisioned
4 benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a specific organisation’. Scholars (e.g.
5 Sivertzen et al., 2013) suggest that employer attractiveness is a dimension of employer brand,
6 reflecting its strength and value. Research in this area has identified a positive relationship
7 between an organisation’s employer attractiveness and its success in attracting quality
8 employees (Ritz and Waldner, 2011; Lievens and Slaughter, 2016). However, given that
9 employer attractiveness is a perception which varies between different people (Moroko and
10 Uncles, 2008), a plethora of studies have sought to explore the ways in which a positive or
11 favourable perception of employer attractiveness can be created or enhanced (e.g. Carpentier
12 et al., 2017; Frasca and Edwards, 2017; Klimkiewicz and Oltra, 2017; Priyadarshini et al.,
13 2017; Rampl and Kenning, 2014).

14

15 Over the last few years, scholars in the fields of crisis management and talent
16 management have begun to realise that an organisation’s crisis management actions may have
17 an impact on its image as an employer. Studies by Rabl (2015) and Steiner and Byrne (2019),
18 for example, show that post-crisis organisational response strategies have an effect on the
19 organisation’s attractiveness to potential job-seekers. However, neither of these studies focused
20 specifically on an accommodative response for a preventable crisis, nor did they examine the
21 crisis response in the context of social media. This highlights a research gap that our study
22 seeks to fill.

23

24

1 2.3. *Hypothesis development*

2 2.3.1 Tone of message – How to apologise?

3

4 A growing body of research investigates the potential impact of communication style
5 used by an organisation online on the nature of relationship with stakeholders. In the context
6 of social media, a brand may tailor its presence by adopting a human style versus a corporate
7 communication style. The former is conceptualised in the literature as conversational human
8 voice (CHV) and refers to an informal and natural style of communication that allows brands
9 to be perceived as closer to its publics (Kelleher, 2009; Park and Lee, 2013; Park and Cameron,
10 2014). This stands in contrast to a corporate tone, traditionally used by companies to express a
11 more reserved and formal stance.

12

13 Research has shown what an organisation says after a crisis (e.g. denial vs. apology)
14 and the style of crisis response can affect key outcomes of crisis communication, for instance,
15 apology acceptance and attitudes towards organisation (Coombs and Holladay, 2009; Park and
16 Cameron, 2014). However, little is known about the effectiveness of response strategies in the
17 recruitment context, and specifically, in influencing organisational attractiveness (Carpentier
18 and Van Hoye, 2020). Signalling theory (Spence, 1973) suggests job seekers rely on general
19 impressions to judge employer attractiveness, thus, cueing potential employees with strategic
20 use of tone to emphasise organisational qualities and influence attitudes towards organisation,
21 could be key in this context. We argue one important omission in the literature is a lack of
22 studies examining the role of communication style (CHV versus formal/corporate tone) in
23 apologies and organisational attractiveness.

24

1 Rabl (2015) found that a company's response after a corruption allegation can help to
2 reduce the negative effect on potential applicants' attraction. However, an apology was not
3 investigated as one of the crisis response strategies. Carpentier and Van Hove (2020) examined
4 the role of crisis response strategies (denial vs. apology) in reducing the impact of negative
5 online employer reviews on organisational attractiveness. No difference in potential applicants'
6 organisational attraction was found between an apology and lack of response. More
7 importantly, neither studies (Rabl, 2015; Carpentier and VanHove, 2020) considered the role
8 of tone used in crisis response.

9

10 Outside of the context of brands as employers, a number of studies examine the role of
11 CHV in communicating with consumers. It has been suggested that adopting a human tone to
12 deliver official statements may be particularly appropriate in a social media environment as it
13 mimics intimate communication and creates an illusion of interpersonal communication (Park
14 and Cameron, 2014). A company that demonstrates CHV has been found to be associated with
15 relational outcomes such as commitment to customers, trust, satisfaction (Kelleher, 2009; Sung
16 and Kim, 2014), and positive corporate reputation (Dijkmans et al. 2015; Kim and Ko, 2012).
17 With respect to apologies, Kerkhof et al. (2011) studied the effectiveness of brand's crisis
18 response using a human/informal versus corporate/formal voice. They found participants who
19 read a personal crisis response perceived the brand as more human and reported fewer negative
20 thoughts about the brand compared to those who read a corporate/formal response.

21

22 Brands can use a number of communication strategies to express their humanness. For
23 instance, some studies stress the importance of personalisation in communication (Crijns et al.,
24 2017b; Steinmann et al., 2015), which may include practices such as addressing an individual
25 or a community by name. Moreover, human tone is also expressed when the author of a

1 message uses a first-person perspective, (“I” or “We”), as opposed to a third-person, corporate
2 tone (e.g. “the brand X”, “the staff”) (e.g. Barcelos et al., 2018). Human style is also signalled
3 through emotional statements (Yang et al. 2010), that may include expression of shame, regret
4 (van der Meer and Verhoeven, 2014), anger or sadness (Kim and Cameron, 2011). Expression
5 of emotions is typically absent or limited in corporate messages which tend to be task oriented,
6 and dominated by rational appeals (Choi and Lin, 2009).

