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Research article

The effect of fear and situational motivation on online information avoidance: The case of COVID-19

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ABSTRACT

During the COVID-19 pandemic, a plethora of online sources for information and news dissemination have emerged. Extant research suggests that very quickly, individuals become disinterested and begin avoiding the information. In this study, we investigate how an individual’s fear and situational motivation impact Online Information Avoidance. Using the self-determination theory and information avoidance theories, we argue that fear and external regulation are associated with increased Online Information Avoidance. We also argue that intrinsic motivation and identified regulation are associated with a decrease in Online Information Avoidance. Our findings suggest that fear, intrinsic motivation, and external regulation drive Online Information Avoidance, where intrinsic motivation is the most significant driver. We also found that identified regulation is a crucial inhibitor of Online Information Avoidance. While focusing on COVID-19, our study contributes to the broader information systems research literature and specifically to the information avoidance literature during a pandemic or a prolonged crisis. Our study’s findings will be useful for governments, health organizations, and communities that utilize online platforms, forums, and related outlets to reach larger audiences for disseminating pertinent information and recommendations during a crisis.

1. Introduction

Ever since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, many online information sources have emerged. Individuals often get overwhelmed with the available information and in some cases, there is a consequent ill effect. In extreme cases, excessive information has a negative effect on individuals. Swar et al. (2017), for instance, found a negative correlation between information overload and the psychological well-being of individuals. Similarly, Bunker (2020) notes “alarming levels of digital destruction which in turn undermines social cohesion” thus inhibiting shared situational awareness and an appropriate crisis response. While information overload does have negative consequences, there is another phenomenon that takes hold – information avoidance. We define information avoidance as a behavior of delaying or rejecting information consumption from online sources. As Savage (2020) notes, during COVID-19, over-consumption of news made people avoid information so that they could curtail anxiety and manage other psychological stimuli. Another report released by Pew Research Center suggests that seven out of ten Americans confessed they stopped looking at COVID-19 news to avoid emotional stress (Mitchell et al., 2020). Another survey in the United Kingdom found that 66% of the respondents intentionally avoided information as they were worried about the psychological ill effects (Kalogeropoulos, 2020). These reports find that people are making tradeoffs between direct health consequences and emotional well-being by engaging in information avoidance, and as a result, the health information campaigns are not delivering the intended results (Kalogeropoulos, 2020). It is thus important for us to understand how positive and negative psychological stimuli impact information avoidance. While COVID-19 presents an ideal context for this study, the findings can be applied to any crisis situation.

Several scholars have considered information avoidance from uniquely different perspectives. Economists have argued that rational agents will avoid information if it is detrimental to the economic outcome (Golman et al., 2017; Gul, 1991). Psychologists have presented models to predict information avoidance behavior using different motivations, individual differences, and situational factors (Sweeney et al.,...
Health information scholars have identified psychological variables as predictors of health information avoidance, particularly in the context of terminal diseases such as cancer (Miles et al., 2008). While prior studies provide an extensive explanation about individual information avoidance, there is not much attempt to identify how these findings relate to online information avoidance. As in the case of the COVID-19 pandemic, people are getting necessary information and recommendations via internet sources; hence, we must find what leads to online information avoidance. To understand the phenomenon, we also reviewed COVID-19-related online communication literature. The literature suggests that different sources of online information provide different psychological stimuli. These psychological stimuli shape people’s perception and behavior during the pandemic regarding information consumption (Savage, 2020). Online information impacts individual’s psychological safety and sometimes induces fear and anxiety among users, leading to maladaptive behaviors (Ahmad & Murad, 2020; Basch et al., 2020; Rao, Vemprala, Akello, & Valecha, 2020; Rouleau, Hallgren, & de Rond, 2020).

Our study contributes to the literature by introducing online information avoidance as an important outcome behavior after people are exposed to a myriad of information. In our study we use COVID-19 as a case in point to understand why people refrain from consuming online information. To develop a testable research model that can provide us with enhanced knowledge about online information avoidance, we integrate the psychological and health information avoidance theories (Miles et al., 2008; Sweeney et al., 2010). We particularly use the health information avoidance literature since we use COVID-19 as a case and the health literature states information avoidance is influenced by antecedents, such as fear and response efficacy (Miles et al., 2008).

Fear is an adaptive emotion in the presence of a perceived danger such as COVID-19, whereas response efficacy measures information effectiveness (Lewis et al., 2010). Howell and Shepperd (2016) identify that individuals’ coping self-efficacy and optimism negatively associate with information avoidance behavior. Coping self-efficacy refers to an individual’s ability to cope effectively in a situation (Chesney et al., 2006). Optimism refers to an expectation of positive life outcomes (Howell & Shepperd, 2016). Moreover, Sweeney et al. (2010) propose a framework for information seeking or avoidance that uses both individual differences and different motivations (self-regulation, obligation to act, and threats to belief) as antecedents for the avoidance behavior.

These different motivations are also connected to how individuals assess their involvement with a current commitment such as experiencing a crisis. COVID-19 crisis brings different challenges and threats, therefore, response to the crisis depends upon an individual’s self-determination and coping strategy (Chesney et al., 2006; Guay et al., 2000; Moneta & Spada, 2009). We argue that during the COVID-19 crisis, people’s self-determination in the form of situational motivation can explain the online information avoidance behavior through crisis coping mechanisms. Situational motivation, derived from self-determination theory, is the individual’s motivation in a specific situation or activity (Vallerand, 1997). This situational motivation includes - a) intrinsic motivation, b) identified regulation, and c) external regulation. Intrinsic motivation is the behavior driven by internal joy and satisfaction without the intervention of self-regulation, identified regulation is an individual’s self-realization about the importance of an action with self-regulation, and external regulation occurs when an individual is obliged to perform an action (Deci, 1971).

Combining the psychological and health information avoidance theories (Miles et al., 2008; Sweeney et al., 2010) with the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), we also argue that an individual’s sense of fear and situational motivation during COVID-19 can impact online information avoidance through crisis psychological factors such as response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy. Thus, the objective of this research is to find how an individual’s sense of fear and situational motivation impact online information avoidance behavior through the mediation of pandemic-related psychological factors. Specifically, this research addresses two research questions.

1. How fear is associated with online information avoidance through the mediation of an individual’s response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy during COVID-19? and (2) How intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation is associated with online information avoidance through the mediation of response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy during COVID-19?

2. Literature review

2.1. Online communication during crisis

Extant literature before COVID-19 has focused on the role of online communication during a crisis. Online communication fosters the dissemination of information among people using digital means. Several studies investigate the impact of different sources and perceptions of online information on crisis management (Al-Omoush et al., 2020; Austin et al., 2012; Graber et al., 2015; Hagar, 2013; Kahlor et al., 2020; Roy et al., 2020). With the advent of the internet and social media, much of the crisis information is disseminated and consumed through online means, may it be online news, blogs, social media, and different interactive dashboards (Procopio & Procopio, 2007; Ristvej & Zagorecki, 2011; Sweetser & Metzgar, 2007). For instance, Tran and Lee (2016) found that in any severe outbreak such as bird flu, Ebola, and SARS, people get information and share information using social media. There is no doubt that social media and online forums and interactions play a vital role in crisis information sharing.

