7TH INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS RESEARCH CONFERENCE

Proceedings:

"Globalization: Challenges & Opportunities for Public Relations"

March 11 – 14, 2004

South Miami, Florida, USA

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Foreword

Over 100 public relations researchers, practitioners, and academies spent four days in daily *discussions* of theory and public relations focusing on only public relations. Although the 2004 conference has the theme, "Globalization: Challenges & Opportunities for Public Relations," research accepted for presentation was not held to that theme. Cutting edge research and theory was deemed as important as that which met the theme. Further, because this conference focuses on what "works" – as well as what does not work – acceptance is based on abstracts of promise. Hence, conference attendees are faced with not only theory and research that "worked," but also ideas that did not turn out as expected. The idea here is that we can learn as much from our failures as we can from our successes (an idea that was further explored by conference keynote speaker Sunshine Overkamp). Finally, rather than the typical "academic" conference approach, whereby speakers stand up and read or summarize their findings to audiences, presenters were placed at tables and *talked* about their research, answering questions as they quickly reviewed and discussed their findings – this they did between four and five times during their assigned presentation time, as well as over drinks or meals during "down time."

At conference's end all presenters were asked to provide two things. First, they were asked to create a news release on what they had presented. Second, they were asked to forward a copy of the paper that their discussions were based on for publication in the proceedings. The idea of the news release came from the 2nd research conference held at College Park, Maryland, in 1999. Institute for Public Relations President Jack Felton suggested that academics would do better if they wrote for the profession rather than each other. He argued that if the presentations were written for the public relations practitioner more people would read them and their impact would be significant.

This is the third year we've asked for releases, but have not made presenting predicated on receiving them (our goal is the discussion of research to promote more thought and research, as well as to get practitioners and academics to sit down with each other and talk about what they have in common). The releases contained in the following pages are as submitted; only the only the formatting has been standardized. Participants who did not submit releases or revised abstracts (one step forward, two steps back?) have their abstracts in the conference program, which is available online at the Institute for Public Relations (www.instituteforpr.com).

Finally, we were surprised last year by requests for the actual papers. We asked that participants provide a copy of this year's proceedings. Because many of the papers presented will be published in academic journals, there is a problem of copyright or even being "in print" in other venues. Again, we did not make furnishing a paper requisite for acceptance. Hopefully, the 8th conference will provide more papers. For those who would like a full version of the papers presented, a list of all presenters and their contact information is found at the end of the volume.

A final caveat is in order. Only formatting changes have been made to the releases and papers. Where egregious typographical errors were found, they were corrected. All works is what the authors presented and sent in for these proceedings. Supporting data – often in the form of figures and tables were included as much as possible. In one paper it was not possible to insert the figures; this is reported as a note on that study is my fault and not the author.

For more information or dialogue on the ideas, theories, and findings, please contact individual authors. At least one author's email address is included in the release or paper header. The goal of all IPRRC conferences is to encourage dialogue among and between public relations academics and practitioners.

Finally, this conference would not have been possible without the help and support of others. I would like to thank Tina Carroll and Michelle Hinson for yoeman's work in making the 2004 conference the success it seems to have been. I would be remiss if I didn't thank our corporate, institutional, and individual sponsors: Allstate Insturance, Arthur W. Page Society, Council of Public Relations Firms, General Motors, Institute for Public Relations, ITT Industries, Johnson & Johnson, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Northwestern Mutual, Betsy Plank, Public Relations Society of America, Southwest Airlines, Larry Thomas, University of Florida, University of Miami. The IPRRC wouldn't function without their continued support.

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What Shall We Tell the Children?
Pro and Anti Iraq-War Communication Strategies
For the Children of the Children of the Vietnam Era

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"Polls taken in [the United States] when war was still a hypothetical were interpreted as saying that only small majorities would support a war," wrote *U.S. News & World Report's* Michael Barone as the recent Iraq conflict began. He also characterized the very newest polls as demonstrating that "public opinion had shifted to solid support for the war." If this characterization is accurate–and there's no reason to here take issue–it says much about the fickleness of polls but it does not say anything about who is for or against the war or why. Indeed, if one makes a systematic inspection of public opinion as presented in another leading news magazine like *Newsweek*, the picture emerging is one of infrequent polls with results specified as percentages for or against the war. Naturally, news magazines are occupied with telling stories that interest readers. They support these tales with whatever factualities can be discovered to support their story line, and only occasionally, it seems, do they bring in an estimation of public opinion as part of that story. And when they do, these poll numbers do not, as John Dewey would say, help the public identify itself and organize itself to achieve it's enduring, widespread, significant interests. Identification of what "public opinion" should be–not what exists–is the apparent purview of the news magazine's "journalists," most if not all of whom are really opinion columnists.

It is true that letters to the editor present a small number of diverse reader opinions on important topics like the Iraq War, but they are just that, disjointed assertions on this or that aspect. Together over time they might be utilized to bring forth genuine differing or conflicting public opinion segments, but as published they are merely heaps of feelings, not pubic opinion. If one ponders the various editorial offerings, there is a still wider range of opinion, much of it contradictory even when from the same journalist. Thus, at the end of one year of reading *Newsweek's* war coverage, it is intuitively impossible to know where the preponderance of editorial opinion about Iraq lies much less what is public opinion. It would be hard to think it could be otherwise for most of the other advertising-financed American mass media. This is of no service whatsoever to the profession of public relations. Methodology is required.

To demonstrate how a plethora of journalistic or reader opinion can be merged with other pertinent subjectivity to bring forth an understandable picture of public opinion in regard to the Iraq War is an aim of this paper. To make it useful to all sides of the conflict so it might be used in forming public relations strategy is another.

As the Iraqi War was about to get under way, the opportunity presented itself to follow the development of attitudes about the looming conflict by administering a series of Q-sorts from a rich sample of statements to advanced public relations students. The group included nearly two-dozen students of Caucasian and African American ethnicity, both men and women. Nearly all are in their 20s. The students were Q-sorted four times during the study: Prior to the outbreak of war; during the conflict when the outcome was not yet clear; following the conclusion of major hostilities; and in a follow-up about half a year later.

Q factors expressing deeply held belief systems are not opinion polls. They tend to be quite stable over long periods of time, even on very complicated and abstract topics. When Barchak Q sorted leading communication scientists in the mid 1970s and again in the mid 1980s, he found correlations of his 36-statement Q sample about their individual philosophies of science to be as high as .9, even though no one had been informed of a sort/re-sort possibility to be administered a decade later. A correlation of .9 is an amazing coherence when the opportunities for different arrangements of the statements run into the billions and beyond. It amply demonstrates the staying power of attitude, belief, and self.

Survey research results tend to wobble around–sometimes rising, sometimes falling–during emotion-laden events like run-ups to war or political campaigns. (One need only contemplate the ups and downs of John Kerry, Howard Dean, and John Edwards during the 2004 Democratic primary.) It should be interesting to see whether a Q panel study of attitudes from young college students about the Iraq War will hold to the established pattern of survey research or to previous Q studies as the fortunes of conflict shift around.

In the first of the panel studies, which can be called "Before the War," three very different attitudes of mind–or belief systems–were discovered amongst public relations students, their friends, and relatives. One of these is a broadly anticipated factor strongly supports President Bush, believes he is looking out for the world's

best interest, and sees the world as safer without Saddam. It has a clear view of American military might. What could have been easily missed about this viewpoint, however, is its internationalist sympathy and its rejection of revenge while worrying about America starting a big war. Unique to this group is also its concern for the freedom of the Iraqi people and its close attention to information about the conflict. This is the largest group of all, composed entirely of deep Caucasian southerners, but not the bigoted parody of Howard Dean's imagination. To win any of this vote, Democrats must see the symphony of southern opinion; Republicans, for their part, must investigate the nuances of these natural allies.

A second belief system is characterized by an attitude that is anti-war with quasi-internationalist overtones. But it is also unreasonably fearful while believing the world would be better off without Saddam. It wants peace at any cost, not even the cost of examining the issues. This belief system is completely off base in seeing the American military as feckless without the assistance of allies. What is most chilling about this factor, however, is its disinterest in the people of Iraq. Nonetheless, it does not see America–for which it has no love or gratitude–as a money-inspired terrorist, racist regime. Democrats take note: These natural allies are out of tune with many of the policies being touted by the leading candidates. This group cannot be race-baited or easily set against American capitalism, even though they cite oil as a casus belli. From the Republicans perspective, it would be worthwhile to reduce some of this group's anxiety by fairly presenting the enormous strength of the American military. They are divided within themselves on self-protection.

The third understanding discovered belongs to an African American woman and her friend. They feel powerless over the war, but are convinced that Saddam is a threat whose absence would make the world a safer place. Unlike the other belief systems, these women jump at the opportunity to see the war as racist and genocidal and likely to kill the poor and underprivileged for the benefit of the President and the Congress. Despite this, they are people of physical courage who say, "America has given me so much, I would be willing to die in an Iraqi desert to protect those things." Their whole focus is on their compatriots, not foreign people, not other countries, nor international institutions beyond America's borders; and they have no bones to pick with the capitalist system, per se. They voraciously seek information about this coming conflict. Moreover, they believe America can go to war without the backing of other nations or the U.N. and that America can win without any allies. Their motto seems to be: Duty and Country. If this narrative doesn't catch Democrats and Republicans up short–and bring tears to their eyes–than nothing short of hellfire will fix their attention on the shortcomings of journalistic and popular stereotypes of public opinion.

Whatever the details that emerge from the "During the War" and "After the War" studies, public relations research can offer those professionals working in political communication a clearer view of an important segment of the population, a segment that votes infrequently but might be approached for its support by any of the parties to the debate. This might not be insignificant in a presidential election year that may well revolve around the Iraq War. It is also possible as was shown in Barchak's Bush v. Gore study that unanticipated audience belief systems can be discovered, interpreted, and used to redirect tactical communication planning thereby avoiding off-base strategies. Any party to the debate–whether political, media, or special interest group–could use the insights for choosing message tactics, channels of communication, campaign themata, or to take other actions. Future studies could track any traditional demographic segments such as age, income, gender, etc., realizing, of course, that the most productive segmentation is likely to be by belief system. And belief systems can fruitfully be measured by Q methodology. All this will be followed up in the sequel.

The Interplay between Media, Public Relations and Society in Bulgaria

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Sandra Braun, graduate student at University of Florida, spend June, 2003 in Bulgaria examining the nature and practice of public relations in Bulgaria for her master's thesis. Bulgaria has long been known as "Russia's closest ally" in the region, even though it never was a republic. In this short paper, "The Interplay Between Media, Public Relations, and Society in Bulgaria" Braun focuses in on the special effects of the confluence of these three forces. She identifies some key forces affecting the practice of public relations in Bulgaria. First, the common practice of editorial corruption, that is, payment for stories, in the media. Editorial corruption is a problem in many emerging democracies and Bulgaria is no exception. Public relations practitioners lament the fact that they struggle to set a new standard of 'no payment for placements'.

Tabloid journalism is rampant as markets become free and media become private. Media owners are finding themselves subject to market forces and sacrificing newsworthiness for what will sell.

With a highly educated workforce, high unemployment, underemployment, and low wages, Bulgaria is suffering from 'brain drain' and many of the talented are emigrating. This leaves the public relations and journalism industries scrambling for talent and professionalism. Often, recruits are solicited off the street. While there is a faculty of journalism and communications, the program is lacking.

Also, as in many other newly-emerging democracies, there is a serious disconnect between public relations specialists and journalists. Both fields are newly developing and each is struggling to define itself. There is very little common understanding and terminology about the other's role.

Much public relations theory is derived from a Western worldview and assumes a well-functioning democratic context. The study of public relations in such countries as Bulgaria with a history of totalitarian rule, can provide a valuable foundation for public relations theory-building in newly-emerging democracies and the Eastern European context.

The Interplay between Media, Public Relations, and Society in Bulgaria

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Recent scholarship in international public relations research has identified a theoretical framework to explore the relationship between five environmental variables in a society and the practice of public relations (Sriramesh & Vercic, 2003). These five variables are a) a country's political/legal system, b) level of activism, c) culture, d) economy, and e) media infrastructure/practices. Taylor (2001) also calls this contextual research, that is, research about the nature and state of public relations practice in specific countries. International public relations scholarship has examined these variables only generally, and most of the variables lack in-depth research, with the variable of culture having received most of the scholarly attention (Sriramesh & Vercic, 2003). There has been little contextual research at all from many Eastern European countries.

This paper seeks to fill in this research gap by briefly examining one particular contextual variable in one particular country context, that is, specifically, to analyze the results of the interplay between the variable of media practices with public relations and its effects on society in Bulgaria. "One cannot overstate the critical relationship between the mass media and public relations" (Sriramesh, 2003, p. 11).

This study is based on qualitative field research conducted in June, 2003 for Master's thesis work. Research was composed of in 15 depth interviews, observations, field notes, artifacts, and secondary research. Interviews were conducted with Bulgarian public relations professors, students, and practitioners; journalists, and media representatives from snowball samples. These interviews were largely conducted with the promise of anonymity and citations identify participants by their profession only.

This paper will briefly examine a) the nature of Bulgarian society, b) the nature of the media system/ infrastructure in Bulgaria, c) the nature of public relations education and practice in Bulgaria and then d) the interaction between the three and its effects on society. Effects were identified with a nomothetic approach.

There is no literature that specifically addresses this topic; however, a review of relevant literature available in English about Bulgarian society, media, and public relations practice was conducted and is used to support observations from field research.

For the sake of brevity and for the purposes of the length of this paper, quotes from the in depth interviews are used sparingly only to reinforce a point or to introduce a new point that the researcher considers important to the discussion. There are some quotes to describe factual data, such as the number of members in the Bulgaria Public Relations Society. This is quoted because no records or directories exist with membership lists. It is the author's personal observation that Bulgarians are reluctant/hesitant to produce directories of any kinds or lists with names. In fact, the researcher was unable to sight one single telephone book in the 30 days I spent in the country, even though Bulgarians were adamant that they did have telephone directories. I even inquired at a hotel in the capital and the receptionist was unable to produce one, although she, too, swore that there was indeed a telephone directory somewhere, even though it might be five years old. Hiebert (1994) makes the point that "under communism, directories, maps, and other media of public communication were often considered subversive….(giving) people too much access to information; only the KGB or its equivalent could possess a complete listing of all telephone numbers, and maps were often regarded as tools for spies" (paragraph #12).

Introduction

Bulgaria is a country in transition from an authoritarian regime to a democracy. Since the dismantling of the Soviet communist system in l991, countries across Eastern Europe have become democracies, opening the door for greater global interaction and communications and thus increasing the need for public relations and strategic communication management. The process of democratization and development of free speech has progressed differently in many of these countries. The reasons for the varying rates of democratic consolidation are an endless source of debate. But, generally, scholars agree that in countries where the transition has occurred the most quickly, like Hungary and Poland, there had been internal resistance to the communist system and the country welcomed the opportunity for change, whereas, in other countries, like Bulgaria and Romania, active resistors had been systematically purged during the communist regime, and when the opportunity for democracy presented itself, it was passively accepted (Giatzidis, 2002; Grzymala-Busse, 2002). Thus, the transition has been quicker for countries of the former group and much slower for countries in the latter group. Public relations in faster-consolidating democracies is more well-developed than public relations in slower-consolidating democracies. Countries such as Bulgaria pose as interesting cases for communications and public

relations study because of this unique variable of a slowly transitioning nation and society just becoming accustomed to freedoms.

Bulgarian Society

Countries in Eastern Europe have responded differently to the process of democratization (Kaldor & Vejvoda, 2002). Bulgarian society can be described as generally overwhelmed by the transition to democracy. Living conditions have deteriorated since the onset of the transition. Bulgarians experience high unemployment (about 16 percent at the time of this writing), low wages, increased crime, and political in-fighting (Giatzidis, 2002). The society is marked by rapid changes (Ognianova, 1996). Businesses come and go, and streets and landmarks are continually re-named as the country sheds its Communist past (interview, professor, June 9, 2003). Political parties also come and go. The country has experienced nine changes of government in the past 10 years (Markova, 2000). For a society accustomed to relative order and stability under Communist rule, these changes produce a low-level anxiety in the society that can be described as a state of semi-chaos (Giatzidis, 2002).

Bulgarian society has been described as largely a paternalistic and passive society (a legacy of its domination by a totalitarian Communist system) and a general lack of democratic tradition (Giatzidis, 2002; Kolarova, 1999; Ognianova, 1996). In the period from 1878-1944, following liberation from the Turks and prior to Communism, Bulgaria did have a more democratic form of government, but "power was always in the hands of a politically active elite" (Bell, 1977, p. 5). Bulgarians are generally paternalistic in the sense that they are accustomed to the government taking care of them; they are passive in the sense that they are very accepting of authority whether or not they agree (Raycheva, 2003). This mindset is entrenched from a legacy of communism, and while democracy may be the new order of the day, the Bulgarian mindset remains the same and is slow to change. Hence, to use a Biblical metaphor, adopting this new-found democracy has been like pouring new wine into old wineskins. "We have a new system, but still the old mindset …We are free, but we do not know how to live free" (interview, professor, June 8, 2003). Bulgarians also tend to be suspicious, cynical, and resistant to new messages. This poses challenges for public relations practitioners who are trying to interject new types of messages into the society that require an understanding of commercialism and the use of critical thinking skills (interview, public relations practitioner., June 25, 2003).

Some have described Bulgaria and Bulgarians as "lacking in values and morals" (interview, public relations practitioner, June 17, 2003). The concern expressed by such people has to do with what they perceive as an overarching lack of motivation in the society, which poses a challenge for practitioners in getting people to work together and rally around a cause. A study of the effects of religion on the transition in Central and Eastern Europe concludes that "the legacies of the Catholic and Orthodox Churches influence the cultures of the countries in which they are dominant as systems of meaning, at the level of social values, world-views, and motivations" (Enev, 2001, p. 2). Bulgaria is dominated by the Bulgarian Orthodox Church, a form of Eastern Orthodoxy. The same study of the effects of religion on the transitions in Central and Eastern Europe shows that countries with Eastern Orthodoxy versus Catholicism as the dominant religion rank in a group of those countries that "represent political and economic laggards" (Enev, 2001, p. 2.) Enev theorizes that this is because "Catholicism promotes a cultural environment more conducive to transition" and "on the political dimension, Catholics show higher political efficacy…have more confidence in modern political institutions, and in their influence on political decisions" (Enev, 2001, p. xiii). It is interesting to note that the dismantling of the Soviet Union started in Poland, a country dominated by Catholicism. Hungary is another country that welcomed democracy and transitioned fairly quickly, and is also largely Catholic. Both Bulgaria and Romania are known for slower rates of transition and both are Eastern Orthodox.

Another important area of discussion is emigration. Bulgaria experiences a negative 1.1% population growth and an aging population (CIA World Factbook, 2002). In essence, it is a dying country. It has a highly educated workforce, but wages are low. Since the collapse of communism, Bulgaria's population has decreased by 1 million due to emigration and lower birth rates. (Alexandrova, 2003). This has created a society of on-the-job training. There are not enough trained professionals in the journalism and public relations fields, even though academic programs exist. Many newspaper editors and public relations executives are pulling people in off the street and providing in-house training to meet the need (interview, Bulgarian journalist, June 11, 2003). Maxim Behar, owner of 3M Communications in the capital of Sofia, has even started his own communications training school to prepare his workers and also to be a service to the community (interview, Behar, June 19, 2003).

Bulgarian Media

Media in Bulgaria have been in a virtual free-for-all since 1989. Prior to l989, there were only 10 national and 28 regional daily newspapers (Schweitzer, 2003). Currently, in a country only slightly larger than

Tennessee with 8 million inhabitants, there are about 150 television stations, 450 newspapers, and about 175 radio stations (Raycheva, 2002). Only a few media are viable in the marketplace; many struggle for advertisers, and they find themselves reduced to tabloid-style reporting (Raycheva, 2003).

There is journalism training at various universities throughout the country, however it is lacking. The most prestigious is the journalism program at the country's largest university, Sofia University, in the country's capital. Personal observation, however, reveals antiquated equipment. In depth interviews with media personnel reveal a general disappointment in the program with regard to the quality of its graduates (interview, journalist, June 11, 2003). When the new democratic system emerged, many of the existing journalists were asked to become professors in the universities (Raycheva, 2003). Thus, "professors are grounded in state-run media [and] are ill-equipped to teach the necessary skills to the next generation" (Vangelova, L. 2002). For the most part, journalists are largely taken in off the street and trained on the job (interview, journalist, June 11, 2003). The overall industry can be described as lacking in professionalism, with stories and broadcasts riddled with inaccuracies, opinion and speculation (Mulcahy, 2003). Journalists have yet to develop a code of ethics (interview, journalist, June 20, 2003).

Media control refers to a discussion of both ownership and control because ownership does not necessarily mean control. In Bulgaria, much of the media sector has been privatized; however, the government retains majority ownership in the largest radio station and the largest television station in the country – Bulgaria National Radio (BNR) and Bulgaria National Television (BNT) respectively (Schweitzer, 2003). While BNR and BNT would declare themselves as "independent, public entities, politicians still view them as avenues to reach the public, and "this can sometimes pose problems" (interview, public relations professional, June 24, 2003). There is a "continuous trend of political interference in the media" (Ivantcheva, 2001), and "media freedom in Bulgaria is at the crossroads of economic dependency and political pressure…from total censorship towards free and pluralist media" (Markova, 2000, paragraph #1). The 1996 Law on Radio and Television is highly restrictive and allows the ruling political parties to maintain some control over television and radio. For instance, the government influences who will head BNT and BNR, through its appointees on the National Council on Radio and Television.

Media reach refers to "media saturation…. a gauge of message exposure among …audiences" (Sriramesh & Vercic, 2003, p. 15). Factors such as illiteracy and poverty can limit media reach or they can determine the choice of a medium. In Bulgaria, most media activity is centered in the capital of Sofia with its 1 million inhabitants, almost 10 percent of the entire nation. In the countryside, citizens have access only to government-influenced radio and television. The newspaper of the Bulgarian Socialist Party (the newly named Bulgarian Communist Party), *Trud,* is readily available, along with a few regional newspapers. Voters in the countryside have been known to vote consistently for the Bulgarian Socialist Party, which is the remnant of the former Bulgarian Communist Party (Giatzidis, 2002). In 1997, 74 percent of those polled stated they relied on state-controlled national television for news (Bulgaria, 1997).

In spite of the plethora of news outlets, it is difficult to truly call them independent and free (Nestorova, 2003). Even though press freedom is guaranteed and regulated by Articles 39, 40, and 41 of the Constitution and Articles 146, 147, and 148 of the penal code, a subtle system of self-censorship inhibits true media independence and media freedom (Nestorova, 2003). "Only the Darik radio station in Sofia has earned a reputation for independent news reporting. Its coverage of the demonstrations early in the year, the only source of news about the events, made Darik the most popular radio station in the capital" (Bulgaria, 1997, paragraph 4). The reality of many transitional societies, thus, is that even though they are democratic in name, many freedoms such as freedom of the press, exist on a continuum, and pose challenges for public relations professionals engaging in the communications process.

Public Relations in Bulgaria

The first course in public relations was held in l989/l990 at the Faculty of Journalism at Sofia University. Bachelor's and master's programs were offered in the l994/1995 school year, and the Bulgarian Public Relations Society was formed in 1996 with approximately 40 members (Zlateva, 2002b). Today, there are about 200 professional members and 180 student members (interview, public relations professional, June 12, 2003). The growth of public relations has been fueled by multi-national companies seeking to sell to Bulgarian markets (interview, public relations professional, June 25, 2003). Prior to 1989 there was no market competition and hence no great need for public relations or advertising, although some advertising did exist as early as the 1850s (Doganov & Palfi, 1994). Now, in a democracy, where markets are freer and media are less restrained, commercial messages are finding their way into the society, and people are finding it difficult to deal with them properly (interview, public relations professional, June 30, 2003). There has been no media education to help the society, and this has contributed to the overall sense of confusion in the society. There certainly seems to be

a case to introduce media education into the society. "Media education has several meanings…the public must be able to sift out messages, reporting real events from circulating rumors, prejudices, and journalistic speculations" (Petev, 2002, p. 64).

Discussion

How do these phenomena relate to and interact with one another?

Editorial corruption – The subject of editorial corruption is an ever-growing one in the field of international public relations. Public relations professionals feel pressured by journalists to pay for coverage of events. Thus, newsworthiness can take a back seat to bribery. The general public does not always get all the news that may be of interest to it. Editorial corruption is one of the main themes coming to the foreground of the field (Culbertson, 2003). *Frontline*, the magazine for the International Public Relations Association (IPRA), devoted a story to such corruption in its September, 2003 issue. Editorial corruption has been linked to economic factors in the society, happening mostly in countries with poorly paid journalists and weak economies (McGraw, 2003). In Russia it is called zakazukha. (Tsetsura, 2003). In China, it is called the red envelope (Chen & Culbertson, 2003). The newly-released International Index for Bribery in News Coverage identified 66 countries and gave them a numerical value for level of bribery in news coverage, identifying the likelihood of the exchange of money for news coverage existing among the major print media. Bulgaria tied for 33rd place, along with the Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Lithuania, Singapore, Mauritius, and Slovenia. Russia ranked one place ahead of that group. China ranked at the top of the list as the country where editors and journalists are most likely to exchange money for news coverage.

"Bulgarian journalists are poorly paid and suffer from low social status. Self-censorship persists in the reform era, though it is most prevalent in the few remaining political party papers and on state-run Bulgarian National Television (BNT)" (Bulgaria 2000, paragraph #2).

This produces problems in public relations in that it devalues the profession. It also puts pressure on practitioners to succumb to the practice if they want coverage for clients.

Yellow/tabloid journalism – As media fall subject to markets and the markets only, this seems to have an adverse effect on the quality of journalism. In an effort to sell newspapers, journalism is reduced to tabloid news, and many newsworthy events go uncovered.

The euphoria surrounding press freedom produced a rash of publications. In 1989, only two months following the transition, two newspapers were formed (Ognianova, 1996). Within months, new publications appeared almost daily and many were soon gone just as quickly (Ognianova, 1996). By 1993, there were 2,664 news publications for Bulgaria's population of eight million (Ognianova, 1996). In efforts to remain sustainable, newspapers have succumbed to a curious mixture of real news and tabloid entertainment (Raycheva, 2003). This, coupled with the fact that fewer people can afford to buy newspapers, puts pressure on the industry to do all it can to generate sales (Raycheva, 2003).

> In the new context of severe market competition, the Bulgarian periodical's priority was survival – by giving their audience what it was perceived to want, rather than what it was believed to need. Bulgarian journalists increasingly saw their job as a business, and worked to provide the information the audience was willing to buy. Audience surveys became common in Bulgaria, in addition to the strict monitoring of what types of newspapers sold best in the street kiosks (Naidenov, 1995).

Clearly, newspaper owners and editors are cognizant of the forces of market competition and are becoming subject to their pressures, which includes writing and covering stories that will sell well, and not necessarily covering newsworthy stories.

A lack of understanding by journalists and the general public about public relations – In this new society, public relations is a brand new profession. While many practitioners around the world often complain about a lack of understanding by journalists and the general public, this is especially problematic and magnified in new and emerging democracies where both journalism and public relations are, in essence, brand new professions. Each is attempting to define itself and trying to carve out identities and standards of practice in a new and emerging society. Public relations practitioners are frustrated that when they send in a press release it often is passed along to the advertising department and treated as an advertisement (interview, public relations practitioner, June 27, 2003). They will get calls asking for money for placement simply because the name of the corporation exists in the press release. It is therefore difficult to get the attention of the press and coverage of events. Practitioners complain that journalists are largely not professionally trained and don't seem to understand the value of the public service announcement, nor are newspapers designed to accommodate them, as many U.S. newspapers are; particularly in local U.S. newspapers where there are sections designated for community events and news of interest to the public (interview, public relations practitioner, June 27, 2003).

The general public has a predisposition against public relations because it equates public relations with the propagandistic activities and media system of the communist regime (interview, professor, June 19, 2003). The

general public must be educated about what public relations is. In fact, public relations scholars in Bulgaria are considering changing the name of the profession for use inside the country in order to gain public understanding and acceptance (interview, professor, June 19, 2003). These discussions, however, are informal and in the beginning stages, with no real suggestions for alternatives.

Lack of professionalism in the media – The media environment in Bulgaria can be described as unstable and immature (Nestorova, 2003). It is plagued by self-censorship (Nestorova, 2003), government control and political influence (Ivantcheva, 2001), and poor journalistic skills (Mulcahy, 2003). When a free press was allowed in 1989, many of the existing journalists from the communist regime were moved into the educational system to teach (Raycheva, 2003). This old school of journalists lived by a different journalistic paradigm suitable for a totalitarian political environment. Sources were official, articles were censored, stories were assigned, there was no such thing as investigative journalism, and publications existed to serve the agenda of the state (Giatzidis, 2001). Media was expected to be loyal to the state and its ideology rather than loyal to the precepts of journalistic excellence (Ognianova, 1993). According to Bulgarian media scholar Ekaterina Ognianova, "the textbook on journalistic ethics used in the Department of Journalism in Sofia University until l989 [framed] the professional morality of journalists…in the Marxist-Leninist ideology" (Ognianova, 1993).

This, combined with the lack of a historical tradition of press freedom, plus a huge trend toward emigration, has produced a massive void of expertise in the journalism arena, which shows up as a lack of professionalism in the media and creates a society of on-the-job-training (interview, journalist, June 1, 2003). Based upon personal observations visiting newsrooms in the capital of Sofia, many journalists are very young. These factors combined work together to produce a low-quality style of journalism that is filled with immaturity, inaccuracies and journalistic opinion, rather than fact-finding and cross-checking. Unsophisticated, unprofessional journalists pose many frustrations for public relations practitioners as they attempt to relate to the media. While it can be said that public relations practitioners and journalists barely understand each other in the most advanced of countries, in Bulgaria, they barely even share a common terminology (interview, public relations practitioner, June 24, 2003). Once again, newsworthy stories are missed, and the general public does not get all the news.

However, the evolution of the media appears to be "slow but steady"….and "seems to be rising to the ideals of Western journalism" (Mulcahy, 2003, p. 11).

Mindset of the general public – There is often a particular overarching mentality that exists in the mindset of people emerging from totalitarian environments. It can be described as paternalistic, passive, and resistant to persuasion (Raycheva, 2003). Ognianova (1996) acknowledges that in addition to external changes going on in Bulgaria because of democratization, there are also changes happening in the Bulgarian psyche. "Bulgaria's developing status is determined by the rapid changes going on in its post-communist society. These changes, mainly economic, are inevitably accompanied by political, ideological, and psychological changes in the mindset of its citizens." (Ognianova, 1996). Reykowski (1998) identifies this phenomemon as a socio-political mentality. There is literature about the Bulgarian mentality, but it is written in Bulgarian. However, in-depth interviews reveal some common themes about the Bulgarian mentality including "persuasion resistant," "suspicious," and "cynical" (interview, public relations practitioner, June 25, 2003).

Public relations practitioners particularly face an interesting challenge as they attempt to inject persuasive and often commercial messages into the society. They find they must be very patient and creative in communicating with the general public as they meet with overall resistance (interview, public relations practitioner, June 25, 2003).

Anti-consensus – Zlateva (2002) identifies "anti-consensus" as a problem in Bulgarian society that has come about as a result of the new media pluralism. She claims that "achieving agreement…on a problem…or a conflict…precedes the formation of public opinion" and that agreement is necessary for Bulgarian society "to resolve the large-scale and complex problems of transition to a civil society" (Zlateva, 2002, p. 49-50). The notion of consensus and anti-consensus is not unique to Bulgarian scholars. Gunther Bentele, a German public relations scholar, says that "public relations serves the functions of information, communication, persuasion, image building, continuous building of trust, management of conflict, and the generation of social consensus" (Bentele, 2003, p. 204). Ronneberger (1977), also of Germany, claims that "public communication processes make mutual control possible, and the discussion of different interests make mutual corrections possible. The overall aim is to achieve a social consensus of interests" (p. 13).

The Netherlands is another country where public consensus is favored and valued (Gallagher, Laver & Mair, 2001). Some authors feel that this propensity toward consensus-building among the Dutch has prevented polarization of the society, even during the turbulent l960s (VanRuler, 2003).

Thus, it seems that, for some societies, consensus-building is highly valued. In the case of societies moving from totalitarianism to more democratic forms of government, it may be that these types of societies experienced relative comfort with social consensus, and the pluralism of voices that come with free speech may be disconcerting and unfamiliar.

These effects contribute to the overarching sense of anxiety in the society as people go through a democratic transition and are absorbed in the daily struggles of life amidst poverty, unemployment, and unstable governments.

A Response by Public Relations: The Role of Public Relations in Nation Building

To take this study further, one could examine the unique contribution that public relations can make in such societies – such as fostering public trust, economic development and educating the citizenry.

Public relations also can act as a steward to the society by fostering public trust as the democracy consolidates.

> Public trust is defined as a social mechanism, the most important function of which is the reduction of social complexity…..public relations (can) play the role of trust mediators within this process (Bentele, 2003, pg. 293).

The public relations function in countries such as Bulgaria needs to rise to its calling and act as mediators, ambassadors, and trust builders between the society and its institutions so that civil society can be built and democracy is given a proper environment in which to flourish.

The public relations function can help directly to stimulate the economy and be an influence for a higher standard of living. Former Soviet bloc countries have the history of being effectively blocked from the attention of the rest of the world. They are not accustomed to having a presence on a world stage, nor are they accustomed to promoting themselves to get world attention. The public relations function can help bring attention to Bulgaria and other such countries by identifying and marketing key country strengths to stimulate the economy. One such potential in Bulgaria is tourism. The country has mountains, beaches, lush countryside, and places of cultural and historic interest. The public relations function could draw attention to these strengths and promote tourism. Increased tourism can contribute to the economy, and raise wages, especially for journalists who would not feel so pressured to engage in editorial corruption. Bulgaria is just now beginning to key in on the idea of developing tourism. The Bulgarian government has recently established a Tourism Commission and is actively engaged in developing tourism as part of an accession bid to the European Union (Nacheva, 2003).

Public relations also can facilitate education about citizenship. In new democracies, citizens often are afforded rights, but seem somewhat unaware of them and how to exercise constitutional rights. Public education can inform and empower citizens and also put organizations and institutions on notice that the citizenry are equipped. There are non-governmental agencies present in Bulgaria; however, the author was unable to identify any organizations engaged in educating about citizenship. If they exist, their profile is undetectable.

The public relations function also can also engage in media literacy education to help citizens process and understand this new stream of commercial messages coming at them.

Conclusion

Emerging democracies face unique challenges as their societies take new political and economic paths, which in turn, paves the way for increased communications and strategic public relations management. The journey toward democracy effects every aspect of life for a transitional nation like Bulgaria. When discussing communications and media, there are many things that Westerners can take for granted, like pluralism and free speech, professionalism, and ethics. Because of their history and lack of democratic tradition, Bulgarians have very different experiences with these concepts. Pluralism can be unsettling and confusing, free speech is riddled with injustice, professionalism is only developing and ethics is not of central concern except for pressures from the outside such as the European Union, NATO, and organizations like the Committee to Protect Journalists.

In Bulgaria, when we examine the relationship between media practices, public relations and the society, we find a media system that is in transition. It is technically free in name but not essentially in practice. It is filled with self-censorship and lack of professionalism. It has been reduced to tabloid journalism in order to deal with the new reality of market forces. One could say it has transitioned from one form of tyranny – authoritarianism, to another – corporatism. This makes it difficult for public relations people to relate to members of the media, to have a common understanding of how to work together, to have common terms, and to get their stories out. Bulgarian society is emerging from paternalism and passivism into this new commercial environment. People are having to learn how to think critically and how to process commercial messages. Public relations people need to be patient with their publics and engage in careful and thoughtful education.

The public relations function, when working well, can be invaluable to such societies. It can fulfill its function as a trust builder between groups, organizations, institutions and society. Public relations can help to

set a nation on the world stage and help it participate in economic development. And it can equip citizens in such countries through education and actively working with appropriate non-governmental organizations whose missions are to teach and equip citizens in asserting rights and with media literacy.

Much of the study about public relation is from a Western world view and is based on the assumption of a well-functioning democracy. Hence, much of the current, available theory regarding public relations proves somewhat irrelevant in contexts such as the newly-emerging democracies of Eastern Europe that have a history of totalitarian rule. Study into the nature and state of public relations in emerging democracies can help toward theory-building in the Eastern European context.

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Metrosexuals and Cyborgs:
Gauging the Social Narrative in 21st Century Public Relations

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Globalization, fluid gender roles, and human/machine interface have so blurred the traditional lines of leadership in social institutions that management power will continue to fragment and move to incorporate basic feminist principles, according to a study done at Worcester State College in New England.
Business and academic journals and publications increasingly reveal that collaborative, interactive leadership that includes participatory decision-making and quality interpersonal relationships between leaders and subordinates contributes to effective performance and that this is largely attributed to technology and changing social mores in our postmodern global business environment.

In the United States in particular, a review of literature in psychology, sociology, public relations, management, and business journals reveals that feminist principles, environmental concerns, "humane capitalism," and open communication systems are increasingly central to the bottom line. But while this management style is gender-related, it is emphatically not gender-specific (Matusak, p. 1). New information technologies and shifting social constructions are being used by everyone from conservative business leaders to small-town civic leaders, ecologists, labor leaders, grass roots agitators, and ordinary citizens to transform the face of business.

The field of public relations has followed a congruent evolution. According to a 2001 speech in Taiwan made by award-winning professor of PR at the University of Maryland, James Grunig, in the over 35 years of his scholarly activity, there have been are five trends occurring in the field:

1. PR has developed as a profession with a body of scholarly knowledge;
2. PR has become a management function;
3. PR practitioners tend to be strategic media counselors;
4. the majority of practitioners are female and are of varied racial and ethnic backgrounds; and finally,
5. PR practice is now global rather than confined to the borders of only one company.

Thus practitioners using the two-way symmetrical public relations model proposed by James Grunig (1989) are now at the forefront of communication among and between traditional organizations, smart communities, and cyberspace. According to Alta Carroll, Professor of Communication and Women's Studies at Worcester State College, activists, journalists and public relations practitioners–as actively engaged cultural actors in today's society–produce effective public relations programs that are also ethical and socially responsible by applying feminist principles to Grunig's model of 2-way symmetric organizational communication.

Research suggests that while there is no such thing as a definitive list of what these are, the feminist principles of accountability, advocacy, openness, consultation, collaboration, diversity, education, equality, inclusion, evaluation, and power sharing are congruent with the values of effective public relations and optimal business management.

The dialectic between public relations in a capitalist economic system, media technology in an individualistic democracy, and socio-cultural changes that are blurring the lines of gender roles and human/machine interface are supported by independent, but almost concurrent research by Geert Hofstede, Michael Bond and *Fons Trompenaars* on variables of cultural difference; Sue Curry Jansen, bell hooks, Lisa VeneKlasen, and Valerie Miller on gendered information and the feminist principles, practices, and processes used to build equitable organizations; Sally Carless, Larraine Matusak, Geoff Schneider, and Jean Shackelford on feminist leadership and economics; Anthony Giddens on identity development and the role of structuration in modern societies; and John Fiske on popular culture and audience reception theory.

The New *Global imperative* for Public Relations

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The concept of PR was practiced in Africa long before the era of colonialism.

The reality is the task of the Public Relation and that of a spokes man in the chief seat of power in traditional South African villages is the same. According to tradition, no African chief or elder state man spoke differently to visitor who called at the chief seat of power. This, incidentally, is still the case in some remote and traditional areas of South Africa.

All interaction and communication were channeled through a spokesman, a linguist or an interpreter. Sometimes this was one person individuals who were appointed to such offices were known to be well vest. In the customs and traditional practices of the village. Such individuals assumed eminent positions and were highly respected by the people.

The influence of multinational corporation activities on the lives of individuals and communities has been profound. Globalisation brought with it the opportunities and threats to the lifestyle of local communities changing the way they see themselves and the way in which business would be transacted forever.

This paper attempts to increase our understanding of the effects that globalization has had on developing countries and how this has influenced development. Which brings me to what I believe is the New Global Imperative for Public Relations. Because globalization has largely been a failure of communications, there are no people better suited in the world to tackle this problem than the people in the public relations profession. Moving from a mindset of relationship-building to "confidence-building," we alone have the experience and expertise to help unravel the tangled web of messages and misperceptions, dissolve confusion and mistrust, and build mutual confidence among groups so that globalization can reach its full potential.

Crisis Frames and Prior Reputation: Their Effects on Organizational Reputation

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Study Finds Evidence of Protective Power of Prior Reputation

It has been accepted wisdom for years in crisis management that a favorable reputation prior to a crisis helps to "protect" the organization during a crisis. While logical, there has been no solid empirical evidence to support this belief. The results of this experimental study provide one piece of support for the protective power of prior reputation. The study examined human-error and technical-error crises. Human-error crises generated stronger perceptions of crisis responsibility and are a greater reputational threat than a technical-error crisis. Research consistently finds that as attributions of crisis responsibility intensify so to does the threat to the organization's reputation.

The study compared respondents' attributions of crisis responsibility and evaluation of the organizational reputation. The study used the same exact accident but varied the cause of the accident (human-error or technical-error) and the organization (prior reputation was favorable or unfavorable). Disney was used as the favorable prior reputation due to its generally favorable reputation and high reputation scores on the pretest. A strong, favorable prior reputation lessened the reputational threat of a human-error crisis. Even though participants did attribute greater crisis responsibility to the human-error crisis condition than the technical-error condition; they rated the post-crisis reputation the same as the technical-error crisis. Prior reputation protected the organization from the reputational threat posed by the increased attributions of crisis responsibility. This is the first in a series of studies designed to test the protective powers of a favorable, prior reputation.

Beyond Promotion – Public Communication as Public Healing: The Role of Public Relations Concepts in the Work of the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission

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A lively debate among scholars continues on the viability of symmetry as a definition of actual or ideal public relations practice. Some have interpreted the widely discussed International Association of Business Communicators (IABC) Excellence study as suggesting two-way symmetric communication is *the* ideal (Grunig, 1992; Dozier, et al., 1995; Holtzhausen, et al.,2003). Others have questioned this interpretation.

Anti-symmetry arguments seem to focus on three points. First, symmetry – approximate equality of power and resources – among actors seldom exists, in fact, in the real world (McKie, 2001). Second, symmetrical communication may be unworkable and/or undesirable within cultures that emphasize hierarchy and have high power-distance (Sriramesh, et al., 1999; Sriramesh & Vercic, 2003; Taylor, 2000). And third, in any society, contending groups often have inherently competing interests creating win-lose situations that preclude shared interpretations (Deutsch, 1960).

Recent research on South African practitioners' opinions suggests they attach high importance to two-way communication, but without clear differentiation between *persuasion-oriented* (asymmetric in the Grunig typology) and *relationship-building* (symmetric) approaches. The mixed-motive model, combining these approaches, seems to be supported (Holtzhausen, et al., 2003).

While casting doubt on the proposition that symmetric communication is favored by many practitioners who de-emphasize asymmetric communication, or vice versa, these data do not seem to negate the importance of symmetry as a concept in PR practice.

While the concept of symmetry, with its connotations of power, dependency, and communication-skill-and reach-equality is debated in public relations theory and practice (Culbertson, 1991, p.49), the concept of two-way communication, that is, both parties communicating with each other, has been widely recognized as relevant to both public relations theory and practice (Grunig and Hunt, 1984, Chapter 2).

James Grunig and Todd Hunt, widely credited with introducing the concept of symmetry in 1984, have suggested that it represents a nearly universal communication idea. However, more recent work has led Grunig to emphasize a combination of symmetry and asymmetry (Grunig 1992) and dialogue, that is, symmetry as a process of communication rather than an outcome (Grunig, 2001).

The term "two-way communication" is a broader term and encompasses both symmetrical and asymmetrical communication. It does, at the same time, highlight the interactive nature of communication, the dialogue aspect, and does not seem to be as laden with the power connotations of symmetry. In this paper, the authors will utilize the term "two-way communication" as an operative concept understanding that it includes both symmetrical and asymmetrical two-way communication and focuses on the dialogic nature of communication.

The South African Situation

In fact, the South African government has worked hard and courageously to enhance symmetry in power and utilize two-way communication since the Apartheid regime gave way to President Nelson Mandela's government of national unity in 1994. South Africa's Commission on Truth and Reconciliation, founded in 1996, is at its very core a two-way communication process, in which victims and perpetrators were encouraged to engage in some dialogue on the crimes against human rights and persons in Apartheid South Africa from 1960 to 1994. The TRC was created to bring healing among factions emerging from a long and bloody conflict. South Africa is one of many nations striving to establish peace, security, and a viable civil order following the downfall of repressive regimes (Adam & Adam, 2001, pp. 32-33).

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission appears to be an innovative public relations tool – or public communication tool – an important beginning step in this very difficult process. The jury is still out on the Commission's success or failure at this time, and it surely will remain so for many years (Boraine, 2001, p. 75). However, lessons learned should have truly global implications.

The commission's chairman, Archbishop Desmond M. Tutu, has spelled out two major goals which relate closely to symmetry (Tutu, 1999). The current paper seeks to inform discussions on symmetry and two-way communication by reviewing these goals and efforts to achieve them.

First, the commissioners addressed extreme *asymmetries in power, voice,* and *resources* created under the Apartheid regime. White South Africans had considerable wealth and monopolized power, while Blacks and so-called "colored' (mixed-race) people were disenfranchised, lived in abject poverty, and often were forced to live in remote autonomous regions called homelands (Wilson, 2001).

Painful negotiations leading up to the new constitution and 1994 election that brought Mandela's African National Congress to power yielded equality in an overtly political sense – one person, one vote. However, whites in South Africa were left with the bulk of economic power and resources, a fact that hindered even political symmetry in practice (Bundy, 1, 2001, pp. 11-12). Some felt the TRC turned South Africa into a cave with black citizens holding the roof up and living in shacks while whites gained amnesty and kept right on playing rugby (Ndebele, 2001, pp. 144-145). Obviously, then, perceived symmetry has been very difficult to achieve.

Second, the commission gave primary emphasis to building relationships in accordance with the African notion of *ubuntu*. That concept holds that a person's humanity is bound up with the humanity of others. In this view, the victim and perpetrator of a violent crime both lose humanity and need to regain it through renewed *relationships based on facing the truth* (Tutu, 1999, pp. 28-31).

An ubuntu model for public relations has been found to be used in South African public relations by Holtzhausen, et al. (2003, p. 335). It is described as "having a high reliance on consensus and internal harmony and the built-in symmetry of African communication practices." (p. 335). Although these conclusions were drawn on a study of management and employees, they may have implications for all facets of society.

In this paper, we analyze the commission's policy and approach in light of two closely related formulations designed to help articulate implications of symmetry. The first is Bishop's list of 10 criteria for authentic communication (2003a, 2003b, 2003c). Second is an integrated set of ethical principles proposed by Culbertson, et al (2003).

The nation, divided throughout its history, had lacked a sense of shared meaning and values (de Gruchy, 2001, pp. 168-9) which Culbertson and Knott (2003) and Culbertson and Chen (1997) view as essential to community. In light of this, the government of national unity focused on *restorative justice* – healing and reconciliation – rather than *retributive justice* which seeks to punish guilty people so as to avenge their wrongs and prevent them from sinning again (Tutu, 1999, pp. 54-55).

A primary focus on retribution might have led the government to adopt the Nuremberg Trials model followed by the Allied powers in punishing Nazi war criminals after World War II. This approach was not viable for at least three reasons, according to Tutu. First, South Africans of all racial and ethnic groups would need to live together after the trials ended. They could not simply pack up and go home as the judges and jurors did after Nuremberg. Second, unlike in World War II, the South African conflict ended with a military stalemate and not with victors having the power to force a solution on losers. In such a situation, peace seems quite fragile. And third, convictions in a court of law often would have been very difficult to obtain. The Apartheid regime had proven its capability to lie and conceal. Furthermore, many, if not most, witnesses to the crimes committed had been killed (Adam & Adam, 2001; Tutu, 1999, pp. 19-24).

Another approach might have been a *blanket amnesty*, immunizing all South Africans from future prosecution or punishment for gross Apartheid-related human rights abuses. Leaders argued this would not have brought healing, as it ignored the need to communicate about and face the truth. Unless South Africans learned the truth and "looked the beast in the eye," according to Tutu, they would be destroyed by simmering hatreds, repressed guilt, and other by-products of trauma (Tutu, 1999, p. 28).

The commission chose a middle ground with two major elements. The first was to give *victims* of gross human-rights abuse (maiming, killing of loved ones, torture, kidnapping, and so on) dignity by giving them *voice* – a chance to testify in public about their hardships – and by offering *reparations*. The second was to grant amnesty for confessed *perpetrators* who would come before an amnesty committee – an autonomous body within the commission – to testify publicly about what they had done (Shea, 2000, pp. 12-18).

The Amnesty Committee considered amnesty applications. To qualify, an applicant had to:

1. Give a truthful, comprehensive account of what he or she had done, admitting unconditionally to the act or acts.
2. Demonstrate that the act or acts had been carried out to help achieve genuine goals of some politically related party, government, or movement during the Apartheid era, which was designated somewhat arbitrarily as running from 1960, when anti-Apartheid groups were banned formally, to the birth of the government of national unity in 1994. In an attempt to avoid judging the rightness or priority of certain political groups, amnesty was considered for a wide variety of activities ranging from propagandizing to sabotage, bombing, torture, and murder (Van de Vijver, 2001).
3. Convince the committee that the act or acts were not disproportionate to the goal sought. For example, one could not gain amnesty for killing a person walking across the street who seemingly posed no apparent threat to the perpetrator's safety or goals. Also, one could not kill 1,000 people in order to get one "bad guy" if she or he could have identified the bad guy and taken out only that person (Van de Vijver, 2001, p. 129).

One implication of criterion 1 above was a need to give *a concrete, detailed description* of what happened. This was not done in certain cases where a large number of leaders sought blanket amnesty as a gesture to symbolize their responsibility for excesses. For example, 37 leaders of Mandela's African National Congress, including future President Thabo Mbeki, applied for amnesty and, in so doing, took collective responsibility for ANC excesses. Few if any specifics were defined in the application (Shea, 2000, p. 28).

In doing this, the leaders apparently were telling rank-and-file ANC members that they, as leaders, took responsibility for what had been done in pursuing a just cause. Also, the intent may have been to encourage other leaders, such as former Presidents Peter Botha and F. W. de Klerc from the recently deposed Apartheid government, to follow suit.

At first, the Amnesty Committee granted amnesty in this case. Then, in the wake of court challenges, it reversed itself. The insistence on confession of concrete specifics so as to allow verifiability apparently carried the day in the end (Shea, 2000, p. 28)

This focus on specifics squares with an important point made in the literature on communitarian thought. Reconciliation and relationship building at the *macro* level – involving large groups taken as a whole – can succeed if based only full consideration of the *micro* level consisting of specific individuals and acts (Culbertson & Chen, 1997; Culbertson & Knott, 2003).

In a related area, commissioners recognized that society as a whole had suffered from Apartheid. Resulting poverty, fear, mental-health problems, economic sanctions, and destroyed relationships had harmed even those who were neither victims nor perpetrators of gross human-rights abuses. Because of this, some consideration was given to *community as well as individual reparations* (Shea, 2000, p. 60; Tutu, 1999, p. 63).

The commission sought to be *victim-friendly* in giving often poor, uneducated people voice. It provided supportive, trained counselors to help articulate and tell stories and to handle grief. It arranged for simultaneous translators so a person could gain a wide hearing while speaking in his or her particular dialect among at least 11 used quite widely in the nation. It allowed the victim to tell a story in her or his own words, answering many open-ended questions so they could frame answers in their own terms. It asked victims what repayment or reparations they wished for. And it took victims' statements largely at face value, seldom if ever allowing alleged perpetrators to cross-examine them as might have been done in a court of law (Shea, 2000, pp. 75-76; Tutu, 1999, p. 110).

Amnesty was offered as both a carrot and a stick to get at the truth. The *carrot* was a guarantee that, if amnesty was granted for a crime, the applicant would be immune from civil suits and criminal prosecution for that offense in the future. Predictably, this feature was not popular with some victims (Shea, 2000, p. 58), but it was adopted to aid the search for truth and reconciliation. The *stick* was the fact that, if amnesty were denied and statements proved false, prosecution could still be pursued. The confession itself would not be admissible in court during any ensuing trials. However, basic leads as to what evidence might be sought, how, and where, would make help pave the way for future prosecutions.

Amnesty hearings sought to get at the truth without many safeguards often associated with courts of law. To be sure, witnesses took an oath to tell the truth and could be tried for perjury if they were shown to have lied. However, calling of ancillary witnesses was somewhat limited, judging from the commission's transcripts. (See www.doj.gov.za/trc/decision.)

Principles of authentic communication

Procedures and judgments about overall truthfulness, especially in amnesty hearings, relied heavily on subjective judgments by the commission that the applicant had communicated in accordance with Bishop's (2003a, 2003b, 2003c) principles of authentic communication. Specifically, emphasis was placed on:

1. *Truthfulness* – adhering to what Culbertson, et al. (2003, pp. 16-20) call fact accuracy. As noted earlier, those testifying had to take an oath. They could be tried for perjury if found to have told blatant lies. Furthermore, the transcripts reveal frequent comments by committee members that a bit of testimony seemed false because it was implausible or unlikely.
2. *Fundamentality* – dealing with the core issues. The TRC's mission to "deal with the gross violations – killing, abduction, torture and severe ill treatment," (Tutu, 1999, p. 105) shows that the truth and accuracy sought was not peripheral, but rather the process dealt with the deepest core of pain and brutality. Indeed, Tutu (1999, p. 26) spoke of "looking the beast in the eyes."
3. *Comprehensiveness* – telling the whole story matches Culbertson, et al. (2003, pp. 16-20) in their discussion of impression accuracy. Verdicts often appear to hinge substantially on committee-member conclusions as to whether a witness was "spinning" by telling only part of their stories or by presenting arguments in a particular way. Pertinent here, also, was a request that witnesses provide as much context for their own experience as possible.

Full disclosure was a central concept set forth in the law governing the TRC (www.doj.gov.za./trc/legal/actg534.htm). It was considered crucial partly because many whites, in particular, were ignorant of the horrible atrocities which their government had perpetrated (Krog, 2000, p. 60). However, achievement in this area has

been questioned on several grounds. Many white South Africans refused to testify, while others seemed to do so in self-serving, limited ways. Some Black and Colored (mixed-race) people rejected the commission on the grounds that it placed them, as fighters in a just war, on an equal footing with their oppressors (Villa-Vicencio, 2001). Also, the proceeding focused only on the perspectives of a few thousand victims and confessing perpetrators of gross human-rights violations. Ignored were the suffering of some 3.5 million non-white people who were forced to move to poverty-stricken homelands, acts that were seen as legal under the nation's horrendous laws at the time they were committed, destroyed relationships, damage to the mental health of many, degraded education in the so-called Black Homelands, and other factors (Mamdani, 2001).

4. *Relevance* – taking into account the other's interests and making connections. The rules for testimony encouraged the victim and the perpetrator to speak directly to each other where possible. Tapes and transcripts (Moyers, 1999) show that the victims and perpetrators were encouraged to understand the other's pain and motivation. However, as noted in the preceding paragraph, many felt relevant by-products of Apartheid were largely ignored.
5. *Clarity of language* – A special effort was made to provide translators for those testifying in all 11 African languages. Simultaneous interpretation was provided so that each person could testify in his or her own language so that their testimony could be clearly understood by others. (Tutu, 1999, p. 109).
6. *Consistency* –Truthfulness was often judged to be lacking where the committee members identified what they regarded as inconsistencies in testimony.
7. *Accessibility* – The Commission proceedings were public (Tutu, 1999, p. 109) and well publicized with the help of various organizations. Thousands testified. Unusually strong attempts by the commission to publicize verdicts and proceedings, with the South African Broadcasting Corporation and other news outlets participating, made the TRC experience rather unique as to public accessibility to its workings. Other truth commissions in places such as Chile that had endured horrific human-rights abuses by their governments had often been closed to the public. (Krog, 2000, p. 38; Tutu, 1999, pp. 220-222; Valdez, 2001, p. 53). Such coverage was viewed as necessary in South Africa to reduce doubt that horrible atrocities had occurred.
8. *Responsiveness to feedback* –The entire premise of the commission was to allow response to the torture – and/or response to the motivation – to influence actions – those actions being amnesty or not, forgiveness or not, healing or not. The dialogic nature of the process – in which victim and perpetrator spoke directly to each other where possible – and were expected to respond to each other was important to the TRC process. On a formal level, during amnesty hearings victims who agreed to testify often were asked whether they opposed amnesty. It is unclear how much weight such opposition carried. However, Tutu (1999, p. 86) notes that, to a surprising degree, victims showed great magnanimity and a desire to forgive. Many simply wanted the truth about how their loved ones had died and who had killed them. Others asked for a decent burial that might afford true dignity to the deceased.
9. *Caring* – As noted earlier, the commission sought to be victim-friendly. It provided many kinds of assistance and comfort to those who testified. It also encouraged empathy – trying to understand – not only the actions, but also that "I'm sorry" is hard for people to say (Tutu, 1999, p. 269)

The last of the 10 Principles of Authentic Communication is "timeliness," which is an important component of success in communication (Bishop 2001, 2003a, 2003b.) Given that the atrocities the TRC dealt with occurred over 30 years, the TRC did not fulfill this important criterion very well.

It has been argued (Bishop 2003b) that the 10 Principles of Authentic Communication operationalize a two-way dialogical communication model. Because the TRC adhered well to nine of the ten, it appears that the TRC was built on two-way dialogical communication. This model of public relations communication is therefore shown as a model that encourages or is a component in a public healing process.

We now focus on *comprehensiveness* in more depth through and examination of depiction of *context*. Both victims and alleged perpetrators were asked to describe the contexts in which they lived at the time of the abuses in question (Shea, 2000, pp. 19-22).

Blacks often described graphically their fear that the police or Army might kidnap, imprison, or kill them – perhaps by pushing them out of a seventh-story window at a certain prison! Also discussed at great length was the intense emotion involved in "black-on-black" violence – particularly that linked to conflict between the African National Congress and the Inkhata Freedom Party headed by Zulu Chief Mangosuthu Buthelezi. This conflict involved some of the nation's most brutal atrocities such as necklacing – putting gasoline in a tire around someone's neck and setting the gasoline on fire!

Within the "black-power" movement, conflicts also became intense among the ANC, which sought to negotiate with the Apartheid regime, the Pan-Africanist Congress, which opposed such negotiation, and the PAC's guerrilla-fighting wing, the Azanian People's Liberation Army. Many pages of testimony focused on these matters *as perceived by witnesses*. Testimony established that, contrary to what the Apartheid government had tried to suggest, this "black-on-black" violence was not simply a result of Black barbarity. Rather, it resulted from White cruelty which led to bitter fighting among Blacks who disagreed on how to respond to it (Krog, 2000, p. 77). (For many examples of this, visit the commission's web site at www.doj.gov/trc.).

During the Apartheid era, many if not most gross human-rights abuses were committed by white people against blacks. Thus white people were numerous among amnesty applicants, and they also provided a great

deal of context that was treated at length in submissions by government officials. Among the items stressed were:

1. A sense of *white superiority* over other races. This had ancient, rather varied European roots and in captured in novelist Rudyard Kipling's oft-noted comments about the "great White Hope" (O'Meara, 1996). In Africa, Tutu (1999, p. 70) traces this view in part to the Battle of Blood River in 1838. In that battle, a group of Afrikaners – Dutch and German settlers and their descendants – were surrounded and outnumbered by Zulu soldiers and faced seemingly certain defeat. The Europeans prayed for deliverance by God reminiscent of the rescue of his chosen people from bondage in Egypt during Biblical times. The settlers "circled their wagons," forming a mobile force which avoided threatened envelopment and miraculously won the battle. Some saw this as religious affirmation of white superiority.
2. Support for Apartheid in the Dutch Reformed Church stemming in part from its interpretation of the Biblical story about the Tower of Babel (Botman, 2001). In that story, God supposedly called for different racial groups to live separately and autonomously. Tutu (1999, p. 184) says this analysis was discredited long ago by Bible scholars. However, such beliefs still retain followers in the conservative church even at the present time (Arendese, 2001).
3. Fear of Communism. Many South Africans associated the black-power movements with the threat of communism. And, as guerrilla warfare increased in the 1980's and early 1990's, the Apartheid regime increasingly labeled black-power advocates as Reds. White South Africans saw themselves as victims of a "total onslaught" which threatened to create universal chaos and destroy their country. Leaders stressed a need to fight fire with fire, even if it meant torturing foes and killing innocent people. This helped explain why, despite international condemnation of Apartheid, the United States and other western powers continued to support the South African regime as a foe of Communism (Tutu, 1999, p. 217).
4. Paranoia that naturally stems from being outnumbered in a foreign land by people seen as militant foes (Boynton, 1997, pp.12-13).

Another bit of context which played a part in amnesty hearings was whether an applicant committed the crime to which he confessed as *ordered by superiors* within the government or a political organization. Judges apparently did not regard such orders as essential for the success of an application. They recognized that, particularly in guerrilla warfare, a person often must act very quickly based on his or her own judgment. However, the committee rejected some requests where a low-level applicant acted on her or his own but apparently had ample time and opportunity to consult with superiors.

Such contextual ideas were emphasized not basically to excuse crimes, but to aid mutual understanding that might help pave the way for reconciliation (Sachs, 2001, pp. 97-98).

Evenhandedness – Does it create symmetry?

One element in the Commission's procedure created special problems in public acceptance even though, on the surface, it embodied symmetry. This was the *doctrine of evenhandedness.* Atrocities were viewed as equally heinous whether they were committed by the ANC and its military operatives, by the Inkhata Freedom Party, by the white Apartheid regime, or by others (Shea, 1999, pp. 74-75).

As noted earlier, paranoia and fear led some Afrikaneers to justify violence. However, the notion of evenhandedness bothered Black South Africans even more. They were fighting a war of liberation. How could they be placed on the same moral plane as their oppressors? Such arguments seemed inevitable, but the doctrine was pursued as necessary for reconciliation (Villa-Vicencio, 2001).

The basic ideas of evenhandedness and symmetry extended to selection of the roughly 17 commission members and hundreds of staffers. To insure all-important "public ownership" and acceptance of the proceedings, President Mandela and Parliament sought to choose commissioners from all points on the political spectrum. Also, there was concern that disproportionate granting – or refusal – of amnesty applications from one ethnic group might indicate commission bias (Krog, 2000, pp. 27-28; Shea, 1999, pp. 27-28).

The Inkhata Freedom Party, led by Buthelezi, basically refused to cooperate, though the commission induced some IFP followers to testify in order to qualify for possible reparations and amnesties.

Many critics have noted that evenhandedness was not implemented well. Some amnesty applicants were released from prisons or granted immunity from prosecution immediately while victims had to wait years for substantial reparations.

Some principles of public relations ethics

In conclusion, we look at the TRC proceedings in light of seven principles of public relations ethics presented by Culbertson, et al.(2003).

At least four of Bishop's (2003) principles of authentic communication overlap a great deal with the ethical concepts. As noted earlier, her notions of *truthfulness* and *comprehensiveness* essentially correspond with the Culbertson, et al (2003) ideas of *fact* and *impression accuracy*, respectively. Also, the concept of *openness*, including granting one's foes a right to have their say, is spelled out in both formulations.

Bishop's idea of caring captures much of the Culbertson, et al idea of *sensitivity*, though the latter concept goes beyond caring by focusing on certain role-taking skills. These include *role-taking depth* (assessing others'

reactions to the assessor's own behavior, etc.) and *breadth of perspective* (taking into account the views of varied people quite different from oneself) (Culbertson, 1989; Culbertson, 1991; Culbertson, et al., 2003).

The TRC emphasized sensitivity and care, saying responsibility requires that one look at things from the point of view of those with whom he or she interfaces. (Botman 1999, p. 131).

Sensitivity of commission members and political parties was put to the test when:

1. The president's controversial wife, Winnie Madikizela-Mandela, was accused of ordering or sanctioning the torture and killing of anti-ANC informants. Some questioned the commission's legitimacy in dealing with this (Tutu, 1999, pp. 134-137). Tutu tried very hard to provide a face-saving way for Ms. Mandela to admit limited blame for the killing of a 14-year-old boy suspected by some of her bodyguards of being an informant for the Apartheid regime. Slabbert (2001, p. 66) reports that, unfortunately, she reacted in a way which seemed to say, "Stompie was a traitor. He betrayed the struggle. It was a holy fight. Can't the meddlesome priest understand that?"
2. One Afrikaneer commissioner resigned because of disagreement with his colleagues (Tutu, 1999, pp. 74-77). And another commissioner was accused – without reliable evidence, it turned out – of involvement in a tavern bombing by the Azanian People's Liberation Army (Tutu, 1999, p. 203). Tutu later admitted to an error in not revealing the latter allegation when he first learned about it (p. 207).

Three ethical principles proposed by Culbertson and his colleagues deserve special mention here in relation to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission.

First, people who appreciate public relations concepts and principles should be part of an organization's *dominant coalition* which, with or without formally designated power, establishes an organization's overall policy and direction.

All observers seem to agree that Archbishop Desmond Tutu, the Commission chair, and President Nelson Mandela, the far-sighted leader who gave legitimacy to the commission and helped steer its creation, had impeccable moral character. Also, they were seen as astute observers of public opinion and leadership – of how to get things done politically without losing sight of their lofty ideals. This practicality contributed to compromises and taking the "long view" as needed to achieve openness and widespread legitimacy for the commission (Shea, 2000, p. 3). Other leaders such as Alex Boraine, deputy chairperson, also seemed sensitive to such public relations concerns as the need to avoid a perception of bias toward the white or non-white community (Shea, 2001, pp. 37-40).

Second, Culbertson, et al (2003, pp. 5-7) stress the need to *serve society as a whole* rather than a specific client or group which a practitioner represents. As noted earlier, this dictum undergirded the focus on *restorative rather than retributive justice.* Granting amnesty to confessed human-rights abusers deprived victims and their loved ones of a chance to see justice done in criminal courts – and to collect damages in civil proceedings. This was viewed as essential if people were to live with peace, security, a measure of prosperity, and needed cooperation among former foes in building a new society (Tutu, 1999, pp. 23-62; Shea, 1999, p. 78).

Third, Culbertson, et al. suggest the importance of *listening carefully* to varied clients and publics (2003, pp. 7-9). As stated earlier, the commission worked hard on listening. Advertisements encouraged human-rights victims to come forward and explain what had happened to them – and to state their wishes regarding possible amnesty for their abusers. Intense media coverage apparently led some to come forward, though it may have discouraged others from doing so. Victims were aided by supportive, friendly counselors, and by translators, in making their statements.

The amnesty proceedings gained input from many victims and perpetrators, though no one seems able to estimate how many were not heard from. Over 21,000 self-described victims came forward, and the commission defined about 80 per cent of them as genuine.

In the amnesty proceedings, some 7,000 people confessed and applied. The *carrot* offered – immunity from prosecution where amnesty was granted – may have had just modest appeal, as only about 13 percent of applicants received amnesty (www.doj.gov.za/trc/amntrans/index.htm, 2004). Surely many applicants felt correctly that their chances were slim (Krog, 2000, pp. 74-88). The *stick* – a threat of punishment where amnesty was denied – may have kept some from testifying. However, roughly 77 per cent of all applicants had already been convicted of their crimes (Krog, 2000, p. vii). Seemingly such folks might feel they had little to lose, and much go gain, from confessing.

Fourth, Culbertson, et al. stress the need for a balance between *utilitarian* and *deontological* perspectives – between *situational* analysis and following of rather *absolute* rules (2003, pp. 14-16).

As noted above, the commission and its founder made compromises deriving in part from the existence of a political and military deadlock in South Africa. Justice doubtless was sacrificed to achieve reconciliation, reflecting a somewhat utilitarian view.

However, one assumption accepted by Tutu and others as an absolute drew criticism from some quarters. *Revealing truth, it was believed, was a necessary if not almost sufficient, condition for reconciliation.* At least

one critic labeled this a sentimental theological assumption not necessarily tied to reality (Slabbert, 2001 p. 70). Another observer noted that Tutu's leadership gave Christianity a privileged place within the commission's thinking, perhaps reducing support for the TRC. After all, many Africans resented the inroads of western culture and Christian missionaries (Peterson, p. 123).

Despite such concerns, the commission survived and gained widespread acceptance, though the jury is still out on long-term impact (Shea, 1999, pp. 77-80).

In assessing what other nations might learn from the TRC, one point deserves emphasis. Despite its flaws and checkered past, white South Africa had a strong civil society built on a good educational system, a functioning judiciary, and a real if imperfect constitution when the commission began functioning (Boynton, 1997; O'Meara, 1996). Many nations recently released from cruel civil strife and dictatorship lack such resources (van Eck, 2001). Thus they may require some combination of outside help and internal education.

Conclusions and Discussion

The South Africa Truth and Reconciliation Commission – as an example of public communication – demonstrates several current public relations concepts – symmetry, two-way communication, the Principles of Authentic Communication, and the basic tenets of communitarian ethics.

As is said repeatedly about the practice of public relations, good communication alone is not enough, there must be good action (Slabbert, 2001, p. 70). Indeed, the TRC realized that its hearings were part of a larger process. According to observers, "The TRC drives us toward a dialogical process that is ongoing and multi-faceted. The commission does not and cannot bring closure" (deGruchy, 1999, p. 7). In studying the work of the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission, it seems clear that truth gained in part through symmetrical, two-way, authentic, and ethical communication – was only a step in the process of reconciliation – of public healing. But public relations can, as illustrated by the use of several public relations concepts, play an important role in civic dialogue and public healing.

One caveat. This paper focuses on policies underlying the TRC. Few clear conclusions are drawn about the level of success in carrying out these policies.

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Communitarianism: Part of a World View for Symmetry in Communication

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Building and maintaining positive relationships with stakeholders is a standard tenet of strategic public relations. While relationship indicators have been proposed by researchers, a new paper explores relationships through the global philosophical idea of communitarianism.

This idea supports notions of sharedness, cohesion and mutual accommodation, which are implied in symmetric communication. The authors identify nine tenets that fall within three categories: core concepts of community, community-enabling beliefs, and empowerment beliefs.

Once tested and refined, these tenets and categories ultimately could help identify global stakeholders' perceptions of empowerment and, therefore, help public relations practitioners better assess psychographic profiles and resultant communication strategies.

Communitarianism: Part of a World View for Symmetry in Communication?

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In recent years, scholars have debated extensively the claim that good public relations requires use of the two-way symmetric model in combination with the two-way asymmetric model.

In practicing symmetric communication, practitioners seek to build and maintain long-term relationships between their clients or employers and publics. Symmetry requires a focus on meeting publics' needs. Clients often must change opinions and behavior in this process. They must listen carefully and thoughtfully to publics which they view as partners and not simply as objects of persuasion (J. E. Grunig and Hunt, 1984, chapter 2).

James E. Grunig and his colleagues in the much-discussed "Excellence Study," sponsored by the International Association of Business Communicators, have presented theoretical (J. E. Grunig, 1992) and empirical (Dozier, et al., 1995) evidence that two-way communication and symmetry often contribute to client success. L'Etang and Pieczka (1996), among others, have questioned the widespread validity of that claim.

James E. Grunig and Jon White (1992) have argued that such practice hinges largely on "worldviews" about how to define and deal with the world. One related schema ascribes an "idealistic" social role to practitioners. This view defines public relations as serving the public interest, aiding informed debate, and facilitating dialogue between client and public (p. 53). Also, James E. Grunig (2000) has focused on "collectivism, collaboration and societal corporatism" as core professional values in public relations.

In a related vein, Kruckeberg and Starck (1988, pp. 17-21) have urged practitioners and educators to nurture a sense of community and dialogue. Also, Laurie J. Wilson (1996, pp. 67-80) has emphasized creation of "strategic cooperative communities" as a means of enhancing organizations' relationships with publics, especially in a world of global interdependence.

Given the salience of symmetry in current public relations scholarship, it seems important to define concepts that may inform the debate. The current paper seeks to clarify beliefs associated with the widely discussed school of thought called communitarianism. These beliefs seem to support the notions of sharedness, cohesion, and mutual accommodation implied in symmetric communication. Yet, to the authors' knowledge, public relations scholars have mentioned communitarianism only in passing.

Defined as a social movement by organizational scholar Amitai Etzioni (1993a, pp. 1-20), communitarianism has gained considerable attention from sociologists such as Bellah et al. (1992); linguists such as Tannen (1998); philosophers Rorty (1998), Tam (1998), Walzer (1997), Sleeper (1997), Habermas (1989), and Bok (1995); journalist Dash (1996), and many others. Although some scholars may argue that communitarian is simply a code word for neo-conservatism, whereby the status quo is reinforced, genuine communitarians care about empowering others.

This paper defines nine apparent premises of communitarian thought, based on a literature review. These beliefs are presented in three clusters – core concepts of community, community-enabling beliefs, and empowerment beliefs. The authors then propose ways in which some of these beliefs appear to support others, based on available literature. It is hoped that:

1. Professors and students will enrich discussions of symmetry by considering communitarian beliefs.
2. Researchers can discern whether acceptance of these beliefs may, in fact, serve as a foundation for practitioner adherence to the notion of symmetry.

The current article builds on an earlier paper that outlined six of the tenets in a preliminary way, focusing quite strongly on realms such as extreme poverty and combat in which people develop strong bonds – often in the absence of true community (Culbertson & Chen, 1997). Here we propose relationships among all nine tenets and ground them fully in the literature on community. Table 1 reviews the nine tenets and the three clusters, which are discussed below.

Core Concepts of Community

Arnett and Arneson (1999, pp. 20-27) note the importance of "keeping conversations going" between groups separated by national, ethnic, gender, racial, ideological, and other divisions in an increasingly fragmented, conflict-ridden world. Without such conversations, problems ranging from starvation to the threat of nuclear war can hardly be solved, the authors and others suggest (Bok, 1995, pp. 1-7, 102).

