Fundamentals of communication, P.R. and leadership

Georgios P. Piperopoulos

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Georgios P. Piperopoulos

Fundamentals of communication, PR and leadership

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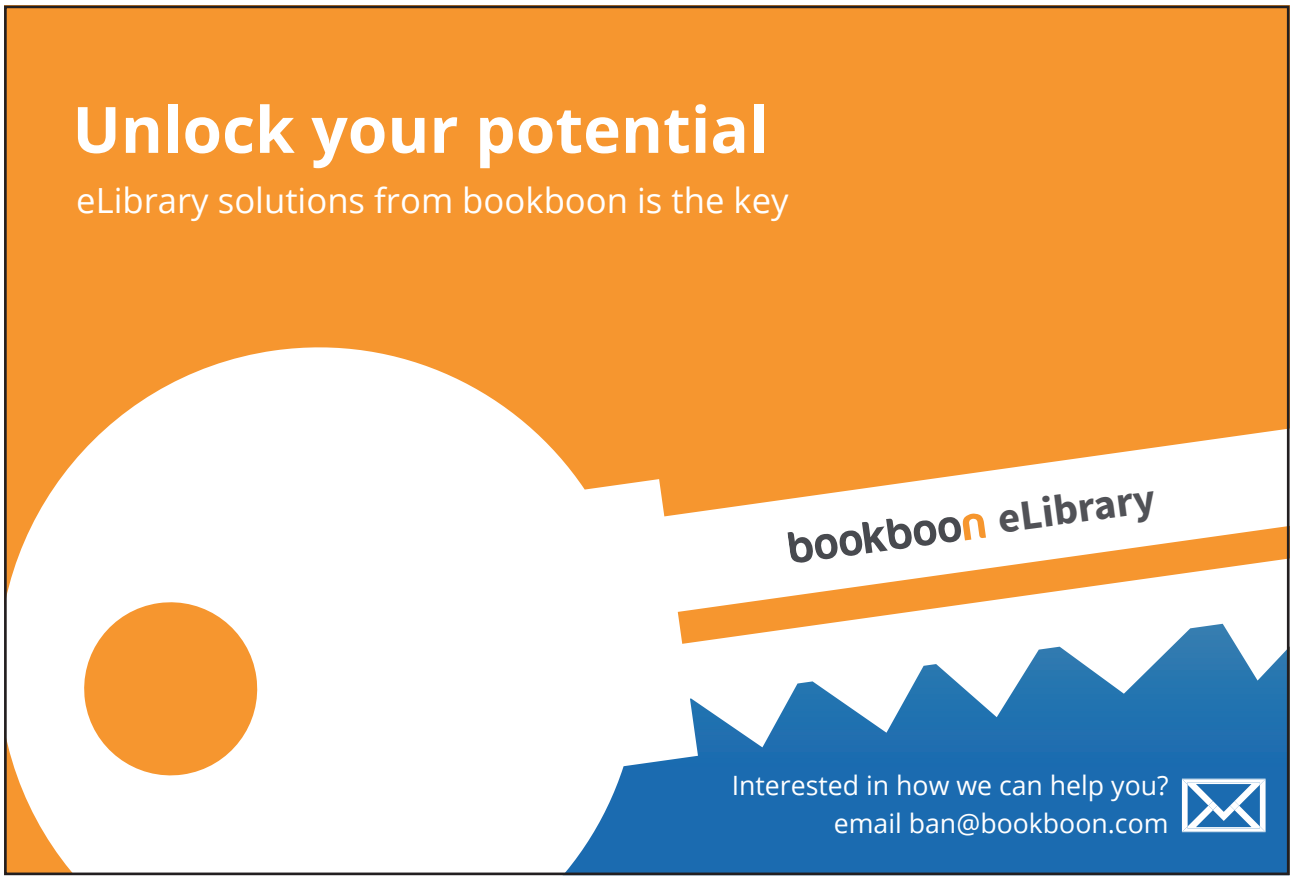

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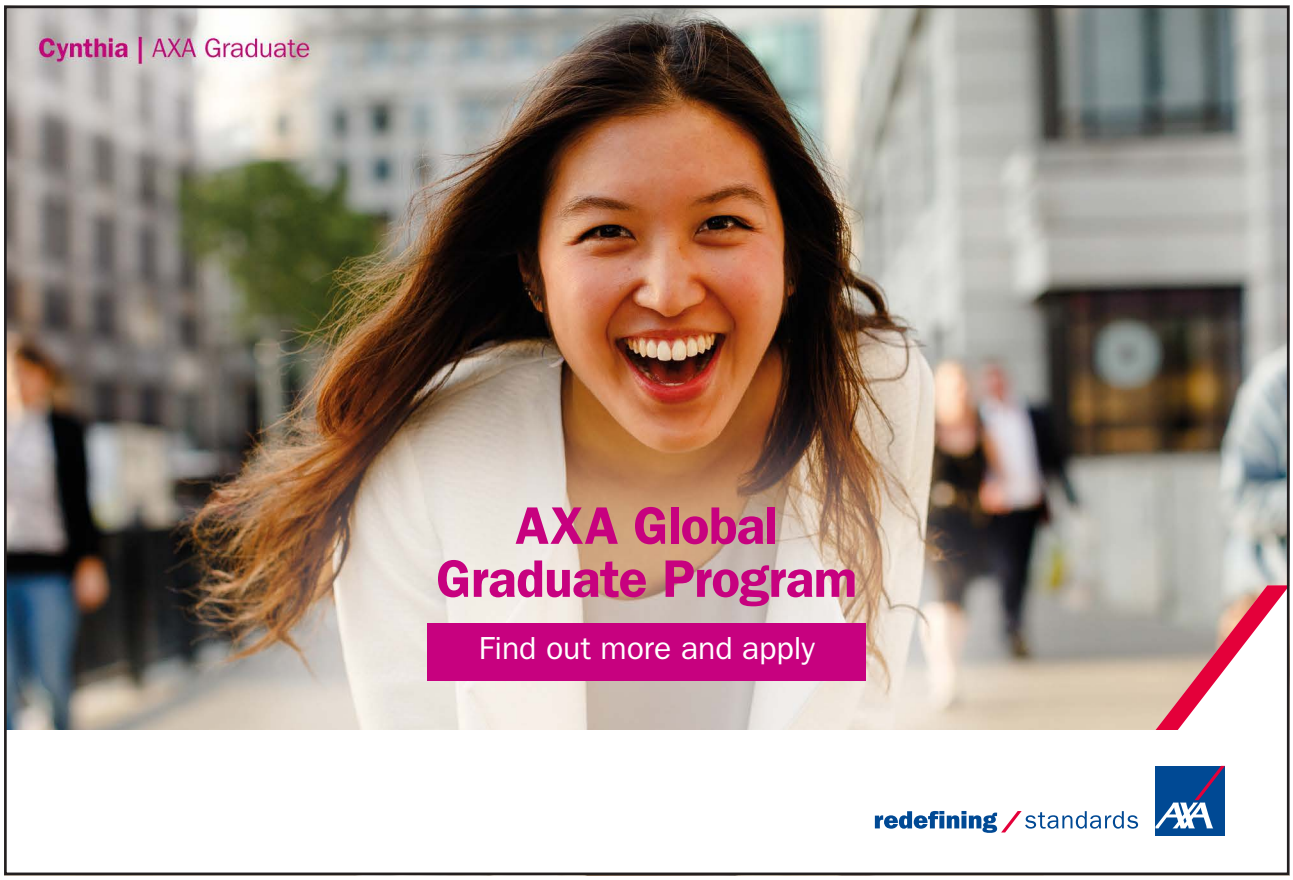

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To my son Dr Panagiotis (Panos) G. Piperopoulos

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Prolegomena…

As we progress into the second decade of the third millennium, we experience, on a daily basis, that our world is inundated with overwhelming amounts of visual, auditory and written messages. These messages carry a tremendous, perhaps immeasurable amount of meanings, making it almost impossible for many people to receive, understand and use these meanings in a positive way in their daily lives.

In the first section of this textbook, we will be taking a brief glimpse, through available historical documents, at media realities of the 19th century in the USA and will come across the appearance and availability of Newspapers of the 'penny press' type, which managed to conquer the masses and simultaneously the collective imagination of large audiences. Despite its brevity, such a glimpse will bring forth the then prevalent 'zeitgeist' (the spirit of the times) which was encapsulated in the belief held by their owners and the public that the printed media had become and were destined to be the absolute protagonists in the process of information dissemination. Today's realities proved this belief to be mere wishful thinking.

Early in the 20th century, the century characterized by two World Wars, radio was invented and soon became popular and ultimately readily available to large numbers of people. Radio broadcasts materialized and brought to reality the tremendous capacity to carry, almost immediately as they occurred, news and other messages to large audiences dispersed in vast geographic areas bypassing, in a historically unprecedented fashion geographic limitations.

Radio, and radio broadcasts, as the means, as the channel of conveying messages from senders to receivers, reigned supreme for several decades providing those that controlled it with up to then unknown powers in communicating their messages to large audiences. With radio as the protagonist, gaining the first role in the process of information and opinion dissemination, the printed media had to assume a new role. Indeed, surpassed by the live immediacy of radio broadcasts, the printed media assumed the role of providing to the mass audiences in-depth analyses and editorial views published half or a whole day after events had occurred, in afternoon or morning editions of newspapers. When major events did occur newspapers resorted to the now familiar 'extra edition' but even in such cases Newspapers could not compete with the immediacy of radio broadcasted news and opinion statements.

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The development of the moving pictures as films projected on large screens, constituted a landmark in visual communications. Initially films started as 'silent movies' lacking synchronized sound and spoken dialogues. In these movies actors and actresses conveyed messages through 'pantomime' and at intervals cards on which some words or sentences were printed were projected on the screen as part of the intended film script. Eventually, the development of relevant technology made possible the production of the so-called 'talkies' incorporating sound as musical background and voices in dialogues. The film industry, through its products, managed to deliver messages to very large audiences worldwide. Indeed, for a number of years 'news' were presented to cinema goers as 'trailers' on the screen prior to the presentation of the movie they went to the cinemas to see. The film industry was, and obviously continues to be dominated by the studios located in Hollywood, California and a few western European production studios. For several decades of the 20th century the film industry and radio programs became progressively the protagonists in Mass Media of Communication threatening the established stronghold of the press (both newspapers and magazines) in reaching far greater audiences faster than ever dreamed possible before.

As noted above, radio provided the tremendous advantage of conveying 'live' news and opinions to their audiences compared to the newspapers handicap of presenting 'ex post facto' news, their analyses and editorial opinions in late afternoon or next morning editions. The printed media, however, in the form of morning and afternoon newspapers were able to provide their audiences with in depth commentary retaining a competitive advantage compared to radio messages. Additionally, embodying the maxim of *'Verba Volant, Scripta Manent'* (spoken words fly, written words remain) they could be read by several members of each family and perhaps again and again, if needed, so as to gain better understanding.

The role of radio and the film industry was surpassed within the time span of only a few decades, especially in the second half of the 20th century, once Television was invented and through mass production television sets became available to increasingly large numbers of households. Transmitting initially in black and white and eventually in full colour, television programs assumed the unquestionable role of being the major 'opinion maker and moulder' medium on a world-wide scale. It would not be far-fetched to assume, perhaps, that this unprecedented power over vast audiences lead Marshall McLuhan to respond with his well known by now *'the medium is the message'* aphorism-maxim when asked by journalists what meanings or messages was TV conveying to its viewers.

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In the last few decades, however, High-Tech products and digital technology, literally progressing by leaps and bounds, has given to Information and Communication Technology and its various artefacts the leading role in sending and receiving messages, that is in the communication process on a global scale. It is at this point that an interesting and fast developing reality relating to information dissemination through the so-called Mass Media of Communication does merit a comment. The reality is that currently, on a global scale, there exists a historically unprecedented broad spectrum of printed, auditory and visual media in the form of newspapers and magazines, radio and television stations. The concern raised in various quarters is not related to the vast numbers of newspapers, magazines, radio and television stations but to the fact that, through mergers and acquisitions, a diminishing number of privately owned companies belonging to a handful of so-called 'media moguls' owns and controls these media on national and international levels. The possibility that a small number of corporations could end up controlling the mass media is emerging as a potential threat to the needed polyphony in the news flow.

All along, and in all fairness, it is generally admitted that the printed 'messages' in the form of books which, historically, were shelved and preserved in the family's bookcases, as well as in town and city Libraries, kept convincingly fulfilling their role in conveying meanings to large audiences as did weekly, bi-weekly and monthly magazines. In fact while some experts in the fields of communication and media believe that the modern forms of digital technology will fully overtake the printing business, others insist that the readers' have the need and do enjoy holding a physical copy of a newspaper, a magazine, or a book. This reality, according to the fans of 'printed media' will preclude their total disappearance from the information and communication field.

The book you are reading, in digital form and as its title suggests, constitutes an introductory text made up of 15 chapters allocated in three parts: Communication, Public Relations and Leadership. One of the objectives of this book is to familiarize the readers, on an introductory level and in a heuristic manner, with the three fascinating areas contained in its title.

Admittedly, a superficial, but not frivolous, Google or Amazon search on the subjects of Communication, Public Relations and Leadership will bring forth the reality that there exist already in print or in kindle form dozens of thousands of academic books and research articles as well as popular books and articles. This may justifiably give rise to a question relating to the need and usefulness of publishing yet another book dealing with these subjects. I will provide you below with two answers in case you are harbouring such a question in your mind.

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The first relates to the publisher's invitation to me to write this book. I was pleased by the call and impressed by the realization that the very innovative entrepreneurial approach adopted by the publishing House 'Book-Boon' would make this (as all of their books) available to the readers free of charge! The perpetual popular maxim stating that usually *'what is free is of no value'* does not apply in this case as the quality of books published by 'Book-Boon' proves. The second answer has to do with my belief that there is nothing wrong with adding another book as a new and useful synthesis of things which other authors have said in their personal creative way. Surely the final decision on the usefulness of this book and the value return for the time invested in reading it rests totally and exclusively with you as the readers.

The subtitle 'I communicate therefore I am' paraphrases the now classic maxim attributed to the French philosopher Rene Descartes which was stated in Latin as 'cogito ergo sum' (in English 'I think therefore I am'). I had paraphrased the Descartes aphorism initially in Greek rendering it as *'Επικοινωνώ άρα Υπάρχω'* (in English 'I Communicate therefore I am') in the beginning of the 1990 decade and used it as the title for my television show which aired every Saturday evening for several years in Greece's National Television Station 'channel 3' transmitting from my hometown of Thessaloniki. Deliberating on the style, form and content of the show I decided to adopt in a TV program what was a widely known type in radio shows where listeners call in and are heard live on the air having a dialogue with the presenter. In my television show, I would open the show with a brief monologue introducing a socially significant theme, for example, friendship, relations between parents and children, home violence, happiness and success, substance abuse, antisocial behaviour etc. Following my short monologue, the Station's telephone operators would open up the lines and viewers had a short live dialogue with me offering their views on the specific subject discussed in my show.

Due to the success of my TV program I was asked to do a one hour same format live show at the National Radio Station channel 3 of Thessaloniki, Greece. It should be noted that the radio show aired every Wednesday noon and was broadcasted in all three radio frequencies, namely FM, AM and SW so that it could be received by Greek listeners, not only within the physical boundaries of Greece, but other Greeks living in global 'Diaspora' as well.

My television and radio shows titled 'I communicate therefore I am' coincided with my appointment to the Chair of Communication and Public Relations at the Department of Business Administration of the University of Macedonia in Thessaloniki. This was the first Chair on 'communication and public relations' established in a National Greek University.

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My decision to paraphrase Descartes' maxim *'I think therefore I am' to 'I communicate therefore I am'* related to my perception of the 'zeitgeist' of Descartes' era when the human ability to think was considered as proof of our existence. My feeling is that in our epoch, the 'proof' of our existence rests on and relates to the various facets of communication. A brief look at the trillions of messages exchanged on mobiles, the 24/7 broadcasts of a vast array of radio and television programs, and the dozens of thousands of newspapers and magazines printed in all languages around the globe should serve to support this perception. Relating to the core verb 'think' in Descartes' statement and the core verb 'communicate' in my choice to paraphrase it I will ask you to bear with me in taking a brief look, in a purely philosophical sense, to relevant propositions made twenty five centuries ago by Plato an Aristotle

Two millennia before Descartes, Plato, speaking through Socrates and going beyond the concept of 'sofrosyne' (the Greek word '*σωφροσύνη*' means wisdom) introduced in his dialogue 'Charmides' the concept of '*επιστήμη*' which in English, means 'knowledge of knowledge', from the Greek philosophic concept of '*νόησις νοήσεως*' interpreted by many as 'science'. Relevant in this context is also Aristotle's statement, preceding that of Descartes and introduced in his 'Nicomachean Ethics' : "*…whenever we perceive, we are conscious that we perceive, and whenever we think, we are conscious that we think, and to be conscious that we are perceiving or thinking is to be conscious that we exist..*" (The Nicomachean Ethics, 1170a25 ff.)

Closing the 'prolegomena' I owe an explanation to the readers concerning the fact that in my book they will encounter frequent references to the two ancient Greek philosophers Plato and Aristotle. This, in all honesty and certainly not in an apologetic fashion, is not due to some subconscious, on my part, tendency towards ethnocentrism. It is dictated by the persevering realization that a variety of concepts and terminology used in our current study, discussion and understanding of communication, public relations and leadership (as is the case with concepts and terminology in other social and physical or natural sciences) have their roots in the thinking and writings of these men. It is within this '*Weltanschauung' (from the German philosophical viewpoint)* that I bring to your attention a much publicized quotation from a longer statement made by the British philosopher Alfred North Whitehead. The eminent British scholar was clearly, as he publicly had admitted, an Aristotelian and had served as the President of the UK Aristotelian Society in 1922-23. In 1929 publishing as a metaphysical treatise the 'Gifford lectures' he had successfully and with great acclaim delivered at Edinburgh University by the title 'Process and Reality' he wrote and I quote from the 1979 Free Press edition of that book:

'…The safest general characterization of the European philosophical tradition is that it consists of a series of footnotes to Plato. I do not mean the systematic scheme of thought which scholars have doubtfully extracted from his writings. I allude to the wealth of general ideas scattered through them...' (p.39)

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Part One – Communication

The first section of this book aims to familiarize the reader with the various processes of communication in the multitude of forms we encounter it.

The word 'communication' is directly derived from a Latin verb (commūnicāre, commūnicāt-) meaning 'to share, communicate, or impart'. This in turn comes from a Latin adjective, commūnis, meaning 'common or shared locally'. The term originally meant sharing of tangible things, i.e. food, land, goods, and property. Today, it is applied to knowledge and information processed by living things or by computers.

Going beyond the primeval person-to-person type of the communication process, historical evidence confirms that in their communications the ancient Greeks used fire at night and sun ray reflecting mirrors in daytime while the Romans used the communication beacon towers. In their communications the American Indians used daytime smoke signals and night time fire arrows while drums and the sounds they produce were used for communication purposes by various African tribes.

From the above simple and often cumbersome ancient communication systems mankind has succeeded in inventing and using, for communication purposes, spoken and written language, the printing press, land line telephone and now mobile/cellular phones, wired and wireless telegraph, radio and television. It is commonplace today to communicate using modern digital systems conveying on a global scale as well as in outer space instantly, iconic, auditory and printed messages aided by satellites orbiting around the earth in outer space.

Indeed, personnel of private and governmental enterprises and organizations, as well as journalists operating internationally, make extensive use of modern IT means, media and artefacts (including Skype) as well as the 'e-mails', which are free to send and receive and so their use has increased exponentially.

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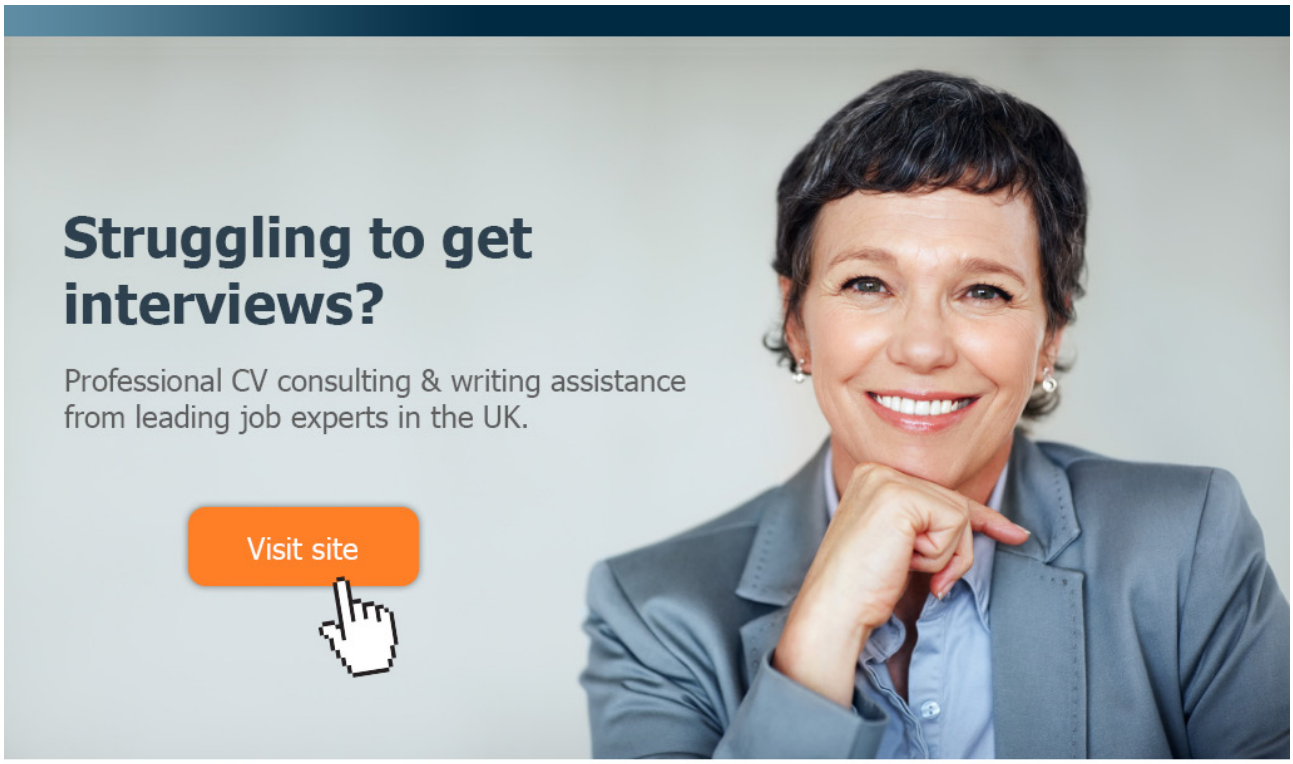
1 Communication is a universal phenomenon

All living organisms communicate in ways appropriate to each species for reasons which range from transferring information relating to areas where food supplies have been located to a warning of impending dangers thus serving the survival of the group or colony. The communication channels and media used include pheromones which are communication hormones or other types of chemical signalling, body movements in the form of dance such as the one performed by bees, vocal expressions and or body language among monkeys, felines and canines. Among humans the communication process which will be presented in chapter 2 involves more intricate verbal as well as non-verbal and written messages and relies less on pheromones, chemicals and body language, which are not as crucial to humans as they are, due mainly to the lack of the ability to communicate verbally, to organisms located in the lower rungs of the phylogenetic scale.

This chapter will introduce the readers to the concept of communication and the variety of means, media or channels living organisms use in order to communicate with each other within the group to which they belong and/or the colonies in which they exist.



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1.1 System of 4 components

The communication process, viewed in its rudimentary form, is made up of a system of four distinct components or elements, namely 'the Sender', the 'Receiver', the 'Message' and the "Channel or Medium".

The communication process originates with the 'Sender', who emits a 'Message' through what is judged on a species determined instinctual basis or on an individual animal basis as the proper and most effective "Medium or Channel" to deliver it to the intended 'Receiver'.

A linear scheme of the communication process

SENDER ---------- MEDIUM ---------- MESSAGE ---------- RECEIVER

1.2 Communication among ants and bees

Socio-biologist Edward O. Wilson (1990) a noted myrmecologist (the person who studies ants) in a book titled 'The Ants' co-authored with Bert Hoelldobler, has noted that among ants communication takes place by the use of a variety of pheromones in carrying messages to other members of the species living in the same colony. Specifically, an ant that discovers food located at a distance from its colony upon its return to their habitat 'informs' other ants where food may be found as it leaves a 'pheromone path' leading them to the reservoir of the desired food.

Karl von Frisch, the Austrian ethologist, has been acclaimed as one of the World's most noted authorities on bee culture and shared the 1973 Nobel-prize in Physiology-Medicine along with Konrad Lorenz and Nikolas Tinbergen for his life work. His book, 'The Dance language and Orientation of Bees' (1967) epitomized 50 years of research with bees. Karl von Frisch noted that bees, upon returning to the beehive, 'inform' other bees of a place where they can find the desired nectar or pollen by performing the so-called "waggle-bee-dance" which give other forager bees information on distance and direction of the desired food reservoir. It is obvious that contrary to the ants, the communication process based solely on "pheromones" would not suffice for bees as they don't walk on the ground like ants but they fly.

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Sir Patrick Bateson the noted British biologist-ethologist in a chapter written in the book edited by D. H. Mellor 'Ways of Communicating' (1990) has added to the 'waggle-bee-dance' of Karl von Frisch the dimensions of light and darkness and the angle in which other bees perceive the returning foragers' dance. Light, darkness and perception of the dance seem to relate to the parameter of distance in further detailing vital and needed information for other foragers of the colony thus enabling them to locate the food reserve. In that same essay Patrick Bateson makes reference to the research efforts of Dorothy Cheney and Robert Seyfarth with the vervet species of monkeys in Africa. Cheney and Seyfarth 'How Monkeys See the World: Inside the Mind of Another Species' (1990) in studying vervet monkeys concentrated their efforts on the 'alarm calls' these monkeys make in 'informing and alerting' other members of their group sharing the same habitat of an approaching predator.

Cheney and Seyfarth having carefully recorded the sounds monkeys make reproduced them in non-threatening zoo conditions eliciting appropriate response and behaviour to members of the vervet colony residing in the zoo. The two researches specified that the 'guard-vervet' produces a low grunt in response to eagles, a high chutter in response to snakes and a rather pure tone in response to leopards. The researchers were able to verify that each type of sound elicits in the 'receivers' of the message appropriate avoidance behaviour to oncoming danger.

1. 3 Communication among canines & felines

Bringing the matter of communication closer to human dwellings, especially to apartments and houses occupied by zoophiles, it is interesting to note how two of the most familiar and fully domesticated friends of man, canines and felines, (dogs and cats), who spend a lot of their time in human residences, communicate among themselves and their 'masters'.

In a book dealing specifically with this matter, Burch (2011) draws our attention to the ears of a dog which are held in their natural position when the dog is relaxed; they will be eased backward as a sign of friendly greeting or will be raised and turned toward the direction from which a stimulus is coming arousing the dog. A dog that is wagging his tail may not be conveying animosity toward us unless tail wagging is coupled with tense muscles and stiff legs. Barking can signify a variety of messages, feelings and dispositions, ranging from expressing happiness to warning that someone is coming while, simultaneously, warning the oncoming visitor that a dog is present and from expressing playful wishes to asking us to stop what we are doing.

On the other hand, analyzing the body language of cats Dunphy (2011) indicates that cats' tail wagging tell us a different story than dogs' tail wagging; the speed with which the tail is wagged indicates the various levels of the animal being upset. Usually relaxed cats walk with their tail down, they may greet us with their tale up while the unhappy cat moves the tip of the tail. Parallel to the dog's barking is the cats' vocal expression varying from purring to meowing.

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Offensive attitudes in both dogs and cats are expressed by 'body language' when the animals try to look as big and impressive as possible, raising their bodies, stiffening their legs and arching their backs. On the contrary dogs and cats express defensive attitudes by trying to lower their body volume, fully dropping to the ground with ears lowered while their tails remain motionless.

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2 Human Communication

In this chapter the readers will be provided with a closer focused, more analytic view, at the broad term of human communication which encompasses all means, methods, techniques and strategies which through proper use enable one person to pass information on to another or a group of persons, or enable one mind to influence another or a group of minds.

2.1 The scheme of human communication

The scheme of 4 elements, or components, of the communication process presented earlier differs in the case of human communication as is shown in the schematic representation below. The 'difference' relates to the fact that in human communication, the process includes the element of 'Noise' which represents interference that may hinder or totally disable the process of successful transmission and reception of one or a series of messages. Additionally the difference involves the element of 'feedback' which the message 'Receiver' in responding sends back to the 'Sender'.

An integrated linear scheme of the communication process

{NOISE} {NOISE}

SENDER - MEDIUM -- *(encoding)* - MESSAGE - *(decoding)* - RECEIVER

{FEEDBACK}

In human communication, it should be noted here, the 'Message', prior to being transmitted, is 'encoded' by the 'Sender' in the proper verbal (sometimes and non-verbal) form and the 'Receiver' who will get it as a visual, auditory, olfactory or tactile stimulus must be able to go through the process of properly and successfully 'decoding' it so that it will be understood.

Feedback can serve as a simple acknowledgement of a message received or, as is the case in the so-called 'two way' communication process, 'feedback' helps in reversing the order of a message 'Sender' and message 'Receiver' as the 'Receiver' responds to the original 'Sender' assuming the role of 'Sender' having successfully 'decoded' and understood the 'Message'.

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In practical terms communication can have a single, one way direction, where the 'Sender' emits the 'Message' which may or may not require or elicit any feedback or such feedback is not made possible in a form referred to as a 'monologue', or it can operate on a reciprocal basis, enabling a two directional interchange commonly referred to as a 'dialogue'.

As you read this book, it is obvious that the 4 elements of communication mentioned above are fully present. The "Sender" in this case happens to be the author of this book, the "Receiver" is you the reader, the "Medium" consists of the text made up of the words that are presented here and the "Message" is synonymous with the meanings this text conveys to you.

In the case of reading a book (or for that matter any type of text printed on paper or appearing in digital electronic form); in the case of watching a TV program or listening to a radio show, the communication process is clearly confined to the monologue type or one way communication since, generally speaking, the "Receiver" cannot respond to the 'Messages' conveyed by the 'Sender' through the same 'Medium'. It is true, however, that modern means of communication provide the chance to have a so called 'interactive', live, two-way discussion, in other words a dialogue with the TV or radio program presenters, through the use of a land-line or mobile telephone or other modern IT media.

2.2 Defining human communication

Among humans communication arises from the need to acquire information, the desire to provide information, as well as the need to establish social and at times emotional contacts. Communication is the art of successful exchange of information which culminates in the establishment of mutual understanding between two or more individuals, an individual and a group or two or more groups of individuals.

The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary defines communication as 'imparting, conveying or exchange of ideas, knowledge etc by speech, writing or signs.' On the other hand, Webster's Dictionary defines communication as 'the art of expressing ideas' or 'the science of transmitting information.'

In his writings Max Weber, the noted German sociologist - economist considered the communication process as a form of social interaction related to subjective meanings oriented toward and influencing the thinking, emotions and behaviour of the actors involved in it.

For C. W. Morris (1946) an influential writer in the second half of the 20th century human communication is the mechanism through which human relations emerge and develop with all symbols of thought and their transposition in space and preservation through time.

Finally, for C. R. Wright (1959) communication is considered to comprise the process of carrying meanings between various interacting persons.

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Students, production, sales and service employees, professionals, middle and upper level management personnel as well as politicians frequently make and express value judgements relating to the communication process and communicating persons such as *'there goes a great communicator'* or *'there is a person lacking communication skills'* and even *'things could have worked out better if both parties had interpreted and were able to understand the exchanged messages correctly'*.

2.3 Language in human communication

A general consensus appears to exist on the serious problem of ascertaining the exact historical period of the appearance and use of language as a verbal communication means, since the ability of human to use verbal expressions has not left direct evidence as fossils. In very broad terms it could be said that the chronological stages of verbal communication among humans begun with the development of speech at a period estimated by various academic researchers to be somewhere between 70 and 40 millennia B.C. Drawings of humans and animal figures and other objects on cave walls is estimated by some researchers to have taken place between 35 and 10 millennia B.C., while the first written language texts, in rudimentary forms, are placed between 4 and 3 millennia B.C.

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Humans are considered to be the only species using mainly, but not exclusively, a language in spoken or inscribed, i.e. in verbal or printed form, in our communication process. In the academic world it is understood and broadly accepted that the various aspects of language content and structure, from letters and words to grammar and syntax, are mainly the domain of research and analysis by linguists and philologists. However, to the extent that the words we use as we communicate carry both connotations and denotations, a brief look at human languages is relevant and can justifiably be of great interest to communication specialists.

Vedic Sanskrit, the language of the Vedas, the oldest texts of Hinduism, dating between the mid 4th to the mid 3rd millennium B.C. is considered by some scholars to be the oldest known human language. Among academics it is usually accepted that Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Tamazight, Hebrew and Tamil are the oldest major languages still being used and spoken today. It is estimated that in our times there may be up to 6,000 languages spoken in the world but almost 90% of them are used by less than 100,000 persons. According to UNESCO (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) the most widely spoken languages by the number of native speakers and by persons that have acquired them as a second language are, in a decreasing order, Mandarin Chinese, English, Spanish, Hindi, Arabic, Bengali, Russian, Portuguese, Japanese, German and French.

2.4 Words in a language

Words are the smallest elements in every language that can be expressed and stand on their own in contrast to *morphemes* which constitute the smallest unit in the grammar of each language but cannot stand on their own. Words in their written form are small or larger syntheses of letters (*consonants, vowels, syllables, diphthongs and morphemes*) and of *phonemes* in their spoken, verbal utterance. Words can be uttered in isolation or may constitute the building blocks of phrases and sentences in each and every language. Words, indisputably, do carry in each language specific and agreed upon meanings both for those uttering them and those receiving them.

There appear to be words used in academic circles and popular writings as examples of a verbal or written form carrying what appear to be universal implications such as the word *"mother"*. This word, universally, refers to a woman who has given birth to, or plays the role of a surrogate to one or more children she has adopted. The word is not exhausted by this description as it may give rise to a number of emotion-laden perceptions such as "a loving and caring mother" or "an authoritarian and cold mother" and even "a single mother separated by her husband by divorce, abandonment or death and left alone to care for her children".

2.5 Signs and Symbols

Progressing beyond spoken and written words even a brief discussion of signs and symbols behoves us to start by placing the appropriate emphasis on their role and the importance they dramatize in the human communication process.

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Ohler, (1987) has noted that:

'…A sign is something that stands for something else and is understood by someone or has meaning for someone. This common sense definition of the sign has the appearance of being self evident at first but on further reflection ceases to look so simple.'(p.5)

In the same work, Ohler goes on to present the three aspects or elements of the sign, which stand in a special relationship to each other constituting what can logically be perceived as a three place, or a triadic relationship, namely: (1) the sign itself, (2) the sign in relation to its objects and (3) the sign in relations to its interpretant. Since a sign is anything that stands for something else it means that a sign is a representation of an object and implies a connection between itself and its object. Signs are used by humans to represent something from an idea or an experience, to a feeling or an object. A natural sign bears a causal relation to its object so that, by common consensus, a thunder is accepted to be the sign of storm.