During a crisis such as COVID-19 as people are getting information from many online sources, it is important for the government and health agencies to find a suitable mechanism to disseminate the information for better effectiveness. Research has found that people prefer interactive online platforms over static media for information dissemination, particularly during a crisis or disaster (Procopio & Procopio, 2007). Schultz et al., (2011) report that using certain technologies influences crisis communication because of the technology itself and user experiences and interpretation of that media technology. In line with the importance of online information during a crisis, Housh (2016) suggests that governments and health organizations should take advantage of the electronic news media and social media for disseminating preventive information in a health and environmental crisis.

Even though online information has beneficial impact on managing a crisis, several studies have found that information recipients’ psychological state and perception play a significant role in whether that information will be utilized. A study on hurricane Rita suggests that, although people get preventive information, they will act upon the information to perceive the crisis’s risk as high (Zhang et al., 2007). Moreover, people’s perception of their information sufficiency also impacts their information seeking and information avoidance behavior. Kahlor et al. (2020), in a study on earthquakes, report that people who perceive themselves as sufficient with crisis information will avoid information.

Qazi et al. (2020) argue that the source of information impacts an individual’s situational awareness and protective behaviors. Farooq et al., (2020) found that online information can positively impact an individual’s self-isolation intention through perceived severity and self-efficacy. Similarly, Park et al., (2020) suggest that online information highlights the complimentary items and gets more attention from people. However, excessive consumption of information may increase people’s concern and worry about the crisis (Bunker, 2020; Kirk & RIchkin, 2020; Lau et al., 2020). Ahmad and Murad (2020) suggest that sometimes information shared on social media triggers fear and panic
among the users. This fear and anxiety induce maladaptive behaviors (Basch et al., 2020). An Individual’s psychological well-being is also affected by fearful news and information over different social media (Ko et al., 2020).

2.2. Information avoidance behavior

According to Sweeny et al. (2010), information avoidance is any preventive or delaying behavior regarding the acquisition and consumption of potentially unwanted information. In line with this conceptualization, we define information avoidance as a behavior of delaying or rejecting information consumption from online sources. Information avoidance has extensively been studied in behavioral economics, psychology, and health information fields. Table 1 summarizes the current information avoidance behavior literature. In behavioral economics, information avoidance is explained by an individual’s extrinsic motivation to maximize benefit and minimize cost at the time of economic decision-making (Golman et al., 2017). Golman et al. (2017) show that information can directly enter a person’s utility function that can create an incentive to avoid or seek information. However, even if the information is useful and free, sometimes people tend to avoid it. From the economic perspective, perceived threat or risk can also influence information avoidance. Gul (1991) suggests that risk aversion implies disappointment aversion, and recursive disappointment aversion in a dynamic setting necessarily leads to information avoidance until all uncertainty can be resolved at once.

Extant literature in psychology shows that motivation and individual differences are significant factors to consider while explaining online information avoidance behavior. Popova (2012) studies information acceptance or avoidance using protection motivation and defensive motivation as antecedents. Moreover, these motivations can vary from person to person. Research also incorporates individual differences to explain information avoidance behavior. Howell and Shepperd (2016) investigate information-seeking or avoidance behavior by using individual differences (uncertainty orientation, curiosity, monitoring, blunting, etc.) as antecedents. Sweeny et al. (2010) propose a framework for information seeking or avoidance that uses individual differences and motivations (self-regulation, obligation to act, and threats to belief) as predictors.

Extant research also uses self-determination theory constructs as antecedents of information acquisition behavior (Dubnjakovic, 2017). The concepts of situational motivation such as intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation have emerged from self-determination theory (Guay et al., 2000). Dubnjakovic (2018) and Wang (2016) find that intrinsic motivation and identified regulation result in lower information avoidance. Sweeny et al. (2010) posit external regulation in the form of higher obligation to increase information avoidance. Information avoidance is also studied in health information literature. People can avoid health-related information for different reasons such as to avoid fear, anxiety, change in certain beliefs, or change in lifestyle (Ajjigibe, 1991; Miles et al., 2008; Sweeny et al., 2010; Varga, 2003). Miles et al. (2008) investigated the predictors of information avoidance in cancer patients. Their study identified that people’s negative perception about cancer, such as fear, fatalism, and perceived severity, leads them to avoid cancer-related information. Similarly, Gallatte et al. (2010) found that an individual’s cancer fatalistic belief leads them to avoid or delay health-related information. In one study, Ajjigibe (1991) identified that women in Nigeria were reluctant to test for breast cancer, even if they had symptoms, in fear of mastectomy. Extant literature on information avoidance in the context of COVID-19 focuses on Infodemic (Kim et al., 2020; Siebenhaar et al., 2020), information overload, and anxiety (Soroya et al., 2021).

2.3. Response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy in information behavior

The three constructs of response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy are established antecedents of information avoidance and are used in literature to explain the causes of information behaviors (Howell & Shepperd, 2016). Response efficacy measures information effectiveness (Lewis et al., 2010), optimism refers to an expectation of positive life outcomes (Howell & Shepperd, 2016), and coping self-efficacy refers to an individual’s ability to cope effectively in a situation (Chesney et al., 2006).

Extant literature finds response efficacy as a significant predictor of information behavior in the contexts of public health and pandemic health recommendations, vaccine recommendation in both general and pandemic cases, and information avoidance. Research finds response efficacy’s negative association with smoking-related message forgoing behavior (Thrasher et al., 2016), and positive association with maintaining and catalyzing food habit change (Meijers et al., 2022), health recommendations effectiveness (Han et al., 2016) and persuasion capability (Cismaru et al., 2009). Yu et al. (2022) identifies perceived response efficacy causes social distancing compliance during COVID-19 pandemic. Response efficacy also affects vaccination rates in diseases such as Human Papillomavirus (Mhre et al., 2020) and COVID-19 (Lammers-van der Holst et al., 2022). Information avoidance literature shows response efficacy as an inhibitor of avoiding fatal health-related information (Miles et al., 2008), stress-related information (Shi, 2019), and crisis information (Guteling & de Vries 2017).

Literature identifies optimism as a significant factor for information behavior in the contexts of personality traits, health information, pandemic management, and information avoidance. Icekson et al. (2014) argues optimism reduces negative effect of avoidance motivation when the respondents exercise creativity. Health literature finds optimism is associated with superior well-being in people with chronic health problems (Bedi & Brown, 2005), increasing task-oriented coping and decreasing emotion-oriented coping in health counselling cases (Hatchett & Park, 2004), and reducing health threats (Fowler & Geers, 2015). The H1N1 and COVID-19 pandemic management research identifies the importance of optimism in increasing compliance behavior (Rudisill, 2013), reducing information fatigue (Cees & Oducado, 2021), and facilitating positive online discourse (Blanco & Lourenço, 2022). Howell and Shepperd (2016) finds optimism as a predictor of information avoidance.