In postmodern society, such problems have become more widespread partly because of:

1. *Pluralism.* People of different ethnic, religious and national groups have become highly interdependent. This, in turn, dictates that they at least tolerate and understand each other to a degree in order to protect themselves and meet their own needs.
2. *Meta-narrative decline.* Those within racial or ethnic groups no longer agree on what symbols are worthy of respect, what causes justify commitment, or what actions are right and important. A meta-narrative is "an implicitly and uniformly agreed-upon public virtue structure that functions as a universal standard" (Arnett and Arneson, 1999, p. 7).
3. *Routine cynicism.* This way of thinking doubts or condemns people, ideas, and actions more or less across the board and automatically – with little or no evaluation of strong and weak points. A basic loss of trust in the possibility of progress may be encouraged (Arnett and Arneson, 1999, p. 13). As a result, we lose the ability to distinguish genuine problems from manufactured ones, genuine friends from disingenuous ones, and so on (p. 17).

"Keeping conversations going" seemingly involves commitment to *relationship quality* at the person-to-person level, *social cohesion* at the level of voluntary groups and institutions, and concern for the *overall well-being* of one's organizations, neighborhood, and society – and even the whole world. Thus tenets 1 through 3 define community on a continuum from micro (1) through meso (2) to macro (3).

Tenet 1 calls for commitment to *quality of relationships*. People must seek mutual understanding and respect in one-on-one association.

Arnett and Arneson refer to relational quality as *dialogic civility*, which they view as a minimal common ground for true conversation (Arnett and Arneson, 1999, pp. 10-23). Etzioni (1983, pp. 56-93) supports this view. To these authors, such civility involves, at a minimum:

1. *Respecting each other as human beings.* Only with such respect will people listen carefully and thoughtfully so each will understand the other's point of view.
2. *Feeling some humility.* A major by-product of enlightenment thinking has been that no one has a monopoly on right – on wisdom. I may feel my ideas make more sense than yours. But surely I am not all right, and you are not all wrong. We can learn from each other (Arnett and Arneson, 1999, p. 23).
3. *Listening carefully with an open mind.* At this point in history, we may need to downplay the impulse toward listening to and valuing self just a bit less than we now do so, as interactants, we can focus on what we have in common – on the "we" of dialogue (Arnett and Arneson, 1999, p. 55).

In a related, widely discussed analysis of relational quality, Robert D. Putnam (2000, p. 291) sees a decline in *social capital* within the United States. Putnam reports an index of social capital which reflects participation in organizational and public life, volunteering, informal sociability (including such things as visiting friends), and basic social trust.

The author distinguishes between two types of interaction. *Maching* is formal participation in government and voluntary associations, while *schmoozing* is informal, unstructured, frequent, candid interaction among friends. Both types play different but important roles in society, Putnam (2000, p. 94) claims.

Robert Wuthnow (1998, pp. 9-30) agrees with Putnam that close, intimate contact seems to be on the decline in many areas of society. Membership and participation in traditional Christian churches, established service clubs such as Kiwanis, and other groups with broad goals and long-term, active memberships appear to be declining.

However, Wuthnow (1998) contends that looser connections comparable to those established in what Putnam calls maching are on the rise in many areas. Such connections often are fostered in groups designed more or less on the spur of the moment to meet particular needs ranging from saving a sick child's life and protecting battered women to building a community park (pp. 157-178).

Goal-oriented groups often have professional leadership adept at mobilizing actions – often drawing on the declining but still considerable human and material resources of older, more traditional groups. For example, a shelter for battered women and children gains volunteer help and leadership from established churches and service clubs (Wuthnow, 1998, pp. 31-57).

Groups of this sort are unstable and porous, according to Wuthnow (1998, pp. 58-82). Members seem to have low commitment, often volunteering for just an hour or two each week. They move in and out of the groups frequently. Yet they learn practical skills in raising money, recruiting volunteers, mediating conflicts, etc. And they gain a feeling of involvement and efficacy that often serves them well as they join new groups to tackle new tasks.

All of this helps build trust in a community (Wuthnow, 1998, pp. 178-202). And Bok (1979, p. 134) notes the importance of trust in human affairs. Surely a man and wife can hardly have a happy marriage when they feel they must spy on each other constantly.

Putnam (2000, p. 136) says quality of interaction contributes to trust. He believes strong, frequent interaction generates what he calls *thick trust* – feeling you need not check up on a person, that you should give her or him the benefit of the doubt, and that you can confide in her or him.

Also important, according to Putnam (2000, pp. 136-137), is *thin trust* based largely on community norms. Each day, we must deal with customers, police, and countless other strangers. Only if we trust them at a basic

level can we avoid devoting excessive money and effort to surveillance. And such faith is made possible by a belief that most or all people accept and adhere to basic norms. Thin trust appears to correlate negatively with dysfunctional behavior such as cheating on tax, employment, and bank-loan forms (p. 137). Unfortunately, Putnam argues, such trust seems to have been declining (p. 142).

Putnam (2000) discusses a great deal of data which, in his view, links social capital empirically to such desired goals as reduced crime (pp. 307-318), improved school performance (pp. pp. 296-306), prosperity (pp. 319-325), good health (pp. 326-335), and democratic government (pp. 336-340). Davison and Cotter (1993, 1997) have presented evidence supporting this claim, using a scale designed to measure one's sense of community.

Another communitarian notion is that, sometimes, *one must respect a person who does not respect her or him*. Lawrence-Lightfoot (1999, p. 208) observes that leaders and care givers need to attend respectfully to those who do not pay attention in return. And Carter (1998, p. 29) states that the Biblical injunction to love one's neighbors does not direct us to love only the nice ones.

Schorr (1997, p. 35) notes that social workers, teachers, and people who seek social change in communities must *care, at a personal level*, about the people in those communities. Otherwise, such workers will eventually lose credibility with their clients.

Palmer (1993, p. 54) believes that, in establishing good relationships, one must *open up* and allow him or herself to be known by others. And Schorr (1997, p. 48) adds that, if this is to happen, people in varied settings must have a chance to meet and talk with each other in a cordial, relaxed atmosphere.

Schudson (1998, pp. 11-47) asserts that *deference* to others helped hold the young United States together in the early stages of its existence 200+ years ago. However, little deference was shown in those days to women, African-Americans, and common laborers. Eventually, U.S. citizens came to emphasize that such deference needs to be *mutual* – with big shots feeling respect for and honoring obligations to ordinary folk (pp. 240-314).

In sum, dialogic civility, trust, social capital, and deference all help describe one-on-one relations from a communitarian perspective.

Tenet 2 emphasizes a feeling of *interconnectedness and social cohesion* within a community intermediate in size between a two-person group and an entire society. This implies a sense of shared purpose.

Lipset (1970, p. 333) observed that, in a nation-state, the individual citizen feels – and often is – powerless when standing alone and wishing to challenge or help change the nation as a whole. The Chicago School of Sociology (Park, 1955, pp. 221-226), along with noted French observer Alexis de Tocqueville (1969), emphasized the importance of people working together in small voluntary groups to achieve common purposes. Such groups are regarded as necessary to avoid excessive individualism at one extreme and subjugation by totalitarian rulers at the other.

Wuthnow (1998) and Putnam (2000) have emphasized that loyalties and commitments at the meso level relate closely to quality of interaction at the micro level. Working together for many years in a church or service club leads people to become well acquainted – to gain thick trust for each other (Putnam, 2000, p. 136). Yet more short-lived, narrowly focused cooperation within an ad hoc committee can help foster what Wuthnow calls loose ties (Wuthnow, 1998, pp. 31-57). And these, coupled with a generalized norm of reciprocity, can contribute to mutual understanding and thin trust (Putnam, 2000, pp. 134-135).

Davidson and Cotter (1993, 1997) have studied "psychological sense of community" within a block, neighborhood, or city. Questions used to measure such a sense focused on how close people feel to the geographical unit specified, how proud they are to live there, how anxious they are to remain there, and related beliefs (1997). These authors have shown that sense of community correlates with beliefs contributing to intent to vote for public school taxes (1993) as well as with interest in and reading of a local newspaper (1997). Such beliefs relate to community involvement at a meso level.

Schudson (1998, pp. 94-116) asserts that, somewhere around 1800, political parties and voluntary associations took center stage in U.S. political development. Initially seen as disruptive by national leaders, parties provided people with a sense of belonging and shared purpose. Such sharedness suggests a need to focus on personal responsibility to others, so as to guarantee their rights as stated under tenet 5 below.

Also, Schudson (1998, pp. 310-311) focuses on emphasizing inclusivity by interest groups, extending rights and sharedness to varied kinds of people, in the "rights movement" of the late twentieth century. He calls on citizens to monitor their environment, looking for problems and opportunities relating to social justice and shared purposes.

Tenet 3, at a macro level, asserts an obligation to work and hope for well-being of one's total society, or even of the world *community as a whole*, and not just a narrow segment of that society or community.

Discussions of this idea often begin with an obvious fact. Modern weapons threaten all of humankind. Thus all people have a shared interest in avoiding Armaggedon. As the U.S. Catholic Bishops (1983, p. 39) stated, "If war of retribution ever was justifiable, the risks of modern war negate such a claim today."

In addition, this tenet has gained attention in relation to two contemporary issues.

First, Schorr (1997, pp. xx-xxi) and Rorty (1998, p. 50) link it to *gaps between the rich and the poor, the haves and the have-nots*, throughout the world. Both authors contend that disastrous wars and famine may engulf all societies if such gaps continue to increase as they have done in recent decades. And both recognize that a "have" may pay little attention to "have-nots" unless she or he gives substantial priority to the welfare of all.

Second, Etzioni (1991, pp. 198-217) bemoans the development of *interest groups which seek to serve only small, narrowly defined clienteles* such as bankers and rhubarb growers. Also dangerous are such groups as Earth First, which although striving to save the environment, have also been accused of sabotage to do so, placing at risk the lives of lumberjacks, for example, by driving long nails into trees slated for timber. Etzioni calls for strengthening of broad-gauged, society-wide groups.

On the other hand, Putnam (2000, p. 51) worries that members of an interest group such as the AARP (formerly known as the American Association of Retired Persons) develop little commitment and almost no sense of shared purpose, even relating to their limited population segments such as older people. Many pay membership fees and receive association magazines as well as motel discounts but have little other contact with the organization. This presumably leaves members with only a vague notion that they are supporting the elderly as a whole, including themselves, through AARP.

Schudson praises the inclusivity of rights movements conducted largely under the auspices of particular ethnic and religious groups operating at the meso level as noted earlier. However, authors such as Bok (1995, pp. 2-7) and Sleeper (1997, pp. 20-21) note that such movements must also show basic concern at the macro level if the world is to avoid such catastrophes as mass migration and war.

We now turn to three basic beliefs which seem to pave the way for the kinds of community just discussed.

Community-Enabling Beliefs

Tenet 4 holds that community requires commitment to certain *core values and beliefs*.

Bok (1995, pp. 70) concedes that it is hard to decide what qualify as essential core values and beliefs for any collectivity in a pluralistic postmodern society. The very notion of such values strikes some as ethnocentric and exclusivist.

However, communitarians appear to agree that certain minimal core values are needed to keep conversations going. Wright Edelman (1999, p. 154) asserts that people need such values to survive during times of transition that involve rapid, often unpredictable change.

Bok (1995, p. 70) and Tam (1998, pp. 13-17) have sought to define minimalist values that appear to have stood the test of time across varied and changing cultures. Bok (1995, p. 70) has added the additional criterion that such values appear to play an essential role in human societies. We now turn to each of these sets of core values governing one-on-one interaction.

Bok points to three categories of values:

1. *Positive duties regarding mutual support, loyalty, and reciprocity.* For example, parents seek to care for their children, while many religious/ethical traditions call upon children to honor and obey their parents (Bok, 1995, pp. 13-14). The Golden Rule, embodying this notion, seems basic to even the most rudimentary form of morality – putting oneself in the place of those affected by one's actions (pp. 14-15).
2. *Negative injunctions against deceit and violence.* Bok (1995, p. 15) asserts that all communities, no matter how hostile toward outsiders, have to impose at least some internal curbs on violence, deceit, and betrayal. This seems essential to survival and allegedly holds regardless of type of governance (p. 55).
3. *Norms for fairness and procedural justice relating to positive and negative injunctions.* Ruled out here is bearing of false witness. On the positive side, these rules require recognizing different points of view, weighing arguments, and striving for some impartiality (Bok, 1995, pp. 16, 53).

Bok (1995, p. 16) notes that, as minimalist values, these hold widely despite disagreement as to the foundation for them (reason, a deity, natural law, and so on). Also, she says the values are not absolute in the sense that they allow for no exceptions (p. 19). Still, she regards them as crucial to keep conversations going.

Tam (1998, pp. 14-15) focuses on four common values. These are:

1. *Love* – Caring for others, passion, tenderness, friendship, sympathy, kindness, compassion, and devotion.
2. *Wisdom* – Clarity of thought, ability to think for oneself, and making of good judgments. (Goodness apparently is to be ascertained through a process of cooperative inquiry among actual or predicted relevant persons.)
3. *Justice* – Mutually fair treatment of and by others, without discrimination or subjugation.

4. *Fulfillment* – People having the ability and opportunity to realize their potential, to feel satisfied with themselves, and to take pride in their actions and achievements.

These sets of values overlap and inter-relate. Tam's concept of *love* seems to encompass Bok's positive duties of support, loyalty, and reciprocity – as well as her negative obligations to avoid violence, deceit, and betrayal. Also, Tam's notion of *justice* relates closely to Bok's ideas of avoiding false witness and striving for impartiality.

Further, Tam's concept of *justice* embodies the Golden Rule, a positive ideal for Bok. And Tam's *wisdom* surely relates closely to fairness and justice as viewed by Bok.

Tam's value of *fulfillment*, while seemingly given short shrift by Bok, receives attention from Arnett and Arneson (1999, pp. 87-122). These authors link fulfillment to self-oriented psychologists such as Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow. And, while viewing fulfillment as a genuine need, Arnett and Arneson de-emphasize it somewhat at the current historical moment when they see a strong need to focus on inter-personal dialogue – a la Buber (1958, pp. 3-34), Bellah et al. (1992, pp. 254-286), and others – in light of meta-narrative decline and rapid change (Arnett and Arneson, 1999, pp. 293-295).

The need for shared values specific to a given nation or meso-level group also has received considerable attention in the literature.

Rorty (1998, p. 48) asserts that, to thrive, a nation must have a dominant, constructive national purpose. Sleeper (1997, pp. 96-117) notes that people of a given racial or ethnic group must discover their own values and identities if they are to achieve tolerance for, and useful collaboration with, other groups. These authors imply that folks need to know who they are before they can relate to others in productive, fulfilling ways.

In the practical realm of public policy, Schorr (1997, pp. 8, 55) has stated that government and private-sector programs require a clear mission – a vision of what outcomes they regard as central. And agreement about mission suggests a need for some consensus on underlying values. Also, management scholars have focused a great deal on the need for clearly articulated organizational cultures which entail core values (Peters and Austin, 1985, pp. 203-212).

In a study of cooperative communities, Cheney (2001, p. 152) notes that "community building works best when it is built on a solid foundation of culturally held values, especially some values that privilege commitment to the collective along with the sacredness of individual rights."

Wuthnow (1998, p.154) notes the importance of people within a community sharing a "moral order" – a pattern of assumptions about how to behave. He contends that this has become more difficult to achieve in the face of urbanization, enhanced personal mobility, and rapid change of thought and ideas.

Hofstede (2001) has studied cultural beliefs that tend to be shared by people within a particular nation – but not by different nations. His dimensions include:

> *Power-distance* – the extent to which people in a given nation accept the proposition that power and influence are – and should be – distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2001, pp. 97-98).
> *Masculinity-femininity* – the extent to which gender roles are viewed as distinct. Males tend in masculine societies to emphasize assertiveness, toughness, competitiveness, and material success. Females show modesty, tenderness, and concern for quality of life. In feminine societies, such roles overlap (Hofstede, 2001, p. 297).
> *Individualism-collectivism* – the degree to which value is placed on the family, nation, and other groups as opposed to the individual. In an individualistic society, everyone is expected to look after her or himself and her or his immediate family. In a collectivist land, people are integrated into strong, cohesive groups that look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 2001, p. 225).

Herbert J. Gans (1980, pp. 182-213) identifies individualism as one of several "enduring values" that help shape U.S. thinking on a variety of topics. Among the results is celebration of self-made men and women.

Another such value, according to Gans (1980, pp. 48-50), is *small-town pastoralism*. Idealizing of small-town and rural life has had much impact on American thinking. For example, near worship of small towns, small firms, and family farms, coupled with growing economic globalization, has contributed to a fairly widespread suspicion of conglomerates and large government bureaucracies. Also, it may have contributed to a negative view of the computer as a non-local force apt to reduce people's control over their own lives (Culbertson, et al., 1993, p. 54). However, the Internet also has made possible telecommuting and opened worldwide markets for rural businesses, making it economically possible for people to live in remote areas.

Surely *these pastoral* values serve as rallying points, providing shared frames of reference that enhance communication needed for community. Of course, these notions may also divide people who see them as threatening. And core values may reduce discussion to the extent that they are taken for granted and seen as not requiring justification.

Space precludes presentation of a definitive list of core values. Still, the need for them is clear. And scholars such as Tam, Bok, Hofstede, and Gans provide a foundation for such a list.

Positive core values, as defined above by Bok, suggest the next proposition.

Tenet 5 requires that people living in a community *balance rights with responsibilities*.

Several scholars have bemoaned what they regard as excessive emphasis by U.S. citizens on self-fulfillment – and on claiming rights so as to enhance their own personal well-being. Too often, it's alleged, people advance such claims without assuming concomitant responsibility to help others – or society as a whole (Etzioni, 1993, pp. 9-11; Yankelovich, 1981, pp. 3-46).

Arnett and Arneson (1999, pp. 87-122) believe such emphasis on rights to self-fulfillment and autonomy may have been appropriate 40 to 60 years ago. At that time, meta-narratives that provided common ground for society still seemed alive and well. Thus, understandably, freedom to explore one's personal potential was paramount for people like Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, who wrote at that time.

Today, Arnett and Arneson (1999, p. 66) contend, the focus on self, promoted by the therapeutic culture often associated with Rogers and Maslow, seems out of place. Such a culture often is guided by *emotivism* – by how one feels – not by a narrative that permits divergent opinions and encourages discussion. And emotivism, if over-emphasized, can harm community because it inhibits open-minded, rational discussion.

Conservatives often allege that Affirmative Action seeks to insure rights to good jobs with little emphasis on workers' responsibility to help themselves. However, William J. Wilson (1999, p. 110) responds that effective programs stress job training, education, and recruitment. These efforts are designed to help people meet responsibilities, not avoid them.

Schorr (1998, p. 54) extends this argument by asserting that all community programs work only if local residents invest time and money in them. Such investment helps create a sense of personal responsibility without which community support is likely to decline.

Schudson's (1998, pp. 287-292) discussion of "rights talk" in the contemporary United States emphasizes a need for inclusiveness. This, in turn, implies responsibility. Surely a citizen who believes deeply that others have rights must assume some responsibility to insure respect for those rights.

Finally, Bok's positive duties and Tam's principles of love and justice, described earlier, clearly imply an obligation to respect and enhance the rights and well-being of others. If one is to respect others, she or he seemingly must understand their views. This leads to tenet 6.

Tenet 6 asserts that community requires *breadth of perspective* – putting oneself in the shoes of people quite different from oneself to understand their lives from their perspectives.

Culbertson (1989, 1991) has summarized evidence that truly creative scholars tend to be conversant with diverse theoretical realms. Also, he has argued that breadth of perspective contributes to valued outcomes such as tolerance, sensitivity in dealing with others, and truly helpful, detached self-criticism.

Also, Wuthnow (1998, p. 164) has emphasized that, in a world of increasingly loose connections, people need to foster civic skills that allow them to "cultivate trust among strangers and ... turn self-interested skills into tasks beneficial to the community."

This squares with Habermas's demanding conception of social solidarity as seen by Glasser and Ettema (2000). According to these authors, Habermas called for bonds based on reciprocity and mutual understanding. In contrast, Rorty was said to focus simply on tolerance for others and their values – without necessarily understanding such values so as to apply them as the "others" would.

Habermas (1989, pp. 118-138) clearly recognized the importance of level communicative playing fields if one is to attain solidarity with diverse others. If one is to hear others, those others must have a right to speak (Jacobsen, 1998). Because different perspectives enrich group process, every member's views are important (Aschcraft, 2001, p. 91). True community is a social accomplishment that involves shared meaning among people "in different positions, with different backgrounds, different interests, different resources, and facing different contingencies" (Rothenbuhler, 2001, p. 165). The elements called for by Habermas to insure such processes include:

1. A genuine, sincere desire by all to share meaning and gain mutual understanding, not simply to manipulate each other.
2. Respect for *emotional, traditional* elements in people's thinking, with avoidance of modern tendencies to lose sight of them in the face of *administrative-technical* considerations.
3. Avoidance or elimination of *power and resource differentials* that might effectively silence important groups.
4. Enhancement of people's *competency* to take part in discourse that bears on their own lives and futures.
5. Efforts to insure that all people be allowed to question any assertion and *not be coerced or intimidated* into not doing so (Arens, 1997; Habermas, 1989, pp. 118-138; Jacobsen, 1998).

In the contemporary western world, Putnam (2000, p. 52) worries that many members have only symbolic, impersonal contact with large organizations such as the AARP. Although such organizations can hold powerful political sway, as noted earlier, contact among individual members involves little shared meaning or sense of common purpose.

And with today's declining audiences for traditional mass media and its concomitant plethora of niche media options – including customized daily news delivered via e-mail and alternative Web-based news sites – the potential to live in "gated media communities" (Knott, 2001) is great. As one might suspect, such voluntary information segregation could have serious repercussions. A Canadian study (Mendelsohn and Nadeau, 1996) found that people who exposed themselves to more specialized, narrowly focused media were less tolerant of other views than those who were exposed to more general media.

Therefore, breadth of perspective seems essential for inclusivity in defining and seeking rights and responsibility, a major element in Schudson's analysis of contemporary U.S. political development. One seems unlikely to think much about rights of others unless he or she can view life from their perspectives.

People also seem unlikely to make the substantial effort required in understanding core values, balancing rights with responsibilities, and achieving breadth of perspective unless they feel the effort will make a difference. That, in turn, suggests the importance of the third belief cluster.

Empowerment Beliefs

Tenet 7 says community requires that citizens have a *feeling of empowerment* – of involvement and hope in making and implementing decisions that truly affect them.

Underlying this is a basic notion. *People who work together toward a common goal can achieve a great deal if they proceed with hope and confidence.*

Schorr (1997, pp. 34, 127) affirms this in discussing community-action projects. Etzioni (1991, pp. 36-39) and Sleeper (1997, p. 39) apply it to poor, oppressed people. And military historian Stephen Ambrose (1997, pp. 66-67, 168) asserts that generals often are great largely because they take decisive, bold action, leading their troops to charge with a sense of self-worth and resolve.

The Chicago School of Sociology has emphasized voluntary associations in the United States partly because they facilitate working together to solve social problems (Kruckeberg and Starck, 1988, pp. 27-30). On the other hand, Lipset (1970, p. 333) has contended that, absent such associations, individual citizens of a large, complex society often are – and feel – powerless. No doubt contributing to this sense of powerlessness is the skepticism surrounding such professions as lawyers, politicians, and news reporters – professions upon which the public relies for civic justice, welfare, and information.

Susan Moeller (1999) examined the relationship between public apathy, or what she calls "compassion fatigue," and international news coverage. She writes, "At times it seems as if the media careen from one trauma to another, in a breathless tour of poverty, disease and death. The troubles blur. Crises become one crisis" (p. 1). Capella and Jamieson (1997) found public distrust of political institutions was also related to the way in which news media present information about these processes, with their focus on conflict, competition, motivation, and self-interest. Such foci reinforce cynicism toward the notion of public good – instead alluding to personal gain –and likely exacerbate feelings of helplessness concerning large societal issues.

The notion of empowerment shows up in varied writings from Habermas (1989, pp. 118-138) to Tam (1998, pp. 16-17), Wuthnow (1998, p. 148), and Schudson (1998, pp. 240-314). In public relations scholarship, Larissa Grunig (1992) has regarded empowerment of various internal and external publics as essential in true symmetric practice.

Surely one of the most influential authors on empowerment has been the late Latin American development scholar Paulo Freire (1997, pp. 25-51). An educator, Freire (1997, pp. 52-67) sought to enhance hope by departing from the traditional classroom situation in which a teacher basically doles out pre-selected and already verified knowledge to students. In a Freire-type classroom, students question constantly and dialogue with the instructor in determining what is studied as well as in assessing the validity and appropriateness of what is done and learned. Through such dialogue, students at least begin to learn they can take control of their lives and set their own personal, political, and academic agendas.

Shepherd (2001, p. 33) adds that people generally cannot communicate successfully unless and until they believe in the possibility of doing so. And Wuthnow (1998, p. 165) emphasizes that such skills as "leading a meeting, phoning strangers, and knocking on doors to raise money" can empower people. Activity within one organization can help develop such skills, which can then be used as well in other settings.

In gaining power and hope, people need to set goals and plan ways of achieving them. Also, they need to recognize how social structure can inhibit and enhance achievement. This leads to the final two tenets.

Tenet 8 states that, in a community, *planned outcomes and programs* often are more important than rules in serving people.

As any public relations professional knows, goals and objectives are essential in evaluation. Without objectives, one has little basis for deciding what to evaluate – and whether success has been achieved. And such evaluation is needed to make mid-course corrections today as well as to plan actions for tomorrow.

In public policy, Schorr (1997, p. 122) argues that, when planning a community project or program, people must agree early on a set of goals or outcomes viewed more or less consensually as important, achievable, and measurable. Without clear goals, "process creep" may develop. Here people fixate on process creation and implementation, losing sight of what justifies processes in the first place (pp. 125-126).

Schorr (1997, p. 76) also contends that bureaucratic rules often reduce government and business responsiveness to people's needs and wishes. As she puts it, programs to serve people cannot be mass-produced like McDonald's hamburgers according to set, uniform procedures because each individual or group has unique needs, circumstances, and abilities (p. 24).

On the other hand, Wuthnow (1998, p. 41) indicates that professionalization has played an increasing role in accomplishing group goals. While doubtless encompassing rules of analysis and behavior, professionals bring expertise and legitimacy that help achieve group goals in a time of increasingly "loose connections."

Etzioni (1993a, pp. 192-206) contends further that rules often deal with symptoms, not root problems. For example, laws against hate speech do not address the underlying factors of stereotyping and prejudice.

Rules are part of structures, the focus of tenet 9.

> *Tenet 9* says that, while individuals must take responsibility for their own lives, all must recognize that *society as a whole, and its structures*, help create these problems and sometimes must change to help solve them.

Oppression, which Freire decries as noted above, stems largely from colonial and post-colonial social structures which empower elites and exploit poor people.

In the western world, some observers attribute poverty, divorce, drug use, and other social problems to bad decisions and character flaws of individual citizens. Tenet 5, described above, asserts that each person must bear substantial responsibility for the quality of her or his own life.

However, this need to shoulder personal responsibility does not rule out attention to macro- and meso-level structural factors. Many, if not most, communitarians assign substantial blame and responsibility for social problems to the larger community and its institutions.

Crime and related problems are complex. For example, poverty in the twenty-first century stems partly from exporting of jobs in a global economy. Another factor is elimination of certain heavy-industry jobs during the modern information age (Anderson, 1999, p. 145).

Also, it's alleged that racial discrimination so infects Americans that they fail to understand the psychological burden on African-Americans stemming from the nation's heritage of slavery (Shipler, 1997, pp. 566-570).

Schudson (1998, pp. 311-314), in discussing the "monitorial citizen," calls upon people to be alert to such issues. No ordinary person can solve complex social, political or economic problems alone. But one can help identify such problems. Also, he or she can help pressure government and non-governmental organizations to define and document the role of social structure and technology – and to insure that relevant expertise is brought to bear.

Summary and Conclusions

As noted earlier, the oft-discussed "Excellence Study" sponsored by the International Association of Business Communicators has presented empirical evidence for a *positivist* claim that, in fact, a combination of two-way symmetric and asymmetric publications does contribute to excellence. Communitarian thought seems helpful in defining a "world view" that might support such practices *normatively* – as right and important.

It also seems important to investigate whether, in fact, believers in and practitioners of two-way public relations buy into communitarian tenets. Such linkage might suggest that communitarianism is at least part of a "symmetrical world view."

In future teaching and research, scholars should examine relationships among the nine beliefs and three belief clusters. They should test the hypotheses stated earlier that felt empowerment contributes to holding of community-enabling beliefs, which in turn pave the way for holding of core community concepts. Also, clusters may differ empirically in association with priority given to two-way practice, to accommodation with publics, and to symmetric thinking.

The literature provides some support for specific relationships. We suggest a few of the more obvious ties.

1. Adherence to an organization's, group's or society's core values (*tenet 1*) contributes to group cohesion at the meso level (*tenet 2*) and a focus on well-being of the total community at the meso or macro levels (*tenet 3*).

   As noted quearlier, Bok suggests that minimalist values contribute to a sense of sharedness needed in keeping conversations going. Also, Deutsch (1970) has stressed the role of communication in promoting shared values so a developing nation's citizens can move beyond regional and tribal loyalties. This is needed if former rivals are to serve in a common Army, salute a common flag, and cooperate in other ways needed for national survival.

2. Adherence to core values (*tenet 4*) serves as a basis for setting objectives and planning ways to meet these objectives (*tenet 8*).
   Schorr (1997, p. 122) has emphasized clarification of core values as a prerequisite to planning of public policies at the community level.
3. Breadth of perspective (stressed in *tenet 6*) contributes to a feeling of empowerment (*tenet 7*), and vice versa.
   The Rev. Jesse Jackson (1987, p. 84) has noted that people of one gender, ethnic, or racial group come to feel empowered when they realize they are not alone. Jackson's Rainbow Coalition grew out of that recognition. On the other side of this coin, Milton Rokeach (1960, p. 75) suggests that felt empowerment contributes to the openness required for breadth of perspective. Rokeach purported to show that insecurity resulting from a central belief that the world is hostile contributes to unquestioning acceptance of pure dogma and complete rejection of ideas not seen as consistent with it
4. Acceptance of responsibility to others (*tenet 5*) contributes to working for others at the meso (*tenet 2*) and macro (*tenet 3*) levels.
   Felt responsibility to people other than oneself seems necessary to feel concern for the larger community.
5. Belief in the need to empower people (*tenet 5*) contributes to recognizing the role of social structure in facilitating or inhibiting change (*tenet 9*).
   This is a main focus of Freire (1997, pp. 106-119) and of social activists such as Alinsky (1946, pp. 176-177). A feeling of having some control over one's destiny leads to an understanding that structural change must and can often be sought with some chance of success.
6. Balancing rights with responsibilities (*tenet 5*) may stimulate planning and attention to outcomes (*tenet 9*).
   This seems obvious in that planning and goal specification surely are required to define and meet responsibilities.

We close with a final observation. Communitarians sometimes are criticized for seeking to avoid vigorous revolt which might disturb the status quo. However, Bok, Tam, and others in this tradition clearly recognize a need for change and challenge to fulfill other core values. Thus communitarianism is not simply a code word for neo-conservatism!

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Table 1
Nine tenets of communitarian thought

Core Concepts of Community	*Community-Enabling*	*Empowerment*
1–Focus on quality of relationships (person-to-person)	4–Holding core values, beliefs	7–Sense of having power
2–Feeling of social cohesion, connectedness (meso level)	5–Balancing rights, responsibilities	8–Focus on planned steps, outcomes
3–Focus on well-being of total community (macro/meso levels)	6–Breadth of perspective	9–See role of social, physical structures

Is it Right, Wrong, or Different?
Exploring the Impact of Cultural Factors in Validating Research

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When you cannot experience something first-hand and in-person, another way to learn about it is to read credible information from someone who has carefully studied the topic you need to know about. While this scenario is not as often encountered by practitioners who work domestically, the increasing number of practitioners who need to know about cultures and communication outside the United States' borders. is experiencing explosive growth.

The logical place to look for this culturally based research is in research produced by scholars from the particular cultures in which the practitioner is involved. The reality, however, is that pure, native research from outside the U.S. borders is not as readily available as one might expect. The question of the accessibility that foreign scholars have to U.S-based practitioners is the focus of this pilot study that looks at the processes and standards international researchers must conquer to share their knowledge (get published) in U.S. academic journals.

The authors found that the five leading journals selected for this study adhere to rather rigid publishing guidelines that operate on the premise that international scholarship in its different forms must "fit" into the U.S.-based model because of factors such as publishers' capabilities and reviewers' narrow training in different research methods and styles of writing. In addition, since fewer that 10 percent of the journals' editorial boards are affiliated with non-U.S. institutions, the reviewers who determine whether articles are accepted frequently are untrained in the different research methods and styles of writing adopted by international scholars. These rather strict parameters mean that a great deal of potentially valuable international research never gets into the mainstream American journals; at best, it might get published in a non-American, obscure Second or Third World journal.

The authors of this study conclude that more study about this topic, including questioning reviewers and international authors, is necessary to create awareness about publishing international work and to suggest changes that will result in more international scholarship being published.

Toward An Integrated Communication Theory for Celebrity Endorsement in Fund Raising

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This study attempted to merge public relations and marketing research toward an integrated communication theory for celebrity endorsement research. Kelly's (1991, 1998) work on the four models of fund raising and Dozier, L. Grunig, and J. Grunig's (1995) research on the mixed motive model of public relations provide the public relations theoretical foundations for this study. Coupled with Wheeler's (2002) examination of celebrity endorsement for charitable organizations from a marketing perspective, both approaches were examined through the lens of J. Grunig's (1982, 1989, 1994) situational theory of publics. The intention of this study was to determine celebrity endorser influence on individuals' personal and financial involvement in a charitable organization.

The findings of the study demonstrated that an endorser alone cannot influence information seeking, level of involvement, information processing, and willingness to donate time or money to a charitable organization. Thus, the proposed Mixed Motive Model for Celebrity Endorsement Fund Raising was rejected. This study did discover that celebrity endorsement is a marketing strategy that is a foreign concept to public relations and does not truly impact giving behavior. Public relations' situational theory of publics is a much more successful approach to explaining giving behavior.

Applying the situational theory of publics helps practitioners determine why and how potential donors and volunteers will be influenced to act. This finding also points to the incompatibility of marketing and public relations theory, which do not exist on a continuum of pure persuasion on one side and pure symmetry on the other.

Instead, this research agrees various public relations scholars (including L. Grunig, J. Grunig, and Dozier, 2002, p. 269) who have criticized Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC). The two approaches are incompatible and should be practiced separately because they represent competing communication philosophies. A practical approach to public relations fund raising with celebrity endorsers would use celebrity endorsers to build awareness about the cause, specifically if the cause is relatively unknown to the general public. Then, charitable organizations must incorporate the situational theory of publics, which will explain why particular people will give, to determine what will mobilize their prospective donors and volunteers to become involved.

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This study set out to test an integrated marketing and public relations theory in the context of fundraising. The theoretical model incorporated the situational theory of publics from public relations with celebrity endorsement theories from marketing and fundraising. The study found that although celebrity endorsers might be useful to raise awareness for a cause they do not predict donor behavior. The situational theory of publics seemed to be the most effective way of predicting why people become involved, donate money, and volunteer time.

Introduction

Throughout the history of the United States, Americans customarily have given away their money, as well as their time to serve the common good. Americans will give "to build something, to fight something, or to save something" (Fink, 1990, p. 136). Americans gave an estimated $212 billion to charitable organizations in 2001, an increase of $61.3 billion since 1996 (AAFRC Trust for Philanthropy, 2002). Giving by Americans represents two percent of the country's gross domestic product. Total gift dollars equal half the combined profits of all Fortune 500 companies and exceed the budgets of most countries in the world (O'Neill, 1989).

Forty-four percent of adults over the age of 21 volunteered with a formal organization in the year 2000. Of these formal volunteers, 63 percent reported they volunteered on a regular basis, monthly or more often. The total dollar value of volunteer time donated by Americans equaled $239.2 billion in 2000 (Independent Sector, 2001).

With this increase in numbers charitable organizations, especially smaller ones, are finding it increasingly difficult to differentiate their contribution to prospective donors and volunteers from that of similar local and national organizations.

Faced with an increasingly competitive environment, charitable organizations have been called on to make fundamental changes to the way they operate and move toward a more business-like model (Salamon, 2002, p. 35). Accompanying the business-like operating approach, there has been a growing professionalization of charitable fund raising, and with it, a proliferation of mechanisms for generating charitable resources. One reflection of this emergence and growth is specialized organizations catering to the new fund raising profession. As recently as 1979, the Association of Fund-Raising Professionals (AFP), the largest of these organizations, had only 1,899 members. By 1999, it claimed more than 20,000 members. This growth of the fund raising profession has had the unexpected result of helping to democratize charitable giving, moving it from an almost exclusive focus on the wealthy to a much broader base.

Individual donors wish to accomplish specific objectives with their donations of time and money. They make gifts to causes, or the societal problems represented by organizational missions, that are important to them. Odendahl (1989) said, "personal interest, involvement, and satisfaction are important motivations" (p. 172). Some donors give because they want to receive some tangible or intangible benefit (Steinberg, 1989). A benefit many individuals are now receiving as a result of their donations is the personal association, real or perceived, with a celebrity (Wheeler, 2002). While celebrity spokespeople were once rare, charitable organizations today regard them as vital to raising money and attracting media and public attention. Bronk (2002), executive director of the Celebrity Coalition, an organization that pairs celebrities with causes, "Celebrities are up there with pillars of the community–they are voices of influence. Five years ago, no one knew what stem cells were, but Michael J. Fox pushed it to the top of the agenda" (Fox News, January 29).

Although charitable organizations have claimed increased fund raising success as a direct result of a celebrity endorser, little research exists to verify whether celebrities indeed are more successful as endorsers than other celebrities of equal fame. To date, although much research has been done on celebrity endorsement, particularly in the for-profit environment, little research has been conducted for charitable organizations. The research does not provide guidance for these organizations when selecting a celebrity endorser, causing many to make decisions based on an executive's gut instinct or the celebrity's popularity alone.

Most celebrity endorsement research remains in the field of marketing, and while Kelly (1991, p. 163) maintained fund raising is more effective when discussed from the public relations perspective there currently is no discipline-specific public relations theory that merges the concept of celebrity endorsement with the concepts

of symmetrical and asymmetrical fund raising. Fortunately, the interdisciplinary nature of public relations fosters the use of theoretical constructs from other areas of the social sciences, including marketing research (Werder, 2003).

Fund raising arguably has much to gain from marketing and public relations literature, particularly in the area of celebrity endorsement, but at this point the merging of these two approaches is missing in current fund raising literature. The purpose of this study is to merge marketing and public relations research into a celebrity endorsement fund raising model and provide guidance to charitable organizations attempting to select the most effective celebrity endorser.

This article will explore this problem at the hand of the following theoretical approaches:

- Celebrity endorsement concepts in marketing, with a specific focus on the work of Wheeler (2002)
- Fund raising theory in public relations with specific focus on the work of Kelly (1991, 1998) and Dozier, L. Grunig, and J. Grunig (1995).
- Situational theory of publics as developed by J. Grunig (1982, 1989, 1994)

Literature Review

Marketing approaches to celebrity endorsement

Throughout history key people in the areas of sport and popular culture have been elevated to celebrity status. However, it was only in the twentieth century that the celebrity phenomenon truly permeated society, media, and culture (O'Mahony & Meenaghan, 1997). Through their public manifestations, celebrities hold certain meanings in the eyes of the receiving audience.

The use of celebrity endorsers in advertising is aimed at increasing message persuasiveness and its practice dates back to the 1800s. In the mid-1990s, it was estimated that as much as 20 percent of American network television advertising uses celebrity endorsers (Miciak & Shanklin, 1994).

Marketing has sought to use the varied meanings personified by celebrities to assist the achievement of certain advertising objectives (O'Mahony & Meenaghan, 1997, p. 15). Such advertising campaigns are used in a marketing context, as a form of persuasion, to attract customers, to promote political and social causes and to sell diverse products or services.

Celebrity endorsement research was first conducted in 1947 when Rudolph (1947) looked at multiple types of advertising versus celebrity-endorsed advertisements. This line of research subsequently yielded several studies over the years (e.g. Dichter, 1966; Aaker & Meyer, 1975, Freidman & Friedman, 1979; Ray, 1982; Atkin & Block, 1983; and Freiden, 1984). The last major period of discovery in the field of celebrity endorser advertising occurred from the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s. This period was highlighted with many studies focusing on celebrity endorser persuasion and advertising effectiveness. This period includes Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann (1983) who found celebrity endorsers increased recall and recognition under low involvement conditions. Kahle and Homer's (1985) social adaptation perspective on physical attractiveness and celebrity advertising suggested that participants exposed to an attractive celebrity liked the product more than participants exposed to an unattractive celebrity. Kamins' (1990) match-up hypothesis established that celebrity image and product message should be congruent for effective advertising and Ohanian's (1991) celebrity endorser/source credibility work found that a celebrity who is seen as an expert has been found to be more persuasive and generates more intentions to buy the brand.

While there are no current or past studies that document the percentage of advertisements produced by charitable organizations that employ celebrity endorsers and expert spokespersons, some estimate the figure to be in excess of 50 percent of all nonprofit advertising (Wheeler, 2002).

Theory behind the selection of celebrity endorsers has attracted a considerable amount of academic and practitioner interest. Hovland and his associates laid thee foundations for this research agenda in the early 1950s with the development of the Source Credibility Model (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951). Following the initial Source Credibility Model, three additional models have been proposed: the Source Attractiveness Model (McGuire, 1968), the Product Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990), and the Meaning Transfer Model (McCracken, 1989).

The Source Credibility Model contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on perceived levels of expertise and trustworthiness of an endorser (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Hovland et al., 1953; Ohanian, 1991). Expertise is defined as the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions. It refers to the perceived level of knowledge, experience, or skills possessed by an endorser (Hovland et al., 1953).

The Source Attractiveness Model contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on the *similarity, familiarity, and likeability* of an endorser (McGuire, 1968) (own italics). *Similarity* is defined as a supposed resemblance between the source and the receiver of the message, *familiarity* as knowledge of the source through exposure, and *likeability* as affection for the source as a result of the source's physical appearance and behavior.

The Product Match-Up Hypothesis literature maintains that the celebrity's image and the image of the product should be congruent for effective advertising (Forkan, 1980; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990). The determinant of the match between celebrity and brand depends on the degree of perceived "fit" between brand and celebrity image (Misra & Beatty, 1990). Advertising a product or service via a celebrity whose image is highly congruent with the organization leads to greater celebrity believability compared with a situation in which there is low congruence (Kamins & Gupta, 1994).

McCracken (1989) maintained celebrity endorsements are special examples of a more general process of meaning transfer. In this process, there is a conventional path for the movement of cultural meaning in consumer societies. This process involves three stages: the formation of celebrity image, transfer of meaning from celebrity to product, and finally from product to consumers. McCracken's (1989) Model of Meaning Transfer may at first seem a merely theoretical concept, but its application to real life was demonstrated by two studies by Langmeyer and Walker (1991a, 1991b). Their studies demonstrated that symbolic meanings possessed by celebrities (Cher, Madonna, and Christie Brinkley) transferred to the endorsed brand/product (Scandinavian Health Spas, bath towels, and blue jeans respectively).

Review of previous celebrity endorsement research on charitable organizations

The vast majority of celebrity endorsement research is based in advertising of products for for-profit corporations because these organizations can arbitrarily select a celebrity and can afford to pay the celebrity for endorsing the product. Since most charitable organizations do not have the financial resources to guarantee that a celebrity closely related to their cause will endorse their organization, they must often attempt to attract a celebrity based on the value of the organization to society.

With the exception of a few studies there are few empirically based inquiries into the subject of celebrity advertising in a nonprofit setting. Two exceptions are Walker and Langmeyer's (1992) study that looked at matching nonprofit organizations with a celebrity with a good image and a celebrity with a bad image, and that of Brunsberger and Munch (1998) who found information provided by an expert source was considered to be much more important and believable to the subjects than that provided by an experienced source.

Wheeler (2002) developed a framework that incorporated the impact of an endorser's congruence and source credibility, audience involvement, and gender as key elements in determining the impact of celebrity endorsers for nonprofit organizations on advertising effectiveness. He found that celebrity connection affects intention to volunteer time or donate money, and impacts source credibility, while source credibility mediates the impact of connection on intention to volunteer time or donate money.

The underlying knowledge upon which celebrity endorsement theory is based hypothesizes that celebrities are effective, because of their "symbolic aspirational reference group association" (Assael, 1984). A large sum of literature exists that has explored the nature of endorser characteristics. For instance, spokesperson gender, physical attractiveness, trustworthiness, and a vast array of personality characteristics personality characteristics all have an effect on consumer response to a message (e.g. Caballero & Pride, 1984; Caballero & Solomon, 1984; Caballero et al., 1989; Debevec & Iyer, 1986; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Joseph, 1982; Kamins et al., 1989; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Ohanian, 1990; Peterson & Kerin, 1977; Tom et al., 1992; Tripp et al., 1994). Charitable organizations can also benefit from celebrity endorsements because in some circumstances celebrities can attract attention to otherwise dull or upsetting topics (Atkin and Schiller, 2002).

Wheeler (2002) noted that not all celebrities can be connected to every charitable organization and that there are some celebrities better suited for a specific organization than another. He used the term "connection" (p. 14) to differentiate his hypothesis from the general terms of fit or congruence, and from the attractiveness related match-up concept. Wheeler built on the "match-up" concept used by Kamins, but did not incorporate the attractiveness dimension into "connection." Atkin and Schiller (2002) said, "While celebrities are often seen as trustworthy, they are much more effective when they have a personal experience with the issue – whether it's basketball star Magic Johnson speaking out about AIDS or singer Barbara Mandrell talking about safe driving" (p. 24). For example, NFL quarterback Doug Flutie of the San Diego Chargers, whose son is autistic, is an example of a celebrity endorser that is closely connected to the fight for a cure or treatment for autism. On the other hand, another NFL quarterback, such as Brett Favre of the Green Bay Packers, who is a comparable celebrity based on the dimensions of "familiarity" and "likeability," is an example of a celebrity that is not closely connected to the fight for a cure for autism. Based on the operational definition of connection, it seems obvious that Doug Flutie would to be a more "appropriate and logical fit" (Wheeler, 2002, p. 14) as a spokesperson for an autism-related issue than Brett Favre.

Public relations approaches to fund raising theory

Kelly (1991) applied J. Grunig and Hunt's (1984) theory of public relations models to fund raising to identify the fund raising behavior of charitable organizations. Kelly (1991) adapted each of the public relations

models to a fund raising context. The four fund raising models can be examined in the context of asymmetrical communication versus symmetrical communication. The press agentry and public information models are examples of one-way asymmetrical communication. The purpose of the one-way asymmetrical models is to generate publicity for the organization through mediated communication. L. Grunig, J. Grunig, and Dozier (2002) held that these models are not characteristic of excellent communication practices. The more excellent models are the two-way asymmetrical model and the two-way symmetrical model, which is considered most excellent. Organizations that practice two-way communication use research after completing a public relations program to determine the effectiveness of the program in changing people's attitudes. The purpose of the two-way symmetrical model in public relations is to develop mutual understanding between the management of the organization and the publics the organization affects and also to change the attitudes and behavior of management as much as it is to change the attitudes and behaviors of the organization's publics.

Public relations is most often actually practiced by a fifth model that incorporates behaviors of both the asymmetrical and symmetrical practices to achieve short-term results and long-term goals while allowing practitioners to adjust their organization's communication style to fit the internal and external environments (Tindall, 2002, p. 35). Proposed by Murphy (1989; 1991), the fifth model – the mixed motive model – gains understanding, accuracy, and cooperation by mixing elements of both the asymmetrical and symmetrical perspectives. It balances the interests and needs of both parties, with neither experiencing regret nor remorse about the compromise made.

Dozier, L. Grunig, and J. Grunig (1995) suggested the mixed motive model is a new model of symmetry. At certain times, an organization desires to persuade and convince publics to behave in the way the organization wants. Their new model represents a blend of the three asymmetrical public relations models (press agentry, public information, and two-way asymmetrical) and the two-way symmetrical model. J. Grunig again supported the mixed motive model in his most recent work on the four public relations models (Heath, 2001).

Merging marketing and public relations through celebrity endorsement fund raising

Public relations theorists and marketing communication theorists have traditionally conceptualized communication in very different ways. The elements that distinguish marketing from public relations are not well recognized, and the interchangeable use of the terms marketing and public relations "often result from historical precedence and reflect little understanding of their differences" (Cutlip, Center, and Broom, 1999, p. 7). These various conceptualizations lead most marketing scholars, who valued Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC), to narrowly define public relations as a technical support, publicity function and not as a management function for the organization (L. Grunig, J. Grunig, and Dozier, 2002, p. 269). Due to this limited view of the public relations role, public relations scholars and practitioners often rejected it. Recently, the term Integrated Communication (IC) has begun to replace IMC and has expanded its definition to include the importance of various stakeholders beyond consumers and the understanding the public relations was not simply a marketing function.

In practice, the two functions appear to perform similar activities and share comparable duties. Both marketing and public relations are functions of management. Both deal with communication, and both functions can segment the population (Tindall, 2002). However, the objectives of the two departments are different, and they are motivated by different factors. Marketing chooses those whom it actively seeks to persuade to use products, and it has high control over its messages and designs. Public relations cannot always choose the public with whom it must communicate. "Publics arise from both the internal and external environment–publics that may not have a discernible link to the organization but with whom the organization must still interact" (p. 26).

The change from IMC to IC recognizes that different publics are more or less strategic to the organization as situations change. Drobis (1997-1998, p. 9) found that public relations practitioners are actually in the best position to manage IC because, unlike other communication disciplines, it is their job to be involved in every facet of the organization and listen and respond to a full range of stakeholders. The marketing vs. public relations debate has also raged in fundraising (Kelly, 1996, p. 9). Believing that the effective management of relationships between charitable organizations and their donor publics contribute to organizational success, Kelly contended that, historically, marketing has been the adopted approach to fund raising. The previous arguments suggest that a merging of celebrity endorsement theory, which is based in marketing, with public relations theory will provide an appropriate fundraising approach that will benefit both the organization and its publics.

The Situational Theory of Publics

When Moe (1980) examined voluntary organizations, he found that solidary and purposive incentives predominated for people involved in charitable organizations. This suggests the situational theory of publics

can be applied to charitable organizations when attempting to determine who will donate time or money to the organization and which celebrities may become endorsers for the organization.

J. Grunig's (1989) situational theory of publics provides a means of segmenting a general population into groups relevant for public relations practitioners, or in this case fund raisers. Similar to market segmentation theories, the segments of the population must be mutually exclusive, measurable, accessible, pertinent to the organization's mission, and large enough to be substantial. The situational theory of publics allows public relations professionals to predict these differential responses, including responsiveness to issues; amount of and nature of communication behavior; effects of communication on cognitions, attitudes, and behavior; and the likelihood of participating in collective behavior to pressure organizations (J. Grunig, 1994).

The situational theory consists of two dependent variables (active and passive communication behavior) and three independent variables (problem recognition, constraint recognition, and level of involvement). According to J. Grunig (1994), the two dependent variables, active and passive communication behavior, also can be called information seeking and information processing. The independent variables, problem recognition, constraint recognition, and level of involvement, describe the perceptions people have about specific situations. High problem recognition and low constraint recognition increase both active information seeking and passive information processing. Level of involvement increases information seeking, but has little effect on information processing.

Decentralization and postmodern values in fund raising

Fundraisers in centralized organizations "are managed by one department reporting to the CEO" (Kelly, 1998, p. 214). Decentralized organizations assign the fund raising responsibilities to local organizational chapters or units. Considerable fundraising literature supports the effectiveness of fund raising when done closer to the program services. These views are reflected in postmodern theory. Postmodernists emphasize that there is no single truth and that one should value and listen to multiple voices (Holtzhausen, 2000). This leads to the postmodern concept of micropolitics, which emphasizes the role and impact of multiple interest groups in organizational decision-making and implies the value of decentralization. Vasquez (1994) proposed the practice of microsegmentation, which enables public relations practitioners to determine how specific individuals or communities would process and seek information. It therefore leads that microsegmentation in a fund raising environment would benefit from a decentralized structure because it enables the practitioner to make fund raising decisions locally, based on the needs of the community.

An adapted mixed motive model for celebrity endorsement fund raising

As the practice of fund raising lies on a continuum between the fields of marketing and public relations, fund raising practitioners must utilize theories from both fields, specifically celebrity endorsement theories from marketing and fund raising theory and the situational theory of publics from public relations, to best benefit both the organization and its publics.

It has been previously determined that celebrity connection to an issue enhances source credibility, the endorser's perceived level of trustworthiness and expertise, and the ability of local charities or local chapters of national charities to more effectively raise funds than their national counterparts.

Adapted from Dozier, L. Grunig & J. Grunig's (1995) *Mixed Motive Model of Public Relations*, this study seeks to find support for a new fund raising model for charitable organizations interested in utilizing celebrity endorsement in their campaigns. Figure 1, the *Mixed Motive Model for Celebrity*

Endorsement Fund Raising seeks to merge marketing and public relations theory to create the most effective scenario for celebrity endorsement fund raising.

The fund raising approach indicated by Arrow 1 in Figure 1, would be marketing focused. It would utilize asymmetrical, publicity-based tactics and a celebrity that endorses a national charitable organization that in all likelihood follows a centralized fund raising approach. Arrow 2 in Figure 1 illustrates the public relations approach to fund raising. This approach would make use of mostly two-way symmetrical communication between the organization and its donors and would use a connected, local celebrity to endorse the charitable organization. In the case of a national charity, it would utilize different celebrities in each community to best connect with the donors in that community, i.e. a decentralized approach. The celebrity would also be involved in the organization beyond its fund raising campaign.

Both Arrows labeled 3 in Figure 1 indicate a move toward integrated communication (IC) by the charitable organization. In the middle of this continuum is the "Win-Win" zone, which represents complete IC. An organization will reach IC when it utilizes both marketing and public relations strategies in its fund raising efforts. Since it is not always possible for national charities to find a connected celebrity endorser in each community, organizations practicing IC would benefit from connected celebrity endorsers in communities that have a celebrity connected to the cause, in addition to a national, connected celebrity that could have over-

arching appeal to all communities, although not based locally. These organizations would practice mostly two-way symmetrical communication between the organization and its publics combined with the short-term use of the asymmetrical models. This approach will help move charitable organizations toward a symmetrical communication style without forcing them to completely give up some of their otherwise effective fund raising practices.

Based on the mixed motive model adapted for celebrity endorsement fund raising and the situational theory of publics, this study tests the following hypotheses.

- H_1 When a local, connected celebrity endorses a charitable organization, potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to seek information and become involved in the charitable organization than when another endorser is present.
- H_2 When a local, connected celebrity endorses a charitable organization, potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to process information than when another endorser is present.
- H_3 When a local, connected celebrity endorses a local charitable organization, potential donors and volunteers will plan to donate significantly more money than when any other endorser is present at either the local or national locations.
- H_4 When a local, connected celebrity endorses a local charitable organization, potential donors and volunteers will plan to volunteer significantly more time than when any other endorser is present at either the local or national locations.
- H_5 Regardless of endorser type, demographic variables will significantly impact the potential donors' and volunteers' desire to seek information, process information, and act on that information.

Methodology

Research participants

Research participants were recruited from a population of undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory mass communications class at a large Southeastern university. Students were asked to participate as part of an assignment at the beginning of one of their classes. Participation was voluntary. Although this course is a requirement for students wishing to enroll in the mass communications sequence, most of the students are not mass communications majors and enroll in the class to fulfill general education requirements.

Experimental design

To test these hypotheses, this study examined the fund raising effectiveness of local, national, connected, and non-connected celebrity endorsers on the giving and volunteer behavior of prospective donors and volunteers for both local and national charitable organizations. A controlled experiment was conducted using stimulus material based on a hypothetical case of celebrity endorsement fund raising. The case involved a fictional national charitable organization, Pediatric Disease Research Foundation (PDRF), and its local[1] chapter. A fictional organization was chosen to eliminate any previous attachment to the organization that the research participants may have.

Athletes from the National Football League (NFL) were selected as the celebrity endorsers for this study because the NFL is currently one of the most successful professional sports leagues in America, most major cities across the United States have a team, and NFL players are recognized as local celebrities in their communities while also being well-known on the national level. NFL fans also connect to the players throughout the football season as the television and radio announcers and newspaper reporters describe the details of the individual players' lives.

For this study, PDRF announced its 25th anniversary and the fund raising occasions that will commemorate the event, including a black-tie gala and silent auction, a benefit concert, and a 5k run. To examine the influence of the celebrity endorser, the participants were exposed to a news release from the organization (see Appendix A). Participants rated their level of information seeking, information processing, problem recognition, constraint recognition, level of involvement, and intention to donate money and time.

Procedures

Each participant was randomly assigned to one of ten different conditions resulting from a 2x5 factorial. Variation in conditions was achieved through the use of booklets containing various stimulus materials and an instrument designed to measure the variables of interest (see Appendix A for survey instrument).

At the beginning of each booklet, participants were provided with instructions on the purpose of the experiment. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the ten cells through random distribution of the booklets. According to David Martin (1999), at least 20 participants should be assigned to a cell (p. 154). Since there were more than 300 students enrolled in the class, each cell averaged over 20 participants.

Manipulation check for endorser type

A manipulation check must be performed prior to conducting an experiment to maximize potential differences between experimental groups (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003). A manipulation check was conducted to assess the degree to which the PDRF spokesperson in both the national charity and local chapter

[1] The name of the actual location used for this study is omitted to ensure anonymity in the review process.

news releases fits one of the following categories: a local, connected celebrity; a local, non-connected celebrity; a national, connected celebrity; a national, non-connected celebrity; and a non-celebrity.

An instrument was developed for the manipulation check and administered to approximately 40 students in a public relations research undergraduate class (see Appendix B). Participants received a 7-page questionnaire with instructions and five news releases to determine whether they perceived differences in endorser types. An average of 4.0 was required for Joe Jurevicius and Doug Flutie to represent a true manipulation of connected celebrities. An average below 3.0 was required for Mike Alstott and Doug Flutie to represent a true manipulation of celebrities not connected to the cause. The average of 4.0 was also required for Joe Jurevicius and Mike Alstott to represent a true manipulation of local celebrities. An average below 3.0 was required for Doug Flutie, Jeremy Shockey, and Scott Ross to represent a true manipulation of endorsers who are not local celebrities. The results of the manipulation check are displayed in Table 1.

These results indicate strong support for the manipulation of endorser type. Due to this level of support for the selected endorser manipulations, the experiment continued without changing any of the celebrities or the control endorser.

Stimulus material

To achieve a 2x5 factorial, eight treatment conditions and two control conditions were created (see Figure 2). Participants in each of the ten cells were exposed to stimulus material featuring a news release from PDRF. Five cells received news releases from the national charitable organization (Pediatric Disease Research Foundation of America) and the other five cells received news releases from the local chapter of the national charitable organization (local chapter of the Pediatric Disease Research Foundation).

For both the local chapter and national charitable organization cell sets, endorsers were either local or national and connected or non-connected to the organization. As mentioned previously, connected celebrities have had a close personal experience with the issue or charitable organization under discussion. The following endorsers were represented in a cell for both the local chapter and the national charitable organization:

- Local, connected celebrity (NFL wide receiver, Joe Jurevicius)
- Local, non-connected celebrity (NFL full back, Mike Alstott)
- National, connected celebrity (NFL quarterback, Doug Flutie)
- National, non-connected celebrity (NFL tight end, Jeremy Shockey)
- Non-celebrity (fictional public relations manager, Scott Ross).

These specific NFL players were selected based on specific criteria so most variables could be controlled. Each NFL player selected for this experiment is a white male, first-string offensive player, known for his community involvement, and the NFL produces his jersey for fan purchase.

Joe Jurevicius and Doug Flutie were also specifically picked because both have a son who was afflicted with a pediatric disease. Jurevicius' son Michael died March 24, 2003 of fetal sialidosis. Michael's battle became a national story because his birth came in the midst of his team's run to the Super Bowl championship in 2002. Doug Flutie and his wife, Laurie, in honor of their nine-year-old son, Doug, Jr. who was diagnosed with autism at age three, established the Doug Flutie, Jr. Foundation for Autism in 1998.

All ten conditions used the same instrument to measure the variables of interest. Thirty booklets were created for each of the ten conditions. All news releases were printed with black ink on white paper and contained 28 lines and 153-155 words. A total of 300 booklets were randomly distributed to students.

Measures

After viewing the news release from PDRF or the Tampa Bay chapter of PDRF, participants were asked to complete an instrument (see Appendix A) containing items that measured the variables indicated by J. Grunig's (1994) situational theory of publics and intention to donate money and time. Specifically, scales were created to measure the following variables: 1) information seeking (searching for information about PDRF or pediatric disease in general); 2) information processing (unplanned discovery of a message about PDRF or pediatric disease followed by continued processing of it); 3) problem recognition (belief that something should be done to eliminate or prevent pediatric disease); 4) constraint recognition (obstacles that limit the ability for a person to do anything about pediatric disease or donate money or time to PDRF); 5) level of involvement (the extent to which people connect themselves to PDRF or pediatric disease); 6) intention to donate money (to PDRF); 7) intention to volunteer time (for PDRF); 8) demographic variables (including gender, age, previous connection to pediatric disease for individual participant, previous donations of time or money to organizations involved in eliminating pediatric disease, and preference of newspaper section).

Four separate items were created to measure information seeking, three to measure information processing, five to measure problem recognition, three to measure constraint recognition and three to measure level of involvement (see Table 2). All items used a 7-point Likert scale anchored by *totally disagree/totally agree*. In addition two items measured intention to donate money to PDRF; one using a 7-point Likert scale similarly

anchored. The other was a ratio level variable where the participant responded with an amount between zero and one hundred dollars. Three items measured intention to volunteer time for PDRF. Two items used a 7-point Likert scale also anchored by *totally disagree/totally agree*. One item was a ratio level variable where the participant responded with a number of hours between zero and one hundred.

In addition to the variables outlined above, participants were asked to provide demographic information, including whether or not pediatric disease personally affected them or someone they know; whether or not they have lost a family member or close friend to pediatric disease; whether or not they have donated money or volunteered time for charitable organizations similar to PDRF; their gender; age; and newspaper section they prefer to read first.

Tests of hypotheses

The items were divided into constructs according to J. Grunig's situational theory of publics, including information seeking, information processing, problem recognition, constraint recognition, and level of involvement. Next each construct was subjected to reliability analysis; however, the alpha values for the constructs were too low to be accepted as reliable.

Because of the low reliability of the above constructs the items were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis. This was possible because there were 21 items measured on a 7-point Likert scale and 266 participants (Nunally, 1978). Additionally, the Bartlett's test for sphericity produced a significant result ($p<.0001$), and the KMO index equaled .91, again supporting factor analysis as an appropriate statistical test for this data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996).

Once the data was subjected to factor analysis, five factors emerged. The two factors that related directly to the hypotheses (see Table 3) included: Factor 1 (desire to seek information and act on that information) and Factor 2 (desire to process information). A third factor relevant to this study included two variables relating level of involvement in the disease. Although the correlation between these two variables was statistically significant the relationship between these two variable were too low to warrant combining them into a single factor ($r=.38$, $p<.001$). The two variables included in factor both related to level of involvement. The other two factors contained one variable each that did not apply to the stated hypotheses.

Results

Data were analyzed using SPSS 10.1 for Windows. An alpha level of .05 was set for significance in all statistical analyses. Statistical procedures included one-way analysis of variance(ANOVA) and follow-up post hoc tests using the conservative Scheffe test ensured that true differences between groups emerged (Stacks, 2002).

Research participants

The responses of 266 participants were included in data analysis. Of these participants, 34.6 percent (N=93) were male, 64.6 percent (N=172) were female, and 0.8 percent (N=1) respondent declined to answer this question. The average age of participants was 19.8.

Reliability of measurements

Prior to hypothesis testing, the internal consistency of the multiple-item factors used to measure the variables of interest was assessed.[2] The two remaining factors, Factor 1 (desire to seek information and act on that information) and Factor 2 (desire to process information) were subjected to Cronbach's reliability analysis. The alpha value for Factor 1 was .88, demonstrating high reliability within the factor. The alpha value for Factor 2 was .69, which was considered reliable enough to also remain as a factor. Both factors were then collapsed into individual indices.

Tests of hypotheses for the impact of endorser conditions

Hypothesis 1 seeks to determine if potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to seek information and become involved when a local, connected celebrity endorses the charitable organization, than when another endorser is present. To test Hypothesis 1, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the endorser conditions and Factor 1 (desire to seek information and act on that information). The independent variable, *endorser conditions*, included the ten levels as depicted in Figure 2. No statistically significant differences were found between the groups in terms of their response to Factor 1 and Hypothesis 1 was, therefore, not supported.

Hypothesis 2 seeks to determine if potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to process information when a local, connected celebrity endorses a charitable organization than when another endorser is present. To test Hypothesis 2, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the endorser conditions and Factor 2 (desire to process). The independent variable was

[2] Stacks (2002) stated that alpha values between .70 and 1.00 indicate high reliability.

again *endorser conditions* (Figure 2). No statistically significant differences between the groups in terms of their response to Factor 2 were found and Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 seeks to determine if potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to donate money when a local, connected celebrity endorses a charitable organization than when another endorser is present. To test Hypothesis 3, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the endorser conditions and the amount of money the participants planned to donate. The independent variable was *endorser conditions* (Figure 2) and the dependent variable was the amount of money the participants intended to donate. There were no statistically significant differences between the groups in terms of their response to amount of money the participants intended to donate and Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 seeks to determine if potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to volunteer time when a local, connected celebrity endorses a charitable organization than when another endorser is present. To test Hypothesis 4, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the endorser conditions and the amount of time the participants planned to volunteer. The independent variable was again *endorser conditions* (Figure 2). The dependent variable was the amount of time the participants intended to volunteer. No statistically significant differences were found between the groups in terms of their response to amount of money the participants intended to donate and Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Changing endorser conditions

Based on the possibility that the 10 groups were too closely related for participants to discern between them, the groups were collapsed into smaller categories of *endorser conditions*. These categories were:

- Geographic location with two groups: The national chapter v the local chapter
- Endorser type with three groups: Connected, non-connected and non-celebrity
- Connectedness with five groups: Local connected, local non-connected, national connected, national non-connected, non-celebrity.

Again, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the endorser conditions and factors 1 and 2, the amount of time the participants planned to volunteer and the amount of money volunteers planned to donate. The independent variables were the new *endorser conditions* stated above. Again, no statistically significant differences between groups were found and the hypotheses that endorser conditions affected the fundraising environment could not be supported.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 seeks to determine if potential donors and volunteers donate or volunteer time based on demographic variables. To test Hypothesis 5, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were computed to evaluate the relationships between the demographic variables and *Factor 1 (intention to seek information and act on that information)* and *Factor 2 (intention to process information)* and the following independent variables: "A life-threatening pediatric disease has personally affected me/someone I know;" "I have lost a family member or close friend to pediatric disease;" "I have volunteered my time for a charitable organization similar to PDRF;" "I have donated money to a charitable organization similar to PDRF;" "Gender;" and "Age."

The independent variables of personal experience with pediatric disease ($F = 2.939$, $p<.05$); past volunteer action ($F = 17.277$, $p<.001$); past donation behavior ($F = 14.211$, $p<.05$); and sex ($F = 15.262$, $p<.001$) produced statistically significant ANOVA results with *Factor 1 (intention to seek information and act on that information)*. The independent variables of past volunteer action ($F = 8.419$, $p<.01$); past donation behavior ($F = 4.946$, $p<.05$); and sex ($F = 4.822$, $p<.05$) produced statistically significant results with *Factor 2 (intention to process information).*

Participants who had past experience with pediatric disease (M=3.70) were more likely to seek information and act on that information than people who had no such previous experience (M=3.33). Similarly, people who had volunteered in the past (M=3.91) and donated money in the past to a similar charity were more likely to seek information and act on that information than those who have not volunteered in the past (M=3.23) and not donated any money (M=3.24). Women (M=3.73) were more likely to seek information and act on that information than men (M=3.08).

Previous experience with pediatric disease did not affect information procession behavior. Results indicated people who volunteered in the past (M=4.74) were more likely to process information than those who did not volunteer (M=4.26). Participants who donated money in the past (M=4.67) were also more likely to process information than those who have never donated (M=4.29). Again, women (M=4.58) were more likely to process information than men (M=4.21).

To further test Hypothesis 5 correlation coefficients were computed to evaluate the relationship between *Factor 1 (intention to seek information and act on that information)* and *Factor 2 (intention to process information)* and the two interval level questions "*If someone gave you $100 and said you had to give it all to*

charitable organizations, how much would you give to PDRF? Please write a whole number between 0 and 100;" and *"If (your university) required each student to perform 100 hours of volunteer service to be eligible for graduation, how many of those hours would you fulfill by volunteering for PDRF? Please write a whole number between zero and one hundred."*[3]

A statistically significant relationships with a medium effect size and moderate relationship occurred between Factor 1 and hours to volunteer (r=414, p<.001). Statistically significant relationships but with small effect sizes and weak relationships occurred between Factor 1 and dollars to give (r=. 27, p<.001) and factor 2 and hours to volunteer (r=.27, p<.001) and dollars to give (r=.14, p<.05).

Level of involvement

Although not originally hypothesize a *third factor (level of involvement in pediatric disease)* emerged during factor analysis. As mentioned, the two variables from this factor could not be reduced to a single factor and needed to be treated separately. However, because of the theoretical significance of this factor in terms of the situational theory, it was deemed appropriate to determine whether the demographic questions would affect the variables from *Factor 3 (level of involvement)*. These two variables asked*: "To what extent do you believe that pediatric disease devastates families?"* and *"To what extent to do you see a connection between yourself and pediatric disease?"*

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were computed to evaluate the relationships between the two variables from *Factor 3 (level of involvement)* respectively and the following independent variables: *"A life-threatening pediatric disease has personally affected me/someone I know;" "I have lost a family member or close friend to pediatric disease;" "I have volunteered my time for a charitable organization similar to PDRF;" "I have donated money to a charitable organization similar to PDRF;" "Gender;"* and *"Age."*

The independent variables of personal experience with pediatric disease (F = 8.073, p<.001) and past volunteer action (F = 6.224, p<.05) produced statistically significant ANOVA results with the variable *"I believe that pediatric disease devastates families."* People who had personal experience with pediatric disease (M=4.34) were more likely to believe pediatric disease adversely affected families than those who did not have personal experience (M=3.38). The same was true for people who volunteered in the past (M=4.05) than those who have not volunteered (M=3.50).

The independent variables of personal experience with pediatric disease (F=13.484, p<.001) and past donation behavior (F=9.449, p<.01) produced statistically significant ANOVA results with the variable *"I see a connection between pediatric disease and myself.*" People who had personal experience of pediatric disease (M=3.15) and who donated money in the past (M=2.76) were more likely to feel a personal connection between themselves and pediatric disease than those who did not have personal experience of pediatric disease (M= 2.02) and who did not give money in the past (M=2.15). However, these means are generally low.

Correlations coefficients were computed between the two variables from Factor 3 and dollars to give and hours to volunteer. The only statistically significant relationships were between hours to volunteer and effects on families (r=.142, p<.05) and a personal connection with pediatric disease (r=.187, p<.01). However, in both instances the effect size was small with a weak relationship.

Discussion

This study attempted to merge public relations and marketing research toward an integrated communication theory for celebrity endorsement research.

The impact of endorser type on information seeking and processing

This study investigated whether celebrity endorsement theory could be merged with the situational theory of publics (J. Grunig, 1989) in the non-profit environment. The theoretical model proposed in this study suggested that when a local, connected celebrity endorses a charitable organization, potential donors and volunteers will be more likely to seek information and become involved in the charitable organization than when another endorser is present. The results of the study do not support the hypothesis and suggest that endorser type makes no significant difference on intention to seek information and act on that information. Geographic location in this study also did not have an effect on either factors. Even collapsing the 10 groups collapsed into fewer groups with more participants in each group did not affect this outcome. Support for the notion that decentralized fund raising activities would boost giving donor behavior could not be found.

Furthermore, the first factor extracted through factor analysis demonstrated that potential donors and volunteers that seek information would act on that information. Although never the intention of this study, this outcome supports J. Grunig's situational theory of publics (1982, 1989, 1994).

[3] Stacks (2002) mentions that a negative or positive correlation of .30 indicates a small effect size with a weak relations, .40 to .70 indicates a medium effect size with a moderate relationship, and .70 and above points to a large effect size with a strong relationship.

The second factor extracted by the construct validity factor analysis demonstrated that potential donors and volunteers who process information would not necessarily act on that information, again, supporting J. Grunig's situational theory of publics (1982, 1989, 1994), which argues people seldom seek information about situations that do not involve them, yet, they will randomly process information about low-involvement situations, especially if they recognize the situation as problematic. Although there were no significant differences between the groups celebrity endorsers appear to increase the visibility and raise the level of awareness of a charitable organization. In this study the mean for *Factor 2 (information processing)* (M=4.45) is considerably higher than that for *Factor 1 (intention to seek information and act on that information) (M=3.50).* Despite this, participants who processed information did not indicate they would act on that information. This might indicate that celebrity endorsers might affect information processing behavior but this did not translate into giving or volunteering action.

Level of involvement

It appears from this study that other factors will mobilize people and make them act. Celebrity endorsement alone will not accomplish this goal. This study indicates that level of involvement is one such factor. The impact of *Factor 3 (level of involvement)* further supports the validity of the situational theory of publics as a better predictor of giving and volunteering behavior than celebrity endorsement, at least in this study where participants with personal experience with pediatric disease were more likely to seek information, act on that information, and process information about pediatric disease. Another interesting outcome is that people who have in the past displayed giving and volunteering behavior were more likely to seek information and act on that information, as well as process information on pediatric disease. This suggests that existing volunteers and financial contributors and people who have a history of involvement in a cause remain the best audiences for non-profit organizations when planning new fundraising campaigns.