A conventional sign signifies by consensus a specific agreement, as is the case in written forms of a language, where the semi-colon signifies a break stronger than a coma but not as strong as the period that signifies the end of a sentence. In the use of sign language a motion or gesture by which a thought is expressed or a command or wish is made known have conventional meanings and are used in place of words or to represent a complex notion. A sign is understood to have literal meaning, i.e. its meaning is simple and straightforward and emanates, as a matter of conventional agreement, among people who use that particular sign.

A symbol is in clear contrast to a sign since it stands for another thing, an example being a flag which stands as the symbol of a nation. A symbol may represent an idea, or a process or a physical entity. The purpose of using symbols is to communicate meaning. In traffic signs an inverted triangle drawn on the pavement or shown on a road sign is a symbol for 'giving way' while a red octagon is used to indicate to the drivers their obligation to 'STOP'. In our formal and informal communications personal names such as John or Jane stand to represent individuals, while a red rose presented from one person to another symbolizes affection and perhaps love.

Symbols, contrary to signs, have complex meanings and unlike signs they do not posses only 'literal' meanings, but also additional meaning(s) beyond the literal. As symbols may have more than one meaning it turns out that some of the most significant universally known symbols do convey an indefinite range of meanings. It so happens that sometimes the literal meaning of a symbol is absurd, the ensuing result being that the symbolic meaning over-rides and cancels out the literal meaning.

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Eco (1986) has noted that etymologically the word symbol *'σύμβολο'* meaning a token, derives its origin from the Greek verb *'συμβάλλω'* which is a synthesis of *'συμ'* meaning 'together' and *'βάλλω'* meaning to throw, to cast, such as the stroke of a missile.

The origin of the word symbol has its own interesting history. A symbol was used as a point of recognition and referred to an object that had been divided into two or more parts by its original holder and passed on to two or more persons. When, at some later future point, the persons holding each the one-half or fragment of the original object met, it sufficed for them to put the two or more pieces together restructuring the original form of the object, and thus enabling them to identify their commonality or bond.

Taking our discussion to another realm we will note that it is not easy to ascertain the role drawings on wall caves played in the process of human communication. The use of signs, in the form of paintings in caves dates considerably earlier than the period written documents on clay, marble or papyri were used. In the mid 1990's the accidental discovery by Jan Marie Chauvet, a security guard at a French regional archaeological department, shifted the centre of prehistoric art form from the southwest of France to the southeast area of the country. The relevant radiocarbon testing indicated that the images may have been created some 30-35,000 years BC although a serious debate of 'believers and doubters' has emerged and goes on since the announcement of the discovery.

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At this point it should prove to be useful to bring to the attention of the reader the fact that during the first three centuries after the death of Christ the cross had become the symbol of Christianity. The persecutions of Christians by the Roman authorities, however, lead them for security reasons, to avoid using the symbol of the cross in searching for other Christian brethren. Christians during those times used two curved intersecting lines symbolizing a fish as a means of covertly announcing their identity and seeking their brethren. Not only was this symbol easy to draw, but it also had mystical overtones in that it derived from an acronym from the letters of the Greek word for fish *'ΙΧΘΥΣ' (Ιησούς Χριστός Υιός Θεού Σωτήρ)* which translates in English as *'Jesus Christ, Son of God, Saviour.'*

Going beyond the reasons of protecting their identity as Christians, some historians and theologians have suggested that the theme of the fish was particularly suited to a religion that relied on recruitment, and the metaphor of the apostles as real life fishermen converted to 'fishers of men,' was most appropriate. Initially used, as noted above, as a secret sign during the period when Christians were persecuted by the Roman authorities, the fish symbolized the mission of the group it represented and did so very simply and most effectively. The fish sign has been found scrawled on public building walls, caves and catacombs, on trees and any place where Christians wished to leave their mark to communicate their increasing numbers and strength to their brethren in countries around the Mediterranean Basin.

2.6 Semiotics and Semiology

In the present context of discussing human communication, a brief reference should be made to *Semiotics,* the study of signs, introduced by Charles Sanders Peirce an American philosopher and to the work of Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist, who gave foundation to what he termed as *Semiology.* The two men, working independently and not aware of each other's work, established the fundamental principles that modern *semioticians* or *semiologists* (for practical purposes the terms are in essence interchangeable) have developed into the contemporary study of semiotics. It should be noted that both terms have their etymological origin in the Greek word '*semeîon*', which is, in most instances, rendered in English as *'sign*'.

Ohler (1987) has clearly stated that since Greek antiquity the term Semiotics has been used for the theory of signs and, simultaneously, the majority of terms used today in semiotic discourse can be traced back to Greek origins or to Latin translations of Greek expressions.

The origins of the theory of signs reach back as far as the sixth century B.C. and semiotic investigations can be found in Presocratics, the Sophists and Plato: discussions of the nature of language, of communication in general, of the relation of sign to signified, of the roles of speaker and listener, of the combinability and non-combinability of words, of the grounds for the possibility of false sentences and so on. These investigations were continued by Aristotle, who developed within the framework of his efforts to define, analyze and discuss logic and rhetoric what might be described as the first semiotic system including the concept of symbol.

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Barthes (1957), following the translation in the English language of his book 'Mythologies' in the second half of the 20th century, introduced semiotics as a major approach to cultural studies. Current representative writers in semiotics and semiology include, among others, the well known Italian philosopher and writer Umberto Eco and the French (Bulgarian born) philosopher and writer Julia Kristeva.

2.7 The role of context and effect in communication

Lasswell (1948) has left a legacy with his '5 w' maxim, 'who says what, in what way to whom and with what effect' while Schramm (1953) saw the likelihood of a 'sender' gaining the attention of a 'receiver' as a function of expenditure of effort relating to reward and punishment. This process, in practical terms, means that if a 'message' is easy to understand and may imply some sort of reward for the 'receiver' then it is more likely to gain attention.

At this point it should be emphasized that the communication process is not fully covered and exhausted by the scheme of the four component-elements, (Sender, Receiver, Medium, Message) and the two concepts of 'noise' and 'feedback' added to them as presented earlier. A significant concept which must be additionally included in this discussion is that of the 'context' which is to be understood as the physical, socio-cultural and psychological environment, in which the communication process is taking place. The concept of 'context' is broad enough to also include the participating individuals' personalities and the relationships existing between 'Sender' and 'Receiver' in their private, personal lives or in their respective or mutually shared work environment.

Finally the concept of 'effect' in the communication process should be added to the scheme of the four basic elements-components (Sender, Receiver, Medium, Message) and the added 'noise', 'feedback' and 'context' components. The concept of 'effect' helps to bring to a fruitful integration the communication paradigm as it includes both immediately visible results as well as others which are not immediately visible but materialize and emerge at a later time as related by-products of a successful communication process.

2.8 Barriers to communication

As noted earlier, ever present in the schematic representation of the 4 element-components system of the communication process is the concept of 'noise' which refers to and includes all forms of interference that can hinder or fully obliterate the successful transmission and reception of each and every message. Noise may take a variety of forms including, but not limited to, physical distractions, channel or medium inadequacies and faults, language shortcomings in linguistic and expressive skills of the 'Sender' and of the 'Receiver', as well as the existing, at that particular moment, state of mind and psychological dispositions of the actors involved in the process.

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Channel noise, that is physical interference such as a radio or TV set playing loudly in a room adjacent to yours, has been the centre of interest in the work of Bernstein (1986) who has emphasized the distracting role 'noise' plays in communications and has referred to and presented a variety of physical distractions. In an anecdotal way Bernstein (1986, p. 29) refers to a television advertisement for a disinfectant which showed a toddler playing on the kitchen floor where the tiles on which germs existed were numbered. TV viewers, notes Bernstein in good humour, called to find out where they could buy the numbered kitchen floor bricks and not the advertised disinfectant.

For those of the readers ('Receivers') of the present book who are college or university students a usual type of 'noise' may relate to a roommate who has his radio, stereo set, TV or other music reproducing device playing loudly while you are trying to read and understand a complex management theory text and decode its 'messages'. Bernstein has listed a variety of 'noise' examples among which an interesting one relates to language shortcomings, or lack of linguistic skills, as is obviously the case in the misreading of a sign in a parking lot that has printed on it the message 'Fine for parking'. Such a message on a sign may be interpreted by a foreigner visiting an English speaking country as it is 'Fine or Ok to park here' while natives know that it means you will be 'fined' for parking here.

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The 1977 Tenerife Airport disaster involving a Pan American Airways Boeing 747 aircraft and a KLM Royal Dutch Airlines 747 aircraft was attributed, although there were other factors involved, to a misunderstanding of the messages exchanged over radio equipment between the captain of one aircraft and the Air Traffic Controller of the local Airport. In that tragic and unprecedented in magnitude accident 583 passengers and crew members lost their lives in what has come to be the worst aviation accident taking place not on the air but on land at the Spanish airport grounds.

Examples of channel or medium inadequacies and faults are static noises interfering in the phone conversation among 'sender' and 'receiver' using a land line, or poor strength or low quality signals on mobile phones. An interesting type of 'noise' and its various aspects which is the subject of study for Psychologists and other social or behavioural scientists refers to the type of emotional relationship that may already exist between 'Sender' and 'Receiver'. This type of Psychological 'noise' must take into account each person's emotional and stress or anxiety state at the moment 'Messages' are send and received and, in a macro-psychological view, it must also consider the structures of personalities involved, .i.e. the psychological types characterizing both the 'Sender' and the 'Receiver'.

It has been briefly stated so far, but it is imperative to point out and emphasize the fact that communication is indeed an intricate and complex process which, when successfully integrated, achieves and helps fulfil one or more of the aimed results. Reference has been made to the fact that communication takes place within a specific physical, social or cultural milieu and serves specific needs or satisfies desired goals. As communication exchange materializes, it is easy to discern the attempts persons involved in it make to understand and assess the perceptions, value systems, ideological and political beliefs, philosophies of life and personalities of one another.

Three specific barriers to effective communication of a 'Message' have been outlined by Kotler (1984, p. 605), namely, 'selective attention' signifying the fact that 'Receivers' do not pay attention to all messages attempting to reach them; 'selective distortion' which refers to a common practice of 'Receivers' twisting a message and not hearing what it says or conveys but what they would like to hear, and 'selective recall' meaning that in fact 'Receivers' retain only fractions of the multitude of the various messages they receive. Kotler has presented his perception of what he has termed as 'response hierarchy' differentiating three different responses to be elicited from the person or the public a message is addressed to. In his scheme the 'cognitive' type refers to the case of trying to put something in the receiver's mind; the 'affective' type refers to the attempt of changing the receiver's attitude while, finally, the 'behavioural' type describes the case of getting the respondent to do something.

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A variety of communication barriers are discussed by Harrison (2000) which, among other, include 'fields of experience' where the term signifies the fact that if 'Sender' and 'Receiver' do not have common fields of experience unless the 'Sender' takes the needed care and time to encode the 'Message' in ways that will enable the 'Receiver' to effectively decode and understand it this lack of common field of experience will operate as a barrier in their communication process. 'Value judgements' usually operate as barriers to effective communication in cases where the 'Receiver' is not convinced that the 'Sender' is a respectable source or when the medium through which the message is conveyed is not characterized by adequate credibility. 'Status differences' between 'Sender' and 'Receiver' who may belong to different socio-economic classes or to different ranks in the hierarchy of organizational charts of private and public enterprises and organizations may negatively affect the communication processes between them. 'Time constraints' may act as barriers to effective communication if our activities are not properly planned and so is the 'overload' coming as a result of the availability of impressive ICT (Information and Communication Technology) media which end up creating vast amounts of messages (notable among them is the volume of e-mails between company or organization personnel) for the same 'Receivers'.

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3 Body language

This chapter, dealing exclusively with the theme of body language, i.e. the use of 'non-verbal communication' among humans, will help the readers draw their own conclusions on the practical aspects of a theme which during the last few decades saw a proliferation of popular articles in the communication media but has not created but limited serious academic efforts.

3.1 Darwin's contribution

Some might consider it a 'long shot' but the author is among those who believe that Charles Darwin (1872) with his book 'The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals' brought to the forefront of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries academic and popular discussions the concept of 'body language'. Furthermore, Darwin appears to have helped the re-surfacing of a subject touched upon, but left without deep elaboration, by ancient Greek and Roman philosophers and other writers.

Proponents of the ancient ability of all mammals to communicate using 'body language', taking as a point of reference at first Darwin's work and later some brief references in published works in the emerging fields of modern psychology, psychiatry and psychoanalysis helped to start an ongoing debate on this subject. The discussions on body language as a means of non-verbal human communication, however, did not produce but limited academic dialogue during the early decades of the 20th century and, indeed, not very impressive.

The proponents of body language have consistently argued that beyond the attention paid to our verbal communication, where we learn to encode and decode meanings in words we use in our daily interaction with other human beings, we should also pay, at least some if not particular attention, to the non-verbal aspects of communication, which are present in some of the elements of body language used by humans.

Bearing the title 'body language' Julius Fast's book originally published in 1971 has since been published in many countries around the globe, not only where the dominant language is English, but translated in the national language of non-English speaking countries as well. Julius Fast's book became widely discussed in the second half of the 20th century as he managed to rekindle the theme of body language as a form of non-verbal communication and has since been followed by, literally, several thousand other books and articles on the subject by a host of other writers. Objective criticism, however, has since been centred on the fact that, at the end, such books 'promise more than they can deliver' and border on the edge separating 'scientific myth' from 'scientifically validated facts'. Lack of carefully controlled, properly executed and adequately substantiated academic research has given to the theme of 'body language' a pseudo-scientific quality and not proper academic recognition and status.

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3.2 The 'intrigue' of body language

Some quasi-scientific publications and a plethora of popular articles on the subject come to prove that people in America, Europe and other parts of the world continue to be intrigued by the promises the capacity to understand and interpret 'body language' makes. Students, laymen, businessmen, artists, politicians, public speakers and some management personnel are fascinated by the promises made to those who will be able to understand body language thus further accentuating the gap between the necessary rigor science demands and the unproven 'promises' of what appears, for the most part at this time, to be 'science fiction'.

People, are certainly magnetized by the promise that if they can learn to understand what is involved in body language then they can be able to decipher, to decode and understand, the messages a sender delivers to them unintentionally through the subconsciously dictated use of bodily motions, that is non-verbal communication symbols conveyed by body language. The attraction is intensified by the hope that understanding body language one could understand the non-verbal messages that relatives, friends, business associates and colleagues send which may carry very different meanings than the verbal or printed messages these persons emit.

3.3 Keeping matters at 'arm's length'

The author of this book belongs to that group of social and behavioural scientists and communication – P.R. practitioners and specialists who adhere to the position that we do not fully discard as totally useless the idea that, as mammals, we humans do transmit and receive non-verbal messages. The underlying basis of this position is that if properly trained we can be able to decipher received body language messages, but we continue to hold the utilitarian value of learning to decode and understand such messages 'at arms-length' so long as both the validity and the reliability of this theory have not been properly established and tested.

In the paragraphs that follow, for the sake of covering as broadly as possible the general framework of communication, some data which regard body language will be presented keeping in mind the framework of reservations mentioned above. It is hoped that you the readers will activate and invoke your critical faculties in trying to understand the more general context of non-verbal communication and keep intact your ability to differentiate fact from fiction, myth from reality.

According to the proponents and students of body language, each one of us has a given way in which we tend to cross our hands on our chests while we are standing indicating feelings of insecurity and the need to remain protected from by staying 'closed' to the external world. Furthermore, we all have adapted specific ways in which we cross one leg over the other leg while seated. Our adapted manner of hands or legs crossing seems to be an outward expression of our subjective emotional states (i.e. insecurity or refusal to 'open-up' to the people around us) and of emotions that may arise in us at a given time towards certain persons or realities we are faced and are dealing with.

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If I were to ask you to proceed and cross your legs now, while you are reading this paragraph, you will most certainly do it in the usual, habitually established and dominant way you have been doing it all along while seated at your desk having in front of you a computer, laptop or other device you are using to access this book (i.e. left leg over right leg, or vice versa). Now, at this specific moment, I will kindly ask you to change the way you have already crossed your legs and thus reverse the way you are habitually accustomed to doing it and is familiar to you. You should not be surprised if, with the exception of those who, as a dominant pattern can interchange the order of left leg-over right and right leg over-left without feeling uncomfortable, the rest of you will soon enough start to feel somewhat awkward and uncomfortable by going against your habitually adapted leg-crossing style and manner.

The movement of our arms and hands, the grimaces we make with our faces as well as more general body postures, may end up in the span of the hours of a day we are awake and interacting with others by us telling as many as 200 lies to the persons we are transacting with. In simple arithmetic, taking into account that these persons reciprocate with their subconsciously dictated behaviour toward us, this means that in the course of a day's interaction we receive or 'tell' to the person(s) we are dealing with one lie every 5 minutes.

Paul Ekman (1999, 2003) is perhaps the most easily recognizable American psychologist whose life-time research concentrated in the study of expressions of the human face (micro-expressions) which reveal internal emotional states. Ekman, in certain ways, has furthered some aspects of the classic pioneer published work of Charles Darwin. From the early 1970's and up to the present time, Ekman labouring in his research lab at the University of California San Francisco, has identified 46 muscle movements of the face claiming that they reveal inner emotional states. An interesting finding (for whatever it may be worth) of this research, as reported by Ekman, is that the best performance in identifying persons who are lying (with a success rate of nearly 73%) has been shown by agents of the CIA, officials of Federal Law Enforcement Bodies, some sheriffs of the County of Los Angeles State of California and some clinical psychologists.

3.4 The role 'culture' plays

Darwin, in his classic writings, supported the view that the language of the body is common to all people regardless of their ethnic, social and cultural differences. It is a universal given, save exceptions due to specific reasons, that children 'touch' each other, hug each other and hug older persons just because children do not have the inhibitions in touching that adults do. Such inhibitions are easily observable among more mature, at least as far as age is concerned, individuals, who, in the process of growing up, have ended up being more 'uptight' and obviously follow the unwritten dictates to keep our hands away from other persons. In other words, unlike children, who are open to hugging and embracing because they are not afraid to do so, we avoid such behaviour because 'body contact and hugging' may frighten us or the person(s) we attempt to hug.

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Many researchers have opposed the initial position of Darwin with sociologists, social anthropologists, psychologists and communication specialists stating, contrary to Darwinian views, that cultural and social factors give a variety of meanings to specific arms or body movements. In this context, it should be noted that specific examples of body language, hands and arms or torso movements, may have acquired different meanings as they were shaped by the influence of socio cultural factors. A simple example of this process may be found in the familiar clasping of our hands in applause and approval as is usual in most western cultures, while hand clasping in other cultures may express pain, suffering and perhaps even wailing.

It was mentioned above that according to proponents of body language communication, we may be sending or receiving a 'lie' almost every five minutes in the hours we are awake and interacting with other persons. In respect to this claim, with even a quick glance in the plethora of popular books and articles that deal with body language, a reader can locate that there are 4 significant ways in determining that a person is lying, namely:

Repeated movement of only one shoulder (irrespective of left or right) signifies that the person, if not outright lying, is definitely not telling the truth.

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Repeated motions indicating 'nervousness' such as nose scratching, fingers playing with the hair, knocking of the floor with a foot while seated tend to increase when the person is under stress and may indicate attempts to conceal facial expressions that would reveal true feelings.

Hand movements that seem to emphasize the verbal statements, the speech a person is making, relate directly to the internal emotional state of the speaker as 'sender' of a message. Controlled and limited moves may indicate that the person is conveying false emotions while a multitude and intensity of such moves may serve the purpose of diverting the 'receiver's' focus of attention from the persons' face where it could be revealed that they are lying.

In this respect Ekman and other researchers have suggested that micro-movements of facial muscles with time duration of 1/4 of a second which are immediately succeeded by a smile, although extremely difficult to be detected by an untrained eye, constitute clear statements to the effect that the persons are hiding some truth, or lying or trying to hide their real emotions.

3.5 Focusing on the human face

Erwin Goffman (1969) coined and introduced the interesting concept of 'public smiles'. In all human cultures, in what appears to exist at a universal level, the human smile expresses a good sense of humour. It is also commonly accepted that our smile often involves elements of apology, especially in cases where some act or some verbal statement on our part could be interpreted as an attack or insult to the receiver. In such cases we smile and, obviously, we do politely apologize without uttering any relevant words. Finally, as most of us know from experience, there are instances in everyday life where we smile despite being angry, we smile despite feeling bitter, and we even proceed to swallow our disappointments with a smile.

Studying mainly the behaviour of American subjects, Goffman has also found that while walking in a public street we usually exchange glances with those coming from the opposite direction until we get closer to a distance of about two meters and then something interesting takes place. At that point, according to Goffman, we cease looking straight into the eyes of the on-comer and there seems to be an instantaneous 'implicit agreement' that specifies who would pass on the right and who on the left as our paths, finally, cross.

In body language our mouth and lips, eyebrows and eyes each alone, or operating in combined fashion, dramatize their own role in the process of our communication with others. Thus, pulling the lip or focusing on one area of the mouth carries specific meanings and so do specific movements of the eyebrows along with contractions of our forehead. Furthermore, although our eyeballs are only organs which carry light from visual stimuli through the optic nerve to the brain, in body language our eyes, with the help of the general area of the face around them, seem to be significant transmitters of specific and meaningful messages to others we are interacting with. This materializes and is conveyed through the intensity and persistence with which we look at the person or persons standing or sitting opposite to us.

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It is already fairly well established, as a result of relevant psychological research, that when we see something delightful the pupils of our eyes dilate, apparently with the aim to collect as much as possible of the intensely pleasant stimulus, whereas when we see something unpleasant, the pupils of our eyes constrict minimizing the inflow of the unwanted stimulus. Indeed, it is a given in world literature that the human eyes are often presented as 'the mirror of the soul' and it is accepted that a specific look may reflect the feelings you are trying to convey to the person you are interacting with and vice versa. Our eyes can show that we stay aloof and cold to persons and situations, our glance may be shrilling or ironic, or it may reveal that we are full of understanding for what the person communicating with us is conveying.

You may already have encountered, or will encounter in literature, references to eyes that are sunk in melancholy or others full of laughter and beaming, or eyes reflecting the fact that they are full of light. For the noted Spanish writer Jose Ortega Y Gasset (1957) the human eyes, in conjunction with eyelids and eyebrows, constitute a theatrical stage where dramas and comedies can be carried out. It would be worthwhile for you, the readers of this book, to take a moment to reflect and remember what happens when our eyes are crossing other eyes in enclosed spaces ranging from lecture halls to buses, trains, coffee-shops, restaurants and so on. When asked by a researcher conducting relevant research, most persons would confess that when their eyes cross the eyes of another person they feel a bit of embarrassment and they avoid direct eye contact by raising their eyes to read the advertisements on the walls, lowering their eyes to read the textbook or the newspaper they hold or, if sitting in a café or restaurant, focusing their eyes in reading their menu again and again. In close encounters and such cases of eye-contact, what seems to follow, naturally, is a brief cross glance with the other persons and a hurried return to previous activities. Most people consciously will avoid being 'pinned' in the eyes of persons standing or sitting across them in enclosed spaces.

Certainly a look, a glance of its own, although it may carry a message, it cannot reveal and betray to others everything that we may be harbouring in our minds. Research findings indicate that a look, descriptive and full of meaning as it may be, resembles more of a word in a sentence rather than a full phrase or sentence. We need, no doubt, many more details beyond a glance to guess what happens in the mind of persons sitting or standing opposite us.

The way we decide to look at persons or objects which are in the environment around us, has always contained in specific instances prohibitive elements of a didactic nature. From Biblical references we learn that Lot's wife turned into a pillar of salt when she turned, pushed by curiosity and despite the contrary advice of God, to see what was happening to the cities and the residents of Sodom and Gomorrah out of which, by God's advice, they were hurriedly running away. Adam, we are told, avoids the gaze, the eyes of his God and creator, because he feels guilty having already committed the sin of consuming the forbidden fruit of knowledge. In Greek mythology, Orpheus lived his personal drama and lost his beloved Eurydice when he decided to look at her against the advice not to permit his eager, curious eyes to see her.

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3.6 Ardrey's 'territorial imperative'

There are some common scenes of daily life, as Robert Ardrey (1966) has noted, where our personal body movements and those of fellow men do carry some very specific messages. Stop and ponder for a short while the habit of some relatives, friends or colleagues of yours who, almost as a rule, when sitting together with you at a home, coffee shop or restaurant table will place and spread their personal belongings on the table (so as to claim their 'sovereignty' in space) leaving you wondering where should you place your personal stuff.

It is fairly safe for me as the author to assume that some of you, readers of this book, will recognize in the above example themselves either as recipients of such behaviour by others or as the actors-protagonists in similar situations. You should now have gotten a better understanding of how this practice expands or limits the space of sovereignty on a coffee or dinner table depending on who is dramatizing the role of the protagonist and who is the 'victim'. What should stand out by such a simple example, as a corollary to Ardrey's theory, is that each one of us 'claims' and maintains as personal a part of the space and the surroundings environment we are operating in. Generally it is said that 'personal space' is differentiated into two major categories, namely the space characterized as 'near' and the area characterized as 'remote.'

Territorial imperative and body language researchers use an operational definition of the 'close or near space' as a distance of approx 45 to 75 cm, that is a distance where if we extended a hand forward it would be possible to make a handshake with persons standing or touch persons sitting opposite to us. In contrast, the 'remote or distant space', involves a measurable distance ranging between 75 cm and 120 cm. Related to distance and body language is also the case where we stoop to show our respect and allegiance to a person or our reverence to a holy church icon.

During the last few decades it appears to have become a practice in many private and public enterprises and organizations to avoid using square or oval work tables at conference rooms as management shows preference for the round shaped conference tables. There are, however, also exceptions in the cases where executives and managers wish, on a consciously or even subconsciously motivated level, to reassert their authority and remind their subordinates who is in charge. In such cases the managers choose to sit at what is 'the head of the table' while holding a working meeting or conference with their subordinates. One could consider as the most famous and relevant example to the round shape of conference room tables the classic, British fairy tale of King Arthur and his knights with the characteristic reference to the 'round table' revealing a truly democratic King. However, even in this tale, a lot could be learned by a closer observation of the position of each and every knight's chair standing next to, or progressively removed from, the left or right side of the King's throne thus differentiating the 'status' of each one of them as awarded by the respected and beloved King Arthur.

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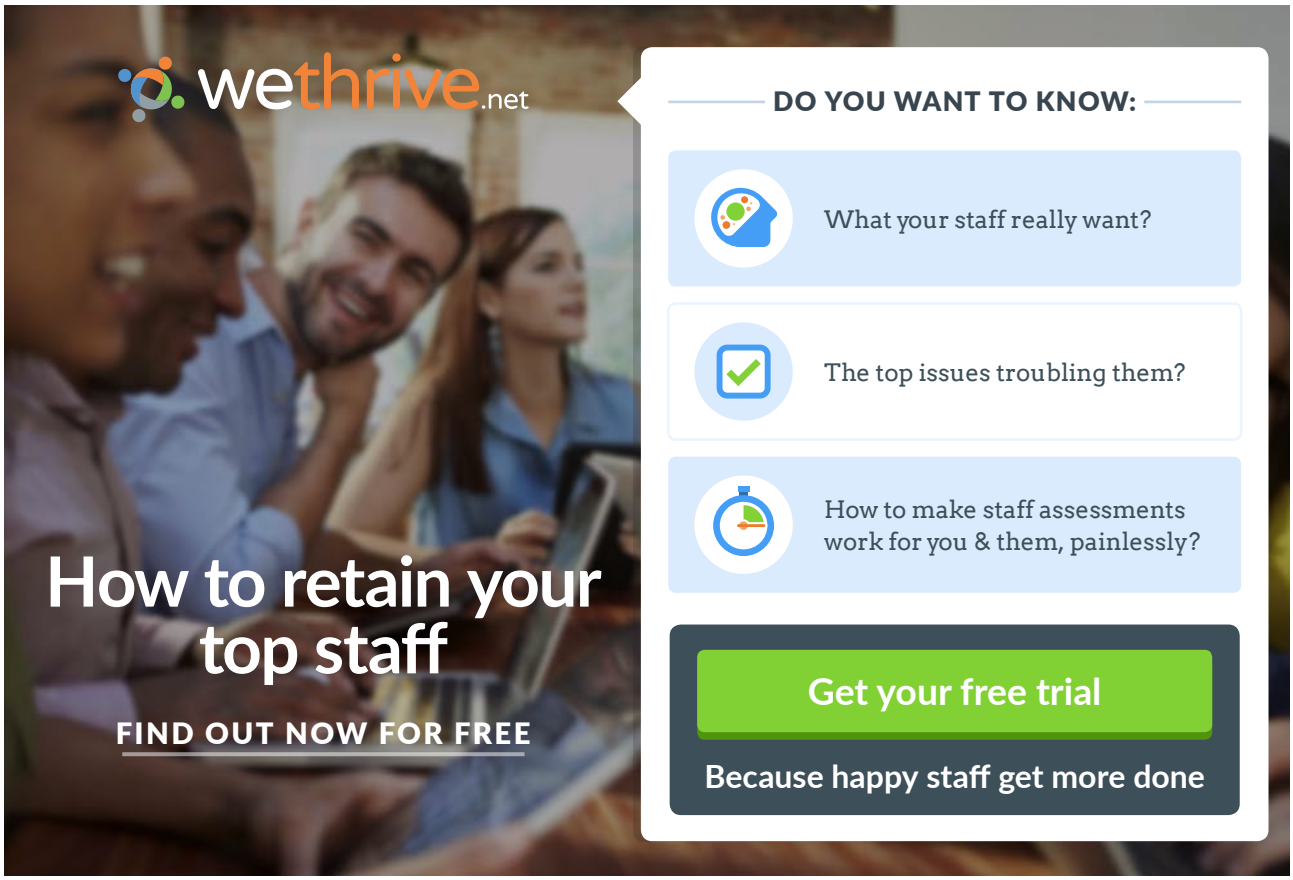
4 Mass Media & social media

Nowadays mass media and social media of communication in what has been termed as the 'Information Age' proliferated to an extent consider by conservative critics as 'science fiction' and unimaginable realities only a few decades ago. Indeed, if you readers of this book are either young men and women studying in a middle school or college or enrolled in a university degree program, or you are more mature individuals surely you would consider it impossible to think of a day in your life without the plethora of communication media you take for granted and use extensively. Referring on findings from a recent research conducted among Britons aged 18-30, Victoria Woollaston reported in the Daily Mail, May 20 2013, that '94 per cent of people in the UK would rather live without sex than their mobile phones.' It is currently estimated that more than two and one half billion persons have access to the internet and close to one billion possess a unique e-mail account as Gmail, yahoo, or hotmail. It is interesting to note that all three service giants give different and not objectively verified statistics on the numbers of individuals possessing their e-mail accounts. It would also be useful to be aware of the fact that many individuals, for their own reasons, may hold more than one account in more than one of the three giant services mentioned above.



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In this chapter the reader will be briefly introduced to the birth and historical development of the variety of mass media available today starting with the process of printing words and transmitting pictures on the TV tube and moving to the digitally transmitted voice over mobile phones and moving pictures on stable or hand-held screens.

4.1 From stone inscription to the printing process

Tens of thousands of years passed between the time humans developed the capacity to use a spoken language as a communication means and the use of signs and the deposition of words and phrases in written form. In the communication evolution process several millennia passed between the creation of the first written documents on stone, clay, papyri, paper and the introduction of the woodblock print process credited to creative inventors in China and the mechanical movable type created and put to use by Johannes Gutenberg in Germany.

Johannes (Gensfleisch zur Laden zum) Gutenberg, is credited with the discovery and the introduction, around the middle of the 15th century, of the movable type of printing in Europe. It revolutionized the printing process in what is considered by some scholars as the most important discovery of the second millennium AD. Up to that time the production of manuscripts was a painstaking art limited in numbers as its production was undertaken, usually, by monks living in Monasteries and laymen who were talented calligraphers.

Somewhere between the second century B.C. and the second century A.D., both paper and ink were invented by the Chinese. The Chinese are credited with the discovery of the woodblock printing process used to print both images and text on paper and textiles. It is true that Gutenberg's contribution in the printing process using paper, ink and movable wooden (and to some extent metal) parts, was greatly facilitated by the fact that his native German vocabulary consisted by a small number of letters compared to the vast amount of 'letters' of the Chinese language.

It can be easily understood that Gutenberg's discovery and use of the printing process helped the proliferation of written documents in large numbers of copies and thus augmented the communication of ideas and knowledge throughout the European continent. As large numbers of people were participating in this large scale communication process through printed material, a novel sociological and historical phenomenon emerged and has been hence forth described by the term of the 'mass audience'. Thanks to Gutenberg's discovery, the means came into existence to disseminate information, at first in the form of pamphlets and later on as newspapers to large, heterogeneous groups of people in a relatively short period of time.

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4.2 Enter the 'penny press' innovation

Several centuries after Gutenberg's printing machine discovery and while newspapers were a reality in the process of information dissemination, on September 3, 1833, the owners of the *New York Sun* started selling their daily newspaper at the affordable price of one, in contrast to the customary six pennies, per copy. This innovative move in the printed media, in the newspaper industry, marked the beginning of the era of the 'penny press' altering drastically, if not dramatically, the entire shape of the newsprint industry. The penny press detached itself from political party patronage on which the 'six pennies per issue' newspapers relied heavily and as Mindich (2000, p.19) has suggested the 'pennies' were supported mainly by circulation and advertising and not by political party patronage.

Leaders in the newspaper industry, such as Benjamin Day of *the Sun* and James Gordon Bennet of *the New York Herald*, proceeded to introduce the innovation of the 'penny press', realizing that a growing audience of middle-and working-class readers was willing to purchase and pay for a newspaper on a daily basis without committing themselves to monthly or annual subscription contracts. Furthermore, it has been noted that while the earlier commercial press disdained from giving emphasis to and paying much interest in everyday events, the 'penny press' deliberately sought to cultivate the audience's interest in local events and everyday State, Regional and National news.

Commenting on this novel socio-historical development Schudson (1978) has noted,

'…The new journalism of the penny press . . . ushered in a new order, a shared social universe in which "public" and "private" would be redefined. . . . With the growth of cities and of commerce, everyday life acquired a density and a fascination quite new.' (p30)

The 1830's which Historians have often labelled, using the name of then US President, as 'Jacksonian Democracy' was a time when the political system of democracy was gradually coming to be adopted by many Nations. Many writers seem to concur on the idea that the United States which, as a new Nation, was founded on entirely democratic ideas was still struggling to come to grips with the processes through which this novel experiments of 'government by the people' was to work in practice. Commenting within this frame of reference Schudson (1978) has noted in his book that:

'The penny press expressed and built the culture of a democratic market society, a culture which had no place for social or intellectual deference. This was the groundwork on which a belief in facts and a distrust of the reality, or objectivity, of "values" could thrive.' (p.60)

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4.3 From the wired telegraph to wireless telegraphy

Etymologically the English term 'telegraphy' stems from the synthesis of two Greek words, namely *'τηλε'* (meaning far or distant) and *'γράφειν'* (meaning to write). For those of the readers who wish to look at the subject in more detail, Huurdeman (2003), among others, has provided useful information on the history of the development of the wire telegraph. As is the case with numerous other products of science, following the rapid increase of knowledge on electricity and the carrying of electrical energy by wires, in the early decades of the 19th century the foundations were laid for the transmission of messages by the employment and practical use of developed and existing electrical means.