Current research shows that how coping self-efficacy impacts information behavior in the contexts of health, psychology, and crisis. Health researchers identify coping self-efficacy is useful for assessment and monitoring of treatments (Sklar & Turner, 1999), for positive dietary behavior (Matthews, Doerr, & Dworatzek, 2016; Schwarzer & Renner, 2000), and for reducing post-traumatic behavior (Geslak et al., 2008). Luberto et al. (2014) and Midkiff et al. (2018) find coping self-efficacy impacts emotion control and mindfulness. In the case of crisis management, optimism reduces stress (Benight & Harper, 2002; Benight et al., 1999). Research also finds association between coping self-efficacy and health information avoidance (Howell & Shepperd, 2016; Hua & Howell, 2022).

2.4. Situational motivation and information behavior

Situational motivation originated from self-determination theory that posits that an individual’s motivation and personality depend on their determination and growth tendencies (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan et al., 1991). Situational motivation construct namely intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation are being used to describe various information behaviors. Intrinsic motivation refers to the behavior that a person engaged in for their own sake of interest (Deci, 1971). Extrinsic motivation on the other hand goes beyond one’s inherent interest or satisfaction. According to the self-determination
### Table 1

**Literature Summary of Information Avoidance Behavior.**

| Category           | Author and Year | Context                      | Role of Information Avoidance Construct | Key Finding                                                                 |
|--------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| **Economics and Finance** |                 |                              |                                        |                                                                            |
| Frey (1982)        |                 | Decision-making under       | Dependent variable                      | Under all experimental conditions, irrelevant information is avoided more   |
|                    |                 | cognitive dissonance         |                                        | than relevant information when proper incentives are in place.             |
| Poulsen and Roos   |                 | Strategic decision          | Dependent variable                      | A game-theoretic player avoids information unless the competitor shows     |
| (2010)             |                 |                              |                                        | or signals strategic commitment.                                           |
| Van der Welle      |                 | Ethical decision            | Dependent variable                      | People avoid moral information when pro-social actions become costly.       |
| (2012)             |                 | Social choice decision      | Dependent variable                      | People avoid information if the self-serving choice does not hurt them.     |
| Feller (2014)      |                 | Effort in workplace         | Dependent variable                      | Workplace information avoidance does not depend upon incentive rather      |
| Huck, Szech, & Wenner, 2015 |   |                              |                                        | depends on information’s instrumental value.                               |
| Blajer-Golciweska et al., (2018) | | Financial risk | Dependent variable                      | Financial decision-makers risk coping style, locus of risk control, and risk- |
|                    |                 |                              |                                        | relevant emotional responses are significant predictor of financial risk     |
|                   |                 |                              |                                        | information avoidance.                                                    |
| Momsen and Ohndorf (2020) |   | Green market                | Dependent variable                      | Carbon offset information avoidance depends on price and externalities.    |
| Golman et al., (2021) |   | Decision-making under      | Dependent variable                      | Information avoidance decreases with more importance, more salience,       |
|                    |                 | information gap             |                                        | and higher valence.                                                       |
| **Information Science and Systems** |     | Routine information maintenance | Dependent variable                      | Long-term information avoidance is caused by exposure to information that    |
| Narayan et al., (2011) |   |                              |                                        | are trivial for possessed worldviews and short-term information avoidance   |
|                    |                 |                              |                                        | is caused by exposure to higher perceived risk of knowing a fact.          |
| Webb et al., (2013) | Goal progress | Dependent variable | Lower motives regarding self-enhancement, self-verification, self-assessmen- | Lower motives regarding self-enhancement, self-verification, self-    |
|                    |                 |                              | and self-improvement leads to information avoidance.                        | assessment, and self-improvement leads to information avoidance.         |
| Neben (2015)       | Information use | Dependent variable | Defensive motivation decreases information exposure and increases absorption avoidance and use avoidance. | |
| Dai et al., (2020) | Social media use | Dependent variable | Social media fatigue, dissatisfaction, and frustration positively affects information avoidance intention. | |
| Guo et al., (2020) | Social networking sites | Dependent variable | Social network fatigue positively affects information avoidance behavior with the moderation of time pressure. | |
| **Medical and Public Health** |                 |                              |                                        |                                                                            |
| Case et al., (2005) | Cancer information | Dependent variable | Information avoidance corresponds with the intention to learn about unpredictable genetical disease. | Information avoidance corresponds with the intention to learn about unpredictable genetical disease. |
| Howell & Shepard | Health decision-making | Dependent variable | Mental discomfort and dissonance cause information avoidance. | Mental discomfort and dissonance cause information avoidance. |
| (2012)             | Medication      | Dependent variable | People’s self-worth reduces information avoidance. | People’s self-worth reduces information avoidance. |
| Howell & Shepard (2013a) | Health decision-making | Dependent variable | People avoid information that forces undesirable behavior. | People avoid information that forces undesirable behavior. |
| Howell & Shepard (2013b) | Health decision-making | Dependent variable | People who lack personal and interpersonal resources avoid learning potentially life-threatening information. | People who lack personal and interpersonal resources avoid learning potentially life-threatening information. |
| Howell et al., (2014) | Health decision-making | Dependent variable | Fear increases information avoidance. | Fear increases information avoidance. |
| Perssodie et al., (2014) | Health maintenance | Dependent variable | Self-reported and implicitly measured attitudes independently predict information avoidance decision. | Self-reported and implicitly measured attitudes independently predict information avoidance decision. |
| Chae (2015)        | Cancer information | Dependent variable | Cancer worry and cancer risk perception are negatively associated with cancer information avoidance. | Cancer worry and cancer risk perception are negatively associated with cancer information avoidance. |
| Taber et al. (2015) | Genetics        | Independent variable | Information avoidance corresponds with the intention to learn about unpredictable genetical disease. | Information avoidance corresponds with the intention to learn about unpredictable genetical disease. |
| Chae (2016)        | Cancer information | Dependent variable | Cancer information overload is positively associated with cancer information avoidance. | Cancer information overload is positively associated with cancer information avoidance. |
| Howell, Ratilff et al. (2016) | Health outcome | Dependent variable | Self-reported and implicitly measured attitudes independently predict information avoidance decision. | Self-reported and implicitly measured attitudes independently predict information avoidance decision. |
| Howell and Shepard (2016) | Personal health | Dependent variable | Social rejection prompts information avoidance. | Social rejection prompts information avoidance. |
| St. Jean et al., (2017) | Cancer information | Independent variable | Information avoidance, health literacy, and health justice are interrelated concepts. | Information avoidance, health literacy, and health justice are interrelated concepts. |
| McCloyd et al., (2017) | Smoking | Mediator variable | Information avoidance mediates the relationship between personal characteristics and non-compliance of health warning. | Information avoidance mediates the relationship between personal characteristics and non-compliance of health warning. |
| Orom et al. (2018) | Health risk information | Independent variable | Information avoidance predicts lower health protection behavior. | Information avoidance predicts lower health protection behavior. |
| Heck and Meyer (2019) | Genetics | Independent variable | Information avoidance impacts health well-being. | Information avoidance impacts health well-being. |
| Chae et al., (2020) | Cancer information | Dependent variable | Cancer information overload and cancer fatalism predict information avoidance. | Cancer information overload and cancer fatalism predict information avoidance. |
| Yang et al. (2021) | Smoking | Dependent variable | Information that conflicts with beliefs increases health recommendation avoidance. | Information that conflicts with beliefs increases health recommendation avoidance. |
| Link and Baumann (2022) | Cancer information | Dependent variable | Prior cancer experience in family increases cancer information avoidance. | Prior cancer experience in family increases cancer information avoidance. |
| Hua and Howell (2022) | Personal health | Dependent variable | Coping self-efficacy decreases information avoidance. | Coping self-efficacy decreases information avoidance. |
| Peterson et al., (2022) | Genetics | Independent variable | Information avoidance is negatively associated with receiving health test results through the moderation of race. | Information avoidance is negatively associated with receiving health test results through the moderation of race. |
| **COVID-19**       | Misinformation  | Dependent variable | Misinformation exposure increases information avoidance through the mediation of information insufficiency and moderation of country culture. | Misinformation exposure increases information avoidance through the mediation of information insufficiency and moderation of country culture. |
| Siebenhaar et al., 2020 | Infodemic | Mediator variable | Information avoidance mediates the relationship between information distress, trust, and anxiety with compliance behavior. | Information avoidance mediates the relationship between information distress, trust, and anxiety with compliance behavior. |
| Soroya et al., (2021) | Online information | Dependent variable | Information anxiety increases information avoidance. | Information anxiety increases information avoidance. |
| Sweeney and Miller (2012) | Romantic relationship | Dependent variable | Perceived benefit and anticipated regret predict information avoidance decision. | Perceived benefit and anticipated regret predict information avoidance decision. |
| Yang and Kahlor (2013) | Climate change | Dependent variable | Attitude towards information seeking is negatively associated with information avoidance. | Attitude towards information seeking is negatively associated with information avoidance. |
| Kablor et al. (2020) | Environmental risk | Dependent variable | Attitude towards avoidance, avoidance-related subjective norms, and affective risk response increases information avoidance intent and | Attitude towards avoidance, avoidance-related subjective norms, and affective risk response increases information avoidance intent and |
theory, extrinsic motivation has different levels in the self-determination continuum of human behavior. External regulation and identified regulation are two different levels of extrinsic motivation in the continuum from lower to higher self-determination (Deci, 1971; Guay et al., 2000). Externally regulated behaviors are beyond self-interest and occurs when there is external reward and/or there is a need to avoid negative consequences. Identified regulation is a more conscious behavior where the behavior is valued and chosen consciously by oneself (Guay et al., 2000). Extant literature identifies these motivations behind different behaviors in different contexts.