7

8 In summary, the way employer brands tailor their style of communication may be
9 important to relationships they seek to establish with their audiences, e.g. securing talent.
10 However, it is not conclusive which tone should be used to apologise following a crisis, and no
11 studies to date has examined the role of CHV in the recruitment context. The question is, should
12 companies seek to keep distance and stress professionalism by being task-oriented and formal,
13 or should they express human tone to signal collaborative commitment and emotional bond?
14 Given the fact that social media is by design a platform that enable intimate, natural
15 communication within a network of friends and family, following the logic of Kerkhof et al.
16 (2011) we expect human/informal tone to be more suitable to an official statement of apology
17 as it resembles such communication.

18 Specifically, we propose that using an appropriate tone of apologies will make
19 apologies more acceptable, itself a key outcome of apology (Blumstein et al., 1974), and
20 through this, increase organisational attractiveness. The following sections expand on this
21 argument.

22

23 2.3.2. Mediating role of account acceptance

24

25 Account acceptance is key to restoring the relationship between transgressor and
26 concerned publics (Blumstein et al., 1974). Acceptability of the account denotes the extent to

1 which people are satisfied and accepting of the accused party's response to a wrongdoing
2 (Coombs and Holladay, 2008). How respondents feel about the crisis response offered is key
3 to crisis managers as greater account acceptance indicates recipients believe the crisis response
4 is appropriate, sincere and trustworthy (Coombs and Holladay, 2009; Yang et al. 2010).

5

6 According to Coombs and Holladay (2009), the use of CHV in crisis responses may
7 increase the likelihood of accepting an organisation's account of a crisis. The reason for
8 potential impact of CHV is underpinned by the social information processing theory (SIPT)
9 (Walther, 2008). SIPT suggests that in absence of physical cues, typical to communication in
10 computer-mediated spaces such as social media, people use available cues such as language,
11 and written attitude, to make first-impression judgments and infer relationship qualities
12 (Walther, 2008).

13 A number of studies demonstrate that adoption of CHV is associated with perceptions
14 of organisations' relational commitment (Kelleher, 2009), transparency and openness to a
15 dialogue with its publics, which, in turn, can increase publics' positive response to an
16 organisation (Scoble and Israel, 2006). In a crisis situation, a more personal and dialogical tone
17 is perceived more positively because it conveys sincerity and authenticity, which may be
18 limited in formal communication (Bell and Zemke, 1987; Yang, Kang and Johnson, 2010).
19 Kerkhof et al. (2011) investigated the use of CHV in corporate apologies and proposed
20 measurement of recipients' attitude to response, such as appropriateness, sincerity etc.,
21 however, results were not reported. Park and Cameron (2014) found no difference between
22 CHV and corporate/organisational tone used in crisis response on account acceptance.
23 Given these results and suggestions of SIPT, we propose that the use of CHV can signal a more
24 positive and relationship-oriented approach to handling a transgression, and may increase
25 acceptability of an apology by the affected stakeholders.

1

2 H1: Apology conveyed in a human/informal tone is more acceptable

3

4 Subsequently, because account acceptance is a key condition to restoring relationships
5 (Blumstein et al., 1974), we expect greater degree of apology acceptance may help to absorb
6 the negative effect of the wrongdoing on attractiveness of organisation as a potential employer.

7 When an apology is accepted, the appeal for forgiveness is sympathetically heard by potential
8 victims and represents a beginning of a restored relationship (Govier and Verwoerd, 2002).

9 When an account is not accepted, the relationship between the parties cannot begin to be
10 restored and the offending parties may suffer reputational damage (Coombs, 2006; Pfaffer et
11 al. 2008). According to Carpentier and Van Hoye (2020), an apology offered to potential
12 applicants signals an organisation's concern with its employees, hence demonstrating its
13 trustworthiness, which may improve attitudes towards the organisation as a potential employer.

14 Building on this argument, we suggest that if offering an apology may help organisations to
15 regain potential applicants trust, and therefore, appear more attractive, then acceptability of
16 account, as an outcome of apology, is particularly important to this relationship. The
17 assumption in crisis research is that organisational responses are not equally accepted by the
18 audience (Fediuk et al., 2010). Since greater account acceptance denotes positive evaluations
19 of sincerity and trustworthiness of response (Wu and Cui, 2019; Coombs and Holladay, 2009),
20 it may be an important first step in re-establishing the organisation as a caring employer that
21 seeks to understand perceptions of existing and potential employees.

22

23 H2: Greater acceptance of apology results in higher organisational attractiveness

24

1 Based on the literature and hypotheses presented above, we expect that account acceptance
2 mediates the relationship between tone of apology and organisational attractiveness.
3 Acceptance of an apology is increased by virtue of adopting CHV, as opposed to
4 corporate/formal tone, which signals a more positive and relationship-focused approach to
5 potential employees. Subsequently, positive reception of an apology leads to greater
6 organisational attractiveness, or, the reduction of a negative effect of a wrongdoing. Therefore,
7 we hypothesise that account acceptance fully mediates the relationship between tone of apology
8 and organisational attractiveness.

9

10 H3: Apology conveyed in a human/informal tone is more acceptable and, subsequently, results
11 in higher organisational attractiveness.