The original electrographic machines were presented in Europe in 1832 by Baron Pavel L'vovitch Schilling and they were, basically, precursors to the presentation in 1836 by Samuel F. B. Morse in the USA of his own development of a model of electrical telegraph. Morse, aided by his assistant Alfred Vail, developed the alphabet, which bears his name, which was used in transmitting messages by the telegraphic equipment. Within a year after Morse made his discovery public, in 1837, the commercial telegraph developed by William Fothergill Cooke and Charles Wheatstone was put into work in London, UK.

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Soon after wired telegraphy was introduced to everyday use, in a pattern where wires were usually running parallel to the railroad lines in both Europe and America, the search for wireless telegraphy commenced. The ancient wireless communication forms which ranged, as mentioned previously, from the fire and smoke signals to the talking drums and from mirror transmitted signals to semaphore forms using coloured flags, were now giving their place to wired telegraphy and to other forms of communication aided by the use of electricity.

At this point I would like to bring to your attention, as a parenthesis to our brief presentation of the development of the telegraph, the 1812-1815 war between Great Britain and the USA (which has been labelled as 'the war of faulty communication'). This particular conflict, which had immense cost in thousands of human lives and loss of ships and war equipment, was ironically created by a communication gap existing at that time period. Some historians have claimed that had there been a telegraph communication capability between the US and Europe it would have become clear that the British Government committed itself to repealing the laws that were the basis for the war two days before America's President Madison and his Congress declared the war against Britain on June 18, 1812. If better, more efficient, means of communication had existed they would have averted the bloody January 15, 1815 New Orleans battle in which British General Sir Edward Pakenham and more than 1,500 of his men were killed. The treaty, designed to end the conflict and obviously to avert the war, had been signed 15 days earlier in the city of Ghent, Belgium but due to the lack of speedy communication means was not relayed to the US Government in time to avert the conflict.

Should some readers of this book wish to delve somewhat deeper into historical and other data relating to wireless communication, they could look a the works of Fahie (1991), Sarkar, & Baker, (2006) who, among others, have presented an extensive and useful history of the development of wireless communication. Pioneer work needed as the basis for new inventions had been already successfully carried through by scientists like Michael Faraday and James Clerk Maxwell. Adding their contribution to such works, a number of other scientists, among them Édouard Eugène Désiré Branly in France, Sir Oliver Joseph Lodge in Britain and Nikola Tesla in the USA, paved the way for more developments in this field. The culmination of such efforts, as we now know, was embodied in the work presented by the Italian scientist Guglielmo Marconi on the eve of the 20th century. Marconi's work earned him the 1909 Nobel Prize in Physics which he shared with the German scientist Karl Ferdinand Braun.

Marconi had made a number of attempts to transmit a wireless trans-Atlantic message between the North American coast line and the western parts of the United Kingdom. He succeeded in his efforts on January 18, 1903 when from the Marconi built station in Massachusetts a greeting message from then United States President Theodore Roosevelt for King Edward the VII was received in the United Kingdom. The reality remained, however, that consistent transatlantic wireless messaging continued to be plagued by difficulties rendering it troublesome as a means of communication. However, if a specific tragedy could indicate that something was apparently on the road to being successful, it would relate to the fact, as it has historically been noted, that the Marconi Massachusetts based station had received the 'distress' signal coming from the 'ill fated' RMS Titanic.

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4.4 AM and FM radio come to existence

As is usually the case with progress in science, researchers and, depending on the subject inventors, utilizing existing knowledge or artefacts add on to them their own creative contribution. In this manner an existing theory, idea or object is brought on to a new synthesis with heuristic potential for new and hitherto unknown and untried uses. Within this framework of the theory of knowledge or epistemology, adding and improving Guglielmo Marconi's wireless telegraphy, the Canadian borne Reginald Fassenden is credited with the invention of the Modulation of radio waves and the first voice transmission by radio in 1906.

The American inventor Lee Deforest helped the further development of previously existing apparatus by adding his invention of the three electrode vacuum tube (triode) which had the capacity to boost radio emitted waves. Deforest's invention helped create and put forth for practical use, for the first time in history, what was termed 'wireless telephony'. His 'audion' could transmit human voices and music allowing them to be heard clearly and it is said that he was the first person to use for the first time ever the term 'radio'. Deforest's vacuum triode tube was used as the basis for all telephone, radio, television and radar systems until the now historically famed 'transistors' were invented and put to practical use shortly after the end of the Second World War in 1947.

Based on these inventions the Amplitude Modulated, or AM radio, was invented and came into existence giving rise to the creation and operation of a multitude of AM radio stations. It should be noted that during the First World War, as a precautionary defence act, the US Government assumed absolute control of all patents relating to radio technology. Soon after the end of the First World War, in 1919, the Radio Corporation of America (RCA) was established combining the Marconi Wireless telegraph Company of America, Westinghouse Electric and General Electric, followed by the American Telephone and Telegraph which, after coming into existence, went in operation and continued to do so until the mid-1980s.

It was during the early 1930s that Edwin Armstrong brought forth his invention of the frequency-modulated, or in abbreviated form 'FM radio', which improved to a significant degree the audio signal of radio transmissions. Armstrong's creation managed to control the noise static caused by electrical equipment and the earth's atmosphere thus vastly improving the quality of radio transmissions made until then in the 'AM radio' type of broadcasting.

In 1947 Bell Labs invented and introduced the transistor which replaced Deforest's vacuum triode tube and in the mid-1950's a small Japanese company, the humble start of today's giant corporation bearing the name of SONY, built and brought to the market the first 'transistor radio' marking the beginnings of a new era in radio broadcasting history.

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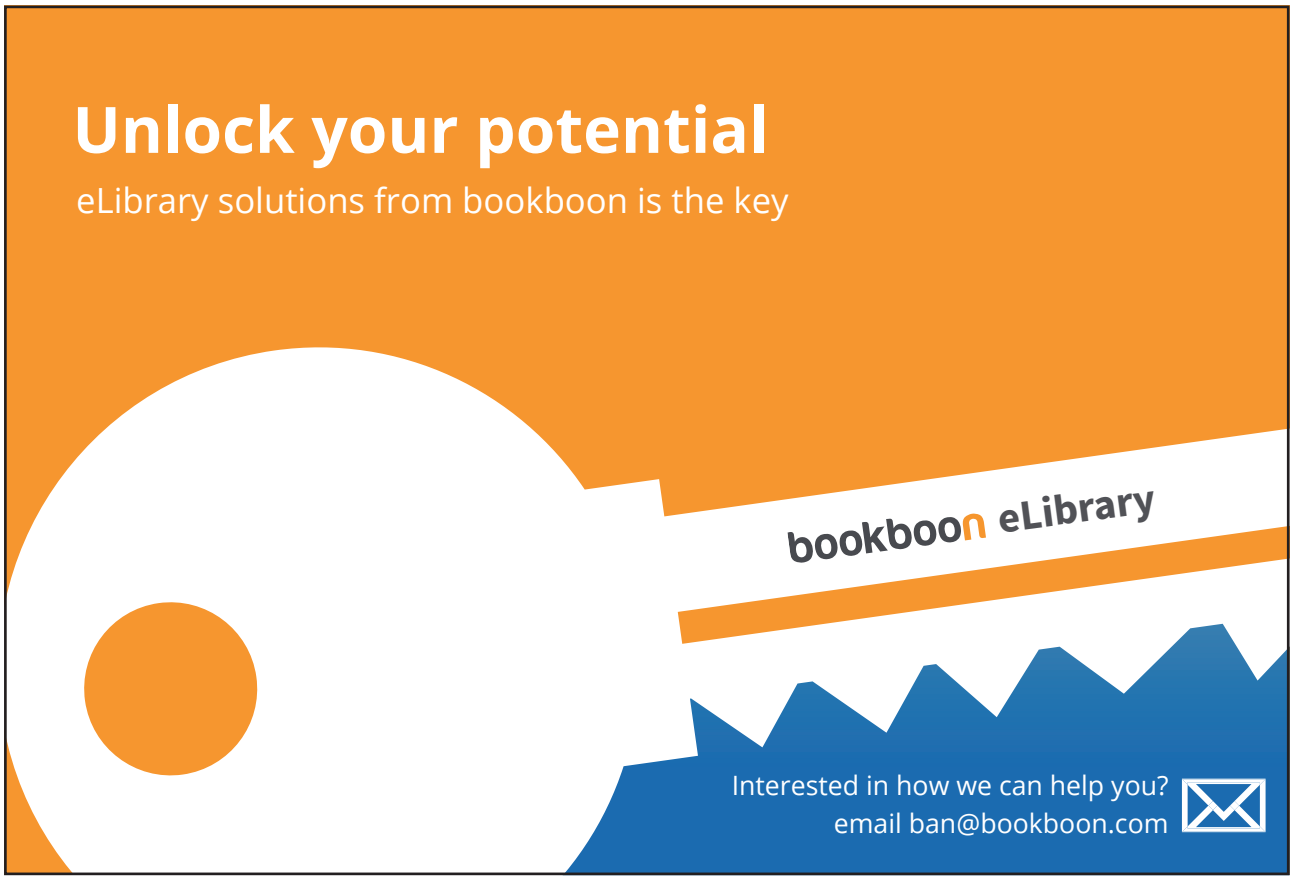
4.5 Birth and development of television

Fisher and Fisher (1996) in their book 'Tube: The Invention of Television' have managed to give in an anecdotal fashion the history of the discovery and operation of television and the protagonists involved in it. Their book presents what has been a fascinating story not only on the merits of the 'small screen' known as TV but, additionally, because of the confrontations between scientists and inventors struggling in laboratories and lawyers crossing their swords as arguments in court rooms relating to claims and counterclaims on patent rights for TV.

Once the scientific foundations were laid and the launch of wireless telegraphy and AM-radio as well as FM-radio became everyday realities, the road to discovering and creating the apparatus needed for the birth of television had been mapped and followed suit. The cathode ray tube (CRT) or 'Braun tube' named after its inventor, Nobel winner Karl Ferdinand Braun, is a vacuum tube containing an electron gun (a source of electrons or electron emitter) and a fluorescent screen used to view images. It possesses the means to accelerate and deflect the electron beam onto the fluorescent screen to create on it the projected images.



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It should be noted here that leading roles in the historic process of inventing television were held in America by a visionary farm boy named Philo Farnsworth and the Russian-born scientist Vladimir Kosmich Zworykin who immigrated to the USA after the 1918 Russian revolution. In the UK a leading role in the development of the first television apparatus was played by the Scottish born engineer John Logie Baird who spent most of his adult life, until his death, living and working in Southern England. Currently Liquid-crystal display televisions (LCD TV), Plasma Display panel (PDP) and light-emitting diode (LED) screen TV sets are market products familiar to television viewers in most parts of the world.

4.6 The digital age & 'www'

The 'World Wide Web', globally known as the Internet, has come to be and is increasingly becoming a real challenge to classic information and news providing media. As we have already seen, the once solid and exclusive protagonist role held by the printed press was challenged by radio once radio sets became widely available. Subsequently, printed press and radio appeared to unite when they were challenged by television which became for vast numbers of audiences the main source of information not only through news programs but through other programs and shows as well. Since its inception and increasing use, 'www' seems to have created a 'common defence front' between the press, radio and television.

The maxim that 'history repeats itself' has a strong confirmation in the case of the 'www' which combines printed, auditory and visual advances in technology providing both a mass as well as a personal medium of communication. Considering the significance of providing information to the public, the wide dispersion of Internet was destined, ultimately, not only to be perceived but to actually be a common threat to the traditional providers of information, namely the press, radio and television combined. A significant portion of the information dissemination role performed by the classic three media is now shared by the new comer medium, namely the Internet.

The internet seems to have grown as a particularly true reality in the world of politics. As Klotz (2004) has noted:

'An eagerness to embrace a new technology for political use is a long-standing tradition. When a new medium emerges, invariably claims are made that it can dramatically improve politics. The telegraph, for instance, was thought to be able to reduce political conflict and promote world peace by generating a shared understanding. The internet is no different. (p. xiii)

The Internet is already dramatizing a significant, multi-level and multi-faceted role in the political arena ranging from activities in e-Government, dissemination of information on proposed legislature and politicians' activities not only during election times but in post election periods as well. Anduiza, Jensen and Jorba (2012, p. 1) have argued that there are different paths, both direct and indirect, through which digital media affect political involvement among citizens. The editors bring forth the fact that digital media opened new modes of engagement, previously not existing, that can be used by citizens to express their political views and convey their interests to politicians, political parties and the Government.

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To a large extent, the digital world can bee seen as a nightmare for some politicians and a blessing for others as it enables the average, interested and concerned citizen, to monitor the activities of elected political leaders, of Governments and oppositions in most countries of the world. As it turns out sometimes, in some countries, not only occasionally but on a daily (and in special cases almost an hourly) basis politicians, political decisions, and relevant behaviors are the objects of scrutiny, praise or criticism by vast numbers of citizens using digital media.

On a world wide basis, the ease of creating a 'personal blog' has made possible to birth of up to now unknown forms of massive expression, almost instantaneously formulating public opinion and expressing it through the 'www'. Members of the younger generations are avid users of the internet and are more prone to accessing the news on their androids, i-phones and i-pads rather than from the pages of a newspaper or a magazine.

Counterbalancing the positive aspects of the use of digital media we cannot overlook, or even lightly bypass, the immense potential for propaganda disseminated through the internet. Given the vast amount of personal blogs existing worldwide, it is not surprising that anyone can spread a message, true or false, or manipulate information or even alter a picture with the aid of the widely known 'photo-shop' to suit his or her own, legal or illegal, ethical or unethical ends. The possibilities for serious mischief are enormous and there exist many examples where they have already been implemented creating problems on the political scene. Not only individuals and groups but SMEs' (small and medium enterprises) and LSEs' (large scale enterprises) and public as well as Non Governmental organizations are also vulnerable, and there have been some serious cases of damage done to individual, company or organization reputations as a result of false information spread widely on the Internet.

Like the proverbial two-edged knife, the Internet with the increasing ease of access and mobility, on the one hand is a strong factor in the growth of the Internet as a constant source of useful information, news and comments, and on the other hand for exposure to malicious gossip and all other sorts of irresponsibly disseminated information. In cyberspace, there is a widely accepted lack of 'ethical and legal controls' which also accounts for the increasing speed with which news as well as 'rumours' are spread as individuals are constantly monitoring their electronic devices, be they laptop computers, smart phones, androids and tablets, and responding accordingly.

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Indeed there appears to be enormous potential for propaganda activities of the 'Twitter phenomenon'. This refers to the case where millions of web users can instantaneously offer their thoughts in cryptic messages as a 'twit', a practice which is widely realized. It is true that the twit is limited to 140 characters, (while the SMS is limited to 160 characters), but its value is progressively being appreciated. Another type of social media communication is the LinkedIn, which was associated with twitter until recently but their relationship has ended. It would not be a far-fetched assessment to assert that the new social media are tailor-made, although this certainly was not an intention of their creators, for the spreading of rumours. The Facebook, which started off as a college media network and is now trading as a company on the NASDAQ exchange in New York, is also one of the popular media of transmitting information and exchanging views on every and any conceivable subject among users ranging in age from young adolescents to third age adults.

Newspaper, radio and Television journalists and commentators, as well as social scientists and political analysts, have attributed a significant role to the portion of information exchanged by the use of mobile phones and social media among people participating in the social upheaval called 'Arab Spring'. Some analysts have linked this recent socio-political phenomenon which started in Tunisia in December 2010 with the fate of a young man known as Mohamed Bouazizi. This young man, a street vendor and breadwinner for his family, protested the actions of the regime against him with self-immolation in December 2010 and died almost three weeks later in January 2011. The social unrest that followed the death of Mohamed Bouazizi resulted in the collapse of Tunisia's Government. It sparked the continuation of the 'Arab Spring' with the overturning of rulers and establishment of new regimes in Nations of the North African Continent. For some analysts the bloody 'civil strife' going on in Syria can be included in the 'Arab Spring' phenomenon but others content that the Syrian conflict between rebels and the Assad regime had started somewhat earlier.

Computers, Information Communication Technology, the digital age media and the related emergence and appearance of modern 'barons' in this industry, are highlighted by John Naughton in his July 1, 2012 article in The Observer under the title: *'The New-tech moguls: the modern robber barons'*. Naughton, quoting the 'Forbes 100 richest billionaires', notes that 10 of the world's billionaires owe their wealth to computer and/or network technology:

'At the top (second on the list) is Bill Gates, co-founder of Microsoft, whose net worth is estimated by *Forbes* at $61bn, despite the fact that he continues to try to give it away. Gates is followed by Larry Ellison, boss of Oracle, with $36bn, and Michael Bloomberg with $22bn. Larry Page and Sergey Brin – co-founders of Google – occupy joint 24th place with $18.7bn each. Jeff Bezos of Amazon is No 26 with $18.4bn while the newly enriched Mark Zuckerberg of Facebook sits at No 35 with £17.5bn. Michael Dell, founder of the eponymous computer manufacturer, is at No 41 with $15.9bn while Steve Ballmer, Microsoft's CEO, is three places lower on $15.7bn and Paul Allen – co-founder of Microsoft – brings up the rear at No 48 with a mere $14.2bn. Steve Jobs, who was worth about $9bn when he died, doesn't even figure.'(http://www.guardian.co.uk/technology/2012/jul/01/new-tech-moguls-robber-barons)

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5 The Role of attitudes in human communication

Attitudes have been of central interest to social psychologists, sociologists as well as to communication specialists as early as the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. Zaretsky (1996) has made a successful effort in condensing and editing the original 5 volume work of W.I. Thomas, the American born sociologist and the Polish born American sociologist F. W. Znaniecki, who are credited with the introduction of the concept 'attitudes' into the field of social psychology. From the time the discussion of attitudes was first introduced to psychological and sociological literature and up to now there has been a proliferation of published books and scientific as well as popularized articles. Visser and Cooper (2003) have noted that a literature search on the concept of 'attitude' a decade ago at the time they published their work would yield more than 50,000 items and their number has certainly increased ever since.

In the middle of the 20th century, during the decades of the 50s and 60s, Hovland gathered some of his war-time colleagues and established the Communication and Persuasion (attitude change) program at Yale University. Using initially as their springboard Laswell's (1948) historic question, now a maxim, 'who says what, in what channel to whom with what effect' the Yale team worked intensely and creatively on their program focusing their investigations on the variety of motivational processes underlying 'persuasion' as one communication objective.

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This chapter aims to familiarize the reader, without exhausting all possible facets of the concept, with the concept of attitudes and their components and the multitude of implications they have for social scientists as well as communication and PR practitioners.

5.1 Defining Attitudes

A plethora of definitions exists for the concept of 'attitude' as seems to be the case with many other concepts in social and behavioural sciences. In practical, everyday terms, however, most laymen seem to concur on a working definition of attitude as being the way we stand, in varying degrees, positively or negatively towards persons, groups, public and private enterprises, ideas and ideologies, places and events.

Etymologically, as an informal and quick search will verify, the term attitude originates from the Latin term 'aptus' which, as it turns out, is also the root to the term 'aptitude' which refers to preparedness or adaptation. The term eventually developed into the late Latin concept of 'aptitudinem', to the modern Italian language concept of 'attitudine' and, finally, the French 'attitude' referring, generally, to disposition, aptness, posture and promptitude.

Thomas & Znaniecki (1918) introducing the concept of 'attitudes' in their 5 volume work, bearing the now classic title of 'The Polish Peasant in Europe and America', went so far as to characterize them as a central focus point of interest for social psychology. This is so since, according to the two authors, they determine what an individual sees, hears, thinks and does. They defined attitudes, shortly, as a state of mind of an individual toward an object.

Writing in the middle of the 1930's Gordon Allport (1935, p.798) carved a now historic dictum stating that attitudes are 'the most distinctive and indispensable concept in American social psychology' and went on to define an attitude as:

'A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive and dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related'. (p. 810)

The Oxford Dictionary of Psychology defines attitude as 'an enduring pattern of evaluative responses towards a person, object or issue'. A definition that appears in many academic texts as well as in respectable popular books sees attitude as 'the tendency to behave in specific ways when confronted by a person, a group, an object, a symbol, an idea or any other reality.'

Crano and Prislin (2006) have stated that:

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'An attitude represents an evaluative integration of cognitions and affects experienced in relation to an object. Attitudes are the evaluative judgements that integrate and summarize these cognitive/affective reactions. These evaluative abstractions very in strength, which in turn has implications for persistence, resistance, and attitude-behavior consistency.' (p.347)

Oscamp (1977) is one, among a large group of writers, who suggest that attitudes are acquired through the process of 'socialization' which in sociology and social psychology is conceived and invariably defined as 'the process of rendering the biological man into a social being'. Since the process of socialization involves the family and relatives, peers, as well as the institutions of education and religion, attitudes will be learned, shaped, reinforced or altered during a person's interface with them. Attitudes operate on both the conscious and unconscious levels in each person and provide a frame of reference, a method of organizing a person's beliefs, values, habits, perceptions and motives, shaping his/her short and long term preferences.

5.2 The components of attitudes

Writing two decades after his initial statement on attitudes as mentioned above, Allport (1954), reiterated his belief that attitudes were a most significant and indispensable concept and area of interest for social psychology. He went on to redefine an attitude as the result of a learned predisposition to think, feel and behave towards a person (or object) in a particular way.

In their pioneer work, which has been used in a variety of studies since its original publication more than half a century ago, Rosenberg and Hovland (1960), proposed a three-component model in which attitudes are made up of three parts, namely the affective, the cognitive and the behavioural. Olson and Maio (2003, pp.306-307) are among the current social psychologists who concur on the existence of these three components in attitudes:

The affective component includes the positive or negative feelings or emotions the attitude holder may have toward another person, group, object, idea etc,
The cognitive component includes the thoughts and beliefs held by a person toward the attitude object and, finally,
The behavioural component refers to the attitude holder actions or the intention to act toward a person, a group, an idea, or an event which constitute the attitude's object.

5.3 Attitude functions for the personality

The following scheme of four basic functions which attitudes perform for the individual rendering them useful, if not actually indispensable, has been suggested by Katz (1960):

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'The adjustive function which refers to the utility the attitudinal object has in serving the attitude holder with need satisfaction; essentially it serves in maximizing external rewards and minimizing potential punishment. *The ego-defensive function* which refers to the individual attitude holders' need to create a protective layer around their subconscious defence mechanisms for the proper handling of potential internal conflicts; attitudes, in serving this function for a person, operate protectively against internal conflicts and external dangers.

The value expressive function which refers to maintaining self-identity and enhancing favourable self-image, self-expression and self determination, and *The knowledge function* which relates to individuals' need for gaining knowledge and various skills for understanding and dealing with the world in which they live and function. The attitudes serve, in this respect, to create and support the individuals' needs for meaningful cognitive organizations, for sustaining consistency and clarity protecting them against the ambiguities of the world about them.' (p.170)

5.4 Our attitudes can change

Human beings are not born with attitudes inherited from their parents. Stated another way this means that attitudes are not a part of our hereditary package. Humans acquire attitudes as they grow up, partaking in the socialization process and through learning. It is not necessary for you, the reader of this book, to possess the expertise gained through study and training by social and behavioural scientists to come to grips with the realization that since attitudes are learned they can also be un-learned and new ones can take the place of existing, older ones. In this context, the four functions attitudes perform for each individual as presented above, must be kept in mind so that the brief analysis that will follow below will be easier to comprehend.

Within such a frame of reference, understandably, a great deal of interest seems to be placed on the need and usefulness of maintaining the stability of attitudes through time. Also significant in this realm is the question of the possibility of changing existing attitudes and adapting new ones and, simultaneously, the methods necessary for effecting such changes. Political parties, groups and associations, private and public enterprises and organizations producing and selling products or operating as service providers who are favoured as attitude objects do wish and do strive to maintain the individuals' existing attitude intact through time. On the other hand, understandably, those wishing to gain the favour of consumers are interested in finding and implementing the ways by which they can change old attitudes and introduce new ones.

Relevant in this respect is the statement made by Olson and Maio (2003) who wrote that:

'It is important to note that the psychological processes involved in attitude formation can also lead to attitude change (i.e. the alteration of an existing attitude to a different evaluative position) and that theories of attitude formation are also theories of attitude change.' (p. 311)

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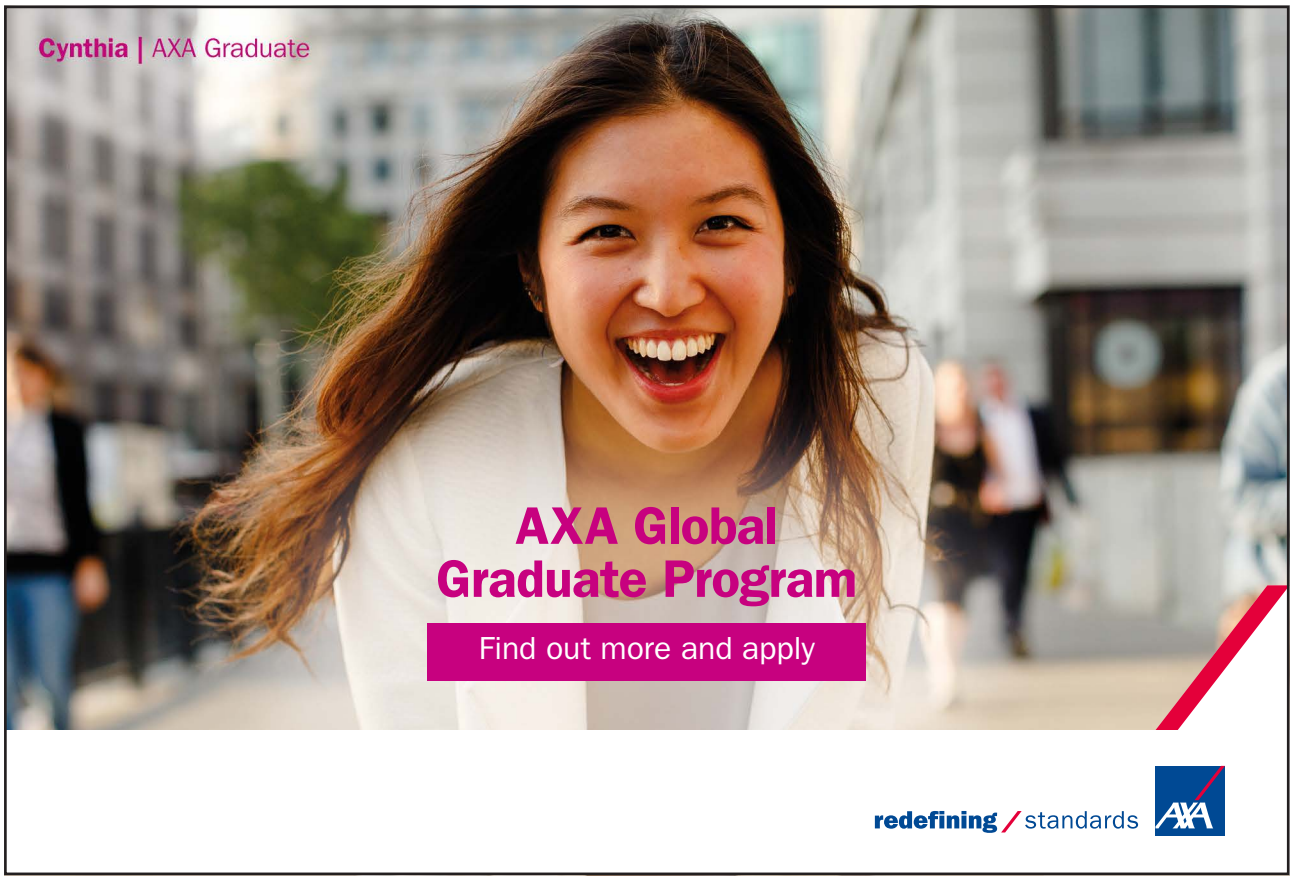
At this point it is necessary for the readers to remember the 4 component elements system of communication. According to that scheme it should be effortlessly easy to accept that the attitude holder can be identified as the 'receiver' while those aiming to perpetuate existing attitudes through time or facilitate their change and adaption of the ones they desire are identified as the 'sender'. The remaining two elements of the communication system, namely the 'message' and the 'medium or channel', can and indeed do dramatize significant and critical roles in achieving the stated objectives in tune with the efforts the 'sender' makes.

5.5 Attitude measuring scales

The 3-component model of attitudes presented earlier leads to the realization that a person's attitudes can be seen and measured only if and when the person engages in specific behaviour toward an attitude object. Choosing a specific brand of toothpaste from a supermarket shelf, or an after shave for men and a perfume for women from the shelves of a department store, are observable actions and can be measured by researchers as an actual exhibition of behaviour. However, both the affective and the cognitive components of the model do not lend themselves to direct observation and measurement. Obviously most persons may not wish to state publicly their attitudes toward groups, ideas and ideologies, political parties or consumer products and services. Additionally, the fact that the attitudes each person holds operate not only at the conscious but on the subconscious level as well adds on even further limitations to any direct study and measurement attempts.



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Thurstone (1928) suggested that there exists a means of measuring attitudes and introduced what is considered to be the oldest scale for attitude measurement in existence. This scale was initially presented in a co-authored paper (Thurtstone & Chave 1929) but it is true that this scale is no longer in as widespread usage as it was when first introduced. In the original study more than 100 statements of opinions were used, ranging from extremely hostile to extremely favourable. Participants classified their responses into the Thurstone scale of 11 categories located at equal distance from each other and covering a continuum ranging from extremely hostile at one end to extremely favourable at the other end of the scale.

In the Thurstone scale statements are assigned numerical values and so, in practical terms, when a person's attitudes are examined the researcher locates three statements chosen by the individual which have been assigned the numerical scores of 4.8, 5.5 and 6.8. The score that occurs from the addition of these 3 numerical values is 5.7 (adding the 4.8 +5.5+6.8 we get a total of 17.1 which divided by 3 gives the 5.7 value). This score falls at about the middle of the 1 to 11 continuum in the Thurstone scale and it can be said that this person's attitudes toward the object examined could and should be classified as neutral.

A few years later, Likert (1932) presented his scale on attitude measurement which, as one can easily see is obviously less complex than the Thurstone scale and much easier to construct, administer and evaluate. In the Likert scale the person examined is presented with a series of statements each bearing one of the following 5 labels: 'strongly agree' or 'agree' or 'undecided' to 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree'. Each one of these labels is assigned a numerical value ranging from 5 to 1 (when the labels go from the very positive to the very negative or from 1 to 5 when the progression is reversed from very negative to very positive).

When the questionnaire is completed the responder's scores are added and so an average emerges indicating the respondent's stance on the attitude measured. To derive the end product of a Likert type scale the researchers begin with a large number of statements from which those that seem to be statistically related are kept and incorporated in the final questionnaire. The process of retaining some statements and accepting them presupposes that they have satisfied fully the demands for internal statistical consistency and homogeneity.

Guttmann (1944) writing a decade after Likert, proceeded to create a scale for attitude measurement that would assure unidimensionality of responses received. In the Guttman scale people are presented with a series of three statements and are asked to score 0 when they disagree with all of them, 1 when they agree with one of them, 2 when agreeing with two of them and 3 when they agree with all of them. The statements are structured in such way as to enable the examiner, or any other person for that matter, to predict the respondents' position on the three statements by looking at their scores. Examining, for example, a person's attitudes toward recently released from prison 'ex-offenders' the questions would take the form:

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'I have no problem with re-integration of ex-offenders to the community' (1),
'I have no problem with an ex-offender living in my neighbourhood' (2),
'I would have no problem having dinner with an ex-offender' (3).

In this example a positive answer to question 3 means that the person has responded positively to questions 2 and 1, while a positive answer to question 2 implies positive answer to question 1 and so on.

In our discussion of attitude measurement a brief mention should be made of an existing and very simple method, considered by some somewhat naïve but not lacking practical usefulness, of measuring and assessing attitudes held by various persons. In this method the researcher asks a person directly to indicate preferences and avoidances of attitude objects he/she is presented with. If you, as readers of this book are students, you might already have had personal experiences by participating in a research project within your academic environment. It is usual for students in the UK as well as other European and American colleges and universities to be asked to rank their modules as well as their teachers and their degree programs. Additionally, some of you, while you were walking on your city's High Street or strolling through a shopping Mall may have been approached and asked to respond and answer some specific questions posed by a researcher conducting a relevant survey.

Since attitudes on both the conscious and sub-conscious levels in the personality structure of each individual, the so-called 'projective tests' are also used in behavioural and social sciences research mainly within the purview of personality tests (such are, for example, the Rorschach Inkblot test, the Thematic Apperception Test, abbreviated and known as 'TAT' etc). Another version of a similar projective test includes the process of completion of 'incomplete sentences'. A review of such tests is provided by Rabin & Zltogorski (1985). In these simple form tests the subjects are asked to fill in the 'missing' end to the sentence stem using their own words. Experts can then evaluate the respondents' integration of the provided stems into complete sentences which usually reveal hidden, subconscious, attitudes.

Accurate measurement, in any case, presupposes that in each test two requisite statistical concepts, namely 'validity' and 'reliability' are satisfactorily dealt with. In general terms, and as a practical rule of research, it should be noted that validity, at one hand, refers to the assurance that a measure is assessing exactly what it is supposed to assess, while reliability, on the other hand, relates to the stable nature of responses meaning that there are no random fluctuations to the responses participants make. Reliability is considered to be a prerequisite to validity, and not vice versa, necessitating that once researchers have established the reliability of their constructs, they should concern themselves with the optimization of their validity.

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Part Two – Public Relations

The second part of this book aims to familiarize the reader with the dynamic and ever expanding field of public relations. It would most certainly constitute an injustice, if not an outright insult, for any author to believe that the PR field could be 'squeezed' in a relatively brief part of any book and, indeed, as the second part in the three part book you are reading. Even a brief presentation of highlights in PR history, from its birth and development to its current status, could not be fairly and justly covered in the limited space provided here. However, in line with the spirit of this book I will attempt to provide you with a brief, concise and topical, but hopefully useful presentation of Public Relations, based on both my academic and practitioner experiences gained during the last 4 decades.

To place the above space related limitations of a fair presentation of the PR field into the right perspective I would ask you, the readers, to please stop your reading for a few minutes and do right now a short amazon.com or Google search on the subject of 'public relations'. I would also kindly ask you not to be surprised when you will encounter more than 150,000 titles on PR existing in the printed form as hardbound and paperback books as well as in digital form. Furthermore, this number may not include a host of academic articles published in scientific journals or popularized articles that have appeared and continue to appear regularly in various daily newspapers, magazines and internet sites and blogs.

The presentation of the field of Public Relations as the second part of this book constitutes a brief but simultaneously heuristic synthesis highlighting crucial events, processes, persons and practices from the first decade of the 20th century to the current, second decade of the 21st century. The major assumption and thesis of this presentation is that PR stands in very close relation to communication which was the subject matter of the first part of this book. PR strategies, principles and tactics of communication constitute an integral part of management activities in small and medium as well as large scale private and public enterprises and organizations in today's internationalized or, as some prefer to label it, globalized economy.