First, intrinsic motivation has been studied in the context of goal planning, use of technology, knowledge sharing behavior (Crow, 2009; David et al., 2007; de Almeida et al., 2016; Fagan et al., 2008; Hwang & Yi, 2002). According to David et al. (2007) intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between self-efficacy and successful goal planning. Hwang and Yi (2002) suggests that intrinsic motivation such as enjoyment plays an important role in influencing the decision to use new technology. In another study by de Almeida et al. (2016) confirms that employees intrinsic motivation is an important factor in influencing tacit knowledge sharing behavior. Moreover, Crow (2009) finds that to foster certain behavior individuals intrinsic motivation needs to be triggered. However, in a study on the use of technology Fagan et al. (2008) finds a contradictory result that intrinsic motivation does not impact behavioral intention to use technology positively in a workplace.

Second, extant literature investigates identified regulation in the contexts of knowledge sharing, information search, and the use of technology (Gagné et al., 2019; Li et al., 2011; Stenius et al., 2017; von der Trenck et al., 2014; Wang & Hou, 2015). According to Wang and Hou (2015) identified regulation as an autonomy oriented motivation influence knowledge sharing behavior positively. von der Trenck et al. (2014) finds that individuals identified regulation as a part of self-determination plays a significant role in behavioral intention such as information search. Confirming the findings of extant literature, Gagné et al. (2019) identify that individual’s intrinsic motivation and identified regulation impact the behavior of IT usage. Also, Stenius et al. (2017) report that identified regulation as a form of autonomous motivation influences knowledge sharing intention that in turn results in knowledge sharing behavior. Moreover, in the context of technology use, Li et al. (2011) finds that identified regulation is the most important extrinsic motivation that impacts new technology use behavior.

Third, literature suggests that external regulation being part of the extrinsic motivation impacts different behavioral outcomes in the contexts of knowledge sharing and technology use (Gagné et al., 2019; Mitchell et al., 2012; Rahi et al., 2021; Revzani et al., 2017; Zimmer et al., 2018). According to Revzani et al. (2017) external regulation does not necessarily impact positive behavioral intention in a technology use context. People sometimes feel pressured because of the external regulation and as a result reject to do certain behavior. In a study by Gagné et al. (2019) report that external regulation to share knowledge influence employees to hide knowledge instead of share knowledge. Another study by Mitchell et al. (2012) finds that low external regulation results in spontaneous use of new technology. However, Rahi et al. (2021) finds a contradictory result that indicates individuals external regulation motivation impacts positive behavioral intention such as new technology adoption and use.

After reviewing literature streams, we have found three research areas where this research can contribute. First, current literature does not explain how various psychological stimuli can lead to online information avoidance. Second, the information avoidance literature provides enough understanding regarding the behavior under critical health disease context. However, how such understanding can be applied to a crisis is understudied. Third, information avoidance literature is yet to investigate how the fear and situational motivation constructs such as intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation lead to online information avoidance during a crisis through the mediation of established psychological antecedents viz. efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy. As our study investigates online information avoidance during a crisis, incorporating situational motivation factors from self-determination theory with psychological and health information avoidance theories (Miles et al., 2008; Sweeny et al., 2010) can provide us with a robust explanation regarding the behavior.

### 3. Theoretical model and hypotheses

#### 3.1. Fear and online information avoidance

Fear, an emotional stimulus, can emerge from consuming negatively framed online information (Ahmad & Murad, 2020; Basch et al., 2020). Miles et al. (2008) have argued that fear of acute diseases such as cancer is associated with increased information avoidance. In the healthcare context, Ajekigbe (1991), for instance, finds that individuals become reluctant to act upon health recommendations when there is higher chance of negative outcome from prescriptive tests. Moreover, Guillatte et al. (2010) shows individual’s cancer fatalistic belief is positively associated with the avoidance of information. People with a higher fear of terminal disease are likely to undermine the importance of health information associated with lower response efficacy (Miles et al., 2008). This research posits these associations among fear, response efficacy, and health information avoidance will hold in the context of fear from online communication and online information avoidance during COVID-19. When online communication is framed negatively and increases fear, people will not see how the received information can tackle health complications.