12

13 2.3.3 Moderating role of gender – who should apologise?

14

15 We expect the tone of apology to affect organisational attractiveness through increased
16 account acceptance. However, the mediation impact of tone might be moderated by the
17 characteristics of the source of information. Job seekers tend to know little of potential
18 employers, and they depend on signals to infer employer qualities (Cable and Turban, 2003).
19 Characteristics of a spokesperson, such as gender, can act as cues to assist audiences in
20 evaluating messages they are exposed to and influence their perceptions of an organisation.
21 Gender is one of the most readily accessible pieces of information a person may use to interpret
22 behaviour or form impressions of others (Crijns et al., 2017a; Kulich et al., 2007). Such
23 seemingly peripheral or trivial cues may be particularly important when other relevant
24 information about a spokesperson (e.g. attitudes, competence, values, and sincerity) are not
25 readily available. Despite the importance of this issue, no studies to date applied the concept of

1 gender of a spokesperson as a potential determinant of crisis response effectiveness in the
2 context of organisational attractiveness.

3

4 The influence of the spokesperson's gender is likely related to the recipient's social
5 perceptions regarding what a social group typically does and what it should do (Eagly and
6 Karau, 2002; Wei and Ran, 2019). Warmth (or communion) and competence (or agency) are
7 two fundamental aspects of social perception (Fiske et al., 2007) and are central dimensions to
8 gender stereotypes (Judd et al., 2005). Warmth is indicative of intentions and largely signals a
9 reliable and trustworthy concern for others (Cuddy et al., 2008). It consists of traits such as
10 helpfulness, friendliness, trustworthiness, sincerity and morality. In contrast, competence
11 indicates one's ability to carry out these intentions, and includes traits such as assertiveness,
12 intelligence, skill, and efficacy (Cuddy et al., 2008). Research on gender stereotypes suggests,
13 women are perceived to possess traits associated with warmth, whereas men are perceived as
14 more competent (Basow, 1986; Broverman et al., 1972; Eagly and Mladinic, 1989; Glick et al.
15 2004; Haines et al., 2016; Spence and Helmreich, 1972).

16

17 The stereotypical characteristics commonly ascribed to gender (Eagly and Karau, 2002)
18 may come into play in determining publics' evaluations about the acceptability of the response.
19 Research suggests that signalling communal qualities, or warmth, is associated with greater
20 effectiveness of apologies. Differentiating between value-related and performance-related
21 wrongdoings, Wei and Ran (2019) found that females, perceived as warmer than men, were
22 found to garner more forgiveness when apologising to value-related crises, which suggest low
23 warmth and ill-intentioned organisations. Conversely, men, perceived as more competent than
24 women, achieved more consumer forgiveness when apologising to performance-related
25 wrongdoings, typically indicative of low competence organisations. This trend was confirmed

1 by Cowen and Montgomery (2019) who found a positive effect of apologies issued by women
2 CEOs (as opposed to men CEOs) was due to increased salience of communal norms, which are
3 attributed to women (Eagly et al., 2000), and tend to increase effectiveness of apologies
4 (Folkes, 1984).

5

6 While it is logical to expect that mere disclosure of a spokesperson's gender can affect
7 recipients' evaluations, research also suggests that how spokespersons are evaluated depends
8 on how they are described (Rudman and Glick, 1999). For instance, highlighting warmth (or
9 communal qualities) can suggest to recipients that a spokesperson lacks competence (or agentic
10 qualities). Gender-stereotype knowledge can be activated by numerous cues embedded in
11 marketing communication, e.g. logos, product features etc. (Hess and Melnyk, 2016). This
12 includes a style of communication, where competence is typically signalled by a formal,
13 corporate style which does not allow an organisation to express humanness and warmth
14 (Malone and Fiske, 2013), and commitment to staff that goes beyond profit. Conversely, a
15 human and informal tone includes emotional tones which may cue sincere caring intentions
16 (Malone and Fiske, 2013).

17

18 The extent to which these practices lead to positive organisational outcomes is
19 contested. Research has established that violation of gender stereotypes i.e. perceived
20 incongruence between gender stereotype and role requirement, can lead to prejudice and
21 discrimination (Eagly and Karau, 2002). For instance, non-traditional women who exhibit
22 agentic/competence traits (e.g. assertive professional women) elicit hostile prejudice (Glick and
23 Fiske, 1996), dislike, and are less likely to be hired (Rudman et al., 2012). Likewise, men who
24 exhibit warmth are perceived as too modest, showing weakness, and less suitable for leadership
25 (Moss-Racusin et al., 2010). In contrast, Iseke and Pull (2019) provide evidence for the positive

1 effect of challenging stereotypes. Young female job seekers are more attracted to an
2 organisation with a female executive holding a non-stereotypical office compared to an
3 organisation with an all-male management. Moreover, a female holding a stereotypical office
4 (e.g. human resource director) reduces organisational attractiveness because it signals that
5 stereotypes prevail in the organisation.