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6 The birth of a speciality

In this chapter we will delve briefly into the historical ancestral predecessors of public relations and look into the establishment of the field as a new communication speciality in the beginning of the 20th century highlighting the contributions of noted pioneers. This chapter will familiarize the reader with the initial difficulties, pitfalls and search for an identity and a broadly accepted definition of what is public relations and what it does. It will also familiarize the reader with the tools PR specialists employ and use as well as the variety of activities they engage in while providing services to individuals, groups, private and public enterprises and organizations.

6.1 Tracing P.R. roots in antiquity

It is a commonly shared reality in most, if not all, social and physical sciences, that the identification of the exact time period of their inception, their birth and public appearance, remains elusive and this reality holds true for the field of 'public relations' as well. Modern physical and social sciences, in their rudimentary form and as a rule, trace their inception in antiquity, especially in ancient Greece, the Greek philosophers and sophists and their theories on the universe and physical phenomena as well as on human society examining human individual and group behaviour.

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As is frequently the case with other academic disciplines, one approach in presenting the modern field of 'public relations' is by introducing the outstanding contributors to the field at the time of its inception to present time practices. Another, not exactly opposite but rather complimentary method would involve, vice versa, the examination of the sociological, psychological, economic and historical reasons which facilitated, some might even say necessitated, the appearance, aided the persistence of and positively contributed toward the survival and maturity of PR during the twentieth century.

There seems to be a consensus on the fact that the need to present and communicate the positive characteristics of individuals, groups and institutions is not exactly a modern times desire and practice but one that dates far back into antiquity and this assumption can be supported by evidence dating up to slightly more than two millennia B.C.

Historical documents substantiate the attempts of individuals and groups within a given 'State' to gain the attention and receive favours from Kings, Queens or other Leading figures wielding power and authority. Furthermore, heads of groups or city-States made specific efforts in appeasing a stronger and perhaps 'dangerous' Leader of another group or State by offering presents which ranged from ornaments produced from precious metals or precious stones to the 'offering' of young men and women to be used as servants or concubines.

In ancient Greek mythology, as discussed by Buxton (2004) as one among many others writers, King Aegeus, the ruler of Athens, was obliged to provide the Cretan King Minos with seven young men and seven young women from the nobility of Athens as 'offerings' to the Minotaur residing in the famous Labyrinth built by Daedalus. The Labyrinth was so designed by its architect Daedalus that once a person entered it, the exit was not just extremely difficult but indeed literally impossible for that person to achieve. The Labyrinth was built to keep Minotaur imprisoned there and unable to escape by exiting it. Minotaur, as the myth has it, a beast half-man and half-bull, was the son of Pasiphae, the wife of King Minos who was born after she slept with a bull sent by Zeus.

According to the myth, which has a number of variations, King Aegeus who was obliged to offer 7 young men and 7 maidens to King Minos and the Minotaur, put his own son Theseus in charge of the other six young men and the seven maidens and send them to Crete. Ariadne, the daughter of Minos, who was in charge of the Labyrinth, fell in 'love at first sight' with the Athenian Prince Theseus and, instead of letting him fall pray to her half-brother the Minotaur, she conspired with him in providing him with a technique ensuring his exit from the Labyrinth. The technique used was ingeniously simple: the Cretan Princess gave to Theseus a tangle of rope that has come through the ages to be known as 'Ariadne's threat'. Theseus proceeded to unfold the rope progressing into the Labyrinth thus marking his way in and then found his exit by folding the string when searching for his way out of the Labyrinth. The myth has it that Theseus, the son of King Aegeus of Athens and his valiant team members, fought with and did slain the Minotaur and then managed to exit the Labyrinth and were set victoriously free using the string Ariadne had given him.

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As Herodotus (2003) has reported, the classic 'good will' practice of offering fragrances or ornaments to potential rivals was abandoned by the Persian Kings. They introduced a new demand consisting of the submission of a pair of urns, one filled with water and the other earth (instead of expensive fragrances or ornaments of gold and precious stones). These constituted, on a symbolic basis, the absolute submission of the most valuable things a leader, a King or a Queen and their people had in their possession, namely the land and the water used to provide them with their livelihood.

6.2 A historic glimpse at the USA in late 19th and early 20th Century

Some historians and sociologists, as well as philosophers and other social scientists use the German concept of 'Zeitgeist' (meaning the spirit of the times) to characterize specific eras and epochs of mankind's procession through history.

It is widely accepted that during the latter part of the 19th century American industrialists amassed financial fortunes to levels never before encountered in any other known human society or any other historic epoch. The emerging class of 'nouveau riche' in the USA, the so-called American Barons or Captains of Industry, living and prospering on American soil, drew large amounts of criticism for their life-styles, their extravagances and their overall behaviour. American Industrialists, Railroad and Mining owners, Financiers and Bankers were derogatorily characterized and called 'Robber Barons'. According to the Encyclopedia of the Spanish American and Philippine American Wars (2009, vol.1, p.548) the term 'robber baron' initially referred to a feudal lord, usually in Germany, who charged huge tolls for merchants shipping goods through their lands or through the parts of German rivers belonging within the borders of their land.

Looking at the socio-economic realities of that era I will now call your attention to some theorists in the social sciences who have suggested that the writings of the British sociologist and scholar Herbert Spencer, especially his concept of the 'survival of the fittest' borrowed from Darwinian theory, as holding true for human societies, provided an 'excuse', as a scientifically supported underpinning, to the American 'nouveau riche' class. Spencer had proposed in his writings that an analogy could exist in human society for what Darwin had suggested as a reality in the animal kingdom. Spencer's theorem, according to his critics, embodied in the idea of 'social Darwinism', provided the American 'Robber Barons' with useful scientific and ethical justification for their unprecedented financial successes and, to some extent, it served to exonerate them of their extravagant behaviour and life styles.

In the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, in a chapter devoted to the British scientist, the reader may find, among other remarks, the following:

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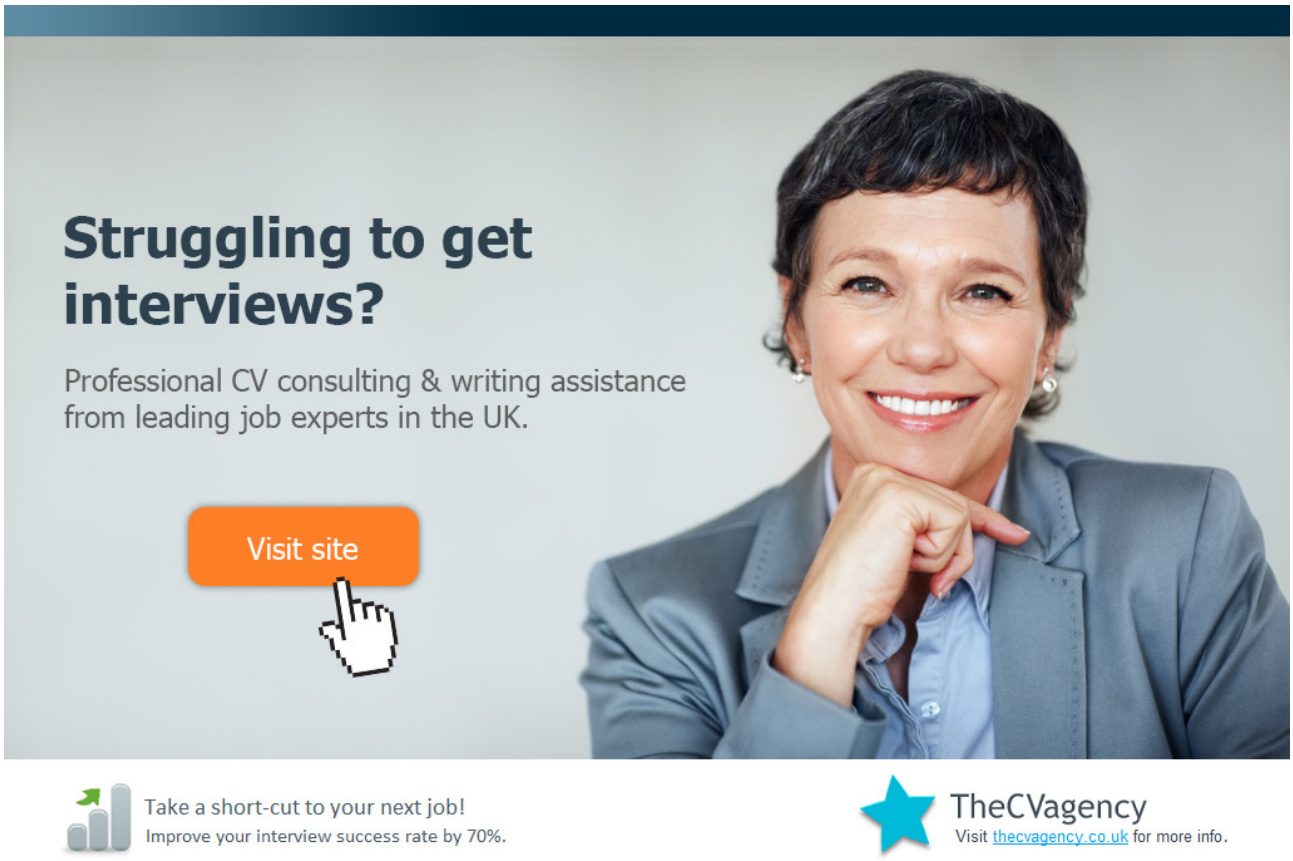
'Herbert Spencer (1820–1903) is typically, though quite wrongly, considered a coarse social Darwinist. After all, Spencer, and not Darwin, coined the infamous expression "survival of the fittest", leading G. E. Moore to conclude erroneously in Principia Ethica (1903) that Spencer committed the naturalistic fallacy. According to Moore, Spencer's practical reasoning was deeply flawed insofar as he purportedly conflated mere survivability (a natural property) with goodness itself (a non-natural property). Roughly fifty years later, Richard Hofstadter devoted an entire chapter of Social Darwinism in American Thought (1955) to Spencer, arguing that Spencer's unfortunate vogue in late nineteenth-century America inspired Andrew Carnegie and William Graham Sumner's visions of unbridled and unrepentant capitalism. For Hofstadter, Spencer was an "ultra-conservative" for whom the poor were so much unfit detritus. His social philosophy "walked hand in hand" with reaction, making it little more than a "biological apology for laissez-faire" (Hofstadter, 1955: 41 and 46). But just because Carnegie interpreted Spencer's social theory as justifying merciless economic competition, we shouldn't automatically attribute such justificatory ambitions to Spencer. Otherwise, we risk uncritically reading the fact that Spencer happened to influence popularizes of social Darwinism into our interpretation of him. We risk falling victim to what Skinner perceptively calls the 'mythology of prolepsis." (Weinstein, David, "Herbert Spencer", *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Fall 2012 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL = http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2012/entries/spencer/).



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Attempting to counteract the extravagances of these Captains of Industry (derogatorily called 'Robber Barons') the US Federal Government introduced the 1890 Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Professor Rudolph J. R. Peritz, (2008) commenting on the 1890 Sherman Anti-Trust Act has noted:

'In 1890, the United States pioneered competition law and significantly strengthened the future of free markets in the American system by adopting a new federal statute: the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. For the first time in history, a national government had taken responsibility to investigate and, if necessary, prosecute monopolies and price-fixing cartels. Over time, the results of this act, denounced by captains of industry at the time of its passage, would become clear. By limiting a business's ability to dominate its competitors in the marketplace, the new law made the American economic system more dynamic and more open to new competitors and new technologies.' (in http://www.america.gov/st/educ-english/2008/April/20080423212813eaifas0.42149.html) [accessed Jan., 2013] Professor Peritz goes on, in the same article (2008), to mention President Teddy Roosevelt and his actions that earned him the reputation of a 'trust-buster' as he notes:

'But in 1902, President Teddy Roosevelt took action that would make his reputation as a „trust-buster": On his instruction, the U.S. attorney general filed suit to break up Standard Oil, whose predatory conduct had come to symbolize the entire trust problem. Court cases can take a long time, but in 1911, the Supreme Court finally held that Standard Oil had illegally monopolized the petroleum industry. Simply put, its success had not been fairly won. The result was a decree to dissolve Standard Oil into 33 separate companies known as „baby Standards."...The Anti-Trust Act was a resounding success, or so it seemed. Price-fixing cartels were stopped in their tracks and the notorious Northern Securities and Standard Oil trusts were no more…'(in http://www.america.gov/st/educ-english/2008/April/20080423212813eaifas0.42149.html) [accessed Jan., 2013]

In *The Theory of the Leisure Class* (1899, 2007 p.36), Thorsten Veblen coined the now well known phrase 'conspicuous consumption' and placed it as the title of chapter four of his book. The term is used by Veblen to designate the act of purchasing and using certain goods and services, not in order to survive, but rather to identify oneself to others as possessing superior wealth and social standing. These possessions and services are extras that are to a serious extent wasteful. They symbolize certain persons' ability to buy and waste whatever they wish.

Throughout the twentieth century and up to our days it has become a well known and fairly well document sociological fact that people establish an identity not only by what they do or say, but also by what they can afford to purchase. The financial ability to buy certain types and models of cars, houses located in certain areas of city centres or select suburbs, to shop in certain stores, visit certain theaters, send children to certain schools and enjoy certain types of vacations constitute what have been termed as 'status symbols'. All of these are social symbols to which society has attached connotations of differentiating superior, middle or lower income and social class identity.

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Closing this sub section it will be noted that the creation of various charitable foundations and their financial support were considered by some as an attempt of the Captains of Industry to 'buy' some good will, to present and project outwardly a more humanitarian rather than sinister image of themselves and their enterprises. Notable examples of such efforts were, among others, the philanthropic institution, Rockefeller Foundation (established in 1913 by John D. Rockefeller, Sr. and John D. Rockefeller, Jr.) and 'The Carnegie Corporation of New York' established in 1911 by Andrew Carnegie.

From this prevailing 'zeitgeist' some critics of the field of Public Relations came to the conclusion that this new activity of promoting and publicizing the positive aspects of private and public enterprises and organizations was nothing more than a concealed effort to gain good will and acceptance in the public's minds.

6.3 Defining the field of Public Relations

Providing a definition of a science, in the vast spectrum of physical and social sciences, or of a scientific sub-field, is a familiar academic process and the reader would, logically and rightfully, expect to be provided at this point with a definition of 'public relations'. The interesting, if not outright fascinating and challenging reality, is that there appears to be a number of various definitions of PR both as an academic discipline as well as the professional endeavour of countless practitioners working as independent PR consultants or employed by internationally operating PR companies.

This plethora of definitions, or vice versa, the lack of a general consensus on one definition of what 'public relations' is and does, permeated the field for many decades during the 20th century. For some critics of the field of public relations this constitutes an undeniable weakness, while for practitioners in the field it constitutes a substantial strength for PR which, in a formally structured style, made its first appearance at the beginning of the 20th century.

Heath (2004) has noted the definitions that one of the 'fathers' of modern public relations, Edward Louis Bernays, had given for the field:

'public relations means exactly what it says, relations of an organizations, individual, idea, whatever with the publics on which it depends for its existence…Public relations counsel functions on a two way street. He interprets public to the client and client to public.' (p.78)

Theaker (2004) has noted that many decades later, in August 1978, convening in Mexico city, the first World Assembly of Public Relations Associations in what has since come to be known as 'the Mexican statement' defined the field as:

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'the art and social science of analyzing trends, predicting their consequences, counseling organizational leaders, and implementing planned programs of action, which will serve both the organization and the public interest.' (p.4)

In 1982, while holding its National Assembly, the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) concurred that a working definition of PR would be that 'public relations help an organization and its publics to adapt mutually to each other.' (in www.prsa.org)

Harrison (2000, p.2) notes that in 1987 the Institute of Public Relations, the UK's professional body for public relations, provided a definition for PR which considers it as 'the planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain goodwill and understanding between an organization and its publics.'

Morris & Goldsworthy (2012) indicated that several years later, in 1999 the UK based IPR (Institute of Public Relations Association) expanded its definition to include the concept of reputation management noting that:

'Public relations is about reputation - the result of what you do, what you say and what others say about you. Public Relations is the discipline which looks after reputation, with the aim of earning understanding and support and influencing opinion and behaviour. It is the planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain goodwill and mutual understanding between an organization and its publics' (p.4)

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Cutlip, et al (1985, p.49) in a popular and widely used textbook on public relations define the field as' the management function that identifies, establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the various publics on whom its success or failure depends.'

In a New York Times article written by Stuart Elliott and published on November 20, 2011 under the title 'Redefining Public Relations in the Age of Social Media' Public Relations Society of America (PRSA is the industry's largest organization) announced that it was embarking on an effort to develop a better definition of public relations.

Amassing a large number of definitions of public relations (1447 definitions in all) deposited between 2011 and 2012 by academics, practitioners and even the lay public who became interested in the PRSA-New York Times project a 'crowd – sourced' definition emerged:

"Public relations is a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics." http://prdefinition.prsa.org/ [accessed January 25, 2013]

6.4 Misconceptions of public relations

Although this may hold true for other sciences, scientific disciplines and professions, the truth is that while most persons have heard or are aware of PR as an academic discipline and a professional endeavour, very few know exactly what it encompasses, what it aims to achieve and how it works. Some persons still continue to conceive of public relations as a semi-scientific method for 'covering up' undesirable truths about individuals, groups or private and public enterprises and organizations. Some others falsely equate public relations with propaganda, while there are also some who understand public relations as a series of techniques for beautifying ugly or even antisocial realities. The truth is that none of these perceptions of public relations manages to even touch on the true nature, the aims, the techniques and strategies that comprise the field of public relations as both an academic discipline and a practitioners' professional endeavour.

Journalism, journalists and 'publicists' (this is an old term referring to the persons who undertook the task of informing the public of certain events such as the arrival of a circus in town) preceded the appearance of public relations and its practitioners. Indeed, as it turned out, it was persons who have had experience as journalists that are credited with the creation of the field of public relations and became the first public relations practitioners.

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There seems to be a consensus found in most academic textbooks, as well as in so called practitioners' books, concerning both the time of birth of the field of modern public relations and the persons credited with the processes and acts of propagating it. Generally it is accepted that public relations appeared in their modern form in the beginning of the 20th century and that four persons are associated with the process of 'fathering' and fostering P.R. They are, Ivy Ledbetter Lee, Edward Louis Bernays, Carl Robert Byoir and George Edward Creel.

For some Ivy Ledbetter Lee could be granted the status of being the father of modern PR while for others this title belongs to Edward Louis Bernays. There is a third point of view in which 'fatherhood' is split into two distinct roles crediting Lee with the father-practitioner role and Bernays with the father-academic theorist role in addition to the practitioner role. Both are credited for creating public relations in the modern public information model.

6.5 Brief profiles of four pioneers in P.R. history

Heath (2005 & 2010), Nimmo and Newsome (1997) and Tye (2002) are used here as the basic bibliographical sources for sketching the brief historical profiles of the four pioneers who established the field of Public Relations in the first decades of the twentieth century.

Ivy Ledbetter Lee was a journalist and a publicist before emerging as the first public relations practitioner and counselor. He founded originally in 1905 the Parker & Lee Public Relations firm which was shortly abandoned giving its place to the Public Relations Counseling Service 'Ivy Lee and Associates'.

During the first decade of the 20th century Lee was hired by the anthracite coal industry to help with the settlement of a serious prolonged strike. Having been successful in this role Lee went on to serve as a public relations counselor to railroad companies, to John D. Rockefeller and to the American Government. He is credited with efforts to convince his clients, the anthracite coal industry owners, to be open to the scrutiny of the public and the press as stated in his document titled 'Declaration of Principles.' This document, published in 1906, has come to be considered by some as the historic, first and formal PR 'press release'.

Edward Louis Bernays was an American born in Vienna, Austria. His father's sister Martha Bernays married the famed psychiatrist and creator of Psychoanalysis Dr Sigmund Freud and apparently for Edward Bernays this was a significant event that played a crucial role in his later professional life as an academic and a practitioner. He served as a press agent and PR consultant. Bernays conceived of public relations as a social science and applied, influenced by his 'uncle' psychoanalytic theories, basic psychological principles in drawing public persuasion campaigns. As his career unfolded he consulted presidents Woodrow Wilson and Calvin Coolidge as well as a host of private and public enterprises.

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The first university level academic course in public relations was taught by Bernays at New York University and his theoretical views for the emerging profession of PR were presented in his 1923, now classic, book bearing the title 'Crystallizing Public Relations'. He has been named by LIFE magazine as one of the 100 most influential Americans of the 20th century. His wife Doris Fleischman was also a public relations counselor and offered her services to a variety of clients in education, arts, business and government. It is widely known that she devoted plenty of energy and time towards the advancement of women in media careers.

It is useful to note at this point that from the first course Edward Bernays taught in 1923 at the University of New York, the courses and programs on the subject of public relations have seen a most impressive proliferation. Indeed, in the last few decades, and at an increasing rate, literally hundreds of undergraduate, post graduate and doctoral programs of study are being offered at hundreds of American, Canadian and European Colleges and Universities on the subjects of public relations and communication.

George Edward Creel was a journalist who distinguished himself as an investigative reporter, owner of his own newspaper (the Kansas City Independent) and editor of another newspaper (the Rocky Mountain News). He was appointed head of the United States Committee on Public Information, an organization created by President Woodrow Wilson during World War I, and considered by some as the American Government's 'War propaganda' agency.

Creel as head of the Committee on Public Information used what was considered, at that time, modern public relations strategy in promoting America's War efforts at home and abroad and rallying popular support. In 1935 he was appointed by Presidents Franklin D. Roosevelt as Chairman of the National Advisory Board of the Works Progress Administration (the Agency that provided employment to millions of unemployed Americans in the great depression era).

Carl Robert Byoir is also considered as one of the founding pioneers of American public relations. While employed by Hearst Magazine's publications he was appointed by President Woodrow Wilson as a member of the Committee of Public Information serving with George Edward Creel. In the 1930's he founded and organized one of the world's largest public relation firms.

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7 Publics, Public Opinion and its moulders

This chapter will familiarize the readers with the concept of 'public opinion' (while taking, simultaneously, a brief look at the individual concepts of *public* and *opinion*) and with the modern moulders of public opinion as they relate and dramatize a significant role in the field of modern public relations.

7.1 Historical evolution of the term 'public'

Nowadays when we use the term 'public' we infer to a specific group which is composed by persons sharing at least one identical characteristic, i.e. age, (two examples are teenagers as a public, retired persons and 3rd agers as another public), parenthood (mothers and fathers as a public or in contrast childless couples as a public). Other characteristics which may function as the building base, or backbone, of a public may range from church goers to atheists, from sports fans to joggers, from consumers of a special brand of toothpaste to the followers of a specific political party and ideology. Combining a number of characteristics and other variables more generalized publics emerge on a global scale and among them such are the religious publics (Christians, Muslims, Hindus or Buddhists) or the National publics (Americans, Britons, Germans, Chinese, etc).

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Private and public enterprises and organizations have to face the reality of dealing with a variety of publics which may include employees, suppliers, consumers, neighbours, Licensing Bureaus, Governmental Agencies, stockholders and communication media. In the day-to-day operations it is not uncommon for some of these publics to overlap as for example in the case of employees who are also consumers of the products their company produces or services their organization offers and perhaps even stockholders having purchased company shares.

Taking a very brief glimpse at the ancient Greek city-States and particularly the city of Athens, we realize that the concept of *public (το κοινόν)* was used to differentiate what referred to the total city population partaking in 'State Affairs' in a democratic processes (participation was exclusively the right of male Athenian citizens) from the *individual (το ίδιον)* referring to the personal or to the single person.

The modern term *idiotic,* which is used pejoratively for specific forms of behaviour, has its etymological root and origin in the Greek term mentioned above characterizing the personal in contrast to the collective type of behaviour. Thucydides (book 2.33-46) reported that Pericles, in his '*Epitaph',* the funeral oration for the fallen Athenians at the Peloponnesian War, emphasized that in the Athenian democracy the person who was not interested and did not participate in the common affairs preferring to be exclusively concerned only with his own personal affairs was considered useless, if not even dangerous, for the *public*, that is for the city-State.

Hoelscher (1979) has considered the term public as originating etymologically from the Latin word *poplicus* which later gave its place to the word *populus (people)* and it was influenced by the related word *pubes* which refers to the adult male population.

In this sense the conceptual implications and extensions of the term public convey the same meanings as the ancient Greek term '*ecclesia*' *(εκκλησία του Δήμου)* meaning the aggregate of the male Athenian citizens in their city-State politics. In this sense the public consisted of a few thousand Athenian citizens having the right to participate in the affairs of the city-State *(Πόλις).* In this exclusively male public the women of Athens and the servants were not permitted to participate. Indeed historical estimates make reference to less than ten thousand Athenian 'citizens' out of a population of more than half a million city and regional residents. The Athenian public convening on the hill of Pnyx (Πνύκα), located less than a km west of the Acropolis, as did the Roman public in the Forum, provided the right to each and every participant to state his view but the vast majority did not use their right to speak leaving it to the Statesmen and orators to do so employing and exhibiting publicly their rhetorical skills.

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The term public continued to be used throughout history in the context of meaning described above. As human demographics, however, expanded and increased in a parallel fashion with the geographic boundaries of nation-States they exceeded dramatically the human and geographic dimensions of the Athenian ***agora*** and the Roman ***Forum.*** Indeed starting with the 18th century, the public, as Gabriel de Tarde (1901) saw it, became a non-contiguous social collectivity dispersed in space but united by common symbols. Modern publics had acquired grand dimensions being composed of huge numbers of humans dispersed in great distances in their geographic habitats. Thus the numbers of people and the geographic dimensions rendered impossible the face-to-face interaction of members of the public and the possibility of creating interpersonal acquaintances among the participants.

Opinion, on the other hand, is a term used in English, French and other European languages and it stems etymologically from the Italian *opinione*, originating in the Latin term *opinari (*translated in English as to surmise, to hold a belief or judgement).

7.2 Public Opinion

Public opinion, a term emerging from the combination of the concepts of public and opinion, is a widely used and widely defined term. Turn on your TV set, tune into your favourite radio station at news broadcasting time, read your newspaper or an article in your favourite magazine and you will come across references to the term 'public opinion' again and again. Journalists, politicians, business executives and the lay public refer to 'public opinion' when specific issues rise and it is fairly common for social scientists do conduct research attempting to measure public opinion on these issues.

Walter Lippmann (1922 &1960) regarded public opinion as that which emanated from persons interested in public affairs, rather than as a fixed body of individuals. He believed that public opinion was effective only if those interested persons supported or opposed the 'actors' in public affairs. Land and Sears (1964) are quoted by Mitchell (1970) defining public opinion as 'an implicit verbal response or 'answer' that an individual gives in response to a particular stimulus situation in which some general 'question' is raised' (p. 62).

Speier (1950) quoted in Altheide & Johnson (1980) thought public opinion exists when a unique 'right' is granted to a significant portion of extra governmental persons and noted:

'In its most attenuated form this right asserts itself as the expectation that the government will reveal and explain its decisions in order to enable people outside the government to think and talk about these decisions, or to put it in terms of democratic amenities, in order to assure "the success" of the government's policy.' (p. 7)

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Propaganda, which will be presented and discussed more extensively in the following chapter, is most often associated with the management of public opinion. Mitchell (1970, pp 60-61) gave four forms that public opinion usually assumes: (a) popular opinion as generalized support for an institution, regime, or political system (as opposed to apathy, withdrawal, or alienation); (b) patterns of group loyalties and identifications; (c) public preferences for select leaders; and (d) intensely held opinions prevalent among a large public regarding public issues and current affairs. Mitchell (1970) likened the propagandist's management of public opinion to:

'a burning glass which collects and focuses the diffused warmth of popular emotions, concentrating them upon a specific issue on which the warmth becomes heat and may reach the firing-point of revivals, risings, revolts, revolutions' (p. 111).

The Encyclopaedia Britannica defines **public opinion as '**an aggregate of the individual views, attitudes, and beliefs about a particular topic, expressed by a significant proportion of a community. Some scholars treat the aggregate as a synthesis of the views of all or a certain segment of society; others regard it as a collection of many differing or opposing views.'

The official Website of the European Commission states (verbatim):

'This is the website for the Public Opinion Analysis sector of the European Commission. Since 1973, the European Commission has been monitoring the evolution of public opinion in the Member States, thus helping the preparation of texts, decision-making and the evaluation of its work. Our surveys and studies address major topics concerning European citizenship: enlargement, social situation, health, culture, information technology, environment, the Euro, defense, etc.' (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/index_en.htm)

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8 Rhetoric, Persuasion and Propaganda

Plato was probably the first to describe a theory of rhetoric. He was concerned with the nature of truth and how man's quest for truth can be either foiled or enhanced through the power of rhetoric and persuasion. To warn of this danger, he wrote a series of dialogues, three of which, the Gorgias, the Phaedrus, and the Menexenus, were concerned with the principles of rhetoric. These dialogues took the form of conversations between Socrates, the philosopher seeker of truth, and a sophist, who is concerned with the appearance of truth rather than the reality. The Sophists were itinerant teachers who gave lectures and wrote books on persuasion. These books contained 'commonplaces,' i.e. general arguments and techniques that could be adapted for a variety of persuasive purposes. (Griswold, 2012, in: http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2012/entries/plato-rhetoric/

The Sophists were known for their dangerous views of the role of persuasion, hence the negative connotation of the word sophistry as meaning 'trickery or fallacious argument'. In the Gorgias dialogue Socrates makes an eloquent and most didactic differentiation between 'teaching' which provides the listeners with skill necessary to do things and 'persuasion' which leads people simply to do the things the orator desires.

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Aristotle, originally Plato's pupil in the 'Platonic Academy' of Athens, later became a teacher on his own merits creating his 'Peripatetic School'. In Aristotle's view the function of rhetoric was not synonymous to, and was not exhausted by, simply succeeding to persuade, but should rather be aiming towards the discovery of the means of coming as near to such a success as the circumstances of each particular case would allow. In his *Rhetoric*, (from the Greek word *'ρητορική'* possessed by a *'ρήτωρ'* that is a speaker (in the '*ρητορική τέχνη*' the 'art of speaking') Aristotle, perhaps counteracting Plato's somewhat pejorative treatment of 'rhetoric' in the Gorgias, wrote that persuasion is based on three specific and distinct elements. These three elements are: *ethos*, the personal character of the speaker; *pathos*, appealing to the audience's emotions and values; and *logos*, referring to the convincing evidence and the reasoning process (Rapp, 2010, in: (http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2010/entries/aristotle-rhetoric/)

Ethos, (from the Greek word 'ήθος' meaning character), pathos (from the Greek word 'πάθος' meaning suffering) and logos (from the Greek word 'λόγος' meaning logic) constitute for Aristotle an 'equilateral triangle' where each one of the three terms, as is the case with the length of each side of this type of a triangle, has the same strength as the other two.

In their book bearing the title 'Writing Arguments' Ramage and Bean, (1998) have noted that:

"Logos (Greek for 'word') refers to the internal consistency of the message--the clarity of the claim, the logic of its reasons, and the effectiveness of its supporting evidence. The impact of logos on an audience is sometimes called the argument's logical appeal. Ethos (Greek for 'character') refers to the trustworthiness or credibility of the writer or speaker. Ethos is often conveyed through tone and style of the message and through the way the writer or speaker refers to differing views. It can also be affected by the writer's reputation as it exists independently from the message--his or her expertise in the field, his or her previous record or integrity, and so forth. The impact of ethos is often called the argument's 'ethical appeal' or the 'appeal from credibility.' Pathos (Greek for 'suffering' or 'experience') is often associated with emotional appeal. But a better equivalent might be 'appeal to the audience's sympathies and imagination.' An appeal to pathos causes an audience not just to respond emotionally but to identify with the writer's point of view, to feel what the writer feels. In this sense, pathos evokes a meaning implicit in the verb 'to suffer' to feel pain imaginatively.... Perhaps the most common way of conveying a pathetic appeal is through narrative or story, which can turn the abstractions of logic into something palpable and present. The values, beliefs, and understandings of the writer are implicit in the story and conveyed imaginatively to the reader. Pathos thus refers to both the emotional and the imaginative impact of the message on an audience, the power with which the writer's message moves the audience to decision or action." (pp 81-82)

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For Aristotle the three elements for successful orators, as mentioned above, constitute an equilateral triangle and each of the three is as important as the other two. Indeed, a balance of the three is important. Too much of one is likely to produce an argument that readers will either find unconvincing or that will cause them to stop reading. Therefore, in Aristotelian terms in order to persuade an audience the spokesperson must be credible, someone the audience can trust and look up to, and he must be able to speak directly to the audience's feelings or values in a positive way in order to have an emotional impact. The Sophists believed that persuasion was needed to discover important facts where Aristotle believed knowledge could be gained only by logic and reason.
((http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2010/entries/aristotle-rhetoric/)

May and Wisse (2001, pp 3-12) translating into English Cicero's work 'On the ideal orator' and Fantham (2007, pp 78-101) analyzing the historical era in which Cicero's work was written present his suggestions for the training of an orator, showing that the Romans continued the Greek rhetorical tradition in the courts of law, the Senate, and during funeral orations. Cicero, one of the most famous statesman-philosophers of his era established what he called the official *oratoris*, the duties of the orator: to charm or to influence the audience by establishing the credibility of the orator, to teach by presenting a message with sound arguments, and to move by appealing to the audience's emotions. Cicero was convinced that a statesman-philosopher should speak on all topics persuasively and should be thoroughly knowledgeable in literature, philosophy, law, and logic.

8.1 From Rome with…'love'

Within the purview and realm of human communication, the term 'propaganda' seems to have deviated grossly from it's initial purpose and meaning and has gathered vast amounts of adverse meanings and connotations arousing negative reactions in the public. Following the brief presentation above of the concepts of rhetoric and the process of persuasion, the concept of propaganda will be presented, from its inception to current practices, so that the reader may get a better understanding of its usage, techniques, meanings, ramifications and applications.

The title given to this subsection of chapter 8 is a deliberate and liberal 'plagiarism' of the well known Ian Fleming novel and the film based on it and the implicit irony is not pejorative or malicious but well intended in carrying through the initial motivation and attitudes of the creators of the term 'propaganda'. Rhetoric, which as presented above, was developed and taught in ancient Athens as a means of persuasion found a less noble antagonist in the practice of sophists who, as demagogues, attempted to manipulate their audiences addressing themselves more to their emotions and less to their logical thinking and critical faculties. Aristotle, Plato and Isocrates developed specific manuals for the art of persuasion and rhetoric insisting on the use of solid arguments addressing the logical and critical faculties of the audiences and avoiding the exploitation of their emotions.

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In 1622 the Vatican established the *'Sacra Congregatio de Propaganda Fide' a* Congregation with the mandate to introduce the Catholic faith in the New World and to counteract the rising Protestant movement.

The practice of propaganda as a technique of persuasion has lead to the widespread current perceptions viewing propaganda as synonym to lies, deception, manipulation, deceit and brain washing to mention but just a few of the negative connotations that are attached to the term. In other words, as it has turned out, propaganda has been, perhaps unfortunately but nonetheless clearly, associated with unfair, unethical and harmful tactics in communication.

8.2 Not one but a multitude of definitions

From its introduction by the Roman Catholic Church and through the last few centuries, and especially the 20th century and the two World Wars, propaganda as a concept and persuasion technique has been studied by sociologists, psychologists, political scientists, journalists and communication specialists. The ensuing result has been that there is no commonly and widely accepted definition of propaganda, but instead we are faced with a series of definitions some differentiating propaganda and persuasion and some placing propaganda within the purview of persuasion, if not outright rendering them synonymous.