Additionally, people will likely avoid fear-inducing online information to reduce psychological stress during a crisis. The information avoidance model of psychology shows that fear from received information is associated with a reduction in positive psychological factors such as optimism and coping self-efficacy (Sweeny et al., 2010). When information increases fear, people start facing challenges to lead a life with positivity and doubting the capacity to cope in adverse situations. Similarly, fear emerging from online communication will negatively impact the optimism and coping self-efficacy during the COVID-19 pandemic. All these negative emotions lead to information avoidance behavior. Thus, we hypothesize:

\[ H1. \text{ Individual’s fear during pandemic is positively associated with individual’s online information avoidance.} \]
3.2. Situational motivation and online information avoidance

Situational motivation constructs, intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation, are based on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan et al., 1991; Standage & Treasure, 2002). Self-determination theory posits that an individual’s motivation and personality depend on their determination and growth tendencies. Two significant concepts of self-determination theory are self-determined motivation and non-self-determined motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-determined motivation states that individuals engage in an activity when they realize the benefit of performing the task with their evaluation and are not forced to complete it. Non-self-determined motivation describes the opposite. Individuals engage less if they are forced to perform a task or cannot evaluate the benefit of independently performing the task. Moreover, self-determined motivation and non-self-determined motivation are related to positive psychological factors and ability. Intrinsic motivation and identified regulation constructs represent an individual’s self-determined motivation, and external regulation construct represent an individual’s non-self-determined motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Researches find that higher intrinsic motivation and identified regulation lead to lower information avoidance (Dubnjakovic, 2018; Wang, 2016). Sweeny et al. (2010) posit external regulation in the form of higher obligation to act increases information avoidance. Prior research shows intrinsic motivation and identified regulation are associated with more positive outcomes such as optimism and positive coping (Chesney et al., 2006; Guay et al., 2000; Moneta & Spada, 2009).

A person with higher intrinsic motivation can enjoy carrying out a task or have a positive psychological state because they evaluate any situation with the lens of enjoyment and do not stress about any material outcome. A higher level of identified regulation means a person can better understand the importance of carrying a task from self-evaluation. A person with identified regulation is self-motivated to perform or have a positive psychological state because they know the task’s material and objective importance. According to the information avoidance framework, when the information provides the positive stimulus and encourages a person to follow, then the information acquisition will be higher. If an online communication connects to a person’s intrinsic motivation during a crisis such as COVID-19, the person will be optimistic, will have higher confidence on their ability to cope effectively and will be motivated to acquire information. Thus, we hypothesize:

H2. Individual’s intrinsic motivation during pandemic is negatively associated with individual’s online information avoidance.

H3. Individual’s identified regulation during pandemic is negatively associated with individual’s online information avoidance.

On the other hand, external regulation is associated with negative psychological outcomes (Guay et al., 2000). Individuals with higher external regulation are less engaged to carry a task because they are forced to do so (Sweeny et al., 2010). A higher level of external regulation contradicts a person’s self-determination, so the person becomes demotivated. According to the information avoidance framework, when the information provides a negative stimulus or focuses more on what a person ought to follow, then the information avoidance will be higher (Sweeny et al., 2010). If online communication forces people to carry certain health behavior, the person will have less optimism, have lesser confidence in their ability to cope effectively, and be demotivated to acquire information. Thus, we hypothesize:

H4. Individual’s external regulation during pandemic is positively associated with individual’s Online Information Avoidance.

3.3. Psychological antecedents of online information avoidance

This research identifies response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy as an individual’s psychological factors in a pandemic that can affect online information avoidance behavior from the prior information avoidance models. We build on prior research that has identified determinants of information avoidance. Case et al., (2005), for instance, state that “Avoiding information is closely linked to feelings of anxiety and fear as well as other cognitive and emotional variable like perceptions…” (p. 359). The original formulation of Rogers (1975) protection motivation theory conceptualized fear appeals to initiate cognitive appraisal processes. Later, Maddux and Rogers (1983) in their revised theory of fear appeals note “Throughout the development of fear appeal theories, researchers and theorists have become increasingly aware of the importance of the role of cognitive mediational processes” (p. 470). Therefore, the influence of fear on response efficacy exists.

According to the health information avoidance theory in the context of cancer, people who evaluate the importance of health information positively and who have higher response efficacy are less likely to avoid health information (Miles et al., 2008). The information avoidance framework suggests that an individual’s optimism is negatively associated with information avoidance behavior. The relationship between coping self-efficacy and information seeking or avoidance can be explained using adaptive coping strategies. Individual’s self-efficacy is negatively associated with information avoidance behavior (Miles et al., 2008). That means individual’s high perception of their ability results in less information avoidance. According to Johnson, 1997, an individual’s information avoidance behavior is negatively associated with their perceived control over the situation. Howell and Shepperd (2016), state that coping self-efficacy is negatively correlated with information avoidance. Rippetoe and Rogers (1987), have specifically distinguished between two aspects of coping ability – self-efficacy and response efficacy. The findings from earlier closely related health and information avoidance research and the extant literature explain how an individual’s psychological state such as response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy are associated with online information avoidance behavior during COVID-19 pandemic. When people feel that they received information and recommendation from online sources will lead to better health outcomes, they will be more likely to absorb it. Additionally, when people are optimistic and confident that they will cope with the pandemic, they will positively acquire more online information. Using these arguments alongside the discussions for H1–H4, we hypothesize:

H5. Individual’s response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy during pandemic mediate the relationship between a) fear, b) intrinsic motivation, c) identified regulation, and d) external regulation with online information avoidance.

Fig. 1 shows our research model that combines the concepts from self-determination theory and information avoidance theories. Appendix A includes a table containing the definitions of each construct in the model.

4. Research method and measurement

4.1. Sample selection and data collection

This explanatory study follows Malhotra and Grover (1998)’s guidelines for conducting a survey research. In line with the Hair et al. (2019) suggestions, this study analyzes the observations and tests the research hypotheses using partial least squares based structured equation modeling (PLS SEM). According to Hair et al. (2019), PLS SEM is suitable to use when the theoretical model is complex with first-order and second-order constructs and that model focuses on prediction perspective. In our study, as we are trying to establish fear and situational motivation as the antecedents of online information avoidance, using PLS SEM is more appropriate for us. After developing the instrument in Qualtrics, we pretest the questionnaire with eight business school doctoral students. They assessed the clarity of the questions and items. Based on the feedback, we modify the wording of a few questions.
We used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) platform because the platform helps us to collect data from multiple locations within the United States. Moreover, using MTurk in survey research has gained popularity because of the quality of the responses and the naiveness of the respondents (Chambers & Nimon, 2018). After finalizing the initial questionnaire, we ran a pilot study using MTurk. The pilot survey results were satisfactory. We then proceeded to the final data collection phase. We collected the data in June 2020, within three months of the pandemic declaration by the World Health Organization. We collect 375 responses from where 23 were removed as those do not pass either the attention or honesty check question. We used the attention check filter following Lowry et al. (2016). Finally, we had 352 usable responses for our analysis. We also examined the common method bias in the responses based on Harman’s one-factor test (Fuller et al., 2016; Podsakoff, 2003). The first factor explains 36.80%, which is below the 50% threshold value. This confirms that none of the factors individually explains majority of the variance.

4.2. Operationalization of the constructs

The survey instrument includes thirty-seven items for ten first-order constructs. We have three demographic questions regarding gender, age, and years of education. Fear, intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation are the four independent variables. The 8-item fear construct is modified from Champion et al. (2004). The three constructs of situational motivation are drawn from Guay et al. (2000) and Standage and Treasure (2002). Intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation are measured using 4 items, 3 items, and 4 items, respectively. The three mediating variables in our model are response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy. The 3-item response efficacy is adopted from Lewis et al., 2009, and 3-item optimism is adapted from Scheier et al. (1994). Coping self-efficacy is drawn from Chesney et al. (2006). We measure coping self-efficacy as a reflective-reflective second order construct. The first order constructs for coping self-efficacy are: 1) problem-focused coping with 3 items, 2) emotion-focused coping with 3 items, and 3) social support with 2 items. The 4-item dependent variable online information avoidance is taken from Chesney et al. (2006). We measure all the constructs using a seven-point scale (ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree). The details of the items and questions are in Appendix B. The descriptive statistics of the survey respondents based on the control variables are given in Appendix C.