6

7 Based on the literature above, we propose moderated mediation. Specifically, we
8 suggest that the indirect effect of tone of message on organisational attractiveness via apology
9 acceptance, can be moderated by spokesperson's gender disclosure by virtue of signalling
10 warmth or competence, and therefore, either reinforcing or challenging tone typically expected
11 of male or female spokespersons. While evidence that presenting oneself as atypical (e.g. male
12 stressing human/informal tone) may result in backlash, we argue that using a tone that
13 challenges this stereotype allows the speaker to present himself or herself as balanced (i.e.
14 warm and competent). Moreover, as found by Iseke and Pull (2019), organisations that
15 challenge stereotypes signal they are free from biases, hence, are assessed more positively by
16 potential applicants.

17

18 H4: When the organisational spokesperson is male, apology conveyed in a human/informal
19 tone is more acceptable and, subsequently, results in higher organisational attractiveness than
20 when the spokesperson is female. Conversely, we expect that when the organisational
21 spokesperson is female, apology conveyed in a corporate/formal tone is more acceptable, and
22 subsequently, results in higher organisational attractiveness.

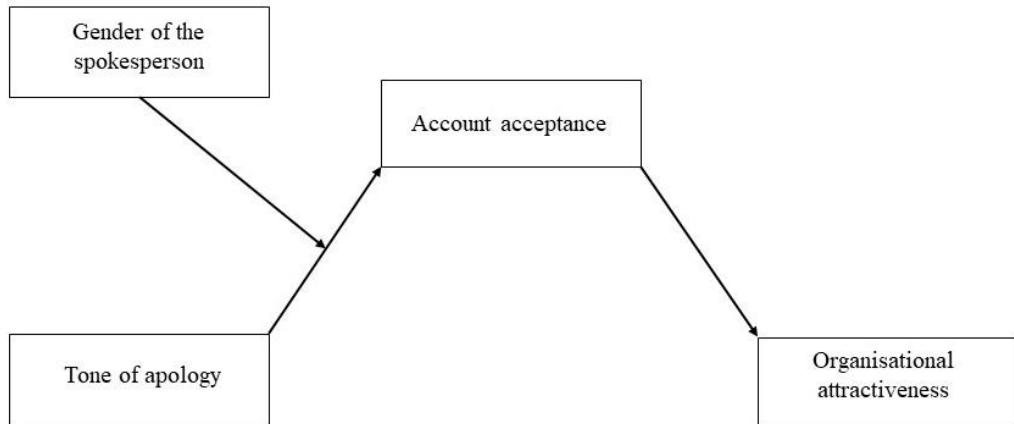
23

24 The key paths of hypothesised moderated mediation are demonstrated in Fig 1.

25

26 Figure 1 Proposed conceptual model of moderated mediation

1



2

3 **3. Methodology**

4 *3.1. Design, participants and procedure*

5

6 An experiment was conducted to examine the causal link between crisis response and
7 organisational attractiveness. A convenience sample of 628 third-year and final-year hospitality
8 management students of a large university in China participated in the study. Given proximity
9 to graduation, the participants were expected to be engaged actively in career design, hence,
10 receptive of news regarding potential employers. Career engagement was determined with the
11 scale of Hirschi et al. (2014), which comprises nine items measured on a five-point-Likert scale
12 from 1 (almost never) to 5 (very often). This included items such as ‘collected information
13 about employers, professional development opportunities, or the job market in my desired
14 area’, and developed plans and goals for my future career’. Results indicated a high level of
15 engagement (Mean=4.01, SD=.753).

16

17 Participants were placed in a scenario and asked to read a story about a fictitious hotel
18 brand with strong employer reputation, a short fictitious news report of a ‘preventable’ (value-

1 related) crisis concerning poor working conditions in one of this brand's hotels in China, and a
2 rebuild response from this brand posted on its official social media platform in China, Weibo.
3 The scenario described a fictitious organisation to prevent any confounding effects of previous
4 reputation (Laufer and Jung, 2010). To measure the impact of different approaches to crisis
5 response, a between-subjects factorial 2 (tone of apology: corporate/formal tone vs.
6 human/informal tone) by 2 (gender of spokesperson: male vs. female) design was deployed.
7 Each of the four groups of respondents read only one version of an employer brand response
8 i.e. formal male, formal female, informal male, or informal female (see treatments in appendix
9 1).

10

11 The experiment was conducted in a classroom setting and lasted a total of 30 minutes.
12 To control for confounding variables, participants were assigned on a random basis to cards
13 with links to an online version of the questionnaire (in Mandarin). The questionnaire comprised
14 of the following sections: 1) Participant information sheet, 2) Description of a fictitious
15 employer brand, 3) Fictitious news report about a preventable crisis, 4) Treatment – brand
16 response, 5) Post-test - measurement of the dependent variable, and manipulation checks.