Endorser type and giving and volunteering behavior

This study also tested the influence of endorser type on intention to donate money and volunteer time for the charitable organization. Results indicated that endorser type did not significantly influence the amount of money the potential donors intended to donate or influence the amount of time the potential donors intended to volunteer. This finding is inconsistent with Wheeler's (2002) celebrity endorser research for charitable organizations from a marketing perspective, which stated that connected celebrities generate a high source credibility and intention to volunteer time and donate money.

Although previous research supports the belief that a decentralized fund raising function has been shown to be more effective (Evans, 1993, p. 282) this study does not find support for an increased level of giving for a local charitable organization when a celebrity endorser is present. As mentioned above, level of involvement seems to be a better indicator of whether or not people will donate or volunteer.

Another surprising result is that connected celebrities did not produce a significantly higher willingness to give than non-connected celebrities or non-celebrities. For years, marketing research (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Misra & Beatty, 1990; and Wheeler, 2002) has found support for the positive effect of a connected celebrity, but that effect was not evident in this study. Potential donors and volunteers provided similar responses for all endorser types regardless of connection.

The impact of demographic differences

The demographic variables of the participants indicated these variables were much more likely to influence the seeking of information and then acting on that information and also the level of information processing than by the endorser associated with the organization. This finding is consistent with Odendahl's (1989) conclusion that "personal interest, involvement, and satisfaction are important motivations" for people before determining to which organizations they will contribute.

The results of this study also support the situational theory of publics in that participants indicated that although celebrity endorsers create awareness, other historical and psychological factors encourage action, particularly previous involvement in a particular or a similar cause.

Rejection of mixed motive model for celebrity endorsement fund raising

The above findings led to the rejection of the proposed Mixed Motive Model for Celebrity Endorsement Fund Raising (Figure 1). Although not at all the intention of this study, public relations theory in the form of the situational theory emerged as the only predictor of information seeking behavior and the intention to act on that behavior, as well as information processing behavior. The situational theory of publics is a much more successful approach to explaining giving and volunteering behavior.

This finding to an extent suggests the incompatibility of marketing and public relations theory, which in this study at least do not exist on a continuum of pure persuasion on one side and pure symmetry on the other. Instead, this research agrees with several public relations scholars (including L. Grunig, J. Grunig, and Dozier,

2002, p. 269) who have criticized Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC). The two approaches are incompatible and should be practiced separately because they represent competing communication philosophies.

A practical approach to public relations fund raising with celebrity endorsers would use celebrity endorsers to build awareness about the cause, specifically if the cause is relatively unknown to the general public. Then, charitable organizations should incorporate the situational theory of publics, which will explain why particular people will give, to determine what will mobilize their prospective donors and volunteers to become involved. Integrated communication practice thus becomes the application of a number of practices from marketing and public relations, rather than a single integrated discipline dominated by a single theoretical approach.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study has important implications for the development function of organizations. It is important to note, however, that factors such as history[4] and sampling might have affected this study. Also, intent to behave does not constitute actual behavior and it is possible that the subjects will not do what they indicated they would do. The results of this study can also not be generalized beyond the subjects tested. With these limitations in mind, this research merely provides another lens through which researchers can observe, record, and study the effect of celebrity endorsers on fund raising practices. The concepts presented in this study are an initial attempt to establish an integrated communications model for celebrity endorsement fund raising and thus provides a springboard for future celebrity endorsement research in this context.

It is also important to note that there is a significant difference between celebrity endorsement for charitable organizations and for-profit organizations. Prospective donors and volunteers require a higher level of involvement before giving to a charitable organization than when purchasing a commercial product. In for-profit environments celebrity endorsement can persuade a consumer to purchase one brand over another where the difference is inconsequential. When charitable organizations use the services of a celebrity endorser, their goal should be increased awareness for their cause, not necessarily increased giving behavior. Only when this increased awareness is coupled with a strategic public relations program will giving behavior increase.

Media coverage should also not be confused with endorser effect. While media are far more likely to cover charitable organizations that have celebrity endorsers, this coverage does not translate into increased giving behavior. While participants in this study did react and decide to become involved based on the news releases they read, the role of publicity and media coverage are important simply because they draw attention to the organization and its special events that otherwise may have remained unknown to this segment of the population. One can therefore argue that publicity is not totally redundant, but that it might have some value in that it galvanizes at least some people to become involved. However, this is not an effect deducted from this study.

Recommended studies for future research

This study was an exploratory examination of how marketing and public relations theory could be merged into an integrated communication theory for celebrity endorsement fund raising. Additional steps should be taken to further understand if the model provides practicality for real-world fund raising practice. The data collected in this study suggest many new directions for future research in the field, such a replication of the current research with different types of celebrities and different groups of potential donors and volunteers, and an examination of celebrity effect on corporations' and foundations' willingness to give.

Practitioners can use this research as a tool to explain to charitable organizations that they should not rely heavily on a celebrity endorser to dictate the success of their fund raising campaign, but only to raise awareness for their cause. This research can be used to strengthen their practices, helping practitioners synchronize organizational needs with those of the potential donors and volunteers by finding ways to increase involvement through the application of J. Grunig's situational theory of publics (1982, 1989, 1994).

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[4] History could have affected this experiment because Jeremy Shockey (the national, non-connected celebrity), the NFL player who fit the criteria closest for the category, received a lot of negative media attention in the weeks prior to the experiment for using a gay slur when discussing Bill Parcells, the new head coach of the Dallas Cowboys (Sports Illustrated online, 2002, August 8).

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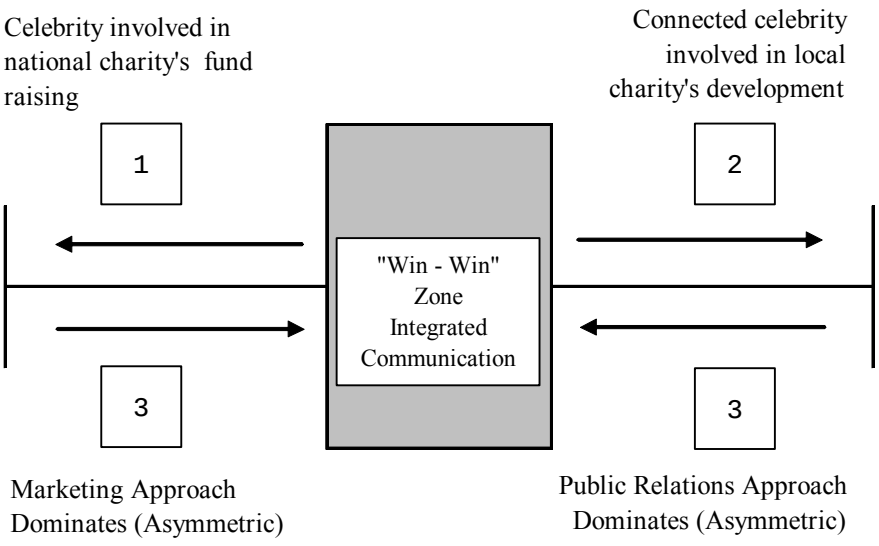

Figure 1. Mixed Motive Model Adapted for Celebrity Endorsement Fund Raising

NOTE: Adapted from D.M. Dozier, L.A. Grunig, & J. Grunig. (1995). *Manager's guide to excellence in public relations and communication management* (p. 48). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Table 1

Manipulation Check Averages by Endorser

Endorser	Connected Average	Local Celebrity Average
Joe Jurevicius	4.64	4.04
Doug Flutie	4.57	1.75
Scott Ross	2.89	2.90
Jeremy Shockey	2.57	1.61
Mike Alstott	2.39	4.18

Figure 2

Experimental Treatment and Control Groups

Group	Location	Endorser-type
1	Local chapter	Local, connected
2	Local chapter	Local, non-connected
3	Local chapter	National, connected
4	Local chapter	National, non-connected
5	Local chapter	Non-celebrity (control)
6	National charity	Local, connected
7	National charity	Local, non-connected
8	National charity	National, connected
9	National charity	National, non-connected
10	National charity	Non-celebrity (control)

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Alphas for Situational Theory Variables

Item	M	SD	Alpha
Information Seeking	**3.46**	**1.72**	**0.46**
I would be inclined to visit PDRF's website.	4.16	1.64	
I would NOT be inclined to sign-up for PDRF's e-mail updates. (reverse)	3.61	2.01	
I would be inclined to request a brochure from PDRF to learn more about the organization.	3.94	1.84	
I would be interested in receiving more information about PDRF.	3.95	1.72	
Information Processing	**4.45**	**0.24**	**0.69**
I would likely pay attention when PDRF's spokesperson discussed the cause on TV.	4.53	1.52	
I would likely read an online article when PDRF's spokesperson's name is in the title.	3.92	1.77	
I would NOT likely read a newspaper article when PDRF's spokesperson's name is in the title. (reverse)	4.91	1.79	
Problem Recognition	**5.40**	**1.53**	**0.50**
I am currently aware of the effects of pediatric diseases on children and their families.	3.72	1.73	
I belief that pediatric disease devastates families.	6.30	1.22	
I desire to understand pediatric disease better.	4.43	1.59	
PDRF's mission to eradicate pediatric, rare and catastrophic diseases is a worthy cause, which deserves support.	6.46	0.98	
I believe that pediatric disease is NOT a problem facing this country. (reverse)	6.10	1.21	
Constraint Recognition	**2.58**	**0.12**	**0.05**
Pediatric disease is more difficult for me to understand than other diseases.	2.82	1.42	
I will likely attend one of the events mentioned in the PDRF news release.	3.05	1.70	
I feel my donation to PDRF would NOT make a difference to the organization. (reverse)	2.34	1.59	
Level of Involvement	**3.46**	**1.72**	**0.46**
I see a connection between pediatric disease and myself.	2.41	1.60	
I would recommend the PDRF events to my family/friends who might be interested.	4.93	1.66	
I will NOT become involved in this cause. (reverse)	4.25	1.79	

Table 2, Cont'd

Item	M	SD	Alpha
Intention to Donate	**57.27**	**33.30**	**.04**
Based on the previous news release, I intend to donate money to PDRF.	2.77	1.50	
If someone gave you $100 and said you had to give it all to charitable organizations, how much would you give to PDRF? Please write a whole number between 0 and 100.	54.50	32.95	
Intention to Volunteer	**43.89**	**30.04**	**.11**
Based on the previous news release, I intend to volunteer my time for PDRF.	2.99	1.51	
If USF required each student to perform 100 hours of volunteer service to be eligible for graduation, how many of those hours would you fulfill by volunteering for PDRF? Please write a whole number between zero and one hundred.	36.96	28.77	
My ability to meet the PDRF spokesperson would increase my desire to volunteer time.	3.93	1.83	

Table 3

Factor Analysis of Questionnaire Items

Factor	Factor Loading	Communalities	Alpha
Factor 1: Desire to seek information and act on the information			**0.88**
My ability to meet the PDRF spokesperson would increase my desire to volunteer time.	0.66	0.47	
I would NOT be inclined to sign-up for PDRF's e-mail updates. (reverse)	0.58	0.54	
I would be inclined to request a brochure from PDRF to learn more about the organization.	0.83	0.72	
I will likely attend one of the events mentioned in the PDRF news release.	0.75	0.66	
Based on the previous news release, I intend to donate money to PDRF.	0.77	0.71	
Based on the previous news release, I intend to volunteer my time for PDRF.	0.77	0.75	
I will NOT become involved in this cause. (reverse)	0.68	0.58	
Factor 2: Desire to process information			**0.69**
I would likely pay attention when PDRF's spokesperson discussed the cause on TV.	0.44	0.65	
I would likely read an online article when PDRF's spokesperson's name is in the title.	0.37	0.62	
I would NOT likely read a newspaper article when PDRF's spokesperson's name is in the title. (reverse)	0.52	0.57	

Conceptualizing the Public Opinion Environment of an Organizational Population: A Longitudinal Study of the Major Australian Banks 1981–2001

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The persistent criticism of Australia's major banks more commonly known as 'bank bashing' emerged in the late 1980s and the demonization of banks has continued to be a popular sport for activists, politicians, the media and other opinion leaders according to one Australian researcher.

While the public opinion environment of Australia's major banks has been predominantly unfavorable since 1981, bank profits have continued to climb with the exception of a few memorable years during the crash experienced globally in the late 1980s according to Elizabeth Dougall, Australian public relations academic and practitioner and recent addition to the faculty of the School of Journalism and Mass Communication at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Dougall argued that the public opinion environment of organizations is an important concept for public relations that has been loosely and imprecisely described. "Public relations managers must be able to differentiate between systematic and random changes in the environment in order to make better relationship-management decisions.

To do that, we all need to understand more precisely what 'environment' means and what happens over time. Longitudinal research has limited popular appeal because of the resources it demands but there is no better way to examine answers to questions about social change," she said.

Having claimed that the public opinion environment operates at the organizational population level of analysis Dougall undertook a comparative case study of the major Australian banks in three separate but consecutive case studies extending from 1981 to 2001 to explore her case. She described the public opinion environment of the banks using the dimensions that she synthesized from an interdisciplinary review of theory and literature from the organizational sciences, public opinion, and public relations. Those dimensions were stability, intensity, complexity and direction of favorability.

The case studies include data gathered using from more than 6000 newspaper articles as well as a wide range of government, bank, interest group and other reports and submissions.

Volvo XC90: A Holistic View of the Launch Use of Integrated Media Evaluation/Research*

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The small SUV market is the fastest-growing automotive sector. In the last decade in the UK, it has increased by 400%. Volvo's presence in this sector had always been limited to one model, which had not encountered a great deal of success. With a new entrant on its way, Volvo placed a substantial budget behind the launch of their new 4x4, the XC90, as they wanted to ensure its success in a highly-competitive marketplace.

Volvo invested in a great deal of qualitative research prior to launch, especially against the key segment competitors the BMW X5 and Mercedes M-Class, to try to give it the best possible start. Once the launch phase was in progress, they wanted to assess how successful they had been in promoting their new vehicle and to pull together all available sources of data to provide a totally integrated piece of research validating the launch activity they had sanctioned.

Key issues that Volvo had wanted to address in the positioning of the new vehicle were the current failings of the SUV sector:

- Poor safety record (especially roll-over accidents)
- Compromised versatility in the cabin (particularly if it was to be for family use)
- Weak driving dynamics
- Overly complicated SUV interfaces

Due to their strong relationship with Millward Brown Precis, Volvo commissioned us to pull together these various sources of research in order to track and assess the success of the launch from a variety of different angles, with a specific focus on the PR launch.

Objectives

- To assess the launch of the XC90 in as holistic manner as possible, integrating all available data sources to evaluate its success.

What methodologies did we use?

This report analyses data collected between July 2001 and April 2003 by the various sources listed below. This data was then integrated to establish the success of the launch.

In order to meet Volvo's brief, Millward Brown Precis employed the following measures:

- Evaluation of the quality and quantity of PR coverage, its perceived strengths and weaknesses and overall effect on the brand using Millward Brown Precis' PR evaluation tool
- Comparison against key competitors
- Tonality of coverage
- Measuring consumer perceptions about the XC90 and the Volvo brand as a whole using Millward Brown's brand and advertising tracking study (ATP™)
- Monitoring Internet traffic tracked on the Volvo website
- Measuring personal and web-based customer enquiries
- Assessing target audience segmentation analysis
- Integration of all these measures to assess the campaign in its entirety

How did it differ from other launches?

Volvo's XC90 burst onto the scene at the Detroit Auto Show in January 2002. It was immediately picked up by the media as a favorite due not only to its looks, an essential to attract attention at a motor show, but also for its entire package. However, many models launched around motor shows enjoy a short burst of success then fade away, so did the XC90 fall into that trap?

The first task was to compare the XC90 launch against a successful launch of another Volvo vehicle using a more traditional PR campaign. The Volvo S80 was considered to be the most recent example of such a launch. The S80 achieved a huge peak in media attention around its launch, but then media interest diminished and dwindled to its current levels, where it is a low volume player within its sector. XC90 was also mapped against the BMW X5, the sector leader, which followed a similar strategy.

* This paper had a number of graphs that could not be imported into these proceedings that support the findings presented in this paper. For copies, please contact Ms. Draper.

XC90 employed a different tactic, whereby it built on its launch coverage to increase its impact quarter on quarter. Indeed, in the year immediately following its launch in early 2002, it became a benchmark vehicle in its sector, thus ensuring itself a place in major group tests in this sector.

Did it carry the right messages?

The comparison to its competitors and fellow models proves that the XC90 generated a major presence within the media, but did it convey its key Volvo messages of *safety, practicality* and *design?*

In short, it was immensely successful in communicating all of them.

Safety: Both passive and active safety received absolutely no negative coverage, and the XC90 far exceeded any of its rivals, achieving recognition of this as it was awarded 5-stars in NCAP safety tests.

Practicality – Again, no negative coverage was noted, with its highly versatile seating system cited as the main reason for its success.

Other key areas of achievement were the visual impact of its *design,* crucial to the success of any model, and its very keen pricing, which led to it being championed as the sector leader on value.

Indeed to achieve such low levels of negative coverage for all attributes shows what a formidable vehicle it is. The XC90 received ringing endorsements from some of the highest-profile journalists:

"The best all-round vehicle I've driven this year" (Ken Gibson, *The Sun*) *"The best family car money can buy"* (Jeremy Clarkson, *The Sun*)

"The best of its class, by quite a margin" (Michael Booth, *The Independent*)

What did XC90 PR contribute to the Volvo brand?

XC90 boosted the Volvo brand across a 15-month period, during which it contributed around 45% of the PR impact generated for the whole brand. It also boosted Volvo's core attributes of *design, safety* and *practicality,* pushing these to their highest ever levels versus other manufacturers. It continues to be Volvo's highest-impact model.

Did Volvo reach the potential SUV buyers?

The first piece of integration carried out was to investigate how successfully the PR had reached Volvo's key target audience. For most of the analysis, the target audience remained broad, looking at the general public, in order to be able to compare the XC90's performance against other competitors.

Then, the broad audience was segmented into a core group of target consumers. These were men or women aged 25-44 with a household income of over £50k, educated to degree level and who have a keen sense of adventure. This left 609,000 people within the core target.

Among the general public, XC90's presence was so universal that 85% of the total adult population had an opportunity to see a piece of XC90 PR at least once. In itself, this was well above expectations. When focusing on the core target audience, a massive 96% of people had the chance to be exposed to media coverage on the XC90, over 90% of whom had at least two opportunities to be exposed to coverage. This represents effective saturation of its target audience, with any further advance very difficult and costly to achieve.

Did this huge presence in the media translate into consumer awareness?

Precis media impact data integrated with Millward Brown data confirms that this is the case. Almost twice as many people claimed to be very familiar with the XC90 than of either of its two key rivals. This is a major coup for such a new brand in this sector. The largest increase in familiarity during the analyzed period was directly attributable to its highest peak in PR in 2003.

Not only did consumer awareness and familiarity with the model augment significantly, but some of its key attributes also improved in consumers' opinions. Safety was one of these, with the XC90 matching, and recently exceeding, its rivals.

The favorable design coverage was also responsible for a sharp uplift in perceptions at a brand level of Volvo being a company that make stylish vehicles, with the largest increases happening around its launch at the Detroit 2002 motor show and its on-sale date in early 2003.

XC90's greatest strength in its media coverage was pricing, and at the point where this was most heavily communicated, the perception of Volvo's value for money at a brand level increased significantly. Again, these peaks coincided with specific events, with pricing information being released in August 2002, and once again the on-sale date in February 2003.

So, did consumers act on this information?

We have established that XC90's media presence convinced consumers about its claims, but would this convert into interest, action and, potentially, sales?

Ideally, as PR efforts translated into media coverage on the XC90, consumer enquiries would increase in line with this. Two sources of information regarding enquiries were used, those from the Internet and those that were logged as personal enquiries. The chart below shows how these correlated against the XC90's PR impact.

The initial peak of activity around the Detroit show saw an immediate surge of people accessing the Internet to request details, which at that time was the only source of this information. With time, web enquiries decreased and personal enquiries began to build, as models became available to view in showrooms.

The final chart (below) also includes orders placed for the XC90, which shows a strong growth in orders over time, before the vehicle became available, and which far exceeded forecasts. It culminated in a large peak immediately following the final big hit of PR announcing the on-sale date for the model. With demand higher than anticipated, people ordering the vehicle at this stage were placed on a waiting list.

The small amount of advertising done by Volvo explains a minor uplift in enquiries, but not sales. However, on the basis that orders already far exceeded the forecast when the advertising was aired, Volvo made the decision to cancel the advertising time at short notice and, as a consequence, saved £2.5 million. This was attributed to the fact that PR had helped to sell the required number of vehicles and the company would not be able to produce many more in the time available. The advertising budget was then diverted to support other models.

Conclusions

The success of the XC90 can be attributed to a series of unique events, activities and marketing approaches implemented to support Volvo's entry in this new sector. This analysis incorporated all facets of the campaign to give a complete assessment of all these activities.

This launch PR campaign proved highly successful not only at the model level, but also in moving overall brand perceptions.

The sustained nature of the XC90's successful campaign allowed it to achieve virtual saturation of it core target market, but also very high levels of penetration among the adult public as a whole.

By implementing integrated metrics around such a successful campaign, Volvo was able to deploy its resources more effectively and to make an informed business decision that, in this instance, saved £2.5 million from the advertising budget.

How Are We Doing?
The Importance of Measurement for PR Professionals – A Canadian Perspective

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The evaluation of public relations activities may not be the sexiest topic. But PR professionals agree that this type of data is indispensable if we are to be the best that we can be.

Today, many Canadian universities offer too few, often optional courses on research and evaluation of PR activities. Students therefore see it as unimportant, as they perceive research as one of the least important skills to have (Ahles, Fiske, 2003)[1]. Yet numerous publications have proved that research based campaigns and excellence in PR are closely linked. Authors Grunig and Dozier note that executives expect PR directors to be able to accurately assess their own performance[2]. Yet younger PR practitioners in our study seemed less conscious of the need for assessment than did those with at least 20 years' experience, or half of all respondents. Among self-employed PR professionals with more than 30 years in the field, two-thirds showed interest.

If PR is the management of communications between an organization and its publics, then PR managers need precise tools for measuring the usefulness and cost effectiveness of their initiatives.

Author David Phillips states: "A lot of expertise (is) ready to be deployed, but (there are) few practitioners who want to use (research and evaluation) or understand what (it) is. Worse still, only a few practitioners have understood what (research and evaluation) can be worth to their job and career."[3]

What is the situation with respect to evaluation in Canada? Our firm, Montreal-based Marcon-DDM, conducted a survey to find out.

We sent email questionnaires to 1,710 members of the Canadian Public Relations Society (CPRS). Some 253 French speakers received the questionnaire in French, and 1,457 English speakers in English. Between May 26 and June 2, 2003, we received 252 responses of which 194 were validated, for a response rate of just over 10%. This gave us a margin of error of 6.7% and a confidence level of 95%.

Profile of respondents

Interestingly, the majority of respondents were women and 85 % were French-speaking. Is this because Francophones rely on evaluation more than their English counterparts? Are they more interested or more strategic in their use of PR? Were the English speakers simply too busy to reply? The answers are anybody's guess.

As one would expect, the respondents in our survey are well educated. More than two-thirds hold university degrees, mostly in disciplines other than PR (journalism, business, law).

Generally, people answer non-assisted surveys on subjects they are interested in. It is therefore not surprising that our respondents were more experienced (20+ years) because managers have usually more experience than Public relations professionals who are not managers.

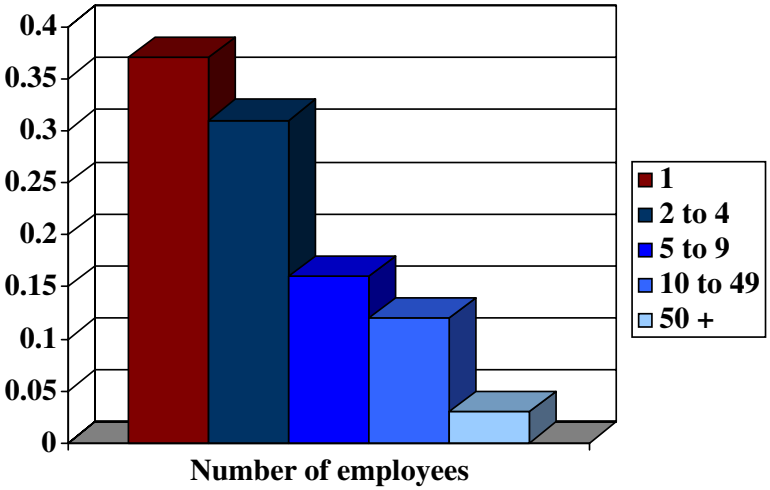
Respondents' profile

- 37% work in the private sector, 35% in the public sector, and 19% for non-profit organizations
- Average age is between 35 and 45 (with more self-employed among those over age 45)
- Men tend to have higher educational credentials but more women hold bachelor's degrees
- 95 % belong to CPRS, 14% to IABC, 18% to regional PR associations, 16% board of trade-type organizations, 40% regional business organizations, 24% national business organizations
- Of the 82% who work in corporate head offices, 37% work solo and 15% are self-employed
- 32% read *PR News*, 31% read *Tactics*, 28% read *InfoPresse Magazine* (of which 85% are Francophones), 25% read *Marketing Magazine*, and 14% read *Communication World*

It's a well-known fact that the closer the PR function is to the seat of power (i.e. the president or director), the more strategic it tends to be. In our survey, we noted that nearly one-quarter of respondents report to their presidents. We also noted that there seems to be no direct link between years of experience and the relationship with the president.

Of the businesses and organizations where the respondents work, 21% have fewer than 50 employees. 49% have 50 to 999 employees, and 33% have more than 1,000 employees. As far as the size of the communications/PR team inside each organization is concerned, most seem to be small. This fact, however, can be misleading as freelancers and other outsiders are often brought in to augment the team on an as-needed basis. Naturally, we noted a close relation between the size of the team and the size of the company, with the biggest teams found in multi-national companies.

Chart 1. Size of Public relations department

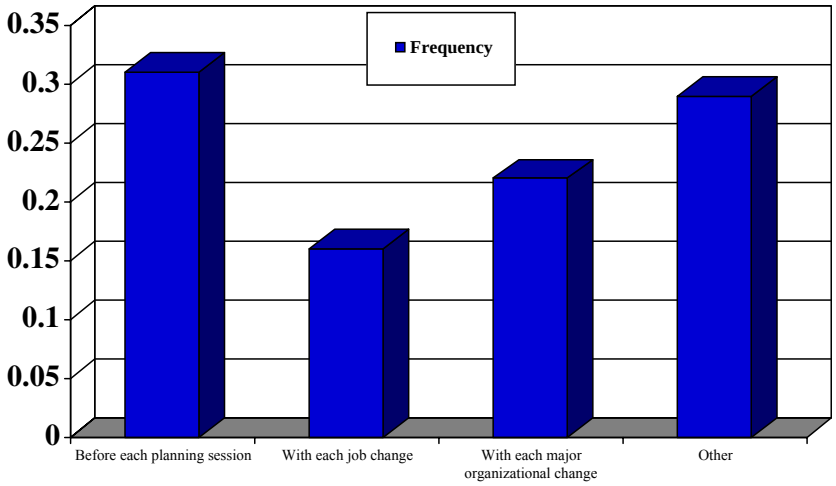


Setting the stage

One of the first steps in the evaluation process is establishing a benchmark[4]. This requires taking a snapshot of the organization, complete with a reading of its communications efficiency, something easily accomplished by means of a communications and public relations audit.

Of the 55% of respondents who had conducted such an audit, most work for private companies and have at least 20 years' experience. Those who have never undertaken an audit tend to have less than nine years' experience.

Chart 2. Frequency of audits



The respondents who had conducted audits had different ideas as to when an audit should be done: We found that nearly one third undertake audits before each planning exercise, 22% following every major change in the organization, 16% with each job change, and 29% for other reasons, most of audits being at specific intervals of time (every 2 or 3 years).

Among those who consider audits useful, we discovered that 33% conduct audits as needed, 50% lack the resources to do audits, and 15% have yet to do an audit.

Respondents with more than 20 years' experience conduct audits in higher proportions, while private companies conduct audits more often that other types of organizations.

In one section of the survey, we listed statements and asked respondents to indicate to what degree they agreed with each. When asked about setting PR objectives, about half indicated they set them according to a specific audience, deadline and measurement.

The survey confirmed that there is a correlation (from 0.557 to 0.744, depending on the tool) between the level of familiarity of specific research tools and the use of such tools in evaluating the effectiveness of a PR campaign (half of the respondents claimed to be familiar with research tools and to use them in their assessment). These same respondents felt the cost of undertaking an evaluation is justifiable in terms of ROI, and that evaluation transforms PR programs into strategic elements for their careers and their organizations.

Asked about the importance of establishing measurable goals, 54% said it is important for them personally while more than 33% said it is important for their organization as well. (Note: 39% did not reply on a personal basis and 22% declined to reply on behalf of their organization; we have no explanation for this).

We were curious about planning activities and asked respondents to tell us how often they undertook a) the preparation of a communications plan, b) a PR planning exercise for the organization, c) a strategic PR planning exercise for the organization as part of business plan or overall strategic plan.

Given that communications planning has been taught in university for a number of years now, we were not surprised to see that 90% of respondents do it regularly. We also noted that PR planning, without being strategic, is something 60% of respondents do. By contrast, strategic planning – the best method as it is linked to the organization's business goals – is the method of choice for more than two-thirds of respondents.

We put the second and third questions above to PR consultants. The results indicate that a higher percentage engage in regular and strategic planning for their clients, even if the latter, because of the confidentiality of business plans, often falls to communications or PR managers rather than to outsiders. When outsiders are used, 85% are self-employed and 46% have at least 20 years' PR experience.

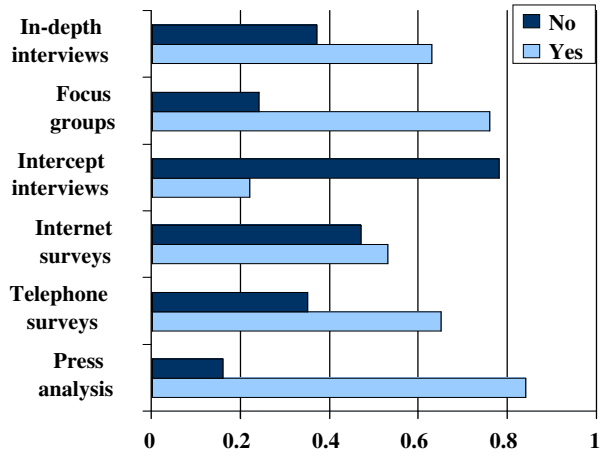
In discussing the importance of measuring goals, just over 50% said it is important for them personally, and just over 30% said it is important for their organization. (Note: We received a 37% non-response rate for the former and a 22% non-response rate for the latter.)

Research techniques

We next asked about familiarity with research techniques. As demonstrated in the chart, except for press analysis, the use of a technique and the comfort level with that technique are directly linked. The most widely used research technique in PR press analysis, even though there is a gap between the level of familiarity (66%) and the actual use of the technique (84%). We found that many PR Managers generally outsource this function, whether they are familiar with the tool or not. This is followed by 62% who say they are familiar with qualitative methods, including interviews and focus groups. Telephone polling came in at 59%. Intercept interviews are the least well known by PR people, with only 13% of respondents being familiar with this method. Among the techniques respondents are most comfortable with, focus groups come first (73%), press analysis and telephone surveys tie for second (66%), individual or in-depth interviews come third (59%), and intercept interviews come last (19%).

What techniques do they actually use? 84% use press analysis, 76% use focus groups, 65% use telephone surveys, 63% use in-depth interviews, and 22% use intercept interviews.

Chart 3. Use of research techniques



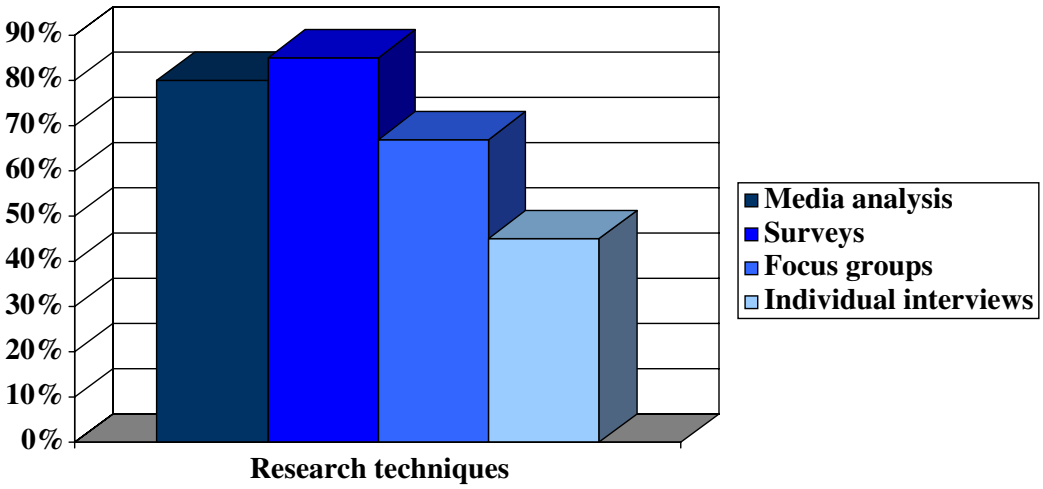
The consultants speak

We asked consultants how often they recommended to clients that they do research to measure the impact of PR campaigns and other activities. Less than half recommend using research to measure a campaign's impact.

One consultant commented: "I am not convinced that the tools really do measure effectiveness as there are often many factors at play beyond the PR campaign."

Other comments included the difficulty of selling the costs to the client, a lack of resources and training, not enough connection with the bottom line, and inexperienced resource people. This indicates that as an industry, we may need new training in how to effectively sell research to clients.

Chart 4. Recommendation of research tools by consultants



When PR consultants do recommend evaluation to a client organization, the chosen methods are surveys (85%), press analysis (80%), focus groups (67%) and Interviews (45%)

According to our results, 82% of the time clients follow the consultant's recommendation (even if the great majority of projects are on a smaller scale than what was suggested). Those who don't do it usually lack the required funds. Is it possible that if the majority of clients do accept to evaluate their campaigns, the consultants don't want their work to be measured? Let's hope not.

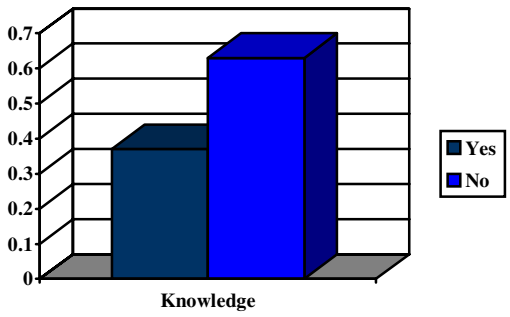
A key question

We wanted to know where managers and PR people look to when searching for qualified professional resources to help them measure the effectiveness of a PR initiative. Here's what we discovered:

- 43% look to survey companies
- 39% look to PR firms
- 37% look to integrated marketing/communications/PR firms
- 15% look to other resources, including master's students, self-employed practitioners, and internal resources
- 13% look to marketing consultants

When respondents were asked if they are familiar with PR firms offering research and evaluation services, two-thirds said no. The 35% who said yes mentioned the names of the largest consulting firms in Canada because they perceive these firms to have integrated research and measurement resources in each of their regional offices.

Chart 5. Knowledge of PR firms offering research and evaluation services



Conclusion

The respondent profile shows that he is Francophone, female, part of a Public relations team of fewer than five persons, has more than 20 years' Public relations experience, and even more years' overall experience. It is therefore confirming that evaluation and measurement of Public Relations activities is interesting to Public Relations managers, is it normal that they are more experienced practitioners. On the other hand, it was reassuring to find in our study that evaluation is not restricted to large organizations. Furthermore, even though respondents know more about qualitative than quantitative research techniques, they use either of them when it is more efficient. However, it was surprising that Public relations professionals do not know where to find resources to measure their programs, so they tend to go first to marketing research firms to conduct their Public Relations research. On the consultancy side of Public Relations, it is possible for consultants to recommend measuring tools systematically in their service offerings to clients when pertinent, because most of them will go ahead with research!

We have found in our search of secondary data, that there are merely no studies available about Canadian corporations which have introduced evaluation and research in their Public Relations department. In our survey, about 20 professionals were interested to participate in such a case study about what they had achieved related to measurement in Public Relations in their organizations.

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‘100% Pure New Zealand’ or the ‘Middle Earth’ of *The Lord of the Rings:* How the Public Relations Sector Portrays New Zealand to Potential Immigrants.

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Research into the manner in which the tools and techniques of public relations are used to entice migrants to New Zealand has shed light on some interesting discoveries.

There is still a lot to be said for the age old cliché that says a ‘picture speaks a thousand words’. The effective use of both imagery and language plays a very important role in creating an ideal of what New Zealand is and what it is meant to represent. When this ideal is communicated in a manner than is both consistent and well defined, it has a powerful effect on its target audience or public. Research data and figures support the proposed thesis statement that of New Zealand’s many faces, it is its reputation of being ‘clean, green and 100% pure’ that is still one of its biggest draw-cards for potential migrants who mean to move here.

It has also been observed that there is also a clash between the position of the government, as represented by Immigration New Zealand who are currently engaged in the process of re-positioning themselves in the global arena and migration consultants who wish to present the best possible picture of life in Aotearoa. From a public relations perspective, this hints at a situation where conflicting messages meld to form opinions and expectations that do not match the intended result of these initial communication endeavours.

The clash is represented and made real by hard facts and figures- the reality of the situation for immigrants when they arrive in New Zealand is one that is at odds with the reasons why they decided to come here in the first place. Research findings paint a picture of culture shock, barriers to effective community and social integration, social displacement and a wide disparity between the skills that immigrants possess and the jobs that are available for them.

The juxtaposition of what is meant to be ‘good PR’– a well designed, consistent and coherent message that builds understanding and effective dialogue between an organisation and its target public- and the actuality of integration concerns that migrants might possess also needs to be re-evaluated. Research findings conclude that there needs to be a shift from communication about immigration that aims to create an image that *entices* or *attracts* to communication that *educates* and *informs.*

The success of films such as *Whale Rider*, *The Lord of the Rings* and *The Last Samurai* have been fantastic PR for New Zealand. They too have now been woven into the tapestry of New Zealand’s image and international persona. It’s another thread in the fabric of a country that is currently in the process of re-discovering and re-creating who and what is is. The final conclusion of the research carried out for this paper is this-there is a need for Public relations practices to come together to form an impression of New Zealand that is both real, living and consistent. The manner in which they have so far been unable to do so and the many faces of New Zealand that exist in the minds of migrants are the main findings of this paper.

CCI Corporate Communication Practices & Trends Study 2003: Final Report

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A major trend in corporate communication is the challenge to restore trust in the capital markets as demonstrated in the work of the PR Coalition and its White Paper ("Restoring Trust in Business: Models for Action," PR Coalition, New York, NY, September, 2003) The Corporate Communication Institute (CCI) conducted studies in 2000 and 2001 to set a benchmark for the practice of corporate communication. The CCI Practices and Trends Study in 2002 and 2003 are the third and fourth annual surveys. (See www.corporatecomm.org in for some of the results of the CCI previous studies.) CCI surveyed Corporate Communication executives from the Fortune 1000 companies and asked eighteen questions. Several of these focused on the functions of their work and the budget responsibilities of those functions, emphasizing the importance the corporation places on the function by the assignment of accountability. Other questions asked about the executives themselves – age, educational background, gender, salary. CCI also conducted phone and email interview with selected respondents. In 2003, several site visits were added to the process of gathering information. The surveys gather past practices; the interviews allow discussion of more current actions; and the site visits allow for extended face-to face interviews and observations of the executives in their own work environment, often giving insight into plans for future strategies and tactics. These studies held up a mirror to the profession and the insights gained have implications for current practices as work.

CCI CORPORATE Communication Practices & Trends Study 2003: Final Report

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Executive Summary

Key Insights (12) of the CCI Corporate Communication Practices & Trends Study 2003: (1) Corporations must rebuild trust by actively engaging the public, their customers, their employees, and their partners on social, financial, and environmental accomplishments and actions of their organization; (2) As budgets decrease, and staff increases, companies are expected to do more with fewer resources; (3) Culture is vital to organizational health; Relationships with the community matter a great deal; (4) Communication is strategic – now more than ever, although fewer corporate communication executives see their number one job as "counsel to the CEO; (5)Transparency drives strategic initiatives and places corporate communication executives in critically important positions; (6) The age gap between managers and employees – which is growing – must factor into planning. Managers are getting older. More executives are male; (7) Media relations is more complex; (8) The company is expected to be a good citizen and make money; (9) Corporate Citizenship among leading corporations drives communication within the corporation, breaking silos so finance, marketing, manufacturing, the CEO, corporate communication, public affairs have a dialog; (10) Company will have a crisis; prepare for the ones you can't conceive of.; (11) Reputation Management is gaining ground as a driving philosophy behind the practice of corporate public relations; not clear if a trend or a fad, considering the lack of consensus in defining reputation; (12) Writing is still the core skill for Corporate Communication.

A major trend in corporate communication is the challenge to restore trust in the capital markets as demonstrated in the work of the PR Coalition and its White Paper ("Restoring Trust in Business: Models for Action," PR Coalition, New York, NY, September, 2003)

Introduction

The Corporate Communication Institute (CCI) conducted studies in 2000 and 2001 to set a benchmark for the practice of corporate communication. The CCI Practices and Trends Study in 2002 and 2003 are the third and fourth annual surveys. (See www.corporatecomm.org in for some of the results of the CCI previous studies.) CCI surveyed Corporate Communication executives from the Fortune 1000 companies and asked eighteen questions. Several of these focused on the functions of their work and the budget responsibilities of those functions, emphasizing the importance the corporation places on the function by the assignment of accountability. Other questions asked about the executives themselves – age, educational background, gender, salary. CCI also conducted phone and email interview with selected respondents. In 2003, several site visits were added to the process of gathering information. The surveys gather past practices; the interviews allow discussion of more current actions; and the site visits allow for extended face-to face interviews and observations of the executives in their own work environment, often giving insight into plans for future strategies and tactics. These studies held up a mirror to the profession and the insights gained have implications for current practices as work.

In January 2003 The PR Coalition (an informal group composed of leaders of public relations and related organizations who have met periodically since 1999 to discuss common interests) held a summit meeting on the campus of Fairleigh Dickinson University (Madison, New Jersey). The meeting, the first with extensive representation and a single focus, drew more than 50 senior professionals, officers from each of the participating organizations. They collectively represented more than 50,000 practitioners in the fields of public relations, corporate and organizational communications, investor relations, and public affairs. The discussion focused on three key recommendations for corporate executives to restore trust in their businesses:

- Articulate a set of ethical principles that are closely connected to their core business processes and supported with deep management commitment and enterprise-wide discipline. These principals should balance the interests of all stakeholders, ensure investors receive full and timely information about the company, and compensate all employees in accord with their contributions to the company's success.
- Create a process for transparency and disclosure that is appropriate for their company and industry in both current and future operations. It should include a senior oversight committee, "culture" audits and consistent messaging.
- Make trust and ethics a Board-level corporate governance issue and establish a formal system of measuring trust that touches all parts of their organizations

"Restoring Trust in Business: Models for Action," the White Paper issued in September 2003 by the PR Coalition, recommends that corporate leaders create or reinforce and "environment of accountability" in their

organizations. Without a visible concrete and measurable commitment, society will continue to mistrust our corporate leadership. (For the complete text of the PR Coalition White Paper see www.corporatecomm.org/pdf/PRCoalitionPaper_9_11Final.pdf)

Our institutions (See Note 1 below) are under stress. They have been for some time, and a crisis of confidence has been slowly building. The evidence is apparent in the rising level of doubt in those institutions, and a cacophony of voices questioning them. Skepticism rising from a shaken belief in the integrity of our institutions appears to be everywhere from major league baseball, the Olympics, the Catholic Church, government agencies from the FBI to the SEC, and large corporations. Each one, with the exception of major league baseball, is facing up to the crisis – the simple act of customers not patronizing the company, parishioners not attending religious observances, or voters refusing to take part at all. Concerned leaders are taking steps to win back the trust placed in them by the public at large and reverse the quiet crisis that threatens the fragile glue that holds our social fabric together.

This loss of faith did not begin with the implosion of Enron and the subsequent destruction of Arthur Andersen. But it is clear that the events of the winter of 2001, hard on the heels of the September 11th Attack on New York, have created a crisis of confidence in corporate America and heightened demands by regulators, investors and legislators for meaningful reform of corporate governance, corporate disclosure, and regulatory oversight. The increasingly firm belief that markets regulate themselves has been shattered by the "passion" for growth and profit. (Note 1.)

CCI Practices & Trends Study 2003

The CCI Corporate Communication Practices and Trends Study 2003 research team included: Dr. Michael B. Goodman, Jill Alexander, John Crawford, Christina Genest, Bruce Jeffries-Fox, Tom Sulcer, and Sandy Sulcer.

Goals of the 2003 Study included: Outline & analyze state of the art in Fortune 1000 companies; Expand the CCI Study to Europe (Pilot); Continue the CCI Studies from 2000 – 2002; Identify & analyze Corporate Communication practices; Identify trends in Corporate Communication; Build a database for further study.

Methods of the Study: Survey – 27 Questions (new "transparency" choice) also available online in 2003 (password access); Mailed To Fortune 1000 companies, March 2003; Pilot Survey in Europe, March 2003; Follow-up post-card reminder, April 2003; Second survey mailing, May 2003; Reminder mailing, June 2003; Response rate – 10%

Interviews – June 2003 – 28; Interview Questions; Selected Site Visits: May – September 2003. Key Insights (12) – CCI Corporate Communication Practices & Trends Study 2003

Key Study Insight (1) Corporations must rebuild trust by actively engaging the public, their customers, their employees, and their partners on social, financial, and environmental accomplishments and actions of their organization; Demonstrate and communicate clear commitment to these three fundamental efforts in every aspect of their corporation. The business case is a simple one – the license to operate is either granted or revoked by the society you are in.

Key Study Insight (2) As budgets decrease, and staff increases, companies are expected to do more with fewer resources. (Figures 3 – 6.)

Key Study Insight (3) Culture is vital to organizational health; Intangibles such as the culture of the organization form an inviting environment that can attract and retain quality people; or create one that encourages people to be less productive or to leave. A positive culture has become a standard for global corporations. Relationships with the community matter a great deal. The Council of Public Relations Firms retained the Corporate Communication Institute in 2000 to conduct a study of the relationship between corporate reputation and spending on corporate communication activities. The study findings indicted a positive, statistical relationship between what a corporation spends on its "foundation activities" and its reputation ranking. (Hutton & Goodman, 2001)

Key Study Insight (4) Communication is strategic – now more than ever, although fewer corporate communication executives see their number one job as "counsel to the CEO." As noted in the previous studies, many corporate executives consider communication as purely tactical in both its nature and its execution. In an information-driven age, communication is an integral part of the corporate strategy. Strategic issues include an orientation of communication to an organization's priorities, as well as toward the external environment. Integrity and credibility are the pillars of strategic communication. Realistic measurement systems and processes for improvement are strategic tools for success.

Key Study Insight (5) Transparency drives strategic initiatives and places corporate communication executives in critically important positions. The passage of the Sarbanes-Oxley legislation in the summer of 2002 has set powerful financial expectations, as well as the expectation to create a "culture of accountability" in

publicly held corporations. This expectation places the corporate communication officer squarely as the counsel to the CEO and the CFO on these critical issues of compliance and reporting of financial information.

Well before Enron raised questions and brought skepticism out in the open, shareholders and stakeholders began to demand a higher level of transparency, and investors in particular began to manifest those demands in their investment decisions. In simpler times we might have called such behavior straight talk. There is ample evidence that companies that embrace transparency tend to:

- achieve more accurate valuations,
- gain greater access to the capital markets,
- and retain more long-term investors than those companies that prefer the murky approach.

Clarity trumps opacity. (See Note 1)

The private sector has a special role to play in the maintenance of a country's national integrity according to Transparency International (See www.transparency.org) the NGO devoted to combating corruption. And Social Accountability International (See www.sa-intl.org) issued a global standard, SA8000, to combat such egregious practices as forced labor, child labor, and health and safety law violations. The effectiveness of these initiatives is based on open communication and transparent access to information. (See Note 1)

Responsible companies also embrace sustainability because it is good business practice. Companies that are diligent stewards of the community, the environment, and the assets of their stockholders are stronger investments. In addition to sustainability:

- the forces of globalism,
- a ubiquitous demand for quality in goods and services,
- a near obsession with information and the need to know,
- and an utter lack of tolerance for duplicity,

offer a backdrop for the urgency to restore trust. (See Note 1)

Companies were in the midst of a recession with no clear end in sight, the dot com bubble had burst, nations reeled from the tragic events of 9/11, and many people longed for a stable, predictable world. It was a crisis of trust, more like a drought than a tornado or hurricane – slow, unrelenting and stealthy. Initially, corporations did not react as if they were hit by it. They reacted long after the reservoir of trust of their constituents had been seriously depleted. (Note 1)

So what does a corporate leader do? In a crisis of trust, effective CEOs:

- demand high ethical standards,
- exude believability,
- communicate clearly,
- and retain, motivate and inspire their employees to meet the challenge.

Everyone inside the company, and out, expects a corporation, and its leaders, to assume responsibility and accountability. (Note 1)

Corporate leaders appreciate the value of transparency. The vast majority says they expect to disclose more information in the future. But powerful and smart people fall victim to egocentrism, omniscience, omnipotence, and invulnerability. Is it any wonder that we turn away from the charismatic leader to embrace the more humble people interested in others and their organizations? (See Jim Collins on Level 5 leaders in *Good to Great,* especially Chapter 2 "Level 5 Leadership")

The White Paper issued by the PR Coalition, "Restoring Trust in Business: Models for Action," recommends the following actions that in pursuing transparency, corporations:

- Create a process for transparency and disclosure
- Set social and environmental performance targets
- Engage stakeholders in dialog on transparency
- Monitor external environment, understand and respond
- Form a disclosure committee
- Publish corporate governance policies on the website
- Address issues of public concern
- Address tough questions, such as CEO compensation
- Conduct a "culture audit"

Key Study Insight (6) The age gap between managers and employees – which is growing – must factor into planning. Managers are getting older, over 60% are over 45 (See Figure 1). More executives are male (See Figure 7), however this trend bears watching in future studies since gender of corporate communication executives has remained relatively evenly distributed. A large majority of corporate executives in charge of public affairs and employee communication (internal and external) are between 40 and 55 years of age. The workforce they manage is overwhelmingly younger. A "generation gap" exists, but can be mitigated by applying the basic communication process, by conducting an audience analysis, and by focusing on the

concerns of the workforce. Even though as we observed in previous studies, members of the contemporary workforce have been told since high school, and by parents and elders, that corporate life is not forever and no job has a guarantee. It is no surprise that in the expanding economy before 2001, they practiced enlightened self-interest. With the souring of the job market many have experienced for the first time the loss of employment of their parent's generation. (Figures 1, 7 – 9).

Key Study Insight (7) Media relations is more complex than ever. Our respondents continue to note that in a 24/7/365 environment with scores of media outlets from newspapers to broadcast to the Internet, relationships with the media are no longer a matter of contacting a few old friends over a leisurely lunch. Each channel, each reporter demands a professional relationship built on credibility. The concept of "embedded reporters" in the Fortune 500 was mentioned as a consideration for the future practice. Many companies currently have industry analysts almost in residence.

Key Study Insight (8) The company is expected to be a good citizen ***and*** make money. The business case is a simple one – the license to operate is either granted or revoked by the society you are in.

Key Study Insight (9) Corporate citizenship among leading corporations drives communication within the corporation, breaking silos so finance, marketing, manufacturing, the CEO, corporate communication, public affairs have a dialog. A stronger dialog with stakeholders about what a corporation believes and what it values so it can close the gaps between beliefs and performance Even before the wave of scandals – Enron, Tyco, Adelphia, that followed hard on the attack on the World Trade Center in the Fall of 2001, corporations had by default taken on a greater role in solving many of the ills of society in the wake of diminished power among almost all power structures in our society – religion, government, the family. Social problems – substance abuse, sexual harassment, child care, elder care – have fallen to the corporations by default. As a management best practice, corporate citizenship activities drive communication within the corporation, breaking silos so finance, marketing, manufacturing, the CEO, corporate communication, public affairs have a stronger dialog with stakeholders about what a corporation believes and what it values so it can close the gaps between beliefs and performance.

Current best practice for corporate communication and corporate citizenship activities includes a corporation's attitude toward resources, the environment, and the community. In most of Europe, "Sustainability" is the term. The same concepts are known in the U.K as the triple bottom line – environmental, social, and economic success. Sustainability as a concept is relatively new to the financial community, but it is now becoming a mainstream trend, for example – Dow Jones Sustainability Index (launched in 1999) and the Zurich-based SAM (Sustainable Asset Management) and the web portal <<sdgateway.net>> (Sustainable Development Communications Network); and the journal *Tomorrow – Global Sustainable Business* published in Stockholm. (Note 1)

Key Study Insight (10) Company will have a crisis; prepare for the ones you can't conceive of. In the aftermath of the attack on the world trade center in September 2001, companies are considering the unthinkable in their crisis planning. One of site visits revealed the creation of a corporate website that employees can use in the event a disaster of any kind obliterates critical facilities and people. Such a plan would allow the rapid location and status of all employees in time of disaster, and well as the ability to keep critical business functions operational.

Key Study Insight (11) Reputational Management is gaining ground as a driving philosophy behind the practice of corporate public relations; not clear if a trend or a fad, considering the lack of consensus in defining reputation. Reputational risk is the potential that negative publicity regarding an institution's past or present business practices, whether true or not, will cause a decline in the customer base, costly litigation, or revenue reductions. The risk flows from operational failures, as well as failure to comply with laws and regulations. Reputation is a valuable corporate asset that is difficult to achieve, but even more difficult to protect. Multi-nationals and global businesses face growing distrust. Transparency, according to Amy O'Brien of the United Churches of Christ, is the future. (O'Brien, Amy, CCI Briefing on Transparency, 28 November 2001.)

It is also sobering that the fates of Enron and Andersen say something quite chilling about the fragility of corporate reputation. As it was imploding, Enron was, according to *Fortune Magazine* (4 March 2002), one of America's most admired corporations and, according to the *Financial Times* (Skapinker, M., 13 December 2000), one of the world's most respected companies. And students, professors and industry observers have rated Andersen, year after year, as the leading accounting firm in the United States. Reputation has greater value for people unfamiliar with a corporation, but criminal behavior eclipses even the most sterling corporate performance, draining the reservoir of equity that reputation represents. What becomes of intangibles such as a corporate reputation if it is not the hedge against adversity that a strong reputation has been believed to be?

Key Study Insight (12) Writing is still the core skill for Corporate Communication. The Internet has underscored that writing of the highest order is still the major talent required of those who create and send the messages in and from our major corporations. Respondents continue to underscore the importance of writing to the success of any corporate communicator at all level of practice and management.

Some of the findings of our research indicate some changes in how executives communicate at work. Others indicate changes in relationships between managers and the workforce, as well as changes between communication executives and the community their company is in.

Corporate Communication Practices

Responses to the survey questions, interview comments, and site visit interviews and observations revealed the following perspectives on the challenges for the practice of corporate communication in the contemporary business environment:

- Competition and technology drive corporate actions
- Evolving roles and responsibilities require constant attention and continuing education
- Accelerating pace of work raises performance expectations
- Increasing strategic importance of corporate communication
- Corporate communication becoming critically important for individual business units
- Trends articulated: globalization, technology, social responsibility, employee focus, reputation management, transparency
- Core competencies expand to require strategic management thinking and capabilities
- Practitioners are older, smarter, and better paid
- The reality of terrorism and September 11 adds to the complexity of the profession
- Transparency and disclosure laws add to the complexity of the profession

Key corporate communication functions and budget responsibilities

The following are the most common corporate communication functions and budget responsibilities mentioned in the survey (Figures 11 – 32), interviews and site visits:

- Advertising
- Image Building
- Corporate Culture & Change
- Media Relations
- Investor Relations
- International (Global) Communication
- Communication Policy
- Internal Communication
- Communication Technology (Intranet and Internet)
- Crisis Communication
- Corporate Citizenship & Ethics
- Executive Communication Issues – Building a Communication Culture
- Leadership and Communication
- Public Relations

The role that best describes the corporate communication function

In the survey beginning in 2001 we asked the communication executives to rank descriptions from 1-8 in 2001, and from 1 – 12 in 2002 and 2004 that best described the way they thought of the role of corporate communication in their company. Here is the result of the number one ranking from 2001:

Percent of Respondents who RANKED the following functions #1:

20.0 % Manager of company's reputation
15.1% Source of public information about the company
14.1% Manager of relationships (Co. & Key non-customer constituencies)
13.8% Advocate or "engineer of public opinion"
12.4% Manager of the company's image
11.9% Driver of company publicity
11.4 % Manager of relationships – co. & ALL key constituencies
2.7% Support for marketing & sales
8.1% Other

In 2002 four additional options were added: counsel to the CEO & The Corporation; manager of employee relations (internal communication); brand and brand perception steward; and corporate philanthropy (citizenship) champion. Here is the result of the number one ranking from 2002:

Percent of Respondents who RANKED the following functions #1:

21.6% Counsel to the CEO & the Corporation (*new-2002*)
18.0% Manager of company's reputation
15.3% Manager of employee relations (internal comm.) (*new-2002*)
12.6% Source of public information about the company
12.6% Manager of relationships – co. & NON-customer constituencies
9.9% Manager of the company's image
8.1% Driver of company publicity
7.2% Manager of relationships – co. & ALL key constituencies
7.2% Advocate or "engineer of public opinion"
6.3% Branding & brand perception steward (*new-2002*)
4.5% Support for marketing & sales
2.7% Corporate philanthropy (citizenship) champion (*new-2002*)
0.9% Other

And here is the result of the number one ranking from 2003:

Percent of Respondents who RANKED the following functions #1:

18.4% Manager of company's reputation
17.5% Counsel to the CEO & the Corporation (*new-2002*)
14.6% Advocate or "engineer of public opinion"
10.7% Manager of relationships – co. & NON-customer constituencies
9.7% Manager of the company's image
8.7% Source of public information about the company
7.8% Manager of relationships – co. & ALL key constituencies
5.8% Driver of company publicity
5.8% Branding & brand perception steward (*new-2002*)
3.9% Manager of employee relations (internal comm.) (*new-2002*)
1.9% Support for marketing & sales
1.9% Other
1.0% Corporate philanthropy (citizenship) champion (*new-2002*)

With the addition of the new options, the top two roles for the last two years are manager of the company's reputation and counsel to the CEO and the Corporation. The trend toward this description of the role of corporate communication among top communication officers appears to be emerging.

Interview questions

At the end of the survey respondents are give the option to check a box if they are interested in participating in an interview. Eight open-ended questions are sent by e-mail – an offer is extended to have a telephone interview or send return e-mail. Here are the questions:

- The three or four critical issues in corporate communication
- Importance of Corporate Communication to – YOU; the CEO
- Top three trends in corporate communication in companies
- Trends unique to the industry you are in
- Downsizing; growing; restructuring; streamlining the corporate communication function
- Core Competencies:
  - for individual practitioners;
  - for the corporation as a whole
  - Internet Responsibility – CC, IS
  - Here are some verbatim results from those interviews grouped by issues:

Impact of terrorism:

"No substantive way – we've issued some travel security messages, included the potential for terrorism into crisis plans."
"More interest in crisis communications. More interest in addressing employee safety concerns."
"Huge increase in employee communications re: safety issues, national alerts. (finance)"
"We have increased monitoring, yet we still do not have a handle on a terrorism threat in any way other than our existing crisis response plan. (restaurant)"
"It has had a substantial impact on the hotel industry forcing us to be more forthcoming with our security procedures."

***Impact of terrorism – Energy*:**

"More media questions regarding nuclear plant safety."
"Because we have four nuclear sites the increased attention has precipitated increased media interest."
"Much more attention to crisis communications planning. Much greater media relations and government relations workload and advertising as well, because we are the second largest US nuclear company."

***Transparency*:**

"Greater interaction with Corporate Legal. New Governance and regulatory affairs executive to interact with."
"We no longer write internal communications for just employees – we write all messages with the knowledge that they will be read by the world."
"Greater administrative burden due to Sarbanes-Oxley, etc."
"More discussion of financial reporting format used. More focused preparation for quarterly results conference calls."
"Additional sustainability reporting and corporate governance."
"In the interest of transparency, we have recently added a corporate governance section to our corporate web site."
"Transparency of what? Don't understand the question."
"Apparently not at all since I am unfamiliar with the term "transparency."

Capabilities:

"There's a greater expectation for the CC function to contribute to business success."
"Communication is an important part of our company's business plan."

Strategy:

"Corporate communication seems to have been transformed from an after-the-fact discretionary function to an instrument for company success. Indeed, communication now seems to be part of the answer to every problem (whether it really is or not)."

Value:

"CEO must believe in communication to be successful. I'm the person who executes our strategy."
"Public interest in participating in business decisions has never been greater, creating more challenges for communications."
"Never more critical, challenging. Seat at the table is a given – what you do is critical to success."

Internal:

"No debate on having a place at the table. Bar is raising on quality, impact and use of technology. Internal is recognized as equal to other communication disciplines."

Reputation:

[In contrast to last year (2002), no specific comment on reputation management.]

Integrity:

"More business executives understand that effective public relations is about informed decision-making rather than manipulation of public opinion."
"We have always been highly ethical but are in an industry – utilities – tainted by Enron. Have to work harder to communicate our ethics internally and externally."

Observations from site visits

Two corporations were selected from the Financial Services Sector because the major issues of transparency, terrorism, and rebuilding trust are more focused and central to daily operations and long term strategy in that sector, as opposed to other industry sectors. With billions in billings and assets under management; complex organizations in an industry sector under pressure and under siege should offer insight into current practices and future trends.

Briefly, the chief corporate communication officer in both have taken steps to earn credentials in the business – one a lawyer, the other an actuary – so that they could have credibility in material discussions with other company executive. Both explained their actions by saying that a communication executive must know the business to bring value to the company.

Constant reorganization, intense competitive market forces, economic and productivity pressures, result in the corporation asking the corporate communication executives to do more with less, and leverage technology to multiply the impact of the labor force.

The impact of 9/11 and terrorism created the need for more crisis planning. The executive in charge of the company intranet described the creation of a shadow website for employees around the country and off-shore locations to check in and do work if substantial resources in facilities and people are destroyed or rendered without the capacity to function.

The combination of crisis planning and transparency regulations has elevated the corporate communication function. The result has been greater influence on executive decision making because of a valued seat at the strategic corporate table.

Issues that surfaced in the interviews need to be monitored

Many corporate communication executives are concerned with the impact of war. Many have had to deal with direct protest, company and product boycotts, "Transaction costs" of heightened security, American businesses as global targets, strained business relationships globally are issues that are of growing concern, particularly to the larger multinational and global corporations. The communication challenge of operating in such a hostile business environment demands focused attention.

And another issue that concerned many of our corporate communication executives was the Nike vs. Kasky case. The case brought the debate between First Amendment free speech and "commercial speech" to the forefront, only to be put on hold by U.S. Supreme Court's returning the case to the California Court. Certainly the issue will return and also bears monitoring.

When all is said and done

The challenge for corporate communication professionals and scholars is:

- to regain the trust of the workforce and the general public;
- to communicate sustainability efforts continuously and clearly;
- to make transparency a reality as a means to demonstrate trustworthiness through behavior;
- to over comply with the rules – begin to see rules as a minimum for the license to operate (just as high tech manufacturing seeks six sigma as a standard of excellence to reach for);
- to foster an independence of mind on the part of directors and analysts;
- and, in the light of an instantaneous 24/7 media environment, to remind the press of its journalistic integrity to get the facts right, at the expense of a "get it first" mentality.

The systemic flaws in our system have been apparent to some for years, that corporate obfuscation breeds trouble, that a buoyant economy is a forgiving one, and that difficult economic times can force us to confront – and change – the elements of our system that benefit the few at the expense of the many. And so, if anything, recent events may encourage us to focus seriously on transparency as a key element of reputation both national and corporate.

On the corporate level, the issues are not altogether different. Corporations, after all, have an obligation to provide willingly to shareholders and other stakeholders the information they need to make decisions. The act of clear and honest communication is essential to building, maintaining, or restoring a relationship of trust.