5. Data analysis and results

5.1. Measurement model

We analyze the measurement model to assess the construct reliability, convergent validity, indicator reliability, and discriminant validity of the constructs’ items. All the first-order constructs in the model are assessed reflectively. Table 2 and Table 3 show the measurement model results.

Construct reliability is tested using the composite reliability (CR) and our desired cut-off value is 0.70. From Table 1, we can see that for each of the constructs the CR is more than the cut-off value. This shows the constructs are appropriate and internally consistent (Fornell et al. 2009; Straub, 1989). The average variance extracted (AVE) is used to identify the convergent validity, and our desired cut-off value is 0.50. Table 1 shows that for each of the constructs the AVE is more than the cut-off value. This establishes the convergent validity of the measurement model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al. 2012). According to (Churchill, 1979), the item loading should be higher than 0.70 to achieve item reliability. From Table 3 we find that all item loadings are more than the desired value. Thus, the reliability of the items is satisfied.

To examine the construct’s discriminant validity, we use Fornell-Larcker criteria, cross-loadings, and the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) (Henseler et al., 2015). The correlation between constructs and the square root of AVE (from Table 2) shows the square root of AVE of each construct (diagonal elements) is more than the correlations between the constructs. This satisfies the first criterion for discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). We also need to check that each construct’s loadings are greater than the cross-loadings as the second criterion for discriminant validity (Chin, 1998). From Table 3, we can see that the loadings (in bold) are greater than the cross-loadings in the respective columns. Lastly, Table 4 shows all the HTMT are below the threshold of 0.90. Therefore, the discriminant validity of the constructs is established. From these analyses, we identify that the constructs are fit to be used in testing the structural model.
significance level of path coefficients were performed using bootstraping with 5000 resamples. Our model explains 62.2% of the variation in optimism. We found the associations from fear to optimism ($\hat{\beta}=-0.502$; p-value <0.01), external regulation to optimism ($\hat{\beta}=-0.177$; p-value <0.05) and identified regulation to optimism ($\hat{\beta}=0.137$; p-value <0.01) are statistically significant. We also found the association between intrinsic motivation and optimism to be statistically significant ($\hat{\beta}=-0.205$; p-value <0.01), however, the path direction is opposite to theoretical intuition. Our model explains 23.3% of the variation in coping self-efficacy. We have found the associations from intrinsic motivation to coping self-efficacy ($\hat{\beta}=0.448$; p-value <0.01) and identified regulation to coping self-efficacy ($\hat{\beta}=0.259$; p-value <0.01) are statistically significant.

### 5.2. Structural model

We test the multicollinearity of all constructs before assessing the structural model. For that we use Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Our results show all the construct VIFs are close to or lower than 3, meaning the absence of multicollinearity among the variables (Hair et al., 2019). The structural model results are presented in Fig. 2. The statistically significance level of path coefficients were performed using bootstrapping with 5000 resamples.

Our model explains 43.9% of the variation in response efficacy. We found the association between identified regulation and response efficacy ($\hat{\beta}=0.646$; p-value<0.01) to be statistically significant. Our model explains 62.2% of the variation in optimism. We found the associations from fear to optimism ($\hat{\beta}=-0.502$; p-value <0.01), external regulation to optimism ($\hat{\beta}=-0.177$; p-value <0.05) and identified regulation to optimism ($\hat{\beta}=0.137$; p-value <0.01) are statistically significant. We also found the association between intrinsic motivation and optimism to be statistically significant ($\hat{\beta}=-0.205$; p-value <0.01), however, the path direction is opposite to theoretical intuition. Our model explains 23.3% of the variation in coping self-efficacy. We have found the associations from intrinsic motivation to coping self-efficacy ($\hat{\beta}=0.448$; p-value <0.01) and identified regulation to coping self-efficacy ($\hat{\beta}=0.259$; p-value <0.01) are statistically significant.
Moreover, our model explains 72.4% of the variation in online information avoidance. We hypothesize fear and external regulation are positively associated with online information avoidance, and intrinsic motivation and identified regulation are negatively associated with online information avoidance. We found the associations from fear to online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = 0.183; p\text{-value} < 0.05 \)), external regulation to online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = 0.145; p\text{-value} < 0.05 \)) and identified regulation to online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = 0.195; p\text{-value} < 0.01 \)) as statistically significant. We also found the association between intrinsic motivation and online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = 0.321; p\text{-value} < 0.01 \)) as statistically significant, however the path direction is opposite to what we hypothesize. Moreover, we found the associations from response efficacy to online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = -0.155; p\text{-value} < 0.01 \)), and optimism to online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = -0.288; p\text{-value} < 0.01 \)) are statistically significant. The association between coping self-efficacy and online information avoidance (\( \hat{\beta} = 0.099; p\text{-value} < 0.05 \)) is statistically significant, but the path direction is opposite to theoretical prediction. By analyzing the total effects when mediated by response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy, we can see the relationship between fear and online information avoidance becomes 0.326 (p-value < 0.01), the relationship between identified regulation and online information avoidance becomes \(-0.309\) (p-value < 0.01), and relationship between external regulation and online information avoidance becomes 0.184 (p-value < 0.01). All these total effect relationships are stronger than the respective direct effect relationship with stronger statistical significance, thus, supporting our mediation hypothesis.

Table 5 summarize the supported hypotheses with direct and total effects. The results allow us to conclude that the most important driver for online information avoidance is intrinsic motivation, and an important inhibitor is identified regulation.

We also conducted the mediation mechanism analysis to check the significant mediation effect of response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy between the association of fear, intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation towards online information avoidance (see Table 6). Our results suggest partial mediation of response efficacy between identified regulation and online information avoidance. Our results also suggest partial mediation of optimism between fear and online information avoidance, intrinsic motivation and online information avoidance, and identified regulation and online information avoidance. Moreover, we find partial mediation of coping self-efficacy between intrinsic motivation and online information avoidance.
**Table 5**

| #  | Path | Hypothesis | Direct effect | Total effect | Conclusion |
|----|------|------------|---------------|--------------|------------|
| H1 | Fear → Online Information Avoidance | Positive | 0.183 * * | – | Supported |
| H2 | Intrinsic Motivation → Online Information Avoidance | Negative | 0.321 * * | – | Not Supported |
| H3 | Identified Regulation → Online Information Avoidance | Negative | -0.195 * * | – | Supported |
| H4 | External Regulation → Online Information Avoidance | Positive | 0.145 * * | – | Supported |
| H5a | Fear → (Response Efficacy, Optimism, Coping Self-efficacy) → Online Information Avoidance | Mediation | – | 0.326 * * | Supported |
| H5b | Intrinsic Motivation → (Response Efficacy, Optimism, Coping Self-efficacy) → Online Information Avoidance | Mediation | – | 0.420 * * | Supported |
| H5c | Identified Regulation → (Response Efficacy, Optimism, Coping Self-efficacy) → Online Information Avoidance | Mediation | – | -0.309 * * | Supported |
| H5d | External Regulation → (Response Efficacy, Optimism, Coping Self-efficacy) → Online Information Avoidance | Mediation | – | 0.184 * * | Supported |