17

18 *3.2. Measures*

19

20 To manipulate gender of the speaker, fictitious male and female names and the titles
21 'Mr.' or 'Mrs.' were used in the crisis responses. In line with the conceptualisation of Kerkhof
22 et al. (2011), formal tone of response was indicated by a third-person tone which included
23 phrases such as "it was found today" or "a thorough investigation of why this occurred will
24 take place". Conversely, responses with an informal tone were written from a first-person
25 perspective which included phrases such as "I learned today". Next, recognising that human

1 tone seeks to personalise messages to target audience (Steinmann et al., 2015), this version of
2 response addressed the community by name i.e. ‘To all customers, staff, partners, friends and
3 critics’. In contrast, such personalisation was absent in formal response. Moreover, given
4 emotional character of informal tone (e.g. Choi and Lin, 2009; Sparks et al. 2016), informal
5 tone messages include emotional phrases such as “I find it deeply saddening”. This was absent
6 in formal response which stressed reason through listing of facts.

7

8 Employer attractiveness was assessed with a nine-item scale ($\alpha=0.96$) of Highhouse et
9 al. (2003) measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly
10 agree). Manipulation checks involved a question about the gender of the spokesperson, and
11 measured the extent to which the employer brand response was ‘personal-impersonal’ using a
12 5-point semantic differential scale. Account acceptance ($\alpha=0.81$) was measured using three 5-
13 point semantic differential scale items adopted from Blumstein et al. (1974) and Park and
14 Cameron (2014) “the company response is inappropriate – appropriate”, “insincere – sincere”,
15 and “unconvincing – convincing”. Table 1 shows the means, standards deviations, and inter-
16 correlations of the constructs measured in this study.

17

18

1 Table 1 Study measures

Variable	Account acceptance	Organisational attractiveness	<i>M</i>	SD
Account acceptance	-	.446**	2.72	0.83
Organisational attractiveness	.446**	-	3.07	0.84

2

3 *3.3 Methods of data analysis*

4 Chi-square and independent samples T-tests were used to examine manipulation of
5 independent variables. A univariate two-way ANOVA and Hayes' (2015) test of moderated
6 mediation (Process model 7) was used to test the hypothesis.

7

8 **4. Results**

9 *4.1. Profile of respondents*

10 A total of 628 respondents completed the questionnaire with a near equal split of
11 respondents in each of treatments (see details in Table 2). With respect to gender of participants,
12 197 (32%) were male, 333 (53%) female, and 97 (15%) chose 'prefer not to say' option. The
13 sample is representative of the gender ratio of the participating university's population.

14

1 Table 2 Details of sample per treatment

		Treatment				Total
		A - Formal Female	B - Formal Male	C - Informal Male	D - Informal Female	
Respondents' gender	Male	50	47	52	49	197
	Female	78	89	84	81	333
	Prefer not to say	29	25	20	24	98
Total		157	161	156	154	628

2

3 *4.2 Manipulation check*

4

5 The study tests manipulation of independent variables through an independent samples
 6 T-test for tone of message, and Chi-square test for source of message. In the formal condition,
 7 respondents thought that the company response is less personal than in informal condition
 8 ($M_{formal}=2.8$, $SD=1.07$ vs. $M_{informal}=3.1$, $SD=1.00$, $p<.000$). This suggests that the
 9 manipulation of message tone worked as intended. With respect to manipulation of the source
 10 of message i.e. gender, respondents who read a crisis response from a male largely recognised
 11 this when asked about the gender of the author of the message ($Male=256$ of 311, $p<.000$).
 12 Similarly, respondents who read a message sent by a female mostly attributed this to a female
 13 author of the message ($Female=250$ of 317, $p<.000$). These checks gave authors confidence
 14 that manipulations of both independent variables were successful.

15

16 *4.3 Tests of hypotheses*

17

18 To examine hypotheses, a moderated mediation (i.e. model 7, 5000 bootstrap samples)
 19 analysis was conducted using Hayes' (2015) process macro. Tone of apology was added as an

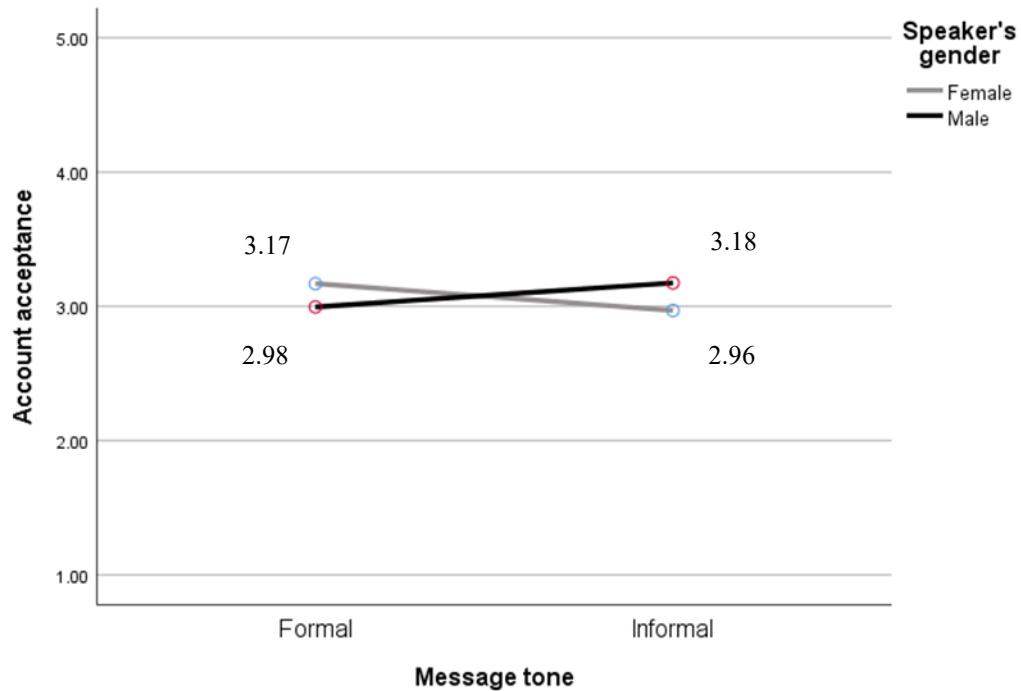
1 independent variable, gender of the spokesperson as a moderator, account acceptance as a
2 mediator, and organisational attractiveness as a dependent variable. Details of the output are
3 presented in Table 3.