Notes

1. The text is based on a series of speeches and lectures on corporate citizenship and reputation first given as the keynote speech on 24 September 2002 at a joint Corporate Communication Institute (CCI) and National Investor Relations Institute (NIRI) conference. It has since been presented at a meeting of the PR Coalition, an Association of National Advertisers (ANA) Corporate Communication Committee meeting, an annual meeting of the Insurers Public Relations Council (IPRC), and meetings of several organizations and corporations. Michael B. Goodman (August 2003)

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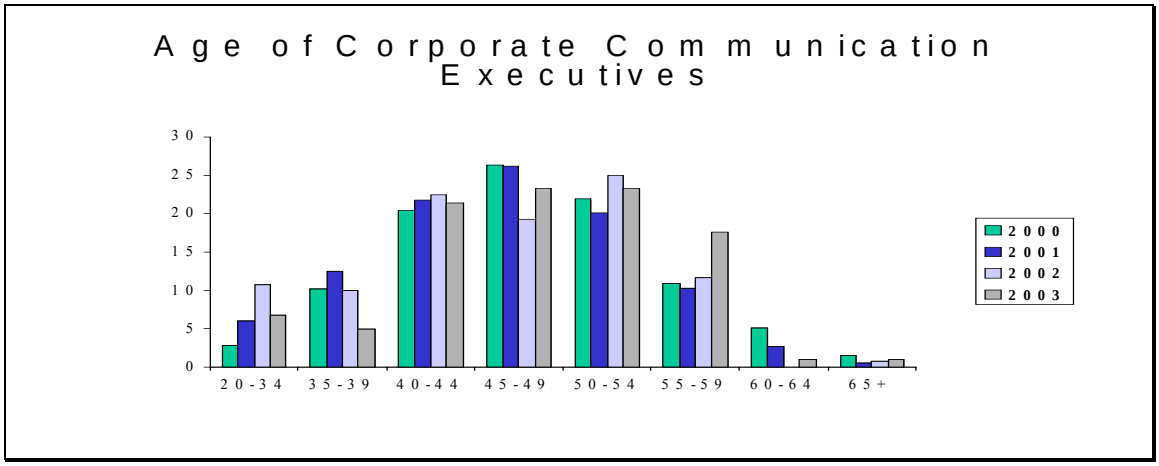

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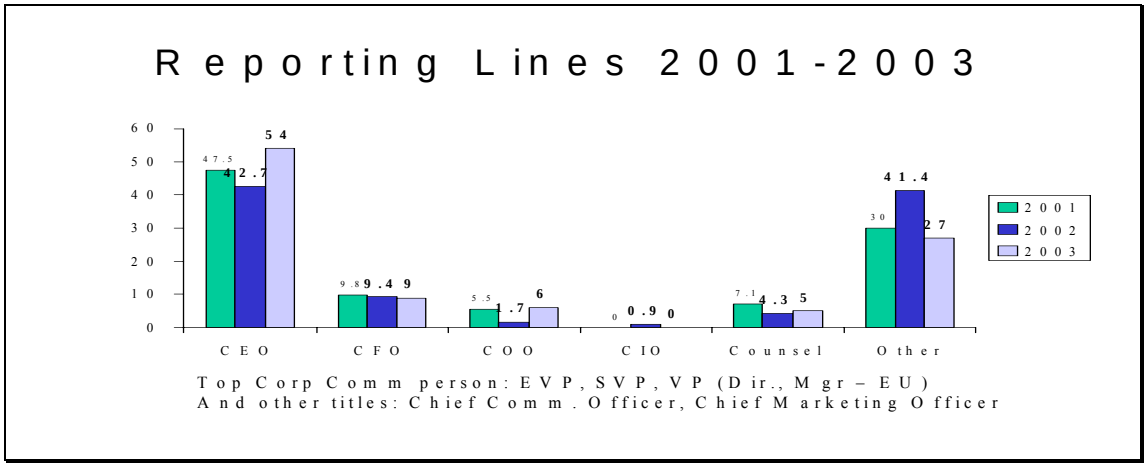

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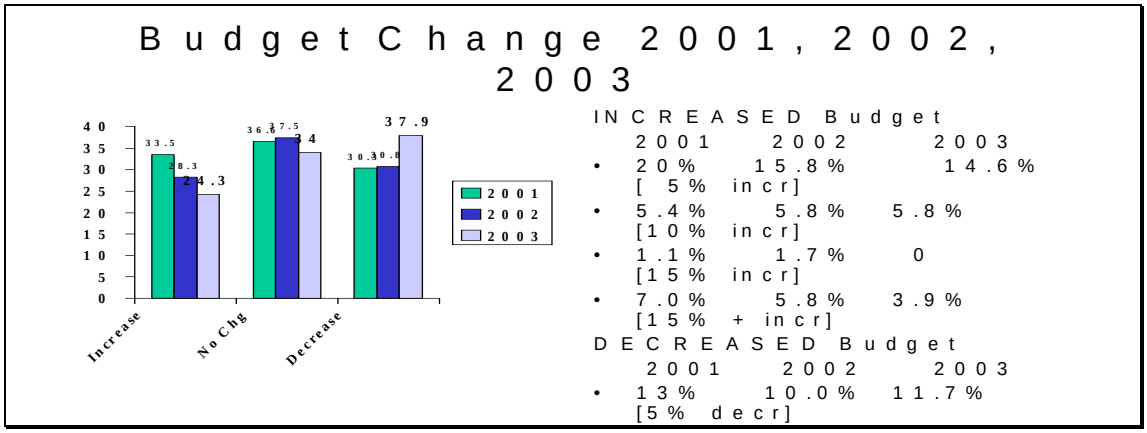

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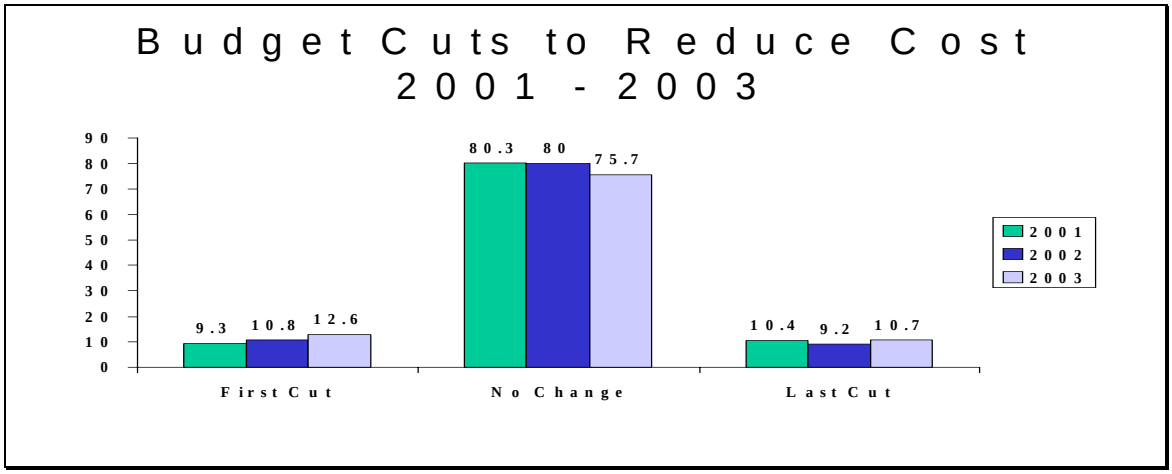

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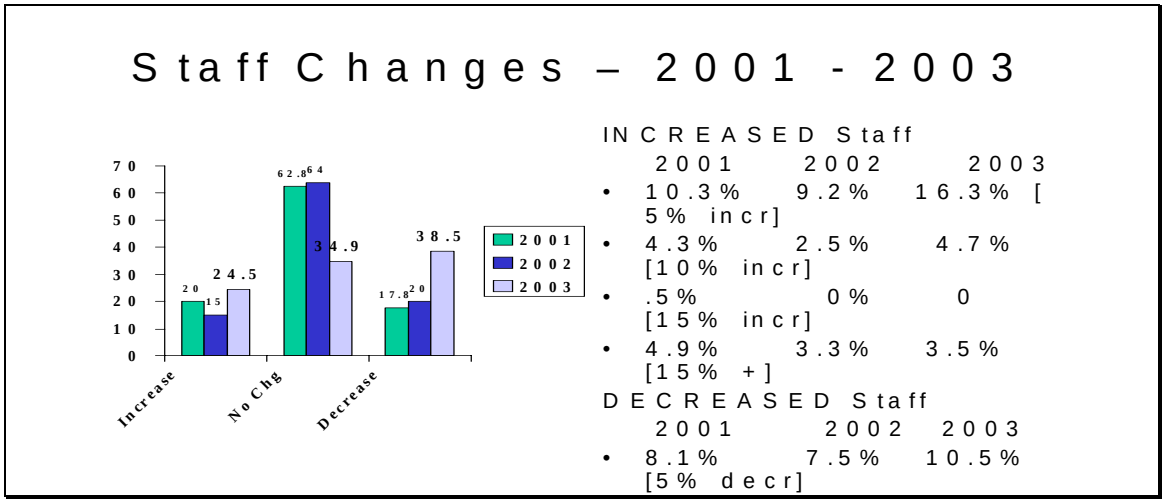

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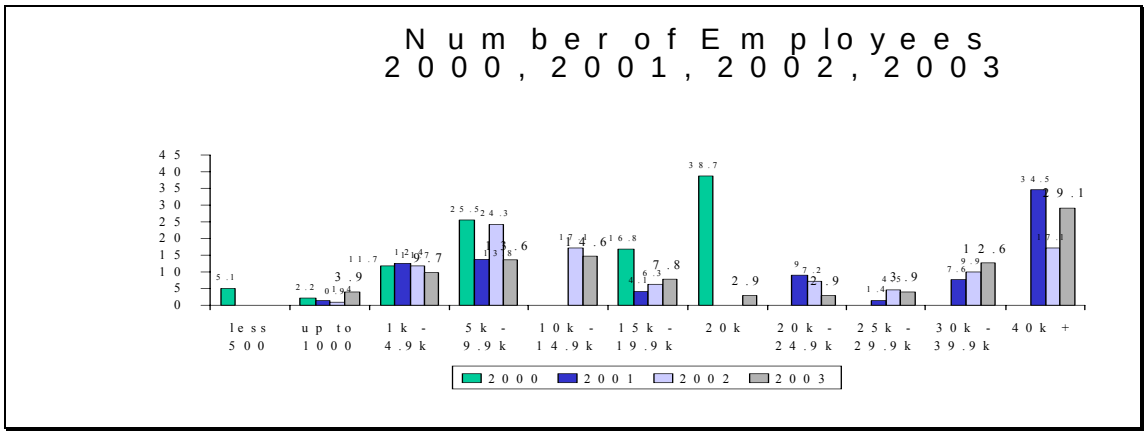

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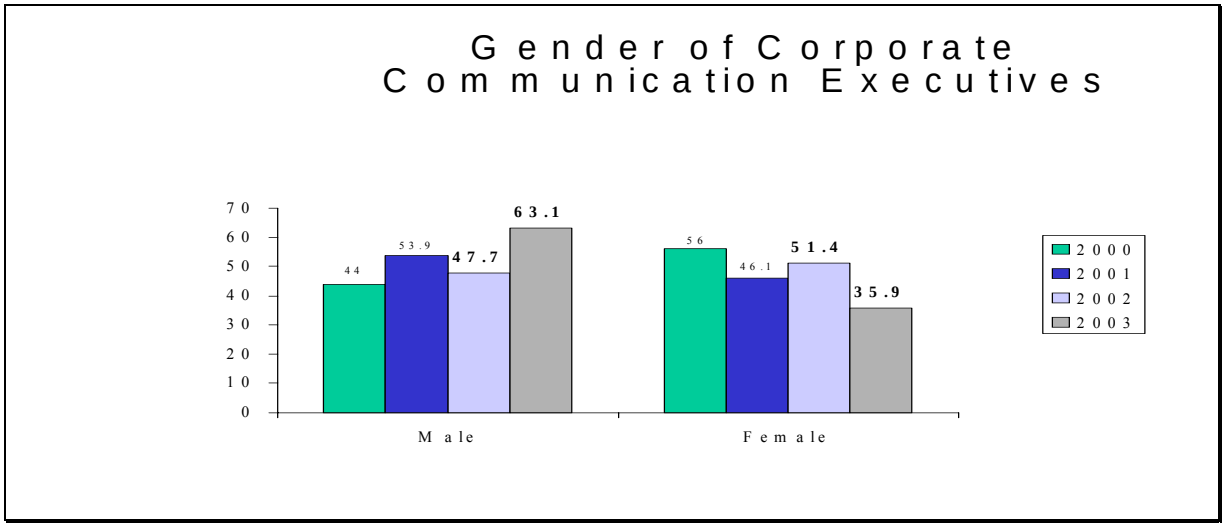

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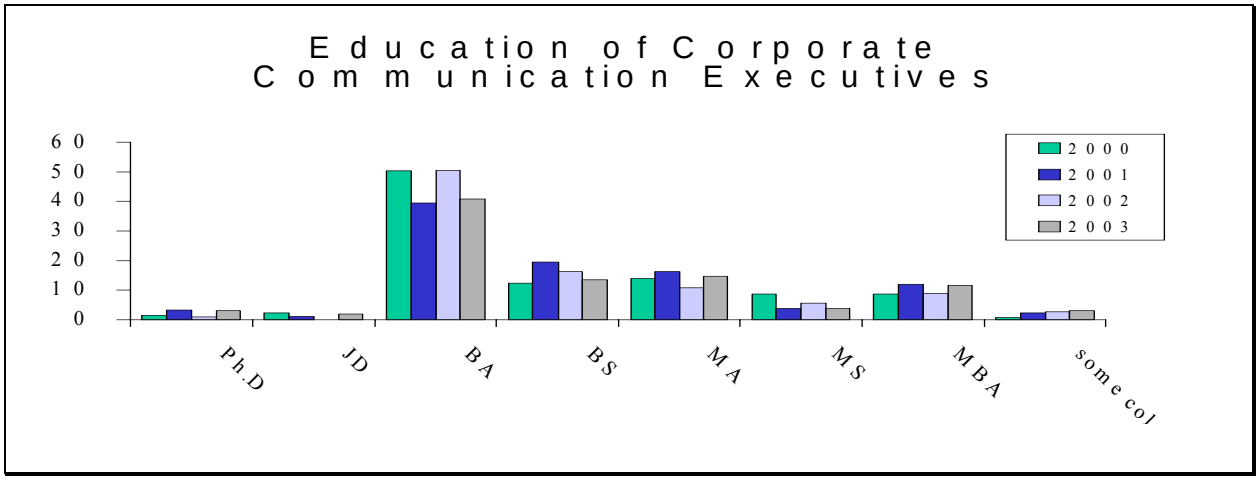

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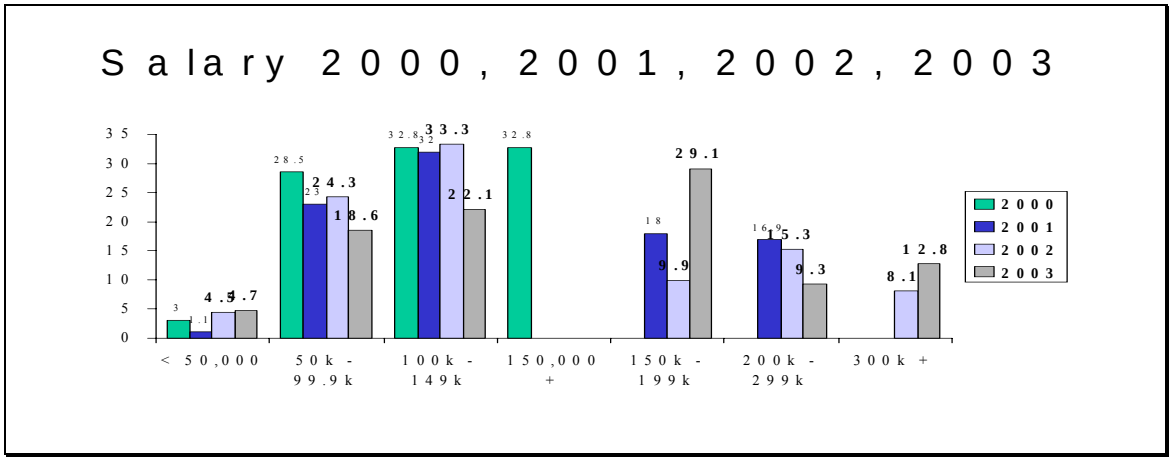

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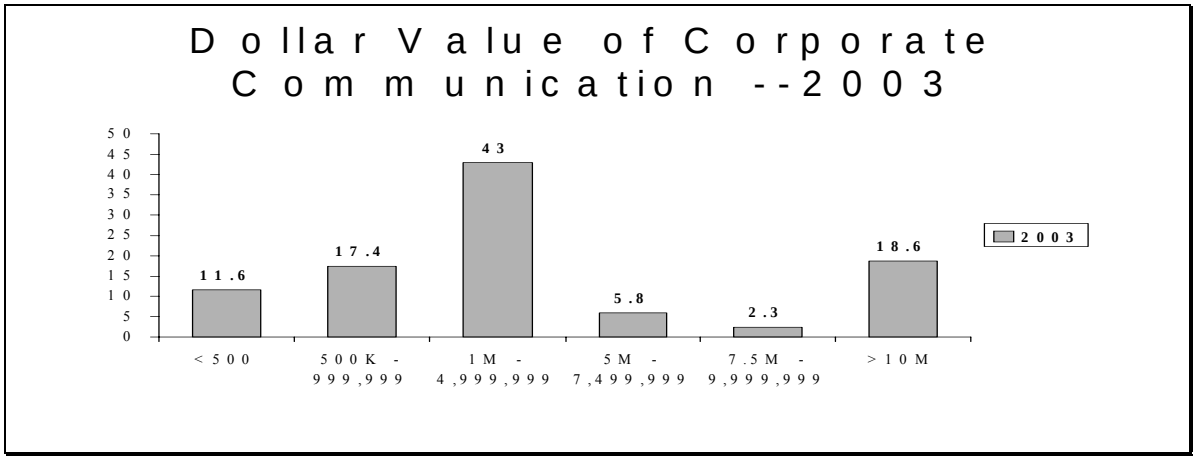

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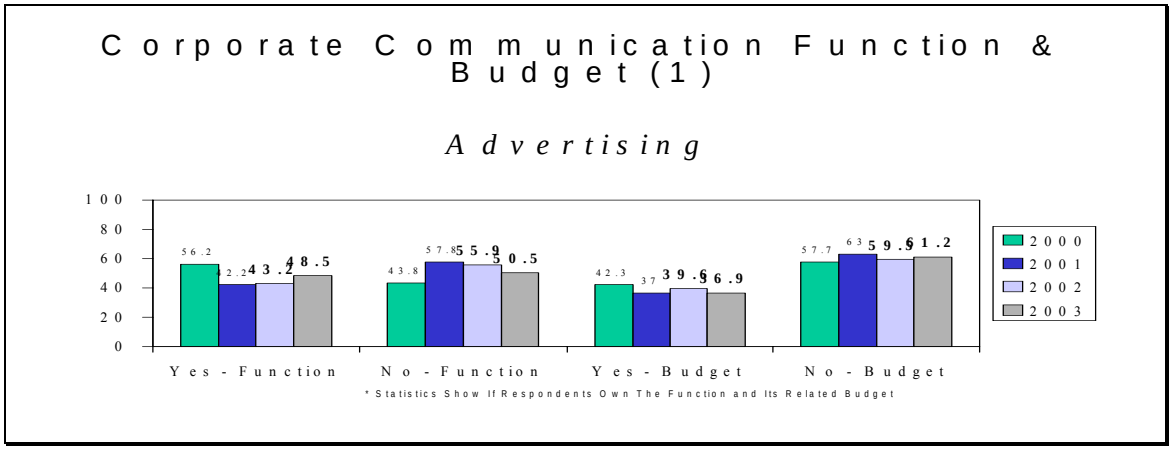

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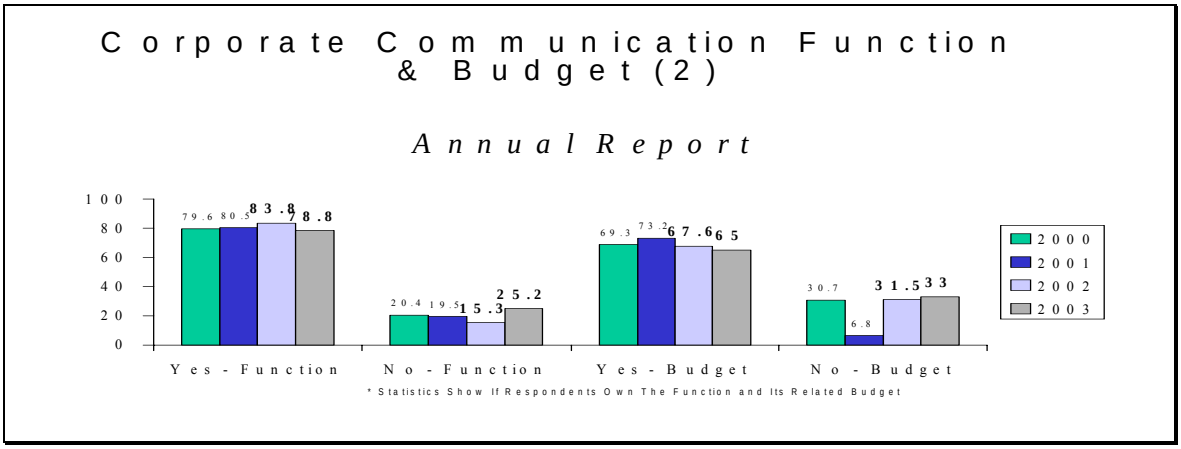

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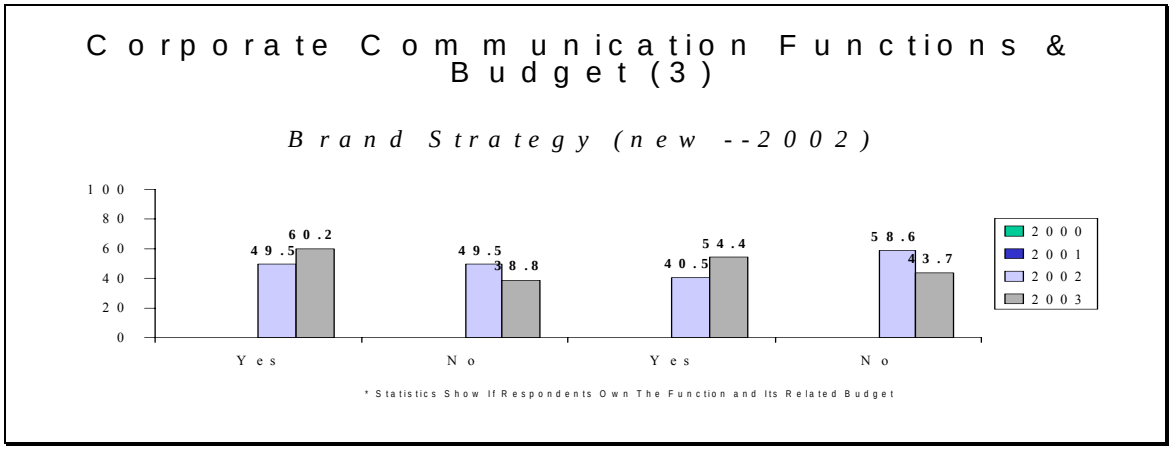

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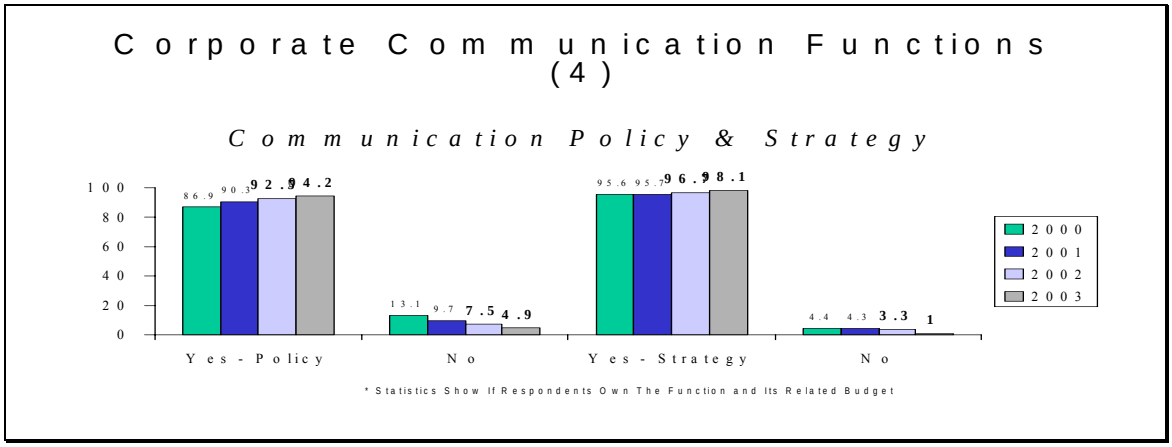

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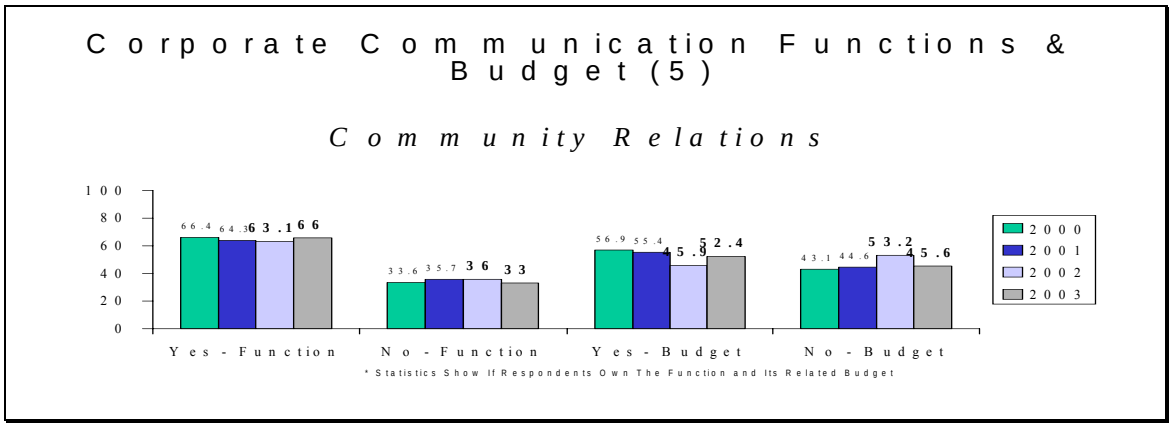

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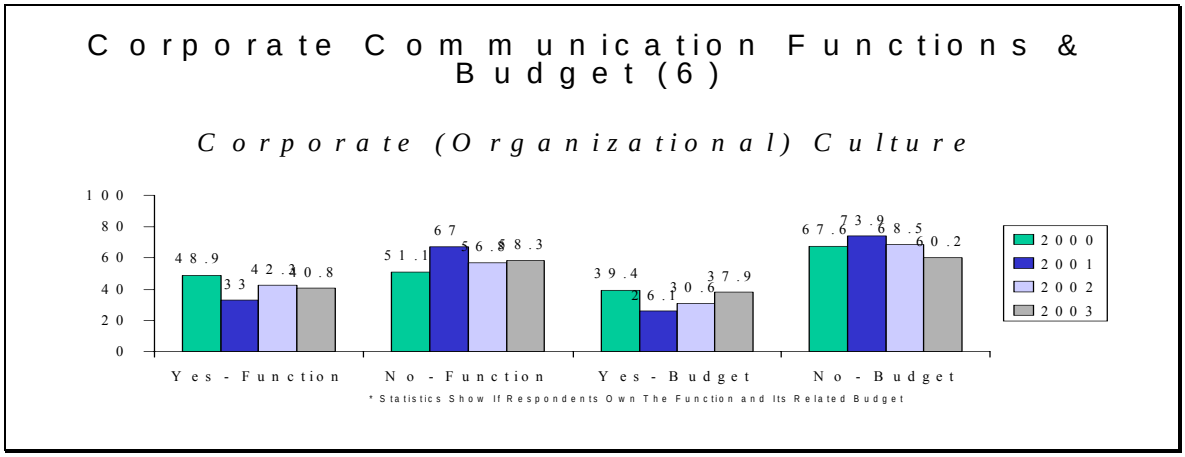

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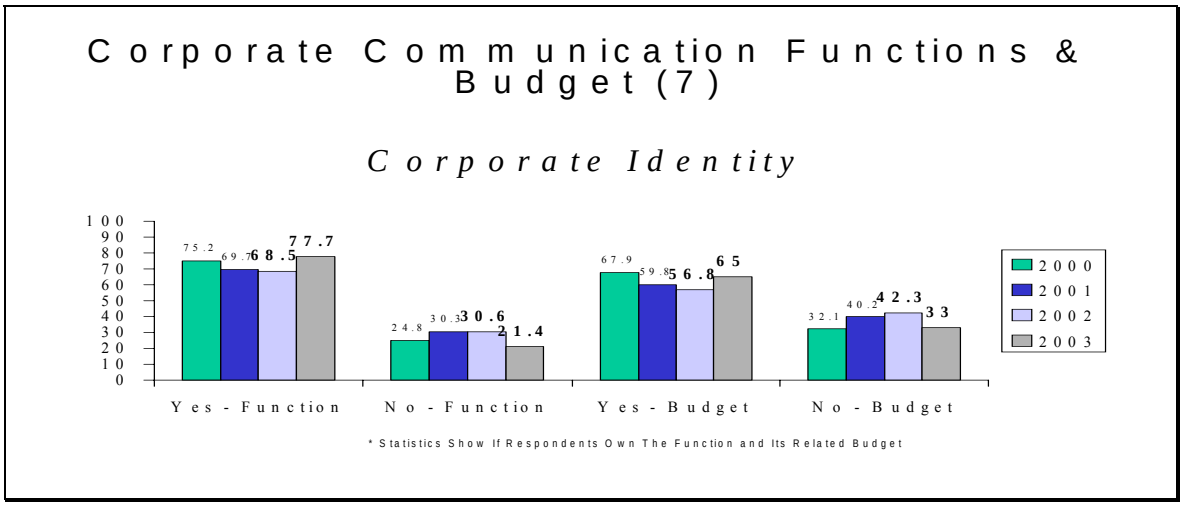

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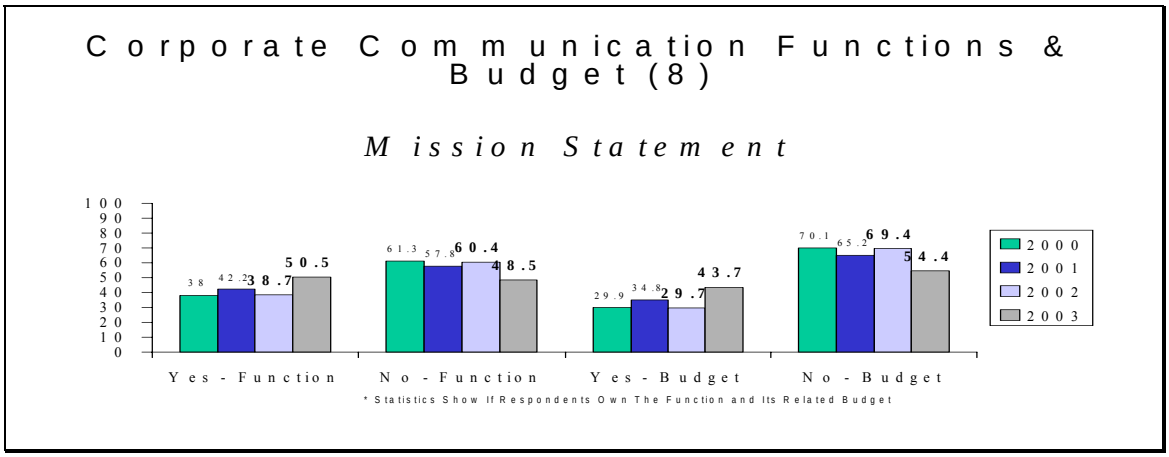

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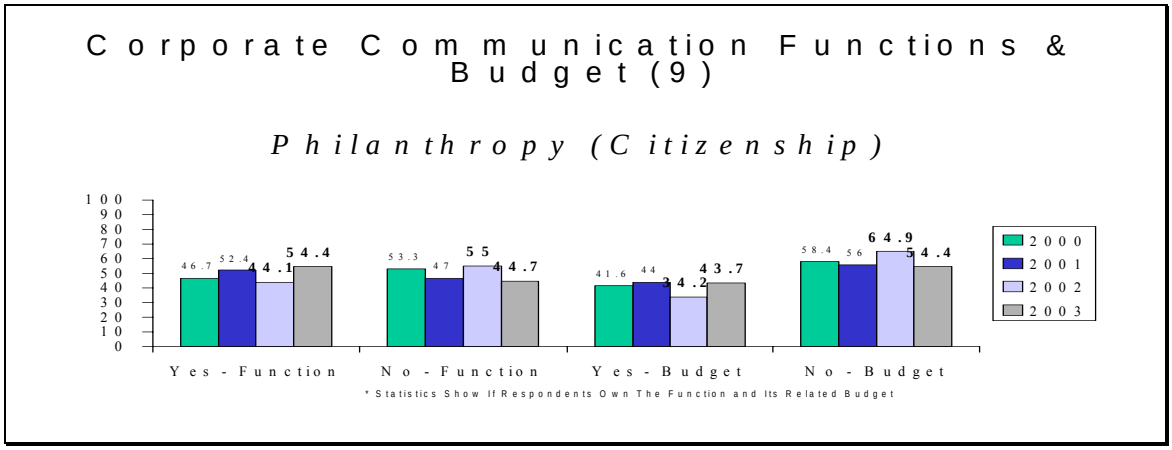

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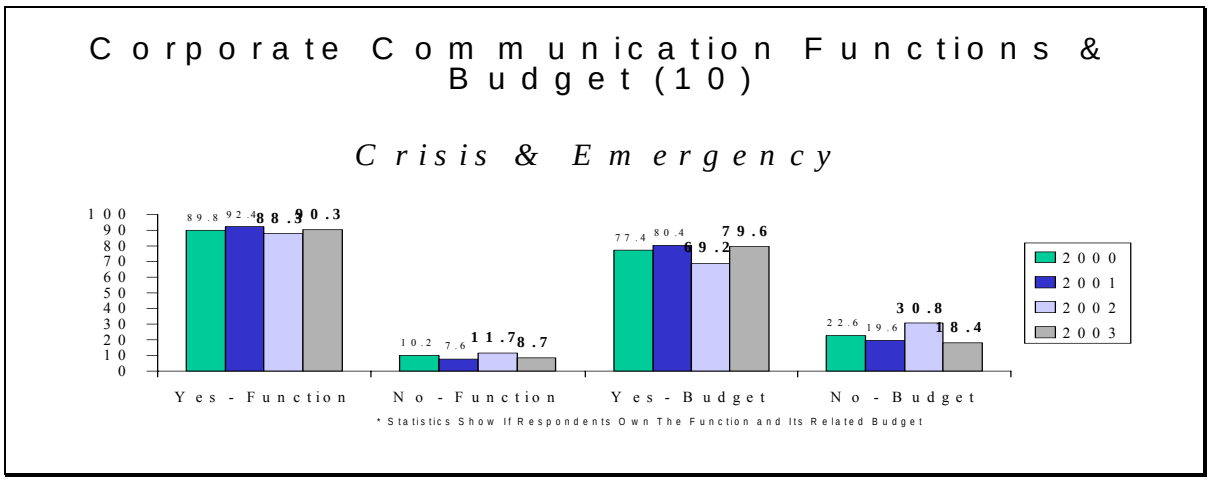

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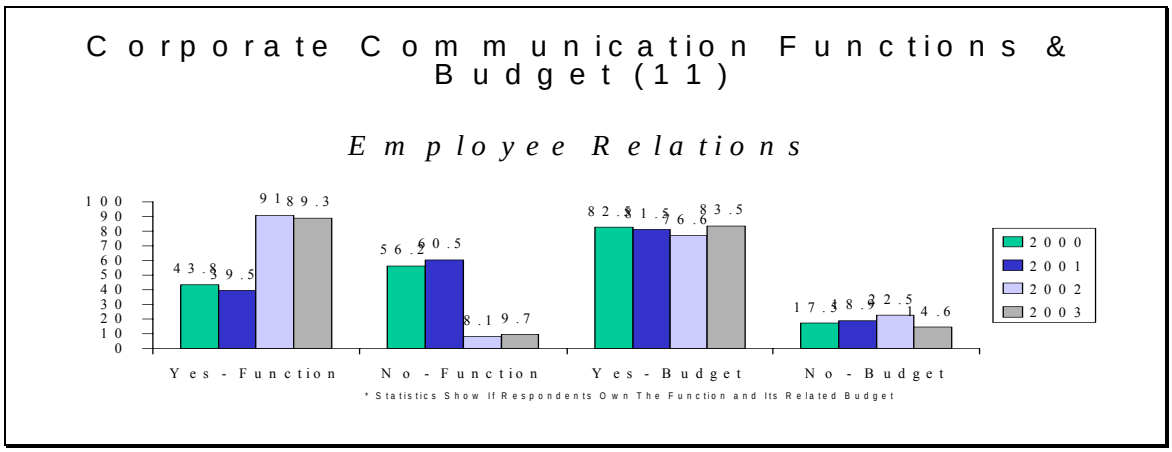

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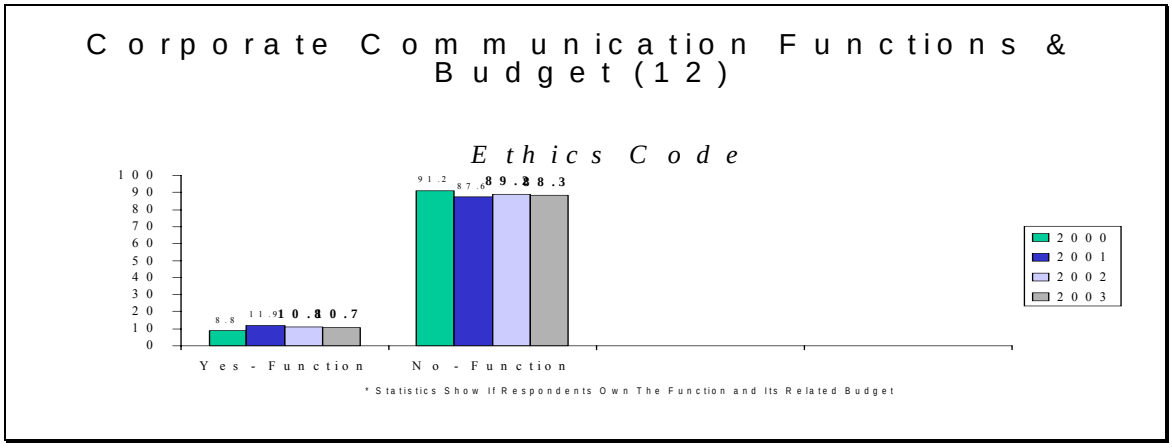

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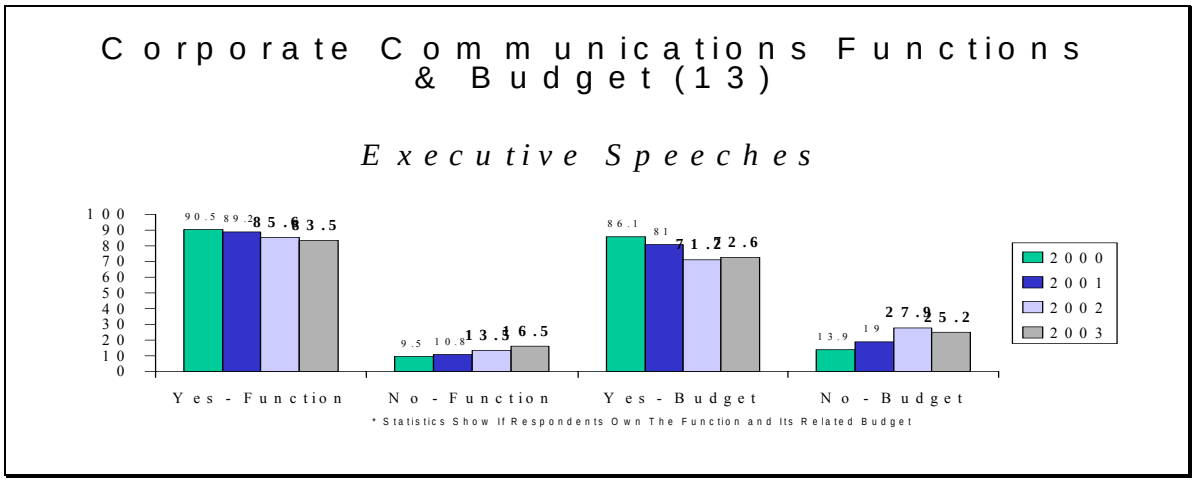

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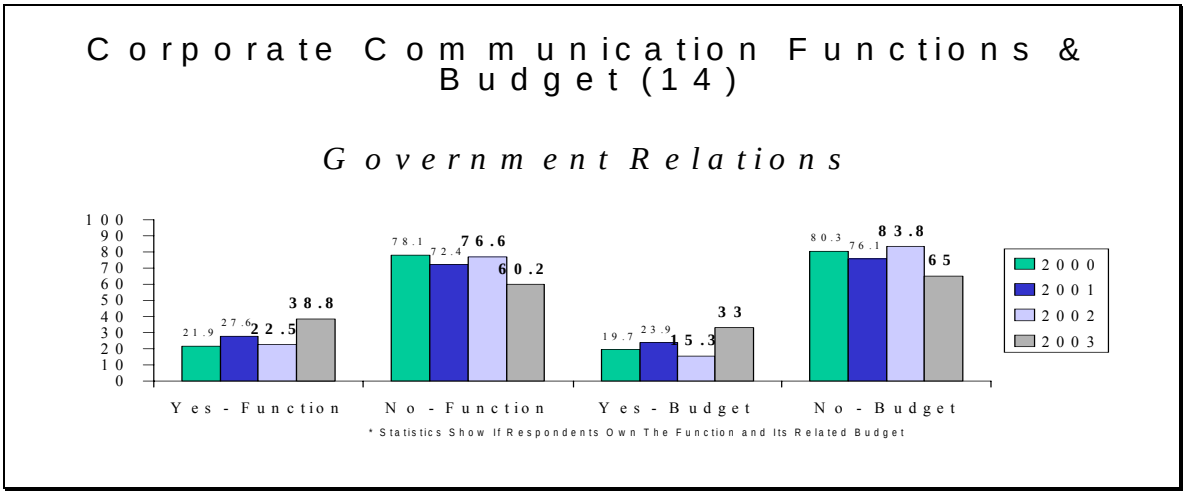

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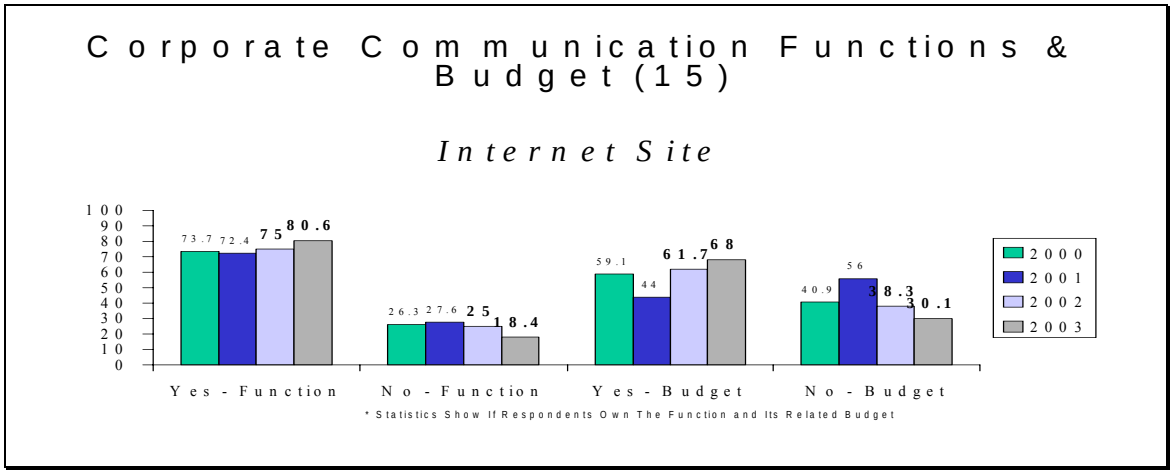

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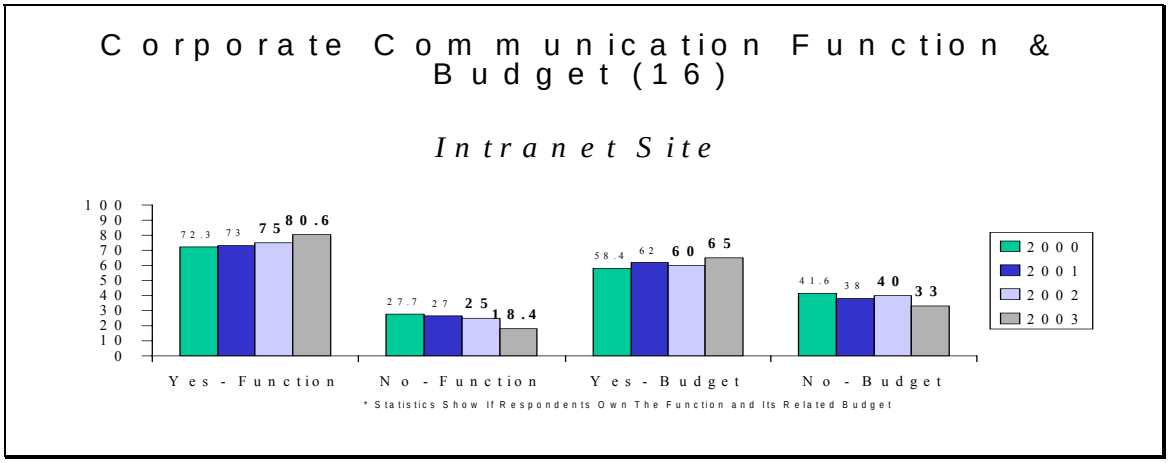

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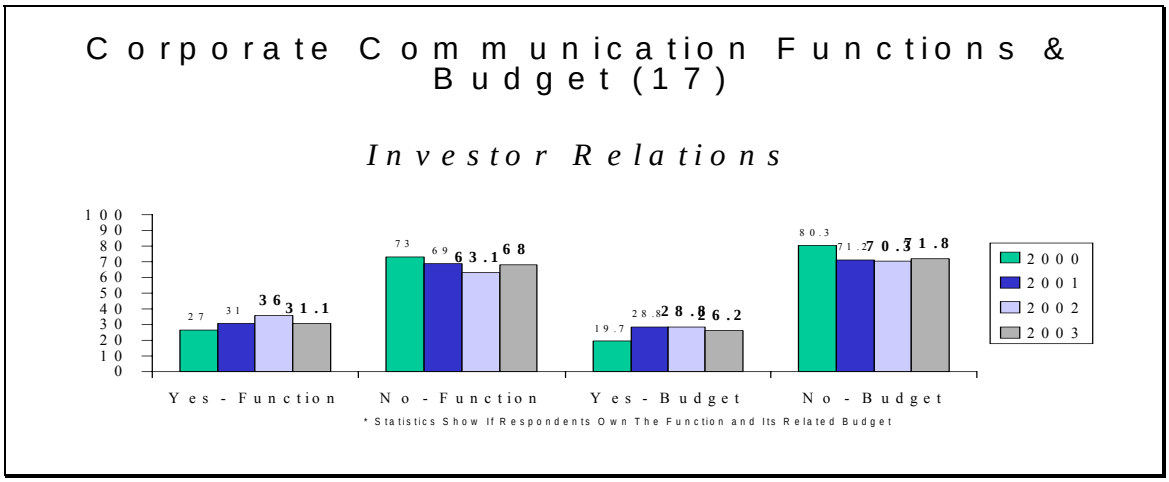

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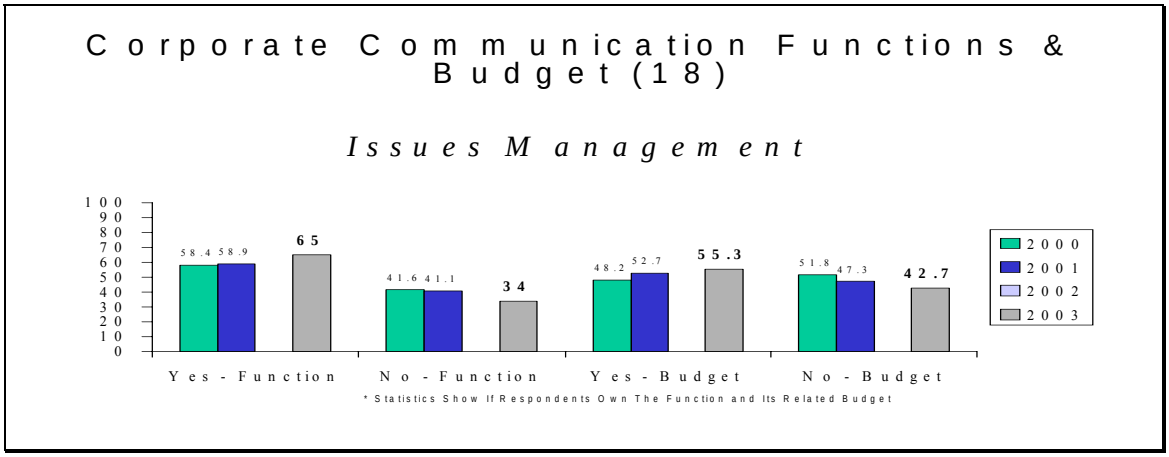

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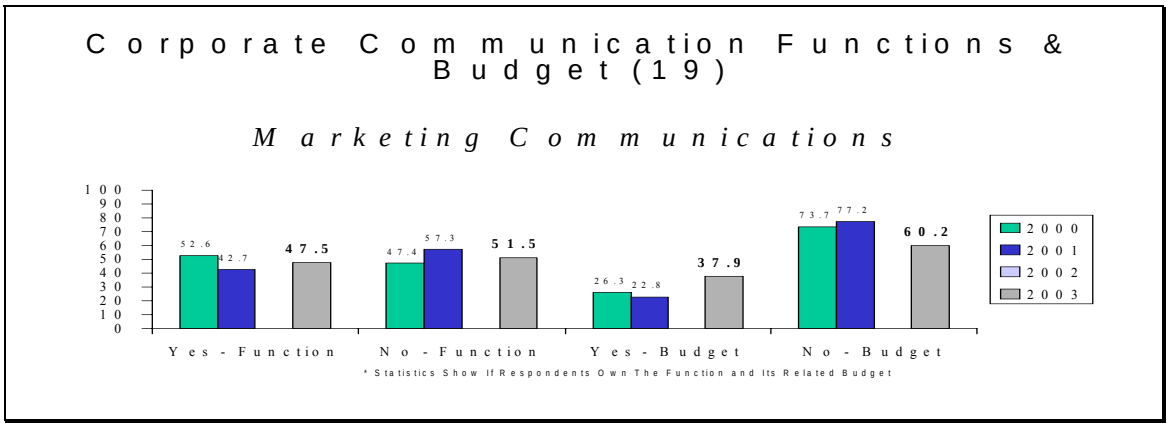

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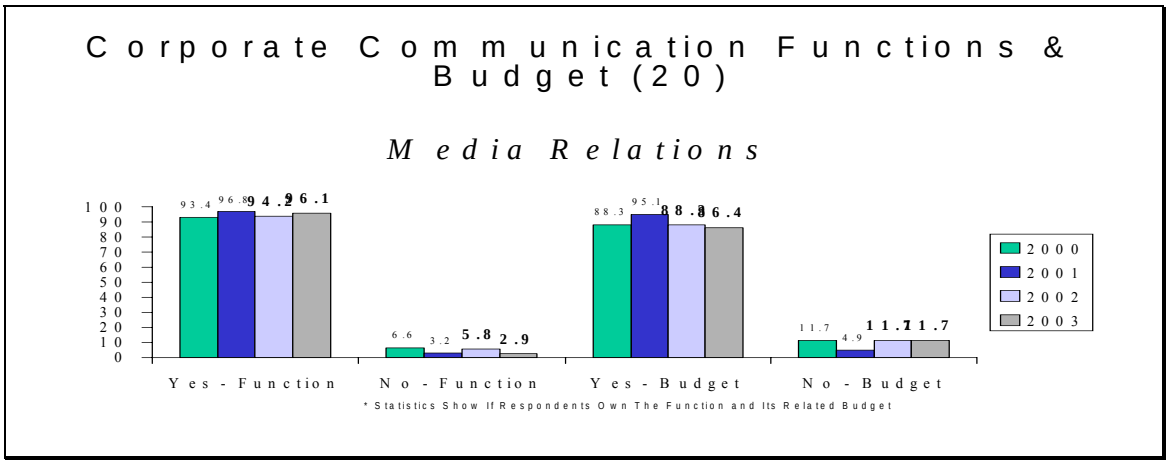

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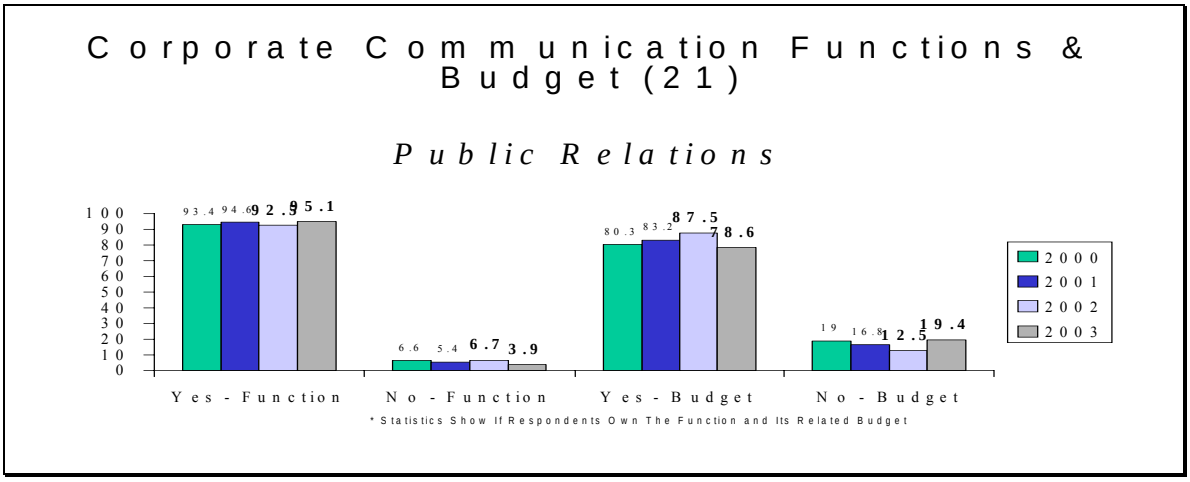

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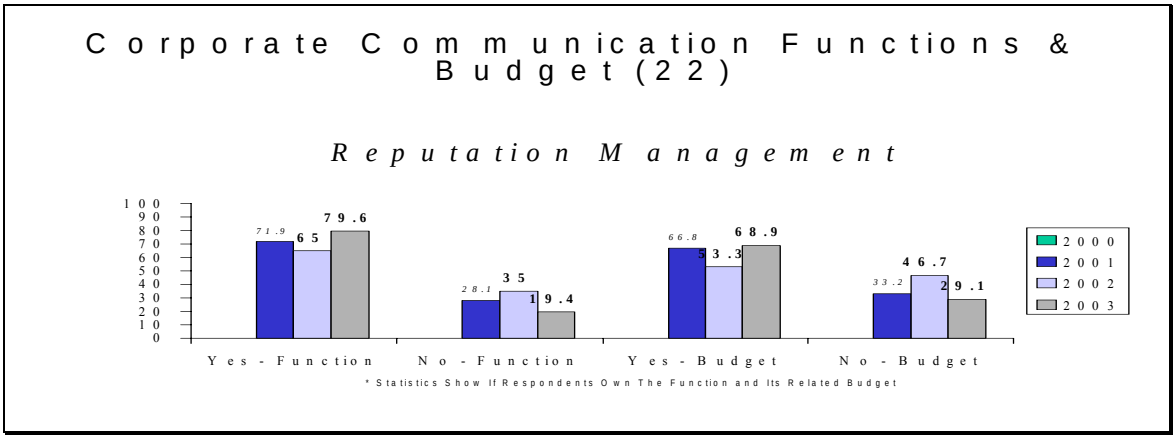

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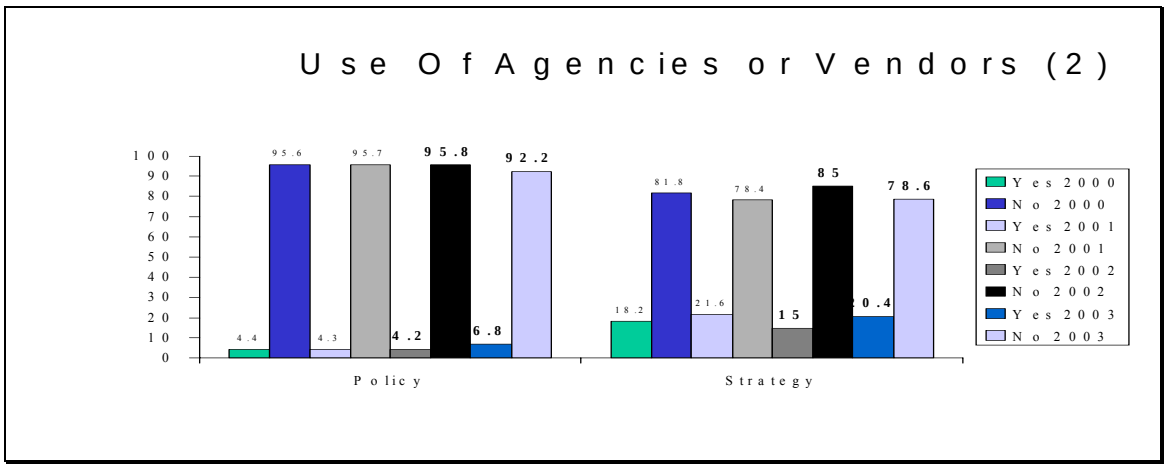

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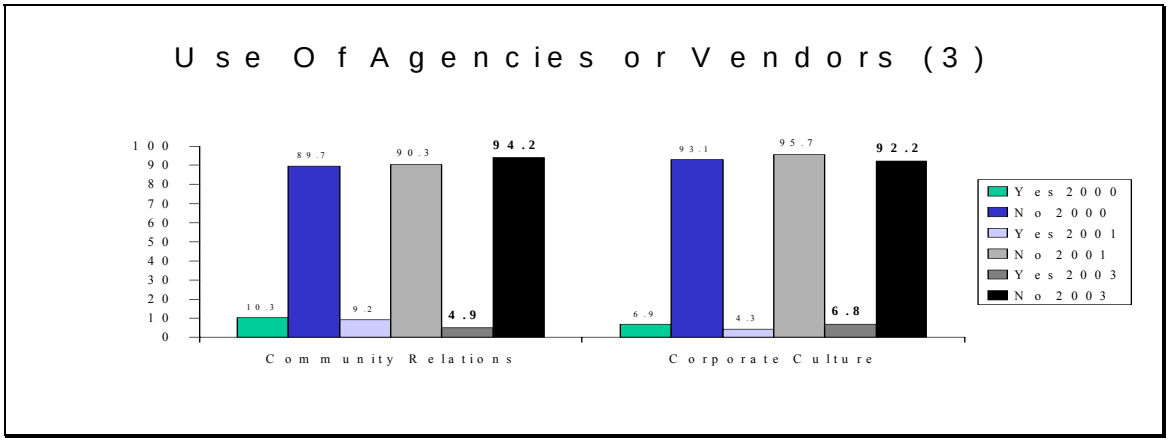

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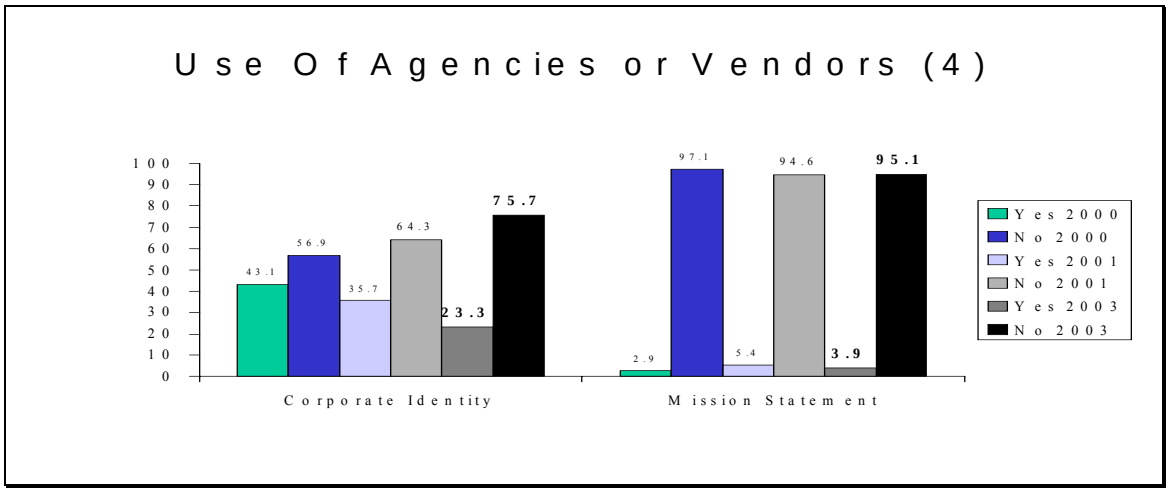

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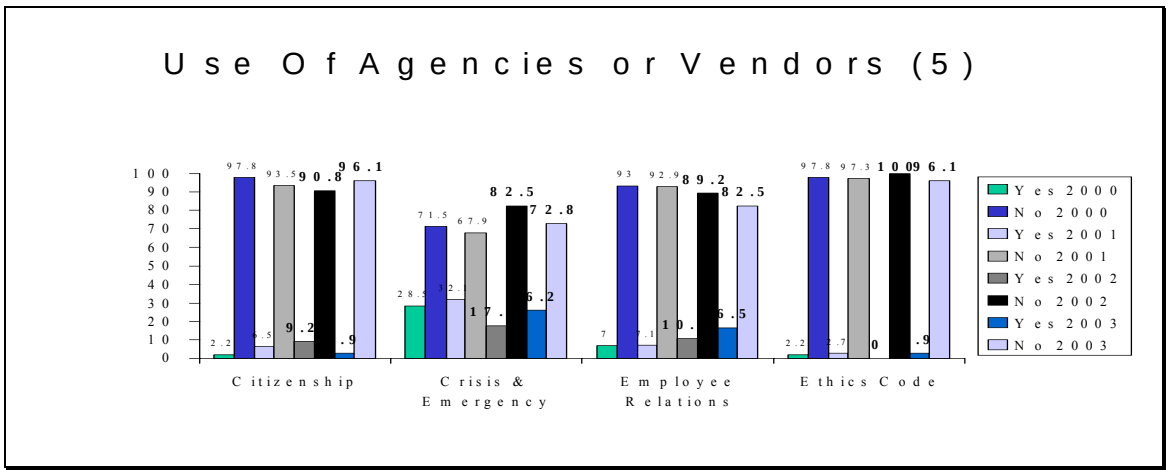

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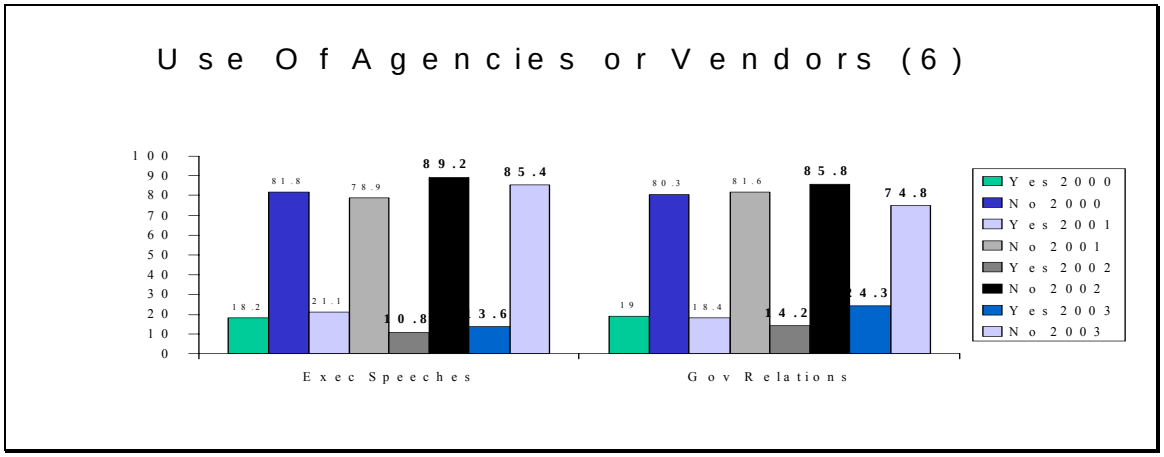

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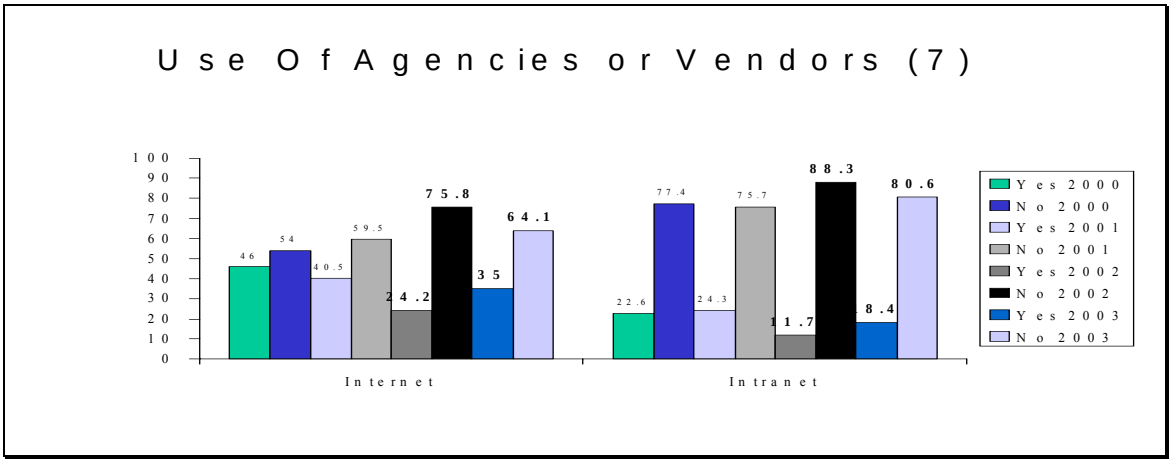

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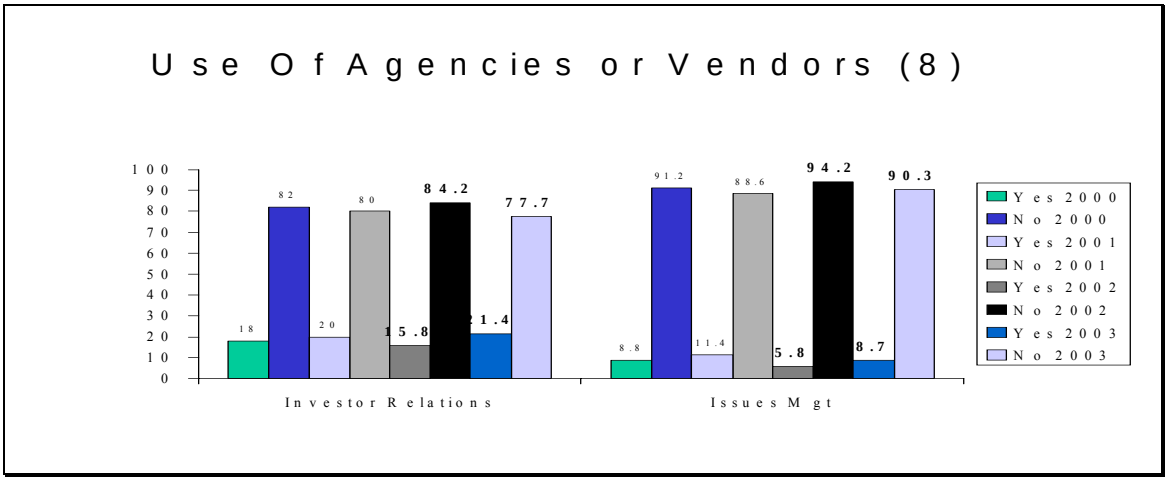

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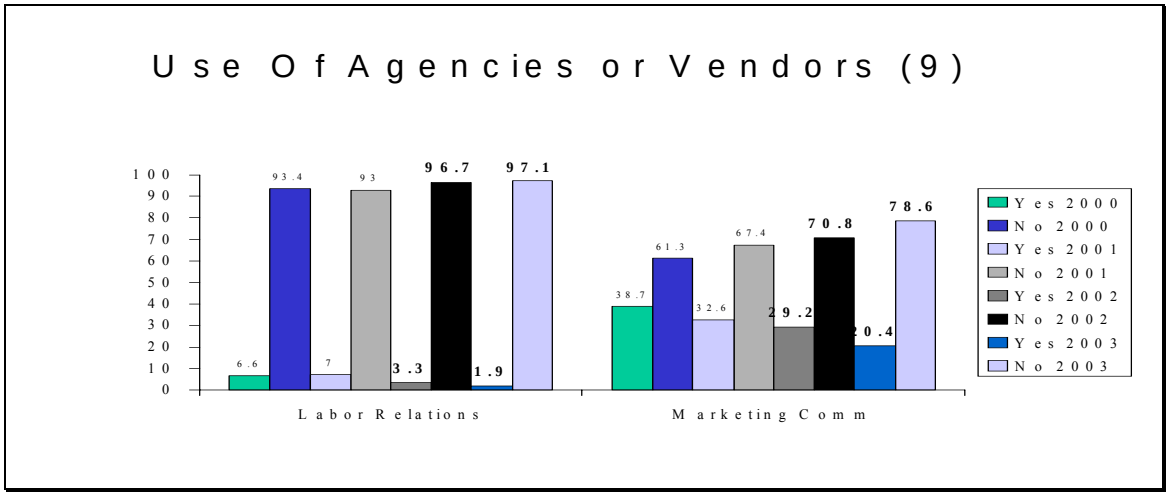

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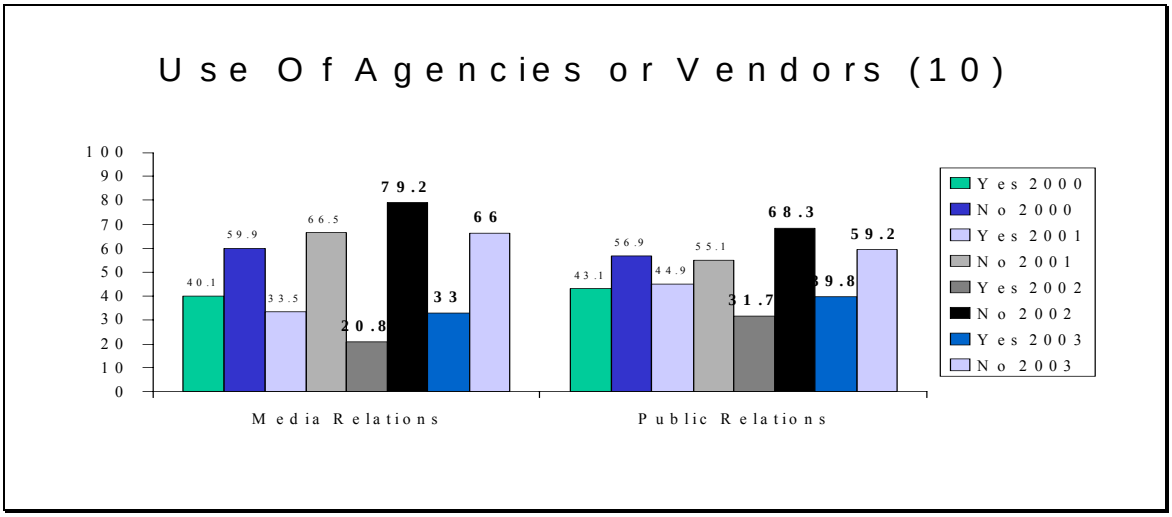

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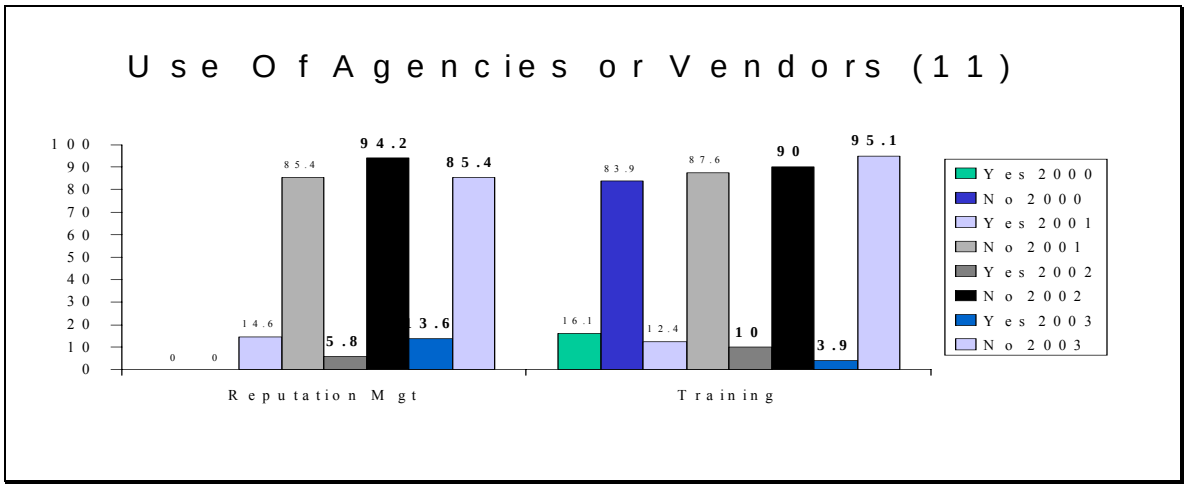

Figure 42. Use of Agencies or Vendors – Reputation Management, Training

Internal Communication Practices May Contribute to Workers' Distrust of Globalization

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U.S. workers increasingly see globalization as a threat, and the inability of companies to communicate effectively on the new workplace realities may be causing added distrust and disloyalty in organizations, according to a research paper by Dr. John Guiniven, Associate Professor of Corporate Communication at Elon University in North Carolina. The paper was delivered to the 7th Annual International Public Relations Research Conference in Miami, FL, March 11-14.

Guiniven interviewed public relations executives at 10 international companies, five of which said they have globalization components in their internal communication programs. Only two are truly strategic, he found. The others merely communicate corporate announcements on such global issues at downsizings, executive appointments, or what the author described as "feel good stories about overseas operations."

Distrust and disloyalty will continue to grow, Guiniven said, unless companies get serious about communicating globalization. That means "recognizing it as a social issue as well as an economic one," and it means communicating "the new social contract." Guiniven found that communication in most organizations has not kept pace with changes in employee relations, thus "words are out of sync with actions – and employees notice that, which hurts credibility and, eventually, productivity."

Another recommendation in the paper is "fixing the problem with top management," specifically the image of CEO's in the wake of corporate scandals. Unless that is done, Guiniven, said, "companies can expect each decision to be met with resistance and cynicism."

Internal Communication Practices May Contribute to Workers' Distrust of Globalization

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Increasingly, American workers are viewing globalization as a threat rather than an opportunity. The promises of economic expansion that accompanied the signing of the North American Free Trade Agreement in 1993 are perceived to have been kept only for those at the top of the economic ladder. For workers in the U.S., there have been jobs lost to Mexico and other lands where labor is cheap. Reactions among workers, including survivors of downsizings, have included decreases in trust and loyalty, increased absenteeism, and added numbers of incidents of tertiary, blind-eye, and actual sabotage in the workplace.

Can communication help?

Interviews with 10 practitioners of internal public relations show a concern for what most of the communicators see as employee misunderstanding of the new economic realities, specifically the impact of globalization on management-employee social contracts and the permanence of the changes that have taken place in the last decade. The 10 practitioners are responsible for employee communication programs at companies that are global in scope – seven are American-owned, while three are the large U.S. subsidiaries of foreign-owned firms. Five of the practitioners have added globalization components to their internal communication programs; two others say they plan to do so.

This paper describes the current workplace situation and, within that context, discusses the need for new educational programs to be part of internal communications in this era of globalization.

Introduction

Globalization is defined as "the international integration of goods, technology, labor, and capital." And it is new only in its scope and its intensity. From the mid-1800s until about 1913, world trade grew in relation to output, according to the International Monetary Fund. It "fell from 1913 to 1950 because of the two world wars and protectionist policies implemented during the Great Depression of the 1930s, and then burgeoned after 1950" (Slaughter & Swagel). Not until the 1970s – fueled by easing of tariffs and quotas and falling transportation costs – did trade as a proportion of output reach the levels of 1900.

This paper is interested in the post-1970 globalization activities and the effects they have had on the American workplace and American workers, specifically to determine whether internal communication is meeting the changing needs of global organizations. The paper is a more or less natural extension of work begun for my dissertation, which (as its title states) centered on *Communicating with the Changing Workforce* (Guiniven 2001), and continued in a paper presented to this conference two years ago – *Downsizing, Loyalty, and the Role of Public Relations* (Guiniven 2002).

In those earlier works, I concentrated on communication as it related to downsizing, which I have come to regard as a planned response to globalization. I traced three eras of employee relations as identified by Gannon, Flood, and Paauwe (1999). The first followed the precepts of Taylor's *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911), which held that employees needed to be coerced to perform at acceptable levels – the man-as-ox era; this scientific approach lasted until about the middle of the last century. Then, based on (and chronicled by) the works of Argyris (1957) and McGregor (1960), a gentler, kinder workplace was created; a behavioral approach was adopted. There was, according to Howell (1994), "an ideological shift in favor of markets in the late 1970s," which coincided with – and both spurred and was spurred by – increased globalization. Companies put aside the behavioral approach to employee relations and replaced it with an economic approach, specifically transaction cost economics (TCE).

Transaction cost economics adopts a comparative contractual approach to the study of organizations in which "the transaction is made the basic unit of analysis and the details of governance structures and human actors are brought under review" (Williamson, 1993, p. 91). Briefly, TCE states that each part of the transaction should be analyzed for the purpose of saving money. No longer is "building a car" the transaction; rather, there are a thousand transactions that comprise that undertaking. If it is less expensive to outsource the bumper, do it; if you can save money by hiring part-time or seasonal workers, do so.

The economic approach fit perfectly with what had become a global economy, which by definition "is one where factors of production – natural resources, capital, technology, and labor – as well as goods and services move around the world." Generally, the movement takes services, goods and natural resources from where they are cheap to where they are expensive and moves production from where it is expensive to where it is cheap.

"Wages rise in countries with low wages and fall in countries with high wages – a process known to economists as 'factor price equalization'" (Thurow, 1996).

Communication

Along with the time-line on approaches to employee relations, I looked at the time-line for employee communication as detailed by Dover (1964). He identified three eras: 1) the era of entertainment that began in the 1940s and was aimed simply at making people feel good about the places they worked; 2) the era of information that rose in the late 1950s when the post-World War II workforce needed to know more about their jobs and the new equipment they were using; 3) the era of persuasion in the late 1960s when employees were recognized as a political force to be used against the growing consumer movement and increased government regulation.

My conclusion then – and one of my conclusions as a result of this current research – was (and is) that communication has not kept pace with organizational changes, remaining mired in an earlier era while the rest of the organization has moved on. For instance, the employee-management relationship has gone from long-term and secure to short-term and contingent; yet, many communication programs continue to carry themes of a bygone era, of a familial relationship that simply does not exist and is unlikely to return.

The need is not for more communication. Petronio (1999) cited one company where 80% of the employees felt communications were "very poor." The company increased the frequency of its traditional communications and two years later the "very poor" rating rose to 83%. Morale and productivity declined as communication increased (p. 10). The need is for more targeted communication, more two-way communication, and more honest communication. That need became obvious after interviewing men and women responsible for internal communication programs at 10 companies deeply involved in and committed to globalization, at least economically.

Methodology

I was familiar with six of the 10 organizations involved in this study, since they had participated in my dissertation research, and I have been involved with three of them via an off-and-on consulting relationship. What made the firms attractive to me (besides a willingness on their part to cooperate) was the fact that all 10 had conducted considerable research among their employees, including the Gallup Q12 program. I had access to that research, which measured attitudes, including levels of trust and loyalty to the organization and its management, as well as satisfaction with employee communication programs.

The main research tool was the in-depth interview. Each communicator, occasionally with his or her staff present, was interviewed for 90 minutes. In all, 14 communicators, including the primary internal communicator at the 10 companies, participated actively in the interviews. The 10 primary practitioners are public relations managers, rather than technicians, using James Grunig's (1984) models of how public relations is practiced – that is, the primary practitioners were involved in strategy as well as in the performance of tasks. Follow-up questions were posed by telephone and e-mail. The interviews were designed to determine:

1. Employee attitudes, opinions and concerns about globalization
2. The extent of the communicators' knowledge of globalization
3. The messages concerning globalization contained in organization communications
4. Management's commitment to communication in general, and to communication on the new workplace realities in particular

Findings

Employee attitudes, opinions and concerns

Workers at the studied organizations view globalization unfavorably, which tracks findings nationally.

In 1999, 53% of Americans viewed globalization as positive; by February of 2004 that favorable rating had dropped to 40%. And, according to the study from the University of Maryland's Program on International Policy Attitudes, "the percentage who feel the process of lowering trade barriers (is) moving too fast" grew from 30% in 1999 to 41% in 2004. The percentage of Americans who say the U.S. should promote free trade has dropped precipitously in all salary brackets – from 27% to 12% in the $15,000-$24,999 bracket; from 30% to 21% in the $24,999-$44,999; 40% to 26% in the $70,000-$99,999 bracket; and 57% to 28% in the over-$100,000 bracket. (Despeignes, 2004).

The senior PR director at a U.S. auto parts company, with wholly owned manufacturing facilities in Midwest America and Western Europe, as well as a newly formed partnership with a manufacturer in China, said: "We have a fairly mature manufacturing workforce – average age in the mid-40s. Lots of these men and women are second generation in this industry. They're used to America sending stuff abroad, being the world's premier manufacturer. They haven't accepted the new realities."

Marianne is Director of Internal Communication with one of the world's largest forest products companies, one with manufacturing facilities in 15 countries. "We've shifted a lot of manufacturing overseas," she explains, "and that has caused tensions here at home, with plant closings and layoffs – permanent layoffs.

We've had strikes and even some workplace sabotage – nothing serious, just some destruction of property in the wake of a downsizing or shutdown. But the trend of downsizing is irreversible."

When presented with a list of words and asked: "How do your workers view globalization?" the 10 primary communicators interviewed all chose "threat" as their number one choice. Other choices included "inevitable," "opportunity," "mutually beneficial."

Carl, Vice President of Communications at a shrinking textile company, said, "You could see the change in worker attitudes. At first, some years ago, we found places overseas to do work we didn't have time to do here. Our plants were booked solid. And it was the simplest tasks. If our workers gave any thought to workers abroad, it probably was with some kind of satisfaction – our guys were helping other people, a kind of labor unity. Then, the craftsmanship overseas improved and the labor costs stayed low. More work went abroad, and plants closed here at home. Now, those workers are seen as 'foreigners.' I see a certain xenophobia and racism in attitudes that weren't there during the good times." Carl, perhaps recalling the struggles to integrate the textile industry in the United States, quickly added that the racism of which he spoke was directed toward people overseas, not domestic minorities. Of course, the textile industry has always chased lower labor costs. That pursuit led the industry out of New England and Philadelphia and into the southern United States in the first place.