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Jowett and O'Donnell (2012) in the 5th edition of their well known text have given the following definition 'Propaganda is the deliberate, systematic attempt to shape perceptions, manipulate cognitions, and direct behaviour to achieve a response that furthers the desired intent of the propagandist.' (p. 7)

Pratkanis and Turner (1996) defined the function of propaganda as 'attempts to move a recipient to a predetermined point of view by using simple images and slogans that truncate thought by playing on prejudices and emotions.' (p. 190). They separated propaganda from persuasion according to the type of deliberation used to design messages. Persuasion, they said in the same book, is based on 'debate, discussion, and careful consideration of options to discover 'better solutions for complex problems, whereas 'propaganda results in the manipulation of the mob by the elite.' (p. 191)

Carey (1997) regarding propaganda in the corporate world, has seen it as:

'Communications where the form and content is selected with the single-minded purpose of bringing some target audience to adopt attitudes and beliefs chosen in advance by the sponsors of the communications' (p. 2–1).

As Noam Chomsky, in his introduction to Carey's collection of essays states, Carey believed that:

'The twentieth century has been characterized by three developments of great political importance: the growth of democracy, the growth of corporate power, and the growth of corporate propaganda as a means of protecting corporate power against democracy.' (p. ix).

Additionally, Carey has written that:

'commercial advertising and public relations are the forms of propaganda activity common to a democracy…It is arguable that the success of business propaganda in persuading us, for so long, that we are free from propaganda is one of the most significant propaganda achievements of the twentieth century.' (pp. 1–4, 2–1).

8.3 A variety of propaganda types

Szanto (1978) has proposed a differentiation of propaganda as fulfilling an integrative function aiming to render an audience non-challenging, accepting and thus passive, and as an agitative function which rouses an audience to certain ends which are used to introduce by demand specific changes. Disinformation is a part of the propaganda process in which false or untrue information is passed on to an audience, not by mistake but by intention, aiming to influence it in the way the sender desires. False news stories, rumours and unsubstantiated allegations are passed as real by Governmental agencies on the international front as well as within the boundaries of a Nation aiming to weaken adversaries.

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White propaganda emanates from an identified or identifiable source conveying a message that is more or less accurate and which aims at establishing a more positive perception of the message's sender.

Black propaganda covers the process where the source of a message is cleverly concealed or it is credited to a false authority; it spreads lies, fabrications, and deceptions. Black propaganda is the 'big lie', including all types of creative deceit. Sociologists, political scientists, psychologists and historians often time are using as an example of this type Joseph Goebbels, Hitler's propaganda minister, who claimed that outrageous charges evoke more belief than milder statements that merely twist the truth slightly. The success or failure of black propaganda is directly related to the audience's readiness and willingness to accept the credibility of the source and the content of the message. Black propaganda takes special care in placing both the sources and messages within a social, cultural, and political framework of the target audience. If the sender misunderstands the audience and therefore designs a message that does not fit, black propaganda may appear suspicious and will tend to fail.

Gray propaganda lies somewhere between white and black propaganda since the sender, as a source, may or may not be correctly identified, and the accuracy of the information transmitted is uncertain. Gray propaganda has been widespread in the past and it continues currently to be even more widespread. Distorting statistics in Company or National reports, suggesting that a product will achieve results which it cannot, and politicians who solicit our vote for personal interest are some examples of gray propaganda.

Herman and Chomsky in their book titled 'manufacturing consent' (1988) under the heading of 'propaganda model' describe five editorially distorting filters applied to news reporting in modern Mass Media:

'(1) the size, concentrated ownership, owner wealth, and profit orientation of the dominant mass-media firms, (2) advertising as the primary income source of the mass media, (3) the reliance of the media on information provided by government, business and "experts" funded and approved by these primary sources and agents of power, (4) "flak" as a means of disciplining the media; and (5) "anticommunism" as a national religion and control mechanism.' (p.2)

The dominant mass media are for profit corporations and so the first filter refers to their need to satisfy investors' demands for profits. The second filter concerns the reality that it is advertisements which constitute the media financial life-lines and logically advertisers have gained and wield relevant authority. The readers of this book can easily understand that media outlets cannot survive without the support of advertisers. As sinister as it may sound it is visible that news media cater to the political prejudices and economic desires of their advertisers. On the one hand modern day 'penny press' aimed to serve the working-classes lacking the massive financial resources of competitors stands no chance and, on the other hand, it is easy to see the continuously progressive attrition in the number of newspapers published nowadays.

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Modern day acquisition and production of news builds up immense costs which for the Mass Media are subsidized by the large, powerful bureaucracies resulting in the Media subjugation to such bureaucracies. One can easily surmise that those who provide these subsidies become 'routine' news sources and in this way gain access to the 'gates'. Non-routine sources are forced to the disadvantaged position of having to struggle for access, and often time may be ignored by the arbitrary decisions of 'gatekeepers'.

Flak, the fourth filter, is a term coined by Herman and Chomsky to describe negative responses to a media statement or program (from letters, SMS and twits registering complaints, to lawsuits, or even legislative actions). Flak, if not controlled, can turn out to be expensive to the Media, either as a loss of advertising revenue, or as accrued costs of legal defense or defense of the Media outlet's public image. Flak is costly and therefore any chance of being confronted with it may acts as a deterrent to the reporting of certain kinds of facts or opinions. The fifth filter, in the original edition of the book in 1988, had been termed 'Anti-Communism' but lately Chomsky argues that since the 'Cold War' (1945-1991) came to an end with the fall of the 'Wall' that had divided East & West and the dissolution of the U.S.S.R., 'anticommunism' has been replaced by 'War on Terror' as a major social control mechanism.

Collier and Horowitz, (2004) as editors of a volume given the revealing title 'The Anti-Chomsky Reader' present a collection of essays authored by various writers who go on to criticize some mildly and some sharply Chomsky's theses and assertions. The interested readers could take a look at this volume and draw their own conclusions for Chomsky as a writer considered by some as bold and courageous and by others as a modern political heretic.

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8.4 World Wars & the use of Propaganda

The practice of propaganda was altered in the last decades of the 19th century and especially with the onset of the 20th century aided by the invention of radio which made it possible for messages to be sent across borders and over long distances without necessitating or needing the sender's or communicator's physical presence. Ultimately radio developed into the major medium of full-scale international white propaganda, in which the source of the message is clear and the audience knows and often eagerly expects to hear different political viewpoints.

Television viewing as a large scale, mass leisure-time activity in the industrialized world, as well as in developing countries, is dominating the Media scene but there is no indication of any decline in the use of radio for propaganda purposes by interest groups, political parties and Nations. Indeed, it is a well known 'non-secret' that large sums of money are currently spent on the worldwide dissemination of information through radio and television Media from a variety of groups and 'opinion centres' representing a multitude of political ideologies.

Radio played a significant role during the years of the First World War and an even more critical role during the Second World War and, after its end, during the 'cold war' period. By the beginning of World War II in the summer of 1939, approximately 25 countries were broadcasting internationally in a variety of foreign languages beyond their National language. The outbreak of World War II, as had been the case but on a more limited scale during World War I, once again, brought about an enormous expansion of international radio services.

The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) was charged with the role of the major arm of the Allied propaganda effort. It is now known, and it has been recorded, that by the end of 1940, 23 languages had been added to the BBC repertoire and more than 78 separate news bulletins were being aired and offered everyday.

Understandably, special attention was given to the German and Italian broadcasts in strategic efforts to propagandize for the Allies in the two European countries comprising the 'Axis' powers. Governmental representatives and dignitaries of Allied Nations, living in exile in London, were also given the opportunity to broadcast to their home countries in their own language. By the end of World War II, the BBC was the largest international broadcaster by far, programming in more than 43 languages. The BBC managed to earn objectively a reputation for accuracy and so, beyond Allied people and Nations, it has been recorded that even German and Italian troops were tuning in to 'BBC news' broadcasts to find out what was really happening on the various War fronts. Interesting reviews of significant 'radio moments and history' have been highlighted by Donovan (1991).

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In the Pacific War theatre, during the Second World War, the United States and its Allies were broadcasting their own propaganda programs while the Japanese Government's propaganda broadcasts were given by American and Allied troops the title 'Tokyo Rose'. Tokyo Radio is said to have used a number of female DJ's for its propaganda broadcasts aimed at breaking the morale of American and Allied Military, Navy and Air Force personnel stationed or engaged in various locations around the Pacific. Among the estimated 6 or 10 different female broadcasters was Mrs Iva Toguri (d'Aquino) who was the only American citizen (of Japanese ancestry) serving on the staff of Radio Tokyo.

Gunn (1977) who had served as a War correspondent in the Pacific region wrote about the tragic story of an American citizen of Japanese ancestry, that is, Mrs Iva Toguri (d'Aquino). The book which is now available and enlarged in its 2nd edition (2008) by Brent Bateman, expands on the life long drama of Mrs Iva Toguri (d'Aquino), who while visiting relatives in Japan was trapped there after the Pearl Harbour bombing and, at the end of the War was arrested, brought to trial and imprisoned with the accusation of being the voice of 'Tokyo Rose'. She was finally exonerated and pardoned in 1977 by then US President Gerald Ford.

8.5 The Korean War and "Brainwashing"

In the aftermath of the Korean War, a new concept entered the English vocabulary aiming to describe a disturbing type of coercion that was soon added to the many lists of synonyms for propaganda. This word was 'brainwashing', and it appears to have originated with and taken from the Chinese term 'hse nao' meaning literally 'wash brain." Chinese communist leader Mao Tse-tung had used the term 'ssu-hsiang tou-cheng', or 'thought struggle,' as early as 1929 to denote what is now called 'mind control' or 'thought control.' The term has acquired a very sinister connotation and, in recent years, has been widely associated with the type of thought control found in various cults groups, although scientific evidence that 'brainwashing' is a viable psychological concept is conflicting (Singer & Lalich, 1995).

Schein (1957) presented the argument that to convert American prisoners of war to Marxist theory, the Communists made a careful study of the vulnerability of their victims who were POWs and subjected them initially to physical stress and then to psychological stress:

'The typical experience of the prisoner of war must be divided into two broad phases. The first phase lasted anywhere from one to six months beginning with capture, followed by exhaustive marches to the North of Korea and severe privation in inadequately equipped temporary camps, terminating in assignment to a permanent prisoner of war camp. The second phase, lasting two or more years, was marked with chronic pressures to collaborate and to give up existing group loyalties in favour of new ones. Thus, while physical stresses had been outstanding in the first six months, psychological stresses were outstanding in this second period. The reactions of the men toward capture were influenced by their overall attitude toward the Korean situation. Many of them felt inadequately prepared, both physically and psychologically.' (p.21)

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Schein (1957, pp 21-30), furthermore, went on to analyze that the captors found additional weaknesses characterizing their prisoners through a system of informers and created new insecurities by giving the men no social support for their old values. They manipulated group influences to support Communist values and exploited their ability to control behavior and all punishments and rewards in the situation of War prison Camps. The direction of all their efforts, however, was to undermine the prisoners' old values and to supply them with new ones. Schein has, furthermore, listed several procedures employed by Chinese personnel as factors that played crucial role in the 'brainwashing' process of American POWs. Among them was the separation of high ranking officers (leaders) from low ranking personnel, total deprivation from all contact as well as censorship of letters from outsiders, creation of distrust among prisoners by the suggestion of existing or suspicion of operating informers, control of rewards and punishments (food, medicines, and special privileges). The degree of their success has probably been exaggerated in the public's perception of that 'brainwashing', but for their point of view, they did achieve some genuine gains.

Segal (1957, p. 31-32) analyzed and appraised the phenomenon of 'brainwashing' of American military personnel returning from Korean POW camps taking a sample of 579 of the 3,323 returning POWs out of a total of 6656 Army troops taken as Korean prisoners (the rest had perished while in captivity). He found that about 15% of the POWs had succumbed to the pressures exercised by their captors (and about 12% per cent of them seemed to sympathise with Communist ideology). Furthermore, a few, about 5%, had resisted all communist efforts to indoctrinate them or to use them for propaganda purposes, while the vast majority, about 80 per cent, remained 'neutrals'. For those that had succumbed to the tortures and pressures of their captors the Army suggested court martial and dishonourable discharge, for those that resisted commendations were suggested while the vast majority of personnel returning from North Korean POW camps were not dealt with.

In his evaluation of this socio-psychological phenomenon, Dupuy (1965, pp 467-475) has suggested that the extensive and expert brainwashing encountered by Korean War prisoners was, in essence, an entirely new form of coercive propaganda. The Korean POW type of brainwashing caused much discussion within the U.S. military as well as among academics interested in existing and new propaganda techniques. This led to both a general belief that the men had not been adequately prepared to withstand the psychological and physical tortures they would encounter if fallen in enemy hands and a reassessment of what ideological training they should have received during their so-called 'boot-camp' training period prior to being shipped to the war 'front'.

Katz (1960) commenting on the 'Brainwashing' issues as they relate to the change of attitudes held by individuals (in this instance American Army personnel serving as prisoners in Korean POW camps) has noted that:

'Perhaps the two most important lessons of the Korean experience are (1) the importance of central values in sustaining the ego under conditions of deprivation and threat and (2) the necessity of maintaining some form of group support in resisting the powerful manipulations of an opponent.' (p 198)

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9 Corporate Communication & Responsibility

There are those, among both academics and managers, who believe that the 21st century is an era characterized by unprecedented dynamic changes posing new problems, as challenges to be met, and demanding new types of corporate personnel along with innovative approaches to problem solving and possession of specific skills and talents relating to effective communication. Taking into consideration the existing realities in the Information and Communication Technologies, the 'zeitgeist' seems to suggest a rapid transition from the information age to the knowledge age.

This chapter will familiarize the readers with the basic concepts of corporate communication and corporate relations and their role in ensuring the success, prosperity and survival in a highly competitive globalized economic climate to small, medium and large scale private and public enterprises and organizations.

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9.1 Corporate Communication

Corporate communication is considered as the sum total of a corporation's efforts to properly, pragmatically and ethically inform its various stakeholders, so as to insure a uniform basis of its vision and the acts needed to remain competitive by gaining and properly using various competitive advantages compared to its competitors. In this framework stakeholders are considered to be the corporation's employees, customers, agents, vendors and representatives, suppliers, stockholders, press and other media and regulating local, regional and national authorities. In traditional public relations terms these are the various 'publics' with which private enterprises and public organizations have to deal.

Effective corporate communication will ensure that the stated vision is understood and accepted by management and employees and so the desired corporate culture will come to successfully permeate all levels of authority and responsibility of the organizational chart. Effective internal communication will solidify the corporate identity and enrich its culture. Pragmatic, innovative and convincing corporate vision will strengthen the corporate culture among those who constitute its Human Resources and, furthermore, will reflect favourably on all other stakeholders (or publics) related in a variety of ways to the corporate entity, i.e. the private or public enterprise or organization. Desired corporate reputation (that is internal and external stakeholders' overall assessment of the corporation) can be secured and strengthened by creation and application of proper communication strategy and tactics.

Although the level of complexity that characterizes specific private or public SMEs (Small and Medium Enterprises) or LSEs (Large Scale Enterprises) or organizations may vary from one to another, in everyday reality the available range of Information Communication Technology media are used by all. Within the corporation, managers, middle level and line staff and employees use available LAN (Local Area Networks) and computer networks, e-mails, interactive video (or Skype), land-line telephones and currently, at substantially diminished levels compared to a couple of decades ago FAX, is also used on a daily basis.

Corporate communication with outside stakeholders (or publics) is usually delegated to the corporate communication department (or public relations department). In this way uniformity in relating the necessary information to them is secured and the corporation presents an image of authority and credibility in its statements. Projecting and presenting the corporation's image properly and authoritatively to its stakeholders, reinforces their respect and trust and provides much needed competitive advantage in a world characterized by fierce competition.

News magazines or 'in-house publications', are available in printed and/or digital form in the vast majority of Large Scale Enterprises and organizations (as well as in some SMEs) in informing their employees on matters relating to their on-going as well as their future activities.

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Large scale private and public enterprises and organizations publish magazines some of which are intended exclusively for internal use and others for external use. It is not rare to find that such publications are made available to in-house as well as outside audiences. There is a plethora of such magazines in internationally operating private enterprises and public organizations and a usual practice is to have the original edition published at their headquarters in their mother tongue while their international subsidiaries have the same contents translated and published in the host Nations' language. Classified in this category are usually the annual company reports publicizing corporate and organizational activities, annual budgets and significant developments in production lines or management and future plans.

While employed in the past as the public and industrial relations manager for the Greek subsidiary of the 'Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company', I was responsible for preparing and publishing on a quarterly basis, every year, two different magazines bearing the titles of 'Goodyear Hellas – family' and 'Goodyear Hellas – news'.

The 'GY-family' magazine was the publication aimed for 'in-house' distribution featuring internal stories on employees and their activities such as being awarded the prestigious 'lapel pin' bearing the number 5, 10 or 15 indicating the years of continuous employment in Goodyear Hellas; social events such as births, engagements and marriages of employees; interesting 'vignettes' from the daily work of people working in various departments ranging from the production facilities in the plant located in Thessaloniki to the accounting and sales personnel based in the Athens offices; vignettes would also cover news from personnel dispersed in the Greek mainland and the dozens of Greek islands. Included in this quarterly newsletter were also some significant and interesting news coming from Goodyear Headquarters located in Akron, Ohio, covering news of the company's world wide operations.

The 'GY-news' magazine was intended for external stakeholders and featured specific products coming into the Greek market produced in the Thessaloniki factory or imported from other Goodyear factories operating in Europe; research and product development news from the company's international facilities and activities; news relating to the 'Formula One' world, the 'pilots' and developing stories of competing pilots, teams of cars and car manufacturers (at that time Goodyear supplied competing cars with specially built F-1 tires). In each issue there were 'special feature stories' highlighting the personal and family life, difficulties, problems and successes of two retailers selected from among the various regional wholesalers and local retailers of Goodyear tires and their sales shops representing different geographic areas of Greece. The feature stories were the result of my personal interviews with the selected 'Goodyear retailers' and, if they concurred, with members of their families.

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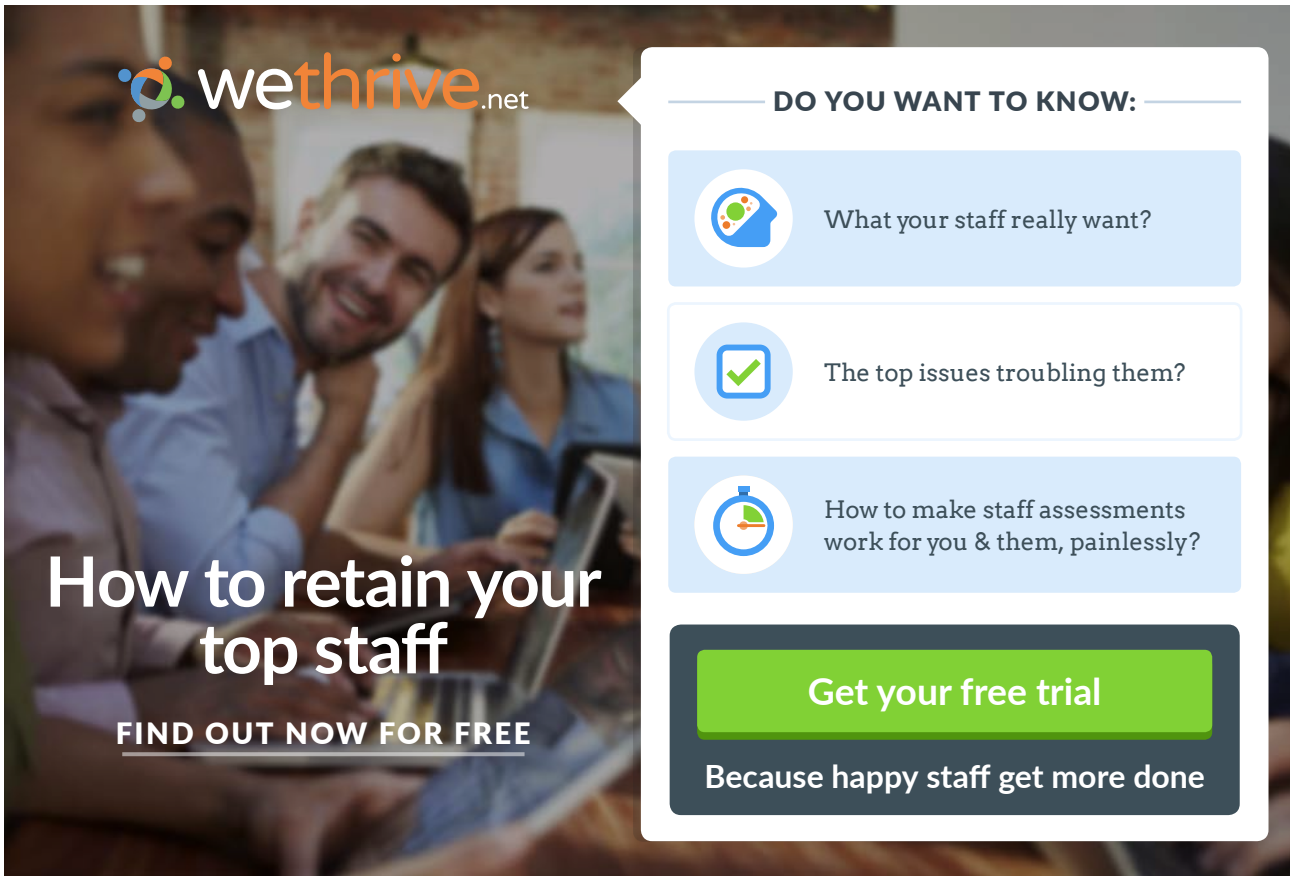
Realizing that there was much to be gained in the area of corporate communications and relations with the various 'publics' I took the decision, and was fully supported by the Goodyear Hellas CEO, to mail both of these magazines, each time they were published, to a large number of Greek journalists and media located not only in the capital city of Athens and the city of Thessaloniki (where as noted above the Goodyear factory was located) but to other regional and local Media. The magazines were also mailed to a variety of National, Regional and local authorities, other industrial enterprises and various social organizations. I should note here that these mailings ended up bringing favourable responses for Goodyear Hellas.

9.2 Corporate responsibility or CSR

At this point we should, even briefly, mention the concept of corporate responsibility or CSR, (Corporate Social Responsibility) which denotes that modern enterprises and organizations should look beyond their bottom line on the financial reports and be seriously concerned with good communal citizenship and environmental respect. Modern Medium and Large Scale private and public enterprises and organizations are challenged, within the philosophy of CSR, to show to all stakeholders that they are aware of the ways their activities affect personnel, products and services, consumers and the environment and provide assurances that they make all possible efforts to be responsible citizens. Successful corporate communication ensures that the image of a corporation or an organization to the various stakeholders' perception of its social responsibility is assured, providing it with the competitive advantage of being a responsible producer of goods and services offered to consumers.



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Surely there are those who claim that self-respecting private and public corporations and organizations were always careful in their activities showing respect for their employees and affiliated persons from suppliers to agents and representatives, to their consumers and the residents of the communities they existed in and the environment in which they operated. On the other hand there are those critics who claim that CSR is simply a modern, practical and obvious means of gaining 'good publicity' through modern PR techniques and strategies. Be it as it may, it is true that the public opinion expects and, occasionally, demands that regional, national and international corporations and organizations behave in responsible ways.

I believe that it would be useful to bring to the readers' attention some personal experiences from my tenure as a PR manager not in order to satisfy an inner need of self aggrandizement for success but in the hope of pointing out and making it clear that, often time, PR personnel can creatively intertwine personal experiences and specific PR tasks for the benefit of the private and public enterprise or organization where they are employed.

At the beginning of my tenure with Goodyear Hellas, I had been successful in becoming a frequent guest in the special television program of the 'Automobile and Touring Club of Greece' which under the title *'The Greek and the Automobile'* aired every Sunday on Greek Television channel One, (the leading of Greece's two TV channels at that time). As a guest I presented sociological analyses of road accidents and discussed psychological profiles of Greek car drivers and their habits. This involvement helped my activities as the PR manager of a multinational Tire company and was well received by the Greek public and the Media as it brought forth useful insights needed in a country which held then, and continues to do so even today, the top place in traffic accident fatalities, serious bodily injuries and vast losses in property. Surely my presence as a guest of this TV show could be construed as 'gray advertisement' for the company that employed me, but we overcame that potential 'pitfall' by avoiding reference to my job as PR manager for Goodyear Greece using on my identity card, projected on the TV screen, my professional title as Professor Dr in Sociology & Psychology.

While employed as the public and industrial relations manager with Goodyear Hellas and living in Athens, other colleagues and I, as social scientists, and along with us journalists, educators, law enforcement personnel and medical professionals witnessed a rising problem in alcohol and substance abuse among Greek adolescents and young adults. I felt that I could effectively utilise experiences I had gained in previous years in the USA when I served as a Researcher and Director of various programs and 'Therapeutic Communities' in the areas of prevention, treatment and aftercare of people involved in substance abuse. Hoping to combine my previous expertise with my activities as the PR manager for Goodyear Hellas I asked the company's CEO and Board of Directors to permit me to proceed with the publication and distribution, free of charge, of a booklet dealing with 'Alcoholism and Drug Abuse'.

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The booklet was published in Greek with my name as the author appearing at the top part of the front cover, the title 'Drug addiction – A burning issue of our times' in the middle of the front cover along with a photo-collage of syringes and pills, and at the bottom the phrase-note 'Distributed Free as a public Service Offering of Goodyear Hellas'. The book was produced in several thousand copies and distributed free of charge to targeted individuals and groups. The booklet was delivered to the Principles and Head teachers of all high schools dispersed throughout the country, the Directors and deputy directors of all Police precincts, all Greek Bishops and heads of Church affiliated youth groups and organizations, the Greek Boy and Girl Scout national, regional and local group leaders, journalists in all national, regional and local Greek Media. Copies were distributed to all company personnel as well as owners or managers of companies operating as Goodyear suppliers, to all wholesalers and retailers selling Goodyear Tires and to the Board members of the Greek Labour Syndicates. Recipients were also all the Cabinet Members of the Greek Government and all the Members of the Greek Parliament and the Prefects heading the more than fifty Prefectures of Greece.

It provided all of us with a sense of significant accomplishment when the first edition was quickly exhausted and the CEO and B. of D. of Goodyear Hellas authorized the immediate reprint and publication of a 'second edition' adding several more thousand of copies for free distribution. The booklet was widely acclaimed in the Greek Media as an act of 'social responsibility of a multinational corporation' at a time when multinational corporations were under continuous criticism by Labour Syndicates and a part of the press.

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I had kept the copyright to that booklet, as its author, and as the problems of alcohol, drug and substance abuse continued to rise in the 80'e and 90's I proceeded to enlarge the contents of the original booklet creating a new under the original title. This new booklet was published and, subsequently, distributed 'free of charge' by the Greek supermarket co-operative chain 'KONSUM'; by the Provident Health Fund of the National Bank of Greece; by the cooperative Bank of Kozani and Western Macedonia of Greece and by the Greek Armed Forces with the Chief of Staff and Head of the Army recognizing that the young men serving their military duties should become more aware of problems relating to alcohol, drugs and substance abuse. In total, several hundred thousands of copies of this booklet were printed and distributed free of charge during the last three decades by the 'sponsors' mentioned here.

9.3 PR vs. marketing and advertising

Students enrolled in Business Administration, Management and Marketing programs may come across some marketing textbooks in which the author (s) refer to and consider PR as an activity of the broader field of marketing. Although such a claim is not adopted by all marketing academics and marketing practitioners it does create an unnecessary blurring of lines demarcating the domain and the activities of the two related fields. This sub-section will briefly familiarize the readers with the basic differences existing between the fields of marketing, advertising and public relations.

Thomas (1923) identified the 'desire for recognition' as an innate need of humans. Maslow (1943) in his human motivation theory and his globally acknowledged schematic presentation of a pyramid identifying and differentiating the 'hierarchy of needs' presenting the 4th level of needs, and specifically that of esteem, makes a reference to the need for 'recognition' that characterizes humans in our daily relationships with others. It is true that both marketing and public relations share the common underpinning of efforts aiming at establishing and maintaining 'recognition' of individuals, groups, enterprises or organizations as well as the products and services they offer to consumers.

As mentioned earlier, the PRSA (Public Relations Society of America) definition of the field states clearly that 'Public relations is a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics.' (http://prdefinition.prsa.org/)

Crossing over to the field of Marketing we will be able to read that according to the American Marketing Association (AMA) Board of Directors statement approved in October 2007:

'Marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large.' (http://www.marketingpower.com/AboutAMA/Pages/DefinitionofMarketing.aspx)

Before the above definition of the general field, the following definition, concerning Marketing Research, was approved by the American Marketing Association Board of Directors in October 2004:

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'Marketing research is the function that links the consumer, customer, and public to the marketer through information; information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; generate, refine, and evaluate marketing actions; monitor marketing performance; and improve understanding of marketing as a process. Marketing research specifies the information required to address these issues, designs the method for collecting information, manages and implements the data collection process, analyzes the results, and communicates the findings and their implications.'
(http://www.marketingpower.com/AboutAMA/Pages/DefinitionofMarketing.aspx)

One of the world-renown marketing gurus, Dr. Philip Kotler, has defined marketing as:

'The science and art of exploring, creating, and delivering value to satisfy the needs of a target market at a profit. Marketing identifies unfulfilled needs and desires. It defines measures and quantifies the size of the identified market and the profit potential. It pinpoints which segments the company is capable of serving best and it designs and promotes the appropriate products and services.'
(http://www.kotlermarketing.com/phil_questions.shtml)

Kotler (2003) in his 11th edition of the 'Marketing Management' book, describes the most important concepts of marketing in the first chapter, as: segmentation, targeting, positioning, needs, wants, demand, offerings, brands, value and satisfaction, exchange, transactions, relationships and networks, marketing channels, supply chain, competition, the marketing environment, and marketing programs. These terms make up the working vocabulary of the marketing professional. For Kotler, Marketing's key processes are: (1) opportunity identification, (2) new product development, (3) customer attraction, (4) customer retention and loyalty building, and (5) order fulfilment. A company that handles all of these processes well will normally enjoy success. But when a company fails at any one of these processes, it will not survive. (In: http://www.kotlermarketing.com/phil_questions.shtml)

Matters relating to marketing and public relations, however, may appear to be less blurred and entangled when one attempts to differentiate public relations from advertising. In this respect Theaker (2004) has made a very clear point noting:

'The distinction between advertising and PR is more easily made: advertising involves paying a medium (TV, radio, newspaper or magazine, for example) for air time or column inches in which to put across a promotional message. The content of an ad is always controlled by the advertiser, unlike the content of editorial pages or programmes, which are controlled by journalists. Public relations practitioners try to persuade journalists to cover their products and services on the grounds of newsworthiness. An ad doesn't have to satisfy any news value – it just has to be legal and paid for.' (p. 10)

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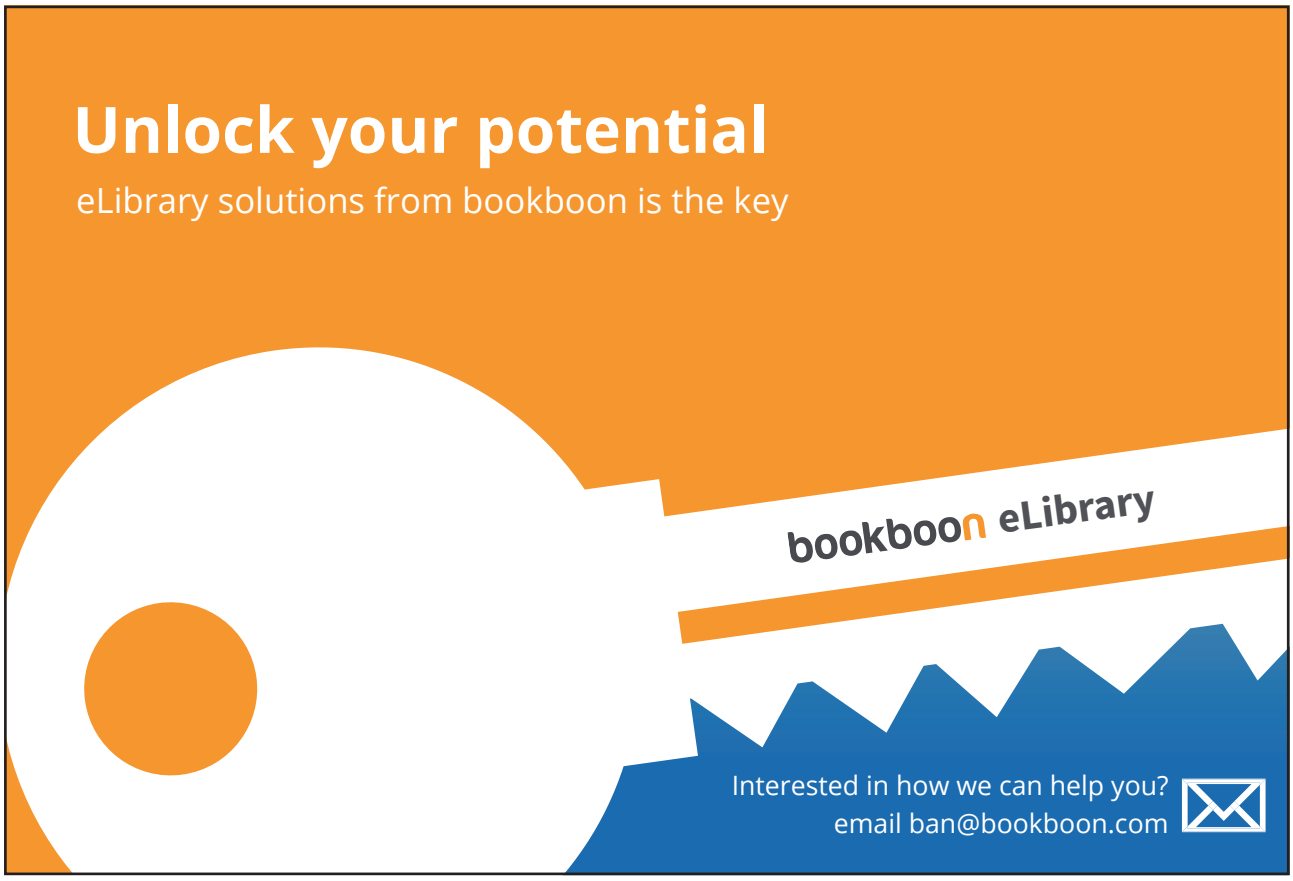
In the same frame of reference Harrison (2000, p. 5) notes that the Institute of Practitioners in Advertising defines advertising as the activity which presents the most persuasive possible selling message to the right prospects for the product or service at the lowest possible cost. Harrison brings forth positive arguments for PR by emphasizing that the term 'persuasive' is not a public relations aim, 'selling' is not the purpose of public relations communications and, finally, the 'cost' element differs widely between public relations and advertising. From my own personal experiences and those of other practitioners and academic colleagues I can attest to the fact that PR budgets are relatively minute compared to advertising budgets.