4 First, the analysis turned to mediator model, which demonstrated that impact of tone of
5 apology on account acceptance was significant ($\beta = .59$, $p = .005$), therefore H1 was supported.
6 To explore the potential moderation, at this point we also examined the interaction effect. The
7 mediator variable model revealed a significant interaction between gender of the spokesperson
8 and tone of apology on account acceptance ($\beta = -0.39$, $p = 0.002$). Figure 2 portrays this
9 interaction effect.

10 Figure 2 shows that when the spokesperson was male, human/informal tone of apology
11 resulted in greater account acceptance ($M_{informal} = 3.18$, $SD = .87$) than in the case of
12 corporate/formal tone ($M_{formal} = 2.98$, $SD = .91$, $t = 2.06$, $p = 0.03$). Conversely, when the
13 spokesperson was female, corporate/formal tone of apology lead to more account acceptance
14 ($M_{formal} = 3.17$, $SD = .79$) compared to human/informal tone ($M_{informal} = 2.96$, $SD = .74$, t
15 = -2.18 , $p = 0.02$). To explore this further, we tested the interaction effect between tone of
16 apology and gender on account acceptance by means of ANOVA. The results demonstrated a
17 significant interaction between these two factors on account acceptance ($F (1, 628) = 8.107$,
18 $p=.005$). Therefore, gender of the spokesperson moderates the impact of tone of apology on
19 account acceptance.

20

1 Figure 2: Moderating role of speaker's gender



2

3 Subsequently, the analysis turned to the outputs of the dependent variable model. The
4 model revealed that account acceptance positively predicted organisational attraction ($\beta = .44$,
5 $p < 0.0001$), thus H2 was supported. Moreover, with respect to H3, the direct effect of tone of
6 apology on organisational attraction was non-significant ($\beta = .06$, $p = .286$). This suggested that
7 account acceptance mediates the relationship between tone of apology and organisational
8 attraction.

9

10

11

12

13

1 Table 3. Results of the moderated mediation analysis (process, model 7)

2

Mediator variable model (Account acceptance)	β	SE	t	p
Constant	2.21	.33	6.67	<.0001
Tone of apology	0.59	.21	2.81	.005
Spokesperson gender	0.57	.20	2.75	.006
Interaction: Tone of apology x Spokesperson gender	-0.39	.13	-2.99	.002
Dependent variable model (Organisational attractiveness)	β	SE	t	p
Constant	1.24	.14	8.5	<.0001
Account acceptance	.44	.03	12.46	<.0001
Tone of apology (direct effect)	.06	.06	1.06	.286
Conditional indirect effects				
Mediator	Moderating variable (spokesperson gender)	β	SE	95% CI
Account acceptance	Male	.09	.046	[.0034, .1799]
Account acceptance	Female	-.09	.04	[-.1754, -.0164]

3

4

5 Given the interaction between gender of the spokesperson and tone of apology on
 6 account acceptance, the analysis then focused on H4 to test the moderated mediation.
 7 Specifically, the analysis moved to conditional indirect effects to determine whether the
 8 indirect effect (mediation) varies across different levels of the moderator variable (i.e. male
 9 versus female spokesperson). According to Hayes (2015), “index of moderated mediation” tests
 10 whether indirect effect depends on the moderator. Hayes (2015) showed that if the confidence
 11 interval does not include zero, the indirect effect is conditional on the moderator (i.e.

1 moderated mediation). Conversely, if the confidence interval does include zero, there is no
2 substantial evidence of moderated mediation. The index of moderated mediation showed that
3 the confidence interval did not include a zero ($\beta = -.178$, CI 95% [-.3082, -.0602]), therefore,
4 suggested a moderated mediation. This was confirmed by the output of conditional indirect
5 effects based on different levels of the moderator. Specifically, the interaction between the tone
6 of apology and gender of the spokesperson on account acceptance meant that the conditional
7 indirect effects on organisational attractiveness were statistically different between male as a
8 spokesperson ($\beta = .09$, CI 95% [.0034, .1799] and female as a spokesperson ($b = .09$, CI 95%
9 [-.1754, -.0164]. In short, account acceptance plays a relevant mediating role for understanding
10 the impact of tone on apology on organisational attractiveness, but it is conditional on gender
11 of the spokesperson.