When asked who the workers blame – with the choices being "U.S. government," "foreign countries," "management of American companies" or "global trade agreements" – the 10 PR executives were divided, with five saying "foreign countries," three saying "U.S. government," one saying "management," and one saying "our workers are split between blaming our government and foreign governments." Four of the practitioners agreed that there would be more blame directed at foreign countries if China was mentioned specifically, which reinforces Carl's comment about the xenophobic/racism mix in workers' attitudes.

"We actually track these things in our employee research," said Ed, the executive in charge of employee communication for a Japanese manufacturer's large and varied operations in the United States, which include 12 major facilities and almost 35,000 workers." He explained:

> After the protests against the WTO (World Trade Organization) and the IMF (International Monetary Fund) in the mid-1990s, we wanted to see if there was any worker sympathy for the activist groups conducting the protests. Remember, it was a worldwide phenomenon, with a lot of labor involvement. We found no sympathy for the people involved – they were pretty radical in the eyes of most of our workers. But we did find a lot of anti-globalization feelings, mainly a belief that we would close U.S. plants without a second thought, no matter how efficient and productive they are. Also, it was clear that workers in our American operations put the blame on the U.S. government, particularly their politicians who signed the agreements.

In this election year, many of those politicians are redefining and re-explaining their support of previous trade agreements, as if they have just realized that jobs are being lost. Still, in the recent Democratic primaries, with a lot of candidates and where one would have expected to hear some demagoguery, there was scant little playing to the fears of the electorate. U.S. Sen. John Edwards' campaign found some traction in the issue but not enough to make him a serious challenger for the nomination. Generally, the PR practitioners interviewed for this paper said the workers do not believe any of the politicians can or will do anything to make changes, so they have tuned out political rhetoric.

There is another reason, too. In the summer of 2003 the nation saw a 20-year high in GDP growth, and in February of 2004 it achieved a 20-year high in the duration of unemployment. "It's an anomaly," according to Lakshman Achutan (2004), managing director of the Economic Cycle Research Institute, headquartered in New York. "Only 11% of the workforce actually works in manufacturing but accounts for 111% of the jobs lost since the beginning of the recession." Manufacturing workers, then, have little political clout, and they recognize that, turning deaf ears to election year rhetoric of office-seekers and predictable outbursts and idle threats of their own weak union leadership. They joined others in silence as 2.8 million manufacturing jobs were lost over the past 18 months (Shaiken 2004).

> …(I)n 1950 the developing world had 72% of the globe's population and commanded 28.8% of global income; by 2000 the developing world's share of population had risen at a faster rate, to 42.4%. The industrial world's share of global income declined in the same period, from 62.5% in 1950 to 52.4% in 2000. It is only the Western working class that feels pain, and in the West the labor class is now a minority, short on clout owing not to industrialist conspiracies but simple lack of numbers at the voting booth. (Easterbrook, 2003).

Marianne, the practitioner at the forest products company who acknowledged that the trend is irreversible, expressed concern about a workforce that she sees as becoming dispirited as well as disgruntled. "I go to conferences and talk to a lot of other people, PR pros and people in other disciplines. They seem content that a

lot of the complaining has stopped and that people know they could be downsized at any time. I think we're missing something. I don't think silence is golden in this situation."

Other practitioners have adopted a "this-too-shall-pass" outlook, with one of them – the 42-year-old Vice President of Communications for the American operations of a British-owned bank – saying: "We not only have gone through cutbacks and outsourcing ourselves, but we've worked with a lot of our clients, major manufacturers, on their own restructurings and mergers. It's all become business as usual, standard operating procedure. Everything that can be said on the subject, has been said." He added an important point, namely, "There is no media furor over any of this, if for no other reason than media jobs aren't threatened." In fact, Bob Herbert of *The New York Times* made the same point, with an important twist: "Unless you are a plumber or perhaps a newspaper reporter, or one of those jobs which is geographically situated, you can do effectively any job that can be done in the United States" (2004a).

He was referring to the white collar jobs that have begun following blue collar jobs across the borders of America to far-away lands. "Millions of educated low-wage workers abroad – from Ireland to China, India to the Phillipines – have joined the global economy over the past few years. Any service that can be delivered in bit and bytes and does not require face-to-face interaction with customers is up for grabs" (Despeignes, 2004). The migration overseas of white collar jobs is largely responsible for the changing attitudes of higher income Americans toward globalization that were cited earlier in this paper.

A conference was held in New York in January 2004 to teach American executives how to outsource white collar jobs. The host, NeoIT, last year shifted a billion dollars' worth of white collar jobs offshore. Craig Barrett, CEO of Intel, said the United States doesn't fully understand the integration of India, China and Russia, three countries with a combined population of nearly three billion and strong education heritages. "Even if you discount 90% of the people as uneducated farmers, you still end up with about 300 million people who are educated. That's bigger than the U.S. workforce" (Herbert, 2004b). In fact, "If you phone the New Jersey state welfare agency to ask about benefits, your call is taken by a representative sitting in India and speaking by satellite link, which costs New Jersey $3 an hour instead of $15 an hour to have done it locally (Easterbrook, 2003, p. 65). By one estimate, 14 million white collar jobs in the U.S. "are vulnerable to being sent overseas" (Shaiken 2004).

Marianne may be alone among the PR practitioners in her concern about the silence, but she is not alone among the general population of people who are following the phenomenon. Kaysen (1996) found that "sullen, noncooperative workforces raise costs more than what can be gained" by cost-cutting measures such as moving jobs overseas (p. 407). O'Neill and Lenn (1995) observed "a desire for retribution," a word used by Drucker (Lenzner & Johnson, 1997, p. 124). Buono and Bowditch (1989) and Neuman and Baron (1997) found aggression in the workplace, while Bies and Tripp (1995) and Giacalone and Greenberg (1997) warned of increased incidents of sabotage.

When the works of those writers was cited to the PR practitioners, the observations and warnings were largely discounted as "academic theories that don't reflect what we see happening on a daily basis," which were the words of Lincoln, who directs Human Resources and Employee Communications for a U.S.-based international consumer products company. "I agree that workers see globalization as a threat, something to be feared because it could result in their own job loss. It's caused a lot of stress in the workplace. We need to keep communicating that our jobs depend on our performance. American workers are the best in the world. We've fought competition before, and we can do it again."

Summary

From interviews with the PR practitioners, from research that has been done at the companies studied, and from my own focus groups done for previous papers and my dissertation, I would summarize workers' attitudes, opinions and concerns this way:

- They feel personally threatened by globalization;
- They fear for their own jobs down the road;
- They worry that their skill sets will not allow them to find new employment if they lose their current positions;
- Their own precarious situations have caused breakdowns in traditional relationships with institutions, that is, there is growing distrust of management at their organizations and of people in positions of governmental authority;
- There seems to be evidence that the situation is stirring some xenophobia and racism, which is detrimental to society as a whole but could be devastating to a company truly trying to become global.
- There is a smoldering in the workplace; that much seems evident. How close or far away is an actual outburst of flames is impossible to tell at this stage.

The extent of the communicators' knowledge of globalization

To a certain extent, interviews in this area were disturbing. Aside from Marianne, none of the practitioners expressed any great concerns about the situation. They see globalization through the eyes of their superiors

rather than through the eyes of the people to whom they are communicating. When asked where they learn most about globalization and issues surrounding globalization – with choices being "mass media," "specialized media," "company sources," or "anti-globalization activist groups" – eight of the practitioners chose company sources, specifically their companies' economists, and two chose mass media, specifically business news channels like CNBC and CNN. Certainly, there is no shortage of arguments on behalf of globalization. Thomas Friedman (2004) of *The New York Times* visited a customer call center in India, with Indians doing jobs that a few months previously had been done by Americans in the United States.

Yes, these once were American jobs, Friedman (2004) noted, "but looking around the office you find the computers were from Compaq, the basic software from Microsoft, phones from Lucent, air conditioning from Carrier, and bottled water from Coke." He derided "demagogues who huff and puff about complex issue without any reference to reality" and noted that exports from U.S. companies to India have grown from $2.5 billion in 1990 to $4.1 billion in 2002 (p. A29). Arguments similar to Friedman's, in one form or another, were put forth by all the PR practitioners interviewed for this paper.

Even Carl, whose textile industry has been devastated, said, "It's a question of our finding a niche in what is a global market. We can do it. It'll take some re-grouping, perhaps going upscale. Plus, the designing work and the marketing work and lots of what are considered the 'brain jobs' will always be in the U.S." Lincoln, of the foreign-owned consumer products company, said, "There's an economic equity at work here. We Americans cannot expect to market our products globally but keep all the jobs domestically." Even Marianne urged efforts to "design the right public policies to keep America competitive and more training funds to prepare our laid-off workers for new jobs and careers."

The practitioners, then, were looking at the issue from an economic viewpoint and ignoring its social implications. This is what traditionally gets corporations in public relations messes – Monsanto with the genetically engineered food crisis, and dozens of companies whose downsizing activities have backfired in terms of decreased productivity.

Overall, the public relations executives showed only a cursory knowledge of globalization in real terms. That is, they knew of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), without knowing any of its provisions, and they knew of the World Trade Organization and the International Monetary fund, without knowing of the roles they play in the global economy. All but two of the practitioners, both of whom worked at U.S. operations for foreign companies, guessed that Germany had gained jobs because of the global economy, when in fact Germany faces many of the same problems as does America – maybe more so, since unemployment in Germany stands over 10%. And those same eight PR executives said wages in Germany and Poland were "about the same" or "slightly more in Germany." The other choices were "slightly more in Poland," "much higher in Germany," "much higher in Poland." Actually, Asea Brown Boveri (ABB) moved some of its operations one hour east from Germany, where it now pays Polish workers $2.58 an hour for work it had been paying German workers $30.33 an hour (Thurow, 1996, p. 168).

The practitioners were dismissive of the protestors who have taken to the streets in Europe, Canada and the United States, with Ed, the American PR director for the Japanese-owned manufacturer, saying, "Even the media called them a bunch of kooks. There's no point to their protests." Most telling, perhaps, was the fact that only six of the 10 PR executives had actually traveled outside the United States on business, and three of them worked for foreign-owned companies.

When asked, "Has America replaced the jobs that have gone overseas?," four of the practitioners said yes, and the six who said no added caveats. For example, the PR director at the U.S.-owned auto parts company said, "Not yet, but we're on track. We're rebounding from a terrorist attack and a recession. Jobs are picking up." That comment came in the face of January and February 2004 jobs reports that were extremely disappointing and fell far short from of sufficient new jobs to keep pace with population growth, let alone replace lost jobs. The economy created 21,000 jobs in February 2004, about 100,000 less than expected. "As of February 2004, more than 40% of the unemployed have been out of work more than 15 weeks, the worst number since 1983," wrote economist Paul Krugman (2004, p. A27).

The practitioners conceded that the replacement jobs most likely would pay less than the lost jobs – retail jobs replacing manufacturing jobs, for instance – but they expressed a belief that other, so-called smart jobs were being created. "It's a natural progression," said Lincoln, the HR-PR executive. "We've moved away from a manufacturing economy." Oddly, then, Lincoln joined six other practitioners in rating the chances of America "regaining its manufacturing pre-eminence" at between 50%-75%. The choices were 0%-25%; 25%-50%; 50%-75%; 75%-100%. The other three felt the chances were between 25%-50%. None agreed with Bob Herbert (2004b) that the loss of manufacturing capabilities could pose a long-term security threat to the United

States. And although they raised no counter arguments, none was willing to fully accept Lakshman Achuthan's assessment. The managing director of the Economic Cycle Research Institute said:

> Outsourcing manufacturing jobs is pretty much irreversible. I would call it a structural change, a permanent shift. Two very long-term trends are at play … (G)lobalization, the emergence of free markets around the world that are trading with one another. And we've also had a Federal Reserve which has been fighting inflation for a few decades and they've won. Companies have no pricing power. So the only way to increase your profits is to reduce your production costs. And the low interest rate environment makes it easier to invest in equipment that increases productivity, and the globalization and emergence of India and China make it easier to access production facilities abroad (Achuthan, 2004).

Summary

The practitioners continue to "manage up," a term recruiters often use to explain why personnel fail – they either "manage up," which means they pay attention to their bosses at the expense of the people who work for them; or they "manage down," which means their subordinates love them but they are seen by their bosses as not being solid management players. In the interviews for this paper, I was struck with the easy acceptance of the pro-globalization arguments, the lack of questioning, and a certain insensitivity or tone-deafness when it came to the concerns of the workers. Public relations is best when it serves not as a mirror reflecting the image of the organization back to its publics, but rather when it serves as a window through the organization and its publics can see each other. That does not seem to be happening here, which became more evident when we discussed actual communications.

The messages concerning globalization contained in organization communications.

As stated earlier, five of the companies whose PR executives participated in this study said they have added information about globalization to their communication programs, while two others said they were planning to do so. The quality (and the commitment) is spotty.

Looking at the five where globalization supposedly is already a part of internal communications, two – both U.S.-owned – basically limit information to explanations about downsizing, that is, jobs were cut as a result of "global competition." That is a typical explanation, as I found in my dissertation research (Guiniven 2001). Occasionally, the two companies' internal publications or Web sites feature articles on overseas operations, more often than not feature stories on Americans working abroad. Those two organizations are the forest products company and a large American service firm. A third, a foreign-owned consumer products company, simply includes material from its home office in its U.S. communications.

"We're very 'American' in our management overseas," explained Marianne of the forest products company, "and frankly we have a difficult time getting people to accept overseas assignments. So that's the emphasis of our communications. Yes, we probably should be doing more to explain the realities of life – but we should be doing more of a lot of things." Andrew is the contract public relations executive who handles the service firm's internal communications, and he said, "There isn't a great desire to integrate our operations. In Europe, we're pretty European; in Asia, pretty Asian. We are shipping more backroom stuff to lower cost areas, and that may cause us morale problems down the road. We'll eventually have to deal with that."

The practitioners with no communications centered on globalization gave two reasons: 1) No need because there was no great interest on the part of top management; and/or 2) The issue is too complex for workers, white collar or blue collar, to fully comprehend. I believe those reasons reflect two problems, the concentration on "managing up" that was mentioned earlier and the unwillingness of practitioners to learn complex issues themselves so they can communicate effectively on those issues to their publics. Increasingly, we hear the same from journalists, that is, their refusal to cover complex issues because "our readers" or "our viewers" would not understand them.

Oddly, the British-owned bank had no planned internal information campaign, although the PR director felt the issue was important. "We're so global by nature that I don't believe we're really missing anything. I mean, I don't think we have to do anything special."

The two companies that do something special regarding globalization are the American operations of the Japanese manufacturer and the U.S.-owned auto parts manufacturer.

Ed, PR executive at the Japanese-owned manufacturer, said "We have a history of globalism. Historically, the emphasis has been on familiarizing Japanese workers with the rest of the world. So we're just carrying that over to wherever we have operations. We want our American workers to feel connected to the world." One of his communication goals is to "Educate our associates (workers) about the global economy – both its challenges and opportunities." That means regular items in company publications and on the employee Intranet Web site – "About one a week on the Intranet," Ed said; occasional mailings to their home – "We found that reaching families with safety information helped improve safety in our plants by consciousness raising, and we think we can do the same thing regarding globalization;" and meetings where outside speakers are brought in to discuss

globalization – "Employees who don't want to ask questions in a meeting can submit them anonymously beforehand."

The effort is a combination public information and two-way asymmetrical campaign, according to Grunig's (1984) models of public relations. That is, the campaign disseminates considerable information on global economic issues, albeit all of it favorable – "Sometimes an anti-globalization argument or point is made but, frankly, only for the purpose of refuting it." The campaign follows the two-way asymmetrical model because it involves research of employee attitudes, but the research is looking for ways the company can reach and persuade the employees that globalization is working. "For instance," Ed said, "we know that low interest rates and low inflation are important to workers, and a point can be made that globalization has made those things possible. We've run articles on that, and we've had guest speakers hit those points."

The U.S.-owned auto parts company was sort of forced into communicating about globalization and economics, according to its senior PR director who asked not to be identified in any way. He said:

> We are pretty cutting edge in employee relations, we think – especially for our industry. We have a great ESOP (Employee Stock Ownership Program), for example. But it backfired. We needed to make some heavy investments to diversify and convinced our bankers and big investors that we had a good plan. We assumed our employees would support it. They didn't. They saw the price of the stock go down and vocally opposed our investment decisions. We realized we needed some global economic education.

Since then, the company has produced videos and purchased some from outside sources, and it has added a "World View" column to its employee weekly newspaper. The PR director added that there are plans to do worker exchanges – "more social than anything else" – among the U.S. workers and their counterparts in Scotland and with workers at their new partner in China. "We also do a lot of training, keeping workers' skills up to speed, and we tie those programs into globalization. It's our way of fighting the trend toward the loss of American jobs."

Perhaps not surprisingly, the two companies in the study who were most active in communicating globalization were heavy manufacturing firms, an industrial area where most of the job losses in the U.S. have occurred. "Globalization produces winners and losers. The adjustment of those groups of workers displaced by import competition occurs slowly and with significant costs such as the need to obtain information about new opportunities, relocation, and the loss of firm- or industry-specific knowledge" (Slaughter & Swagel 1997).

The PR executives at both the Japanese and U.S. manufacturing companies saw re-training as part of the new social contract, one that views worker-management relations as short-term and contingent rather than long-term and secure. "Policymakers must keep in mind potential dislocations and ensure that those who are displaced do not become marginalized," according to Slaughter and Swagel (1997) of the International Monetary Fund. They added, "Policies might include gathering and spreading information about labor market conditions, standardizing professional certification procedures across countries, and enhancing training and educational opportunities so that workers in advanced economies can upgrade their skills to match the demands of the changing global economy."

Criticism of the efforts at the two companies could sound like nitpicking, since the communication programs are so much more advanced than at other companies in the study. But there are a few things worth adding. In studying the published communications, the message persisted that American manufacturing would rise again, that somehow the trend of jobs going abroad would be reversed. That flies in the face of reason and is at odds with consensus. To be sure, to the extent the skills of workers are constantly upgraded, they are in a better position because "there is a steady shift in demand away from the less skilled toward the more skilled" (Slaughter & Swagel, 1997). But the skill levels are rising in the developing world, as well, and wages are remaining relatively low. Also, the messages at times appear crafted to spur improved productivity. There is a very thin line between inspirational messages in this area and veiled threats of jobs losses if things don't improve. Neither of the two companies did research to determine how the messages were being received.

Summary

The fact is that little is being done to communicate and give context to the global economy, with most companies simply communicating the effects of globalization – after they happen. Jobs losses are announced and explained away as they occur, with "global competition" and "global economy" tossed out as explanations without realizing that, with no true understanding of the issues, they are not explanations at all. Instead, they add to worker resentment and frustrations and make the situation worse. The two companies in the study who actively pursued communications on globalization were pioneering some interesting approaches and, with the emphasis on retraining, showed a sensitivity to workers unseen at far too many corporations. This is important because of a reversal in a trend in compensation. For several decades, beginning as far back as the 1910s, the move was toward more income equality between more skilled and less skilled workers; the reversal began in the 1970s, when the gap began to rise, reaching 25% difference by 1988 (Slaughter & Swagel 1997). Still, there

are some gaps in their programs. For whatever reasons, both the auto parts manufacturer and the Japanese manufacturer continued to hold out hope that the job losses could be halted, when all evidence points to the irreversibility of the outward migration of jobs, both manufacturing and, increasingly, white collar service positions. One possible reason for the reluctance to be more blunt could be the attitudes of top management at the two companies.

Management's commitment to communication in general, and communication on the new workplace realities in particular

This was an area in which not a single practitioner wanted to be quoted or even described in any way that could lead to identification. The reason: executive compensation – indeed, executive behavior – has exacerbated worker discontent over the past several years. Individually and privately, nine of the 10 practitioners mentioned that top management is, in and of itself, a constraint to effective communication. That was the case whether the companies were addressing globalization directly or whether they were communicating along tried-and-true, traditional lines.

In 1970, chief executives earned 45-50 times what an average workers in their companies earned. "The ratio has increased more than 1,000 to 1," with CEOs earning 500 times more than average workers (Crystal 2004). "The gap is becoming like the gap between peasants and the aristocracy of the French Revolution," according to Bill Emmott of *The Economist* (2004). And top management at American companies are resisting any changes in their compensation packages, despite the criticisms and scandals and indictments. Peter Clapman of TIAA-CREF says his own compensation initiative started with 50 companies, but only two companies gave it any action at shareholder meetings.

"There's a nominal commitment to communication, if you mean real communication," said one of the communicators. "If you mean one-way communication from top management to workers, trying to get workers to be more productive and loyal and trusting, then the commitment's whole-hearted." Another communicator noted that her CEO "Told employees how he was personally lobbying for more training funds for community colleges without realizing the average reaction was, 'Training for what!?' What other jobs are out there?'"

Barbara Ehrenreich's book, *Nickel and Dimed* (2001),chronicles the mistreatment of workers by, among other companies, Wal Mart; and Rachel Emma Silverman wrote scathingly about executive compensation in *Here's the Retirement Jack Welch Built* (2002). Yet, CEOs seem incapable of internalizing any of the criticisms, preferring to think it is directed at particular people rather than at a system of compensation that is running amok.

One of the practitioners said, "It's a tough situation. I know PR people all across the country who try their best. We propose good programs and give good advice. Sometimes the programs are adopted and the advice taken, and things seem to be improving. Then, something will happen like executive bonuses announced the same day we close a plant, and we're back to square one. People may not believe what we say – that's one problem. But they certainly watch what we do – and, increasingly, that's a bigger problem."

Not only have CEOs largely ignored the advice of their public relations professionals and influential media commentators; they also ignore criticisms leveled at them by people like Warren Buffet, who said American CEOs, with few exceptions, are grossly overpaid; and by international business figures such as Sir John Bond, chairman of the British-owned, Hong Kong-based banking giant, HSBC (Timmons, 2004). When he announced 2003 earnings, which increased 41%, he took the occasion to call for American executives to adopt more realistic compensation schedules.

"As long as our top management is out of touch with workers – out of touch with reality might be a better way of putting it – then we're going to be spitting into the wind, I'm afraid," offered one of the practitioners. "It's not that we're not telling the truth. It's more like we're telling a truth that hasn't existed for 10 or 15 years, like we're communicating for a different era, one that top management would love to return to, but one that we'll never see again."

Summary

The commitment of top management to meaningful communication can only be described as lukewarm at best, and management must be considered an impediment to effective communication. Ironically, in some cases top management sees communication as a panacea – every problem is a public relations problem at its root and, therefore, is solvable through the use of public relations. PR executives would be the first to point out the fallacy of that thinking and, from the interviews conducted for this study, it appears that until and unless the current crisis in the executive offices is overcome – that is, executive compensation and other ethically challenged, if not outright illegal, behavior – management itself will be the major impediment to effectively using communication to help it accomplish its goals.

Recommendations

It was not my purpose in doing this paper to come up with a list of recommendations. My interest was in observing and recording the situations at participating companies. Over the course of follow-up interviews, however, a number of suggestions were bandied about, which means I am not certain which of the following recommendations are mine and which come from the practitioners kind enough to let me view their operations – probably they are a combination. The recommendations are:

- Align communication with what is actually happening in the workplace. Again in this study, as I found in previous work, employee relations has moved into a new era while communication has remained mired in a previous one. Thus,
    1. Communicate the new social contract. The employer's obligation is to provide a rewarding career, with training available to make as certain as possible that any worker forced out of his or her job has the most adequate and up-to-date skills for other employment. These training programs need to be overseen by business, not contracted out to community colleges as PR smokescreens.
    2. Recognize globalization as a social issue and communicate accordingly. Currently, most corporations approach globalization and its fallout, such as downsizing, as economic issue. The issues have a social side, however, and that is how they are seen by workers.
    3. Concede that trust and loyalty will never return to levels that existed a half century ago. Workers are loyal to their own careers and to their fellow workers, not to management. That does not mean they have no interest in achieving goals. Quite the contrary, but achievement of those goals is motivated by a new self-interest, their own careers. Communications should recognize that and appeal to that. In fact – and ironically – acknowledging and legitimizing the self-interest of the workforce could be a step toward regaining trust in the workplace.
    4. Recognize the permanence of job migration from the U.S. to other countries. Unless you can do the impossible – convince people to willingly pay higher prices – the trend of sending manufacturing jobs overseas will not end, and the new trend of sending white collar service jobs overseas will accelerate. In other words, stop talking about *getting through this*. It is not a cycle; it's a sea change.
    5. Be careful of letting blame be placed. There is a tendency to breathe a sigh of relief when research shows that workers blame another entity – the government or foreign countries – for their employment woes. Doing nothing encourages blame placing, possibly to the detriment of the organization, especially if it leads to a rise in xenophobia or racism. Address the dangers and the wrongfulness of that kind of behavior in your communications.
    6. Whenever possible, stand with the workers on issues of importance to them. For instance, in July of 2003 the Administration proposed changes to the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, the legislation that guarantees overtime for many non-managerial workers. According to many sources, the changes would have removed between 644,000 to 8 million workers from those eligible for overtime pay (Downey 2003, p. A11). True, the proposed changes were more complicated than that and many business organizations sponsored them, but their chances of being adopted were so remote that any company that came out against them – and came out on the side of the workers – could have gained much without losing anything. Seek out opportunities to stand with your workers.
    7. Establish an environmental scanning operation for global economy issues. It struck me during these interviews that the public relations practitioners, as well as other managers at their organizations, were too often surprised. Dismissing protestors now might be fine, but today's "kooks," as one practitioner called them, could be tomorrow's mainstream activist opposition.
    8. Adopt the practice of Ed, the PR executive for the American operations of the Japanese manufacturer, particularly sending material to employees' homes. The practice, if done judiciously, can foster an understanding among family members. One idea that was tried several years ago with annual reports might work for globalization education: produce coloring books that explain globalization in simple terms. Make the books available for workers to take home to their children or grandchildren. Chances are they also will read them and perhaps gain an understanding of the issue they couldn't get from more sophisticated economic communications.
    9. Educate PR people on globalization. As it stands now, the practitioners are as afraid of the issue as the average blue collar worker. If you have a public relations person incapable of grasping the details of globalization and communicating them effectively, then get a new public relations person.
    10. Finally, unless the problem with top management – the global image of American CEOs – is fixed, companies can expect each of its decisions and goals and objectives to be met with resistance and cynicism. Eventually, the silent opposition could take a more overt form.

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The How to and Why to: Uniting Practical Experience and the Classroom in a Public Relations Practicum Course

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A survey of journalism alumni who had taken a Public Relations Practicum course found most of the students regarded the experience as positive.

In "The How to and Why To: Uniting Practical Experience and the Classroom in a Public Relations Practicum Course," Dr. Julie K. Henderson, APR, reports findings from the survey, as well as detailed background information on the organization and operation of the course, plus benefits of this type of class as uncovered by a review of the literature.

A Practicum class typically involves upper-level students in an agency setting completing professional work for "real" clients, such as those in the local community or on-campus.

The class under study in this research has been in operation since 1985. Students who had taken the class from 1994 to 2002 were surveyed. In describing their best experience, the majority of the students cited the pride they felt in seeing their work actually used. Closely related were comments about the advantages of getting professional experience and working with clients while still in college.

When asked what aspect of the class was least beneficial, the majority of the respondents were not able to cite anything. However, when asked what would have made the course better, the majority suggested expanding the course in a variety of ways, either through more assignments, more time required with the client, more clients, or making the class two semesters rather than one.

Respondents were also given a list of ten statements and asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with each. The strongest positive response came to the statement "I would recommend this class to current students." The only statement that produced more negative than positive responses was "I had a strong portfolio before I took this class."

Henderson concluded that the current research plus the review of the literature both pointed to the following benefits for students of such a class: making students accountable for their work; building a portfolio, working with clients; allowing students to see the fruition of their efforts; early exposure to a career path; and strengthening relationships with the clients, whether community or campus.

The paper concludes with issues to address before a department adds such a course to its offerings.

Beware: We are More Alike than You May Think!
Examining the Relationship between Fundraising and Public Relations

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The tremendous growth in the nonprofit sector in the past 20 years is attributable to the work of both the fundraiser and the public relations practitioner. Considering the success from the cooperative efforts of fundraisers and public relations practitioners, why then isn't the relationship between fundraising and public relations better understood?

Based on the research, fundraising and public relations have had a mutually beneficial relationship over the years but misperceptions about what fundraising and public relations actually are permeates both fields. These misperceptions continue to prevail. This is caused by a lack of consensus of clear definitions of both fundraising and public relations plus the growing complexities of both fields.

This study was qualitative in nature. It included an extensive literature review and twenty-four key informant interviews with academics and practitioners in fundraising and public relations, as well as with some who combine the two fields.

The findings indicate the characteristics of successful fundraisers and successful public relations practitioners and their processes are the same. The only difference is in the objective.

This study concludes that fundraising can be viewed as a highly specialized form of public relations. This study also concludes that fundraisers and public relations practitioners need to check their biases and preconceived notions about one other. Each needs to take the time to learn more about the practice of the other. Separately, neither field has evolved enough to be considered a true profession. Perhaps by working together, this goal could be met. At the very least, increased cooperation and understanding would make already successful programs even more successful. It's a win-win situation.

Crisis Situations, Communication Strategies, and Media Effectiveness: Revisiting the Communicative Response Model

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This study sought a systematic understanding of the relationships among crisis situations, crisis response strategies, and their effects on media coverage. It examines four crisis communication strategies (CCSs) and four case studies exemplifying four types of crisis situation. I adopted a comparative multi-case, holistic research design, used typical content analysis procedures for data analysis, and applied pattern-matching logic to compare the data against a theoretical model, the Corporate Communicative Response Model. Factors that might cause extraneous variation were controlled as much as possible by the multiple case study design, which resembles a quasi-experiment. 1221 news articles, involving four political figures' crises, were examined. The findings revealed that, in particular types of crisis situation, the effects of particular CCSs on media effectiveness were, as hypothesized, in positive directions: denial in a commission situation, excuse in a control situation, justification in a standards situation, and concession in an agreement situation. The results also suggest that, for all but the agreement situation, a combination of CCSs was the most effective. This study has theoretical and practical implications for the symbolic approach in general and for crisis communicative responses in particular.

The Myth of Salary Discrimination in Public Relations

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One of the more puzzling "findings" in the public relations literature is the persistent claim of salary discrimination against women in the field, despite the absence of even a single comprehensive study on the topic. Even more disturbing is that closely related fields like marketing and advertising, as well more professionalized fields like medicine – where both practitioners and scholars are substantially more sophisticated methodologically than their public relations counterparts – have made no such claims of discrimination, despite larger salary gaps and larger correlations between salary and gender than in the PR field.

An analysis of a major salary survey by a leading public relations industry publication and a review of existing studies demonstrate that there is no empirical basis for claims of gender-based salary discrimination in the PR field. As one might expect, the greatest predictor of salary is years of experience in the PR field (R^2 = .26). The next two most important factors are number of hours worked per week and type of organization (nonprofit vs. corporate vs. agency), each of which accounts for a change of .04 in the R^2. Age and type of PR practiced (investor relations vs. employee communications, etc.) each account for another .02 change in R^2. Gender changes the R^2 only .01, even without considering missing variables (for instance, employment breaks-in-service) that are correlated with both gender and salary, and were shown to have substantial explanatory power in salary surveys from other fields.

Circumstantial evidence of salary discrimination in the PR field existed 20 years ago, but the evidence available since that time suggests strongly that there has been little or no salary discrimination for at least the past decade. Conceptually, it is still *possible* that public relations salaries could include a tiny amount of gender discrimination, but it is also possible that important factors not included in the study could *more* than account for the residual gender difference in salaries (i.e., it is possible that consideration of all relevant factors might demonstrate that there is a small amount of salary discrimination against *men*).

In any circumstance, more comprehensive and methodologically sophisticated studies are needed, which would include other factors that have been demonstrated or hypothesized to correlate with both gender and salary – factors such as negotiation skills (see Babcock and Laschever, 2003), presence/absence of a mentor, willingness to relocate for a new job, breaks in employment service, and type and level of education.

The American Chemistry Council's Systems Approach to Managing Pubic Perception

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August 2001 chemical industry performance data reports that the industry generates 6.2 million jobs or 5% of the US workforce. U.S. citizens ranked this "business of chemistry [that] makes products that make people's lives better, safer and healthier" (ACC website) *below* cigarette manufacturers with respect to integrity in business practices. Community and media attention to chemical manufacturing processes and practices gone awry fueled public reaction coupled with business practices culminating in employees and community members' deaths and/or serious health issues and environmental devastation. The chemical industry kept an extremely low profile during these crises, which conjured the perfect recipe for this industry's public relations dilemma. The American Chemistry Council (ACC) designed and implemented the Codes of Responsible Care® as a mechanism to innovate its own public image. The Codes were modeled on systems theory, and address pollution prevention, community awareness and emergency response, employee health and safety, product stewardship, process safety, distribution and security. The ACC's Responsible Care initiative has successfully motivated member companies to alter the manner in which chemicals are produced, transported, stored and communicated about to key stakeholder groups. However, public opinion regarding their business and environmental practices is still relatively uninformed or negative.

Introduction

It appears that no matter what number of incidents occurred at the majority of manufacturing operations in the United States, few manufacturers' mishaps seemed to draw the attention of the whole world. This may be attributed to the nature of the products this specific manufacturing segment produces; agricultural, automotive, communications, defense, engineering, housing, industrial, personal care, pharmaceuticals, and the list continues to grow.

> "Chemistry is used to make more than 70,000 consumer and industrial products that surround us every day… Government statistics show that one of every seven new patents issued in America goes to companies that apply chemistry to make products" (Chemistry: The Innovation Industry, 2001, p. 6).

The common thread for this cluster of manufacturers is that their products impact virtually every aspect of our basic needs: food, clothing and shelter. Further, many of the products produced as a result of manufacturing operations directly impact quality of life.

> "The 20th century gave birth to modern medicine, electricity, the automobile, air and space travel, the computer and mass communications. In no other century in human history has science contributed so profoundly to the ascent of civilization. Discoveries in chemistry were at the core of each of these great milestones in human progress." (Policy, Economics and Risk Analysis (PERA), 2001, p. 5.)

August 2001 chemical industry performance data reports that the industry generates 6.2 million jobs or 5% of the US workforce. Economically, each job in the chemical industry generates six jobs in industry-related services, and this industry tips the scale in favor of exportation with $79.9 billion in exports annually. Why did U.S. citizens rank this "business of chemistry [that] makes products that make people's lives better, safer and healthier" (ACC website) *below* cigarette manufacturers with respect to integrity in business practices?

Chemical manufacturing facilities tipped the scales with negative media coverage of disasters such as Love Canal, Union Carbide's Bhopal, India leak of methyl isocyanate gas. Do you remember the 43-car train derailment in Livingston, Louisiana, which prompted the labeling of hazardous materials on any vehicles used for transport? Ethylene dibromide (EDB) was used as a gasoline additive, soil fumigant, preservative for stored wheat, and insecticide for fruit that was later found to be a carcinogen. Media attention, community reaction, and public perception/ attention were negative, in part, due to the type of incident that occurred when plants malfunctioned or an employee accidentally mixed wrong ingredients. Sometimes, the devastation wasn't immediate to human lives, but the initial impact slowly eroded our ecosystems, contaminated our rivers and streams, and sucked the freshness from our air as described by Rachel Carson in her hallmark book, *Silent Spring*. Overtime, the contamination of water, soil, and/or the air would eventually impact human health and threaten the future of our environment.

The public relations strategies designed by the American Chemistry Council invites analyses of both the external and internal environments in which it operates. These relationships impact the industry's performance and relationships with government and other key stakeholder groups. This paper will explore ACC's development and implementation of the Responsible Care initiative from a systems perspective. Specifically,

the initial launch of Responsible Care was designed to address internal chemical producers business practices while the current focus of the initiative focuses on the external publics. Grunig (1976) adapted systems theory to create his symmetrical public relations model wherein "a type of practice that attempts to balance the interests of client organizations with those of public they affect" (Grunig, 2000). This paper does not attempt to refute or forward the symmetrical model, but rather to analyze how the chemical industry attempted to understand the complexity of their public image problem and solve it using a systems approach. I will explain the components, characteristics, and properties of systems theory and relate them to the ACC's Responsible Care® efforts.

Systems Theory

Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968) and J.G. Miller (1978) are the biologists responsible for a line of research that permeates most areas of study today. Von Bertalanffy specifically pioneered general systems theory, which has been adapted and/or applied by scholars from myriad disciplines. In essence, mainstream research focuses on systems components, processes and properties (Miller, 1995).

Components: Hierarchical ordering

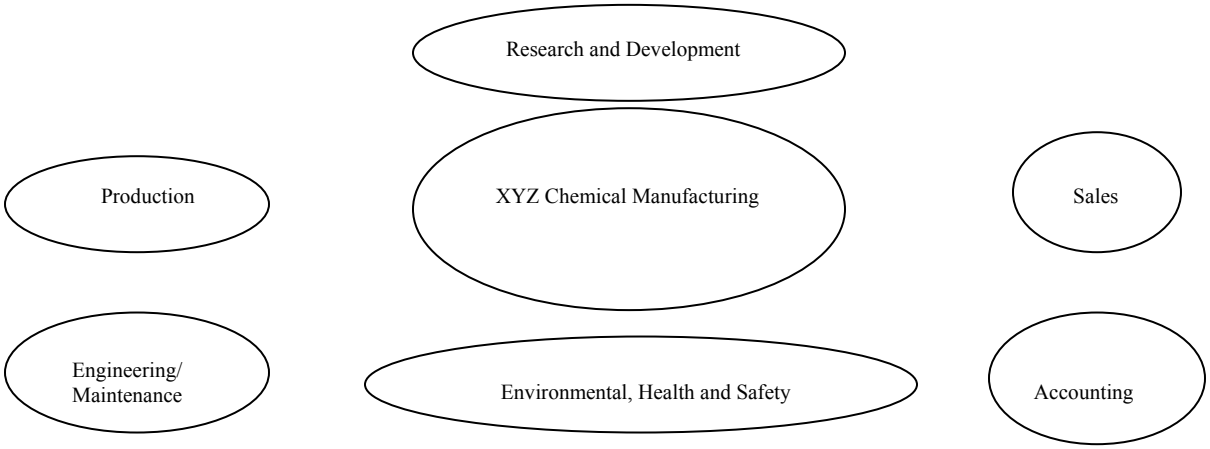
System components include hierarchical ordering, interdependence and permeability.

Hierarchical ordering encompasses a series of suprasystems and a supersystem that are arranged in a highly complex way, for example, the American Chemistry Council is the supersystem because any company that belongs to ACC must practice Responsible Care®. The ACC scans the external environments, which includes the economy, government policy and regulations, the political situation, and the labor market, which serve as suprasystems to determine and respond to changes that could impact their companies' ability to operate effectively. The individual performance of each member company enhances or impacts ACC's ability to be effective.

Each member organization in turn, operates as a supersystem, while the suprasystems are research and development, engineering/maintenance, production, sales, environmental, health and safety and accounting. Figure 1 visualizes the relationship between suprasystems and the supersystem.

"The CMA (currently ACC) has really spent a considerable amount of time and expense to help not only member companies, but the industry in general to follow a standard set of operating and business procedures," explained a plant manager at a chemical company in central PA. "Initially, it was a lot of effort, paperwork, and new way of thinking and doing business. We have been with CMA for 13 years and the Codes are a habit to us now. We wouldn't dream of conducting business the way we did in the old days."

Figure 1: Chemical Company Super and Suprasystems



Components: Interdependence

The second component, interdependence, suggests that one component of a system relies on other components of a system. In order for the ACC to alter public perception of the industry's business practices, a concerted effort to have all manufacturers change their business practices needed to be developed and implemented. From an organizational perspective, each suprasystem in the system is dependent on the functionability of the other suprasystems. For example, sales solicits the chemical order, production prepares the operators and interfaces with research and development on the equipment necessary to produce the product, while engineering/maintenance designs the pipes and mixing bowls. Accounting is pricing the ingredients and determining the costs, while research and development creates the process in the laboratory to determine how

quickly the process can be altered to maximize output or what combination of ingredients at what temperature can create an incident. Environmental health and safety personnel coordinate permits, waste disposal, personal protective equipment and training. These efforts occur simultaneously. If one part of the system is not operating properly, it impacts the rest of the systems ability to function. A plant manager from a specialty chemicals operation in Pennsylvania commented about the nature of the relationships at his site.

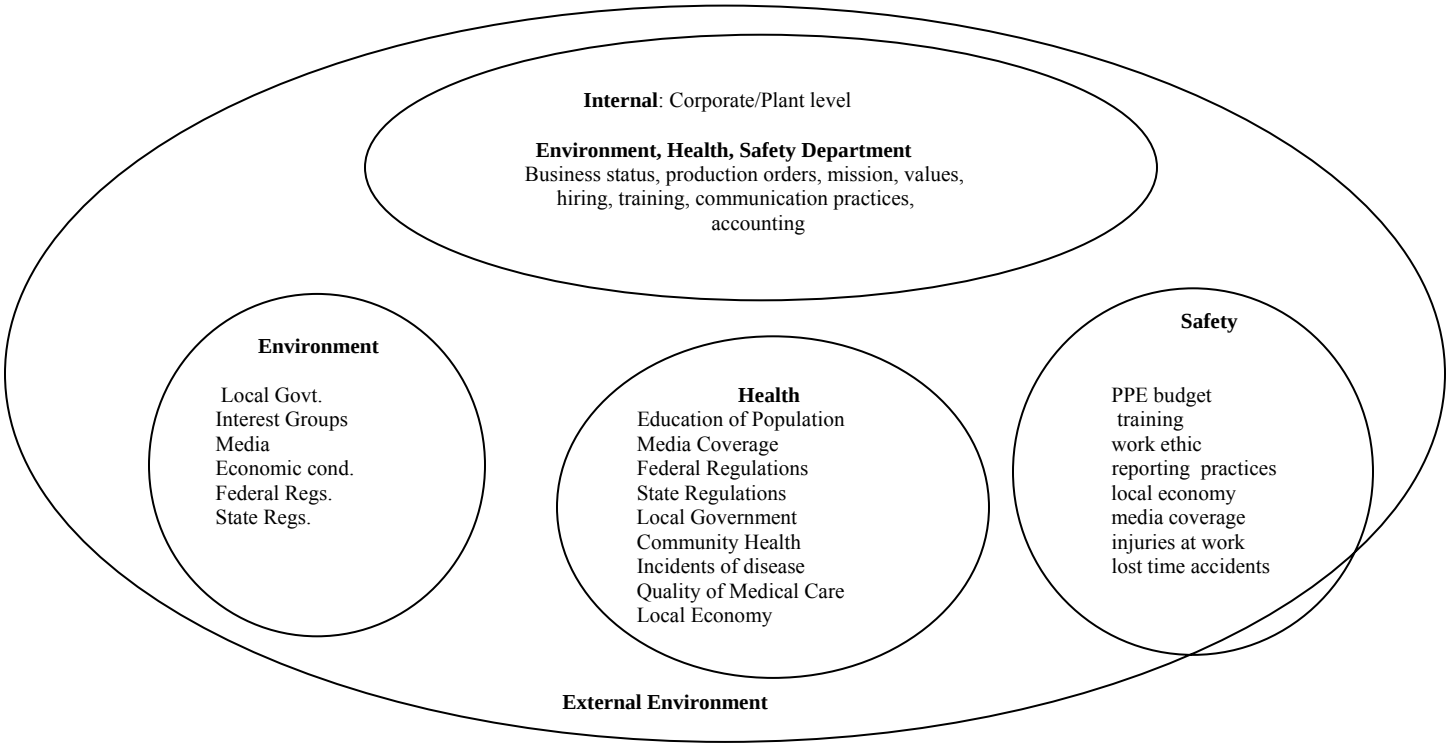
> "This is an extremely difficult time in the industry with a number of job orders going overseas. My management team, which is a microcosm of the entire company, must operate quickly, decisively, effectively and efficiently. If I can't pump orders through the plant that generate profit, while ensuring corporate that we have a safe shop, have protected the environment, and posed no harm to our community, corporate won't direct business to this plant and I won't have a job and my employees will suffer. Our jobs are so intertwined that it's in all our best interests to know and perform our jobs well, which we do." (Plant Manager, personal communication, January 21, 2004).

Three plant managers discussed the importance of a highly interactive, cross functional teams approach to management as critical for addressing corporate concerns, Responsible Care® standards and mandates and remaining competitive in the industry.

Components: Permeability

The third systems component is permeability or the openness of the system to its environment. Permeability can exist internally from suprasystem to suprasystem or from suprasystem to supersystem or externally from suprasystem to supersystem. Figure 2 demonstrates one suprasystem (Environmental, Health and Safety) and the myriad internal and external systems with which it interacts on a daily, weekly or monthly basis.

Figure 2: Permeability of System from Internal and External Perspective



Internally, ACC determined that unification of its member companies would be critical to the success of its campaign. "ACC needed to heighten awareness and motivate producers to approach production from the same perspective. At our Responsible Care® meetings, we all speak a similar vocabulary and discuss how we manage certain problems with Code implementation," said an Environmental Health and Safety manager from a personal hygiene manufacturer in PA. "You get a strong sense that those of us who are following the Codes are doing our jobs with more sensitivity for the employees, environment and our communities." Companies that didn't join ACC and thus, didn't subscribe to Responsible Care® quickly learned that the pool of potential customers would be reduced significantly. According to Dr. Rainer Domalski, Manger Remediation Projects for RUTGERS Organics Corp, "to remain a preferred supplier in an industry were reputations are earned

through safe manufacturing practices, you must be able to clearly demonstrate your company's total commitment to sound environmental management (ROC Newsletter).

Systems Processes

Input-throughput-output processes characterize system processes. The ACC, organizationally, has focused its efforts on development and implementation of the Responsible Care® Codes of Management Practices, which serve as throughputs and include pollution prevention, community awareness and emergency response, employee health and safety, product stewardship, process safety, distribution and security. Unification of member companies' philosophical orientation towards this systematic change is accomplished through the Guiding Principles, which help member companies to understand what is expected of them.

In essence, the political, legal, social, cultural, environmental and personnel issues associated with chemical manufacturing were inputs generated through highly permeable boundaries at ACC. The industry employed deviation-amplifying feedback or what Maruyama (1963) identified as information, which changes the system through growth and development. For example, Pepper (1996) identifies three generations of concern for the environment: The first generation: preservation and conservation (pre-1960's) attended to soil erosion, local pollution and protection of wildlife and habitats; the second generation: modern environmentalism dates from the 1960s to 1970s centered on population growth, technology, desertification, pesticides, resource depletion, and pollution abatement. The third generation: global issues began in the late 1970s and concentrates on acid rain, ozone depletion, climate change, loss of biodiversity, and genetically modified organisms. Simultaneously, OSHA, EPA and state departments of environmental protection were initiated and given more rigorous responsibilities to serve as watchdogs of the chemical industry and protect people. ACC actively digested feedback from the external environment by designing and implementing the Codes.

System properties

Organizations and thus, individuals, who actively monitor both the external and internal environments, which have a potential impact on their organization's ability to attain its goals and respond effectively to the information gleaned typically demonstrate one or more of systems properties: holism, equifinality, negative entropy, and requisite variety.

Holism

Holism suggests that the system is more than the sum of its parts based on feedback and exchange. ACC member companies

Equifinality

Katz & Katz (1978) explain that a system "can reach the same final state from differing initial conditions and by a variety of paths" (p.30). ACC member companies are at completely different stages of implementation of the 7 Codes. "We realized that in order to be a competitor in the domestic chemical manufacturing industry, we needed to become ACC members and implement Responsible Care® yesterday," stated a plant manager for an international chemical manufacturing company. We have hired experts or contracted with experts in the seven areas and should be competitive with the more established companies like Dow and DuPont by next year." The older companies had to help write the Responsible Care® manual to a degree, while the newer members can enjoy the toils of their labor since the rough spots have been managed.

Negative entropy

Organizations that have demonstrated an ability to exist, thrive or flourish do so because they respond and react to feedback in the environment. ACC has managed to persuade more than 85% of chemical producers to practice Responsible Care® either through becoming members of ACC or the Synthetic Organic Chemical Manufacturers Association (SOCMA), which tends to represent companies with modest revenues. To further persuade stakeholder groups that things in the chemical industry have changed, chemical companies can sponsor businesses that have a contract with the member company. The sponsorship requires the contract company to rigorous standards and business practices.

Requisite variety

Requisite Variety addresses the complexity of the internal system and its ability to respond/react to the external environment. The ACC has demonstrated requisite variety by crafting the Codes in response to the growing legal, political, economic, social, environmental and health-related concerns about chemical manufacturing operations. While some chemical producers were better positioned to respond to external concerns, smaller companies with limited resources were less fortunate. Moreover, the third generation of concern for the environment coupled with convergence in media technologies propelled local environmental issues to global prominence. Smaller chemical manufacturers were threatened and some believed they would never be able to manage the onslaught of paperwork to comply with state and federal environmental regulations

to conduct operations coupled with community right-to-know legislation. The Codes were designed to address this new legislation and thus, companies, which subscribe to Responsible Care were better positioned to succeed.

Conclusion

Health (1993) explained that "meaning defines the identities and prerogatives of organizations, people associated with them, and their relationships. Changes that affect businesses and non-profits result from calls, voiced in interpretive vocabularies, to constrain their prerogatives by displacing old meanings with new ones (p. 142). As such, the chemical industry undertook an industry-wide effort to motivate chemical producers to rethink every aspect of their business operations through the Responsible Care® initiative.

Chemical manufacturers under the guidance of the American Chemistry Council (ACC), formerly the Chemical Manufacturer's Association (CMA), designed and launched in1988 a $5-million 5-year public relations effort for clean-up of the industry's image called Responsible Care® (McConville, 1992; Morrow, 1989). The effort can be directly linked to the work of Otto Lerbinger's (1986) Managing Corporate Crisis and demonstrates effective systems input-throughput-output processes.

The focus of the image campaign was to respond to public concerns about the manufacture and use of chemicals through the creation and implementation of ten guiding principles and six codes. More recently, a seventh code, the security code, was devised in response to the terrorists' attacks on the United States in September 2001.

As outlined in ACC educational materials, Responsible Care® requires companies to (1) continually improve their health, safety and environmental performance; (2) listen and respond to public concerns; (3) assist each other to achieve optimum performance; and (4) report its progress to the public (CMA Brochure, 1996). The public, through a 15-member, non-industry public advisory panel (PAP) has been directly involved in shaping the initiative. These Codes support that ACC served as the supersystem, while member companies served as suprasystems forming a hierarchical order.

Twelve years later, Axelrod (2000) commented on the success of Responsible Care® noting member companies "were moving toward improving environmental performance and working toward sustainability and socially responsible business practices, although few were communicating this information to the public for corporate gain" (p. 3). Industry experts confirm that the program has achieved moderate success in encouraging producers and auxiliary services to improve their environmental, health, and safety performance (Del Morris, 1999). This accomplishment was formalized by the Keystone Center, an environmental education organization in Colorado, which bestowed the "Leadership in Industry" award upon the ACC in 2000. Member companies demonstrated interdependence and permeability, but lacked effectiveness in demonstrating the system property of requisite variety. It appears that ACC is now attempting to address this inadequacy. A July 2000 article "Responsible Care: New Connections" suggested Responsible Care® still has a way to go. In this article, Schmitt (2000) shares survey results from a study commissioned by ACC, which suggested a majority of respondents indicated the "industry's assets as its benefits to society, including its products, and the Responsible Care® program outweigh its liabilities and associated risks" (p. 38).

In response, CMA acknowledged the plight of Responsible Care® and community impressions of chemicals by changing its' name to the American Chemistry Council (ACC) in July of 2000. ACC rolled out a new and improved public relations strategy designed to promote the industry's success with risk reduction. It donned a new slogan, "better living through chemistry". The campaign targeted the general public and niche audiences, such as, policy makers and environmental groups. ACC proceeded cautiously about marketing member companies' environmental accomplishments because of the double-edged sword nature of the situation; a limited number of companies have achieved compliance with all of the Codes, and all member companies are at different stages in adoption of the Codes (Lavelle, 2000).

The ACC appears to have actively responded to pressures from the external environment and motivated many chemical producers to practice Responsible Care. The internal system, member companies, has been modestly successful to date.

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Development and Testing of a Prototype CD-ROM for Teaching Public Relations Writing

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Ann Peru Knabe, APR and John Luecke, APR, both Public Relations faculty at University of Wisconsin – Whitewater, have developed and tested a CD to supplement public relations courses. Knabe presented a paper about the CD and related research at the 7th Annual International Public Relations Research Conference in Miami earlier this month.

"This innovative course supplement rests on a classic pedagogical approach to teaching public relations writing courses, but moves it into the digital age, meeting the needs of today's tech-savvy students," explained Knabe. "Today's students think in terms of digital hyperlinks, and the CD uses this model, while saving students money on excessive paper copy costs."

The first of its kind, the "PR Tactics I CD" is a digital version of more than 75 examples of different public relations tactics, including news releases, fact sheets, backgrounders, brochures and related communications material. Knabe and Luecke organized the different tactics into 14 categories, with hyperlinks connecting the tactics to resulting media coverage and related campaign material. Each category includes tutorial text introducing the tactics and their typical use in a public relations campaign.

An exploratory study that took place in fall 2003 found great enthusiasm for the CD. Students who participated in focus groups and surveys praised the CD as a reference tool. The course instructor also stated the CD was a positive addition to his course.

Knabe and Luecke are continuing their study of the CD during the current semester, hypothesizing that students who use the CD as a reference tool perform better on related assignments. As additional data are analyzed, the researchers will be able to better assess the CD's role and relationship to learning and class performance.

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For decades public relations practitioners have learned their craft by reviewing writing samples created by earlier practitioners, and then modeling their own writing on these samples. When faced with an unfamiliar writing task many practitioners "looked in the file" for previous examples and sought to build on the experience of past practitioners. This practice has been emulated in many public relations writing textbooks by including examples of news releases, fact sheets, file biographies, brochures, and many other forms of public relations writing discourses used in the field.

However, today's public relations students have grown up with computers and are much more computer savvy than previous generations of students. Thus it seems reasonable to package samples of public relations tactics in an interactive CD-ROM format that allows access to many more examples than a typical textbook might include, and provides links between the public relations tactic and the resulting news coverage. For example, students can read a news release or media alert, and then click on a variety of print or broadcast news stories resulting from the original public relations tactic. This allows students to make comparisons between the messages developed by the public relations practitioner and the messages picked up by the media.

Having developed a prototype CD-ROM, this study sought to test its efficacy as a supplement to classroom lecture and in-class writing assignments. Researchers used a focus group, student survey and instructor interview to shed light on the relationship between student CD-ROM use and classroom performance. The researchers also sought to account for other variables that could influence classroom performance such as student consultation with the teacher, college entrance writing examination scores, student access to technology outside of the classroom, and the student's level of comfort with technology.

Introduction

For many years, public relations faculty have referred to examples of public relations tactics to help teach students how to write. This modeling of public relations tactics and learning by example extends directly to choice in writing curriculum. Popular public relations textbooks include real-world examples of news releases, fact sheets, biographies and backgrounders for students to refer to when working on their assignments (Bivens, 1995; Newsom & Carrell, 2000; Smith, 2003; Tucker & Derelian, 1989; Wilcox, 2001).

This pedagogical practice mirrors the experience of generations of public relations practitioners who learned their craft by "looking in the file" to see how a particular problem or opportunity was addressed in the past, and then seeking to improve on the public relations response. In doing so, they built on the collective experience of earlier practitioners and sought to model their work on the best practices of these practitioners.

Using a similar pedagogical approach of sharing examples for referral and modeling of writing, the researchers developed a CD comprised of various examples of public relations tactics. More than 75 examples of tactics were categorized into 14 categories. The examples included a range of tactics with varying degrees of complexity from diverse organizations. The CD also included tutorial text introducing each tactic, describing its purpose and use within a PR program or campaign. Hyperlinks allowed students to easily connect to related campaign material and view examples of resulting media coverage. On-screen text referred students to the appropriate section of the course text for additional information about the use and execution of specific tactics. The CD was used as a required course supplement in a Fall 2003 public relations writing class at a medium-size university in the Midwest.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the efficacy of the CD-ROM as a supplement to classroom lecture and in-class writing assignments. The researchers also sought to account for other variables which could influence classroom performance such as student consultation with the teacher, college entrance writing examination scores, a student's access to technology outside of the classroom, and the student's level of comfort with technology.

Methodology

The researchers conducted an exploratory study using survey, focus group and interview methodologies. Eighteen students enrolled in a public relations tactics course (writing course) participated in a survey. Twelve of the students were majoring in communication with a public relations emphasis. Two males and 16 females

completed the survey. The majority of the students were sophomores and juniors. Eight students also participated in a focus group several weeks before the survey. The researchers also conducted an interview with the course instructor, a tenure-track assistant professor.

Results

Because of the small sample size, bivariate correlations were used as the primary statistical tool. Not surprisingly, students who referred to the CD during the course reported enjoying it ($r = .736$, $p < .01$). Likewise, students who referred to the CD also said it enhanced their learning experience ($r = .706$, $p < .01$). Students who referred to the CD also modeled their work from the CD ($r = .639$, $p < .01$). These findings echo the results of the focus group where students said comments like "The CD was great – there was a huge variety of examples I could look at for formatting" and "I used it quite a bit for ideas on designing my own PR assignments for class."

Students who modeled their work from the CD also reported enjoying the CD ($r = .664$, $p < .01$), and said it enhanced their learning experience ($r = .526$, $p < .01$). Students who reported enjoying the CD also reported it enhanced their learning experience ($r = .852$, $p < .01$).

Because of the small sample size, it is unknown how much students' individual writing skills and personal study habits affected their use of the CD. However, it was noted the higher students' ACT English Writing Score, the more likely they referred to the CD for formatting ideas ($r = .712$, $p < .01$). In addition, the higher students' ACT, the higher their grades were on the writing assignments. ($r = .549$, $p < .05$).

The researchers also examined other "help-seeking" behaviors of students. Upper class students were more likely to seek help from the professor during the lab sessions ($r = .514$, $p < .05$). In addition, the more students used the CD for ideas, the more likely they were to ask the teacher for help during lab ($r = -.738$, $p < .01$). As one would expect, students who sought help during office hours were more likely to have higher cumulative grade on writing assignments ($r = .489$, $p < .05$.).

While the focus group findings revealed great enthusiasm for the CD overall, students expressed interest in adding critiques of each tactic. "I wanted to know what was a 'good' and what was a 'bad' release," said one student. "I didn't want to get ideas from a bad one (tactic)." Focus group participants also suggested including a generic template for news releases, fact sheets and other tactics.

Students appreciated the ability to quickly link to related media coverage. "It was neat to see what PR people send out and what journalists use," said one student, referring to hyperlinks connecting tactics with resulting media coverage. "It makes a lot more sense to me when I see the final product," said another. Students also reported finding the introductory tutorials text helpful. Several suggested more background information be included on each tactic to help provide context.

Discussion

The findings from this directional study are largely inconclusive. Due to the small sample size of the survey, it is not known whether CD use is a primary influence on students' grades. As the instructor noted, it was hard to isolate the reasons students did well in class. He believed there was a relationship between students' use of the CD and grades, but "wouldn't say the CD alone would be the key to why students did well or not (in the class)."

"At any level, the CD probably enhanced student understanding–provided they (students) took advantage of it," said the instructor. "I believe the students who had a 'good attitude' toward the course–and used a combination of the CD, the text, class discussion and my counsel–are the ones who performed best," he explained.

The students' appreciation of CD as a learning tool was very evident. Students cited the convenience and accessibility of different tactics on one small disk. The focus group findings and instructor perceptions (via interview) indicate students prefer a "digital format" as opposed to hard-copy paper printouts. Paradoxically, one focus group participant claimed to "love the CD" but admitted to printing out paper copies for visual reference.

A majority of the students reported their computer skills and technical skills as average or above average, and 17 of the 18 survey respondents reported they had computers with CD-ROM readers at their primary residence.

When it came to available formats for tactics examples, students preferred CD-ROM (8) followed by Internet Website (6) samples. Several focus group participants suggested having an online site and CDs. "This would be helpful if you forget your CD," said a participant. Only one of the 18 survey respondents reported a preference for hard-copy over digital formats. This is not surprising, as today's college students are digitally-literate, visually-stimulated, computer savvy students who think in terms of hyperlinks and computer screens.

As one focus group participant stated, "I'm a person who thinks visually, and this is why the CD made such a difference."

The instructor estimated most students used the CD every lab session, totaling 18 times throughout the semester. He also used it as a visual supplement in lectures, frequently starting with the CD and spring-boarding to other examples of tactics on the Internet.

Implications

The results of this exploratory study demonstrate a need for continued research in the area of digital supplements in the PR classroom. The students' vocal enthusiasm for the product indicates a continued need to address new ways of sharing information to meet the needs of today's tech-savvy students. Since the use of the CD-ROM was largely passive and at the discretion of the students, future research also will need to consider if and how the teacher uses the CD-ROM to illustrate key lecture points or develops assignments related to the content of the CD-ROM. The researchers are continuing this study during the Spring 2004 semester, and plan to pool the survey results with Fall 2003 respondents, resulting in more definitive analysis.

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Public Relations and Politics: NGOs and National/Global Broadcasting Policy

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Public relations' role in both public diplomacy and public advocacy has been recognized, particularly within the last few years, as critical. The value of strategic relationship building in business and societal, as well as interpersonal endeavors, has strengthened the call for more socially responsible, ethical, and transparent public relations practices. In the UK, this call for transparency and a burgeoning electronic communication landscape prompted a redefinition of the "public interest" in broadcasting by concerned viewer/listener/citizen groups, acting as official and unofficial NGOs.

The Voice of the Listener and Viewer (VLV), Consumers' Association (CA), Campaign for Quality Television (CQT)|, Deaf Broadcasting Council (DBC), National Viewers and Listeners Association (NVALA), and National Consumer Council (NCC), the original groups studied, monitored changes in broadcasting/digital communication, including channel proliferation, new electronic technologies, convergence, and changing industry structures and patterns of media ownership. Although only VLV registered as an "official" NGO, the other core groups also interacted with politicians, regulators, and the institutions they represented on behalf of the public interest. In addition, other coalitions and "solo" groups, representing voluntary and regional UK (including non broadcasting) and European interests, were identified in 2000 and thereafter. All these groups had some impact on their target publics, but those that had greater impact in the political and regulatory arenas developed good relationships with targets and other pressure groups that exhibited dimensions identified by the author and adopted a triangulated public relations approach. This approach combined such strategic relationship building with media education, including credible research, and with media advocacy (Wallack, Dorfman, Jernigan, & Themba)–framing a broadcasting/electronics issue in terms of its larger social, political, and economic impact so that targets are spurred to policy change.

Between 1996 and 2004, tactical shifts in public relations practice resulted, in part, to increased Internet use and new platforms for communication. Among noteworthy developments was the exponential use of Web sites (for posting press releases, current and back-dated newsletters, consultation documents, and other information) as well as the movement of activists to global forums to deal with local issues. One example of the latter was EURALVA, VLV's European and global coalition that discussed, at the EC level, concerns about the content of children's programs, junk food ads, and other topics.

In the case of an broadcasting issue that had strong political implications (such as the recent Hutton inquiry into the BBC's account of pre-Iraq war intelligence leading up to the war in Iraq and the death of Dr. David Kelly) or financial repercussions (such as sustaining the license fee that funds the BBC), or both, NGO pressure groups struggled to advocate for a designated political/policy agenda, while maintaining independence from decision makers and their institutions. Lingering doubts remain as to whether such independence can truly be achieved or successful advocacy groups necessarily are absorbed or co-opted into the institutions that they wish to change. There needs to be further exploration of the viability of NGOs centered on the dynamism of an individual or an aging leadership. It is unclear if they will lose momentum/direction once the leader(s) die. In addition, the extent to which and how NGOs' public relations varies globally should be noted, as should methods of evaluating variables that account for that change.

Public Relations and Politics: NGOs and National/Global Broadcasting Policy

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This paper examines the use of public relations on a national, regional, and global basis by British groups, sometimes in conjunction with European and other broadcasting advocacy groups. These groups engaged with politicians and policy makers, acting as formal and informal non-governmental organizations (NGOs) on behalf of their respective countries' viewing, listening, and digital publics. It builds on previous studies by this author, who explored the British and European activities of the Voice of the Listener and Viewer (VLV), registered as an NGO, and other British broadcasting advocates. Its emphasis here is on VLV, the most vocal and regionally/globally active of the groups. The study assesses how these groups and some new ones networked to effect political and policy change. The strategic relationship building, credible research, media education, and media advocacy of such groups appears to have increased their role in policy making and perceptions that they are integral to democratic processes and citizen participation in choices about media access, content, and other compelling issues.

Introduction

Public relations' role in both public diplomacy and public advocacy has been recognized as critical to the success of any venture, defense, or operation. Corporate faux pas, military incursions, and multilateral trade agreements have exacerbated the need for effective public relations. Recognition of the value of strategic relationship building in business, societal, and interpersonal endeavors has recently strengthened the call for more socially-responsible, ethical, and transparent public relations practices.

Problem

This paper will examine how British and some European broadcasting advocacy groups use public relations, in the public interest, to engage with politicians and policy makers on behalf of their publics. In previous studies, this author explored the intra-UK work of the Voice of the Listener and Viewer (VLV), an NGO, and other British broadcasting advocates. This work will update their national/regional/global activities.

Foundations of the research

Between 1996 and 2003, the focus was the strategies and impact of Voice of the Listener and Viewer (VLV [concerned with a broad range of broadcasting-related issues, notably, the survival of public service broadcasting {PSB}]), Consumers' Association (CA [its agenda centered around product quality and value for money]), Campaign for Quality Television (CQT [focused primarily on quality/diversity, but more recently concerned with access, regulation, and the new Communications Bill]), the Deaf Broadcasting Council (DBC [preoccupied with access to broadcasting services for the deaf]), National Viewers and Listeners Association (NVALA [a proponent of taste and decency in broadcasting]), and the National Consumer Council (NCC [a government-funded consumer watchdog]). These groups monitored changes in broadcasting and electronic communication, including channel proliferation, new electronic technologies, digital convergence, and new industry structures and patterns of media ownership, which affected viewers and listeners as citizens and consumers and influenced activists' public relations. Tactical shifts were, in part, due to increased Internet use and new platforms.

Although activists used many strategies, the author (1998) identified a successful mix of strategies– relationship building, media education (providing forums for debate about compelling broadcasting issues), and media advocacy (Wallack, Dorfman, Jernigan, & Themba, 1993), which framed issues in terms of their societal impact.

The data suggested that this triangulated approach helped call attention to broadcasting issues and advanced activist group agendas. Overall, effectiveness meant generating debate on the issues, providing credible/arguments, developing positive relationships with target publics, and occasionally achieving tangible goals. Good relationship outcomes required a specific set of dimensions (identified below) to be present. Significantly, those groups that sustained good relationships over time, without tangible gains, were more successful than those that achieved short-term goals but upset their targets. Although a consensus existed about activists' strategies and their impact on debate, it was difficult to attribute success to a particular group because multiple actors and environmental variables operated concurrently (Barnett, 1997; Porter, 2000).

The research also framed public service broadcasting (PSB) as a public sphere.

The challenges facing PSB, and this hypothetical sphere (Garnham, 1994; Habermas, 1989; Schlesinger, 2000, Sparks, 2000), prompted British groups to defend it in select forums, the media, online, and in

consultative documents. Debate centered on issues such as universal digital access, social inclusion in electronic media, and regulatory redress, all in the "public interest." The author tracked their public relations efforts to generate the debate that strengthens that sphere. These groups worked within a new electronic communication environment, which is discussed, below.

The global electronic age

Broadcasting and burgeoning electronic communication are auxiliaries to democratic deliberation (Sclove, 1995) and public interest is being redefined by politicians, opinion leaders, and grassroots citizens. In addition, the boundaries between public relations and political advocacy around broadcasting are increasingly blurred. This is particularly true when national interests are subsumed within regional/global agendas.

Thus, national, regional, and global communication policy have become intertwined. Publics affected by industry changes and pressure groups advocating for them have gone regional and global to gain a voice in decision making. Conversely, regional and global organizations have asked First World activists to assist developing countries in creating groups for their own fledgling broadcasting systems (Hay, 2001).

Activists and scholars have grappled with changes in the new landscape.[2] Concern about broadcasting's impact on national culture in an era of globalization drove June, 2003 European Commission (EC) hearings on proposed revisions to the *Television Without Frontiers Directive* (Commission of the European Communities, 1997; 2003). Activists' views on pending legislation/regulation have been solicited and VLV, for example, consistently responded to EC consultations.

> "As a result of the consultation process, the Communication…. proposes a two step approach: the rules on television advertising and on the protection of minors will be the subject of new initiatives in the first quarter of 2004. For other issues, where further reflection is needed, work with experts in focus groups and independent studies will take place in 2004 as a preparation for any legislative proposal concerning an update of the Directive that could be put forward in 2005. (Commission on the European Communities, 2003).

Some advocacy groups sought to exert their influence in politics and policies by applying for non-governmental organization (NGO) status. These groups tried to advance a specific agenda and maintain independence from decision makers and their institutions. Although only VLV was an official NGO status, other behaved as informal NGOs. All of them supported aspects of PSB and most pushed to advance PSB values across the board.

The case of Public Service Broadcasting

PSB's autonomy, as well as its market, may be eroding. As in EU countries, British PSB is officially free from government control and depends on the license fee, collected on every television-owning household, for funding (which is distributed to the broadcaster at the discretion of Parliament). It competes with commercial terrestrial, cable, and satellite media for ratings and market share and must justify its portion of the license fee monies. Several BBC challenges have been market-driven reorganization (as per Producer Choice [Cloot, 1994]), threats to the license fee (Financial Times, 2003; Peacock, 1986), and, the timetable for digital switchover (Tourlemain, 2001). Other challenges have been the loosening of restrictions on both cross-ownership of media industries and the purchase of U.K. media by foreign companies. Global media conglomerates' (e.g., those owned by Rupert Murdoch and Italian Prime Minister Silvio Berlusconi) dominate the market, skirt regulations to which terrestrial broadcasters are subject, and buy rights to significant cultural and sporting events, known as "listed events," which PSB may not get to show in "real time." Also, PSB must balance economic viability and editorial independence.

Editorial independence of public service broadcasters.

The BBC, as a U.K. broadcaster, has insisted that politics should not encroach on its editorial independence and/or its funding through the license fee. In 1988, the commercial franchise Thames Television broadcast *Death on the Rock*, documenting IRA members' assassination of IRA members in Gibraltar by British Special Forces. This was done against the Government's wishes, with severe ramifications (Davidson, 1992). PSB advocates argue that the BBC's political views should not be linked with the amount of public money allocated to it. In addition between the BBC's Royal Charter Review and the Hutton Report (which investigated allegations against Tony Blair's Labour government and the death of Dr. David Kelly the environment for PSB has been stressful (Wells, 2003). Gavin Davies, Chairman of the BBC Governors, and Greg Dyke, BBC Director-General) both resigned. Although the Report's implications for the BBC's future is uncertain, Britons trust the BBC overall (Lehrer, 2004). VLV's Hay commented, "We hope that governance and decision making (at the BBC) will be more transparent" (Wells, 2003, p. 1). Public relations around the Hutton Report will be explored further. Note that media coverage of it has piqued in the U.S. (e.g. Lehrer, 2004; Beard, 2004), where PSB is marginalized.

These British developments are contextualized against an at-risk broadcasting public sphere with a mandate to inform, educate, and entertain its viewers and listeners (BBC, 1992) and concern the "citizen as consumer"

(Hay, 2004) and the future of PSB. What drove reporter Andrew Gilligan (at the Hutton inquiry's heart) to make a careless but critical reporting error, was pressure on the BBC to get a scoop, said *Marketplace's* Stephen Beard (2004). "The Corporation now scrambles for ratings and market share."

Toward a viable broadcasting public sphere

There is a growing public expectation of broadcasters' accountability and a "broadcasting public sphere" that would provide citizens with information they need to participate in civil society. Sir John Reith's (BBC founder) vision for the Corporation and commercial independent television (ITV) remit were alike in terms of public service obligations.

The term "broadcasting public sphere" has been used by this author in two interdependent ways that have impact on each other. Television and radio content, including public/political debates, and their accessibility to audiences are the first way, as are content's impact on democracy, increased diversity, or other social effects. The second way the term is used involves public relations–building strategic relationships, generating public discussion about broadcasting policy, programming, and decision-making, media advocacy, and other means to modify broadcasting policies/programming. This research stressed the public relations of off-air groups to influence on-air choices.

Some theorists said that with improved communication technology, the public sphere would be accessible to wider communities. According to Hadden and Silverstone (2000):

> Communication has become a buzzword in discussions of the information society. Information and communication technologies are often seen as a panacea offering, through their various electronic networks, the opportunity for communities to be created and otherwise marginalized and disenchanted citizens to reclaim their right to participate in an energized and revitalized public sphere (p. 250).

The reality is that this technology did not beget a utopian public sphere. Some core groups believed that those unable to pay would lack digital access and technological and political information to help them function in society. VLV, CA, and NCC urged politicians, often vainly, to recognize the digital and information divide that might arise out an analogue switch-off. Hadden and Silverstone's panacea was an unlikely outcome.

The author suggested the value of pressure groups' public relations and a broadcasting public sphere to a healthy, socially-inclusive, and diverse civil society that fosters democracy. The author researched political culture's impact on activism (Author, 1998).

Exploring activist behavior from the perspective of social scientists

The majority of the political science literature dealt with government-activist interactions[2]. In the UK's corporatism, the government intervenes in society in order to achieve goals and afford monopoly representation to certain businesses (Lewis, 1990). Numerous special interests tugged at the government (e.g., Wilson, 1961).

Despite Parliament's hand in the BBC's funding, it is neither a special interest nor in a corporatist relationship with the government (even after the Hutton debacle). Core activist groups were not social movements (Tarrow, 1994), despite their attempts to alter national, regional, and international policy. Despite their small size and lack of direct political influence, activists' public relations had national, if not international, impact. Core groups were formal/informal NGOs, so we must understand their roles as NGOs.