* * p-value < 0.01 * * p-value < 0.05

**Table 6**

| Path | Indirect effect | Direct effect | Interpretation |
|------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| Fear → Response Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | 0.010 | 0.183 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |
| Fear → Optimism → Online Information Avoidance | 0.145 * * | 0.183 * * | Complementary (partial mediation) |
| Fear → Coping Self-Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | -0.013 | 0.183 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |
| Intrinsic Motivation → Response Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | -0.004 | 0.321 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |
| Identified Regulation → Response Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | -0.100 * * | -0.195 * * | Complementary (partial mediation) |
| Identified Regulation → Optimism → Online Information Avoidance | -0.039 * * | -0.195 * * | Complementary (partial mediation) |
| Identified Regulation → Coping Self-Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | 0.026 | -0.195 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |
| External Regulation → Response Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | -0.008 | 0.145 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |
| External Regulation → Optimism → Online Information Avoidance | 0.051 | 0.145 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |
| External Regulation → Coping Self-Efficacy → Online Information Avoidance | -0.004 | 0.145 * * | Direct only (no mediation) |

* * p-value < 0.01 * * p-value < 0.05

6. Discussion

Extant literature has found that intrinsic motivation drives the positive behavioral outcome. Singh (2016) argues that intrinsic motivation is influential in achieving higher employee engagement in a dynamic work environment. Additionally, intrinsic motivation is an essential factor in driving online information sharing on social media (Chen et al., 2019). Based on the total effect of our model, we found an opposite result - that intrinsic motivation increases online information avoidance. This surprising finding makes intuitive sense in the context of a crisis such as COVID-19 pandemic. We discuss this finding below.

Our research found identified regulation, i.e., an individual’s self-determined motivation, as an online information avoidance inhibitor. Extant literature regarding identified regulation and information acquisition behavior indicates when people can assess the importance of the information using self-evaluation and when people have control to decide which information to consume, then information avoidance becomes less (Dubnjakovic, 2017). Dubnjakovic (2018) found identified regulation to negatively influence information avoidance in education and learning contexts. Wang (2016) found identified regulation as a factor for lower information avoidance on the social networking platforms.

Also, our research shows that people avoid online information if they are exposed to the feeling of fear. We find people avoid information during a crisis when the external regulation (i.e., pressure to comply with a policy) increases. People do not like force or coercion. If people feel pressured by online communication during a crisis or are obliged to follow specific recommendations, they will avoid that information (Sweeney et al., 2010). At a practical level, these results suggest that crisis-related online communication needs to focus on reducing fear and compliance pressure for lower information avoidance from the public.

Moreover, extant literature on information avoidance identified response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy as psychological predictors of information avoidance (Howell & Shepperd, 2016; Miles et al., 2008). In our model, we use these predictors as mediating variables between fear and situational motivation variables. From the Fig. 2, we can see individuals’ optimism decreases online information avoidance.
avoidance during a crisis (β = −0.288; p-value <0.01), and from the Table 5, we find optimism partially mediates the relation between fear, intrinsic motivation, and identified regulation with online information avoidance. From the Fig. 2, we can also see response efficacy decreases online information avoidance (β = −0.155; p-value <0.01), and from the Table 5, we find it partially mediates the relationship between identified regulation with online information avoidance. Moreover, from the Fig. 2, we find coping self-efficacy increases online information avoidance (β = 0.099; p-value <0.05), and from the Table 5, we identify it is not a significant mediator variable for fear and situational motivation to online information avoidance.

6.1. Theoretical contributions and implications

Our study has four major theoretical contributions. First, in line with self-determination theory (Vallerand, 2000), we hypothesized that intrinsic motivation would lower online information avoidance. However, our empirical analysis shows the opposite result. A possible explanation for this result can be when individuals are assessing online information without thinking about intended outcome or effectiveness of that information, they tend to classify that piece of information as unimportant and then, they start avoiding that information more. It is already evident that individuals receive a lot of information via online sources and if they do not find any self-regulation or external pressure to consume that information, they would most like avoid that. However, our empirical result thus introduces a new debate whether self-imposed or external-imposed information consumption are the only effective way to decrease online information avoidance during a crisis. Second, our findings on identified regulation and online information avoidance during COVID-19 conform to these prior understanding and extend the literature by testing the relationship in the pandemic context. We see that individual’s self-regulation in the form of identified regulation decreases online information avoidance during a crisis. Thus, we can conclude that self-regulation is one of the effective components from self-determination theory that can guide a more effective online information campaign. Third, our model also extends existing knowledge and informs policy by finding fear and external regulation as online information avoidance drivers during a crisis. These findings show us that both fear of learning about the crisis and strict regulatory pressure to consume information reduces an individual’s appetite to use the online information. Thus, only self-regulation becomes the major driver for effective online communication during a crisis. Last, prior studies find coping self-efficacy decreases information avoidance (Howell & Shepperd, 2016). We found an opposite but significant relationship contrary to our current understanding. We can tell that if people are more confident about their ability to cope, they will avoid information more during COVID-19. Our new finding might indicate a further explanation for how coping self-efficacy can impact online information avoidance during a pandemic.

6.2. Implications for practice

During COVID-19, people are already very stressed with adverse health and socio-economic consequences. Moreover, people suffer a lot because of increased anxiety and uncertainty resulting from the pandemic (Ho et al., 2020). Intrinsic motivation is a positive psychological factor linked to people’s feeling of inner joy and enjoyment. Intrinsic motivation is also linked to how people can keep themselves happy without worrying about external to their thinking (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Thus, during COVID-19 pandemic, people with higher intrinsic motivation avoid online information more because they do not want to face any negativity that will reduce their positive well-being. Recent reports on COVID-19 show people avoid information as it induces negative psychological stimuli and emotional stress (Mitchell et al., 2020; Savage, 2020). Thus, we can identify that people are largely considering COVID-19 related online information as a source of negative emotions and will avoid online information to keep their positive emotions intact. The practical implication is that online communications during a crisis such as COVID-19 need to be framed not to induce negativity and decrease positivity. Otherwise, people will avoid that online information. Hence, people cannot realize the intended benefit of online communications.

This finding is practically significant because it indicates how to make sure people do not avoid critical information during a crisis. During the COVID-19 pandemic, a wide range of online sources for information and news dissemination have emerged, and those sources provide a lot of policy and behavioral recommendations. As COVID-19 pandemic manifested in the midst of the age of social internet, people are getting overwhelmed by the volume of online information that they need to process (Savage, 2020). Our findings suggest that people consume online information more if they can evaluate that information’s importance from their self-assessment. We see a popular information sharing platform in this crisis is interactive information dashboards such as John Hopkins COVID-19 dashboard and Worldometer. The primary purpose of information dashboards is to provide an avenue through which people can access recent developments. The interactive nature of the dashboards helps a user to modify the information they want to consume. This information dissemination approach can increase an individual’s identified regulation by providing people with higher control over what information they wish to acquire. Our findings indicate that information sources that provide higher control to the users can be useful tools to offer more considerable audiences information during a COVID-19 pandemic crisis.