12

13 **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

14

15 *5.1. Discussion*

16 This study was set out to examine the influence of tone of message in apologies on
17 organisational attractiveness. Specifically, we tested whether the impact of tone of apology on
18 organisational attractiveness is mediated by account acceptance, and whether this indirect
19 effect is conditional on gender of the spokesperson. We contribute to this stream of literature
20 by expanding our understanding of the causal process by which the result of a higher
21 organisational attractiveness following a crisis response comes about.

22

23 The results showed that tone of apology increased acceptability of account and this
24 acceptance, in turn, positively influenced organisational attractiveness. This result supports the

1 SIPT (Walther, 2008), which suggests that in computer mediated-environments audiences
2 make first-impression judgments on the basis of available cues, such as tone of message.
3 Building on guidelines of SCCT (Coombs, 2007a) concerning appropriate content of response
4 in preventable crises, we show that framing of apology as either human/informal or
5 corporate/formal provided cues that go beyond the content of response, and allow stakeholders
6 to evaluate organisational response, which makes apologies more acceptable. Our findings
7 refine these guidelines by demonstrating that other factors, such as framing of apology, provide
8 opportunities to further optimise the effectiveness of crisis response strategy. We confirm that
9 human/informal tone plays an important role in a crisis context, and this extends to the context
10 of brands as employers and social media. Tone of apology can increase organisational
11 attractiveness repair, however, our study suggests that this effect operates via account
12 acceptance, itself a key concern to crisis managers (Coombs and Holladay, 2009; Fediuk et al.,
13 2010). In this sense, we shed more light to a link between offering apologies to potential
14 applicants and organisational attractiveness (Carpentier and Van Hoye, 2020), by showing why
15 the effect takes place. To our best knowledge this is the first study that examines this
16 relationship with consideration of organisational attractiveness and the context of brands as
17 employers.

18 In addition, this study contributes to a recent wave of studies (Crijns et al., 2017a; Wei
19 and Ran, 2019) that consider the impact of disclosing gender of spokesperson and gender-trait
20 associations on effectiveness of crisis responses. We found that disclosure of spokesperson's
21 gender moderates the relationship between tone of apology and account acceptance.
22 Human/informal tone was associated with greater account acceptance, and organisational
23 attractiveness, when the spokesperson was male. Conversely, corporate/formal tone lead to
24 greater account acceptance, and organisational attractiveness, when the spokesperson was
25 female. Thus, we revealed a boundary condition of the tone of apology effect. This result stands

1 in contrast to findings of Wei and Ran (2019) and Cowen and Montgomery (2019). While
2 disclosure of gender in apologies leads to activation of social perceptions that can increase
3 effectiveness of apologies, it appears that reinforcing either warmth or competence by
4 employing human/informal or corporate/formal tone, leads to an opposite effect.

5 Moreover, this finding is in line with the premise of signalling theory (Spence, 1973),
6 which argue that due to limited knowledge of organisations, potential applicants evaluate
7 potential employers on the basis of cues such as appearance of candidates or their
8 communication style. We argue that disclosure of gender activates respondents' gender
9 stereotypical knowledge which interacts with tone of apology typically ascribed to male
10 (competent or agentic) or female (warm or communal) speakers. When tone of apology
11 challenges the gender stereotypical knowledge i.e. male signals warmth though the use of
12 human/informal tone, and female signals competence though the use of corporate/informal
13 tone, crisis response is more effective. In addition, this finding is related to Rudman and Phelan
14 (2008) regarding gender trait associations and impression management. Women aiming to
15 thrive as a competent leader must challenge stereotypes and signal atypical traits. Yet, to avoid
16 backlash from violating the prescriptive gender stereotype, they must soften the expression of
17 agentic traits (Rudman and Phelan, 2008). As opposed to a backlash, our findings suggest that
18 challenging stereotypes by employing atypical tone of response was more effective than
19 perpetuating the gender stereotype. Thus, we find further evidence (Iseke and Pull, 2019) for
20 positive effect of challenging stereotypes. Organisations that challenge stereotypes through
21 consideration of tone of crisis response and gender of the spokesperson, may signal they are
22 free from biases, hence, are evaluated positively and may appear more attractive to potential
23 applicants. Further explanation of this result is a notion that, by employing this strategy,
24 speakers demonstrate a balance between traits of warmth and competence. Although people
25 can be perceived as either warm or competent, successful leadership often requires presenting

1 oneself as both e.g. presidential candidates (Wojciszke and Klusek, 1996). This is reinforced
2 by Carli and Eagly (2001), who argue that in order to be socially influential, women must
3 combine agentic qualities, such as competence and directedness, with communal qualities, such
4 as warmth and friendliness.

5

6 *5.2 Practical implications*

7

8 In the age of the ‘War for talents’ (Sommer et al., 2016), many companies invest
9 significant amount of resources in building strong and resilient employer brands to compete for
10 high-quality workforce. As this increasingly involves communication campaigns on social
11 media (Kissel and Buttgen, 2015), sound and timely crisis response strategies are required. Yet,
12 according to The Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM, 2016a; 2016b), only 56%
13 of organisations in 2011 and 59% in 2013 had a formal social media policy.