Members of the public are aware that advertising messages are paid for and do not carry the same 'weight' as public relations messages, which may appear as news or editorial statement and are judged as bearing more impact in impressing the readers. Indeed the 'cost' factor is something the majority of public relations practitioners will enlist as an argument that does strengthen their claim of 'success' in having their messages published 'free of charge'. As a practitioner in the field of public relations and as an academic I have used and presently continue using the same argument in differentiating advertising messages and broader marketing activities from public relations messages and activities. There are cases where the success of a public relations message in gaining media publicity and attracting the attention of the public may be labelled as 'gray advertising' which, of course, succeeds in carrying through the enterprise or organization message 'free of charge'. This is the type of reality I alluded to above when I mentioned my frequent participation as a commentator in the Greek TV program of 'The Automobile and Touring Club of Greece' (and kindly ask, again, that this reference should not be misunderstood as a vanity based self-aggrandizing behaviour).



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10 Press releases, special events and sponsorships

Hopefully by now, as readers of this book, you have become more familiar with the history of public relations and you should easily recall the fact that the field's founders were professional journalists who, prior to becoming PR practitioners as consultants, were earning their 'livelihood' as reporters or editors of newspapers. In this chapter the readers will become familiar with the basic tools public relations personnel use which include, but are not limited to, the classic 'press release', the conception, planning and execution of 'special events' for the private and public enterprise or organization that employs them on a full-time basis or uses their expertise as a consultants applying the necessary techniques and innovative processes in acquiring 'sponsors and sponsorships'.

10.1 An in-house PR specialist vs. the services of a PR consultancy

Public Relations activities aimed at fulfilling the needs of private and public corporations or organizations demand the existence of a strategic plan encompassing specific techniques and activities which will help materialize well delineated and clearly stated goals. These demands presuppose the existence of both expertise and time of the specialists that will be called to successfully carry them through. There is an ongoing debate, not only among PR practitioners and academics, but among corporation and organization executives, as to the pros-and-cons of hiring a PR manager as a full-time employee or paying appropriate fees to a Public Relations consultancy for undertaking and delivering ad hoc services.

It is a given reality and a widespread practice among private and public Large Scale Enterprises and organizations to employ as staff members one or more PR specialists on a full-time basis. When, however, specific events and occasions demand it, they purchase the additional services of established PR consultancies. Small and medium size private enterprises and public organizations usually prefer to 'buy' ad hoc services from established PR consultancies judging that their vast expertise will help them deal more efficiently and effectively with challenges and problems as they arise. This choice, of course, will also cost less than will the full-time employment of one or more PR specialists.

There are various points of view concerning the above dilemma and they seem to differ as to what constitutes the proper choice. There are those among academics and practitioners (including myself) who believe that the needs of a medium sized private or public corporation or organization will be better served by a person hired as an employee rather than by a large PR consultancy.

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Understandably, the full time PR specialists will devote all of their time, efforts and expertise to their employer while the private, well established and recognized consultancy will see them as a 'small client account'. Furthermore, the variety of activities an in-house PR specialist may develop and handle usually 'pays-off' the costs related to his/her full-time employment. Be it as it may, it remains unfortunately true that the old maxim which described the PR specialist 'as the last person to be hired when business is brisk and the first to be fired when business slows down' still holds true in today's private and public enterprises and organizations to some, not so negligible, extent.

10.2 The 'press release' or 'news release'

The basic tool of the first public relations practitioners, Lee, Bernays, Creel, Byoir and others less known persons operating in this emerging field was part and parcel of 'the trade' they were starting to be active in, namely, writing and editing newspaper news, stories, feature articles and editorial comments. The work of the PR pioneers brought forth the concept of the 'press release' for the various announcements they made to newspapers and magazines concerning the private enterprises or public organizations that were using their services. Nowadays, parallel to the classic 'press release' title of announcing a noteworthy event or activity of the private or public enterprise or organization they are employed by or for which they dramatize the role of consultant, modern PR personnel use also the title 'news release'.

Prepared and forwarded to the various Media by the PR personnel as either a 'press release' or a 'news release', these basic communication texts should be created in the best possible form of structure, style and content in order to be successful, that is to realize the desired aim of being published. As we shall briefly discuss below, the 'press or news release' must incorporate specific techniques in order to gain the attention of the journalists or editors whose desks or computers it will reach.

Harrison (2000, p.21) presents the now historic 'Declaration of principles' circulated and given to the Press in 1905 by Ivy Lee and considered to have been the 'first press release' published as part of PR activities and his longest lasting contribution to the profession. The 'Declaration of principles' was distributed to the media when Ivy Lee was in partnership with George Parker and both were advising anthracite coal operators on how they could respond to a strike. It is safe to assume that they issued the declaration in hopes of countering the rising hostility which journalists were expressing for ghost-written press releases, ads disguised as news stories, and other efforts to manipulate news coverage of corporate or organizational events. Lee's 'Declaration' was designed aiming, and to a considerable extent succeeded, to lift the emerging PR field from a questionable pursuit to a professional discipline. Indeed, a profession capable of winning public confidence and trust through communications based on sincerity and truth.

Lee's 'Declaration of principles' was the focus of an article by Sherman Morse (1906) in the American Magazine and a quote of the now historic 'Declaration' follows below:

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"This is not a secret press bureau. All our work is done in the open. We aim to supply news. This is not an advertising agency; if you think any of our matter ought properly to go to your business office, do not use it. Our matter is accurate. Further details on any subject treated will be supplied promptly, and any editor will be assisted most cheerfully in verifying directly any statement of fact. Upon inquiry, full information will be given to any editor concerning those on whose behalf an article is sent out. In brief, our plan is, frankly and openly, on behalf of business concerns and public institutions, to supply to the press and public of the United States prompt and accurate information concerning subjects which it is of value and interest to the public to know about. Corporations and public institutions give out much information in which the news point is lost to view. Nevertheless, it is quite as important to the public to have this news as it is to the establishments themselves to give it currency. I send out only matter, every detail of which I am willing to assist any editor in verifying for himself. I am always at your service for the purpose of enabling you to obtain more complete information concerning any of the subjects brought forward in my copy." (The American Magazine, vol. 62, 1906 p.460).

10.3 Form & structure of a 'press' or 'news release'

A typical 'press or news release' should be printed in the official stationary of a private or public enterprise or organization bearing their relevant title and logo (as they exist). In special stationary used exclusively by the PR specialist (and approved by management) for issuing 'press releases' the enterprise or organization's title and logo are printed on the top left side of the page and underneath it appears the date of publication. On the right hand side of the stationary appear the name and contact details (telephone number and e-mail address) of the person to be contacted in case the journalists or the editors might need and require some clarification or further information.

The designation 'PRESS RELEASE' or 'NEWS RELEASE' is printed (usually in capital letters and in bold characters) in the middle of the page a few spaces below the company or organization title and logo. Nowadays, although some 'press or news releases' are still printed on paper and posted by mail to the recipients, it is common practice that the vast majority are composed and transmitted electronically. A word of caution is needed here in the case your release necessitates the familiar note with the emphasis on 'embargo until…' designation. In practical terms there is no 'guarantee' that the 'embargo' the PR specialist is requesting will be respected by all journalists, editors and media and, therefore, serious thought and careful evaluation of given realities and empirically gained experiences with the various media and journalists or editors are necessary in order to avoid embarrassments.

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10.4 Content and Style of the 'press or news release'

The aim of the 'press or news release' is, to put it in public relations practitioners' terms, to catch the journalists' or editors' attention considering that press people are inundated daily with a large flow of private or public enterprises and organizations 'news' on activities and events. Experienced, and successful in their endeavours PR specialists, will attest to the fact that the usual style of content for a 'press or news release' hoping to gain attention is that of an inverted pyramid. What this implies, in practical terms, is that the significant 'news' are provided in the first, the lead paragraph of the text, while the other paragraphs going down the page contain relevant information in a decreasing flow of significance. At any rate the maxim of 'who, what, when, where, how and why' details is advisable to be included, smartly, in the 'press or news release' you will create and send by post or e-mail to journalists and media.

Considering, however, both the well known 'lack of space' in printed or electronic media and the need to provide succinct, interesting and useful information to the reader, the 'press or news release' should be as short as possible, avoiding on the one hand the lengthy several page document and, on the other hand, the laconic statement of a twit, SMS or telegram.

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Each one of the paragraphs that make up the 'press or news release' should be as self contained as possible and, in cases where it is not possible to contain all the information we wish to provide to journalists and editors in one page and a second page becomes necessary, as a rule of thumb reflecting proper composition based on experience, the breaking-up of a paragraph between the bottom of the first page and the top of the second page should be avoided.

The desirability of 'self-contained' paragraphs concerning the message and meanings they carry is a necessity emerging from everyday practical experiences with members of the media. It is not at all unusual for the lead paragraph and one or three more paragraphs of a 'press or news release' to appear in print, as editors may decide to skip some paragraphs to fit the space they have available on the day they decide to publish your press release.

This is fairly common and it should not constitute a source of disappointment for new and less experienced PR personnel who see their original text subjected to the editor's surgical intervention as, by being published, your 'release' has fulfilled its goal of being published.

10.5 Different 'releases' to different Media

At the beginning of the 20th century when PR came to existence when a select few journalists changed professions and became public relations consultants and practitioners, the only available media of communication were the printed media in the form of newspapers and magazines. As time progressed radio and, much later, television were added and, finally, in the last few decades a whole array of modern information technology media have come into existence assuming, in some cases, the role of protagonists in carrying messages to small, medium or large size targeted audiences.

Modern public relations personnel employed by private and public enterprises and organizations, either as full-time employees or as outside consultants, cannot afford the luxury of overlooking the existing reality of the vast variety of communication media. This reality dictates the need of creating and composing 'press or news releases' to be structured in the format in which the various media would expect to receive and to use them. Thus, while a document aimed at printed or electronic media such as newspapers, magazines or websites should be kept at a limited length and contain only a few concise paragraphs made up of crisp and clearly written sentences, 'press or news releases' aimed at radio and television stations, as a rule, should be of even shorter length.

Given the realities of this High Information and Communication Technology era, however, the 'lopsided pyramid' style described earlier is still the proper and productive way to compose a 'press or news release' and so the major news communicated to the recipients should be provided in the lead paragraph aiming to immediately catch the reader's eye.

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There are practitioners who suggest that antique forms of sending a release to the media, such as printed on paper or faxed, may still be accepted by a minority of journalists and editors while the vast majority do prefer to receive them in the e-mail form obviously requiring much less effort in the process of 'editing' them. Many successful PR practitioners would suggest that a telephone call preceding or following the dispatch of a release may prove helpful as long as there is a possibility a journalist or an editor will respond to such a call. In conclusion, I would emphasize that it is useful to know who, in the media you are contacting, will be happy receiving a printed or a faxed release and who would prefer it in the e-mail form. The danger, however, always exists that as an e-mail may be 'deleted' in a split second before it is even opened it is advisable, practical and imperative that the 'subject' line of the e-mail has an eye-catching title.

10.6 Emphasis on ethos, pathos and logos

At this point it would be useful to reiterate that your 'press or news release' should follow the old Aristotelian model comprised of the three significant elements in the art of persuasion which in a summary form are presented below in the spirit which suggests that 'repetition is the mother of all learning'.

Place particular care in utilizing 'Ethos' which refers to the character or credibility of the author or speaker. Ethos is conveyed through given and existing reputation, through the listing of credentials, and the proper utilization of tone when the presentation is oral and style when it is written. The manner in which 'ethos' is secured will ensure that it will appeal to the audience. A 'press or news release' will reinforce the presenter's ethos (the company or organizational image) by demonstrating knowledge, fairness, and by stressing shared values, assumptions, and benefits for the audience.

In your communications dispatched to the media 'Logos', the Greek word which as you recall is translated in English bearing the meaning of either 'word or logic', makes it imperative that you have to find, choose and use the right words as nouns and epithets in your text. Your text must be clear and your arguments must be logical and based on facts. Keep on a state of alert in your mind the logical processes of deduction, going from the general to the specific and induction which follows the exact reverse direction of going from the specific to the general.

You are human and so are your audiences which means that 'Pathos', the term that refers to emotions and can create motivational appeal if it impacts properly on the receivers, should be paid equal attention to as 'ethos' and 'logos'. As noted by Aristotle almost twenty five centuries ago and still holding true, the three terms as components in the process of persuasion constitute an equilateral triangle. Try to evoke positive emotions in your audience, use, if it is deemed appropriate and not offensively egotistical, personal experiences and relate your material to real life and real people.

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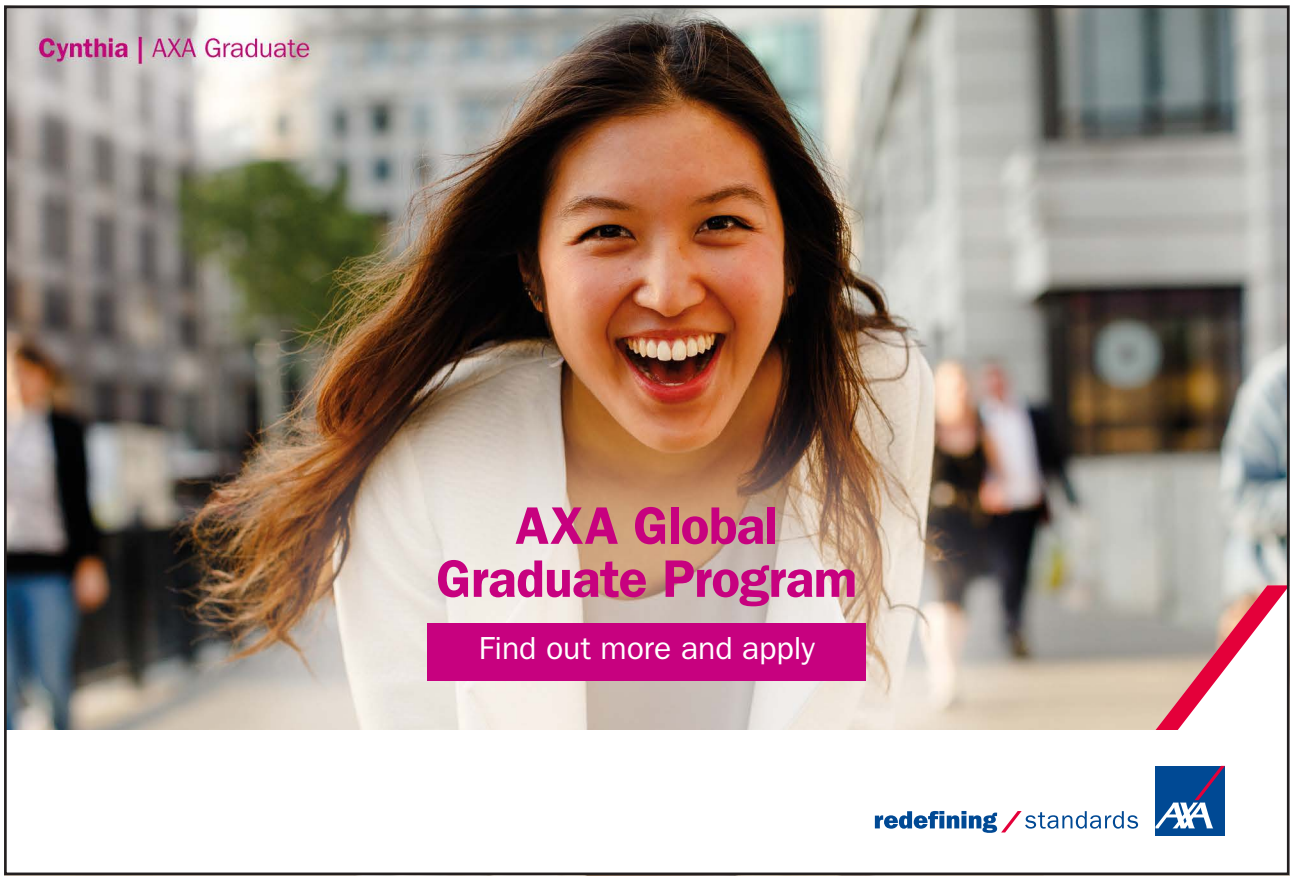
10.7 Special events and sponsorships

Particular importance among the PR specialists and consultancies special activities and responsibilities is placed on the creation and management of special events. As special are characterized the various events which will help the public or private enterprise or organization to bring into closer contact company personnel and the various publics. Such events provide appropriate opportunities for the private or public enterprise or organization to show its human side and, simultaneously, for a variety of publics ranging from the families of employees to neighbourhood people, from vendors and suppliers to schools and educators, from Media opinion-makers to specialized journalists and politicians of local, regional or even national level, to gain a better understanding of the company or the organization.

An event usually referred to either as 'Family Day' or 'Open Doors Day' has been adopted and is held at semi-annual, annual or bi-annual time intervals by large numbers of private and public enterprises and organizations. In a most widespread and usual form this is the day during which the members of the families of personnel employed by a company or organization can visit the factory or the physical facilities of the company or the organization. During this 'special day' they will become familiar with the physical-working environment in which a member of their family employed by the company spends his/her working hours. In such events, in addition to the physical visit and the presentation of company activities, children and adults are entertained by illusionists, clowns, and acrobats, they are treated to food, beverages and pastries and, if weather conditions and the availability of needed physical space permit it, a small size amusement park may be set up and made available to the guests.



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Many companies have a tradition of holding special events on special holiday occasions such as Christmas and New Years Eve when parties are organized for employees and their families. During such events Santa Claus offers presents to the employees' children, special raffles and lucky drawings take place and winners are drawn from among all the participants in the event. Other types of special events may be the participation in or the organization of sports activities in which company employees, if an organized team in a special sport does exist, compete against other teams in the presence of company or organization employees and members of their families who have been invited to attend such matches.

Company participation in various expositions and fairs, the opening ceremony of a new store or a new company branch or the move to a new location and into new building(s), are also great opportunities for public relations personnel to offer their creative services. Properly handled such events provide ample opportunities for gaining benefits for the company or the organization, improvement of corporate or organizational image, and strengthening the existing corporate culture and the public' perception of the company's or organization's efforts related to matters falling in the areas of Corporate Social Responsibility.

Some events may necessitate that the management of the company or the organization will decide to hold a 'press conference' in which, depending on the nature of the event, invitations may be extended exclusively to journalists representing various media. In some occasions the management may decide that the invitation to partake in the 'press conferences' beyond the representatives of the Media may be extended to members of the local or regional Authorities and representatives of other stakeholder publics.

The organization of a successful 'press conference' demands careful planning starting with the choice of venue. If the company or organization has adequate and proper spaces needed for such an activity, then this should be the venue choice as it will give a chance to media representatives and representative of other stakeholder groups to appreciate or even admire the existing physical facilities. If such space is not available, another location may be chosen offering the possibility for providing a buffet and drinks after the event has come to an end. For such events ample provision for proper timing must be made so as to ensure maximum possible participation and attendance. Special care should be taken by PR personnel for the proper set-up of microphone and audio visual aids and the preparation of a 'press-kit' to be distributed to all participants. The 'press-kit', as a rule of thumb, usually includes relevant press and news releases relating to the event and outlining the reasons for holding it. Proper care must, additionally, be exercised by PR personnel in having prepared answers to questions of a general nature members of the media might pose. This can be successfully achieved by including in the 'press kit' various data about the company or the organization, its history and development through time, its personnel, success stories, products and services offered to the consuming public and, if deemed necessary, some relevant financial and other statistical data.

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Sponsorship of a variety of educational, social, civic and sports activities also fall within the purview of positive and creative public relations for companies and organizations. Academic texts and popular books and articles, testimonies of practitioners and, along with them my personal experiences as both a practitioner and an academic, verify the fact that usually a well conceived, organized and delivered event of the sponsorship type has a much higher and unexpected 'ROI' (return on investment) that is return on costs incurred, that could pleasantly surprise everybody involved and especially the company's or organization's top management.

10.8 Crisis management

A crisis is an unexpected, serious, event that may involve an accident resulting in serious bodily injuries or even loss of life among employees, flooding or fire in the physical facilities, faulty products that affect the health and safety of consumers or accusations of poor services delivered by a company or an organization. In essence, however, one cannot overlook the existence of a significant dichotomy between real crises affecting people, facilities, products and services and symbolic crises related to the endangerment of a company's or an organization's reputation. Public relations specialists and experienced consultancies as practitioners, and along with them PR academics, know that in proper crisis management the Hippocratic maxim stating that *'an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure'* constitutes the *'alpha to omega or A to Z'* procedural requirement. Surely this presupposes that all efforts have been made and there are no loose ends or unforeseen loopholes in the preparation of products or in the dissemination of services by private and public enterprises and organizations that could give rise to a crisis.

In everyday reality, however, even the best optimally set up and operating companies and organizations may be faced with a crisis and the possibility of a crisis arising unexpectedly cannot be overlooked or shelved under the 'most unlikely' or the 'extreme possibility' file. Most certainly the proper strategy, methods and techniques for handling a crisis cannot be left for the time it might occur and cannot be suddenly delegated for handling to the PR specialist nor does it constitute 'ex post facto' that is after it occurs responsibility of top management.

Crises do occur and handling them can prove to be a crucially critical process in destroying company or organizational reputation, if mishandled, or augmenting existing positive public perceptions when handled successfully. There are, surprisingly, numerous examples of disastrous handling of crises even by leading international companies and organizations as there are impressive examples of successful handling because someone thought and acted following the Hippocratic maxim of 'prevention' or the well known boy-scout command stating laconically, 'be prepared'.

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Experienced PR specialists and consultancies offering their services to a company or an organization usually have a well spelled out, step-by-step 'crisis management plan', which covers all necessary aspects of handling a crisis and designates persons and teams that will be involved should a crisis occur. Usually such 'crisis management' plans designate the make up of the 'crisis management team' within the company or the organization, steps to be followed when a crisis erupts, handling of the necessary information flow to the media and journalists, identification of contact persons with the Fire and Police Departments and area Hospitals. Usually the designated crisis management team is coordinated by the PR specialist or, if a high level management person is placed in charge, the PR specialist acts as his top aid. The crisis management team is briefed at given time intervals, unannounced 'alarms' are called to check the team's preparedness as 'tests', and the evaluation of handling the 'test crisis' is analyzed as a follow-up activity. Based on such 'tests' the experiences gained through them are incorporated in the initial plan if they are missing, while, simultaneously, strengths and weaknesses in the handling processes are identified and evaluated.

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Part Three – Leadership

Part three of this book deals with the theme of Leadership and the related concepts of Power and Authority which have been among the most broadly, occasionally intensely, debated and always challenging and intriguing subjects for analysis from antiquity to our times. From the writings, among others, of Plato and Aristotle to present day theoretical schemes and research findings, Leaders and leadership continue to fascinate philosophers, scholars and researchers from all social, behavioural and economic sciences and continuously elude definitive answers concerning the perennial 'who, how and why'.

A quick bibliographic search on the subject will immediately reveal that the number of textbooks, popular books, articles in scientific -academic journals and popular magazines covering the concepts of Leadership number literally dozens of thousands and keep increasing. This quick search will unveil the reality that most books and articles start simply asking "what leadership is" or "who is, or what makes a leader" and contain the germane hypothesis relating to 'nature and nurture' in seeking the answer to the time old question if "leadership is a hereditary ability or it is acquired through education and life experiences".

This section will take a brief look at the 'Great Man' theories keeping in line with the historic fact that women were not included in the leadership discussions of ancient philosophers of the 5th century B.C., the so called 'golden century of Pericles' Athens. Women leaders were not in the focus of interest of dozens of thousands of Masters' and doctoral dissertations for most of the 20th century. We will briefly look at the realities of the 20th and 21st centuries and the current emphasis on searching for small group leader-managers, leaders in the rungs of middle management and for C.E.O.s for large scale global corporations and organizations.

The reference to the concept of 'leader-manager' requires a brief clarification. Indeed, while the term Leadership was eminent in philosophical discussions and treatises from antiquity on to modern times, early in the 20th century, with the advent of large scale industrial enterprises and organizations, the term 'management' made its appearance coming to the forefront of many academic discussions and research efforts. In this respect, most textbooks and popular books, academic researchers and free lance journalists seem to concur on the idea that the writings of Fayol (1916) who identified the functions of management as 'planning, organizing, directing, staffing, and controlling' still hold true having kept their validity in time and the emphasis on the 'leader-manager' became an urgent reality through the vast and historically unprecedented development of large scale enterprises and organizations.

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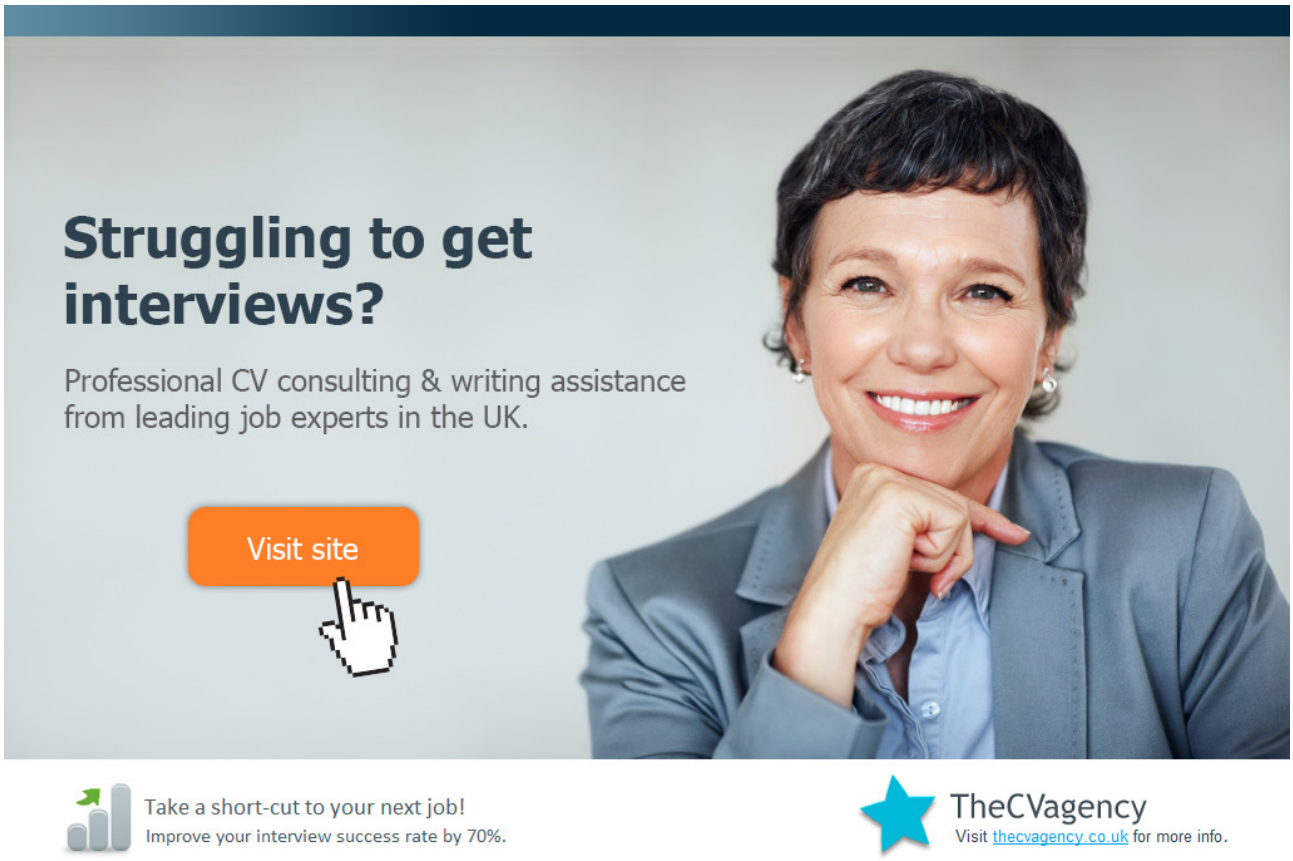
Some of the various representative theoretical schemes will be presented in this section without fully covering the rich gamut of theories appearing in academic bibliography but, hopefully, will aid the readers to understand the processes involved in the evolution of Leadership theories from antiquity to modern times. Closing these remarks it should be noted that currently literally hundreds of undergraduate, master and doctoral programs on leadership are offered by hundreds of Universities in North America, Europe and elsewhere in the world.



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11 Leaders and Leadership

If one would attempt to select and mention just a few truly outstanding names in the very long lists of persons who rightfully deserve a place in a symbolic-historical 'Pantheon of Leaders' recognized and accepted on a worldwide basis then, admitting that the following list surely does injustice to others not included here, this list would include: Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Hannibal, Genghis Khan, Napoleon, Eisenhower, McArthur, Montgomery, Rommel in military affairs; Moses, Buddha, Mohammed in religious affairs; Lincoln, Hitler, Stalin, Churchill, Ghandi in political affairs; Rockefeller, Vanderbilt, Rothschild in finance; Ford, Sloan, Iacocca, Honda, Agnelli in the automotive industry; Bezos (Amazon), Brin & Page (Google), Dell (Dell computers), Gates with Allen and Ballmer (Microsoft), Jobs (Apple), Zuckerberg (Facebook) in the I. T. world; Bloomberg, Malone, Murdoch, Newhouse, Turner, in the Media.

Starting the discussion the perpetual question comes immediately to mind 'who is really the person called a leader?' Attempting to answer this question Stogdill (1974) was keenly succinct, and perhaps somewhat ironic, when he wrote that there exist numerous definitions of leadership, almost as many as there are philosophers and scientists who deal with and try to define the concept of leadership. Warren Bennis (1959) had been even more caustic, but not far removed from reality, when he had remarked, prior to Stodgill, that:

'Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination. . . . Probably more has been written and less is known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioural sciences.' (pp 259-260)

More recently Yukl (2002, p.2) has noted that: 'The term leadership is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined.'

In modern days the significance and role dramatized by the variables of 'heredity' and 'environment' in endowing an individual with leadership qualities have been researched, among others, by Remus Llies (2004) and Richard Arvey (2006) who went as far as assigning some percentages to hereditary factors in shaping an individual's personality as a leader.

While preparing this book I noticed an interesting article published in volume 24, issue 1, February 2013 of *'The Leadership Quality Journal'* on leaders and leadership. The content of this article lead me to think of reversing the usual order of relevant questions which, up to now, gave priority to the classic 'nature vs. nurture' debate. Authoring this article a team of researchers from the UK and USA collaborating in their efforts rekindled the heredity and education aspects relating to leaders and leadership as they announced the discovery of 'gene rs4950'.

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The five co-authors of the article titled *'Born to lead? A twin design and genetic association study of leadership role occupancy*' admitting that leadership as a skill remains true, identified 'gene rs4950' as a genetically transmitted and inherited genotype passing leadership abilities from parents to offspring. The international team of researchers found that the difference between persons who occupy leadership positions and others who do not is due to the extent of about 24% to purely genetic factors.

Be it as it may, the truth is that if you the reader were to ask today fellow students, or colleagues at the private or public enterprise that employs you to give you their perception, their definition of the term Leadership, you might receive as many and as varied answers as the number of persons you will ask. Surely, a careful reading of the answers will help in cancelling out many that are basically similar in their conceptual core but rendered in different wording. In such informal types of opinion polls, from the variety of given definitions, a pattern usually emerges relating to the processes and dynamism observable in Leaders, such as personality structure, character traits and behaviour exhibited in the modes of various actions of those identified as leaders.

The concept of leadership appears to draw from, and is considered as a legitimate study subject in, a number of scientific fields including, philosophy, history, political science, sociology, psychology, military science and theology. I would like to call your attention to the fact that the concept of management is a legitimate area of interest for most of the same scientific fields and, in the process, a gray area has emerged concerning the similarities and differences between Leaders and Managers as persons, and Leadership and Management as a process revealed by observable behaviour of such persons.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) considered leadership and management as two distinct concepts with leaders being the persons who influence others and provide visions, while managers master routines and thus accomplish prescribed activities. In their book they introduced a phrase, which has been widely quoted, saying that 'Managers are people who do things right and Leaders are people who do the right things'. Kotter (1990) argued that management and leadership are two different things with management producing order and consistency and leadership producing change and movement.

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12 Leadership, Power, Authority & Charisma

Most, if not all of you, readers of this book can easily recall coming across an article in a newspaper or magazine, listening to a news story on a radio broadcast or watching a panel discussion among experts in a TV program relating to the issues of leaders elected or appointed to a specific leadership position ranging from politics and the financial world to religion and religious institutions. This chapter will familiarize you with these 3 concepts.

12.1 A glimpse at recent political, financial and religious events

Prior to stating and examining the definitions and theoretical underpinnings of the concepts of Leadership, Power and Authority, from both an academic and a journalistic viewpoint, our discussion will acquire a heuristic focus as we take a brief glimpse at various developments in the political, financial and religious spheres during the years 2012 and 2013. This brief glimpse will help us construct a dynamic frame of reference, while setting the stage and providing a practical and useful perspective in appreciating the above three concepts.

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On Sunday, January 20, 2013, as the Constitution of the United States of America foresees, Mr Barack Obama, having won the National elections held in November 2012, was sworn in during a brief White House ceremony as the 44th President of the USA to serve his second four year term in office. The open air ceremony with the participation of thousands of members of the broader public took place 24 hours later on Monday January 21st.

In November 2012 Mr Xi Jinpin was appointed to the post of Secretary-General of China's Communist party and he was also elected to the Office of President of his country on Thursday March 15, 2013. That same day the National Peoples' Congress of China, in addition to the election of the country's President, went on to elect the country's Premier as well as vice-premiers and various other State Ministers and Councillors.

Pope Benedict XVI, the 265the Pope, in a move that took by surprise not only the Catholics but world opinion as well, announced his resignation from his papal throne. The last Pope to resign from Papacy, while still alive, was Gregory the XII, six centuries ago in 1415 during the Catholic Churches great Schism. On Tuesday, March 13, 2013 the College of Catholic Cardinals elected the Jesuit Cardinal of Argentina, Jorge Mario Bergoglio as the 266th Pope. The newly elected Pope, as tradition dictates, decided to assume for himself a name that none of the previous 265 Popes had elected becoming 'Francis the 1st' (signifying, as he said in his first sermon, his interest for the poor as St Francis of Assisi had shown during his lifetime).

On Thursday 21st of March 2013, the Most Reverend Justin Welby, Bishop of Durham, was sworn in as the 105th Archbishop of Canterbury and Head of the Anglican Church succeeding the previous Archbishop, the most Reverend Dr Rowan Williams, who resigned from the post after served as Archbishop for the last 10 years.

In May 2012 Mr Francois Hollande, having won the French National elections succeeded Mr Nikolas Sarcozy as President of the French Republic.

In May 2012 Mr Vladimir Putin, having won the national elections held earlier in 2012, took office as the President of Russia to serve for a 6-year presidential term.

In 2013 Frau Angela Merkel, the current Chancellor of Germany, has come to be claimed and has emerged as the undisputed leader among the 27 leaders of the 27 member-states of the European Union.

In Communist ruled People's Republic of North Korea, Kim Jong-Un (or Kim Jong-eun, or Kim Jung-eun) was appointed Supreme Leader of the country following the death of his father Kim Jong-Il a few days before the end of 2011. He was bestowed with the titles of 'Supreme Commander of the Korean People's Army' on December 30th 2011 and elected to the newly formed post of 'The First Secretary of the Workers' Party of Korea' on 11 April 2012. On July 18, 2012 he was declared Marshall in the Korean Army consolidating his supremacy in the Korean Armed Forces. He is the 3rd son of his father the late Korean leader Kim Jong-Il and having been born in 1983 he is the World's youngest Head of State.