6.3. Limitations and future research

We identified three limitations and corresponding possible research extensions. First, we collected the data from the U.S. population during the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic. The results are exciting and have substantial implications for theory and practice. Further research, however, should extend the findings, not only to other populations but also to other crises. Second, our study uses a survey research method to test the hypotheses. While it is possible to draw causal conclusions in an experimental setting, which is a potential future research direction, it is equally compelling to engage in an in-depth interpretive study. Third, our model does not have any moderating variables. In existing information avoidance literature, we see individual differences such as monitoring and blunting, and uncertainty intolerance constructs predicting information avoidance behavior (Sweeney et al., 2010). Such constructs can be used as a moderating variable in the model. Future research should consider evaluating the moderating effects.

7. Conclusions

This study investigates how an individual’s fear, intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation impact online information avoidance. Using self-determination and information avoidance theories, we have argued that fear and external regulation are associated with an increase in online information avoidance. We have also found that intrinsic motivation and identified regulation are associated with decreased online information avoidance, mediated by an individual’s response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy. Our findings suggest fear, intrinsic motivation, and external regulation drive online information avoidance, where intrinsic motivation is the most significant driver among the three. Moreover, we find identified regulation as a crucial inhibitor of online information avoidance. Our mediation analysis suggests a partial mediating effect of response efficacy, optimism, and coping self-efficacy. While mainly focusing on COVID-19, our study contributes to the broader information systems research literature and specifically to the information avoidance literature during a crisis. At a practical level, our research suggests that...
pandemic-related online communication needs to focus on increasing an individual’s sense of self-motivation through identified regulation. Our findings suggest that doing so will decrease online information avoidance and decrease intrinsic motivation, not to induce fear, and not to impose compliance pressure from external regulation. Our findings will be useful for governments, health organizations, and communities that utilize online platforms, forums, and related outlets to correctly reach larger audiences for disseminating pertinent information and recommendations during a pandemic or other such crisis situations.

**CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Tahmina Sultana:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

**Gurpreet Dhillon:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Tiago Oliveira:** Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing.

**Declaration of interest**

None

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**Appendix A. Definition of Model Constructs**

| Construct                  | Definition                                                                 | Adapted From |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| **Independent Variable**   |                                                                           |              |
| Fear                       | An adaptive emotion in the presence of a perceived danger such as COVID-19. | Lewis et al. (2010) |
| Intrinsic Motivation       | A behavior driven by internal joy and satisfaction without the intervention of self-regulation. | Deci (1971) |
| Identified Regulation      | An individual’s self-realization about the importance of an action with self-regulation | Deci (1971) |
| External Regulation        | A response when an individual is obliged to perform an act | Deci (1971) |
| **Mediating Variable**     |                                                                           |              |
| Response Efficacy          | A measure of information effectiveness.                                   | Lewis et al. (2010) |
| Optimism                   | An expectation of positive life outcomes.                                | Howell and Shepperd (2016) |
| Coping Self-efficacy       | An individual’s ability to cope effectively in a situation               | Chesney et al. (2006) |
| **Dependent Variable**     |                                                                           |              |
| Online Information Avoidance| A behavior of delaying or rejecting information consumption from online sources | Sweeny et al. (2010) |

**Appendix B. Survey Instrument**

During a crisis situation such as COVID-19, you are getting lots of information from various online sources. These information are provided to you so that you can keep yourself, your family, and your community safe. While answering the below questions consider the COVID-19 pandemic situation and the online information you receive regarding the crisis. Read each item carefully. Using the scale below, please select the number that best describes your response.

| Constructs                          | Changed Items                                                                 | Source                          |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| I look for COVID-19 related information: |                                                                                  |                                 |
| Intrinsic Motivation                | IM1 Because I think the information are interesting.                           | Guay et al. (2000); Standage and Treasure (2002) |
|                                     | IM2 Because I think the information are pleasant                              |                                 |
|                                     | IM3 Because the information are fun.                                           |                                 |
|                                     | IM4 Because I feel good when acting on the information recommendations.        |                                 |
| Identified Regulation               | IR1 Because I am doing it for my own good                                     |                                 |
|                                     | IR2 Because I think the information are good for me                           |                                 |
|                                     | IR4 Because I believe the information are important for me                     |                                 |
| External Regulation                 | ER1 Because I am supposed to do it                                            |                                 |
|                                     | ER2 Because it is something that I have to do                                 |                                 |
|                                     | ER3 Because I don’t have any choice                                           |                                 |
|                                     | ER4 Because I feel that I have to do                                          |                                 |
| Fear                                | FR1 The thought of COVID-19 scares me                                         | Champion et al. (2004)          |
|                                     | FR2 When I think about COVID-19, I feel nervous                               |                                 |
|                                     | FR3 When I think about COVID-19, I get upset                                  |                                 |
|                                     | FR4 When I think about COVID-19, I get depressed                              |                                 |
|                                     | FR5 When I think about COVID-19, I get jittery                                 |                                 |
|                                     | FR6 When I think about COVID-19, my heart beats faster                       |                                 |
|                                     | FR7 When I think about COVID-19, I feel uneasy                                |                                 |
|                                     | FR8 When I think about COVID-19, I feel anxious                               |                                 |
| During COVID-19 crisis situation, how confident or certain are you that you can do the following: | | Chesney et al. (2006) |
| Problem Focused Coping              | PFC1 Break the upsetting COVID-19 problem down into smaller parts             |                                 |
|                                     | PFC2 Sort out what can be changed, and what cannot be changed regarding the crisis of COVID-19 |                                 |
|                                     | PFC5 Think about one part of the COVID-19 problem at a time                   |                                 |
| Emotion-Focused Coping              | EFC1 Make unpleasant thoughts of COVID-19 go away                             |                                 |
|                                     | EFC3 Stop yourself from being upset by unpleasant thoughts of COVID-19        |                                 |
|                                     | EFC4 Keep from feeling sad about COVID-19                                     |                                 |
| Social Support                      | SS1 Get friends to help you with the things you need in COVID-19 crisis       |                                 |

(continued on next page)
Appendix C. Descriptive statistics of survey respondents (N = 352)

| Characteristic                  | Number of Respondents | % of Total |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|------------|
| Gender                         |                        |            |
| Female                         | 121                    | 34.38%     |
| Male                           | 230                    | 65.62%     |
| Others                         | 1                      | 0.28%      |
| Age Group                      |                        |            |
| 18–35 years                    | 202                    | 57.39%     |
| Over 35–50 years               | 96                     | 27.27%     |
| Over 50 years                  | 54                     | 15.34%     |
| Educational Qualification      |                        |            |
| Less than an Associate degree  | 30                     | 8.52%      |
| Associate degree               | 30                     | 8.52%      |
| Bachelor’s degree              | 202                    | 57.39%     |
| Master’s degree                | 86                     | 24.43%     |
| Doctorate degree and beyond    | 4                      | 1.14%      |

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