14

15 This study responds to the call of Ladkin and Buhalis (2016) to extend the body of work
16 on the role of social media in hospitality recruitment context. Recognising the importance of
17 organisations’ ability to absorb potential harm that may result from serious allegations, we
18 stress the need for formal social media policies that assist managers in formulating appropriate
19 and timely response to key publics.

20

21 We recommend that beyond matching a preventable crisis with a rebuild response,
22 organisations that seek to maintain their status of attractive employer among current and
23 potential employees should consider who will represent the brand and how the response will

1 be framed. Both male and female spokespersons can be effective, however, when combined
2 with tone of apology, account acceptance and organisational attractiveness are greater when
3 this is done in a manner that challenges stereotypes. Brands should develop this style of
4 communication by varying the degree to which they use in official responses the first person
5 perspective, emotional tones, and personalisation (see example in appendix 1). Moreover, given
6 that the theoretical effects we describe in this paper are based on gender stereotypes,
7 organisations should carefully monitor any potential shifts in the public opinion. Monitoring
8 sentiment on social media can be a powerful tool to gain insight to what matters to target
9 audiences and how they react to a change in communication style. In addition, recognising that
10 consistency is key to effective communications, we propose that organisations should also
11 consider its past practice on social media to ensure that tone used is true to their established
12 employer brand voice.

13

14 *5.3 Limitations and future research*

15

16 This study is subject to some limitations which deserve further research. First, as the
17 experiment focused on university students, focus on other publics, such as general public job
18 seekers, would enhance our understanding of their expectations. It is worth noting that besides
19 being university students, participants in this study belong to an age group that remains
20 important to hospitality industry as one solution to high labour turnover. Since hospitality
21 industry often relies on workforce that is much younger than across the economy as a whole
22 (Farrugia et al., 2018; People 1st, 2016), the sample of this study is relevant to the question
23 addressed in this paper. With respect to ecological validity, participants read the news of a hotel
24 on personal electronic devices which is likely how reading news of potential employers takes
25 place in other contexts. Beyond this, we acknowledge that experimental design is artificial,

1 hence, using other methods may provide additional perspectives. Moreover, the current study
2 used a convenience sample. Future studies could use a more systematic procedure to recruit
3 participants.

4

5 Second, the crisis scenario introduced in this study described a generic employer
6 transgression regarding working conditions such as long working hours. It would be interesting
7 to examine whether the effects we explored in this study are moderated by employer
8 wrongdoings that are specific to a gender.

9

10 Third, the current study focused on the response from the organisation. As social media
11 frequently features response from community members e.g. brand fans, employees etc., it
12 would be interesting to see how such response may impact upon brand attractiveness.

13

14 Finally, past studies suggest that culture may be an important determinant of
15 effectiveness of corporate/formal and human/informal tone in social media environment
16 (Steinmann et al., 2015). Indeed, expectations regarding appropriateness of human/informal
17 tone may be a culture specific issue, hence, future studies may compare the effectiveness of
18 such styles of communications on audiences from countries with different norms. Moreover,
19 with respect to gender trait associations and prescriptive expectations of communication style,
20 it would be interesting to consider audiences from countries with different degrees of
21 masculinity/femininity (Hofstede et al., 1998).

22

23

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1 APPENDIX 1
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3 **Corporate/Formal response, Male**

4 It was found today that Applewood Hotels & Resorts failed to live up to its high hygiene
5 standards in three Harpin, China Hotels. No doubt, mistakes were made, and the brand takes
6 full responsibility for what happened. Applewood Hotels & Resorts regrets that this incident
7 occurred and would like to extend an apology to all concerned. A thorough investigation of
8 why this occurred will take place to prevent such issues in the future.

9 Mr. Alistair Brown – CEO
10

11 **Corporate/Formal response, Female**

12 It was found today that Applewood Hotels & Resorts failed to live up to its high hygiene
13 standards in three Harpin, China Hotels. No doubt, mistakes were made, and the brand takes
14 full responsibility for what happened. Applewood Hotels & Resorts regrets that this incident
15 occurred and would like to extend an apology to all concerned. A thorough investigation of
16 why this occurred will take place to prevent such issues in the future.

17 Ms. Susan Brown – CEO
18

19 **Human/Informal response, Male**

20 To all customers, staff, partners, friends and critics,
21 I learned today that we failed to live up to our high hygiene standards in three Harpin, China
22 Hotels. Like you, I have been disappointed regarding mistakes made and I take full
23 responsibility for what happened. I find it deeply saddening the incident occurred and I would
24 like to extend my personal apology to all of you. We will thoroughly investigate why this
25 happened to prevent such issues in the future.

26 Mr. Alistair Brown – CEO
27

28 **Human/Informal response, Female**

29 To all customers, staff, partners, friends and critics,
30 I learned today that we failed to live up to our high hygiene standards in three Harpin, China
31 Hotels. Like you, I have been disappointed regarding mistakes made and I take full
32 responsibility for what happened. I find it deeply saddening the incident occurred and I would
33 like to extend my personal apology to all of you. We will thoroughly investigate why this
34 happened to prevent such issues in the future.

35 Ms. Susan Brown – CEO
36

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