NGOs-an overview of their roles and impact

Rice and Ritchie (1995) addressed the growing role and relationship of international non-governmental organizations in national/international life and with the UN. They said:

> These three elements – the growth of citizen organizations at all levels of society, the imperative need for global action on global problems, and the remarkable ease of instant communication – have been major building blocks in the expansion of non-governmental organizations at the global level and have led to the increasing relationship between them and the UN family. (p. 254)[4]

Rice and Ritchie's point out the relationship between NGOs and a strong organization. An even stronger portrait of NGOS is painted by Castells (2000, p. 268).

> ….the growing incapacity of states to tackle the global problems that make an impact on public opinion…. leads civil societies to increasingly take into their own hands the responsibilities of global citizenship….so many other….non-governmental organizations have become a major force in the international arena.

Although Castells' conclusions refer to humanitarian organizations (whose power sharing erode the nation-state, he says) his above point applies to my groups as NGOs. Further, UK/European Alliance of Listeners and Viewers Associations (EURALVA) activists' issues rendered them a global '"citizenship" lobby,' as he described. When governments cannot meet their responsibility to citizens, the latter have found vehicles for drawing attention to their areas of need. An assessment of broadcasting activists' impact follows.

Assessments of effectiveness

Gauging direct impact by most of the U. K. core groups on policies and programming was difficult. Most respondents perceived group impact as raising awareness of and debate about compelling issues. CQT and DBC made legislative gains (preserving a "quality" threshold in ITV [commercial television] and increasing

subtitling in ITV and BBC. respectively). Nevertheless, Barnett (1997) and Porter (2000) believed that too many variables were at work to give one group credit for change. One constant that emerged from the data as an area of impact–strategic relationship building–was also a dominant strategy. Its value as an outcome in itself is made clearer, below.

The growing significance of research on group behaviors, relationships, and activism

The growth of current scholarship concerning pro-social, transparent, and ethical public relations reflects a larger societal concern about organizations' relationships to their publics in an era of self, rather than public, interest. Public relations scholars have been standard bearers for the professional world with their insistence that strategic relationship building with key publics contributes to organizational success.[5] It supersedes the profit-oriented corporate "bottom line," helping organizations to meet goals and build trust.

In addition, some scholars have responded to Karlberg (1996), who called for a shift in the research agenda from a focus on powerful corporations to unempowered publics.[6]

The 1997 data on the six groups suggested that activists whose relationships reflected key dimensions–frank, reasoned dialogue, mutual respect, confidentiality and trust, openness and understanding, shared interests, networking with others and/or befriending your targets, access, and recognizing their targets' constraints–were more successful in dealing with their targets than those who did not. Respondents agreed on the value of relationship building to positive outcomes for activists and "rules of engagement" (Stevenson, 1997) that support their importance to public relations success.

Relationships, community, and social responsibility

The link between communal relationships (Hon & J. Grunig, 1999)[7] and the social responsibility function of public relations related to broadcasting activists' public interest (see Heath and Ryan [1989] re: the corporate level). Heath and Palenchar (2000) noted:

> Building rapport with and gaining support from community residents is a continuous, long-term activity on the part of enlightened companies that desire to be supported as good industrial neighbors.…Support is earned by actions that address the concerns of the public, rather than downplaying or dismissing them. (p. 132).

Broadcasting groups work long-term with corporate, governmental, and regulatory institutions on behalf of the public interest. Nevertheless, the above quote does not directly apply to their situation, because more often than not, their publics are unaware of the corporations' or governmental regulations' impact on their lives as viewers, listeners, and citizens. Activists must awaken broader publics to the dangers that may face them.

VLV's Chairperson (Jocelyn Hay) and former industry professionals/members helped both politicians and citizens understand the Communications Bill (now the Communications Act [2003]). As part of Public Voice's (2003) coalition (e.g., CQT and non-broadcasting voluntary groups), VLV focused on the Office of Communications (Ofcom), the single regulator, that affected PSB and its diverse publics. Most politicians who voted did not understand the Bill's consequences for their constituents and the U.K.

Methodology

The author traveled to the U.K. in June-July 2003. In-depth interviews with individuals who had a stake in group advocacy provided the majority of the data. Most interviews took place in London. Some were conducted in Edinburgh (Napier University and the offices of Scottish Advisory Commission on Telecommunications [SACOT]), Glasgow (BBC Scotland), and one in Cardiff (S4C, the Welsh language channel).

The purpose of the trip to Scotland and Wales was to provide a regional perspective on broadcasting developments and the Communication Bill, which was being debated in Parliament (The author attended the Report stage at the House of Lords [2003]. Activists doubted would meet the needs of Scotland, Wales, and N. Ireland.

On June 23, 2003, the author attended a public hearing at the European Commission in Brussels regarding revision of the *Television without Frontiers Directive* (Commission of the European Communities, 1997; 2003). In Brussels, numerous NGOs and lobby groups from throughout the European Union critiqued the provisions of the current directive and the draft revisions. Although no core groups attended that hearing, many of their concerns about the future of its PSB core cultural values were raised. On July 7, 2003, the author attended a VLV lecture followed by its First Annual General Meeting (AGM), which dealt with routine matters and a few substantive issues, as below.

The author's participant observation and in-depth interviews were supplemented by telephone interviews, electronic document retrieval, library-based archival research, hard copies of group literature, policy papers, and copies of official documents. In addition, newsletters, Web sites, and emails served as supplements and updates. VLV's networking, press coverage, recognition, and global commitments rendered it the most visible core group–thus, its emphasis here, which begins after the research questions.

Research Questions

The original 1997 study probed activists, broadcasters, regulators, politicians, civil servants, academics, and others for their perceptions of broadcasters' accountability and groups' strategies(including relationship building) and impact. Follow-up studies examined enduring issues, groups, and relationships within an expanding global context.

Pressure groups' public relations, as official and unofficial NGOs linked to politics and events with political overtones, is stressed here. Below, ongoing, compelling issues and VLV's public relations as an NGO follow; most pressure groups had similar values.

Results

Most issues prescient from 1996 to 2004 are ongoing (a few exceptions are cited below).

Ongoing issues

Regional broadcasting concerns, the future of the BBC and public service broadcasting, the license fee, digital access (to broadcasting, Internet, and broadband at home), consolidation of ownership, rapid technological change (affecting people in and out of the industry), quality, Ofcom, involvement with EU initiatives, social inclusion (universal service and representation of marginalized groups), and children's programming were consistently mentioned. Emphasis on the economic/cultural impact of technology and globalization for broadcasters and citizens/consumers grew.

Compelling issues come to a head

Hay (2004) said that the Hutton Report, described above, came at the worst time–during the BBC Charter Renewal assessment. A coalition of BBC opponents, she said, was attempting to undermine after its initial error and the Report's conclusions. Ofcom, as untried regulator, and new, looser ownership regulations raised concerns that multinationals might buy commercial ITV. What would happen to public service's remit if broadcasters policy/programming decisions were market-driven?

The BBC is a cultural icon. Public relations around it is impassioned and steadfast; it represents the core British democratic public sphere. More trusted than Mr. Blair himself (Lehrer, 2004)[6], its international and British supporters vigorously defend it (e.g., Hay [2004], who says that the BBC should have admitted its error and wants to raise awareness of its crisis). The group's rhetorical and other appeals are explained, below.

Digital access in real time for the poor, elderly, and disabled was a priority on the VLV/NGO agenda. This issue exploded when BBC drama broadcasts on its digital channels (BBC 3, 4) preceded their showings on BBC 1 and BBC 2 by as much as a week. Sherwin (2003) quoted VLV's Vincent Porter, who said, "This policy breaks an understanding the BBC gave when it was given permission to launch the digital channels." VLV and others worry that since government relaxed ownership of commercial stations, quality and television's role in preserving culture via content will diminish. Hay (VLV, 2003) said: "What makes Ministers believe they (U.S. producers) will invest more in British production than they do at home?" Cross- ownership has impact on news and current affairs programs. Hay said, "What sort of response is this to….indifference….to the democratic process? And for the future of an informed and active democracy?" Tait (2003) noted that the "citizens' lobby" wants Ofcom to cease its perceived catering to commercial TV at the expense of PSB norms. VLV is the most vocal citizen lobby.

VLV: From rescuing radio to advocating for socially-inclusive convergence

VLV, perceived as the most active, credible group, began in 1983 as a campaign to save BBC Radio Four (see Theaker [2001]), later adding television-related goals for preserving PSB in the U. K. and secondarily, abroad. Its exponential growth hinged on that credibility and its steadfast support of quality, diversity, and a voice for the "citizen as consumer." Chairperson Jocelyn Hay, named Member of the British Empire (MBE) in 1999, kept VLV in her home until recently. A small bequest made it possible to rent an office and reorganize (as a limited corporation [2003]) to remain financially viable. The author (2003a) suggested, as per Olsen (1971), that small size and effectiveness were not inconsistent. VLV's aging membership presented more problems than its small budget.

Structure and continuity

VLV's Hay was the organization's spine and the Board and Committee its limbs. First attempts to integrate an essential educational/development officer were unsuccessful. Sargant (2004) described VLV's "Limited" (Ltd.) structure and attempts to replace "graying" trustees with young ones. Hay (2004) expressed frustration at conflicting commitments (e.g., European Alliance of Listeners and Viewers Associations [EURALVA]) and insufficient resources. Previous research (Author, 2003a) had suggested that a pressure group built and driven by a dynamic, charismatic individual may confront difficulties when that person is no longer be able to run it.

VLV members were concerned for the survival of the group after Hay. This explains, in part, a rationale, or rather, strategy for relocating and restructuring the group. Despite physical and structural change, outreach was

needed to transition younger people into leadership roles (Sargant [2003] explained leadership's reluctance to find a successor for Hay out of fear that this would have distracted the group from its major tasks). A major public relations effort was needed to recruit a Board and Committee younger than 65-75. VLV piqued interest by student publics (in part, through discounted memberships and tickets) and ran events at universities. Strategic rhetoric helped engage these publics.

Rhetorical Strategies and media advocacy on behalf of PSB at the national level

VLV's national commitments centered on PSB, its values, the BBC crisis, the Royal Charter Review, and Ofcom regulation. Hay (2004, Feb. 5) wrote to members and target publics:

> The reverberations from Lord Hutton's report continue....VLV's prime concern must be to defend the interest of the listeners and viewers with their confidence in the BBC. That trust is absolutely crucial to the future of the BBC. We must ensure that any loss is quickly rebuilt and that the renewal of the Corporation's Royal Charter reflects the importance of its independent status and funding…The priority now must be to insure that the BBC's mistakes are not repeated and cannot be used by the BBC's enemies to destroy this great institution.

In the same letter, Hay used stronger, direct, rhetorical appeals to her constituent publics:

> …a new, untried regulator….uncertainty over the future of Channel 4, foreign owners circling ITV, and the review of the BBC Charter, the threats to the independence and quality of British broadcasting are greater than ever before. Yet these media provide the crucial public forum where information and ideas can be freely exchanged, and the values of culture, democracy, and language are nourished. To fight for them we need your support more than ever before.

This is one example of Hay's (2004) use of rhetoric in a range of media in order to show the danger to democracy of a Britain devoid of public service broadcasting. Rhetorical appeals have been linked to and further VLV's media advocacy (Wallack, et al.), inasmuch as they depict VLV's compelling issues as affecting the health of civil society as a whole. These concerns have driven VLV, as NGO, to consult in the UK and EC.

Regional involvements through consultation

Professor Vincent Porter, VLV Committee member, generally handled its responses to European Commission (EC) consultations, including one reassessing the *Television without Frontiers Directive* ([1997], revised in 2003). The focus of the EC hearings in Brussels (which Hay [2003] suggested the author attend) was the integrity of member nations, contingent on redefining public service, cultural values, and audiovisual materials of European origin, maintaining a quota on the latter and sustaining European ownership of media and control over content. In addition, children's programming and advertising of junk foods were major issues. Although Hay (2004) pointed to pressing obligations that precluded responses to the EC, VLV had been involved with the defunct Information Society Forum (DG-13) and its overall regional presence had expanded. Its concern for culture and children's welfare prompted the founding of EURALVA in 1997, whose Web site (2003) described all of the above and media literacy/lifelong learning as key issues. VLV had to network in the EU to succeed.

Creating a network for viewers and listeners groups at the european level

VLV's 1994 Second International Conference on the Future of Public Service Broadcasting was published (Groombridge & Hay, 1995). The conference was a forum for media education, one of VLV's main strategies. Research by noted European contributors also bolstered VLV's credibility. Subsequently, Hay brought together U.K. viewer and listener groups with those of Spain, Portugal, France, Finland, and Denmark (New Zealand, Australia and Canada hold associate memberships and the Netherlands is an Observer-Member).

There are reciprocal visits by EURALVA delegates, officials from EU, EC, and Commonwealth agencies to VLV. Hay's (2004) speech at the University of Tampara, Finland to ProPublica (a pressure group modeled after VLV) focused on VLV policies and work. VLV's 2001 International Conference had a global focus and representation.

VLV as NGO and model for global viewer/listener/citizen groups

It was noted (Author, 2001) that VLV was forced to enter a global arena in order to preserve British and European public service broadcasting values. Its global/cultural concerns were exacerbated by new electronic, digital technologies, universal service, and social inclusion in an increasingly fragmented "digital divided" world. VLV needed to expand its reach in order to move forward its access-centered agenda, The group's exponential strategic relationship building and global commitments explained, in part, its desire for NGO status and Hay's (2001) turbulent trip to Seattle for the WTO 2000 conferences.

VLV's ties with UNESCO's World Summit at the Information Society and World Electronic Forum were suspended due to a dearth of resources. In 2001, at UNESCO's behest, it ran a workshop for developing countries on forming listener and viewer groups, followed by attendees' participation in a VLV International Conference the next day. UNESCO has repeated its call for VLV to run another workshop soon, in conjunction with the Commonwealth Broadcasting Association and Commonwealth Foundation. It also asked VLV to submit guidelines for forming citizen groups based on its own formation and operations. UNESCO has not authorized their disclosure thus far.

Prescribing a public sphere for dissimilar NGOs: Protecting other citizens/consumers

Hay (2004) emphasized that other countries will have to adapt the new guidelines to their specific forms of government, which may differ greatly from the U.K. in their level of press freedom. A greater modification in public relations would be needed to form a citizen group in an authoritarian or transitional nation than in a democracy. VLV, as an NGO, has been a model viewer/listener/citizen group in a democracy, but its open public relations could be dangerous or even seditious in another setting. Open suggests the right to publicly petition, debate, lobby, post information on a Web site or otherwise promote an idea or agenda, and the freedom to develop relationships that make this possible.

Developing and Third-World countries (e.g. Peru, Malaya, and the Phillipines) have asked for VLV's help. According to Hay (2004), VLV "can claim to be the leading advocate for the citizen as consumer." For VLV, the use of Internet/communication technologies made it possible to reach global publics at unprecedented speed.

Technology at their fingertips: Expanding Use by pressure groups

Another striking modification in strategies between 1997 and today was the exponential growth in the use of electronic technologies and Web sites for all the core groups. The presence of a Web site for CQT (2003) site indicates a modification of its 1997 position about outreach (Mills, 1997), and Public Voice (2003), the coalition, posted documents on its site. More members and targets had Internet access. Activists, actual and potential, could be rapidly and effectively mobilized and informed via the Net (see Elliot [1997]) on Net activism).

Web sites varied in the range of links, sophistication of design, services (e.g., membership) provided, and documents posted (see also Consumers Association, 2004; Deaf Broadcasting Council, 2004; Mediawatch UK, 2004 [NVALA was renamed MediawatchUK in 2000], National Consumer Council, 2004; and Voice of the Listener and Viewer, 2004). Beveridge (2004) (VLV Scotland) did not see the Internet as a strong tool for pressure groups, "although it does give access to government documents for little cost and in timely fashion." Hay (1994) regretted that its Web Site had not been updated, but said this would take place shortly. DBC's was static since 2001, said Myers (2004). Group sites will be discussed below under separate headings. The AGM impact follows.

Membership and music: Public relations for routine business matters *and* partisanship?

The First Annual General Meeting of VLV occurred on July 7, 2003. Hay's (2003) final meeting notice urged VLV members/sympathizers to send copies of the final VLV briefings on the Bill to their respective Members of Parliament (MPs) and to any others they knew, in order to raise awareness of viewer and listener concerns. Her strong rhetorical appeal was written in bold. "This is the very last chance for us–and you–to act, and we need your help."

From a public relations perspective, the AGM was cleverly publicized/scheduled to piggyback on a lecture about the BBC (music) Proms, threatened by proposed budget cuts. The speakers (BBC presenter, a BBC controller, and renowned conductor Sir Charles Mackerras) and the chair (a BBC radio broadcaster) discussed the Proms. The framing of one PSB threat was nested within the specter of another, a Communications Act unchecked by its viewers and listeners. The message was clear: We Brits will not be denied our cultural heritage/institutions (i.e. the Proms). The speakers' presence was novel and drew a large crowd, most of whom stayed for the routine meeting. Much of that involved accounts and procedural issues, such as nominations and retirements. Yet there were defining moments where substantive issues were raised. One fascinating, unresolved issue was whether VLV, as an independent NGO group, should adopt a unified ideological/political stance on an issue as opposed to just pushing a policy.

VLV Directors from Scotland and Wales, which have strong cultural and language needs, attended the meetings. Commercial S4C TV began to broadcast Welsh language programming in the '80s, largely through protests by activists and their hunger-striking leader (see Author, 1998). The extent of Welsh speakers, programming, and resources exceeds those of the Gaelic ones, although S4C's Howells (2003) noted the demand for an increase in Welsh TV hours. The Welsh also were not as vocal as the Scots recently, as per independence, and do not have their own Parliament. Given these constraints, pro-Scottish NGO advocacy around Gaelic broadcasting will be discussed.

Scottish activism in a time of devolution.

Beveridge (2003, 2004), a VLV Director, and Mitchell (2003), Chair, Scottish Advisory Committee on Telecommunications (SACOT), underscored the Communications Bill's relevance for Scottish interests: Scotland's cultural heritage and language, the need for Scottish input on content in broadcasting, and access to services in remote areas. The Communications Act (2003) provided Scottish representation in Ofcom's content board. SACOT wants a consumer panel for Ofcom and consultation with Scotland's Parliament.

Beveridge (2004) said the 60,000 Gaelic speakers are active in broadcasting matters within Scotland. He stated,"….it is very, very important that we keep it going." The Gaelic Media Service (GMS) replaced the Gaelic Broadcasting Committee (GBC). In January, 2004, Ofcom appointed 10 Gaelic members to the service for four-year terms (GBC, 2004). Alongside culture, politics and devolution defined the Scottish agenda.

Agendas, public relations strategies, and cooptation of Scots media and other NGOs?

According to Beveridge (2004), "the Gaelic Media Service is funded by the state/Scottish Executive & Westminster, so they are a quango with all that means." A quango (quasi-non-governmental organization) receives money from Scottish and U.K. governments, but, much like the BBC, is ostensibly free to act independently. In reality, its editorial independence, like BBC's, may be a gray area. Target institutions' accommodation of Gaelic speakers' agenda also created a real or perceived threat of absorption or cooptation by the former. This contentious issue was previously explicated (Author 2003a); in the discussion, it is developed as per the range of broadcasting and related activists studied.

Beveridge's (2004) reaction to the word "strategies" was that it was "….too grand a term-(it) smacks of PR, which we do not have money for.", he replied. "….I do know (that PR neither means spin doctoring nor always involve much money) ….the public sphere in this area is deficient in advocacy groups in Scotland–hence (the) need for VLV." Yet, "….for all intents and purposes, I am VLV Scotland."

Does VLV Scotland do anything different than VLV elsewhere, the author asked? "Not really," Beveridge (2004) said, "….except we need to target the Scottish media – *Scotsman* and *Herald* newspapers and, of course, we have our own Parliament & Members of Scottish Parliament." Lobbying, aided by strategic relationship building, was a major public relations tool in public policy issues (This worked well for CQT in the 1990 Bill [Davidson, 1992; Author, 1998]). Relationship building is discussed below.

Relationship building without national empowerment

Beveridge (2004) said:

> relationship building by – for example, the Scottish Media Group, Scottish Radio Holdings, etc. as commercial companies – is obviously important and well beyond just lobbying, but the issue is that Scotland has for so long been a stateless country- we now have our Parliament but that has no competence for the most part in media policy, which is a power reserved to Westminster.

Therefore, Beveridge (2004) perceived an ultimate lack of empowerment in broadcasting that affects relationship building and its impact on achievement of goals. (see Hofstede, [1997] on power distance). Public relations research suggests that his aspirations for future political outcomes advantageous to Scottish culture and media would be best served by good relationships and networks of allies they provide. Even "at the European level," "he said, "any policy is inflected through Westminster ….The Scottish dimension will come up….we have Scottish production & content." Non-broadcasting-centered groups (which are industry-based) lobby Members of the European Parliament (MePs). Pro-Scottish action in Europe warrants attention.

Using Europe as a springboard for NGOs with a political agenda

Beveridge (2004) said that Scottish involvement in media issues at the European (EC) level would become a viable option, "….only with independence from England/UK," which is the main issue for Scottish pressure groups operating within Europe. Overall, he said, the level of effort/lobbying of all these groups is very limited at the Brussels level. "Who has the time....except PR people who are paid to do this?" he asked. For an under-resourced or even a well-endowed group, engaging in public relations in Europe may not be a priority. Nevertheless, VLV and other pressure groups converged on Europe.

European engagement and alliance

As early as 1997, core pressure groups' lobbying in Europe, and sometimes globally, accelerated, largely to preserve British and European public service broadcasting values and work towards universal access. The NCC (2003) explained: "In the EU, *the 'Television without frontiers' directive* sets the European framework for broadcasting content regulation. The European Commission will review this in 2002/03 and we will monitor the progress for any impact on UK consumers." The same Web site established that the NCC would "conduct research into policies on public service broadcasting at UK and EU levels." This is indicative of the solidarity among the major groups as regards the importance of PSB and the urgent action necessary at home and abroad to preserve it in an increasingly consolidated and profit-oriented industry. In addition, the Directive's goal of safeguarding the cultural values of EU member nations warranted their collaborative action. VLV's long-term commitment in Europe is evident from its NGO status, creation of EURALVA, and ongoing involvement with listener and viewer groups in member nations (e.g. Finland, as above), Hay's presence in Brussels, and VLV's (Vincent Porter's) responses to consultations. Although MediawatchUK (formerly NVALA) has had marginal impact since the demise of Mary Whitehouse, its controversial founder, it moved from Colchester to Ashford, Kent, near London and a "Chunnel" stop en route to Paris. Within a few years, as European public broadcasting audiovisual policy is clearly redefined, activist groups may play a more visible role in advising policy makers,

perhaps as loose alliances (much like the ones described by the author ([1998, 2003a]) and, occasionally, as viable, permanent coalitions.

The strategic use of coalitions: An historical context and expeditious alliances

Coalitions provide strength in combined resources, such as manpower, brain power, and money, or the prestige of allying with a renowned group, which were unavailable to lone groups (Pien, 1994; Tucker & McNerney, 1992). Those forming alliances calculated their benefits–and constraints–most commonly, the potential loss of autonomy (Albury, 1997) and cooptation by other coalition members–or their targets. Two broadcasting-centered NGO coalitions, DBC, the only permanent coalition of the six core groups, and Public Voice, to which some core groups belonged, will be discussed below.

DBC

Some deaf member groups' needs or characteristics may have varied slightly, but their overall objective, in forming DBC, was access to broadcasting services. In contrast, the discrete agendas of other core groups rendered permanent alliances a possible threat to their autonomy. DBC won legislative victories, but was low-profile and virtually invisible in the media (A video, featuring DBC Honourable Secretary Ruth Myers, [Right to Reply, 1997] was a noteworthy exception). Its strength emanated from strong Parliamentary support (e.g., Lord Jack Ashley, a deaf parliamentarian), and partly from mass letter-writing. In 1996, a steep increase in obligatory signing on TV followed on the heels of the Disability Act (1996). Relationship building was crucial with all targets.

Recent gains (Myers, 2004) for deaf people in the Communications Act (2003) included regulation of cable and satellite channels. Following her 2003 retirement from DBC, Myers identified some internal issues that resembled those of VLV–namely, difficulty in locating new committee and executive (i.e. Secretary) members. These issues had the potential to hinder DBC's, like VLV's activities. Nevertheless, the group continued to press for change. For the last eight years, Myers chaired a group called the Telecommunications Action Group, (TAG), which in June, 2003 held a successful seminar on Interactive Services. Myers stated frankly that few people are in a position to contact broadcasters, so the issue will remain unresolved. TAG is currently evaluating how to deal with the impending digital switchover (estimated at 2010).

Public voice

In 1997, Albury (1997) described CQT's resistance to alliances with other groups (even through it sought celebrities' endorsements) in its 1990 "quality threshold" campaign. VLV pushed for a single regulator together with NCC, CA, consumer advocates, and researchers in the early '90s as the Broadcasting Liaison Group (BLG) (Sargant, 1992, Middleton, 1997; Whitworth, 1997). In 2000, Public Voice's coalition (VLV, CQT, and voluntary, non-broadcasting groups [e.g., the Mother's Union]) worked towards the same PSB issues. It sought full representation of the public interest in the Communication Bill and the media's perception that this was their goal. Webster (2001) also said the group wanted to clarify Ofcom's PSB requirements not explicitly stated in the (DCMS-DTI, 2000) White Paper. More recently, according to Redding (2004), Public Voice's main thrust is twofold: Ofcom's reflections of citizens' interest and the BBC Charter Renewal. The group has also sought to widen its coalition by adding more voluntary, non-broadcasting groups to its Steering Committee. Sustaining an effective coalition is difficult, particularly in terms balancing the power and agendas of its groups.

Webster (2001) saw no need to duplicate other groups' work; after the Bill, she said, PV might disband and then regroup. Coalitions and activist groups that have fully met their objectives have no *raison d'etre*–or, as Isaacs (1997) said, any group that achieved its objectives would immediately go out of business. That may be true for a single group, but not necessarily for an all-issue one (Grunig, 1992). Another 1990's NGO bolstered civil society and public deliberation's public sphere–the Scarman Trust.

The "other" public sphere: NGOs using broadcast media to enhance civil society

The Scarman Trust (2004) is an affirmation of Toth & Heath's (1992) assumption that "public relations plays a positive role in democratic societies by fostering equilibrium among interdependent systems" (p. 6). Established to facilitate bottom-up community building, it envisions "electronic village halls linked to the Internet," according to Groombridge (2000), who also talked of planned retreats and in-depth broadcasting forums on significant issues. These were designed to increase political dialogue and bonding among diverse groups and political awareness and participation overall. Although the Trust did not ally with any of the core groups, members like Groombridge had VLV and/or other educational and lifelong-learning involvements, each of which, alone, and in collaboration, enhanced the public sphere, reinforced public relations' role in forging relationships across diverse communities, and facilitated political deliberation. Deliberation and the right to consult/advise were valuable as per the Communication Bill.

Public relations to clarify communication policy and gain the right to advise

Legislation was highly complex in spring/summer 2003 and many provisions of the Communications Bill (2003; an Act [by Royal Assent] as of July 17) had been amended. Activists' efforts during the hearings in Parliament prior to the Act were fast and furious, as Hay's (VLV, 2004) call for a letter-based lobbying of MPs indicated. Many issues were technical and abstruse. Relationship building and media advocacy (Wallack, et al., 1993) framed them. Also, European broadcasting regulation factored in the new UK laws, as expounded in the Explanatory Notes of the Act ([DTI-DTMS, 2003]):

> ….February 2002 the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers adopted four Directives ("the EC Communications Directives"), which set out a package of measures for a common regulatory framework for electronic communications networks and services. Provisions in the Act implement a significant proportion of this new regulatory package in the UK (see Appendices 2 and 3).

Most core groups made successful inroads into UK Government consultative processes. NCC, VLV, and CA gained the right to "advise" in a consumer panel set up by Lord McIntosh, Minister for Broadcasting, to assess how conversion to digital television affects viewers. Born (2003) suggested the appointments may have been resulted from Labour's alleged disregard for consumers or failure to seek consumer input in making major changes and/or launching digital television. Whatever the rationale, the triangulation (relationship building, media education and media advocacy) approach identified by the author (2003a,b) had impact, although multiple actors and variables may have contributed to activist success (Barnett, 1997, Porter, 2000). The mere involvement of pressure groups in institution-based mechanisms for regulation and redress led some observers to question whether targets had successfully co-opted them.

Cooptation or absorption: Yes? No? Maybe

The questions of whether successful advocacy groups are moved or even manipulated by their targets to align themselves more closely with the latter's goals is a complex and divisive one. Paterson (2000) suggested that VLV may be "often a neutral conduit for BBC propaganda." He, like Steel (1997), who said that British activism was "absorbed through officials into official channels," may have also considered VLV consultations and testimony at Select Committee hearings absorption. Had VLV deliberately put itself in a potentially compromising position or otherwise undermined its goals in order to be "acceptable" to a target? Although it was common knowledge that the tabloid papers had exploited NVALA to lambaste their broadcaster-competitors (Bolt, 1997), it was conceivable, although highly unlikely, that a savvy group like VLV could engineer its own subtle manipulation. Perhaps, in his suggestion that some considered VLV a mouthpiece for the BBC, Paterson [2000] was implying that the group was too closely aligned with the core values that the BBC represents. What would he or other observers think now, when VLV is rallying around the BBC? Does support based on shared values preclude objectivity and mean being co-opted? Paterson and some respondents in industry implied or outright said that groups were absorbed or co-opted, rather merely adept at "working the system."

Cooptation and especially absorption were commonplace in non-democratic or transitional societies. In Poland, for instance, successful dissidents were absorbed as mainstream political parties (Barlik, 1995). These outcomes were less overt than in Western democracies (Etzioni-Halevy, 1989). Citizen participation (Topf, 1989) or even government funding (e.g., NCC) did not prove that cooptation/absorption took place. Pressure group leaders (e.g., CQT's Albury [1997]) judiciously hedged their risks. Nevertheless, targets raising stakes for a group (or the bar for access to their prominent leaders) and motivating group acceptance (perhaps even by carrot/stick behavior) defined the terms and the tone for the relationship. Some activists may negotiate rather than fight.

Isaacs (1997) said that truly successful single-issue groups may disband once they concede that they have accomplished their goals. Public Voice is a case in point (Webster, 2001). Successful activists may find it hard sow the seeds for their futures.

Discussion

This study has attempted to show how activist groups, acting as NGOS, attempted to change public policy to provide and enhance public service values and a public sphere by multiple means, including and especially strategic relationship building, media education (credible arguments and research presented by credible, authoritative, opinion-leading individuals in appropriate venues) and media advocacy (the framing of compelling issues as societal concerns and thus, calling for policy change). The fact that these industry leaders and opinion formers were committed to PSB, had impressive industry experience (e.g., Shaw, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2003], and retained a cutting-edge finger on the pulse of new developments added to their ethos. The research that core groups conducted (Barnett & Seymour, 1999; CA, 2001; CQT, 1998; Groombridge & Hay, 1995; NCC, 1999, 2000, 2002) and the consultative documents (a small sample are published on individual group Web sites) submitted to government and regulatory bodies added weight to targets' perceptions of

groups' credibility and increased targets willingness to relate to them. The presence of relationships based on dimensions identified above (Author, 1998) appeared, in the UK, to provide an additional incentive to engage with activists, although broadcasting activists in post-communist East/Central Europe had dramatically less cordial relationships with their targets and were far less transparent than their British counterparts. It remains to be seen, therefore, if the dimensions of good relationships hold true across all cultures. Studying NGOs in other hemispheres, in a collective briefing session such as those held at the United Nations, or in the UNESCO workshops constructed by VLV (Hay, 2001, 2004 should help to answer some of these questions.

The author still maintains, though, that an open activist-target relationship with the dimensions identified above is the most straightforward and effective way to long-term success with target publics in a democratic society. It is also the most

Activists' role in sustaining dialogue about and change in broadcasting is important. Future research should also attempt to identify, cross-culturally, activist groups (including non-broadcasting ones) that use strategic, long-term relationship building, sometimes with media education and media advocacy, to accomplish pro-social ends and thus, to strengthen community. Socially responsible broadcasting and public relations in the public interest, implemented together wherever possible, should facilitate the ability of NGOs, both in Western and developing/transitional nations, such as the groups of this study, to accomplish those ends. They should increase civic participation and non-confrontational discussion about compelling issues.

Notes

1. The institution and collection of a mandatory license fee has angered many Anglo/Irish/European viewers. Consider that in Ireland, which has been perhaps the greatest economic success story in the European Union (EU), "consumers reacted with fury" at the news of a license-fee increase (Mirror, 2003, p. 2).
2. See Cappens and Downey (2001), Crisell (1999), Goodwin (1999), Stokes and Reading (1999) Reading (1999). Calabrese (1997) provided a U.S. contrast with his focus on the difficulties facing the civic journalism movement there.
   Brant and DeBens (2000), Collins (1999), Curran and Park (2000), Dahlgren (2000), Garzaniti, Levy (1999), and Murdock (2000) addressed the issues, including cultural concerns, facing European public service broadcasters. Some of these cultural concerns have been addressed by the Council of Europe (1994) and were recently debated by the European Communities in debate and revision of the 1997 EC directive, *Television without Frontiers* (Commission of the European Communities, 2003).
3. Wapner (1995) and Manheim (2001) were notable exceptions. Their differing foci seemed relevant to the core groups. Manheim focused on unions' self-interest/constraints in dealing with targets and grassroots activists' lack of constraints in doing so.
4. Rice and Ritchie (1995) described international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) as:
   the transnational manifestations of what is now increasingly called 'civil society' – which, in the words of UN Under-Secretary-General Nitin Desai, is 'the sphere in which social movements organize themselves around objectives, constituencies, and thematic interests' (p. 254).
   Although it has been suggested above that the activist groups of this study cannot, given their size, be considered social movements, their strategic use of public relations certainly includes the structured organizing Rice and Ritchie describe. See also Clark (2003) comments at the UN briefing on communication and the role of NGOs in civil society.
5. Huang (2001a) identified dimensions, antecedents, and outcomes of organizational-public relationships. Later (Huang, 2001b), she found evidence that "the effect of public relations on conflict resolution is mediated by organization-public relationships" (p. 265) Ledingham (2003) explicated the burgeoning scholarship in order to frame a general theory, a "relational paradigm for public relations" (p. 193). In other, very recent scholarship, Jo and Kim (2003) found that the degree of interactivity and multimedia orientation significantly effect organizational-public relationships.
6. See Karlberg (1996) for a fuller explanation of his concerns about the public relations research agenda. Holtzhausen and Voto (2002) approached those concerns from a different perspective. Their frame of reference was postmodernist theory, which they used to explain the beginnings of organizational activism by public relations practitioners within hierarchical, authoritarian organizations. They also considered how micropolitics prompts practitioners to form proactive, internal alliances for a good that may not be necessarily recognized or approved by these organizations' dominant coalitions. In addition, in an earlier article, Holtzhausen (2000) suggested that public relations practitioners' community activism should increase and intraorganizational activism within their organizations would augment ethical public relations practices.
7. Hon and J. Grunig (1999), established guidelines for measuring relationships in public relations based on the psychology literature on interpersonal relationships (Clark & Mills, 1993) and applied them to measuring and evaluating organizational-public relationships. J. Grunig (2002) developed qualitative methods for assessing such relationships. Hon and Grunig distinguished between exchange and communal relationships. They argued that the latter is altruistic and a progression from the exchange level and that publics' perception of a communal relationship with an organization is the strongest indicator of public relations management's success. This applies to VLV's relationship with the BBC.

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Achieving Organizational Transparency through the Professionalization of Public Relations: The Free Market Solution to Establishing Effective Transparency Mechanisms in Modern Democratic Societies

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Through this paper the authors argue that two-way symmetric public relations offers the ideal organizational mechanism capable of achieving Stirton and Lodge's conception of true transparency. Further, these authors consider whether judicial and legislative intervention has the ability to enforce effective transparency methods within the private sector. A clear definition of what public relations involves and a single unifying body capable of enforcing professional standards could facilitate transparency and solidify the integrity of many industries decimated by corporate scandals.

The concept of transparency and its implications for the three major institutions within the modern democratic society currently face structural shifts. The interaction among government, media and industry, referred to as the media-industrial complex receives the greatest attention in regard to the implications of the condition of transparency. Recent trends show that all three parts of the media–industrial complex face unprecedented declines in credibility among most citizens in modern democratic societies. These trends undermine organizational efforts to communicate information and as a corollary effect alienates participation in the political process, stifle economic investment and compromise the integrity of traditional communication channels. Distrust of media reports, suspicion of industrial production activities and distrust of legislators' motives have brought about a demand for organizational transparency in all three parts of the media-industrial complex. However, efforts to legislate transparency fail to satisfy expectations because of the limited scope of legislators' conceptualization of transparency.

This paper further argues that transparency is a condition where an organization makes all information available and adopts community-sensitive messaging practices that communicate the implications of all organizational actions. True transparency arises out of an understanding of organizational affect on the various segments of society and responsiveness to publics' sentiment. Thus, the future of transparency arises out of public relations practices. Legislative efforts like the recent proliferation of public records initiatives have created inertia toward organizational transparency within the public sector, but the realization of true transparency could more expediently and cost efficiently arise out of the field of public relations where infrastructure for audience-specific communications should already exist.

Beyond the Manager and the Technician Roles: Exploring a Leader or Executive Role for the Head of a PR/Communication Function

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Has the recognition of public relations/communication as a separate, legitimate and equal management function – like HR, Marketing or IT – been less-than-forthcoming from an organization's senior executives because PR itself does not recognize the existence of an executive role for the head of a PR/Communication department?

In a research paper presented at the 7th Annual International Public Relations Research Conference in Miami in March 2004, Fraser Likely argues that there is a senior executive role in the public relations/communication field and that that role, like any executive role, is about leading change efforts in the executive's area of responsibility.

Likely presents evidence from an exploratory study of heads of communication in the Canadian Federal Government. These heads enacted an executive leader role than was over and above a manager role. He concluded that the two roles were separate and the activities performed for each role were different. Most of the literature on role enactment in public relations suggests that there are only two roles: manager and technician.

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Abstract

The focus of much of the literature on organizational roles for in-house Public Relations/ Communication (PR/C) practitioners is on managerial and technical roles. The scholarship of D. M. Dozier and G. M. Broom has been particularly important in the conceptualization of these roles. Additional insight has been provided through the work of the IABC Foundation's 'Excellence Project' and its research team. In their work, three of the researchers (L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig, and D.M. Dozier 2002) discovered that there were two types of managerial expertise: administrative and strategic. In a separate study, D. K Wright (1995) described a third role over and above the manager and technician roles – the role of public relations executive. Apart from these research projects and a couple of others by Moss, Warnaby and Newman (2000) and van Ruler (2000), the possibility of an executive or leader role has not been thoroughly studied.

This paper examines this top-level role. It reports on proprietary research conducted by Likely Communication Strategies Ltd. for the Canadian Federal Government. The firm was contracted to carry out benchmarking studies in 2001 and 2003 of the communication functions in 28 and then 29 government departments and agencies. The first part of each study compared structural, organizational, reporting and resourcing models and arrangements. The second part looked at the role of the head of communication. The study employed survey and executive interview research methodologies.

Communication functions across the government had been severely downsized in the 1990s. First operational and then salary budgets were slashed. By the end of the 90s, the federal government deficit had been eliminated and the government enjoyed healthy budget surpluses. After years of bare bones communication, there was a renewed requirement to increase and improve government communication capacity. Heads of communication were under great pressure to 'ramp up' quickly. But, they faced competition from business units, program areas and other staff functions like HR for the limited new dollars available. They also competed with each other for the small number of talented fish in a very small pool of practitioners. Run down, they faced the re-organization and re-engineering of their communication units. Their leadership skills were tested. Each had to compete to recruit and retain talent, to fight for and acquire resources, to restructure and re-organize, to develop a new HR regime, to re-build policy and planning systems, to re-develop relationships with satellite and regional communication units and with internal clients and most importantly to team-build and to re-energize and motivate a dispirited staff.

The paper will report on the pressures and challenges the Heads faced, the changes they made and the actions they took -- ultimately leading to the enactment of an executive or executive leader role. The paper will argue that there is a third role, in addition to the manager and technician roles, in public relations/communication. The first Benchmarking Review was conducted in the fall of 2001. Likely Communication Strategies Ltd. conducted a second study, revisiting the first, in the fall of 2003. Only information from the latter study is used in this paper.

Introduction

This paper describes a research study that focused on the identification and examination of an executive or executive leader role in public relations/communication -- a role separate from the enactment of a manager or a technician role. The study is a by-product of two original, proprietary research projects conducted by the public relations/communication management consulting firm Likely Communication Strategies Ltd. for the Canadian Federal Government.

In 2001 and again in 2003, Likely Communication Strategies Ltd. directed a major research study titled: Benchmarking Review of Federal Government Communication Branches. The first was commissioned by the Privy Council Office: Communications and Consultation Secretariat (PCO: C&CS); the second devolved to and was commissioned by the Communications Community Office (CCO). These studies assessed and compared the management of a number government department communication branches. The communication branches were a part, the major part in most cases, of the communication function in each Federal Government department or agency. Communication units located in the department's regional offices and separate, independent 'satellite' communication units located in the department's program and/or operational branches

comprised the other parts of the department's or agency's communication function. In 2001, the communication branches in twenty-eight government departments or agencies took part in the Benchmarking Review. In 2003, twenty-nine branches participated. Twenty-six branches were participants in both 2001 and 2003 (two branches which participated in the first study could not in the second, and three new branches were added to the second study). Over 2000 communication practitioners work in these 26 branches. If practitioners in regional offices and satellite units are included, then the total number of practitioners approaches 3000.

Each Benchmarking Review had two parts: the first a baseline survey of basic branch statistics; and the second a comparative analysis of the pressures and challenges faced by heads of communication and the management changes they made in response.

The first part comprised the following questions:

1. Please indicate the number of Ministers, Deputy Ministers, Associate and Assistant Deputy Ministers (or equivalent) in your department or agency, and any change in each number (+1, + 2, -3, etc.) since the 2001 benchmarking review.
2. Please indicate the current total number of department or agency staff, and any changes to this number since 2001.
3. Please indicate the department or agency 2003/2004 budget, and any changes since the 2001-2002 budget.
4. Please indicate to whom the Head of Communications reports. Has this changed since 2001?
5. Is the Head of Communications a member of the department or agency Executive Committee (the highest level management committee)?
6. Please indicate if there is a department-wide communications committee. If yes, please indicate who chairs this committee and list its members by title and classification levels.
7. Please indicate the 2003/2004 total A-base budget for the headquarters Communications Branch, the breakdown between salary and operations budgets and indicate the amount the budget has changed since the 2001-2002 budget.
8. Please indicate additional budget monies over and above the 2003-2004 A-base budget and their source.
9. Please indicate the members of your Communication Branch senior management team by title and classification level.
10. Please indicate the number of current approved positions at each classification level, and indicate any changes to these numbers since 2001 (+1, -2, etc.).
11. Please indicate the number of term and indeterminate employees currently employed at each classification level.
12. Please indicate the total number of indeterminate, term and coop student communications positions in the branch.
13. Please indicate the number of new term or indeterminate employees hired at each classification level since 2001, and the source of their recruitment.
    i. Recruitment Sources:
    ii. A = from within the department
    iii. B = from within the federal government communications community
    iv. C = from within the federal government but from outside the communications community
    v. D = from outside of government
    vi. E = from being a coop student
14. Please indicate the total number of Regional Offices across Canada with communications units, the total number of communications staff in these offices and the number of positions at each classification level.
15. Please indicate the total number of separate 'satellite' units with communications (formal communication units independent of the Branch) at headquarters and the total number of communications positions in independent 'satellite' units at each:
    i. Type of unit:
    ii. Writing/Editing
    iii. Desktop Publishing
    iv. Correspondence
    v. Inquiries/Distribution
    vi. Internal Communication
    vii. Marketing communication
    viii. Outreach/Public Education
    ix. Full Service Communications
    x. Other

In 2003, base budget totals for the 26 communication branches ranged between $2 and $25M (CAN) and the number of approved positions in each branch was between 7 and 272. The senior position in a communication branch is the Head of Communication and may be classified as an Assistant Deputy Minister, Director General or Director, Communications, dependent ultimately on the size of the branch. Assistant Deputy Ministers and the vast majority of Directors General report directly to the organizational head, the Deputy Minister (who in turn reports to the Minister, the elected Member of Parliament and of the Prime Minister's Cabinet). Most Directors report to a Deputy Minister, with some to an Assistant Deputy Minister or equivalent position (with other functional responsibilities besides communication).

The second part of the review included these questions:

Please indicate any changes made in the overall structure, organization and reporting arrangements to the Communications Branch since 2001.

- Structural Models
- Organization of Work Groups

- 2IC
- Reporting
- Communication Committees/Networks

Please indicate any changes made to and within these sub-units.

- Head of Communication's Office
- Ministerial Communications
- Media Relations
- Client Account Executives/Teams
- Internal Communications
- Outreach/Promotion/Marketing Communications
- Government-on-line/Web/e-communication
- Issue/Crisis/Risk Management
- Creative Services (writing/editing; publishing; audio-visual/new media; exhibits; speeches; etc.)
- Advertising
- Research and Evaluation (environmental scanning; polling; performance measurement; etc.)
- Consultation
- Policy and Planning
- Services (translation; distribution; media monitoring; inquiries; etc.)
- Other (access to information requests; parliamentary affairs; etc.)
- Administration (finance; IT; HR; etc.)

Please describe any changes to the Branch budget and resource allocation situation since 2001.

Please describe any changes to your HR management program since 2001.

- Recruitment
- Competitions
- Orientation Programs
- Retention/Attrition Rates
- Succession Planning
- Competency Profiles
- Learning Environment
- Learning/Training/Development Programs
- Growing your Own Talent
- Coop Students
- Training & Individual Employee Learning Budgets
- HR Business Manager

Please describe any challenges to and changes in working and management relationships since 2001.

- Within your Branch, between your office and sub-units or among sub-units
- Between your Branch and the Minister's and/or Deputy Minister's Offices
- Between your Branch and internal clients
- Between your Branch and Regional Offices
- Between your Branch and 'satellite' units in the department and agency
- Between your Branch and various central government agencies
- Formalization of relationships (agreements; Memorandum of Understanding (MOUs); etc.)
- Matrix organization: relationship issues

Please describe how you see your role and responsibilities and how they unfold on a daily basis.

- Leader vs. manager roles
- Role when in the Branch
- Role when outside of the Branch
- Role of a 2IC, if any
- Role of your management team
- Role of a Communications Committee, if any
- Role within the department or agency senior executive team
- Role within the communications community

Please describe the impact of the new 2002 Federal Government Communications Policy.

- Impact on the department or agency
- Impact on the Branch
- Impact on the communications community
- Stage of implementation

Please describe your Branches' policy, planning and performance measurement systems.

- Policies, Procedures and Guidelines (publishing; media relations; etc.)
- Annual Plans
- Planning Integration and Involvement (planning unit; strategists; regional offices; etc.)
- Communication Program Evaluation
- Communication Branch Performance Measurement

Please describe the pressures, threats, issues and opportunities facing your department/agency and Branch, the communications function across government and the communications community in general
Please describe your Branches' unique or best practices (what you do better than other Branches).
Please provide demographic information for the Head of Communications.

- How long have you worked in communications?
- What were your last three previous jobs?
- What is your desired career path?
- Is your desire to remain in communications?

The findings, resulting from this second set of questions, are used in this paper. The paper examines the management changes heads of communication in the 26 communication branches (branches that participated in both the 2001 and 2003 Benchmarking Reviews), the heads who were in place in the fall of 2003, made as a result of identified pressures and challenges. It will attempt to show that the role enacted by the head of communication in making these management changes is different from the manager and technician roles as described in the public relations literature. Results of the study indicate that there is, in fact, a third role. That role is an executive or executive leader role.

Public Relations Literature

The history of research on role enactment by public relations/communication practitioners is well-described (e.g., D. M. Dozier in J.E. Grunig 1992; D.M. Dozier and G.M. Broom 1995; D.M. Dozier, E.L. Toth, S.A. Serini, D.K. Wright and A.G. Emig 1998; D. Moss, G. Warnaby and A.J. Newman 2000; B. van Ruler 2000; L.A. Grunig, E.L. Toth and L.C. Hon 2001; L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2002). Scholarly research stretches back into the 1970s, to the seminal work of G.M. Broom and G.D. Smith. The scholarship of G.M. Broom – described as the father of roles research (D. M. Dozier in J.E. Grunig 1992) – and of D.M. Dozier is particularly important to how the conceptualization of the roles practitioners play has evolved in the nearly three decades of research.

Dozier (L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2002) has tracked this evolution in great detail. He cites Broom's early (and sustaining) contribution to roles research, including his 24-item battery of role measures and his conceptualizing of four roles: expert prescriber; communication facilitator; problem-solving process facilitator; and communication technician. Subsequently, the 24-item battery became the dominant set of role measures used by researchers. On the other hand, further research by Broom and Dozier led to the reworking of Broom's four-role model. They compressed the first three roles -- expert prescriber, communication facilitator, and problem-solving process facilitator -- into one single role: manager. The manager-technician role model became the dominant conceptualization of practitioner roles. This was not an either-or proposition for most practitioners; by 1995 these two researchers believed that practitioners enact aspects of both roles (D.M. Dozier and G.M. Broom 1995).

While the usefulness of manager-technician dichotomy is well-established (D.M. Dozier in J.E. Grunig 1992; L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2002), some researchers suggest that "although the manager-technician dichotomy offers a useful means of distinguishing between broad patterns of practitioner activity, it may mask significant variations in the way practitioners operate in different task environments or in different organizational or societal contexts" (D. Moss, G. Warnaby and A.J. Newman 2000, p.279). Lately, researchers have shown interest in examining the manager role more closely, particularly as it relates to the strategic management of the organization. Wright (1995), Moss, Warnaby and Newman (2000) and van Ruler (2000) are three researchers who have studied the relationship of role enactment to public relations management. The first two studies are of particular interest – not only for their findings (for example Wright concluded that the manager role should be conceptualized as two roles: manager; and executive) but also for the research methodologies they employed. They used qualitative methods, specifically long executive interviews. Previous role enactment research employed "quantitative methods extensively" (L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2000, p. 223). The vast majority of studies utilizing quantitative surveys employed Broom's 24-item set (or a variation) and surveyed members of public relations/communication general membership associations, particularly the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) and the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC). The studies using qualitative methodologies did not. Wright (1995), using long interviews with members of more select membership criteria membership organizations such as the Arthur Page Society (members who were by virtue of their membership a senior level practitioner and the head of PR/Communications for their company) and not with members of more popular membership associations such as PRSA, the Canadian Public Relations Society (CPRS) or IABC, found evidence to support a third role: "communication executives comprised mainly of senior vice-presidents of public relations and communication who report directly to CEOs." Moss, Warnaby and Newman (2000) also sought out and interviewed "senior-

level" practitioners, heads of the PR function in private and public sector organizations in the United Kingdom, and asked these practitioners what they did and how they spent their time. They found considerable time spent in meetings and on the administrative work required for managing their department and their staff.

Dozier (L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2002, p. 228), himself, has suggested that there are two forms of managerial expertise: the administrative manager; and the strategic manager. The first develops goals and objectives, prepares budgets, develops strategies to solve PR problems, manages organizational response to issues and manages people. The latter conducts evaluation research, uses research to segment publics and performs environmental scanning. The Administrative Manager is more involved in the "day-to-day operations of a well-run department." The Strategic Manager

is "tied to a set of strategic tools" allowing the department to "contribute to the organization's strategic planning process." Grunig, Toth and Hon (2001, p.229) also described a third role, a role they called agency profile. They found that this role comprised "senior-level activities" such as: "meeting with clients/executives, counseling management, supervising the work of others, and conducting and analyzing research." In their qualitative research, there was much richness in the description given to the manager role. Focus group participants interpreted the role as having these qualities (2001, p.230): "challenging and motivating people, teaching them, mentoring, getting subordinates to stretch and become 'all they can be,' understanding others, rallying support, budgeting, having a vision, and being able to do it all: accounting, budgeting, technical designing, planning, strategic thinking, processing and synthesizing information, setting goals, and so forth."

In summary, most of the role enactment scholarship in public relations has focused on Broom's 24-item set, on quantitative research methodologies and on survey participants drawn from public relations/communication membership organizations such as PRSA, CPRS and/or IABC, either from national/international or chapter membership lists. For the most part, this body of research supports Dozier's manager-technician dichotomy. In recent years, researchers have asked a different set of questions, employed qualitative as well as quantitative or simply qualitative methods and drawn their research participants from sources other than PRSA, CPRS and IABC. Their research suggests either a separate and higher-level role over and above the manager role or that the manager role itself is too broadly defined and should be seen as a two-pronged role.

Management/Leadership Literature

Moving from the public relations literature to the literature on general management on the subject of role enactment, one sees in the management literature a clear distinction between a senior-level manager or executive role and a mid-level manager role (for example: C. Barnard 1938; P.F. Drucker1967; C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996; S.C. Harper 1988; H. Mintzberg 1973; and G.N. Toogood 1997). The executive role has a distinct set of activities. A senior manager or executive role also is distinguished from a middle manager role in discussions of leadership (for example: W. Bennis 1989; J.A. Conger 1992; J.P Kotter 1990; J.M. Kouzes and B.Z. Posner 1993; D.A. Nadler 1998; and J.D. Pincus and J.N. DeBonis 1994). While both senior executives and middle managers lead, how they enact a leadership role is different. Bennis and Townsend (1997, p.12) proclaim the difference in this statement: "The manager maintains: the leader develops." Management activities and leadership activities are different. Management (with core activities commonly defined as (1) planning and budgeting, (2) organizing and staffing, (3) controlling and problem solving) executes and administers. On the other hand, leadership (with core activities as (1) visioning and strategizing, (2) energizing, motivating and inspiring (3) aligning and enabling) creates, bridges and guides (J.P. Kotter 1990, 1999). In the literature on management, the term leader is more than likely given to the senior executive cadre, particularly to the organization's head. Members of this cadre lead a defined organizational unit: the organization itself; a business unit; a central staff function (like marketing, public relations or human resources); or a geographical unit. The primary role of a leader is to transform (for example: see Peter Drucker, Peter Senge, William Bridges, and Rosabeth Moss Kanter in F. Hesselbein and R. Johnston 2002; Kanter, R.M. 1992; D.A. Nadler 1998). This prominent view in the management and leadership literature is in this statement made by Peter Senge, learning and change management scholar, in interview (A.M. Webber 1999): "Leadership is the ability to produce change."

To summarize then, senior-level or executive managers and mid-level managers enact different roles. Both lead, but they enact different leader roles. The executive's leader role is to make change happen.

Methodology

For the 2001 and 2003 Benchmarking Review studies for the Canadian Federal Government, Likely Communication Strategies Ltd. conducted long, conversational interviews with the head of the communication function. For some of the interviews, one or more members of the head's senior management team participated. Interviews ranged in length from one and a half hours to five hours. The longer interviews were spread over a

number of sessions. Each interview was based on a series of topics, and within each topic a list of sub-topics. Interviewees were given the topics prior to the interview. Each sub-topic was presented as an open-ended question. The list of topics and sub-topics was presented in the Introduction above.

Only the interview notes resulting from the 2003 interviews were used in the preparation of this paper. That is, when referring to heads of communication, the reference is to those in place at the time of interview in the fall of 2003. The information in the interview notes was analyzed against the topology presented in the next section of this paper.

Results

Demographic make-up

To situate the position of head of communication in a Canadian Federal Government communication branch, it is necessary to provide information on the demographic make-up of this group. In the 26 communication branches under study, twelve were led by the same head of communication in 2003 as in 2001. For the remaining 14 branches, a new person assumed the head position in the two year interval. Of these 14, five were lateral transfers from a headship in one communication branch to a headship in another. Five were promotions to a headship position, either from within the same communication branch or from another branch. One was an acting assignment until a competition could be held. Three appointments to head positions came as part of participation in a management career advancement program, where the appointee came from outside the communication community and was appointed to the position for two years as part of his or her development process. For two out of the three individuals assigned a headship position as part of this program, the headship was at the same level as a previous appointment. In only one case was it a promotion. The average number of years of experience in communication in 2003 was 16 years for heads in the same position as in 2001 (range five to thirty years), 14 for heads who took lateral transfers (range six to twenty years) and 16 for heads receiving promotions (range twelve to twenty years). In 2003, 16 of the 26 heads had spent their entire careers in the communication field. In 2001, ten of the 26 branches were led by heads that are female. The number in 2003 was eleven. In 2003, the majority of heads reported to the head of the department or agency, the Deputy Minister (DM). In four cases, the head reported to an Assistant Deputy Minister (ADM), an executive with other responsibilities besides communication in their title. With two exceptions, all heads sat on executive committee, the highest level management committee in the department or agency.

The situation

The years 1999-2003 were a time of growth and expansion for the typical communication branch. The Canadian Federal Government had moved from a deficit situation to one of surpluses. New government programs were begun. There was a re-investment in existing programs. Greater importance was placed on communication – from citizen access to information to marketing communication to issues management. This contrasted sharply with the environment for communication in the 1990s, particularly the second half of the decade. Operational monies were stripped from communication branches in the early 1990s. Then in the mid 90s, the number of communication branch employees was reduced severely. By the end of the decade, the branch was a mere skeleton of its late 1980s self. Its responsibilities were restricted for the most part to reactive media relations and issues-of-the-day management. Heads of communication were under unrelenting pressure from the year 2000 onward to ramp up. There was new money in the system to conduct more communication, but this money was held in the policy, program or operational units of the department. The challenge facing the head was to re-build a badly neglected branch infrastructure, at the same time as demands on the capacity of the branch were increasing tremendously. In response, heads made changes to the management of their communication branch. They did so independently from one another. While each branch is part of a government department or agency and the department is part of a single government, departments and thus communication branches operated separately.

Change topology

To provide order to the many and different changes heads made, a topology that categorizes the approaches leaders use to lead change will be employed. There are numerous topologies or frameworks for leading change presented in the literature (see for example: W. Bennis and B. Nanus 1997; J.M Kouzes and B.Z. Posner 1993; D.A. Nadler 1998; The topology developed by C.M. Farkas and P. De Backer (1996a); C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b) from their research is appropriate to apply here. They found five approaches to leadership, to leading change. By leadership approach, Farkas and De Becker (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b, p.110) mean “what areas … receive the most attention.” “… which decisions the CEO makes personally or delegates, and how he or she spends each day.” They believe there are five distinct approaches: the Strategy Approach; the Human-Assets Approach; the Expertise Approach; the Box Approach; and the Change Approach. While each approach is exclusive, CEOs may employ more than one approach. Typically though, they favour one primary

and dominant approach at any given point in time. Successful leaders base their dominant approach on the immediate needs of the organization as they see them, not on a personal desire to lead in a certain way (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b). In the explanations for each approach that follow, the term CEO has been replaced by head and reference is made to the possible leadership activities of a head of communication.

The Strategic Approach suggests that the head believes her or his "most important job is to create, test, and design long-term strategy …" (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b). Emphasis is placed on branch vision, mission, purpose, positioning, desired future, direction and mapping the route between point of departure and point of arrival. Heads using this approach spend considerable time outside the branch understanding the threats and opportunities in the branch environment. They meet with department executives and internal clients. They set up committees and networks with their stakeholders. They commission studies: client satisfaction reviews; benchmarking reviews; and environment scans. They examine service and product lines and resource allocations from an outside-in perspective. They restructure, reorganize and re-allocate resources. They want to know what the department needs from the branch. They lead by being the branch visionary and chief general strategist. They delegate the day-day operations to others.

The Human-Assets Approach suggests that the head believes her or his job is "to impart to their organization certain values, behaviors, and attitudes by closely managing the growth and development of individuals" (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b). The head's time is spent on human resource management, particularly performance reviews, career development, succession planning and retention, recruitment and orientation activities. The head sees in her or him the proper values, behaviours and attitudes and wants to see the same in other executives and managers. They place importance on workplace health and well-being programs. They create developmental positions and opportunities to move to new challenges. They support mentoring. Strategy is left to business units within the branch who face the client. Heads stay in the branch and like to work 'face-to-face' with their people. They see leadership as putting personal effort into recruiting the right people on to the 'team' and into ensuring the branch is a good place to work.

The Expertise Approach suggests that the head sees his or her job 'is selecting and disseminating within the corporation an area of expertise that will be a source of competitive advantage" (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b). That is, the branch will not just be good but will be great at one area of expertise, one that's very important to department well-being at that point in time. For example, the branch will be excellent at research and evaluation, daily public issues management and communication support for the Minister of the department, or support for internal policy, program and operations clients with their communication programs to stakeholders and Canadian citizens. Heads spend their time making this area of expertise great. They take a hands-on role with ideas, systems, processes and resource allocation to ensure effectiveness at the level they desire. They are concerned with on-the-ground competence and quality. Not much time or a significant level of resource is given to strategy, human assets or control mechanisms unless change is required to support the chosen area of expertise.

The Box Approach suggests that the head sees her or his job as "creating, communicating, and monitoring an explicit set of controls …" " … they devote more time than the other types of CEOs to developing detailed, prescriptive policies, procedures and rewards …" (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b). They design systems. They have policy systems (government communication policy; departmental communication policy; guidelines for every communication activity such as for spokespersons or intranet use; and staff procedures), planning systems (annual plan, client plans, regional office plans, project plans; and action plans) and performance systems (branch performance measurement; communication program measurement; product measurement; and staff performance reviews). They spend time building systems and assessing exceptions against system standards. They invest resources in dedicated policy, planning and performance units. They have manuals, web sites and full documentation. Heads lead by promoting and policing the rules.

Finally, the Change Approach suggests that the head feels her or his job is "to create an environment of continual reinvention." Heads spend their time motivating their staff to "embrace the gestalt of change" (C.M. Farkas and S. Wetlaufer 1996b). They support learning, professional development, well-endowed training budgets and awards programs. They question, deconstruct and reinvent everything, searching out new ideas well beyond the government communication community. They focus not on the desired end state but on the process of getting there. They reward risk taking. They run interference in the department, in support of different paradigms and fresh ideas. They hire employees and consultants who can think outside the box. While they want everything reinvented, they also want consensus to develop. They cheerlead, award and team build. They favour large group meetings, believing their role is to bring passion and energy to the group. Heads lead by championing and supporting an attitude of learning and reinvention.

Of the 26 communication branches in this study, 12 had the same head of communications in fall of 2003 as in the fall of 2001. Fourteen were led by two heads in that period. There were varying times for these changes in leadership: early 2002; mid to late 2002 or early 2003. That is, of the 26 heads in place (including those acting) in the fall of 2003, 12 had two or more years to develop a leadership approach to change and to enact change, eight had between one and two years and six had under one year. Figure 1, which follows, illustrates a head's approach to leadership and the management areas wherein they enacted change. When asked in interview in the fall of 2003, this is where they said they devoted their leadership time and effort, and what they stated they were working on or had accomplished in this leader or executive role.

The 26 communication branches are divided by size: small (under 50 positions & under $4M (CAN) in base budget); medium (between 50-90 positions and $4-8M); and large (over 90 positions and over $8M). Monies allocated to the function over and above the communication branch base budget as well as positions in regional or satellite communication units are not included in the determination of branch size.

Findings

Some heads of communication clearly spent more time enacting an executive leadership change role than did other heads. No matter what approach to leadership they took, some report working on or accomplishing more executive leadership level activities than others. A number of heads report little leadership activity. They may either be rather new to their position and/or be less skilled in enacting the executive leadership role. On the other hand, a good number of heads appear comfortable enacting change. In particular, heads of branches I and W report more executive leader role enactment than most others. For heads of branches B, D, E, F, I, J, K, L, M, O, Q, R, S, T, V, and X (marked in italic), there appears to be one leadership approach that is dominant. In the other branches, a dominant approach is not as apparent. There is a dominant approach reported in each of the five approach categories. Even for heads with a dominant approach, each head reported leader role enactment in more than one approach category.

Activity in the Strategy Approach categories illustrates the almost universal need to re-build the branch, both in terms of direction and of organization. Twenty of twenty-six heads devoted time and effort to aspects of this approach category. They renewed the vision, mission, purpose and direction and/or created a deputy head or 2IC position and reorganized their management team and/or reorganized units of work specialization and reporting lines and/or addressed funding and resource allocation and/or formalized relationships with internal partners through memoranda of understanding with clients and cross-department committees and networks. The same number of heads apportioned a percentage of their time to the Human-Assets Approach. Their efforts were expended on these activities: devising a recruitment program (in some cases, taking an active role in wooing top talent) and/or designing a development program (ensuring proper position classification and stepping stone positions between bottom and top positions) and/or staff competency profiling and career development programs for recognized talent and/or succession plans and/or orientation programs for new staff and/or workplace balance of life programs. Only eight heads were active in the Expertise Approach category. Seven of the eight created centres of expertise for issues management and/or for Ministerial support. These centres became the hub in the wheel, with spokes out to other branch work units. Heads led by way of the importance they gave these centres. With the introduction of a new government-wide Communications Policy in April 2002, a new set of demands was placed on the head of communication. This included new communication policy and planning requirements at the departmental level, which ultimately will force all heads to be active in the Box Approach category. Sixteen devoted effort to: taking the government-wide Communication Policy and guidelines and creating a set of department policies, guidelines, procedures, rules and regulations; and/or because the Communication Policy now required annual communication plans establishing a integrated planning framework for their department; and/or developing a results-based performance measurement system. Ten of the twenty-six heads spent time with activities in the Change Approach category. Only one of the ten heads went beyond the introduction of individualized learning plans and the creation of training programs – by, for example, developing social, coaching and awards programs. One can not be a successful leader or change agent without passionate, innovative and empowered staff members.

Regardless of the size of the communication function, heads reported in interview that they also enacted the manager role. A number stated they were active as technicians as well. Drawing items from Broom's 24-item set or variations thereof to describe manager role enactment (D.M. Dozier in J.E. Grunig 1992; D.M. Dozier and G.M. Broom 1995; D.M. Dozier, E.L. Toth, S.A. Serini, D.K. Wright and A.G. Emig 1998; L.A. Grunig, E.L. Toth and L.C. Hon 2001; L.A. Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2002), each and every head stated that they spent time: developing goals and objectives for their branch; preparing and managing the branch budget; managing people and supervising the work of others; making communication policy decisions; informing and counseling management; meeting with clients and executives; meeting peers; solving public relations problems;

managing public relations programs; implementing new programs; evaluating program results; being held responsible and accountable for the success or failure of a public relations program; conducting or analyzing research; and managing the organization's response to issues. The smaller the size of the communication branch, the more the head personally participated in department or agency day-to-day issues management (solving public relations problems; managing the organization's response to issues; informing and counseling management). Though all heads stated that they "got their hands dirty" when the problem or issue was of major importance and its management involved the Minister and/or Deputy Minister. Many were involved on a regular basis (briefing; counseling; facilitating decision-making; etc.). For others, it was on a case-by-case basis. On an irregular basis but when the importance of the issue demanded it, up to half of the heads claimed they were also doers: they wrote, edited or produced messages (briefing notes; Q&As; speaking points; media lines; etc.). That is, they enacted the technician role. This was the only time when they played this role and their experience and background (coming up through the ranks with experience in issues management and media relations), not the size of the branch, determined whether they enacted the technician role or not.

The executive leader role takes many of the activities described as part of the enactment of the manager role to a higher level of conceptualization. Where the manager, for example, developed goals and objectives for the branch, managed the branch budget, managed people or planned public relations programs, the executive leader repositioned the branch (vision; direction; purpose), identified, acquired and re-allocated resources, developed a comprehensive HR regime and developed an integrated planning framework. The executive leader also designed organizational structures, developed learning and training programs, created centres of expertise and formalized relationships with clients. From the evidence, this conceptualization of a higher level role is more than simply a fuller depiction of the manager role.

On the other hand, it may be argued that this supposedly higher level role actually is implied in the statements about the manager role found in Broom's 24-item set – but because of the generalization required for the production of the statements about the manager role, the requisite detail and completeness is missing. For example, L.A Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier (2002, p. 228) argue that the manager role has "two empirical and conceptually distinct aspects of managerial expertise." There is an administrative manager aspect, and a strategic manager aspect. The administrative manager "involves the day-to-day operations of a well-run department" (L.A Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier 2002) and includes activities such as developing goals and objectives for the department, preparing the department budget, developing strategies to solve PR problems, managing the organizational response to issues, and managing people. The strategic manager conducts research, uses research to segment publics, performs environmental scanning – and therefore is associated with the organization's strategic management processes by among other activities: solving public relations problems; managing the organization's response to issues; developing PR programs; and informing and counseling management. Unfortunately, while these researchers disassemble manager role enactment into these two aspects, they provide little explanation for the administrative manager aspect. They also fail to show a correlation between administrative managerial expertise and the premise of the Excellence Study project, that of public relations department excellence. They do, though, confirm a correlation between strategic managerial expertise and department excellence. They present ample substantiation to support this claim. There is no indication in L.A Grunig, J.E. Grunig and D.M. Dozier (2002) that the activities undertaken by the twenty-six heads of communication as illustrated in Figure I are implied in either Broom's 24-item set or in their administrative manager aspect. These executive leader change activities appear to be a set of activities over and above the activities that make up the administrative manager aspect.

Figure II, compares the manager role enactment activities, as described in the literature, to those of the executive leader role activities, as found in this study.

Conclusions

The evidence suggests the enactment of a role that is separate from the manager role, that the two sets of activities are fundamentally different. Whereas the strategic managerial aspect of the manager role primarily manages public relations problems and programs, and the administrative managerial aspect manages the on-going operations and administration of the communication branch, the executive leader role manages the communication function by leading change to the positioning, organization, human-assets, governance and environment and culture of the function. These are activities of a senior manager or executive and support the proclamation of Bennis and Townsend (1997, p.12) that: "The manager maintains: the leader develops."

This study employed qualitative research methodologies, had as participants twenty-six heads of communication (who to the best of the author's information were not members of PRSA, IABC or CPRS) and sought to ascertain changes these heads had made. A leadership topology was applied to these changes. Each head enacted an executive leadership role: they made executive level change happen. Some were better leaders

than others. The changes they made were similar to the type of changes an executive of any organizational management function would have the responsibility and authority to make. They enacted this role because they were accountable for the effectiveness of the PR/Communication function. This is a higher level of accountability, over and above being "accountable for public relations program outcomes" when enacting the manager role (D.M. Dozier in J.E. Grunig Editor 1992, p. 333).

The majority of the previous research on role enactment employed quantitative survey research with participants from general membership PR/Communication associations and utilized Broom's 24-item set or a sub-set based on Broom's items. Neither the general membership association nor the 24-item set seem appropriate to the identification of heads of communication and any executive leader role activities they may enact.

The Direction of Future Research

A curious result was reported by L.E. Toth, S.A. Serini, D.K. Wright and A.G Emig (L.E. Toth, S.A. Serini,., D.K. Wright, and A.G. Emig 1998; L.A Grunig, E.L. Toth, and L.C. Hon 2001). In their comparison of role enactment in 1990 and then again in 1995, both men and women in their study (all members of the PRSA) reported less managerial role enactment in 1995 than they did in 1990. Practitioners spent less time being managers and more time being technicians. They "seemed to have lost ground in terms of the level of functions for which they were responsible" (L.A Grunig, E.L. Toth, and L.C. Hon 2001, p. 238). One reason given for this change was the "economic downturn" in the United States in this five-year period of time (L.E. Toth, S.A. Serini,., D.K. Wright, and A.G. Emig 1998). With reduced revenues, organizations cut expenditures. To cut expenditures, organizations cut overhead particularly salary budgets and thus positions. This greatly affected non-revenue generating central staff functions, like the public relations/communication function. PR/Communication functions were downsized in this period. With less headcount to share the workload, managers were forced to take on more of the doing themselves. The communications community in the Canadian Federal Government suffered the same fate as the economic downturn affected government revenues, though the timeframe was more 1994 to 1999.

If economic downturns have this effect on role enactment, what affect would economic upturns have? Is the evidence of executive leader role enactment in the Canadian Federal Government communications community simply the result of growing government revenues and of a fiscal house in good order? Are executive leader activities only needed in times of organizational and program expansion, especially rapid expansion? Are these activities required only when communication branches have to 'ramp up' quickly?

It would seem that role enactment research in times of economic stability, neither during a long downturn nor quick upturn, would add significantly to the role enactment literature. That research should examine the executive leader role against the well-studied manager role. The research should focus on heads of PR/Communication functions. And to that end, survey research should identify participants in organizations such as the Arthur Page Society and the Council of Communication Management rather than general membership associations like PRSA and IABC. Surely, if there is in fact a senior manager or executive or executive leader role to be enacted in a PR/Communication function, then it is important that this role be well-documented and understood.