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In November 2012 the Bank of England, broke a tradition adhered to for almost four centuries since its inception, announcing that the post of Governor, from which the incumbent Sir Mervyn King stepped down in July 2013, would be filled by Mr Mark Carney, a Canadian citizen serving until he assumed his new duties as Governor of the Central Bank of Canada.

In the summer of 2012 Mr Robert (Bob) Diamond resigned from his post as Barclay Banks' CEO under mounting pressure relating to the so called 'Libor Scandal' involving several British and world banks who were accused for 'fixing Libor rates'. These interbank rates affect millions of small firms and homeowners. It is already well known that the Banks involved have been fined and paid billions of dollars by US and British regulatory agencies.

During April 2013 Baroness Margaret Thatcher, the first and up to now only woman Prime Minister of the United Kingdom who served for 3 consecutive terms (1979-1990) and was given the historically unprecedented title of the 'Iron Lady', passed away and was provided with a full honour military funeral comparable to that given to Sir Winston Churchill in 1965.

On April 30, 2013 Queen Beatrix of the Netherlands signed the necessary Official documents abdicating her Throne after 33 years of what has been described as a successful period of Royal leadership. She became Princess Beatrix and handed over the Kingdom to her eldest son Prince Willem-Alexander who became Europe's youngest Monarch. The new King, as it turned out, is the first Man in the Throne of Netherlands since the last King Willem III died in 1890 and was succeeded for a century by Queens sitting in the Royal Netherlands Throne.

In the world of Sports, in May 2013 Sir Alex Ferguson, a man acclaimed as the world's most successful manager and 'leader' of his team, in a sudden surprise move resigned from his post after having served as manager of the Manchester United football for almost 27 years.

12.2 Starting with Plato and Aristotle

Plato's 'The Republic' (1991), in Greek, 'Πολιτεία', is one of his most widely known works. Socrates referred to 'The Republic' as the utopian 'Kallipolis' from the Greek word meaning 'beautiful city', emerging from a combination of the word 'κάλλος' (kallos) meaning beauty and 'πόλις' (polis) meaning city. Plato, (through words uttered by Socrates), states that the Guardians, the Leaders, in this prototype in antiquity, and for that matter for all times, 'utopian' city-State should be the philosophers or, those that would govern it, should become genuine philosophers by engaging in a systematically ardent study of philosophy.

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Even a brief look at the process through which these 'philosopher-king' Guardians (rulers) of the utopian 'Republic' will emerge will bring forth two basic tenets in Plato's philosophy and socio-political thinking. First of these realizations is that leaders should be well trained and chosen from the best available human resources and, second, that leaders are not born having through heredity the innate capacity to lead but will be trained to be leaders through proper education. For Plato, who was clearly aristocratically oriented in his political beliefs, these leaders should constitute the intellectual elite, as aristocrats of merit and knowledge. Because of the differentiation of classes and the placement of members of these classes ranging from the farmers to the Guardians, Plato in his utopian Republic emerges clearly as an elitist favouring aristocracy and playing down the Athenian 'democracy'. Plato was indeed embittered and furious with the 'Athenian Democracy' of his time which, through its justice system, condemned Socrates to death by drinking a cup of poisonous hemlock (Conium in Greek) for introducing new 'demons' (new beliefs) to Athenian youths.

Aristotle (1996) proposed that the leaders should acquire 'sophrosyne' (in Greek the term 'σωφροσύνη' means temperance, prudence, or even a harmonious state of self control) as he stated in his 'Nicomachean Ethics' (in Greek 'Ηθικά Νικομάχεια'). Aristotle's emphasis on leaders and leadership focused on the process of acquiring knowledge and experiences in an empirical fashion and not merely by intellectual postulation (a process dear to his teacher Plato). Aristotle, furthermore, unlike his teacher Plato (and Socrates) did not favour aristocracy choosing to stand in his political beliefs somewhere between oligarchy and democracy. It is accepted by many that a simple, but often used differentiation, would characterize Plato as the philosopher-theoretician who relied on a qualitative approach to reaching the ideal forms and Aristotle as the scientist set out to reach the same goals and pursuits from a different vantage point, namely that of empirical search.

12.3 Max Weber's theoretical viewpoint

Max Weber, (1978) the German sociologist-economist, analyzing and evaluating the concept of power in human societies assumed and introduced in his writings a pluralistic approach. Although Weber, characterised by some as 'Marx of the middle classes', agreed with Karl Marx in some of his sociological insights, he attempted to refine and further extend Marx's analytical scheme in areas left untouched by him.

For Marx, (1991) power was always rooted, even at the most rudimentary level, in economic relations. Marx was almost adamant in his perception (characterized by his critics as unidimensional if not utterly monolithic) that the owners of the means of production can and, indeed, exercise political power in the social system either directly or indirectly. Weber, in some respects, agreed with the Marxist position admitting that often, especially in the realities of the modern capitalist world, economic power is the predominant form of power.

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Dowding (1995) in his book titled 'The Civil Service' presents an in-depth analysis of Weber's conception of Bureaucracy. Weber bypassed the classic Marxist view relating to the owners of the production means, by introducing the reality that economic power may be the consequence of power existing on other grounds. In Weber's sociological perception of Bureaucracies it is true, even if existing in disguise, that persons who are able to command large-scale bureaucratic organizations may wield a great deal of economic power even though they are not owners of such bureaucracies but only salaried employees.

Kirby (2000) presents in a text useful for students and in a pleasantly readable approach Weber's theses on the concept of power. For Weber 'power' is a characteristic describing the case where one man, or a number of men, who posses it are able to impose their own will in communal action, even against the resistance of others affected by it. Weber based his perceptions on the historical evolution of society and social institutions and came to the conclusion that the basis from which such power can be exercised varies according to the given social context of a given historical time, relating to and interdependent with given structural and historical circumstances.

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In Weber's theoretical-explanatory viewpoint, the Marxist view emphasizing only one specific source of power, that is the economy, was considered as 'dogmatic'. For Weber this 'dogmatic' approach cannot adequately explain the variety the sources of power emerging as substantial empirical questions. Indeed, contrary to Marx, Weber argued that men's struggle for power is not synonymous to and cannot be exhausted merely in their efforts to become rich. For Weber, power, in all its forms and surely including economic power, should be valued for its own sake. Unlike Marx, Weber held the opinion that men's struggle for power is closely related to, and simultaneously conditioned by, the social 'honour' it entails.

Gerth (1958) in his translation of Weber's work in the English language and Coser (1971) outlining, among others, the German sociologists' three types of legitimate rule have brought forth Weber's specific modes of claiming legitimacy by gaining authority:

Presented first is the 'rational', or 'legal', authority which seems to characterize hierarchical structures in modern social systems. This type of authority, in Weber's conception, is anchored in impersonal rules which have been legally enacted or contractually established and based on rational grounds. Persons elevated to authority positions through this type of legitimized domination gain the right to issue commands and expect others to follow them since they are intertwined with regularity, obedience and belief. Within this theoretical framework belong parent-child relationships and domination within the family, teacher-student relationships, priest and church member relationships, employer-employee relationships and, finally, the political rule that is generally accepted, obeyed and followed.

The 'rational-legal' type of authority may come into existence in various societies in a variety of ways related to the social system's adaptation of regulations, laws and convention. Weber looking at the realities characterizing Western societies connected them to the development of rationality and bureaucracy.

In Weber's theoretical scheme the second type of authority is termed 'traditional' authority and he suggested that this constituted the dominant form in pre-modern societies as it was anchored in and sustained by strong beliefs in the sanctity of tradition. Traditional authority may be inherited or bestowed upon certain persons by persons holding higher authority in a group or small social system. Weber suggested that traditional authority passes on from the original holders to one or more designated holders and is accepted and not challenged by the individuals subordinated to the person(s) holding it. Traditional authority was historically manifest in religious, sacred, or spiritual forms and for Weber it was well established and slowly changing in cultural or tribal, family, or clan type structures. Dominant in such structures was usually a priest, a clan leader, a family head, or some other patriarch, or some elite of persons who governed the subordinate group of other persons.

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In Weber's words, as noted by Gerth and Mills (1958, p.297):'this traditionalist domination rests upon a belief in the sanctity of everyday routines.' In many cases, traditional authority was considered by Weber to have been buttressed by culture such as myths or connection to the sacred, symbols such as a cross or flag, and by structures and institutions which perpetuate this traditional authority. Weber, additionally, was concerned with how these traditional forms of authority hindered the development of capitalism in non-western societies. Gerontocracy (from the Greek word 'γεροντοκρατία' meaning the rule of the elderly) and patriarchalism (from the Greek word 'πατριάρχης' meaning the head of the family) are two of the most widespread types of traditional authority.

Weber considered the patriarchal system, the legitimacy of which rests mainly upon tradition, as the most important type of domination. Patriarchal is the type of authority held by fathers, husbands, seniors in the house or the elder sib over the members of the household. The patriarchal system, furthermore, includes the rule of the master and patron over bondsmen, serfs and freed men. Patriarchalism includes the authority held and exercised by what is a patrimonial lord and sovereign prince over his 'subjects' and so, Weber suggested, ensures the authority of the lord over the domestic servants and household officials, of the prince over house- and court-officials, nobles of office, clients and vassals.

The third type of authority, 'charismatic authority', emerges as a result of the leaders' appeal to their followers because of their heroic, religious or ethical aptitudes, skills or dexterities. In using this type of authority legitimization, Weber brought to modern usage in sociological theory the ancient Greek tem of 'charisma' (from the Greek word '*χάρισμα*' meaning a gift of grace, a mysterious personality characteristic). Charisma, in other words, is a quality of an individual personality that is considered extraordinary, and followers may consider this quality to be endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or exceptional powers or qualities. Weber, as did ancient Greek philosophers before him, contended that whether such powers actually exist or do not is an irrelevant consideration since, to the extent that followers believe that such powers exist in given persons is what is important, what renders them charismatic.

Giddens (2006, p. 845) underlined Weber's consideration of charisma as a driving and creative force which surges through traditional authority and established rules. In essence, the sole basis of charismatic authority is the recognition or acceptance of the claims of the leader by the followers. While this may appear irrational, in that it is not calculable or systematic, it can indeed be revolutionary, breaking traditional rule and can even challenge legal authority. Particular leaders may have unusual characteristics that make them leaders. This may relate to a special gift of a leader, a particular style of speaking and acting, or extraordinary qualities.

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Ritzer (2007, p.35) brought forth the notion that although Weber did not deny that a charismatic leader may have outstanding characteristics, his sense of charisma was more dependent on the group of disciples and the way that they define the charismatic leader. In a rather blunt statement of Weber's position, if the disciples define a leader as charismatic, then he or she is likely to be a charismatic leader irrespective of whether he or she actually possesses any outstanding traits.

The readers of this book who happen to be already familiar with Weber's 'ideal type' of sociological schemes, as well as those who are not familiar with Weber's work, should bear in mind that the above three types of authority constitute 'pure theoretical constructs' which are not met in the everyday reality in social institutions or in human societies. It has been often cited in academic literature and in popular journalistic assessments that looking at the real world one will encounter mixtures of the above three types of the processes involved in authority legitimating. An example from the history of Weber's homeland, Germany, is Hitler's domination which has been attributed by various social and political scientists and public commentators to his charisma. However, bypassing what some have termed Hitler's charismatic personality (used often as an example of the fact that charisma is not always a blessing) another socio-political variable must be taken into account. Shirer (1960) is one of the many writers who have suggested that during the rise and the establishment of the Nazis of the third Reich, the Germanic Volk tradition and the existing structures of the German civil law served the strengthening and the appeal of National Socialism to the German public.

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Be it as it may, Weber's typology of the three authority legitimating types is considered sociologically significant as it deviates from other political theories exhausting themselves on the attributes of the leader alone since it introduces the significant role dramatized by the relations between leaders and followers.

12.4 Enter Machiavelli, Sennet & Habermas

Contrary to the concept of *charismatic authority* that helps one person to emerge as a leader, Machiavelli (1513) wrote *The Prince,* advocating the use of deception in order to gain and maintain control, as the ends justified the means and that the public can be easily corrupted. When it became necessary, however, Machiavelli suggested use of force to coerce the public:

'The populace is by nature fickle; it is easy to persuade them of something, but difficult to confirm them in that persuasion. Therefore one must urgently arrange matters so that when they no longer believe they can be made to believe by force. (Machiavelli, 1513/1961, p. 19)

Machiavelli accurately described the demagogue-propagandist in suggesting to his 'Prince' that 'everyone sees who you appear to be, few sense who you really are' and went on to elaborate:

'A prince, therefore, need not necessarily have all the good qualities I mentioned above, but he should certainly appear to have them. . . . He should appear to be compassionate, faithful to his word, kind, guileless, and devout. . . . But his disposition should be such that, if he needs to be the opposite, he knows how'. (pp. 55–56)

Sennet (1993), the noted American sociologist, contrasted Weber's thesis on authority rather sharply arguing that: 'authority need not be legitimate in the eyes of the population' (p.18). This constitutes one of the most thought-provoking accounts of authority and power. Authority, for Sennett, is related to qualities such as the capacity to inspire fear, the ability to impose discipline, superior judgement and assurance. Power for Sennet, above all else, possesses the image of strength, since: 'it is the will of one person prevailing over the will of the other' (p. 170). 'Authority' is a characteristic considered by Sennett to be both an 'emotional connection' between people and, simultaneously, a 'constraint' upon people. These bonds are seen as 'timeless' rather than 'personal'. Emotional bonds often appear to mesh people together even in cases where they happen to be against their own personal or financial benefit. Sennet suggests that even though the desire to be under some authority could be indispensable, people fear the damage that authority can do to their liberties and, additionally, they sense that emotional bonds of authority are seldom stable in nature. Thus, in contrast to Weber, who believed that authority was built upon legitimacy in the eyes of the people who were subject to the control of the authority, Sennett brings forth the very interesting thesis arguing that people may feel attracted to figures they do not believe to be, necessarily, legitimate (p. 26).

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Habermas (1976, pp 1-7), the noted German sociologist-philosopher, on the other hand, theorized that rationalisation is an unstoppable process and social systems constitute 'life-worlds' that are 'symbolically structured'. In his view the concept of *lifeworld* refers to the 'world of lived experience' the taken-for-granted world of commonsense assumptions that people share within a given community.

Looking inside the social system, Habermas identifies three subsystems: the socio-cultural, the political and the economic. Within each one of these subsystems, Habermas (1976, pp. 45-95) proceeds to distinguish the 'normative structures' from the 'substratum categories' and goes on to differentiate four types of crises that may emerge at given historical points: 'An *economic crisis* emerges when the required number of consumable values is not produced, and therefore consumer demands cannot be fulfilled. A *rationality crisis* emerges when the required number of rational decisions is not produced, people question the nature of the decisions made by the state, and people lose faith in the ability of institutions to make rational decisions. A *legitimation crisis* emerges when the required number of 'generalised motivations' is not produced and the encouragement for people to act and think in a supportive way about the system is absent. A *motivational crisis* emerges when the required number of 'action-motivating' meanings is not produced and as a result the motivation for people to act becomes dysfunctional for the state.'

12.5 The era of 'scientific management' and the Hawthorne studies

Discussing the field of Public Relations in part two of this book, we took a brief glimpse at the historically unprecedented expansion of industrial production in the USA during the last decades of the 19th and the early decades of the 20th century. At this point we will take a brief look at the publication and impressive initial acceptance of the theory of 'scientific management' (also labelled as Taylorism) by the engineer Frederick Taylor (1856-1915). Taylor's theory was an elementary approach to the application of 'scientific principles' in managing people within the industrial settings and coordinating their activities so as to achieve improved production and economic benefits accruing from it. Outstanding among Taylor's ideas were the time and motion studies he pioneered. According to time and motion studies each task was broken down to its most elementary form and the average time needed to complete the task was calculated after measuring the actions of many individual workers. The findings were used by what were then known as 'personnel departments' the precursors to today's Human Resource departments. This, of course, meant that workers would be judged for their performance against a 'set time norm' leading, as some critics noted, to intensification of work and the potential diminution of human beings to mere automatons.

Taking a parallel glimpse at the work of the French engineer Henri Fayol (1841-1925) we will see that he is credited with the first succinct chartering of the principles of management often referred to as 'Fayolism. Fayol included in his theory of management the functions of forecasting and planning, organizing, commanding/directing, coordinating and controlling. Fayol's original management principles have survived the test of time, while Taylor's 'scientific management' faded away although some of its fundamental techniques, such as time and motion studies, continue to exist in fairly widespread use on a global basis.

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The work of these two men and of their disciples served as the foundation of studying, understanding and assessing leadership in private and public enterprises and organizations. In the context of the 'scientific management' movement, industrial managers and university related academic staff and researchers experimented with a number of variables aiming to improve production outputs and facilitate better economic frameworks for achieving increased profit results. Among the researched variables were the working environment including physical conditions, piped-in music and lighting conditions in the production areas as well as the compensation bonuses provided by personnel departments. The Hawthorne studies belong to this category of research efforts.

The 'Hawthorne studies' (1924-1932) owe their title to the fact that they were conducted at the Western Electric's plant located in the suburb of Hawthorne in the vicinity of Chicago. The initial aim of the researchers was to measure the effect different levels of lighting had on productivity. Two noted Harvard University professors were in charge of the project, Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger, cooperating with the plant's employee relations department head William Dickson. It is interesting to note that the project was also partially funded by General Electric which withdrew its support when the first results showed that there were no significant relations existing between levels of lighting and the productivity of workers.

The impressive, unexpected, results were that productivity increased in both the experimental and the control groups leading the Hawthorne researchers to theorize that in fact the human relations elements in the industrial setting were more important to productivity levels than previously thought. The findings of the 'Hawthorne experiments' came under question on the basis of their methodological and other weaknesses but the fact remains that they proved that workers' productivity was related more to factors such as recognition and human relations in the work place rather than working conditions and small remuneration improvements.

Analyzing and appraising the various aspects of these research efforts, some decades later, Henry Landsberger (1958) coined the term 'The Hawthorne effect' now widely used in management studies. The 'Hawthorne effect' indicates that various production groups may, temporarily, show increased performance levels which come not as a result of manipulating different variables relating to the production process but rather because the production groups realize that they are being studied and observed, or to put it in simpler terms and in other words, someone is paying attention to their work behaviour.

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13 Leadership research at the Universities of Iowa, Ohio & Michigan

It should not be considered an overstatement to assert that for about twenty four centuries of human history, from the era of the philosophical writings of Plato and Aristotle to the dawn of the 20th century, the 'trait theories' on leadership held protagonist role and were prevalent. In essence, during this long period of history, the discussions and the study of leaders and leadership focused mostly on political and religious institutions and personalities involved in them. Late in the 19th and early 20th centuries, as we already have noted, there occurred an immense expansion of industrial production and large scale enterprises and organizations became a reality of the times. These facts, coupled with the widespread acceptance and application of 'Taylorism' and 'Fayolism', shifted the focus of the study of leadership from political and religious institutions to the vastly expanding field of management. This shift added the economic institutions to the cadre of political and religious institutions and thus in addition to philosophers, sociologists, political scientists and psychologists begun to study leaders and to assess leadership qualities in medium and top level management personnel as their performance became visible.

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As Stogdill's (1948, 1974) surveys of research conducted between 1904 and 1970 suggest, for the 'trait' theorists, efforts were concentrated on discovering, defining, appraising and discussing the specific traits that differentiate leaders from other, ordinary, human beings. Among a vast variety of traits investigated by theorists and researchers operating within the framework of this theoretical approach the most often listed ones were those of charisma, appearance, confidence and intelligence. In other words, trait theorists and researchers aimed to identify the 'great Man, great Leader' type of human beings who obviously were different than the average person by possessing one or a combination of more of the above traits.

Trait theory studies had a specific shortfall as they saw the leader possessing, inherently, specific innate traits in character or personality with which they were born. Trait theories differentiated between people who possessed these innate characteristics bestowed on them by their parents inherently and others that were not 'blessed' with them through heredity.

A significant shift in the focus of interest took place as researchers and theorists started looking at the *'behaviour'* of leaders toward those they were leading. The 'behaviour' types of leadership theory (also referred to in many academic texts as the 'style of leadership' approach) lead to a new type of research efforts conducted by Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippet and Ralph White (1939) at the University of Iowa shortly before the eruption of the Second World War. In the Iowa University studies the researchers made specific selections and subsequently put in charge of small groups of children 'leaders', using as a research platform and frame of reference the three well known, classic types of leadership, namely, the 'authoritarian' type, the 'democratic' type and the 'laissez-faire' type.

Acting in an 'authoritarian-autocratic' style the leader would coerce the members of his team toward desired behaviours and control rewards; acting in a 'democratic/laissez faire' style the leader would encourage participation and decision making and would delegate authority. The results pointed out that the most effective style of leadership was the 'authoritarian-autocratic' type, when the leader was physically present, but the children seemed to resent this style and did not perform as well during the leader's absence. Furthermore, the results relating 'effectiveness to authoritarianism' were not convincing as the children, where the leader performed in a 'democratic/ laissez faire' style, behaved as well as children of 'authoritarian' leaders not only when their leader was physically present but even during his absence.

Soon after the end of the Second World War a team of researchers at Ohio University
realizing that the Iowa University research in which children were involved were not as fruitful as originally hoped, changed their focus and efforts using as subjects a broad spectrum of employees and managers employed by a variety of Governmental organizations and private enterprises. The Ohio University research team, using a questionnaire originally consisting of some 1,800 items, asked subordinates to describe their supervisors' behaviour in a variety of settings and a multitude of circumstances. As Hemphill and Coons (1957) have indicated the questionnaire was finally limited to about 180 items and was labelled LBDQ (Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire). The LBDQ was given to a large number of educational, military and industrial personnel and the results pointed out that indeed certain clusters of leadership behaviours were identifiable in persons holding leadership positions.

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Several years after the initial introduction of the LBDQ, Stogdill (1963) published a shortened, more efficient for research purposes, questionnaire which came to be known as the LBDQ-XII form and has been widely used ever since. The initial Ohio University research and the extensive use of Stogdill's LBDQ-XII form unveiled and brought forth two significant characteristics of leaders' behaviour styles. As Stogdill (1974) has indicated, assessing the respondents' answers to the LBDQ-XII form, the two emerging characteristic leader behaviour types were those initiating *structure* and those initiating *consideration*.

The *structure* characteristic related to production matters focuses on task oriented issues while the *consideration* element related to employees focuses on human relations matters.

The Ohio research managed to bring together matters falling under the purview of scientific management and the developing 'human relations in industry' movement. The significance of the two characteristic behaviour types related also to the discovery that the *structure* element and the *consideration* element were not to be found on the same continuum but constituted two different realities having autonomous and independent existence of varying degrees. In the Ohio University studies the central point was, in essence, that leaders provide for their subordinates the most appropriate structure while, simultaneously, they nurture them so that preset and desired results may be obtained. In relevant schematic presentations one could see that a leader can be high in *initiating structure* and either low or high in *task behaviour* or could vice-versa be low in *initiating structure* and be low or high in *consideration behaviour.*

At the University of Michigan the research efforts, as Likert (1961, 1967) has noted, helped in identifying a pair of leadership types of behaviour characterized as *employee orientation* and *production orientation.* Leaders with a strong commitment to human relations and employee satisfaction, who see their employees as human beings while respecting their individuality and uniqueness, are obviously motivated by the *employee orientation* element. Compared to the Ohio University types of leaders these persons do identify with the *consideration type* of behaviour. *Production orientation* specifies the type of leaders who give major emphasis to reaching production goals while they view the people they supervise as the necessary means for getting their job done. It should be easily understood that this type of leadership behaviour resembles the *initiating structure* type which had already been identified by researchers in the Ohio University studies.

Initially, the Michigan researchers were lead to believe that the two types which emerged from their efforts, namely *employee orientation* and *production orientation,* stand at the opposite ends of a continuum. Further research studies lead them to revise their initial conception and move to a thesis similar to that of the Ohio University researches, accepting the fact that the two types were independent of each other and leaders could show interest to both production and employees.

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14 Modern theories of leadership in Private and Public Enterprises and Organizations

Leadership has taken on special meanings in the modern world, characterised by private and public enterprises and organizations operating internationally, possessing and controlling more financial assets and wielding much more power and authority than political leaders, not of a single one, but of several Nations on a global scale. This chapter will introduce the readers to some basic theories currently at centre stage, or at least in the immediately visible periphery of research efforts, relating to leaders and leadership focusing especially on modern enterprises and organizations. The differentiation between leaders and managers is eloquently expressed by the now classic aphorism-maxim *'Management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things.'* attributed by some to the Austrian management guru Drucker (2003) and stated by Bennis and Nanus (1985).

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One could argue that although it is difficult to see it as a phase-by-phase or, step-by-step evolutionary process, yet it appears that the 'trait theories' of leadership were succeeded and to a large extent replaced by the 'behavioural theories'. Furthermore, in this succession of theoretical schemes process, the so-called 'what-if' or 'contingency theories' and the 'transformational leadership' theories emerged. This occurred logically as researchers' continued to strive for fresh and useful explanations on the primordial question 'what is a leader and what does leadership mean and entail'. It is widely accepted both in academic circles and among practitioners in business and organization management that elements of all of the above four types of theories were present throughout the last century. This continues to be a reality in the 21st century as well although the 'trait theories', despite some creative attempts of meta-analyses of their basic premises, have slowly and progressively disappeared from the centre of the current dialogue.

One of the first 'departures' from the *trait theory* and the antithesis between the autocratic type of leader who, to put it somewhat bluntly, 'run the show ignoring his subordinates' and the democratic leader who took into consideration his people, was that of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958). In their theoretical scheme, published in the Harvard Business Review as an article titled 'How to Choose a Leadership Pattern' Tannenbaum and Schmidt proposed a continuum of leadership behaviour ranging from the absolute manager decision-making type to the workers-participation type. Their continuum envisaged 7 different approaches ranging from one extreme where the manager-leader takes his decisions and announces them to his people, through a gradation where the manager-leader trusts his subordinates and permits them to function independently but remaining within certain limits already set.

The two elements of 'concern', i.e. the concern for production or fulfilment of the set goals of an enterprise or organization and the concern for people who constitute the human resources as employees of the enterprise or organization, were integrated in the 'managerial grid' (later renamed as the 'Leadership grid') presented by Blake and Mouton (1964). The 'managerial-leadership grid' has been extensively used in a multitude of private and public enterprises and organizations for training and personnel development purposes. According to its creators the 'grid' takes into consideration a variety of entrepreneurial-organizational activities relating to achieving and improving set quotas in production and human relations concerns ranging from working conditions to salaries and promotions, for the employees who will labour to achieve production quotas and goals.

Schematically the 'managerial-leadership grid' is represented by two intersecting axes where the vertical axis represents the leader's concern for people and the horizontal axis the leader's concern for results. Each of the two axes has a range of grades from 1 to 9, with the grade number 1 representing the leader's minimum concern and the grade number 9 the leader's maximum concern. Blake and Mouton's model makes provisions for scoring each leader with scores varying from 1 to 9 points in each one of the two intersecting, i.e. vertical and horizontal axes.

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The authors have proposed five major leadership styles depending on the grades received (ranging from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 9) of each examined leader scores. In the 'authority-compliance' style the leader's concern is with results and minimally with people. In the 'country club management' style the leader is mostly concerned with his people and minimally with results. In the 'impoverished management' style the leader has minimal concern for both his people and the results. The 'middle of the road management' style represents the leader's moderate concern for people and results and, finally, the 'team management' style represents the case where the leader has high concern for both his people and the results of their efforts.

Hershey and Blanchard (1969) in their *situational leadership* theory have, in essence, reversed the focus of attention of Blake and Mouton's *'managerial-leadership grid'* giving prominent place to the situation or context and suggesting that the successful leader possesses the skills, attributes and personality traits to adapt to each different situation. This theory, as is the case with the previous one, contains two dimensions, namely, *task behaviours* and *relationship behaviours*. Task behaviours relate to the amount of direction for goal completion the leader provides to his people while relationship behaviours refer to the support, encouragement and recognition that he provides to them. As the name of the theory clearly connotes and denotes, situational leadership focuses on the situation and in essence, as stated above, effective leaders are those that can adapt their personal-individual style to the varying demands presented by various situations. The manager-leader's choice of style depends on three distinct factors, namely, the personality and 'modus operandi' of the leader, the characteristics, personalities, motivation and possession of skills and dexterities of the subordinates and the situation in which manager-leader and followers are called to act.

In the above model of Hershey and Blanchard, the 'readiness' of the subordinates and the specific nature of the 'situation' in which the manager-leader has to act projecting a 'style of behaviour', define a variety of possible choices. Thus, when subordinates do not posses the skills demanded for the accomplishment of a task or series of tasks and their readiness is low, 'structuring' and 'coaching' may be appropriate. On the contrary, when the subordinates are in a state of elevated 'readiness' and, simultaneously, posses the needed skills and dexterities for the accomplishment of the task or series of tasks, then the styles of 'encouragement' and 'delegation' may be more appropriate. Four distinct types of style were presented by Hershey and Blanchard in their theory noting that the manager-leader can choose to 'dictate' or to 'coach', to 'support' or to 'delegate'.

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14.1 Contingency and path-goal theories

A number of approaches to the leader-manager theory and research could be classified under the title of 'contingency' which means an attempt to pair or match leaders-managers to the situations in which they are called to lead and manage. Essentially, the contingency type of theories are founded on the thesis that leader-managers' effectiveness depends on how well they fit the context in which they must act. Among the various 'contingency' theories the one developed and presented by Fiedler (1967) differs from most others as it is one of the earliest presented and also the most cited 'contingency' theory. Fiedler and his collaborators studied the styles exhibited by literally hundred of manager-leaders and the contexts, or situations, in which they performed with some having been successful and some unsuccessful in enacting their roles. A large number of his subjects came from military organizations and the careful scrutiny of their behaviour permitted Fiedler and his group of researchers to lay down some useful and indeed empirically assessed generalizations on styles and contexts.

It is imperative to correctly assess and understand the situation, the context, in which leader-managers operate in order to effectively understand and measure the leader-managers' performance. For Fiedler, as for other contingency theory proponents, the effective leadership style is contingent to the right setting in which a leader-manager acts. Contingency theory takes into consideration both leader-manager style and situation and, as Fiedler has said, style has two components strongly reminiscent of Blake and Mouton's theory, namely 'relationship orientation' and 'task orientation'. Fiedler developed the now well known questionnaire named LPC (Least Preferred Co-worker) consisting of 16 bipolar adjectives graded from 1 to 8 (for example, Friendly 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 Unfriendly, Open 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 Closed etc). The LPC instrument aims to show the people that leader-managers' would have problem working with or would be happy to work with.

Fiedler's contingency theory goes beyond the elements of 'relation orientation' and 'task orientation' and proposes that each situation can be characterized by three specific elements, namely, 'leader-member relations' which sometimes is labelled as 'group atmosphere', 'task structure' and 'position power'.

For Fiedler, the first element, labelled 'group atmosphere', contains emotional-human relations characteristics such as followers trust, respect, confidence and loyalty to the leader. It should be easily understood that if the relations between leader-manager and his group are positive, the 'group atmosphere' can be labelled as 'good', while when friction exists and the feelings are negative, the 'leader-members' element is labelled as 'bad'. Fiedler's analytic scheme combines the variations of the above three elements into a matrix of eight leadership situation types. The second element, 'task structure', refers to the degree to which the requirements for fulfilling successfully a task are clear, well spelled-out and understood. The third element, the 'position power' refers to the authority bestowed to the leader-manager by the enterprise or the organization to hire and fire, to give pay-raises or elevate employees to higher positions, in other words to posses the authority needed to reward or punish.

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This theoretical scheme predicts that leader-managers who are 'task oriented' (low LPC scores) will perform well in both very favourable and very unfavourable situations. The leader-managers who are 'relationship oriented' (high LPC score) will be more effective in moderately favourable situations.

As we have already seen earlier, Hershey and Blanchard's 'situational theory' suggested that in order to be effective acting in a given situation, the leader-manager should understand the realities of the situation and assess his followers' commitment and competency to fulfil the requirements of a task. Fiedler's 'contingency theory' briefly presented above focuses on the specifics of a situation and their match with the correct leader-manager style.

Unlike both of these theoretical orientations, 'path-goal theory' which has been proposed by House (1971) combines three elements, namely, leader-manager style, characteristics of subordinates and the work setting constituting a heuristic phase of the expectancy theory of motivation. The expectancy theory of motivation proposes that people act according to 'expectancy, instrumentality and valence'. In other words, peoples' dexterities can lead to efforts which will materialize in specific results and this outcome will be deemed worthwhile and end with a payoff.

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House and other researchers have suggested that the leader-managers who operate following the premises of 'path-goal theory' can adopt one of four specific behaviour styles and act in accordance with it. In the 'directive or instrumental style' of leadership the leader-manager sets and announces to subordinates clearly the expected standards of performance and the appropriate rules and regulations to be followed. In the 'supportive leadership style' the leader-manager shows care for his subordinates and their human needs. In the 'participative leadership style' the leader-managers consult with their subordinates, listen to their suggestions and integrate them in the final decisions taken. In the 'achievement oriented leadership style' the leader-managers show high degrees of trust and confidence in their subordinates capabilities and set high goals for group performance.

14.2 Transformational leadership – 'Charisma' revisited?'

As we have noted earlier, the focus from the 'Great Man' theories in politics and religion and the emphasis on identifying and signifying the traits such leaders inherently possessed, shifted to the context of the business world. Thus, the careful examination of the dynamic interplay between leaders and followers in modern Small, Medium and Large Scale private and public enterprises and organizations and the better utilization of their human resources shifted the focus of attention to processes such as revitalizing and, even more effectively, transforming these enterprises and organizations. A landmark contribution in this realm was a book authored by Burns (1978) which lead to the definition and differentiation of two fundamental forms of leadership, namely, transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Prior to Burns, the idea of a 'social exchange theory' was proposed by Homans (1950, 1974). According to this theory, social interaction constitutes a form of exchange in which group members contribute to the group at a cost to themselves and, in return, they receive benefits from the group at a cost to the group.

In the leadership theory proposed by Burns (1978) there is a continuum consisting of a 'leadership act' where leader and follower initiate an exchange with each other which is short-termed and non-binding, in contrast to the 'transforming leadership' point where the interaction raises both leader and follower to higher moral levels recognizing the follower as an important player. 'Transactional leadership' presupposes an exchange process of mutual dependence founded in the authority structure of an enterprise or organization; it can be stated in simple terms as the proposition 'if you do this, I will give you that'. This type of leadership appeals to the follower's self interest and the leader's clarification of work tasks and expectations, and corresponding rewards or punishments. In contrast to the above type of leadership, 'transformational leadership' presupposes the leader's capability in creating vision and arousing follower's values and their commitment to the goals of the enterprise or the organization. Operating on a platform of trust, ensuring justice and raising the sense of loyalty, this type of leadership can transform and greatly enhance the performance of an enterprise or organization providing it with a much needed advantage in the struggle for survival and excellence in our highly competitive world.

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Transformational leadership shows the significance of human relations qualities in the crucial role of the leader-follower transactional relationship and the bond emerging between them as a result of trust and elevated dedication to goal achievement for private and public enterprises and organizations. These human relations characteristics, as Bass (1985), Bass and Avolio (1994), Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), have noted, bring forth the idea that the transformational leadership theories, denoting inspirational leadership, are very closely related to the concept of 'charisma' and the 'charismatic leader'. Indeed leaders can inspire followers and gain their full respect and dedication to goal fulfilment for the private and public enterprises and organizations they manage when the followers perceive them as possessing that special characteristic known throughout the ages as 'charisma'.

Judge and Piccolo, (2004, p.755) have noted that: 'in the past 20 years, a substantial body of research has accumulated on transformational - transactional leadership theory.' Looking at the spreading of the theory as well as at the research activity, in comparison to other leadership approaches, it seems as if this theory has replaced earlier leadership approaches such as the described trait, behavioural or situational approaches. Bass, (1985) has formulated one of the most prominent concepts within the transformational approach. In his more recently published work, Bass goes on to see transformational leadership as moving followers beyond their self-interests, as well as, elevating the followers' concerns for achievement and the well-being of others or the organization. According to Judge and Piccolo (2004):

'The four dimensions of transformational leadership are charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Charisma, or idealized influence, is the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that cause followers to identify with the leader. Charismatic leaders display conviction, take stands, and appeal to followers on an emotional level. Inspirational motivation is the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers. Leaders with inspirational motivation challenge followers with high standards, communicate optimism about future goal attainment, and provide meaning for the task at hand. Intellectual stimulation is the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risks, and solicits followers' ideas. Leaders with this trait stimulate and encourage creativity in their followers. Individualized consideration is the degree to which the leader attends to each follower's needs, acts as a mentor or coach to the follower, and listens to the follower's concerns and needs.' (p. 755).

Bass and Avolio (1994) have suggested, in their introduction to the book they have edited, that transformational leadership is seen when leaders:

'stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives; generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization; develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential, and motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interest toward those that will benefit the group.' (p. 2)

The two authors went on to point out that:

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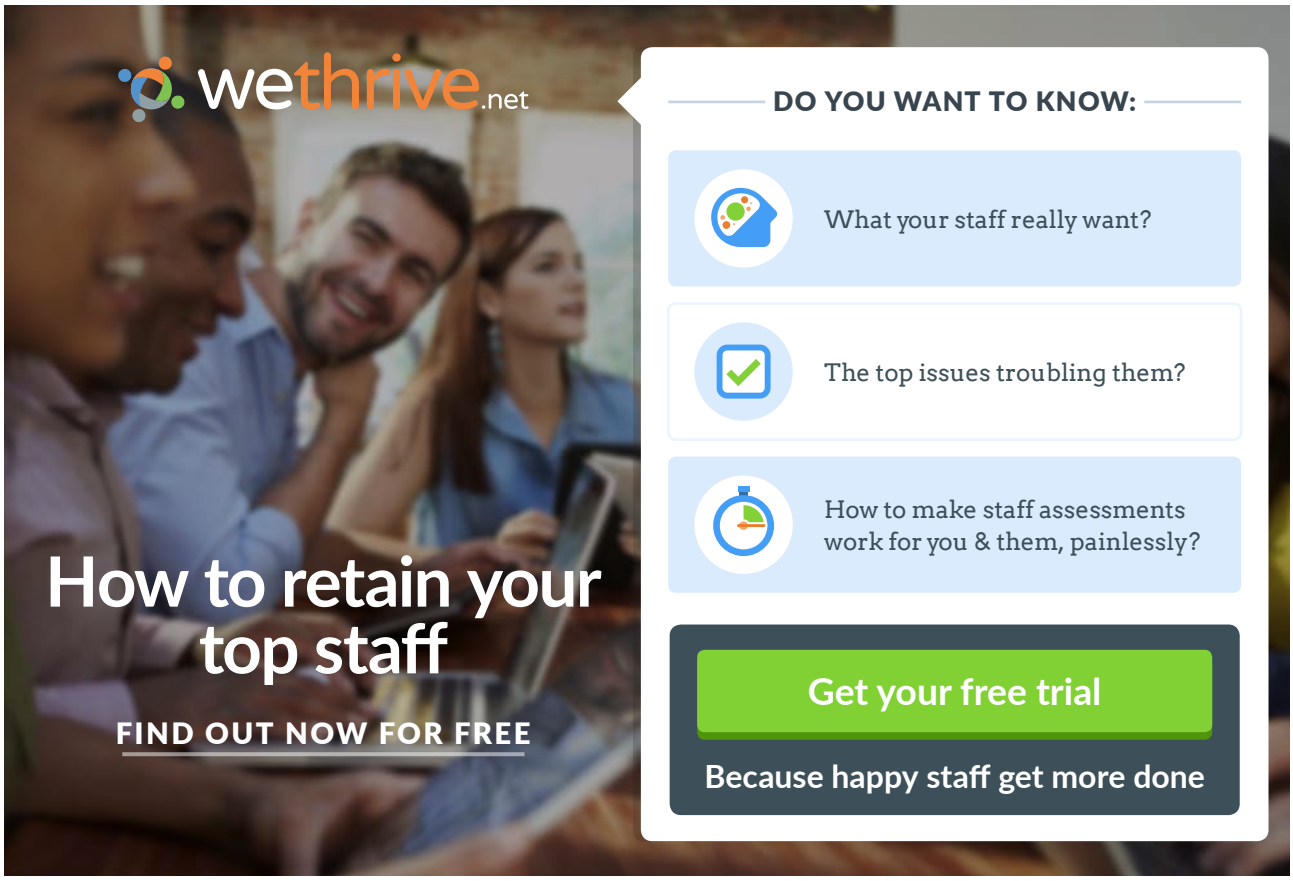
'Transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible. They set more challenging expectations and typically achieve higher performances. Transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership emphasizes the transaction or exchange that takes place among leaders, colleagues and followers. This exchange is based on the leader discussing with others what is required and specifying the conditions and rewards these others will receive if they fulfil these requirements.' (p.3)

From antiquity to present times, charismatic leaders have managed to capture not only the imagination but the hearts and loyalty of their followers in the battlefields or in the modern production floors and executive management suites. Viewing it from this perspective it would appear that transformational leaders and transformational leadership do relate positively with charismatic leaders and charismatic leadership.

Closing this chapter I believe that it is both necessary and useful to mention that in the last two decades both academic research and popularized literature have witnessed the presentation and elaboration of the theory of 'Emotional Intelligence'. Daniel Goleman (1995, 2002) with his books popularized the E.I. Theory which, in very broad terms, refers to the ability to understand and manage both your own emotions, and those of the people around you. He has suggested that there are four elements involved in the process and encapsulating E.I., namely, self awareness (self confidence), self management (self control), social awareness (empathy) and social skills (influence).



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Goleman (1998) relating E.I. Theory to leadership has argued that emotional intelligence is a prerequisite for successful leadership. Furthermore, in their book 'Primal Leadership', Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis, and Annie McKee, (2002) wrote that:

'Great Leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions. No matter what the leaders set out to do – whether it's creating strategy, or mobilizing teams to action – their success depends on *how* they do it. Even if they get everything else just right, if leaders fail in this primal task of driving emotions in the right direction, nothing they do will work as well as it could or should.'(p. 3)

It should be emphasized that Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee are quite clear in their thesis when they note: 'the emotional task of the leader is *primal*, - that is first- in two senses: it is both the original and the most important act of leadership.'(p.5). In other words the three authors maintain that the primal job of leadership is to create resonance, a reservoir of positive feelings, through either resonant leadership styles (emphasizing visionary, coaching, affiliative, and democratic tendencies) or dissonant styles (focused on pacesetting and commanding) and the ability to know when each is most productively applicable.

George (2000, pp.1039-1046) has suggested how emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership by focusing on five essential elements of leader effectiveness, namely, development of collective goals and objectives, instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities, generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust, encouraging flexibility in decision making and change and, finally, establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization.

Closing it should be noted that a growing emphasis on the importance of emotional intelligence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002) and leading with heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) when added to the imperative of involving employees in the conditions of their work, appear to be crystallizing in the transformational leadership profile. Indeed, Kouzes & Posner (2004) raised a significant issue on the relationship between leaders and followers, managers and employees, organizations and workers when they noted that:

'Most of today's workers seriously question whether organizations are going to be loyal to their employees. They hear all this talk about how the organization wants loyal customers and committed employees, yet they don't experience life on the job as a reciprocal relationship…A certain distrust and weariness has crept into the workplace and yet we know that trust is the foundation of any good relationship – and fundamental to getting extraordinary things done…After people have been torn apart by mergers, acquisitions, restructurings and the attendant layoffs, when everyone assumes things won't last forever – how do leaders create commitment? How can leaders deliver on the promise of offering exciting and meaningful work and treating even the most temporary of workers with dignity and respect?...In the last half decade a countervailing force has arisen to combat what seemed to be an ever-expanding sense of cynicism…Whether you call it spirituality, religion, faith, or soul, there is clearly a trend toward a greater openness to the spiritual side within the walls of business.' (p. xxii)

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15 Instead of an epilogue: Women leaders remain under a 'glass ceiling'

This final chapter of the third section of this book takes a brief look at a very serious, still lingering and unresolved issue, namely that of the absence of women in numbers proportional to their demographic share in leadership positions in political, economic and academic institutions in all 193 countries of the U.N. It would not be an exaggeration to say that it took almost twenty five centuries from the fifth ('the golden century of Pericles and Athens') to the 20th century for women to leave behind them the classic roles of 'getting married, giving birth to children and spending their lives in household chores'. In the ancient Athenian and Roman societies, as History verifies, only selected upper class women could get some formal education or be involved, indirectly and behind the scenes, in public life and public affairs.

It was not until World War II erupted, forcing the enlisting of millions of men in the Armed Forces, that the massive entrance of women in the world of private and public enterprises and organizations, either as low-ranking production personnel or as secretaries and telephone centre operators, became an absolute necessity. Surely during the 19th and early 20th century there were some women present in the world of science, organizations and enterprises but, leaving aside the exceptions which as the popular maxim goes 'simply exist to prove the rule', it was not until the middle of the 20th century that women, in substantially large numbers, entered colleges and universities to acquire degrees in liberal arts and sciences and to enter, subsequently, as entry level management personnel the world of private business enterprises or public organizations.

15.1 Women in Politics

The passing away of Baroness Margaret Thatcher in April 2013, the first and until today the only female Prime Minister of the United Kingdom who had won the historic characterization as the "Iron Lady", brought to mind the continuing grim reality bordering on the verges of gender discriminations. Indeed, with regards to holding posts in the higher ranks of private and public enterprises and organizations and in the political institutions, with a small number of noted exceptions related mostly to Royalty and Royal families (from the time Cleopatra ruled Egypt as a pharaoh), twenty centuries had to pass to see women being elected or appointed to hold posts as Prime Ministers or Presidents of their countries.

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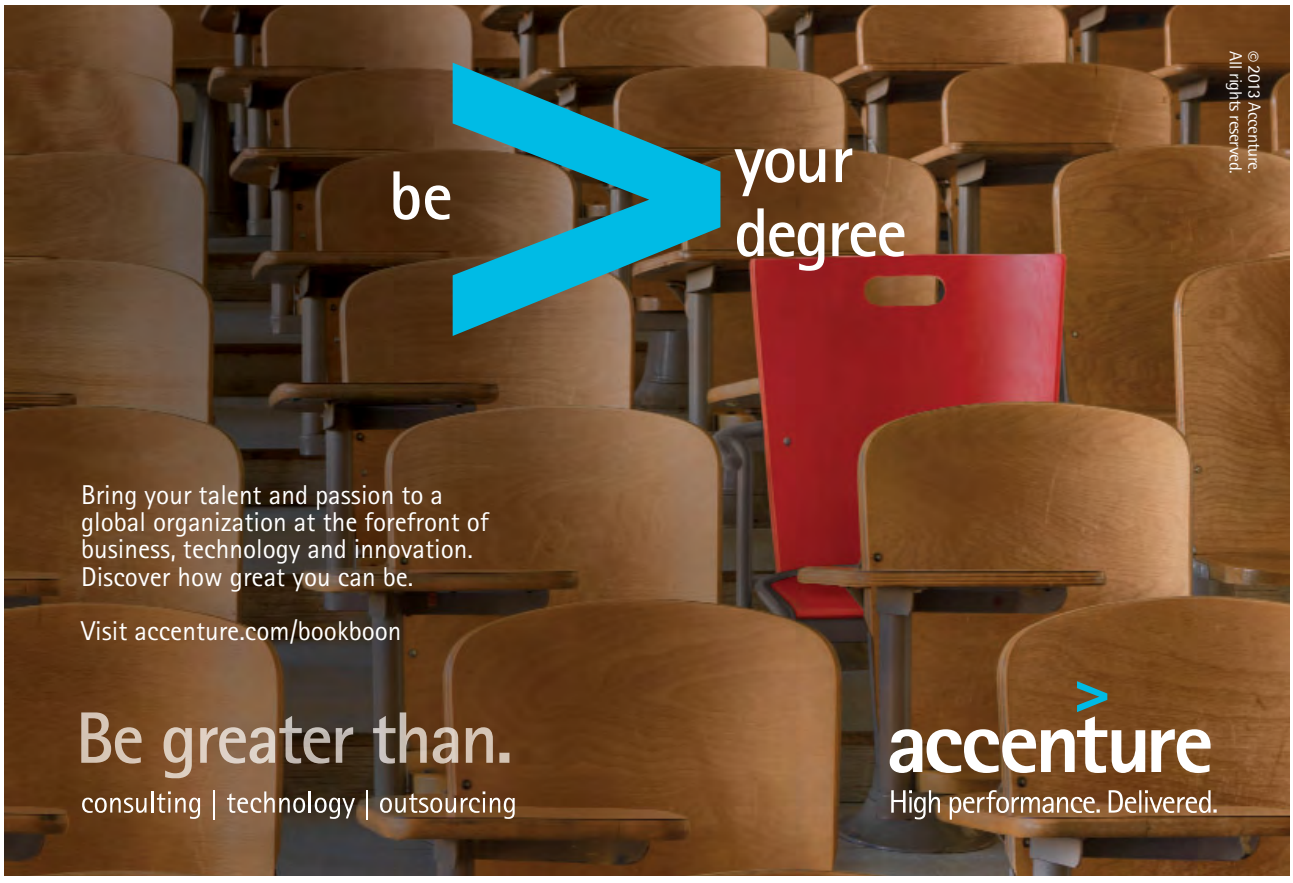
During the 20th century, among the few dozens of women political leaders who held the office of Prime Minister or President of their Nation some familiar names are Isabel Peron of Argentina, Sirimavo Bandaranaike of Sri Lanka, Indira Gandhi of India, Corazon Aquino of the Philippines, Helen Clark of New Zealand, Benazir Bhutto of Pakistan, Golda Meir of Israel, Tansu Ciller of Turkey, Milka Planinc of Yugoslavia, Edith Cresson of France, Gro Harlem Brundtland of Norway, Vigdís Finnbogadóttír of Iceland and, of course, the "Iron Lady" Margaret Thatcher of the U.K..

In 2012 only 18 of the 193 Nations comprising the General Assembly of the United Nations Organization had a woman as head of State. Specifically there were 9 women holding the office of President and 9 holding the office of Prime Minister in their respective Nations. In alphabetical listing the 9 countries where a woman is President are: Argentina (Cristina Fernandez de Kirchner, Brazil (Dilma Rousseff), Costa Rica (Laura Chinchilla), India (Platibha Patil), Kosovo (Atifete Jahjaga), Liberia (Ellen Sirleaf-Johnson), Lithuania (Dalia Grybauskaite), Malawi (Joyce Banda) and Switzerland (Eveline Widmer Sclumpf). The 9 countries where a woman serves as prime Minister are: Australia (Julia Gillard), Bangladesh ('Sheik' Hasina Wajed), Denmark (Helle Thorning-Schmidt, Germany (Angela Merkel), Iceland (Johanna Siguoadottir), Jamaica (Portia Simpson-Miller), San Marino ((Antonella Mularoni), Thailand ((Yingluck Shinawatra), Trinidad & Tobago (Kamla Persad-Bissessar).



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In the FORBES list of the 100 powerful women who 'run the world' the first ten places are held, in leading order, by Frau Angela Merkel, (Germany), Mrs Hillary Clinton, (USA). Mrs Dilma Rousseff (Brazil), Mrs Melinda Gates (USA), Mrs Jill Abramson (USA), Mrs Sonia Gandhi (India), Mrs Michelle Obama (USA), Mrs. Christine Lagarde (France), Mrs Janet Napolitano (USA) and Mrs Sheryl Sandberg (USA). The FORBES 100 powerful women list refers to women active in politics, business, the Media and Humanitarian endeavours.

15.2 Women in the Economy and in Higher Education

Jack Zenger and Joseph Folkman presented in 2012, in the Harvard Business Review Blog Network, a brief review of their research under the title *'Are Women Better Leaders than Men?'* Their study which concluded in 2011 involved 7,280 leaders. Their dataset included leaders from some of the most, 'successful and progressive organizations in the world both public and private, government and commercial, domestic and international.' The two authors admitted that their findings 'confirm some seemingly eternal truths about men and women leaders in the workplace but also hold some surprises.'

In the confirmation category the two authors reported that the majority of leaders (64%) are still men and amongst them 78% of top managers were men as were 67% at the next level down (i.e. senior executives reporting directly to top managers at top management) and 60% at the manager level below that. Among the surprises they mention is the fact that on all levels examined women were rated by peers, bosses, direct reports and other associates as better overall leaders than their male counterparts. In the authors list of 16 competencies top leaders exemplify most they report that women were rated higher in 12 of the 16. Indeed in two of them in which men were always thought to surpass women, namely taking initiative and driving for results, women outscored men to the highest degree. However, on the competency of the ability to develop a strategic perspective, men outscored women significantly.

As the global scale, non-profit organization 'Catalyst', which has offices in the USA, Canada, Europe and India, reported (2013), there were 21 women CEOs in the 2012 FORTUNE 500 list (representing 4.2% of CEOs) and another 21 women CEOs in the 2012 FORTUNE 1000 list (also representing 4.2% of all CEOs).

Referring to a meeting of four women Presidents of American Colleges and Universities held in Washington, D.C. (4th Annual Forum of Women in Leadership), David Moltz (2011) brought forth some interesting statistics noting that about 23% of all American College and University Presidents are women while 57% of the total number of enrolled students are female. Indeed only 494 of the 2148 Institutions of Higher learning in America have women Presidents while the total of women Presidents in Community Colleges is 29%.

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Things are not comparatively better in the UK and, as John Morgan (2011) reports, out of the 157 Higher Education Institutions only 17 are run by a woman Vice-Chancellor (it is known that in the UK the post of Chancellor is mostly Honorary and the Vice-Chancellor is the executive in charge) and only one of the Russell Group of large Research intensive Universities is headed by a woman. According to estimates by the European Universities Association, about 10% of the 850 European Universities are headed by a woman Rector but it should be noted that in many countries the Rector, (the President in the US or the Vice-Chancellor in the UK), is elected by university colleagues and not appointed by Governmental Authorities or Boards of Trustees.

Within the spirit of approaching this, in my humble opinion, very serious matter and for purely academic purposes, it should be noted that between 1901 and 2012 the Nobel Prizes and the Prize in Economic Sciences were awarded 555 times to 863 Laureates including 839 individuals and 24 organizations. Only 44 of the 839 Laureates were women.

The metaphor of the 'glass ceiling' refers to an unseen, but simultaneously real and existing barrier, that keeps women from rising to the upper levels of corporate and organizational ladders even when they objectively, judged on the merits of their achievements, experience and other qualifications fulfill all necessary requirements. The Chairman of the United States Federal 'glass ceiling' Commission, the Honorable Labor Secretary Robert B. Reich, in his introductory message to a relevant report published by the U.S. Department of Labor in March 1995 under the title 'Good For Business: Making Full Use of the Nation's Human Capital' wrote:

'The term "glass ceiling" first entered America's public conversation less than a decade ago, when The Wall Street Journal's "Corporate Woman" column identified a puzzling new phenomenon. There seemed to be an invisible—but impenetrable—barrier between women and the executive suite, preventing them from reaching the highest levels of the business world regardless of their accomplishments and merits. The phrase immediately captured the attention of the public as well as business leaders, journalists, and policy makers…Thanks to the leadership and vision of Secretary Elizabeth Dole—and that of her able successor, Secretary Lynn Martin— the Department of Labor became closely involved in identifying and publicizing the glass ceiling problem, issuing a Report on the Glass Ceiling Initiative in 1991. Senator Robert Dole introduced The Glass Ceiling Act enacted with only minor changes as Title II of the Civil Rights Act of 1991. It established the bipartisan Glass Ceiling Commission, with the Secretary of Labor as its chair…' (p. iii.)

In the same preamble to that report Secretary Reich mentioned that 97% of the senior managers of Fortune 1000 industrial and Fortune 500 companies were white and 95% to 97% were male. In Fortune 2000 industrial and service companies, 5% of senior managers were women and of that 5%, virtually all are white. In another report published by the U.S. Department of Labor in November 1995 under the title "A Solid Investment: Making Full Use of the Nation's Human Capital' Secretary Reich wrote in his message:

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'The "glass ceiling" is a concept that betrays America's most cherished principles. It is the unseen, yet unbreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements.' (p. 4)

In reality there seems to be (as has been the case with other popular terms) a vacuum of tested and verifiable confirmation of the name of the creator of the term 'glass ceiling'. If one undertook the task of trying to trace the term's origin through various means including Google, this point would come through clearly. The term, as the above mentioned report of the Secretary of Labor indicated and is mentioned in an article by A. H. Eagly and L. L. Carli in the Harvard Business Review, was thought to have been used for the first time in the relevant article by Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt in the March 24, 1986 edition of the Wall Street Journal. As it turns out the term was used in a March 1984 *Adweek* article by Gay Bryant who at the time was editor of the Working Woman magazine. Indeed Gay Bryant collaborating with three other co-authors published in 1984 the book 'The Working Woman Report: Succeeding in Business in the 80's'. Be it as it may the 'glass ceiling' term describes a reality which few will deny that, for a multitude of reasons, has been and continues to be in existence today.

Cotter et al (2001) in a relevant study found that the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon is a reality in the careers of Afro-American and White women. This reality continues to exist not only despite the introduction and enforcement of the historic 'Civil Rights Act of 1964' which aimed at banning all forms of discrimination, but of the Title II of the Civil Rights Act of 1991 by the 'Glass Ceiling Commission' was officially established. A February 2011 Survey by the 'Institute of Leadership and Management', reported by the BBC, suggested that things are not much better for British women managers and their place under the 'glass ceiling'. Published with the title 'Female managers say glass ceiling intact - survey' the BBC reported that three quarters of the women taking part in this survey are still facing barriers to promotion to higher corporate ladders.

Closing this book where I have paraphrased the Cartesian maxim of 'I think therefore I am' and used as a subtitle my 'I communicate therefore I am' I do recognize that, in a Weberian sense, private and public enterprises and organizations on a global scale continue to belong to the Patriarchal type of authority structure. I will close my book wondering how much more time and what type of personality will be needed in order to reach the point where a woman manager will paraphrase another historically significant maxim, that of Marx and Engels, calling on a global scale '…women managers to unite as they will have nothing to loose but a glass ceiling keeping them trapped in the middle rungs of corporations and organizations…'

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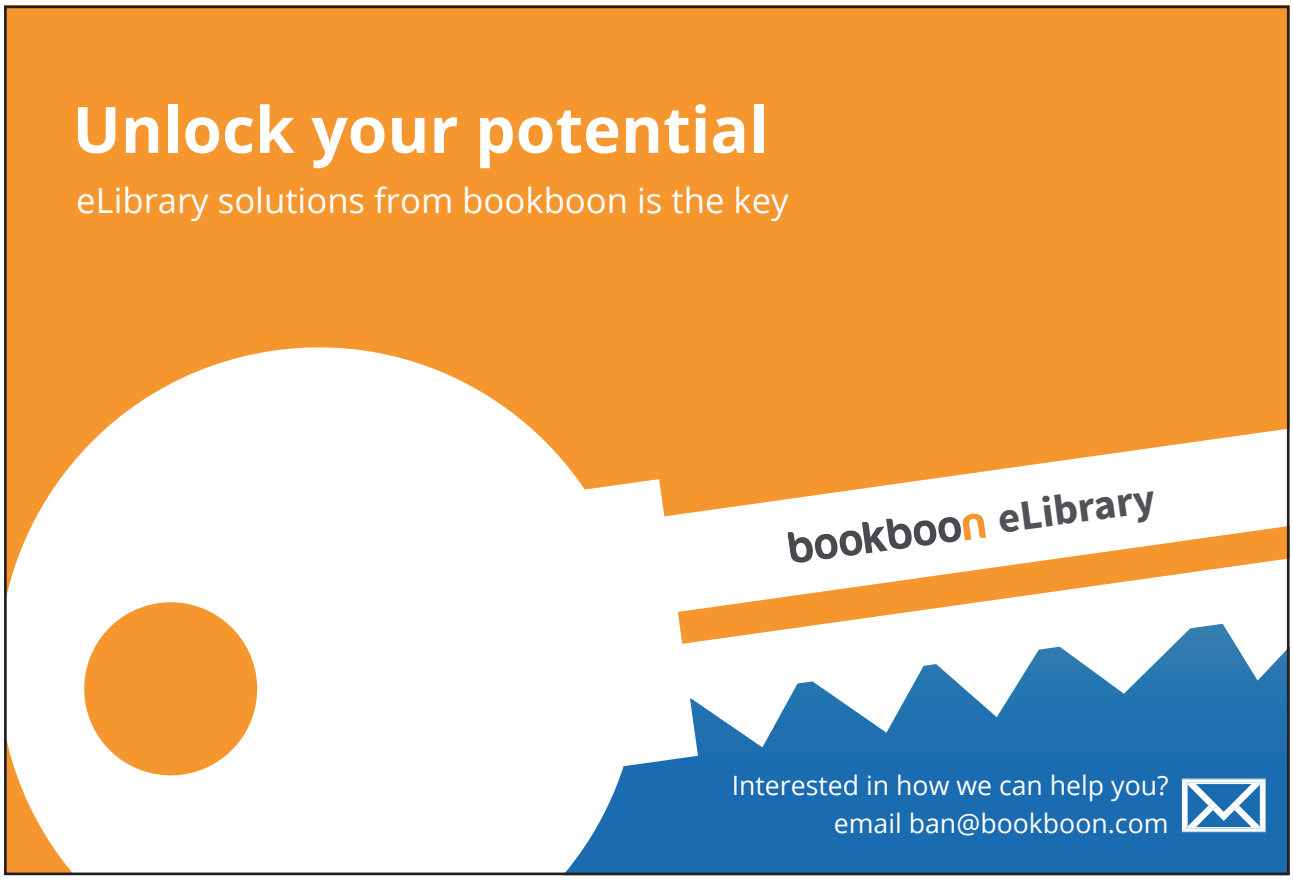

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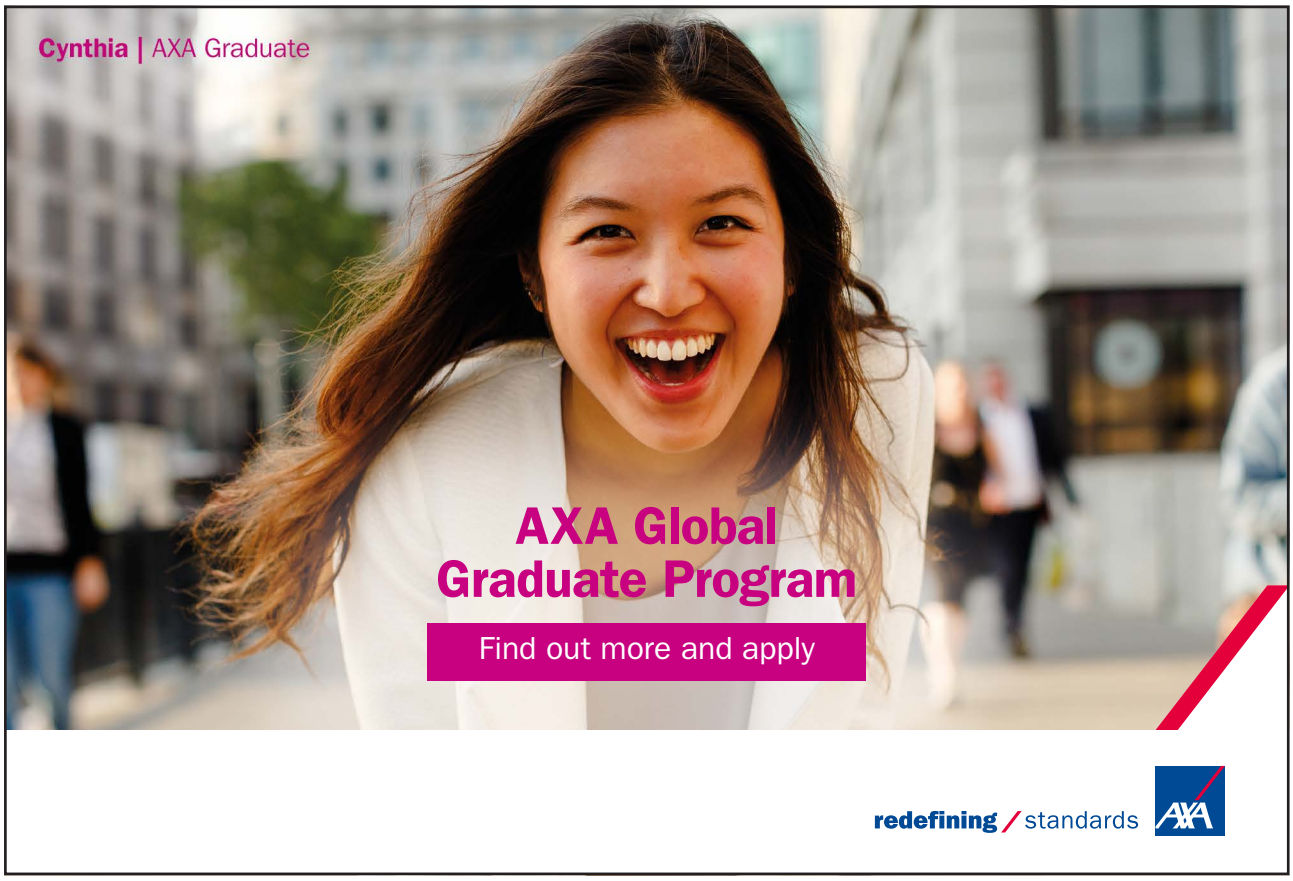

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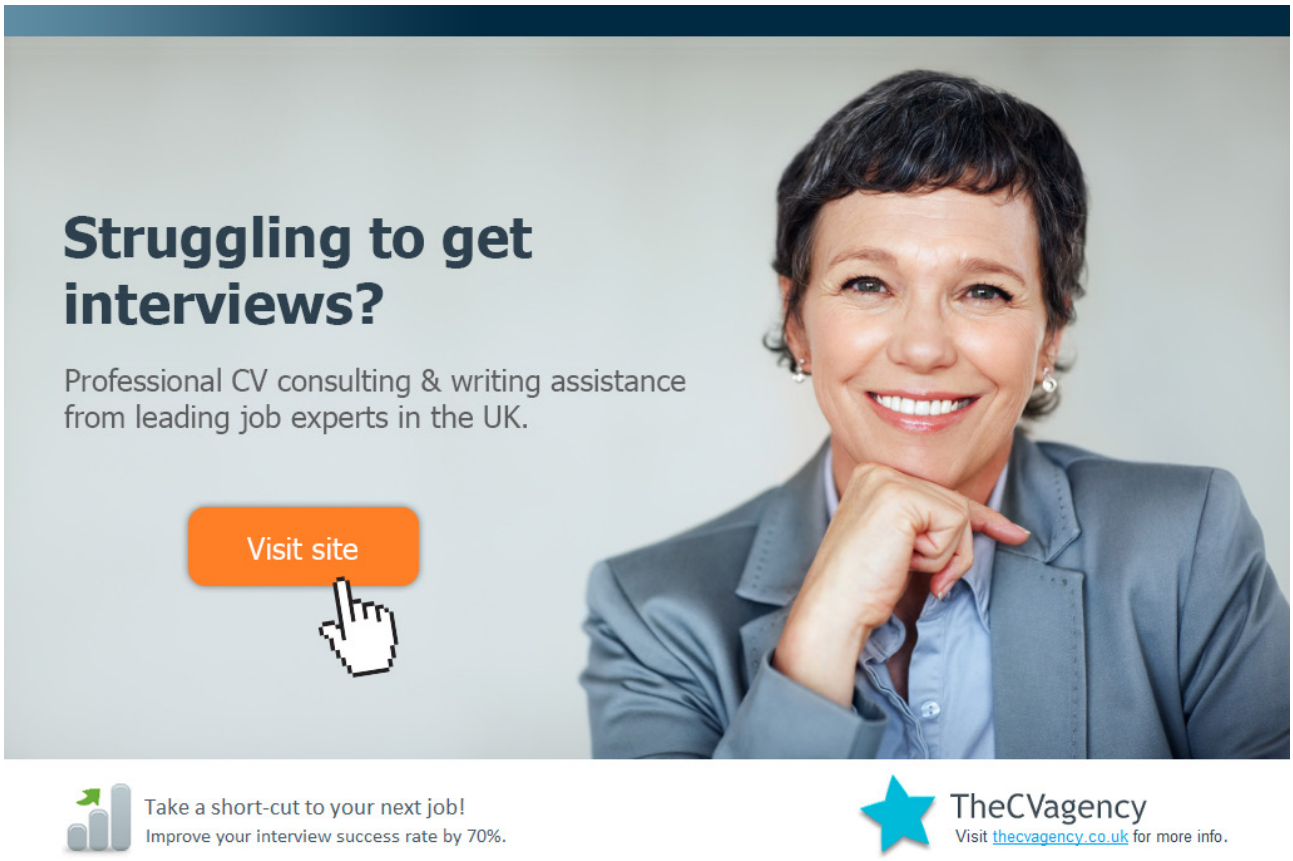

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17 The Author

Georgios P. Piperopoulos studied sociology and psychology at American, German and Austrian Universities receiving his Bachelor's, Master's and Ph.D. degrees; taught at several American, European and Greek Universities at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels before retiring from his professorial chair at the Department of Business Administration, The University of Macedonia, Thessaloniki, Greece.

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He has held a variety of managerial posts in private enterprises and public social services organizations in the USA and Europe.

He has developed and taught Leadership, Communication, Stress Management and Psychological Operations courses at the Supreme Joint War College of the Hellenic Armed Forces (Army, Navy, Air force), the Army staff training school, the Hellenic Police Continuing Education Centre and at the Greek branch of the United Nations Peace Serving Operations Training Centre.

Professor Piperopoulos has published several textbooks and many popular books in Greek and English and authored hundreds of articles and editorials in leading Greek Newspapers and magazines. He has been a frequent guest on Greek TV and radio programs as a commentator and, for several years, presented his own show titled 'I Communicate Therefore I am' in Greek National and Regional TV channels and Radio stations. He has delivered hundreds of public lectures to groups in Greece, Europe and the USA.

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His daughter Dr Natasha (Anastasia) Piperopoulou lives with her son in Athens and is employed as psychologist in a Piraeus public school for training and educating adolescents with special needs. His son Dr Panagiotis (Panos) Piperopoulos is a lecturer at Leeds University Business School, UK.

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