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Figure 1

Communi-cation Branch	*Branch Size / No. of Heads 2001-2003*	*Strategy Approach*	*Human-Assets Approach*	*Expertise Approach*	*Box Approach*	*Change Approach*
A	Small One Head	Reposition Branch in line with organization re-positioning	Succession planning			Staff learning plans
B	Small Two Heads	*Reposition Branch* *Major reorganization* *Resource re-allocation* *MOUs with clients*	Recruitment program			
C	Small One Head		Succession planning		Planning framework	Staff learning plans
Communi-cation Branch	*Branch Size / No. of Heads 2001-2003*	*Strategy Approach*	*Human-Assets Approach*	*Expertise Approach*	*Box Approach*	*Change Approach*
D	Small One Head	Department comm. committee	*Recruitment program* *Retention program* *Developmental program*		Policy framework Planning framework	Staff learning plans
E	Small One Head		*University recruitment program* *Developmental program* *Succession planning*		Policy framework Performance Measurement Framework	
F	Small Two Heads	Minor reorganization MOUs with clients	Recruitment program	*Issues Management* *Ministerial support* *'Hot Files' quick response management*		
G	Small Two Heads	Minor reorganization	Orientation program Career planning Succession planning		Policy Framework Planning framework Program Evaluation framework	

Communi-cation Branch	*Branch Size / No. of Heads 2001-2003*	*Strategy Approach*	*Human-Assets Approach*	*Expertise Approach*	*Box Approach*	*Change Approach*
H	Small Two Heads	MOUs with clients	Recruiting program Succession planning		Policy framework Planning framework	
I	Small Two Heads	Minor reorganization 2 IC role Decentralized budget responsibility	Recruitment program Retention Program Orientation program Succession planning		Policy Framework Planning Framework Policy/planning unit Financial system	*Comm. social network* *Awards program* *Coaching program* *Weekly Branch huddle* *Learning/training plans* *Head run interference*
J	Medium Two Heads	*Department comm. committee* *Client need research*				Weekly Branch huddle
K	Medium Two Heads	*Client need research* *Major reorganization* *Stabilized budget / Resource re-allocation*	Recruitment program Orientation program		Policy Framework Planning Framework	
Communi-cation Branch	*Branch Size / No. of Heads 2001-2003*	*Strategy Approach*	*Human-Assets Approach*	*Expertise Approach*	*Box Approach*	*Change Approach*
L	Medium One Head	*Major reorganization* *MOUs with clients* *2 IC role* *External commnetwork*			Planning Framework	Staff learning plans
M	Medium One Head	*Client need research* *Reorganize management team* *2 IC role*	Developmental program		Policy framework	
N	Medium Two Heads		Recruitment program Development program	Issues Management Ministerial support	Planning unit	Staff learning plans

Communi-cation Branch	*Branch Size / No. of Heads 2001-2003*	*Strategy Approach*	*Human-Assets Approach*	*Expertise Approach*	*Box Approach*	*Change Approach*
O	Medium One Head	Re-position branch Resource re-allocation	*Recruitment program* *Career development* *Competency profiling* *Job classifications: specialist to generalist*		Planning framework Performance Measuremen t framework	
P	Medium One Head	Department comm. committee	Recruitment program Developmental program			
Q	Medium One Head	*External Benchmarking* *Client need research* *Re-position branch* *Minor reorganization* *Resource re-allocation*	Work place health / well-being program	Research / Knowledge management		
R	Medium One Head		*Career development* *Succession planning* *Competency profiling*			
S	Medium One Head		*Work place health / well-being program* *Orientation program*	Issues management		
T	Large Two Heads	Minor reorganization Resource re-allocation			*Policy Framework* *Planning framework* *Program evaluation framework*	Staff learning plans Internal training program
Communi-cation Branch	*Branch Size / No. of Heads 2001-2003*	*Strategy Approach*	*Human-Assets Approach*	*Expertise Approach*	*Box Approach*	*Change Approach*
U	Large Two Heads	Re-position branch Major reorganization Department comm. committee	Recruitment program Developmental program Career development		Policy framework	Internal training program
V	Large Two Heads			*Issues management* *Ministerial support* *Research* *'Hot Files' quick response management*	Planning framework	

COMMUNI-CATION BRANCH	*BRANCH SIZE / NO. OF HEADS 2001-2003*	*STRATEGY APPROACH*	*HUMAN-ASSETS APPROACH*	*EXPERTISE APPROACH*	*BOX APPROACH*	*CHANGE APPROACH*
W	Large Two Heads	*Renewal program* *Major reorganization* *Resource re-allocation* *Department comm. committee*	Orientation program	Issues management	Policy/planning unit Performance measurement framework	Staff learning plans Internal training program
X	Large Two Heads	*Renewal program* *Re-position branch* *Major reorganization* *Resource re-allocation* *MOUs with clients*				
Y	Large Two Heads	MOUs with clients	Recruitment program	Ministerial support	Planning framework	
Z	Large One Head	Re-position branch Minor reorganization Resource re-allocation 2 IC role		Issues management Ministerial support 'Hot Files' quick response management		

Figure 2

MANAGER ROLE	**EXECUTIVE LEADER ROLE**
Develop goals and objectives for the branch	Reposition branch (conducting renewal program determining branch vision, mission, purpose, positioning, desired future, direction and mapping the route – strategy – between point of departure and point of arrival)
Planning and managing branch budget	Resource management (identifying and acquiring additional resources; re-allocating existing resources; re-budgeting or zero-base budgeting)
Making communication policy decisions	Policy framework (developing policy framework including government communication policy, department policy, government and department guidelines; procedures; approval process)
Manage people / Supervising the work of others	HR management regime (developing HR programs for recruitment; retention; orientation; succession planning; career development; position/classification development; workplace well-being; etc.)
Develop strategies to solve PR problems Manage organizational response to issues	Centres of expertise (re-engineer structures, systems, processes, resources & staff competencies)
Counseling management about PR problems/programs	Counseling management about PR function direction, organization and performance
Planning public relations programs	Planning framework (developing integrated framework for annual department plan, regional office plans, client branch plans, communication program plans)

Figure 2, Cont'd

MANAGER ROLE	EXECUTIVE LEADER ROLE
Conduct or analyze research Evaluating program results	Performance measurement framework (developing integrated framework: logic model; performance system & evaluation program)
Meeting with clients/executives (PR needs and programs)	Partnering with clients/executives (developing relationships: MOUs; formal agreements; formal department communication committee with client participation)
Implementing new programs / Managing PR programs	
Responsible / accountable for PR programs	Responsible / accountable for the PR/Communication function
	Organizational Structure (designing organization; management team reporting; unit structure; 2IC)
	Learning (developing competency profiles; learning plans; training programs; awards programs)

Opportunities and Challenges for Intercultural Virtual Teams: Human Factors in Project Connect and Their Implications For Using Virtual Teams in Public Relations*

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Virtual teams can be trained to effectively connect specialists in dispersed geographical locations and diverse cultures, according to preliminary research presented today (Mar. 12) by Virginia Commonwealth University. The findings, presented at the 7th Annual International Public Relations Research Conference in Miami. FL, are based on a pilot test of Project Connect, a cross-cultural educational program with teams communicating in synchronous Web video, audio and text meetings, asynchronous forums and file-sharing of recorded video messages.

Six virtual teams included members from Virginia Commonwealth University's School of Mass Communications, Harvard University, Clark University, American University of Beirut, American University of Cairo and Al Quds University. The United States and Middle East context for the training allowed members to accomplish team tasks while improving intercultural awareness and understanding.

Judy VanSlyke Turk, Ph.D., APR, Fellow PRSA, Professor and Director of the School of Mass Communications, is pleased with the reduction of stereotypes and the process of personal growth and change of team members during the pilot project.

"Both Middle Eastern and U.S. students agreed that in the future, they would look at world events and at people of other cultures differently – more open-mindedly and with great sensitivity – because of their Project Connect experience," she said.

Implementing successful multinational virtual teams is critical as public relations agencies, major multinational corporations and major nonprofit organizations and associations expand globally.

"Every major public relations agency has offices scattered throughout the world; for instance including Weber Shandwick Worldwide has 80 owned offices in 35 countries and 45 affiliates in 40 additional countries," says Ernest Martin, Jr., Ph.D., who teaches public relations at VCU. On the corporate side of public relations, 3M has operations spanning 91 countries.

Internet-based collaboration and conferencing provides low-cost, speedy, and productivity-enhancing alternatives, the VCU research concluded. But dealing with different cultures and handling the technology pose significant challenges.

Implications from the pilot study for building intercultural relationships via technology include:

Understand how diversity strengthens a team.

Recruit the right kinds of members for the team.

Get to know everyone's strengths and background at the beginning of the project.

Understand the advantages and limitations of the technology.

A blending of virtual and face-to-face meetings is optimal.

Build relationships via technology.

Show intercultural sensitivity.

Build trust and understanding.

Know the strengths and limitations of communication channels.

Overcome linguistic barriers.

* The authors wish to thank their VCU students and faculty colleagues who shared with them the Project Connect "experiment" and whose enthusiasm and commitment inspired this paper: Brooks Helms, public relations student; Patrick McCarthy, print journalism student; Patrick Ryan, broadcast journalism student; Bryan Scharf, broadcast journalism student; Sherri Stevens, public relations student; Laura Woodard, public relations student; Prof. June Nicholson' Prof. Debora Wenger

The authors also must thank Solis, especially Lucas Welch, its president, and Liza Chambers, its executive director, for providing the opportunity for Virginia Commonwealth University to participate in its unique Project Connect program. Their unflagging enthusiasm and calm, can-do approach to problem solving kept this boat afloat. Special thanks to Liza for her assistance with this paper.

Opportunities and Challenges for Intercultural Virtual Teams: Human Factors in Project Connect and Their Implications for Using Virtual Teams in Public Relations*

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Introduction

Tensions between people in the United States and the Middle East – and between their governments – have never been higher. In the wake of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in the U.S., narratives have been developed on both sides – in the U.S. and in the Middle East – that allow people to frame current events in ways that make the other side's actions seem immoral or simply inexplicable.

Despite the pervasiveness of these tensions, young people in the U.S. are disturbingly uninformed about and disengaged from global affairs, with 85 percent of Americans aged 18-24 unable to find Afghanistan, Iraq or Israel on a map. (Solis, "Answers to Key Questions") And in the Middle East, frustration with perceived inability to influence American policy is pervasive, leading in some instances to violence that frequently involves young people.

Mainstream media in both regions tend to reinforce separate narratives rather than presenting alternative perspectives or attempting to develop in media audiences the critical skills to assess their previously held views in light of new information.

Solis, Inc., a not-for-profit organization affiliated with the Berkman Center for Internet & Society at Harvard University, contends that much of the tension between the United States and the Middle East is rooted in the radically divergent understandings people have of current events. Mass media, and particularly visual media such as television, play a profoundly influential role in shaping this understanding, often yielding "partial narratives" without providing a constructive outlet for people to humanize the "other side" and to address (and perhaps even lessen) their differences. (www.solis.net)

Solis developed a cross-cultural education program, in a richly interactive media environment, that enables students at participating colleges and universities to develop a deeper understanding of other perspectives and a more critical assessment of their own. The program, called Project Connect, got a pilot test in the Fall of 2003 when three universities in the United States and three in the Middle East were invited to select six student participants each. Virginia Commonwealth University, specifically VCU's School of Mass Communications, was one of the six participating institutions. (Other universities in the U.S. were Harvard University and Clark University. Participating universities in the Middle East were the American University of Beirut, the American University in Cairo and Al Quds University in Jerusalem.

Lessons learned in the project resonate for the practice of public relations in the global environment.

Goals and Objectives of Project Connect

The goal or long-term desired outcome of Project Connect is a network of well informed and media literate young adults in the United States and the Middle East who work individually and together to improve relations between the people of their regions. Through an ongoing process of creating small virtual multinational groups of young people who will engage in dialogue and joint video projects that represent diverse views, an "alumni network" will be created that can, in turn, foster additional dialogue in their local communities.

The objectives of Project Connect are:

- to expand students' understanding of and ability to think critically about the relationships between the U.S. and the Middle East;

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- to sensitize students to the mass media's role in shaping perspectives and to enable them to critically assess news coverage;
- to humanize the "other" through intimate online communication and collaboration, and
- to provide students with the skills and tools they need in order to collaboratively work for change on a local, national and global level. (www.solis.net)

The goal of the "pilot test" conducted in the Fall of 2003 was to "test drive" the concepts behind and the implementation of Project Connect as it had been conceived by Solis President Lucas Welch and Liza Chambers, the organization's executive director. Objectives were to test both the technological tools and the dialogic activities that had been developed for the program so that improvements could be made before the scheduled Fall 2004 launch of the full-blown program.

Pilot Project Activities

One student from each of the participating six universities was assigned to each of six groups that "met" once or twice a week for 90 minutes over a six-week period in November and December 2003. By not permitting more than one student from each university to be in a group, students were assured of being part of a diverse, multinational group of students, none of whom knew or knew about each other before the pilot project began.

These "live" synchronous "meetings" were led by trained facilitators, and each meeting usually included either Welch or Chambers.

Each student sat at a computer equipped with a Web cam. (While VCU was able to purchase the six Web cams for its student participants, Logitech donated cameras to those schools that could not afford them.) Using a customized videoconferencing application from Bridge Conferencing that integrates into the Voxwire interface, students were able to see and hear each other in a much richer and more intimate environment than the traditional group-to-group videoconferencing applications. Students could see one another's facial expressions, hear tone of voice and even share a joke.

The students also communicated asynchronously, using a group web page with a forum where students could post messages and exchange thoughts outside the live sessions. Students also could record video messages, adding to the fun and intimacy of the communication.

Over the course of the six weeks, students were led through a three-stage process:

- Explore. In this phase, students browsed online individually through a variety of resources pertaining to the relationship between the U.S. and the Middle East. Raw video footage was provided by the BBC and streamed on the Solis site using Macromedia's Flash Communication Server technology, and a number of online resources including news sources, political commentary and statistics about the U.S. and the Middle East also were provided. In the group sessions, the students discussed the footage and the materials provided and shared their opinions about the perspectives presented. They also personalized the issues by discussing the way in which those issues have affected their lives.
- Express. In the second phase, students learned how to use Pinnacle Studio 8 software, a program that is relatively simple to learn and use. Using video footage provided by Solis, the students edited their own short personal video that presented their personal perspective on the relationship between the U.S. and the Middle East. They were encouraged to voice their own opinions and encouraged to develop or deepen their personal connection to the issues. Students shared these videos during group meetings to gain a deeper understanding of one another's perspectives and to illuminate differences and similarities between unit members' views.
- Engage. In the final phase, students in each group planned a group project: a joint video or media project that would illustrate what they, as a group, reached consensus on and learned about themselves and about each other. The initial intent had been for the students to actually produce this project but the short amount of time available during the pilot (only six weeks) and approaching final exams forced the groups to "disband" before that final objective was met. Some of the groups are continuing to work together to create their joint projects; one group, for instance, is working on a documentary that will explore the question, "How do the media affect the relationship between the U.S. and the Middle East."

Four meetings were held on the campus of each participating university to bring together that university's students with faculty facilitators. During these meetings, the students – each one a member of a different "virtual" group – reflected on their synchronous and asynchronous exchanges with members of their group over the past week or two. Faculty facilitators led students through a discussion of themes of understanding (or difference) that seemed to be emerging in their groups and how the group "meetings" and activities were affecting them. In the final on-campus meeting, the students were asked to identify three important things they had learned through Project Connect, and to identify specific ways in which their participation had changed them and would influence their thinking or actions in the future.

What the Student Participants Had To Say

Both Middle Eastern and U.S. students agreed that in the future, they would look at world events and at people of other cultures differently – more open-mindedly and with greater sensitivity – because of their Project Connect experience. As Mohamad, a student at the American University of Beirut, put it: "I felt that these

discussions were very effective in both learning about the views of others as well as forcing me to think and analyze my own perspectives by bringing them to (the) surface." (www.solis.net) Tanja, a VCU student, said she learned to "look at conflicts through a different lens than my own. Talking about issues that all of us believe in and disagree on allowed me to see the different ways to approach problems."

The students said they also learned that media and governments are not neutral providers of information, and that the job of the information consumer is to critically evaluate information from a variety of sources before drawing conclusions. "The media and government have certain slants that they are trying to promote. The real truth is likely somewhere in the middle. It is up to me to find that truth," said Krister, a Harvard University student. Sevan, a student at the American University of Beirut, said many people "do not totally understand what they support because they do not have enough knowledge … but they are influenced by a lot of factors, either local media or more cultural (factors) such as patriotism."

They also learned that personal interaction with people from another region and culture, even though it might be only "virtually" face-to-face, is far superior to hearing or reading about those regions and cultures. Tanja, from Virginia Commonwealth University, put it this way: "The Connect program is almost like a free flight to the Middle East. You are not going sight seeing but are rather talking to the people there." A student at the American University in Cairo "learned that the younger generation of citizens probably has a better idea of how we want our future to look than the people who are in charge of implementing those ideas. I also learned that open dialogue is more representative of people's humanities and desires, and that people are generally similar in their hopes for peace and understanding."

Lessons Learned for Future Project Connect Programs

The goal of the pilot was to "test drive" the concepts behind and the implementation of Project Connect as it had been conceived by Solis. Objectives were to test both the technological tools and the dialogic activities that had been developed for the program so that improvements could be made before the scheduled Fall 2004 launch of the full-blown program.

As with any good, productive pilot test, this trial run of Project Connect resulted in a long list of "next time" fixes and recommendations. Here are some of the changes ahead for Project Connect:

- A second six-week pilot will be run in March and April involving two universities: Al Quds University in the Middle East and Tufts University in the U.S. One of the most important objectives of this pilot will be to further refine and test the technology that will be used in future programs. Differences in technological sophistication and support among the universities participating in the pilot created an uneven playing field: students from well-equipped, well-staffed institutions like VCU (which provided Dell GX4 computers, Web cams and a computer technician) had a more productive experience than those with lesser facilities and equipment.
- "Alumni" from the November-December 2003 pilot will be trained to serve as facilitators in future Connect programs.
- Some of the "alumni" from the November-December 2003 pilot will collaboratively product the joint media project they designed in the pilot. Solis will thus have a completed project to serve as a model for future programs. One of the most frequently mentioned student participant frustrations was, "We ran out of time before we could do our project."
- Solis is developing a Board of Directors and an Advisory Board to assist it in expanding to a greater number of universities. Solis hopes to run Project Connect programs beginning in the Fall of 2004 with students from 10 to 12 universities participating each time.
- Solis is developing a curriculum plan, with the assistance of professors from several universities (including Virginia Commonwealth University), to turn Project Connect into a semester-long course that would earn credit from the participating universities. Turner Learning and Al Jazeera have also expressed interest in assisting Solis develop this curriculum. During the pilot, students participated on a strictly voluntary basis and for a much shorter period of time; student feedback was that an opportunity to earn credit and spreading the program over an entire semester would make the experience more meaningful and would attract more students.
- Solis is upgrading the functioning of its online applications so that is scalable for significantly larger number of participants.
- Solis also is developing a CD-ROM for distribution of media elements, software and tutorials. Online access during the pilot limited the "portability" of program elements and proved problematic for participants without broadband access and powerful computers.

Adapting the Project Connect Experience to Public Relations

What are the implications of Project Connect for public relations practice? This section will address three points. First, the public relations field continues to expand globally. Second, because of global expansion and necessary collaboration with specialists in dispersed geographical locations, virtual teams, as represented by Project Connect, can rapidly form, reorganize and dissolve to meet organizational needs. Virtual teams allow participation of members with needed skills but who are located across time, space and cultures. Third, effective virtual team participation can be influenced by a variety of human factors, including communication modes,

media usage, communication tasks, cultural differences and group dynamics. Specific implications for public relations practice are detailed.

First, the public relations field continues to expand globally. Understanding different perspectives is especially important for public relations practice when working globally. How vast is the geographical and cultural spread in public relations practice?

Every major agency has offices scattered throughout the world. Just look at a few examples. (see Table 1: Office Locations for Selected Public Relations Agencies) Porter Novelli has 91 offices worldwide; Ketchum has 50 offices; and Fleishman-Hillard has 45 offices. Other major agencies are also geographically spread. Edelman PR Worldwide has 40 offices plus 43 affiliate offices. Weber Shandwick Worldwide has 80 owned offices in 35 countries and 45 affiliates in 40 countries.

On the corporate side, major multinational corporations have locations throughout the world and even a wider network of outsourcing. IBM's (see Table 2) multiple business locations span 87 countries. The geographical spread of Federal Express is 218 countries. GE has multiple locations in 56 countries. 3M lists operations in 91 countries. The list could go on and on.

Many nonprofit organizations and associations are also international in scope. Greenpeace International (see Table 3) has locations in 39 countries and operational activities in many more.

Overall, the geography of public relations practice continues to expand. Large multinational agencies, multinational corporations and multinational nonprofits are truly global.

Second, virtual teams promise the responsiveness and lower costs necessary for collaboration with specialists in dispersed geographical locations. Virtual teams allow participation of members with needed skills but who are located across time, space and cultures. (Duarte & Snyder, 1999) Quite simply, a virtual team conducts work almost entirely through collaborative information and communication technology. Through the technology, people in distant places can connect and build relationships without travel. Virtual teams can rapidly form, reorganize and dissolve to meet organizational needs. Virtual teams enable organizations to accomplish things more quickly and efficiently. (Grosse, 2002) This technology and globalization have changed the work environment for organizations of all sizes. (Townsend, DeMarie & Hendrickson 1998)

Wainhouse Research concluded in 2002 that more business time in the US is now spent in voice, Web and video-conferences than in conventional "in-person" meetings. Virtual conferencing and collaboration, as part of that trend, are speedy, productivity-enhancing means of communication in the pressure-cooker business climate. (Hagerty, 2002)

Such Internet-based collaboration globally, however, is still in its infancy. (Grosse 2002) Some researchers note "in practice, global teams do not often create the value expected." (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2000, p. 45) Dealing with different cultures and handling the technology pose the biggest challenges. (Keenan & Ante, 2002)

Third, effective virtual team participation can be influenced by a variety of human factors, including communication modes, media usage, communication tasks, cultural differences and group dynamics.

As global companies increasingly rely on virtual teams for short and long term projects, public relations practitioners and students need to be prepared to participate in and manage the communication of intercultural teams. Communicating across cultures using technology can be difficult and requires understanding the advantages and limitations of technology and how to build relationships via the technology.

Implication for PR practice: Understand how diversity strengthens a team. Diversity strengthens an intercultural team when the value each member contributes to the team is recognized. Each person clearly brings different perspectives to the team tasks. Each person adds a different perspective and help teammates see things from a different angle. Diversity brings a broader range of expertise, resources and viewpoints to projects. (Townsend, DeMarie & Hendrickson, 1998) Diversity stimulates new ideas and enhances creativity. Working on virtual intercultural teams changes points of view about how people from different cultures behave and erase stereotypes. Feedback from students in Project Connect bears this out.

Implication for PR practice: Recruit the right kinds of members for the team. Blackburn, Furst and Rosen (2003) argue special knowledge, skills and abilities are needed to lead and work virtually. We found these skills to include self-regulatory skills, new interpersonal skills fitting the technology, comfort with the hardware and software, flexibility, awareness of current events in the world and willingness to discuss cultural differences and similarities openly. In the Project Connect pilot, we anticipated the need for students who were self-starters, innovators and open to a variety of cultural experiences.

Implications for PR practice

Get to know everyone's strengths and background at the beginning of the project.

Knowing individual backgrounds allows teams to play to each other's strengths and minimize weaknesses. Recognizing that teammates have different levels of expertise, experience and skill allows distribution of workload accordingly. For example, one member may be strong in interpersonal skills to help resolve conflict and build group consensus when the team has disagreements, but weak in time management. Another member with good time management skills to build a timeline and keep others on track for project completion may lack technical expertise and rely on teammates who are Internet-savvy for assistance. The Project Connect student teams spent almost half of the meeting times getting to know each other and determining who would play what roles.

Understand the advantages and limitations of the technology

While technology offers opportunity for frequent, low-cost, easy, around-the-clock communication and collaboration, problems can occur when the network goes down, the technology does not work or a team member needs more training in its use. Ongoing technical support and training are critical. The VCU participants were fortunate to have 24/7 access to a technician who came in early and stayed late as needed. Some of the other universities without that level of technical support could not participate fully in all of the synchronous sessions.

Know the strengths and limitations of communication channels

Production values make it difficult to work at times. Resolution, speed and sound present periodic problems. Collaborative and conferencing technologies are definitely not TV. Beyond those issues, at times asynchronous channels are the most appropriate; at times synchronous channels are best. Project Connect team members learned from experience which channels worked best for which tasks as the project progressed.

A blending of virtual and face-to-face meetings is optimal

Personal relationships need to develop in all teams. Face-to-face contact can build relationships more quickly. Kostner (2001) reports that executives on virtual teams perceive travel as necessary to develop rapport. Making a deliberate effort to get to know each other well at the beginning sustains long distance via technology. If face-to-face initial meetings are not possible, use the technology to build relationships with personal touches in the communication. One of the drawbacks of the Project Connect pilot and the future planned Project Connect activities is the lack of initial face-to-face interaction.

Build relationships via technology

Even with a high degree of interactivity, recognize the technology is still distant and somewhat of a barrier to interpersonal relationship building. To humanize interaction, personal touches can be used in communication. Exchange photos and celebrate birthdays or other events. Sometimes virtual team members make long-term friends with people they have not physically met. The Project Connect pilot was too short to develop really long-term relationships. With semester-long activities in the future, there will be opportunities to better humanize interactions.

Show intercultural sensitivity

To communicate effectively across cultures, virtual team members need to develop intercultural sensitivity and trust. One of the most important results of the Project Connect pilot is that students did feel they became more sensitive to viewing events in the world with greater sensitivity.

Build trust and understanding

Mutual trust is a necessary condition for successful teamwork. (Child, 2001) Trust is not, however, easy to achieve, especially in virtual teams where there is uncertainty and incomplete knowledge of all group members. Jarvenpaa, Knoll, and Leidner (1998) found that trust among global team members depended on perceptions of each other's abilities, integrity and benevolence. Gibson and Cohen (2003) argue one the most important "enabling conditions" for virtual teams is establishing safe environments for their members who are thereby willing to take risks. The Project Connect students on both sides took risks in bearing their souls, trusting they would not be judged for their views and trusting others would understand the origin of their viewpoints.

Overcome communication barriers

Thomas (1999) argues that team members need to understand how cultural differences affect team dynamics and individual ideas about how teams should function. Virtual teams often find it challenging to work with people from different language backgrounds. Several remarked on how the other person understood something very different from what was intended. To overcome obstacles to communication, patience, respect and listening skills are key. It took time and patience to recognize and adapt to different communication styles in the Project Connect pilot. After the first meetings, members let each other know that they understood and

appreciated others' points and addressed them directly. Generally, when they did not understand a point, they persisted in asking questions for clarification.

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Table 1. Office Locations for Selected Public Relations Agencies

Fleishman-Hillard (45 offices)	**Ketchum (50 offices)**	**Porter Novelli (91 offices)**	**Porter Novelli (continued)**
Asia (11):	**Asia-Pacific (18)**	**Americas (34)**	**Europe, Middle East, Africa (39 offices)**
Beijing	Auckland	Argentina	Belgium -Brussels
Shanghai	Bangalore	Brazil – Rio de Janeiro	Belgium – Gent
Guangzhou	Bangkok	Brazil – São Paulo	Bosnia-Herzegovina
Hong Kong	Beijing	Canada – Montreal	Bulgaria
Kuala Lumpur	Chennai	Canada – Toronto	Croatia
Manila	Guangzhou	Canada – Vancouver	Denmark – Århus
Melbourne	Hong Kong	Chile	Denmark – Horsens
Seoul	Kuala Lumpur	Colombia	Denmark – Copenhagen
Singapore	Manila	Costa Rica	Finland – Helsinki
Sydney	Mumbai	Dominican Republic	Finland -Oulu
Tokyo	New Delhi	Ecuador	France – Grenoble
Europe (8)	Seoul	El Salvador	France – Paris
Amsterdam	Shanghai	Guatemala	Germany – Dusseldorf
Brussels	Singapore	Honduras	Germany – Munich
Dublin	Sydney	Mexico	Greece
Frankfurt	Taipei	Nicaragua	Ireland
London	Tokyo	Panama	Israel
Madrid	Wellington	Peru	Italy – Milan
Milan	**European/African (12)**	Uruguay	Italy – Rome
Paris	Brussels	US – Atlanta	Latvia
Mexico (1)	Cape Town	US – Austin	Lebanon
Mexico City	Copenhagen	US – San Francisco	Netherlands
Canada (2)	Istanbul	US – San Jose	Norway
Toronto	Lisbon	US – Boston	Portugal
Montreal	London	US – Chicago	Russia
United States (22)	Madrid	US – Ft. Lauderdale	Saudi Arabia – Jeddah
Atlanta	Milan	US – Irvine	Saudi Arabia – Riyadh
Austin	Moscow	US – Los Angeles	Slovenia
Boston	Munich	US – New York	South Africa
Charlotte	Paris	US – Portland	Spain – Barcelona
Chicago	Stockholm	US – Sacramento	Spain – Madrid
Cleveland	**Latin American (10)**	US – San Diego	Spain – Valencia
Dallas	Bogota	US – Seattle	Sweden
Houston	Buenos Aires	US – Washington DC	Switzerland
Kansas City	Caracas	Asia Pacific (18)	United Arab Emirates
Los Angeles	Guatemala City	Australia – Adelaide	United Kingdom – Scotland
Miami	Lima	Australia – Brisbane	United Kingdom – Banbury
Minneapolis/St. Paul	Panama City	Australia – Darwin	United Kingdom – Leeds
New York	San Jose	Australia – Hobart	United Kingdom – London
Portland	San Juan	Australia – Melbourne	
Sacramento	Santiago	Australia – Perth	
San Antonio	Sao Paulo	Australia – Sydney	
San Diego	**North American Offices (10)**	China – Hong Kong	
San Francisco	Atlanta	China – Shanghai	
San Juan	Chicago	India – New Delhi	
Seattle	Dallas	India – Bangalore	
St. Louis	Los Angeles	Japan – Toyko	
Washington, D.C.	Mexico City	Korea – Seoul	
South Africa (1)	New York	New Zealand – Auckland	
Johannesburg	Pittsburgh	New Zealand – Wellington	
	San Francisco	Singapore – Singapore	
	Toronto	Taiwan – Taipei	
	Washington, D.C	Thailand – Bangkok	

Table 2. IBM Locations (Countries) Worldwide

Anguilla	Estonia	Peru
Antigua and Barbuda	Finland	Philippines
Argentina	France	Poland
Aruba	Germany	Portugal
Australia	Greece	Romania
Austria	Grenada	Russian Federation
Bahamas	Guyana	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Bangladesh	Hong Kong S.A.R. of China	Saint Lucia
Barbados	Hungary	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Belgium	India	Singapore
Belgium	Indonesia	Slovakia
Belgium	Ireland	Slovenia
Bermuda	Israel	South Africa
Bolivia	Italy	Spain
Brazil	Jamaica	Sri Lanka
British Virgin Islands	Japan	Suriname
Bulgaria	Korea, Republic of	Sweden
Canada	Latvia	Switzerland
Cayman Islands	Lithuania	Switzerland
Chile	Luxembourg	Taiwan
China	Malaysia	Thailand
Colombia	Mexico	Trinidad and Tobago
Croatia	Montserrat	Turkey – Turkish
Cyprus	Netherlands	Turks and Caicos Islands
Czech Republic	Netherlands Antilles	United Kingdom
Denmark	New Zealand	United States
Dominica	Norway	Uruguay
Ecuador	Pakistan	Venezuela
Egypt	Paraguay	Vietnam

Table 3. Greenpeace Locations (Countries) Worldwide

Argentina	Germany	New Zealand
Australia	Greece	Norway
Austria	Hungary	Romania
Belgium	Iceland	Russia
Brazil	India	Slovakia
Canada	Israel	Thailand
Chile	Italy	Spain
China	Japan	Sweden
Cyprus	Lebanon	Switzerland
Czech Republic	Luxembourg	Tunisia
Denmark	Malta	Turkey
Finland	Mexico	United Kingdom
France	Netherlands	United States

Public Relations and Sustainable Development: The Case of "Grupo Xcaret" in México

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A study of a Mexican tourism corporation found that public relations in the "Xcaret Group" focuses on a combination of tourism for development, sustainable tourism, eco and alternative tourism, and community education and involvement. The mission of the group is "to be unique in sustainable tourist recreation" that reflects a commitment to both local and global social responsibility.

Environmental scanning and issues tracking take a broader role in sustainable development programs. Practitioners should monitor the local and global contexts based on the increasing interdependence of business and the natural environment.

When asking about the nature of public relations for sustainable development, participants emphasized the focus on community. That focus on society appears to only describe community involvement. No statement from the respondents addressed community feedback and active participation during the planning stage or before corporate plans and actions are implemented.

It appears that sustainable tourism destinations attract, other than traditional tourists, a different kind of visitor; tourists concerned about the impact of the operation on the destination. Therefore, public relations professionals are obligated to provide comprehensive information about the efforts the organization operating a tourist attraction invested in preserving the natural environment, managing with efficiency, and educating the community to engage its members in the preservation of natural resources and the cultivation of cultural traditions.

The study was conducted in between December 2003 and January 2004 by professor Juan-Carlos Molleda of the University of Florida and Iliana Rodríguez, Director of Public Relations of Xcaret; an environmental-friendly theme park located in the Riviera Maya, Cancún, México. This investigation was conducted with six structured, in-depth and self-administered interviews with top management and public relations personnel of Xcaret.

Public Relations and Sustainable Development: The Case of "Grupo Xcaret" in México

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Abstract

The paper describes and analyzes the public relations strategies of a group of environmentally friendly theme parks in Mexico named Xcaret (Riviera Maya, in the Mexican Caribbean), Garrafón (Isla Mujeres), Cañón del Sumidero (Chiapas), and Xel-ha (Riviera Maya) through the review of corporate publications and six self-administered, structured questionnaires with corporate management and public relations personnel. A major emphasis is placed on describing the Xcaret's operation because this park is leading the sustainable development strategy for the consortium. Public relations in the "Xcaret Group" focuses on a combination of interrelated themes: tourism for development, sustainable tourism, eco and alternative tourism, and community education and involvement. The mission of the group is "to be unique in sustainable tourist recreation" that reflects a commitment to both local and global social responsibility.

Introduction

The "international" business community has approached concepts such as social responsibility and social performance, which are included in conferences, public or social reports (e.g. www.dow.com) and other corporate publications, news releases and corporate websites. Most recently, corporate citizenship seems to be the term that encompasses both concepts. The World Economic Forum (WEF) defines corporate citizenship as:

> **…** the contribution a company makes to society through its core business activities, its social investment and philanthropy programmes, and its engagement in public policy. The manner in which a company manages its economic, social and environmental relationships, and the way it engages with its stakeholders (such as shareholders, employees, customers, business partners, governments and communities), has an impact on the company's long-term success. (Global Corporate Citizenship Initiatives, 2004)

In January 2004, WEF released the findings of a 2003 CEO survey entitled "Values and value: communicating the strategic importance of corporate citizenship to investors." The report concludes by saying that "Good corporate citizenship is increasingly seen to have an impact on risk and reputation management; efforts to build trust and good stakeholder relationships with employees, consumers, regulators, suppliers and local communities; operational efficiency; innovation; the development of new business opportunities; and the creation of long-term shareholder value" (p. 32). Nevertheless, the report adds, "many in the investor community … appear to remain focused almost exclusively on short-term results and financial performance indicators" (p. 32).

Another term associated to social responsibility, social performance, and corporate citizenship is sustainability or sustainable development. Businesses are responding by publishing "sustainability reports" (e.g., www.baxter.com). Supranational entities are contributing to the trend. The United Nations' Commission on Sustainable Development, created in 1992 after the Rio Earth Summit in Brazil, defines sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (United Nations, 2003). In 1991, in preparation for the Rio Earth Summit, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development was formed in Norway. This coalition of some 175 transnational businesses is "united by a shared commitment to sustainable development via the three pillars of economic growth, ecological balance and social progress." (About the WBCSD, n.d.). Similarly, Nordstrom and Kubiak (2004) define sustainable development as producing, consuming and living in ways that ensure economic, societal, and environmental health, "forever."

Tourism is an industry in which sustainable development is becoming critical to long-term survival. The World Tourism Organization, founded in The Hague in 1925, is proposing the creation of an Accreditation Council for Sustainable Development (About WTO, n.d.). The issue of certification is being addressed in specific countries of the Americas such as Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, the United States and the Caribbean (Certificación de sostenibilidad, 2003). Other international organizations such as Rainforest Alliance, International Society of Ecotourism, and the World Bank are also participating of the discussion about an international certification for sustainable tourism.

This paper introduces a case study of a sustainable tourism project in Mexico in which public relations supports an organization's sustainable development efforts. Following is a brief introduction of the organization.

Xcaret (sh-ca-ret) – Sacred Paradise of Nature

Xcaret, small cove or inlet in Mayan, is located in Quintana Roo, the youngest state in Mexico and important center of the Mayan civilization. In the last 20 years, this state of the Mexican Caribbean (Northeast coast) has transformed itself into one of the ten most popular destinations worldwide (World Tourism Organization). Cancún is the largest city and better-known destination in Quintana Roo.

Grupo Xcaret is a consortium that manages four environmentally friendly theme parks in Mexico named Xcaret (Riviera Maya, in the Mexican Caribbean), Garrafón (Isla Mujeres), Cañón del Sumidero (Chiapas), and Xel-ha (Riviera Maya). Xcaret is the flagship park of the consortium, which offers a variety of recreational activities, yet among its priorities are "the veneration and preservation of the environment, as much as the legacies and cultures of the Mayan peoples and Mexico in general." (Xcaret, 2001). The park is also "concerned with sensitizing visitors to the imperative need to save the planet."

According to Francisco Córdova, General Executive Director of Grupo Xcaret, "a sustainable society manages its economy and the size of its population, satisfying the needs of its people without exhausting the capital of the land and, therefore, without placing in risk the perspective of future generations of humans and other species" (corporate presentation). In the case of a sustainable tourism development the preservation of cultural resources is as important as the care for the natural resources. This is the motto of Xcaret and its communication strategies for community building.

Concerning community relations objectives, Xcaret Group aims to promote civic values among its 2000 employees, commit itself to addressing the social problems of Mexico, promote and improve products, jointly seek the common good, promote education, preserve the environment, promote quality of life, support social intermediary groups, and respect unity. More specifically, the consortium's code of ethics and social responsibility is at the core of its actions and communications that includes environmental campaigns with original mascots, contexts, educational publications, community appreciation programs, internal publications and programs, suppliers and sales force literature, school programs, and meetings and corporate presentations to various groups.

Public relations is a strategic function at Grupo Xcaret. The consolidated management philosophy of the four natural theme parks, focusing on sustainable development, facilitates an empowered role of communication professionals working for this group of companies. They are engaged in constant environmental scanning, issues tracking and program development. They act proactively and are conscious of their fundamental role to achieve integration among management, employees, communities, and other key publics in favor of development. It seems that the Xcaret Group, with the active participation of its public relations professionals, is making a long-term impact on the communities they influence through integrated daily operations. The challenge is to keep a balance or to reach a middle ground where business and community interests meet.

Literature Review

The use of public relations for promoting sustainable development projects is expected at times when communitarian approaches (K. Leeper, 1996; Kruckeberg, & Starck, 1988; Kruckeberg, 2000; R. Leeper, 2001; Starck, & Kruckeberg, 2001) and collaboration (Grunig, 2000) are said to bring justice and balance to the interactions between organizations and publics. Public relations practitioners are portrayed as corporate activists or change agents from a postmodernist perspective (Holtzhausen, 2000; Holtzhausen, 2002; Holtzhausen, & Voto, 2002), which implies a proactive role suitable for developmental communication programs, especially in developing or transitional economies. In Latin America, some public relations practitioners participate in the coordination of efforts from organizations, employees, and community groups to forming natural alliances in support of sustainable development. Here development means, as defined by Stiglitz (2002), the transformation of societies, improvement in the lives of people, and equal public access to basic needs such as education.

Public relations and sustainable development go hand-in-hand, especially in Latin America where the practice has a clear and active social role to play (Molleda, 2001). The social role has been carefully described as a distinctive feature of public relations in countries with emerging democracies and countries facing great political and economic challenges (Molleda & Suárez, 2003; Molleda & Ferguson, forthcoming).

Molleda (2001) explains that the Latin American perspective of public relations focuses on community interests; contributions to the well-being of the human environment where organizations operate; the historical and socio-economic reality of the region; social transformation and change agency; the ideas of freedom, justice, harmony, equality and respect for human dignity; and confidence without manipulation using communication to reach accord, consensus, and integration. The proactive social role of the Latin American

practitioner can be captured with the concepts of change and social transformation agents working with organizational resources to influence internal and external publics.

In addition to the social and change agency roles of public relations, the European perspective argues for the existence of education and reflective dimensions together with managerial and operational (a.k.a. technical) dimensions (Ruler & Verčič, 2002). According to the authors, the educational dimension entails "to help all the members of the organization become communicatively competent, in order to respond to societal demands" (p. 10). The reflective dimension refers to the analysis of discussing and changing viewpoints, standards, and values in society with the members of the organization, "in order to adjust the standards and values/standpoints of the organization accordingly" (p. 10). The education role focuses on internal publics and the reflective on management philosophy. It could be argued that placing sustainable development at the core of the public relations function is an example of the reflective role defined by the European body of knowledge.

Sustainable development considers the impact of business in society or, saying it differently, the integration between business and society. According to Pratt (2003), the definition of sustainable development "has been associated with concepts such as environmental sustainability; conservation; corporate social responsibility; general do-gooderism; and ecological sustainability" (p. 449). One of the important legs of the sustainability tripod focuses on community involvement with organizational agents or programs. Pratt explains that this goes beyond involvement: "Working with communities entails much more than getting involved in community projects; it requires setting up a system for community input well before major projects are under way; it requires searching for channels by which community views are represented in organizational decision-making; it requires that corporations, as moral agencies, enunciate and share their cultures with their stakeholders; it requires the sharing of organizational symbolism with all the stakeholders and being influenced by that of the latter" (pp. 451-452). This represents a challenge and a need for public relations professionals involved in sustainable development initiatives around the world.

Research Questions

The first set of questions concerns the conceptualization of public relations for sustainable development projects: What are the characteristics of the public relations function of a project focused on sustainable development? In other words, how can the nature, philosophy and type of public relations be described in the Xcaret Group? How does public relations support the Xcaret's sustainable development program? What is the vision of public relations in Xcaret?

The second set of questions refers to roles of public relations professionals in organizations with an emphasis on sustainability: What are the skills and knowledge that a public relations professional should have to work for an organization focused on sustainable development? Do public relations professionals working for Xcaret consider themselves agents of social transformation and part of the social conscience of their organization?

The third set of questions relates to public segmentation and strategies in Xcaret: What are the main publics of Xcaret and the main strategies to establishing understanding and long-term relationships between the organization and its publics? What are the key themes or messages included in Xcaret's internal and external communication campaigns?

The final set of questions focuses on the impact and challenges of public relations to advance sustainability in a given location: How are Xcaret's public relations infrastructure and philosophy impacting the field in the Mexican Caribbean and what are the characteristics of the geographical location that make sustainable public relations strategies possible? What are the challenges or obstacles the implementation of public relations in support of a sustainable development program faces?

Methodology

This qualitative research uses a self-administered, structured questionnaire written in Spanish and composed of 10 open-ended questions. Grupo Xcaret's top management and public relations personnel were asked to complete the instrument between the months of December 2003 and January of 2004. The questions were drawn from the definition of sustainable development and the literature review concerning the social or postmodernist roles of public relations. The questions and answers were translated from Spanish to English by the second author and edited for language correctness and clarity by the first author. The answers for each question were summarized, patterns of responses were highlighted and verbatim quotes used to illustrate or support specific claims.

Limitation

This qualitative study focuses on one organization and data gathered from its representatives. This case study cannot be generalized to other organizations with a public relations function in charge of supporting a sustainable development project. However, the findings and descriptions offered by this study would assist in

the development of a larger research project that considers a group of organizations in one or various economic sectors, which can provide a broader picture of the use of public relations for sustainability.

Sample characteristics

Between December 2003 and January 2004, six self-administered, structured questionnaires were completed by the Xcaret Group's management (two males holding the titles of president and general manager) and Public Relations Team (four females with the following job titles: manager, account executive, and assistant). Participants have worked for the organization between five months and 11 years. Five respondents hold bachelors degree in economy, architecture, business administration, and social communication. The sixth participant holds a technical degree in language interpretation / translation (equivalent to a U.S. community college degree). The average age of the respondents was 41 years.

Findings

Nature of the public relations function in a sustainable development project

According to the participants, in a sustainable tourism project, public relations goes beyond traditional, technical-oriented tasks such as news release preparation and event organization; that is, a public relations professional must be aware of the social, cultural and environmental issues not only locally but also worldwide. This local-global vision allows public relations programs to go further and enhance the identity of the organization and to educate on sustainability.

Respondents commented that in an organization that wants to follow social corporate responsibility principles, the priority is the community; the focus of organizational actions is on the society. "In a sustainable tourism development the welfare of a community is based, besides social benefits, on the preservation of the environment and the cultural heritage; thus, making sure that future generations have the same opportunities that the present generation has," a participant wrote.

Ethics, values and principles are important aspects of an organization oriented to sustainability. As a consequence, respondents argued, public relations programs have to be carefully designed to meet the management philosophy inspired in these elements.

Strategic public relations in Xcaret

Xcaret attractions and communications must demonstrate organizational commitment to environment, culture and community. Respondents argued that in order to continue with their programs for endangered species, cultural rescue, environmental education and social support, Xcaret needs to be a sound business. In words of one respondent, "to preserve the business, the business is to preserve."

In global tourism, travelers increasingly care about the level of social responsibility adopted by the organizations that own and administer the facilities they visit. Respondents explained how today's tourists do research on the destination, the organizations that offer tourist services, hotels, etc., and then decide where to go according to the destination that offers the best experiences at the "lowest ecological, cultural and social cost." Communication then becomes a part of the business. A respondent gave the following example:

> A few years ago, word spread around that some destinations in Africa were not paying enough attention to the animals and environment welfare. The United Kingdom is the main target market for African destinations. Within a year, UK citizens decided not to go to Africa until this situation was reversed. Around the same year, a complaint about Xcaret from an environmental organization appeared on a newspaper in London. We contacted immediately the Mexican Tourism Office in London and worked together on a strategy to prevent a crisis caused by misinformation. We manage to straighten things out and tell our story. The tourism from UK increased; we brought several media and contacted the environmental organization.

The complaint was about another attraction in the same locality where Xcaret operates. That attraction was mistreating animals, therefore, Xcaret's public relations team along with the Animal Protection Society helped that attraction to stop the practice and avoid further damage to the reputation of the destination. "Even though it had nothing to do with us; it happened in our community," a participant added. In 2002, Xcaret became the first Mexican organization granted the "British Airways Highly Commended Tourism for Tomorrow Award", a very prestigious international award given to sustainable tourism developments. "In an organization like ours, trust is the main ingredient for our visitors and the only way to build that trust is through communication."

Respondents listed the main themes emphasized in Xcaret's key messages: Endangered species protection programs, environmental education, contribution to the distinction of the destination (Cancún and Riviera Maya), community programs, contribution to the preservation of traditions and cultural heritage, and Xcaret's Mexican citizenship (i.e., a hundred percent Mexican organization).

Skills and knowledge of the public relations professional

A public relations professional in a sustainable tourism development business has to first understand the concept of sustainable development. Respondents agreed that practitioners have to have a good knowledge of

economics (macro and micro), ecology, environment, culture, heritage, history and sociology. Additionally, he or she needs to be involved and to know the government programs on environment, culture and community.

Professionals must be able to separate "radical ecology" from sustainable development; that is, they must balance between good business practices, profits and environmental and cultural preservation for the benefit of the organizational community and society at large. In particular, respondents said that understanding that tourism also involves the preservation of heritage, culture and history is essential. Other two professional skills valued are the capacity for political and economic analysis, and a commitment to sustainability in order to help the organization to be trustworthy through its actions.

Agency of social transformation

Respondents strongly supported the notion that public relations professionals in a sustainable development project are agents of social transformation. In general, respondents emphasized social transformation is a natural byproduct of sustainable tourism development, a byproduct that can be enhanced through education. Strategic public relations is crucial for understanding of the wide range of social ramifications of sustainable development and is the discipline that can help the organization adapt to change and to change the way business is conducted.

Xcaret implemented an environmental education program. "We are aware that without educating the community, the preservation of natural and cultural resources cannot be possible," a participant explained. The education program was promoted and implemented in its first phase by the public relations department. A year later, an area of environmental education was created at the park and currently the program has been extended to educate elementary school students and Mexican and foreign tourists who enjoy the facilities.

Xcaret's education program is gaining followers from other businesses located in the Maya Riviera. According to one participant, Xcaret was the first organization to provide such visits within a program to local schools. Now several tourist organizations in the destination have similar education programs. A respondent further explained:

> This is a radical change in the mind of businesspeople. Now, they give back to the community, following the example of Xcaret. Also, after this program was created, the Ministry of Tourism of Quintana Roo published a guide for 6th grade kids about our destination and its education program that makes on-site visits possible, which enhances their educational experience.

Respondents explained that the school program led to the creation of "social tourism," promoting visits for locals to the tourist attractions at much lower prices than these paid by national and international tourists. The social tourism initiative, according to the participants, creates a consciousness about the important of this industry in the state. Xcaret was the first organization in the destination to have a special price for locals.

The social conscience of the organization

"Because of the nature of the public relations profession, we are called to be the ears of the organization capable of listening and interpreting the different publics, and to be the voice of our organization's top management to communicate our management philosophy to the publics," one participant pointed out. "This way we serve as the conscience of the organization making sure that everything we do is according to our principles and values."

Being the conscience of the organization was illustrated with an example. The public relations team advised management to purchase fair-trade coffee to be used by the different food services and to be sold at the gift shops of the park. Fair-trade means that the coffee is produced under organic practices, collected with dignity and traded with transparency. "Every time we see something that is not following the principles of sustainability, we have the freedom to discuss it and propose solutions to management," added a respondent.

Long-term relationships with key publics

Xcaret's representatives identify the organization's key publics grouped in five categories: internal, community, government, media, visitors, and opinion leaders. Internal publics include Xcaret employees, the owners of the park, employees of the affiliated attractions (i.e., Xel-Ha, Garrafón, Cañón del Sumidero), and corporate directors.

In the new organizational structure, the main job of public relations is to communicate the corporate philosophy, principles, values and code of ethics, thus, everyone works under the same concept and vision. "We are actively participating on the remaking of the induction plan," said a respondent.

Community is defined as inhabitants of Cancún, Riviera Maya, Cozumel, Isla Mujeres, and Chetumal. The different localities within the community category are beneficiaries of the environmental education program and significantly reduced fee for locals. Additionally, they produce news releases to communicate their commitment to the environment, the cultural heritage and the local community. They are also working on a new vision-bounded program to build recreational centers in areas that need a place for people to spend their free time. "We

sponsor activities that have to do with education of children and teenagers." According to the respondents, the local community is the first to know about new attractions or projects.

Government, as a composite public, includes municipal (Cancún, Riviera Maya, Chetumal, Isla Mujeres, Cozumel), state (Quintana Roo), and federal (Ministry of Tourism, National Institute of Anthropology and History, National Institute of Ecology, Ministry of Natural Resources, and Presidency) entities. Respondents explain that Xcaret is a privately owned land, but has several projects in association with the federal government such as the rescue of the sea turtles, native plants, butterflies, wild birds and coral reefs. "Communication with the government becomes crucial for the park in order to continue these efforts." The park also has archaeological sites on the perimeter of the property and the same communication efforts apply to this sensitive aspect.

Media comprise local, national and international outlets. "We are the most important attraction of the destination as well as a Mexican example of a Sustainable Development." Participants stated that the news media is always interested not only in tourist information, but also in the organization's new projects, employment statistics, practices, and commitments to sustainability. They explained that Group Xcaret has an open communication policy with the media. Public relations professionals help top management to communicate their vision of the organization to domestic and foreign media. "Whenever a journalist wants to talk to us or the owners, we do everything in our power to fulfill their expectations," a respondent said.

The category "visitors" includes tourists on-site, around the destination, attending affiliated parks, and in their country of origin. "We work mainly on the image of the organization through media outside our state; therefore, our visitors learn about us mainly through media coverage," a participant wrote. Interpretation of the meaning and nature of the project is the best way to educate visitors, according to the respondents. Natural and cultural heritage is a concept introduced to Xcaret by the public relations department after research on communication for sustainable developments.

Opinion leaders are non-governmental organizations, ecological and social activist groups, other business owners, restaurants, shopping malls' administrators, hotel associations' officials, and tourist entrepreneurs. The public relations department developed a VIP program that allowed the identification and communication with opinion leaders who influenced or involved the community locally and nationally. "It also allows us to promote our protection programs for the preservation of cultural heritage and natural resources." This way opinion leaders receive the information first hand. According to the respondents, the program has been so successful that the CEO of the newly formed consortium which includes the four parks, recently made the decision to elevate this program to the corporate level.

Regional impact of Xcaret's public relations efforts

Participants argued that Xcaret has always been considered an organization that uses public relations in a strategic fashion. It is a well-known organization in the state of Quintana Roo. In the private sector, Xcaret public relations department is one of the largest in the state and is known as being one of the departments with the most access to the decision-making table. Participants explained that Xcaret public relations professionals have been part of the Public Relations Association of the Mexican Caribbean since its creation, in which Iliana Rodríguez (manager and second author) was president. "During that period of time the association finally developed mission and vision statements and began its strategic planning," a respondent added.

Public relations plays an important role in the tourist industry, according top the participants. This is why the Public Relations Association of the Mexican Caribbean is now part of the Entrepreneurial Council, which is an association formed by the presidents of different business groups. "This helps our profession to be always informed and an active participant in the direction that the Mexican Caribbean will take as a destination," wrote a participant.

Continuous challenges

"The first challenge was to demonstrate that public relations is a strategic part of the organization." The second challenge, according to the participants, was to convince the owners of the park that public relations is more than gut-oriented decisions and that it needed to be specialized, use strategic research and plan according to the growing interest of the organization.

The third challenge was to understand and then incorporate the concept of sustainability to the public relations strategies (the park opened years before the concept was introduced). The fourth challenge was to make the executives of Xcaret (the owners already did) understand the importance of public relations and how they could use it. "We are still working on it; it seems it is a stage that never ends," said a participant. The new challenge "is to demonstrate to the new CEO the work we have done and to incorporate the strategic planning of the communications for the group and all its parks." Finally, the public relations team of Xcaret faces the challenges imposed by their stated vision: To be the most important public relations department in Mexico

which is recognized for its expertise in sustainable development tourism, becoming a informational resource leader in the specialized practice.

Discussion and Conclusions

Environmental scanning and issues tracking take a broader role in sustainable development programs. Practitioners should monitor both the local and global contexts based on the increasing interdependence of business and the natural environment. In the case of tourism projects, successes or failures of a destination in one location of the globe in meeting accreditation standards or the expectations of visitors, activist groups or global media, affect other similar destinations in the same geographical region or the opposite side of the planet. In the case of Xcaret, partnering or seeking the intervention of a government institution such as the Mexican Tourism Board to help clarifying an unfounded or legitimate rumor about the destination highlights the importance of effective government relations. Tourism is an important industry in Mexico and the Caribbean, which makes projects such as Xcaret a priority to demonstrate to the international community of tourists and regulatory agencies the extent of specialization of the sector and its commitment to follow set international standards.

When asking about the nature of public relations for sustainable development, participants emphasized the focus on community. Nevertheless, that focus on society appears to only describe community involvement. No statement from the respondents addressed community feedback and active participation during the planning stage or before corporate plans and actions are implemented. A greater sense of ownership of a sustainable development program could be cultivated within the community if its members were asked to voice their opinions, concerns, evaluation of existing or proposed elements of such long-term impact programs.

It appears that sustainable tourism destinations attract, other than traditional tourists, a different kind of visitor; that is, tourists concerned about the impact of the operation on the destination. Therefore, public relations professionals, as the respondents pointed out, are obligated to provide comprehensive information about the efforts the organization operating a tourist attraction invested in preserving the natural environment, managing with efficiency, and educating the community to engage its members in the preservation of natural resources and the cultivation of cultural traditions. Public relations professionals could also provide information from other organizations that are supporting the sustainable development operation. For instance, if a website is used as a communion channel with concerned and active tourists, a section with links could be included with highly-regarded sources devoted to such a business model.

Sustainable tourism is evaluated and rewarded by international associations and organizations of different kinds. As an example, respondents referred to the British Airways Highly Commended Tourism for Tomorrow Award. Practitioners should carefully identify such evaluation institutions and seek to obtain recognition for being a well-managed operation that is concerned with outstanding corporate social performance. The recognition and praise from a third party would increase the prestige and promotion of the awarded destination, while increasing the demands for the destination compliance for the highest international standards. More eyes would scrutinize the destination and its sustainable efforts closely.

Good knowledge of communication will not be sufficient to succeed as a public relations professional in the sustainable tourism arena. Respondents mentioned other fields in which professionals should also focus on such as economics, ecology, environment, culture, heritage, history and sociology. A public relations team could increase their knowledge in these areas of study by attending specialized courses or conferences domestically and internationally. Another method for achieving a multidisciplinary team is to hire professionals from the aforementioned disciplines. Every organization does not have the resources to accomplish the formation of a multidisciplinary team, yet there may be young professionals with both knowledge of public relations and sciences or business. This may be a limitation in certain countries where the university programs do not offer the flexibility that the U.S. system of higher education offers. The purpose of such multidisciplinary public relations team is to truly understand and analyze the three dimensions of sustainable development—environmental protection, cultural preservation and social equity, and sound economic practices—as well as the political aspects involving such dimensions. Multidisciplinary practitioners or a practitioner working with multidisciplinary teams may have a greater awareness of sustainability issues at home and outside the walls of their organization. This greater awareness of socioeconomic and environmental issues may be requisite to embrace the role of being part of the social conscience of the organization who alerts or advises management on socially responsible decisions and actions.

According to the respondents' comments, Xcaret is already achieving social transformation through the implementation of education programs and especially through the adoption of such programs by other local private and public organizations. Nevertheless, it is not clear how far reaching is the impact of such education programs and if Xcaret has in place an evaluative tool to systematically assess such social transformation. It was

implied that such transformation comes from the greater knowledge of the environment and cultural traditions present in the park's interactive activities and programs. Xcaret does not publish a public or social report in which its social transformation impact is described, and the achievement of goals and objectives assessed. Maybe, such social balance with measurable indicators could be a step forward to consider an ISO 14,000 (international quality standard) or environmental certification. A social or public report would elevate public relations strategies and assessment of effectiveness to a different level where precise indicators could be used for benchmarking desirable outcomes. Despite the lack of precise indicators and formal social reporting, the impact of Xcaret's public relations operations has reached other private and professional organizations in the state of Quintana Roo. That could be considered part of the social transformation dimension of the function.

The public relations team of Xcaret works with a complex set of publics. The open communication and community engagement policies seem to be the key of their success. Management commitment to sustainable development also helps. The complexity is increasing because of the adoption of the Xcaret's public relations models by the consortium of parks, which will require greater levels of consistency supported by norms, procedures and more specific communication policies that demand fine coordination and control mechanisms. The expansion of the public relations structure and model may be facilitated by the function's vision statement.

Future research on public relations in sustainable development projects should include a sample of organizations from a variety of economic sectors. Most important, the views and insights of the publics involved and affected by such project should be an essential component of qualitative or quantitative investigations. Longitudinal research should be attempted to assess the progressive and long-term outcomes of communication for sustainability. Multidisciplinary research teams may be formed to considered elements of the sustainability triangle: economy, environment and social betterment.

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‘A Hell of a Shock:’ Maintaining Institutional Stability When a Jesuit University Faces a Presidential Sex Allegation

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Professors Vanessa Murphree and Cathy Rogers of Loyola University New Orleans, will discuss how framed the news of the resignation of their president after her was accused of sexual misconduct in the aftermath of the national Catholic Church scandal.

Their study examines the university’s communication response to this crisis and compares how these messages and strategies influenced institutional response and media coverage following the announcement of Fr. Bernard Knoth’s resignation. Interviews with the institutional advancement staff, the acting president, and Hill and Knowlton counsel, illustrate the role of the timing of the announcement and the conflicting notions of confidentiality and openness. Other factors such as the media access to the campus, the actions of the Board chair and acting president, and the third-party statement by the Archbishop are examined along with key messages, talking points, and other press materials including web site postings.

Designing and Implementing Communication Dashboards: Lessons Learned

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Nearly a dozen case studies in dashboard development were presented last month by KDPaine & Partners founder and CEO Katie Delahaye Paine at the 7th Annual International PR Research conference. Paine outlined the process that she has designed and perfected for helping companies define their "dashboard" – those specific metrics they need to see on a regular basis to know if their communications are succeeding or failing. Paine explained how she brings together a disparate group of people from an organization to define objectives, articulate measurable goals, and then turn those goals into metrics that will appear on the dashboard.

"We've shown in the last year that this technique works as effectively with non-profits and the public sector as it does with corporate entities, and we have just as much success with large multi-national corporations as we do with small businesses," Paine said. She went on to discuss case studies from such diverse entities as Raytheon, JP Morgan Chase, Rensselaer County–New York and Wake Forest University Baptist Medical Center.

Paine stressed the importance of integration and cooperation with other departments when developing dashboards. "The first thing you have to do is bring in the marketing people, the research department and anyone else who might have pertinent data. Frequently we find that no additional research is necessary. All the numbers are somewhere in the organization, the key is to find them, correlate them with existing PR or media relations results and draw actionable conclusion that people can then use to make better decisions every day.

Designing and Implementing Communications Dashboards: Lessons learned

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Somewhere between TQM and Six Sigma, a new term began to make its way through corporate America "the Dashboard." With all the data and statistics being tossed around by corporate information systems, CEOs realized that they needed to figure out what data they should be paying attention to, and what they could safely ignore. The idea was that when you are in a car driving down the road you have five or six gauges that help you determine where you're going, how fast you're making progress toward your destination and if you have sufficient fuel (resource) to get to where you want to go. Initially dashboards were seen mostly in corporate board rooms with metrics on them like "sales wins relative to goal" "revenue per employee" or "administrative costs per member per month." The idea is that harried CEOs wouldn't have time to actually study the numbers themselves, but they would have a series of gauges that would tell them whether they were on or off track. What dashboards forced managers to do was set parameters to define excellent progress, average progress, falling behind, and the real danger signs.

Soon dashboards were making their way out of the CEOs office and down into the organization landing on the desks of sales, manufacturing and eventually marketing and communications.

Over the past three years I've designed nearly a hundred such dashboards for communications professionals. This work has involved developing and testing questions that help communications articulate their definitions of excellence. Further, we have persuaded them to look beyond the easy measures of clips and hits and design metrics that are tied to business performance and organizational mission. The purpose of this paper is to outline the techniques I use to help define their priorities and discuss specific examples of how it has worked for different organizations, including non-profits, governmental agencies as well as corporations and PR firms.

Step One: Get Everyone in the Same Room, On the Same Page

The very first step in any Dashboard development project is to get all the "players" in a room together. This may mean all the External Communications people; it may be the entire marketing team. The important consideration is to make sure that everyone who will be using the dashboard, anyone who will be measured by it and anyone who will be making decisions based on it are all included in the conversation.

We learned this lesson early at Habitat for Humanity when the initial response to our question of "how are you currently measuring success?" was answered immediately by the direct mail manger who said "we know exactly what we get for our investments – for every $1 we spend in outreach, we get back $2.10 in contributions. (All numbers are fictitious). This statement was met with a howl of outrage from the PR department who said "Yes, but if no one knew who Habitat was, or what it did, they would never be responding to your mail."

Our question was more fundamental. "Is the mission of the marketing organization to raise money?" And with one voice the team answered, "No." Habitat's mission is very clearly articulated that they wanted to build houses for people in need. So why not just raise a bunch of money to hire contractors to build houses. That wasn't the point, I was told. The point was that there were volunteers, and the involvement of the volunteers was clear to the success of the mission.

So we now had several new dashboard metrics that we had identified in addition to those hard numbers.

1. Reputation/awareness of Habitat
2. Number of volunteers, and the relationship with those volunteers
3. Number of houses built

Without the participation of everyone we would never have been able to identify the correct elements in their measures of success.

Another example, in a large government contracting firm, showed how important it was to involve management at the highest level. The PR person was interested in defining dashboard metrics that would work within a broader dashboard defined by the CEO. To develop this dashboard, we met with the CEO's designated "Dashboard Developer," plus the head of advertising as well as the public relations departments. We were expecting a difficult planning process that would somehow tie the earned media results into the hard numbers that the CEO was looking for such as contract wins and revenue per employee. Instead, it was made very clear that the CEO would look at this dashboard as a way of understanding how effective the communications team

was in building the company's reputation and getting its messages out. We therefore designed a dashboard that would measure the same messages being tracked on the paid media side. We included PR questions in the brand tracking study as well, so we would know not just if the messages were getting out there, but if they were in fact being heard and believed. Without the inclusion of the CEO's Dashboard Guru we could have spent hours designing a dashboard that would have had no credibility.

Step 2: Define Your Relationships and How a Good Relationship Impacts Your Organization

No matter how large or how small your organization, you will no doubt have a long list of potential target audiences you are trying to reach – and have a relationship with. But trying to measure all relationships with all audiences all at once is a daunting task no matter what organization you're with. In order to try to prioritize the audiences, you need to determine how a good relationship with each audience impacts your mission or business.

Make a list of all the various influencers, audiences and groups with which you maintain a relationship – consider the media – business – trade- consumer – however you categorize it, an "audience" as well. Then list the benefits that having a good relationship with that audience brings to your organization.

For example:

Audience	Benefit
Business press	Boosts stock price, encourages new investors, supports existing investors
Local government officials	Fewer barriers to expansion, lower legal costs.
Local NGOs	Less bad press, lower legal costs
Customers	Revenues
Employees	Lower recruitment costs, higher customer satisfaction levels, higher profitability

Obviously the benefits are relative to the program. Revenues are always good, but if your mission of the moment is to get an expansion underway it may be that relationships with local government officials take a higher priority just now. Force rank the benefits – no ties allowed. The best way to do this is to get everyone involved together in a room, and get them to vote. I like using colored dots, with each dot being the equivalent of a $1 million. I then tell them to spend their dots against the audiences that are most important. The audiences can then be prioritized based on how many dots each one receives.

Step 3: How Do You Define Success?

Now that you know which relationships you'll be measuring first, you need to focus in on the measures of success you will assign to each relationship. People always say that they want to know where they get the most "bang" for the buck, or the most "return" on investment, but its amazing how their definitions of "bang" and "return" will change depending on which department they're in, the type of organization or the whim of the management. So it is vital that everyone agree on what those terms really mean. We recently worked with a company that defined "return" as revenue from web site traffic minus the cost of the program. That's a perfect, clear and easy to obtain number. They know how much they sold from their web site, they know what the profit is on those sales and they know what the budget was for the program. Unfortunately it rarely works out that easily. But look to web traffic reports, attendance figures, and other hard numbers that may well be buried within your organization to help quantify "return."

A good example of how difficult it can be to get to those success measures is the dashboard I created for a major cosmetics company. After five years of work, countless trials and endless tests we decided that the key drivers for success in their media efforts were: brand mentions, mentions of brand benefits, presence of brand photographs and brand recommendations. The definition of those elements was based in part on our experience in analyzing media content for those elements, and on how customers responded to those elements. From the research that was done for their advertising department, they knew that those elements were most likely to drive customer purchase, so the brand's "share" of those elements relative to the competition became the key metrics that they tracked.

Another example is a major financial services firm for which we designed an internal communications dashboard for employee communication. After an extensive Six Sigma process it was determined that there was a huge amount of wasted resources in excess email and excess internal communications. We developed a dashboard that gauged the effectiveness of email and other forms of internal communications relative to the usefulness to the employees and their jobs.

Step 4: Determine What You're Comparing Yourself To

Dashboards are only good if they're useful to a wide variety of people who make decisions based on them. One of the key elements of any decision making process is determining what worked and what didn't work. But before you can answer that question, you need to answer the question – relative to what? The easy route is to

look at progress over time, and that can frequently be a good place to start. But most senior management will want to know how they're doing relative to the competition or whatever threats are breathing down their necks.

Determining who to compare the organization to can be tricky when you're dealing with non-profits and government agencies since "competition" is generally not part of their normal vocabulary. However, it is important to remember that no matter who you are, you will always need some sort of a goal or benchmark by which to compare your results.

For example, when we worked with Media Logic to develop the "dashboard" for their client Rensselaer County in upstate New York, the initial thinking was that we would do a pre/post study of attitudes among thought leaders to determine how far Media Logic had moved the needle in getting people to feel more favorable towards development in the county, and also to see the extent to which they had improved Rensselaer County's reputation among those people who might want to develop business in the county.

The problem is that pre/post surveys are just that – you do one BEFORE the project begins, and then another about a year later and in between, there's really no way of knowing how you're doing. So we recommended an ongoing media content analysis that would look at the positioning of Rensselaer County in the media every quarter. Specifically, they wanted to make sure that Rensselaer was positioned as a good place to do business, a good place to live and work, business friendly, etc. But unless they had some other entity to which to compare results, they really wouldn't know how well they were doing. So we recommended choosing another similarly sized county in New York State and they selected Saratoga County. Although it was better known for its tourism attributes, it was making efforts to attract business, had similar efforts in place to attract that business and faced similar controversies.

What we were able to learn from the comparison was not just how well Rensselaer was doing relative to Saratoga in number of clips, but more importantly, lessons were learned from how Saratoga handled crises and controversy that proved valuable for the client and agency as well.

Step 5: Pick Your Tools

Only after you've followed steps 1 thru 4 should you be even talking about what tools you will be using to develop your dashboard. There are a ton of tools out their now ranging in price from $20 on-line survey research tools to $200,000 a year automated analysis systems. Which one works best for your dashboard depends on what kinds of relationships you're measuring, what your benchmark is, and most importantly what your goals are.

All good dashboards require some level of integration between different tools. Seldom does looking at media coverage alone provide a good sense of your success. Nor does knowing that your audience doesn't understand your messages do you any good if you don't know if those messages have ever appeared in front of your target audience. Furthermore, if your goal is to drive traffic to a web site, or get your audience to download information, you need to be integrating those outcomes with your media analysis and/or survey research.

So be prepared to look in a variety of places for the tools that will gather the data that goes into your dashboard. Frequently we've found that the data already exists within your organization and it's no further away than a trip down the hall to your customer service, web master or market research department.

For example, we were working with a major medical research institution to develop a dashboard for their external relations department. As it turns out, one of the key elements by which the institution measures its success is incoming referrals, comments and phone calls – all of which are logged and the records are meticulously kept. By reviewing the frequency of inquiries about particular programs, they could easily see how much public response their promotional programs were generating.

Similarly, we advised a major transportation company about developing a dashboard for its events. One of its key metrics was web traffic and inquiries to specific branded web sites. As it turns out, they actually had a measurement guru that could easily provide all the data (and more) that we needed to integrate media coverage metrics with web outcomes.

Step 6: Start Talking Sense: What Does it All Mean?

The most important characteristic of any dashboard is its usefulness. If you can't use it to make decisions, it's a waste of time effort and energy. So start with a front page that makes it very clear what's working and what's not working. If your CEO already has a dashboard or cockpit design in use, by all means make yours look just like the one top management uses. If not, use gauges, thumbs up or thumbs down indicators. Something that makes it very clear what's worked and what's not. DO NOT USE LOTS OF WORDS. The whole idea with a Dashboard is that it is something that once you've taken a second or two to look at it, you know whether you're headed in the right direction, whether you have enough gas (resources) to get where you're going, and what you need to do to get their on time and on budget. Pictures are better than words, and numbers are even better. No one wants to or has time to spend an hour reading a report any more. You should

be able to say everything you need in 10 pages or less. That means adding insight, not verbiage. Only talk about those elements over which you have influence. Look at what decisions you need to make, what feedback you need, and highlight those numbers that will help you make those decisions better or faster.

Step 7: Make Course Corrections amd Do it Again

One of the most important lessons we've learned is the importance of showing how useful a dashboard can be. The way to demonstrate that usefulness is to make any recommended course corrections and then show the improvements in the next report. When the agency for Rensselaer makes a recommendation for a program, you can almost always see the results in the following quarter, with improved visibility, as well as improved positioning on key issues. There should always be something to improve, so don't ever just say that things are fine.

Conclusion

After two years of developing and implementing dashboards for all kinds and sizes of companies the most valuable lesson we've learned is just how easy the process can be. All you need is consensus, and a willing team to make it happen.

Teaching Public Relations Management: A Business Approach

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The Public Relations Management class served as a valuable tool to provide its students with an insight into the real world activities of the public relations profession. Through various real life examples we learned how to create, develop, and implement long term business proposals and plans. This course also focused on establishing and operating public relations clients and public relations agency. The class followed a logical progression starting from the analysis of the situation through creating a campaign, to analyzing its results.

The course opened with the discussion of the procedures of creating of a blueprint for starting your public relations practice. The blueprint included discussions of such concepts as the accountable manager, mission and problem statements, analysis of the situation and internal and external sources of information. This helped me acquire personal understanding of the basic foundations of a public relations firm.

The class also discussed the elements of a campaign recipe and tactics. Needless to say, research functions and data collection methods were covered extensively during the discussions of campaign objectives, strategies and implantations. This section of the class served to provide a foundation of understanding in my current workplace. I am engaged in creating and implementing public relations educational campaigns on a university campus. This job draws heavily upon such concepts as pre-campaign research and strategies of a PR campaign implementation that were discussed in the course.

Several useful theories were explained to us in the class to demonstrate what it takes for the symmetrical model of public relations to work so well. These theories helped me as a future manager to identify the problem, set reasonable strategies and goals for the realization of my clients' objectives. For example one of basic tenants of symmetrical practice of public relations is the assumption that the companies should promote community goodwill and well-being. Several of the educational programs promoted on our campus are geared towards minority populations of our community. Thus, for example, "Community Technology Center" project was designed to attract Bosnian and Hispanic populations to receive language and computer training in their local community.

The final culmination of what I learned in this class was a project that entailed the creation and design of a resort that was to open in a few years. This plan included; executive summary, business idea and description, tentative programs, personnel requirements, management team, competition market analysis, marketing plan, and financial position. We started out by creating a blueprint that included the business model and the business plan. We then discussed our objectives, our target audience and business and financial goals on a 1, 5, and 10 year plan.

"Turtle Creek Resort" (TCR) is a multi-purpose resort with the primary goal of providing a quality getaway from the daily routine into a natural environment. As with any resort-type businesses the main idea is to keep the capacity utilization as close to 100 % as possible. To meet this requirement Turtle Creek Resort developed a number of weekday and weekend programs to meet the needs of a variety of clients. There are four main groups of customers TCR is focusing its efforts on, and there are four main programs respectively: conference meetings and retreats for corporations located in the drivable area of TCR. Due to current trends in the U.S. population with rapidly increasing youth population, TCR will provide quality youth programs that include mostly programs developed in cooperation with schools, colleges, and universities of Iowa, Illinois, and Wisconsin. Third, workshop / seminar programs. These weekend-long programs will target Iowa, Illinois, and Wisconsin adults. The fourth type of program we are planning to develop is the week-long program designed to fill gaps in our yearlong planning. For example, after a year of operations we would notice that there are two to four weeks that are not filled with standard programs. Weeklong programs will target primarily the senior citizen population by offering access to quiet and natural environment, healthy food, and opportunities to socialize."

Another section of the plan was devoted to marketing, and sales strategies that took into account competition, local customer base, seasonal activities, advertising and media relations. We studied other companies and our region that offered a similar project and service. Our sales strategies included local universities, senior citizens' and youth groups. We discussed various promotional strategies such as targeted

campaigns among educational establishments, newspaper articles, TV ads, business journals, and regional publications.

This class helped to prepare the graduate level students for immediate immersion in public relations career. This course gave me a foundation in real life practices in a PR field. It has contributed to my new vision the necessity of the public relations' practices inside the business.

A Textual Analysis of the Agenda Differences between a Scholarly and a Professional Public Relations Journal

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Public relations researchers and public relations professionals still diverge on what topics are most important to the profession, according to a new study conducted by a graduate student researcher at Brigham Young University.

The study, "A textual analysis of the agenda differences between a scholarly and a professional public relations journal," substantiates earlier findings that the content of the main public relations journals–one written by scholars, the other by professionals–are not in line with each other, ultimately suggesting that academia is not in tune with what professionals see as most important to the practice of public relations.

It is evident from the study that scholars are most interested in the state and theory of public relations, while the professionals are most interested with the daily practical consequences and practices of the profession–specifically, media relations. Though the study found that scholars did pay substantial attention to media relations, it suggests they might gain greater credibility in the professional world by studying the topic of most importance to professionals more.

The study also suggests that scholars might anticipate possible industry trends before professionals do, while professionals are more apt to quickly adjust and adapt to those trends than scholars.

Looking Through a Glass Clearly: An Interdisciplinary and International Approach to Measuring Transparency

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The literature advocating transparency is more than 100 years old and has its origins in the demand for financial disclosure. Today, it is tied to nearly every part of an organization's operations. There is a call for greater transparency for public organizations to help restore trust, credibility, social responsibility and ethics. With growing interest in the value of transparency, there have been numerous books, articles, and non-profit organizations advocating its virtues. It is not surprising that many organizations are also jumping on the transparency bandwagon, and declaring themselves as being transparent. However, how can we know if these organizations are truly transparent, or if one organization is more transparent than another, other than by accepting their self-evaluations? The researchers have developed a transparency index to answer such a question.

The researchers identified thirteen guidelines for transparency from the multi-disciplinary and multi-national literature on the topic. These guidelines called for information to be complete, relevant, verifiable, inclusive, accurate, neutral, comparable, clear, timely, accessible, reliable, accountable, and voluntary. Using statements from the definitions of these guidelines, the researchers put together a 50-item index that was pre-tested with 55 journalists.

The first part of the index measured respondent's perception of the organization's character related to transparency. Journalists were asked to evaluate an organization by semantic differentials such as open or closed, revealing or secretive, honest or deceptive. A factor analysis showed that these statements fell into two characteristics: ethical and transparent.

Next, respondents were asked to evaluate the communication behavior of an organization according to the transparency guidelines. However, the guidelines were not mutually exclusive by definition. For example, information defined as "detailed" could contribute to accuracy, comparability, clarity, and accountability. A factor analysis on the responses allowed the researchers to collapse the dimensions of transparency from 13 to six. These dimensions are:

1. Accessible (access to timely information)
2. Balanced (bad and good, not one-sided)
3. Verifiable (comparable and measurably accurate)
4. Clear (can be understood with ease)
5. Useful (complete, relevant, and reliable): it must have value to the stakeholder
6. Inclusive/Involving stakeholders in information decisions

The statements used to measure each dimension was tested for reliability and the researchers are fairly confident that the transparency index measures these dimensions. Furthermore, the pre-test allowed the researchers to reduce the index from 50 questions to 36 statements.

Further research, with a larger survey population, now must be conducted to continue to test the validity and reliability of the instrument.

Global Diabetes Pandemic: Public Relations in Spanish-Speaking Countries

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Considered to be a pandemic disease at the global level, diabetes has infected approximately 110 million individuals worldwide. Of particular concern are the elevated prevalence and the predicted increase of diabetes in Latin America and the Caribbean. The alarming diffusion of diabetes has created a challenge not only to various health organizations, but to government agencies as well. Within the World Health Organization, the solution to the diabetes epidemic lies in the context of collaborations between the public sector, private enterprise, economists, and politicians. Although rarely acknowledged, the diabetes pandemic also serves as a source of challenge and opportunities to the practice of public relations. Using public relations in an effort to reduce the incidence of diabetes worldwide is essential, as strategic communication is needed to educate individuals on diabetes prevention through lifestyle changes. The purpose of this paper it to identify factors which may challenge or hinder the success of the public relations practice in preventing the onset and subsequent complications of diabetes in Spanish-speaking countries. The major components of this paper involve: 1) explaining the etiology and characteristics of diabetes; 2) describing the prevalence and implications of diabetes in Spanish-speaking countries in Latin America and the Caribbean; and 3) identifying potential challenges to and opportunities for employing public relations in preventing diabetes onset and/or complications.

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Abstract

Considered to be a pandemic disease at the global level, diabetes has infected approximately 110 million individuals worldwide. Of particular concern are the elevated prevalence and the predicted increase of diabetes in Latin America and the Caribbean. The alarming diffusion of diabetes has created a challenge not only to various health organizations, but to government agencies as well. Within the World Health Organization, the solution to the diabetes epidemic lies in the context of collaborations between the public sector, private enterprise, economists, and politicians. Although rarely acknowledged, the diabetes pandemic also serves as a source of challenge and opportunities to the practice of public relations. Using public relations in an effort to reduce the incidence of diabetes worldwide is essential, as strategic communication is needed to educate individuals on diabetes prevention through lifestyle changes. The purpose of this paper it to identify factors which may challenge or hinder the success of the public relations practice in preventing the onset and subsequent complications of diabetes in Spanish-speaking countries. The major components of this paper involve: 1) explaining the etiology and characteristics of diabetes; 2) describing the prevalence and implications of diabetes in Spanish-speaking countries in Latin America and the Caribbean; and 3) identifying potential challenges to and opportunities for employing public relations in preventing diabetes onset and/or complications.

Introduction

Diabetes, a major non-communicable disease (Zimmet, 2000), is considered to be a pandemic at the global level (White & Nanan, 1999). The increasing prevalence of diabetes has created a challenge to different societal and governmental sectors, including the public relations field. The use of public relations in preventing or delaying the onset of diabetes is essential, as strategic communication is needed to educate individuals on diabetes prevention and control. However, no current literature exists for the design of strategies and educational messages specific to Spanish-speaking countries. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to create a dialogue regarding the opportunity for public relations in this domain. This paper is organized into three major sections reading: 1) an explanation of diabetes and its impact on individuals and the society as a whole; 2) the prevalence and complications of diabetes in Latin America and the Caribbean; and the identification of potential challenges and opportunities for employing public relations in addressing the diabetes epidemic in developing countries in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The prevalence of diabetes worldwide is increasing at an alarming rate. Currently, there are approximately 110 million individuals worldwide who have the disease (Zimmet, 2000), it is expected that this number will reach 220 million by the year 2010. Although diabetes has been present in society, the disease has emerged in the twentieth century as a public health problem (White & Nanan, 1999) affecting people at individual and societal levels. Because diabetes affects many facets of individual lifestyle and society, this issue must be addressed from a standpoint aimed at improving and /or maintaining public health.

Etiology and Characteristics of Diabetes

Diabetes is a metabolic disorder caused by impairments in efficient use of the hormone insulin in regulating blood glucose (Bellenir, 1999). Where there is an absolute or relative deficiency in the secretion and/or action of the hormone insulin (Barceló & Rajpathak, 2001), which is produced by the pancreas and necessitates the uptake of glucose into the cells, diabetes may be expressed (Bellenir, 1999). There are four types of diabetes: type I, type II, gestational, and other forms of diabetes resulting from specific genetic syndromes, surgery, drugs, malnutrition, infections, and other diseases. Diabetes can have harmful effects on the body by either acute or chronic uncontrolled glucose levels. Some of the most common complications caused by diabetes are: heart disease, strokes, high blood pressure, blindness, kidney disease, nervous system disease, diabetic neuropathy, diabetic retinopathy, and amputations.

Diabetics may suffer serious health complications if they fail to control the disease (Bellenir, 1999), which may influence health-related quality of life, as well as introduce social and economic consequences within the individuals' family and immediate society (Rubin, Altman, & Mendelson, 1994). Rubin, Altman, & Mendelson (1994) indicate that diabetes is a chronic disease that requires lifelong and continuous medical care. Bastida and Pagán (2002) assert that the problems associated with diabetes could potentially lead to future financial difficulties as diabetics age. Further, diabetics may not receive adequate health care due to the cost of medical

services and supplies, which are often two to three times higher than those required for non-diabetics (Rubin, Altman, & Mendelson, 1994).

Within the family unit, the presence of diabetes may greatly impact the daily activities and behaviors of its members. For example, diabetes complications may result in increased dependence on others or shifts in familial roles. At the societal level, diabetes may decrease work productivity due to disability and premature (Barceló et al., 2001a), thus adversely affecting the economy. Factors such as individuals' unawareness of having the disease and individuals who know they have it but do not receive any health treatment increase the mortality caused by diabetes (cited in Gagliardino et al., 2001).

Although there is no cure for diabetes, long-term adverse effects may be avoided (National Diabetes Advisory Board, 1983) by controlling blood sugar level through consistent exercise and proper nutrition or dietary behaviors (National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases, 1998). Medical treatment is also important for controlling diabetes (González, 2001). In addition, White and Nanan (1999) indicate that there is increasing evidence that the prevalence of diabetes can be reduced by reducing the to two major risk factors of diabetes: obesity and physical inactivity. Further, complications of diabetes can be reduced by modifying other risk factors such as smoking, high blood pressure, and poor foot care (UKPDS Group, 1998). Although diabetes affects individuals throughout the world, within Spanish-speaking countries in Latin America and the Caribbean diabetes poses an even more serious threat to public health, as individuals may not have access to health care or adequate information about the prevention and treatment of this disease.

Prevalence and implications of diabetes in Spanish-speaking countries

Compared to other regions, in Latin America and the Caribbean, the prevalence of diabetes is high (White & Nanan, 1999). According to Barceló and Rajpathak (2001), in the Americas, an estimated 35 million had diabetes in 2000 and 64 million are expected to have the disease by 2025. Fifty two percent of the individuals who have diabetes live in Latin America and the Caribbean. It is expected that by 2025 the percentage of diabetes in these regions will have reached 62%. This number represents 40 million people.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, diabetics have limited access to health education and preventive care services (Barceló & Vovides, 2001), which poses a problem for diabetics. Quality of health care, methods of delivery, and modes of coverage vary among regions (Aschner, 2001). Because prevention is necessary to minimize or eradicate diabetes onset and diabetes complications, education on diabetes management and prevention is essential. However, a relative percentage of diabetics in developing countries receive diabetes education (Comité de Educación, DOTA, 2001). Due to the lack of fundamental knowledge, these diabetics are at a several disadvantage in controlling the disease.

Zimmet (2000) acknowledges that the alarming diffusion of diabetes throughout the world has created a challenge not only to the discipline of Epidemiology, but to public health agencies as well. In August 1996, the Declaration of the Americas on Diabetes (DOTA) was created in a conference, which was held in Puerto Rico, cosponsored by the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) and the Panamerican Health Organization (PAHO) (White & Nanan, 1999). According to DOTA, diabetes is considered to be a serious and costly public health problem in the Americas, including North, Central and Caribbean, and South America (http://www.dota.org). This organization serves as a guide for national program development dedicated to promoting better health for people affected by or at risk for diabetes in the Americas. The document has guides that should be followed by organizations intending to educate individuals on diabetes management (Comité de Educación, DOTA, 2001). A resolution recognizing diabetes as a disease of regional health importance was passed a month later by the Directing Council of PAHO (White & Nanan, 1999).

The available information on diabetes in Latin America and the Caribbean has generally concentrated on medical aspects directly related to the disease. Studies on the prevalence of diabetes (Barceló et al., 2001a; Barceló & Rajpathak, 2001; Aschner, 2001), as well as information on the quality of health care available to diabetics (White & Nanan, 1999; Gagliardino et al., 2001) have been conducted as well. In addition, diabetes interventions in Latin America have been conducted (Barceló et al., 2001a; Barceló et al., 2001b; Gagliardino & Etchegoyen, 2001). According to the World Health Organization (1999), the solution to the diabetes epidemic lies within collaborations between the public sector, private enterprise, economists, and politicians. These sectors are unquestionably needed to decrease the prevalence of diabetes. However, current literature reviewed indicates a gap in terms of using communications to eradicate the prevalence of the diabetes pandemic. Although it has not been overtly indicated, the diabetes pandemic within Spanish-speaking countries presents opportunities for the use of public relations. Using public relations as a means of communication in diabetes education could serve as a vector in modifying individuals' behaviors related to diabetes prevention and control. Some challenges may be encountered with the use of public relations.

Opportunities for the Public Relations Practice

Although the public relations practice in Latin America has aspects similar to the practice in the United States, the Latin America perspective is considered to be more humanistic and socially oriented (Molleda, 2000). Therefore, employing public relations on diabetes education in Latin America might serve a social function by contributing to the well-being of individuals, while simultaneously allowing organizations to effectively communicate with its publics. In order to develop effective public relations campaigns, practitioners should be familiar with the target audiences' cultural beliefs and traditions (Fry, 1991).

Gordon (1991) asserts that practitioners executing public relations programs in more than one locale (i.e. country) must employ strategic thinking and localized technical execution. Diabetes is a disease that affects individuals from all nationalities. Although diabetes may present the same medical problems across all cultural groups, individuals' cultural beliefs may effect the successful prevention and treatment of the disease. In Latin America and the Caribbean many different cultural beliefs and lifestyles are present within and between countries that may promote diverse perceptions of the disease and its management. Factors such as food consumption patterns, physical activity, religious beliefs, family values, gender roles, socio-economic status, and access to health care services may influence on individuals belief of diabetes management. Because of this, practitioners must be extremely careful when designing strategies specific to diabetics in Spanish-speaking countries. Thus, it is advisable to design campaigns grounded in theory.

Because most theories have been traditionally based on the mainstream society, they may not be applicable to diabetics, specifically those in Latin America and the Caribbean. Theories or models that may be useful when designing strategies promoting diabetic education and subsequent action include: Stages of Change Model, Social Learning Theory, and the Extended Parallel Process Model. Cultural characteristics, dietary patterns, physical activity, religious beliefs, family values, and gender roles must be considered when applying these theories or models. If necessary, models and theories should be modified accordingly to incorporate elements into the strategy.

Stages of change model

One of the most important aspects of diabetes management is behavior modification(s). The stages of change model has been used to measure behavior change. The Stages of Change Model is useful in measuring behavior/behavior intent and consists of the following stages: 1) precontemplation, 2) contemplation, 3) preparation, 4) action, and 5) maintenance (Prochaska, Norcross, & DiClemente, 1994). During the precontemplation stage, individuals deny that a problem may exist and resist change.

Prochaska, Norcross, and DiClemente (1994) indicate that during the contemplation stage, individuals acknowledge that they have a problem and contemplate possible solutions. Usually, contemplators may have plans to take action to change a behavior within the following six months or so. However, they may be far from actually making a commitment to modify a behavior. Although contemplators may have a knowledge base regarding strategies to changing behaviors, they may still lack the skills and self-efficacy necessary to accomplish their personal goals. Following the contemplation stage, individuals enter the preparation stage, where they make adjustments to begin their new behavior. Once individuals have prepared to initiate changes, they move into the action stage where they overtly modify the new behavior. This stage requires the greatest commitment of time and resources. Although individuals are engaging in particular behaviors, they may regress to previous stages of change. An action behavior would have to be executed for at least six months before it is change. During the maintenance stage, individuals strive to keep behaviors consistent, as to maximize the benefits of behavior change. Individual commitment and motivation become essential during this stage of change. It is important to note that a diabetic may be in different stages of change specific to a certain behavior. For instance, he or she may be contemplating changing their diet, but at the same time maintaining a consistent level of physical activity.

Another important aspect to modify any behavior is self-efficacy, which is part of the social learning theory, developed by Bandura (Weiten, 1998). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief about his or her abilities to perform behaviors and may actually be enhanced through behavioral interventions (Maibach & Cotton, 1995). Self-efficacy is a key factor in attaining behavioral goals (van der Ven et al., 2003). A sufficient sense of self-efficacy is required to cope with the complex demands of diabetes treatment as individuals must perceive their ability to engage in various situation-specific self-management tasks such as blood glucose monitoring and dietary behaviors away from home (Anderson et al., 2000). Additionally, modeling occurring in response to observations of others (cited in Maibach & Cotton, 1995), requires an individual to imitate the behaviors of others. In the case of diabetes, models of successful diabetes management may prove fundamental to the success of diabetics attempting to change behaviors to control the disease.

Extended parallel process model

Another model to consider in diabetes strategies is the Extended Parallel Process Model. However, caution should be exerted when using this model as it relies on fear appeals. According to Hake and Dillard (1995), fear appeals are persuasive messages that emphasize the harmful physical or social consequences of failing to comply with message recommendations. Due to differences in cultural beliefs such as fatalism*, communicators must first identify how the public they are targeting at will respond to fear appeals. Stephenson & Witte (2001) indicate that the evaluation of a fear appeal initiates two specific appraisals of the message that has been disseminated: 1) individual's assessment of their susceptibility to the threat 2) and evaluation of the efficacy in response to the recommendation, or the perceived effectiveness of the response to avert the threat used in the message.

Taking benefit of these opportunities would not be difficult to accomplish because it could be integrated in the public relations model ROPE, which is a method for solving problems organizations may have and it has four phases: 1) research, 2) objectives, 3) planning, and 4) evaluation (Hendrix, 1995). During the research phase practitioners may conduct needs assessment in each region to identify the publics and examine the role of cultural beliefs in the perception of diabetes. Objectives of diabetes education should clearly include public relations behavioral objectives necessary to create new behaviors, or where applicable, the enhancement or intensification of existing favorable behavior, or the reversal of negative behaviors on the part of the public. Components designed to accomplish diabetes education objectives may be based on established models such as the Stages of Change Model. In addition, possible media formats to meet objectives, via dissemination of information, should also be investigated. Finally, public relations efforts must be evaluated throughout the campaign to identify the effectiveness of specific strategies.

Although many opportunities exist in the arena of diabetes education for the public relations practice, many challenges exist which must be addressed.

Challenges for the Public Relations Practice

Because health care services provided in Latin America and the Caribbean are so diverse, it may become challenging to particularly design campaigns for diabetes education and prevention. For example, it would not be rational to design campaigns to modify eating habits of individuals with limited resources to purchase foods. In the same manner, it would not be cost effective to design campaigns promoting the use of expensive medical services to individuals who cannot afford it. Unequal distribution of resources among individuals prompts the establishment of policies, which allow for equality in health and social services to meet the needs of all members of a society. Language nuances may become challenging as well because there are vocabulary differences among Latino groups. Words' meaning may be different between and within countries. Therefore, language nuances would need to be taken into consideration in public relations campaigns addressing Latinos/Latinas.

As mentioned previously, the purpose of this paper was to it to identify factors which may challenge or hinder the success of the public relations practice in preventing the onset and subsequent complications of diabetes in Spanish-speaking countries. The use of public relations in the development and modification of diabetes education campaigns may be of value particularly in the Spanish-speaking countries of Latin America and the Caribbean. However, integrating public relations to diabetes education may be difficult. Barriers to integrating public relations include individuals' limited resources, language barriers, and different health care systems in the countries. Actively striving to reduce these barriers will increase the likelihood of successful public relations campaigns on diabetes education.

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* Fatalism has been interpreted as a potentially adaptive response to a situation viewed as uncontrollable or inevitable, often experienced by minorities (Parker & Kleiner, 1966).

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Ecology in Advertising: A Matter of Persuasion and Ethics

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This paper examines the verbal and non-verbal presence of "ecology" in the advertisements of the Ford EcoSport (Sport Utility Vehicle), analyzing an ad published on Revista Veja by the time when the vehicle was launched in the market in April 2003, with the objective of assessing the coherence between the idea of "ecology," which is present among the arguments of the ad and the praxis of the product, which is advertised under this "idea."

For this purpose, Structural Method was used, as well as Perelman's New Rhetoric as a verbal analysis technique, and Chevalier's symbolic analysis, in order to carry on a qualitative research.

This study includes Language (Cassirer), Image (Pèninou), Ideology (Althusser), Persuasion (Roiz) and Ethics (Aristotle) as categories, which were considered relevant to the understanding of "ecology" as a persuading argument in Advertising.

The idea of choosing Ecology as an advertising argument happened when it was noted that Advertising has been using in many opportunities ecology as a commercial appeal. We believe that one of the reasons for this fact is that nature preservation is a universal issue, a collective concern and a vital need for all species. However, the following question was raised: is there a new culture regarding respect for nature among corporations for the manufacture of "ecologic products" and "clean production technologies" in an industrial scale: an ethic concern with ecology, coherent with the discourse, or is it "ecology" just a word in the advertising discourse?

The idea of researching "ecology" as an advertising argument has arisen from the increasing number of products using this strategy, including cars, which are known to be the main responsible agents for pollution in our planet, such as the Ford EcoSport case, analyzed in this research.

After analyzing the object according to the proposed categories, this research has concluded that there is a gap between the advertising discourse and the reality of the product, related to the "ecologic" aspect. That is, in this case, ecology as a persuading argument is a matter of aesthetics, with no significant commitment to ethics.

An Examination of the Change Occurring and Predicted in Public Relations by Leading Practitioners: A Content Analysis of 25 years of Vernon C. Schranz Distinguished Lecturships in Public Relations

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A content analysis of 25 years of the Vernon C. Schranz Lectureships, the nation's first endowed university lectureship in public relations at Ball State University, confirms the value of endowed lectureships at universities.

Researchers Melvin L. Sharpe, Robert Pritchard, and Becky McDonald found that the formal lectures made by leading professionals nationally and internationally accurately predicted change, identified emerging educational and performance needs, and introduced new terminology for the benefit of students and professionals before textbooks were able to do so. The findings substantiate the need for lectureship endowments at universities across the nation.

Researchers concluded that endowed lectureships, providing the stature and support for leading professional formal presentation, would provide a rich body of literature significantly contributing to the development of both students and professionals though out the nation that causal classroom visitation cannot provide.

The Schranz Lectureship was created in 1979 by Ball Corporation to honor a retiring corporate public relations manager. Schranz distinguished lecturers have included Willard Nielsen, Christopher Komisarjevsky, Dan Edelman, Lord Chadlington, Fraser Seitel, Bob Dilenschneider, and Chester Burger.

Lectures predicted economic globalization, global communication advancement, and global cultural collision in advance of major social awareness of the extent of the change that would take place in each of these areas.

A 25th Anniversary Analysis of the Vernon C. Schranz Distinguished Lectures: An Examination of the Predictions and Changes Identified by Professional leaders

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Introduction

In 2003, Ball State University observed the 25th Anniversary of one of the first university lectureships established for presentations by public relations professional leaders, the Vernon C. Schranz Distinguished Lectureship in Public Relations.

Ball Corporation established the Lectureship in 1979 upon the retirement of Vernon C. Schranz, Ball Corporation's first full-time public relations officer. The Lectureship was supported through an annual stipend provided by the public relations department at Ball Corporation for the first 10 years of its existence. In 1989, Ball Corporation created an endowment for the lecture making the Lectureship the first to be endowed in public relations at a university in the United States.

The significance of the Lectureship is that it allowed the Ball State public relations program to invite 25 of the leading public relations practitioners in the nation and internationally to present the annual lecture over the 25-year time period.

Following nomination and selection by the public relations faculty and the Public Relations Professional Advisory Council for the Ball State academic programs in public relations, invited lecturers are asked to share their thinking on the status, needs and future of the profession. They may also address a topic of their choosing where they see an educational or professional performance need.

As a result, the 25 years of presentations allow an examination of the social change identified over the time period as well as the changing and continuing performance and educational needs, ethical concerns, terminology as it is introduced and the concepts that have framed the definition and performance of public relations.

Ball Corporation began as a family owned business; producing Ball jars for food canning purposes. As a publicly owned corporation, it later evolved into a food and beverage container production company. With knowledge gained in the production of containers, the production expanded into the minting of coins for the United States government and into the lightweight production of parts for the space shuttle industry.

Review of Literature

The review of literature for this study has been developed looking at the same 25 year time period for the identification of social change, predictions related to public relations performance, ethical needs, performance needs, educational needs, the introduction of terminology, and concepts important to the profession. An examination of major textbooks published during the 25-year period was major sources of information.

Social change impacting pubic relations performance

The communication revolution, world population explosion, shortages in natural resources, and the international expansion of business were all being identified in 1979 with some obvious differences from the social change and trends that would be identified in the remainder of the 25-year period. The effect of the "internet" and "globalization" are not mentioned and will not be identified as major social trends until the 1990s. Instead, the growth of multinational corporations is identified along with growth in availability of the media internationally as the significant trends of 1979. (Marston 1979, 375-408)

By 1984, Simon identified the technological change taking place in communication as relating to the all-electronic writing, editing and printing of newspapers through the use of computers, the use and expansion of satellite transmission and cable television, and the growth of specialized magazines. (Simon 1984)

In a World Congress in Amsterdam in 1985 hosted by the International Public Relations Association and in the Second World Congress for Public Relations Educators, held in conjunction with the congress, professionals and educators identified cultural colonialism, the expansion of democracy, aging populations, intra-regional trade, and immigration as world social change issues. (Denig and van der Meiden 1985)

Urbanization and suburbanization, the growth in the power of public opinion, the growing complexity of organizations and the growing psychology of entitlement, the changing roles of women, and the redefinition of the family were also being identified in public relations texts in the 1980s (Simon 1984, Reilly 1987). Reilly also identified a trend that he called the growing movements of organized social groups to resist change.

In 1993, Sharpe and Byrne looked at the trends affecting performance and the educational needs of public relations practitioners in the 14 Professional Interest Sections that existed at that point in time within the Public Relations Society of America. Educators serving as liaisons to each of the sections found that downsizing, outsourcing, accountability, technological advancements, integration with marketing, growing government involvement, globalization, and focus on environmental issues were all trends confronting practitioners in the various PRSA sections. Segmentation of audiences and nutrition and health concerns were also identified along with increased media attention and the impact of religious movements.

In 2004, Seitel identified the social change as the convergence of communication technologies, the increased need globally for the resolution of differences and the reaching of common ground, the fierce competition for resources and need to effectively communicate differentiation, instantaneous global communication, the international merger of corporations, and a human society that become more technologically savvy and automated. Seitel also identifies economic globalization, sudden shifts in public opinion, anti-Western sentiments internationally, and the disappearance of lifetime employment (509-510).

Public relations predictions

In 1994, E. W. Brody predicted that while the mass media would continue to grow, audiences would continue to divide into specific segments, new media would soon overcome the traditional media outlets, and one-on-one media would continue its effectiveness. Brody also came to the conclusion that public relations practitioners that build on relationships with stakeholders, employees, and clients will find alternative communication solutions other than the mass media (Brody 1994).

In 1995, Rick Fischer predicted that the public relations profession would grow more slowly than at any time since the 1930s. He also predicted that there would be little room at the top as workers continue to work beyond the traditional retirement age causing mid-level practitioners to join smaller entrepreneurial firms where there would be room for advancement. In addition, he predicted intense competition to recruit young workers and that women would continue their strong influence on organizations. These changes he felt would increase experimentation with flex time to keep quality and productivity at acceptable levels and the recruitment of couples as a "team" (Fischer 12-16).

In 1999, Suzanne Fitzgerald identified the following professional predictions based on a survey of professionals:

- ***Technology:*** Increased self-selection of information, reduced reliance on traditional print media, and a focus on more active information-seeking publics.
- ***Media relations:*** The need for multi-global knowledge of media sources and an emphasis on electronic media.
- ***Globalization:*** The need for more multilingual practitioners and a greater sensitivity to cultural differences.
- ***Litigation PR:*** The media would increasingly try cases in the court of public opinion prior to the actual court case resulting in an increased need for public relations professional involvement in litigation (Fitzgerald 29).

Fitzgerald also found that professionals were also predicting the return of specialized public relations agencies and increased specialization in areas such as crisis communications, investor relations, external relations, or in specific industries such as healthcare (Fitzgerald 1999).

Ethical needs in public relations

By 1979, the Public Relations Society of America Code of Professional Standards (1977) had been strengthened with fourteen articles addressing the responsibility of practitioners relating to loyalty to the employer, conduct of the practitioner, and responsibility to the public. Ethical needs had been identified to protect and elevate the status of the public relations profession. (Marston 1979, 432-456)

By 2000, Kruckeberg was stressing the need for practitioners to practice "strategic ethics" in order to execute strategically and tactically well when faced with ethical dilemmas (Kruckeberg 2000, 38).

Edgett identified a theoretical foundation for ethical needs in the new century. Ten criteria were identified for ethically desirable public relations advocacy:

1. Evaluation
   Detached or objective evaluation of the issue–client–organization before determining whether it merits public relations advocacy.
2. Priority
   Once the public relations practitioner has assumed the role of advocate, the interests of the client or organization are valued above those of others involved in the public debate.
3. Sensitivity
   Balancing of client priority on the one hand with social responsibility on the other.
4. Confidentiality
   Protection of the client's or organization's rights to confidentiality and secrecy on matters for which secrets are morally justified.
5. Veracity
   Full truthfulness in all matters; deception or evasion can be considered morally acceptable only under exceptional circumstances when all truthful possibilities have been ruled out; this implies trustworthiness.

6. Reversibility
   If the situation were reversed, the advocate–client–organization would be satisfied that it had sufficient information to make an informed decision.
7. Validity
   All communications on behalf of the client or organization are defensible against attacks on their validity.
8. Visibility
   Clear identification of all communications on behalf of the client or organization as originating from that source.
9. Respect
   Regard for audiences as autonomous individuals with rights to make informed choices and to have informed participation in decisions that affect them; willingness to promote dialogue over monologue.
10. Consent
    Communication on behalf of the client or organization is carried out only under conditions to which it can be assumed all parties consent (Edgett 2002, 24).

Performance needs

In 1979, public relations performance needs related in large part to the use of tools in communicating through the mass media in achieving publicity, community relations, or specialized audience awareness. The application of communication theory and the fundamental elements of strategic planning were identified as needs along with evaluation techniques.

In the 80s, research was discussed in general terms (Reilly 1987, 56-90) or identified as fact-finding and surveying (Simon 1984, 139-187).

By 1992, authors were identifying research performance needs for planning, monitoring, and evaluation and were identifying opinion and communication audits, publicity analysis, focus groups, case studies, in-depth interview, content analysis, survey research, survey panels as performance needs (Newsom, Scott, and Turk 1992, 90-138), (Baskin and Aronoff 1992, 106-127). Seitel had identified public relations marketing and advertising as needs and had included sections in his text on both. Product publicity and image advertising are identified as the performance needs as well as crisis management and international public relations (Seitel 1992).

By 2000, the measurement of web audiences is being discussed (Newsom, Turk, and Kruckeberg 2000, 177) and by 2004, web research is being included in textbook content (Seitel 2004, 201-203).

By 2001, Seitel had added a chapter on public relations and the Internet addressing performance needs in website development, e-mail use and media relations and by 2004, electronic media relations had become its own chapter (Seitel 2004. 241-258,). Seitel now had a single chapter on integrated marketing communications where the performance need is identified as that of differentiating an organization, product or issue, and of building lasting client relationships (481). He also points out that the performance need to create publicity and he placed increased emphasis on knowledge of ethical performance (480).

By 2004, Seitel had dropped his chapter on community diversity with the focus now on international relations and the performance needs of communicating to a "global village" (Seitel 2004, 378-395).

Public relations education

By 1979, hundreds of American universities and colleges were teaching one to three courses in public relations and graduate education in public relations had begun. An accreditation process had also been implemented requiring the study of public relations literature to pass a comprehensive examination. This step was taken first by the British Institute of Public Relations and later implemented by the Public Relations Society of America in 1963. Coursework largely related to skill development and an understanding of principles although the need for greater behavioral content was clearly recognized. The need for increased knowledge of the differences in international public relations performance had also been identified (Marston 1979, 457-464). Missing in comparison to the identification by 2003 was the need for knowledge of specialized media, use of technology, ethical decision making, management, marketing, research methodology, and target audience identification.

The first curriculum recommendation evolved in 1975, four years before the founding of the Lectureship, from the joint Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC) and a PRSA Commission where a few public relations core courses were established. The four chosen courses were: (1) Introduction to public relations (2) Publicity media and campaigns (3) Public relations case problems and (4) an Internship (Fischer 2000).

A second commission was established in 1987 again through PRSA and AEJMC. A mass communication background was the main focus as required courses fell under the headings of communication studies and public relations studies including additional courses such as marketing, public affairs, international, employee, and community relations (Fischer 2000; PRSA 1987).

In 1990 IPRA produced a more standardized study in public relations with the Gold Paper No. 7 recommendations, suggesting the availability of the following courses in addition to the 1987 proposal: Origins and principles of public relations, the public relations field, public relations specializations, research, planning, action/implementation, communication, performance and measurement, and ethics and law. Two years later in the *Public Relations Journal* a special issue quoted authors stating coursework suggestions that were relevant to the current curricula in public relations. The general recommendations encouraged educators at public relations programs to focus on (a) writing and speaking skills, (b) critical communications planning, (c) two internships, and (d) other courses in the social sciences, especially courses such as persuasion, public opinion, and mass communication (Fischer 2000; IPRA 1990)

Educational needs identified in 1993 by PRSA's 14 sections included problem solving abilities, an understanding of business management and marketing, advanced technologies, and crisis management. The need for graduate level education, foreign languages, and writing skills were also emphasized. The need for both broad liberal arts knowledge as well as specialized educational needs was cited by section practitioners. (Sharpe and Byrne 1993)

The 1999 Commission on Public Relations Education identified the ideal public relations programs for both bachelor's and master's degree candidates. The commission also addressed the need for public relations doctoral programs emphasizing the focus continue to be based on theory and research (Fischer 2000). In particular, the Commission report identified 12 necessary knowledge areas:

- Communication and persuasion concepts and strategies
- Communication and public relations theories
- Relationships and relationship building
- Societal trends
- Ethical issues
- Legal requirements and issues
- Marketing and finance
- Public relations history
- Uses of research and forecasting
- Multicultural and global issues
- Organizational change and development
- Management concepts and theories

It also identified 20 necessary skills:

- Research methods and analysis
- Management of information
- Mastery of language in written and oral communication
- Problem solving and negotiation
- Management of communication
- Strategic planning
- Issues management
- Audience segmentation
- Information and persuasive writing
- Community relations, consumer relations, employee relations, other practice areas
- Technological and visual literacy
- Managing people, programs, and resources
- Sensitive interpersonal communication
- Fluency in a foreign language
- Ethical decision-making
- Participation in the professional public relations community
- Message production
- Working with a current issue
- Public speaking and presentation
- Applying cross-cultural and cross-gender sensitivity

Terminology

Terminology, such as globalization, marketing communication, spin, and Internet are not yet found in the indexes of major texts and will not appear until the 1990s (Marston 1979; Simon 1984; Reilly 1987).

By 1992, globalization is a commonly referenced term (Baskin and Arnoff; Newsom, Scott and Turk; Seitel). Electronic mail (Lesly 1991; Newsom, Scott, and Turk 1992) is also finding its way into the texts in the early 1990s.

"Internet" is heavily referenced by Newsom, Turk and Kruckeberg by 2000 and "spin", "integrated or marketing communication," and "mergers" are identified. "Diversity," "digital," "downsizing," and "convergence" also appear (Guth and Marsh 2000).

Concepts in public relations

Marston opened his text in 1979 with a definition of public relations activities: Public relations is planned, persuasive communication designed to influence significant publics (Marston 3) Simon in 1984 opens his discussion of definitions with the Public Relations News definition which defines the function in terms of management activities: Public relations is the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an organization with the public interest, and executes a program of action (and communication) to earn public understanding and acceptance (6). Simon also provides Rex Harlow's definition and the "Statement of Mexico" which also relate what public relations does as professional performance (6).

By 1992, Seitel is providing Sharpe's definition, which is not a description of performance, but rather of the behaviors necessary for public relations performance (Seitel 10).

Some educators and practitioners believe the area of public relations has room for other disciplines and related areas to help define its operational function. Over the last two decades the concept of integrated marketing communications has emerged as an important issue in both public relations education and practice. Debra Miller and Patricia Rose (1994) state that the part public relations have in this integrated process is consistent with the total communications program that is offered to clients.

Globalization should be acknowledged as an emerging concept in public relations. Efforts toward a multinational and cultural diverse approach continue to broaden the concept of new horizons and globalizing the area of public relations. Building relationships on an international level helps the field end any present challenges that may exist and focus on current opportunities toward globalization. A large amount of research must continue to be conducted focusing on cultural differences, individual and organizational cultures, and overall public relations development in other areas outside the United States (Heath 2001).

The feminist theory evolved after reports were made on the increasing number of women entering public relations positions in 1980 and helped shape the past and present agenda in the field. Research publications exist as researchers and theorists continue to contribute to current literature on the subject (Toth 2001).

Professionalism is a concept that many believe naturally exists with the public relations title. As the field of public relations continues to grow, so will its nature as a profession. It must be addressed by how much value is added to organizations and society in where public relations services are provided (Heath 2001).

Methodology

A content analysis was applied to all 25 lectures. Five lectures from different time periods by lecturers with different styles were reviewed by two reviewers to identify variables for measurement and to verify consistency in the identification of the variables by reviewers. The analysis revealed that change, performance needs, educational needs, ethical issues, terminology, and concepts could be uniformly identified throughout the 25 years. All three authors then confirmed the categories.

Variables were then summarized with reviewers collectively verifying the findings and conclusions reached in the analysis. Analysis was based on yearly comparisons, category comparisons, and comparisons against review of literature findings.

Findings

Change identified

Social system

Carole Howard identified a major social change in 1990, the end of the Cold War. Dilenschneider in 1991 noted changes in the American value system, identifying some of the change as intrusive and negative and that some of the tabloid values would affect the way people in society would think about each other.

In 1995, Alvarez would identify increased public pessimism relating to growth of crime, the family, and marriage but would see the ultimate revolution as the personal computer and Plank in 1997 would identify the emergence of the first generation that communicates via personal computer.

Chadlington in 1999 would identify globalization with the emergence of Third World countries from poverty with the resulting demands for modern products and consumer product choices and the shift of commercial power from West to East.

Wilks in 2001 would identify for the first time global cultural collision and the fact that American brands now represent what some people despise about American popular culture: its focus on materialism and its seductive, indulgent and fast-paced lifestyle. He pointed out that too much of the world, globalization means Americanization which is killing existing businesses, and threatening local traditions religious and social norms. In the United States, he states that the major social change has been the movement to embrace multicultural diversity – a celebration of differences.

Corporations/organizations/government

Dorothy Gregg in 1981 identified the demand for organizations and corporations to be good citizens. Chester Burger also identified the realization that corporations must follow public opinion in 1983 and Barkelew in 1993 would identify the influence of consumers on organizational decisions. Plank in 1997 would identify the meeting of audience expectations as paramount, while Wilks in 2001 would state that investors were now placing more value on non-financial metrics in their purchase of shares.

Gregg in 1981 identified the need for commitment to equal opportunity a lesson we would still see being learned by corporations in the last years of the 25 year period. In 1989, Budd describes the new corporate priorities as the bottom-line and accountability, while in 1993 Barkelew identified business ethics, corporate responsibility, disclosure, bigness, consistent performance, diversity, time poor customers, health care reform, and the recessionary economy as the issues of that year. Alvarez in 1995 and Plank in 1997 would continue to point out the negative impact on organizational image of restructuring, downsizing, and rightsizing, Plank called it an imperative for employee relations and Wilks in 2001 would confirm the continued need.

In 1989, Budd was the first lecturer to make the observation that the ineffectiveness of advertising is driving corporations to use public relations in marketing as a less costly, more effective way of reaching marketing goals.

Dilenschneider in 1991 observed that the America workforce had rediscovered the importance of quality and discipline in the workplace.

Plank (1997) identified the impact of new environmental laws requiring organizations to file "worst case scenarios" on toxic disasters for which they may be responsible. Wilks in 2001 identified the empowerment of individual investors with financial transparency and fair disclosure as having a major impact on organizations as well as the fact that investors now have access to virtually all corporate financial data analysts have, while Nielsen in 2003 identified additional laws, rules, and litigation such as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act on corporate governance and tort liability litigation especially health care.

Chadlington in 1999 was identifying the loss of the ability of governments to control information, money flow, and e-commerce. While Wilks in 2001 pointed out that nine out of ten of the world's top brands are American and that international markets now account for the single most important opportunity for U. S. corporations.

Increasing public distrust of organizations

Edward Block, in the first Schranz Lectureship, stated that the public relations principles and basic public relations performance needs have not changed from Lee's, Pages', Bernays', Hill's, and Dudlev's identification of performance principles. Yet it was clear that the erosion of trust was one of the most commonly identified trends starting with Douglas Hearle in 1980 and John Budd in 1989 who noted the growing public skepticism of corporate motives, the intolerance of corporate doublespeak, and loss of corporate CEO credibility. In 1991, Robert Dilenschneider makes the point that the information revolution is fueling the trend as the ready availability of details about personal lives helps etch the character lines of potential victims. Alvarez in 1995 would identify the impact of corporate downsizing and white-collar recession as the major reason for distrust of corporate America.

Tim Traverse-Healy pointed out that that corporate credibility problem has resulted in part with a paradigm shift in human values from "Institutionalism" to "Individualism" forcing corporate bodies to be seen as responsive, transparent, and accountable in the process. Lord Chadlington in 1999 identified a shift in power from governments to global corporations, which may also contribute to distrust of big businesses.

The last two Schranz lecturers, Christopher Komisarjevsky and Willard Nielsen, again stressed that the decline of public trust in CEOs and organizations was a major change and that organizational behaviors will determine business success in the future.

Nielsen identified the negativism of potential employee attitudes toward corporations as a factor in employee recruitment.

Societal fracture

While Paul Alvarez in 1995 would be the first to devote his lecture to the social change occurring in society, particularly the polarization, and the resulting isolation from one another; Hearle as early as 1980 noted the loss of collective policy ability and the breakup of the American two-party system. Dilenschneider in 1991 noted the definite and very forceful trend toward moralizing where no overriding dogma houses the diverse attitudes of the general public. He stated that revolutions in values are happening as rapidly as the revolution in technology or management philosophy.

In 1993, Ann Barkelew also pointed out in her lecture that we are no longer a culture of sameness but a society with racial and ethic diversity with differences in values, interests, income needs, and demands for products, services, and information.

Traverse-Healy in 1998 echoed earlier observations in stating that accepted structures of government are being subjected to erosion with the retreat of citizens into non-political or issue driven interest groups, while Nielsen in 2003 would refer to the politicization of business performance.

Bradley Wilks in 2001 was the first to identify the global abyss between the way Americans see America and the way other groups around the world see America.

The conclusion that may be drawn is that the fracturing of American society was only a prelude to the fracturing of the global village. But what is now a major global social issue may be the greatest challenge facing public relations.

Communication

The changes in communication identified over the two and a half decades reflect changing corporate and social needs. Hearle stressed the importance in 1980, before Exxon-Valdez, for active CEO or institutional leader involvement in the communication process. Lesly recognized that accelerated technology would have a dramatic impact on communication. Budd in 1989 identified the beginning of instantaneous communication. Dilenschneider in 1991 stated the public's span of attention and recollection continues to erode at a remarkable rate as well as an alarming rise of self-imposed censorship. He also indicated that an increasingly complex and important problem for communicators was fractured public values, which contribute to the censorship. John Felton in 1994 pointed out the generational changes and how it affects communication needs and target audience appeal identification which helped explain what Dilenschnider had recognized four years earlier when he cautioned communicators that if they took the wrong public position to "watch out."

Alvarez in 1995 emphasized that modern communication technology and techniques are widening social fissures because they increase the ease and freedom of communication by all special interests audiences to avoid listening to differences of opinion. He pointed out the proliferation of segmented, fragmented media, greater television and satellite broadcasting choices, growth in special-interest magazines, personalized consumer communication, segmented advertising, the trend toward the isolated home viewing of television with a television set for each member of the household, the jump in home computers, and the use of information networks free of gatekeepers. The new communication problem identified results from the change by Alvarez was that public passion and misinformation can and would spread like light.

In the following year, Terrie Williams would lament that the Internet has changed the public relations business away from personal relations and she would devote her lecture to the social need of establishing personal relationships.

Betsy Plank in 1997 also mentioned the decline in face-to-face communication, the specialization of media, and the decline of mass media as negatives and added information overload. But she also added a positive: the end of organizational dependence on one-way communication.

Chadlington in 1999 would identify the advent of instantaneous global information access and the fact that Internet use is transcending previous cultural communication barriers and standards. He also identified information distribution without gatekeepers and online newspaper readership as new global trends and the fact that English is now key to the international access of information via the Internet.

Media

Changes in the media are also apparent through their identification in the lectures. Budd pointed out in 1989 that writers and reporters had more knowledge than previous time periods, and Dilenschneider in 1991 stated the new style of journalism ensures that values issues will be covered quickly and often mercilessly. He cited "tabloid values" as effecting the style of mainstream network and local news reporting providing an advance warning of declining media credibility.

Alvarez in 1995 made the point that in the 50s and 60s, the media talked to people but that it still didn't talk to everyone, particularly those not then in mainstream America. This changed in the 70s when the media adapted to a new social consciousness with the new technology of the 80s creating a radically different media environment. But at the same time, the mass media of the 20th Century shaped the pronunciation of American English language. He also noted the creation of Fox news and the loss of network power.

Plank in 1997 was the first lecturer to identify the skepticism and distrust of the mass media as a trend. Traverse-Healy in the following year may have identified another reason why: media focus on personalities rather than political and public affairs when the global demands are for more, deeper and better information, and the featuring of material that journalist know to be suspect along with the facilitation of spin to achieve

exclusives. He also identified a direct result: social debate as to the right of the public to be accorded the resources necessary for public response.

Chadlington in 1999 would be the first to identify the development of a common international news culture along with growing information distribution without gatekeepers.

The profession

Lesly in 1982 was the first lecturer to identify segmentation and specialization of public relations as a new trend. Kerryn King in 1985 also saw specialization as increasing and stated that public relations now embraced more academic disciplines and had become more complex resulting in continued debate over the definition of public relations.

Lesly identified a new performance change as the need for immediate information and immediate answers. In 1984, Patrick Jackson, however, said that practitioners had become so mired in process that they had lost sight of the outcomes they can deliver. The trend, he said, was for the practitioner to be a media chaser. But he identified one of the greatest professional changes as the need for research in public relations performance. Griswold in 1986, however, identified expansion of the job of the public relations person and an increase in the scope of public relations operations as a trend. But James Tolley in 1988 saw an identity crisis in what the profession of public relations wants to be upon maturity and he pointed out that the indecision is occurring during one of the most intense periods of change in the history of the world and Budd saw a limited supply of truly creative, objective counselors in 1989 and less personalized attention to client needs with conglomerate growth.

King in 1985 was the first to identify an increase in the way CEOs and management valued public relations. Griswold would agree in 1986 but Barkelew would question the degree of awareness in 1993. Barkelew agreed that in the decade before public relations professionals were largely executors of policies set by others, but now found that practitioners are invited to help determine policy. She defined the public relations professional role as determining the key organizational message needs, building plans and strategy that support the corporation's overall business plan and inferred that a key task was the research involved in keeping management aware of the issues confronting organizations. Daniel Edelman stated in 2000 that public relations is now seen as an essential professional service by top management and that practitioners are in a stronger position than ever to reach beyond what should be communicated to what should be done.

In 1986, Griswold was the first lecturer to name growth in the number of firms and corporate departments as a trend. But as early as 1982, Lesly had identified public relations as an international force. By1988, Tolley identified the growth in the hundreds of thousands. Although he had seen a limited supply of talented counselors existing in 1989, Budd also identified rapid growth in the public relations profession and he is the first to mention public ownership of public relations firms as a trend. By 2001, Bradley Wilks stated public relations firm revenues had increased 33 percent in 2000 with a 25 percent increase in employment only to have layoffs and a reduction of infrastructure following 9-11.

In 1991, Dilenschneider observed that firms that showcase the simplicity of what they are doing are appealing to strong public appetite and Fraser Seitel in 1992 stated that the practice of public relations is admired and respected by many, and even its critics have grown grudgingly to acknowledge and accept the power and pervasiveness of public relations work. Barkelew in 1993 saw the public sector more open to public relations than the private corporate sector because of increased vulnerability to the whims of the public.

Chadlington in 1999 was the first to note the change in professional performance to reach global audiences brought about by the demands for modern products and consumer choices. In 2000, Edelman followed with a description of the global expansion of Edelman noting the continued growth of the profession but the existence of five or six truly international public relations firms.

The most dramatic changes in professional performance are identified in only the last seven years of the lectureship. Plank in 1997 mentions the influence of technology while Chadlington in 1999 identified globalization with Edelman on 2000 adding 24-hour, seven-day a week accessibility, the use of the website as a marketing tool, the preparation of "dark sites" ready for crisis communication needs, the use of hundreds of alternatives nationally and locally to reach audiences, and the use of Internet websites to convey accurate, up-to-date information. Wilks identified the trend for public relations and investor relations to now be combined, the increased ease in communicating identical messages simultaneously through web casts, and the demands for greater senior level involvement and oversight of accounts.

Education

Denny Griswold in 1986 was the first lecturer to mention education stating that the demand for learning is increasing enormously and that the avenues for learning about public relations are much greater than in previous years.

David Ferguson in 1987, however, devoted his entire lecture to education, the first and only professional to do so. He identified the advancements in education by pointing out that by that date many universities and colleges had at least one or two public relations courses while more than 30 universities offered degrees in public relations. He also pointed out that while enrollments in journalism remained stable, public relations enrollments had increased by 25 percent and that public relations had become the number one area of academic interest at Smith College in the fall of 1986.

In 1997, Plank also emphasized the advancements in public relations education while Edelman in 2000 was the first professional to emphasize the higher quality of those entering the public relations field.

Predictions made

Technology

Seven of the lecturers identified predictions related to technological change. Hearle was the earliest lecturer in 1980 to predict a communications revolution that would give people more control and choices, but create information overload. Edelman was the last in 2000 predicting that technology would become increasingly important over the next 50 years.

Lesly in 1982 saw the computer providing everyone with ready access to reference material. Lesly also saw electronic communication bringing the world closer together while being the force that would segment people into more and more separate groups. Tolley in 1988 predicted that technical proficiency will not get the professional in the door at top management levels unless professionals can produce measurable results while Chadlington in 1999 saw it giving the in-house practitioner a major role in intranet and extranet development and management.

Two lecturers predicted the possibility of downside effects from the use of technology. Williams in 1996 saw the public relations business on the whole moving away from relationship-based business towards a more impersonal, technologically-based business and Plank in 1997 predicted global cultural change resulting from the advancements without full dimensional understanding of the consequences.

Professional performance

Opportunity and a bright future were commonly predicted by lecturers. Block in 1979 predicted opportunities for a new generation of public relations leadership, while Griswold in 1986 predicted a tremendous increase in public relations executives at the top levels, higher salaries, a seat at the policy making table, and continuing advancements

for women. Tolley in 1988 predicted opportunities for public relations people on a larger scale then ever that will dwarf the changes he has seen in his career. Howard repeated the prediction in 1990 and like Seitel in 1992, who would follow her, saw the best years of public relations ahead while Barkelew in 1993 saw the future in public relations students.

Jackson predicted the potential to bring about outcomes that could benefit all mankind in 1984. Nielsen in 2003 predicted that the young people entering the field today will have the potential to make a singular difference in any company or institution they choose to join.

In 1999, international professional Chadlington predicted new corporate positions defined as chief reputation officers would create new opportunities for professionals on corporate boards. A decade earlier, Budd had predicted the creation of CEOs for internal and external affairs. Chadlington made several predictions relating to performance: consolidation globally to four major agencies with smaller agencies being bought out, virtual businesses without office building overhead needs, truly global public relations firms with language and knowledge advantage, and greater professional competition from fields such as management, investment bankers, lawyers, and even accountants. He also predicted that internal public relations departments would be even leaner.

Edelman in 2000 predicted increased specialization demands by clients, the continued use of public relations in marketing as a replacement for advertising, and to allow two-way communication,

King in 1985 had viewed the need as helping to make the wheels of society turn more smoothly. A view repeated in 1995 by Alvarez,

Griswold predicted that international development would be the most exciting part of public relations in 1986 and it was clear from lectures in 1988, 1990, 1999, and 2001 that others would continue to predict opportunities in international public relations.

Edelman in 2000 predicted than an increasing part of public relations firm revenues will come from the communication industries and Wilks in 2001 predicted the industry would be a strong beneficiary of a vibrant economy.

Corporate/organizational change

Gregg in 1981 predicted an increasing need for corporate social responsibility and the same prediction would be voiced again in 1999 and 2002 with the prediction of the importance of corporate reputation. Wilks in 2001 also predicted that new generation would prevent corporations from sharing private information with analysts or investors without full disclosure to the public resulting in the decrease for financial analysts.

Social change

Hearle in 1980 identified continued confusion, frustration, and volatility with consumerism as a philosophy.

Gregg in 1981 would identify growing business competition at home and abroad with Chadlington predicting the shift of power from West to East in 1999.

Hearle, as early as 1980, predicted the new technology would result in the proliferation of special interest groups

Budd in 1989 would predict continued pressures to protect the environment, while in 1991 Dilenschneider would predict increasing values debates.

Better health, longer life, higher incomes, and demands for financial support along with world population growth and aging societies were predictions made by Chadlington in 1999.

Education

King in 1985 called for the need for a common denominator in the definition of public relations, Griswold predicted a more unified professional development of practitioners in 1986, while Ferguson predicted the further development of public relations education. Tolley in 1988 pointed out education needs and Seitel in 1992 saw the development of a higher caliber of professional and predicted the need for those that are better prepared than their predecessors.

From an international perspective, Traverse-Healy predicted that more trained journalists would enter the profession while Plank predicts the emergence of a college of public relations in 1997.

Ethical needs identified

Research in public relations has clearly shown that ethics matters both to public relations practitioners, and also to the organizations they serve. The role of the practitioner in serving a client or an organization is clear. Also clear, is that organizations need to be responsive to their stakeholder publics. Ethics, it seems, are good business. Practitioners have viewed improving ethics as a necessary requirement to build professionalism in public relations.

Several key ethical themes were addressed by many of the 25 Schranz lecturers.

Block began the lecture series by saying that honesty and openness are essential to the practice of public relations. The following year, Hearle in 1980 echoed that thought. “No amount of effectiveness in communicating will compensate for a loss of credibility; an elusive quality that is hard won and easily lost.”

Gregg emphasized the need for public responsibility starting at the “plant community level. Public responsibility is all about people – their expectations, their chances of advancement, how well they are doing – day by day in their working environment.”

Calling for consistency in organizational messages, Lesly in1982 urged the avoidance of propaganda techniques and the need for “organizational credibility.” Burger recognized the need for a balance between organizational advocacy and consensus with stakeholder publics. “The best public relations programs harmonize corporate self interest with the public interests. Corporations can gain credibility by doing so.”

At the 1994 lecture, the late Patrick Jackson identified social responsibility as “the key not only to our professional philosophy, but to the survival of any organization in the American court of public opinion. If our first loyalty is to the democratic society, then it follows pretty sensibly that our second loyalty has to be to ethical principles.” The next year, Kerryn King agreed, adding, “public relations does not involve what you say, but what you do.”

Griswold linked public relations progress to two factors – “good performance and broad knowledge.”

A couple of lecturers were very simple in their ethical advice. Tolley in 1988 said, “telling the truth is paramount” and Budd added the need for “ethical corporate public relations and business standards.”

In his 1992 speech, Seitel spent a good deal of time on the need for ethical practice. “We must be ethical in all that we do . . . Public relations must be the conscience of the corporation. We must be the standard bearer of honor, ethics and integrity. And we should never compromise our values . . . The essence of this practice . . . comes down to one word, integrity.”

Both Williams and Traverse-Healy in 1996 and1998, respectively, acknowledged the importance of codes of professional conduct. Traverse-Healy called for “public relations associations (to) develop procedures for discussing, judging, and exposing malpractice.”

Global business ethics are also a need for public relations, according to Lord Chadlington in his 1999 speech. Establishment of a personal"core code of practice based on personal ethics" was a need identified by Edelman in 1992. "The role of public relations is to communicate the truth – a reflection totally and honestly of the product or service we're representing."

Wilks called for adherence to the PRSA Code of Ethics and advised practitioners to realize "that when client motives are questionable, it is time to move to a new client."

Komisarjevsky called for codes of ethics – both for the professional and the organizational level. Early identified of ethical issues is desirable, he said, before they grow into a crisis. Nielsen advocated a "values-based corporate culture" with identification of core values – "citizenship, ethical decision making, community and environmental responsibility, employee welfare, product quality and commitment to customer satisfaction."

Performance needs identified

Performance needs have been consistently addressed in the scholarly literature since the 1980s. As the nature of the public relations job has changed during the years the profession has existed, so have performance needs changed.

Performance themes are consistently mentioned by each of the 25 Schranz lecturers. These themes include: accountability, continuing education, public relations as part of the management function/counsel to management, professionalism, research, truthfulness, credibility and social responsibility, specialized functions and skills in the public relations profession, globalization, and new media/technology.

In 1980, Hearle noted the need for public relations practitioners to be accountable to management. "Practitioners will need to stand up to the kind of management scrutiny we will be increasingly receiving."

Jackson in 1994, reminded public relations practitioners to be concerned "for the outcome of our work." Jackson noted the need for practitioners to be "strategic thinkers" and to be "long-range thinkers rather than short-term thinkers."

One year later, King encouraged the profession to "function at its highest and best level, where it makes a maximum contribution to the ability of the organization not only to survive, but to thrive within its environment."

Barkelew, in 1993, saw accountability as a must. "What we do can be measured, and what we do has to be measured if we're ever going to find a place at the table."

Several speakers mentioned the need for continuing education by public relations practitioners. Jackson in 1994 noted the need to "be a student of public relations."

In the next Schranz lecture, King advocated "mandatory continuing education for PRSA accreditation." He added that public relations presents "the beginning practitioner with a lifelong series of challenges and a lifelong opportunity to grow as experience and knowledge increase."

In 1986, Griswold noted the need for continual learning in the public relations profession. "The progress that public relations makes is commensurate with good performance and broad knowledge."

In 1988, Tolley encouraged professionals to "keep honing your technical skills."

Placing public relations people in the management function or counsel to management was identified as a performance need by ten of the speakers.

In the inaugural Schranz Lecture, Block noted "public relations should be performed as an extension of the CEO role." Two years later Dorothy Gregg agreed calling for "public relations to be a part of the top management structure."

In 1983, Burger added a different responsibility for PR people at the management level – counseling management when change is needed. "Public relations professionals must have the wisdom, the tact, and the integrity to persuade management that when unfairness or injustice exists in corporate policy or practice, it must be eliminated."

King in 1985 emphasized the need for practitioners to "perceive their role as being active participants in the formation of public policy – and not as merely passive technicians ready to go into action only when the chairman, general counsel, or chief financial officer pushes the button." Ferguson continued the theme in 1987. "There are too many communications mechanics and too few counselors who can aid top management in the complex, dynamic environment in which organizations operate today."

Speaking from personal experience, Tolley in 1988 encouraged practitioners to be "intimately familiar with (the CEOs) objectives and strategies and they have to be receptive to our counsel about public opinion and low to alter it." One year later, Budd echoed the same need calling for the "ability to contribute to major decision making processes at senior management levels."

In 1990, Howard encouraged a shift in perspective for practitioners. " We must think . . . as business people, as general managers, not just a public relations professionals." Not having the confidence of senior

management could result in "other members of senior management (being) unlikely to share preliminary plans and corporate secrets very freely, if at all."

Plank in 1997 listed some reasons management values the counsel of public relations practitioners. She said these reasons include "knowledge of the organization: culture, operations, products and services, business plan, vision, and motivations of internal and external constituencies."

Schranz lecturers in 2002 and 2003 also emphasized the need for management participation. In 2002, Komisarjevksy called for "the sharing of our professional point of view and participation in top management decisions that result in behavior." Nielsen in 2003 observed that public relations could serve management by "asking the key questions of management in times of stress."

Schranz lecturers sometimes referred to the theme of professionalism by differing names, but it was noted as a performance need by many of them.

Lesly in 1982 noted that public relations is in an "age of action and visibility." Lesly specifically mentioned the need for professionalism. In 1988, Tolley encouraged every public relations practitioner to have " a set of 'running rules' that mesh organizational goals and personal principles."

One year later, in 1989, Budd called for practitioners to have a "high degree of personal discipline for advancement."

Advocating high standards for public relations work, Seitel in 1992 urged practitioners to have high communications standards that "remain high, and we must take pride in the communications products for which we are responsible. We must believe that ours is an essential profession. And we must conduct ourselves accordingly."

Chadlington, in a 1999 address, also recognized the need for public relations to perform professionally on a global basis calling for a "favorable global profile of the public relations profession."

The need for continuing research was a performance need identified by Schranz lecturers. In the first lecture, Block noted the need for public opinion research in the public relations job. Gregg in 1981 called for the ability to forecast social trends.

Providing "audience-centered communication" was mentioned by Lesly in 1982, and Burger called for "the need to understand public opinion" in 1983.

Ferguson emphasized the importance of sharing academic research findings with practitioners. "We must seek opportunities for (these AEJMC presentations) to appear in publications of more general readership, where the professionals are more likely to see them and learn from them."

Budd in 1989 stressed that practitioners need the "ability to think, analyze, and reason qualitatively." Tracking public opinion and its impact on the organization was a practitioner need identified by Dilenschneider in 1991.

Alvaraz emphasized the need for applied research when he reminded professionals to "use our understanding of targeting audiences, key publics, and delivering customized messages to establish contact with every segment of out society." Traverse-Healy in 1998 called for "auditing of the social impact of institutional actions."

In 1999, Chadlington acknowledged the presence of the Internet and the need to "research the Internet effectively."

Komisarjevksy in 2002 said practitioners need to use research techniques to observe and understand the marketplace, as well as social and economic environments and public opinion.

Many Schranz speakers commented on the need for truthfulness, credibility and social responsibility in organizational policies and performance. In the third lecture, Gregg called for a corporate "commitment to public responsibility" that starts with top management and flows throughout the organization. Taking the call one step further, she discussed the advantages of establishing a center for corporate responsibility within the company.

Burger in 1983 outlined the proactive role public relations professionals should play in urging socially responsible organizational action. Burger said that when public relations people see the existence of " unfairness or injustice . . . in corporate policy or practice, it must be eliminated. We have the responsibility to seek change, where appropriate."

Edelman in 2000 reminded practitioners to "reach audiences with a story that's based on the true image . . . Bear in mind, we're not 'hidden persuaders;' we don't communicate 'subliminally;' we're not delivering 'hype;' and we don't engage in 'whitewash.' Above all, we're not involved in 'spin.'"

Specialization within the practice of public relations and essential skills needed by practitioners were mentioned frequently by the 25 speakers.

In the first lecture, Block noted the importance of customer relations, shareholder relations, and employee relations. In 1981Gregg added the need "to listen as well as communicate." Simplicity in communication was mentioned by Burger in 1983. "It is so difficult to communicate anything at all, that if you don't express yourself with simplicity, you're wasting your time."

Tolley defended the need for clear and concise writing saying "writing is probably the most critical skill of our trade." He also encouraged practitioners to be articulate, able to think on their feet, and able to defend their proposals in person.

Howard in 1990 noted the need for practitioners to ask the right questions. "Our value lies not so much in our knowledge as in our sources of information and our ability to ask questions that ensure thoughtful evaluation and reasonable answers by other specialists in the organization."

Felton hit the need for practitioner skills directly saying " if our messages are not heard, we're out of business." He encouraged professionals to create messages "create simple, clear, direct messages" and to tailor and target messages to receivers.

Plank mentioned the need for attention to employee relations and the ability "to work hand-in-hand with human resources." Chadlington said crisis communication is now a "full-time specialization" and reputation management and globalization are necessary for the 21st century practitioner.

Edelman noted a number of public relations specializations including reputation management, crisis preparation and response, special events, financial and investor relations, consumer marketing, public affairs, government relations, and sports promotion.

As public relations has grown as a discipline, one recurrent theme among practitioners has been the need for increased globalization. Two speakers mentioned this theme, with most of the globalization mention coming during the later lectures.

Chadlington noted the increased demands placed on organizations relating to global market opportunities and the need for "reconciliation of cultural differences." Doing this can help practitioners create a "favorable global profile of (the) public relations profession." Two years later, Wilks observed that practitioners could help "bridge perceptual gaps internationally and build common ground." One way to do this is to place greater emphasis on "creating favorable attitudes toward the companies that make the products global consumers use."

Utilization of the new media and technology was also an important trend according to the speakers.

Lesly was the first to mention this need in 1982. Public relations people need "an understanding of new communication technologies and how they will change the way public relations professionals communicate with their publics." Alvarez observed that the emergence of the Internet was requiring practitioners to be proficient in "creation of Internet web sites and homes pages" for clients and employers. As for the changing role of the media, Alvarez said, "If traditional gatekeepers are not relevant in the new media, then we should step in and assume that role."

Chadlington acknowledged the challenges provided by "uneven technological capabilities globally." He reminded listeners that with the structure of communication changing, "the need to be heard loud and clear" still exists.

Educational needs identified

One might assume that there would be a very definite change in Schranz lecture themes on educational needs following the release in 1987 of the PRSA Commission on Public Relations Education Report and again in 1999 when the second commission published its results. While the lecturers commented on almost all of the knowledge and skills areas recommended in the 1999 report, there is no uniform progression of themes, save for two areas; a behavioral approach to communications and management. The topics most emphasized by these practitioners seem to differ from the emphasis in that report as well.

Hearle first introduced the elements necessary to understand and craft communication efforts with the audience in mind in 1980. In his presentation, he mentioned four areas of understanding: 1.) The changing nature of the American political process; 2.) The public policy process; 3.) The nature of activist or pressure groups; and 4.) The changing nature of public opinion.

Gregg noted the importance of employee communication programs in 1981. Lesly, a year later, introduced the need for "audience-centered communication," which may best describe this area of educational need most identified in the lectures. In 1985, King discussed the need to educate public relations people who can move into "the fourth level role – the role of public policy advocate." He also noted the need to "bridge the gap between public relations and public affairs."

Four years later, Budd mentioned more psychological research into human attitudes and international cultural knowledge as education needs. Felton identified in 1994 communication and behavioral theories and Alvarez, the next year, spent considerable time in his presentation discussing the knowledge necessary to

produce "audience-centered communication." Alvarez specifically identified "knowledge of how to adapt messages to the experiences and cultural backgrounds of diverse audiences" as a prime educational need. He went on to call for public relations education to "foster study of communications among segments of America's fractured society."

Williams identified only one educational need in her1996 speech: interpersonal communication skills. Plank called for the study of media changes and the impact of mass media theory when she spoke in 1997. Chadlington noted the need for global knowledge in 1999 and, in 2001, Wilks identified knowledge of how to customize messages globally and relationship building skills as needs.

Management skills were discussed in 10 of the 25 lectures beginning in 1979 when Block noted a "management orientation" was a necessary educational requirement. Gregg, in her 1981 lecture, noted the need for "involvement by corporations in all levels of education" and "the need for public relations students to understand corporate and organizational responsibility." Burger mentioned that "students need to have contact with corporate America" and "they need to be exposed to the reality of the business world" in his 1983 presentation. King discussed the need to understand the planning and budget process in 1985. Griswold talked about leadership in 1986 and noted the "lack of leaders in public relations."

The basic theme of Ferguson's 1987 presentation was educational needs and he noted repeatedly the need to add business management courses to public relations sequences. He also said "any attempt to expand the vision and reach of public relations education must include significant involvement in international affairs and the international business climate."

Tolley noted students needed an appreciation for economic trends in 1988. The next time business skills are mentioned, however, is 11 years later when Chadlington noted management consulting abilities and entrepreneurship as educational needs. Edelman in 2000 discussed the need for knowledge of current events and business and new practice developments, while Wilks specifically identified investor relations skills in his 2001 presentation.

Lifelong learning and an interdisciplinary approach to public relations education were the areas noted most often after behavioral-based communication and management needs, with six lecturers each covering the topics. Lesly first introduced life-long learning in his 1982 speech. King, in 1985, noted that public relations presents "the beginning practitioner with a lifelong series of challenges and a lifelong opportunity to grow as experience and knowledge increase."

The next year, Griswold identified "increased learning" as an educational need. Tolley noted in his 1988 lecture "If you're going to make it to the top in your organization in a policy-making role, you need an insatiable thirst for information." Barkelew told her audience in 1993, "You absolutely must never stop learning." Finally, in 2000, Edelman identified the need for the continuing education and training of staffs.

Lesly first identified the need for "the broadest educational experience possible" in 1982. Three years later, in 1985, King noted the need to develop an interdisciplinary professional level program in pubic relations. Griswold, in 1986, indicated that a broad knowledge base was necessary.

As mentioned above, the bulk of Ferguson's 1987 speech dealt with educational needs and he addressed the bulk of his comments toward broadening the base of public relations education. He first commented, "Education in public relations is too focused on the technical aspects of public relations." He continued, noting, "Public relations will never reach the status of a profession, as long as people can get into the field and prosper without having completed a fairly rigorous course of study in the field. And, until education in public relations becomes sufficiently broad to include study in such subjects as economics, philosophy, and law." This was also one of only two mentions in 25 years of the need to study the law.

Ferguson went on to say, "The way must be found to add quality study in such subjects as economics, interpersonal relations, philosophy, law, and business management to public relations sequences." In his concluding remarks, Ferguson said, "That's why I'm so much in favor of the interdisciplinary orientation of the public relations education that has been proposed by Dr. Sharpe for Ball State."

In 1988, Tolley commented on the need to "balance the technical skills of the profession with a broad grounding in the liberal arts." Plank, in 1997, called for "courses that help all students in all disciplines to sort out the avalanche of information and messages." Chadlington countered these calls for broad-based knowledge in 1999 when he advocated for increased specialization.

Strategic thinking and problem solving were identified by five of the speakers. Jackson in 1984 said "Students need to be taught to be strategic thinkers. In 1988, Tolley noted that "You must know why you are doing what you are doing," meaning understanding the strategic reasons behind your actions. Budd spent much time in his 1989 speech on the subject. He called for courses "in imagination, in visualization, in perceptual and

spatial skills, in intuitiveness or inventiveness." He also specifically identified problem solving as an educational need.

Plank in her 1997 presentation called for the development of strategic thinking and judgment skills. Chadlington was the last to touch on the subject in 1999 when he identified creativity and problem-solving abilities as educational needs.

Mastery of language in written and oral communication, message production and *public speaking, and presentation* are listed in the 1999 Commission report as three of the 20 skill areas of competence necessary to enter the profession. Yet, only three lecturers mentioned communications skills in the 25 years of the lectureship. Tolley, in 1988, mentioned, "Writing is the universal currency of public relations professionals, whether they're rookies or seasoned." Felton in general listed communication skills in 1994 and Wilks noted a need for strong written and presentation skills in his 2001 lecture.

While initially it was believed that technology would be a recurring educational need, only three of the lecturers mentioned the topic in that context. Hearle in 1980 discussed the need for "understanding…the influence and impact of new technologies." In 1982, Lesly noted technology broadly as an educational need. The only other time it is mentioned as a subject of study is in 1988, when Tolley commented on the need to "appreciate the…technology trends that are rapidly changing tradition."

Only two of the 25 lecturers discussed ethics as an educational need and only one lecturer commented on the topic before 2002. Ferguson, in his 1987 speech, discussed "ethics as a subject of great interest to the professional public relations practitioner…" among the half-dozen topics he discussed. Conversely, ethics was the only educational need identified in the 2002 and 2003 lectures by Komisarjevsky and Nielson.

Perhaps the biggest surprise in the review of educational needs cited in the 25 years of the lectureship is the fact that only two lecturers identified research and evaluation as education needs. King in 1985 addressed the need to understand research and evaluation. As an educational need, it is not mentioned again until 1994, when Felton addressed research and measurement in his speech.

In addition to Ferguson in 1987, only one other speaker, Tolley, addresses law as an educational need. His advice to his audience in 1988 was "You ought to know something about the law." Tolley was also the only lecturer in the 25 year series to specifically address a second language as an educational need. Only one of the lecturers, Griswold in 1986, identified the history of public relations as an educational need. None of the lecturers directly addressed participation in the professional public relations community as an educational need, the only knowledge or skill area in the 1999 report not covered.

Terminology introduced

An analysis of terminology may indicate when terms are first introduced. Therefore analysis in this area has been conducted to learn these first introductions by year.

1979	Affrmative obligation
	Image making
1980	Information overload
1981	Public responsibility
1982	Human climate
	Boundary spanners
	Tangibles vs. intangibles
1983	Professional public relations
1984	Outcomes
	Positive public relationships
1985	Social significance
	Proactive public relations
	Issues management
1986	Harmonious relations
1987	Public relations education
1988	Must-airs – critical points in arguments or recommendations
1989	Megalographic – coined word meaning bigness
	Pink color jobs – jobs limited in advancement
	Globalization – viewed as new buzzword
	Ideology – a replacement for public relation s
	Academic affairs – knowledge and research areas of public relations
1990	
1991	Values issues – values that affect your organization
1992	
1993	Implications thinking – gauging impact
1994	Information highway – Internet
1995	Fourth Network – Fox news
	Superstations – those offering many choices
	Polarization – lack of social dialogue

1995	Electronic republic – virtual empowerment of public opinion
	Chat – converse with other computer users
	Hackers – other computer users
	Flamed – angry response from other computer users
1996	Personal touch
1997	Humane management
	Knowledge workers
	Leaders and learners – leaders defined by influence rather than position
	Two-way dialogue – the actual art of listening
	Congenital activists – character of public relations professionals
	Computer generation
	Human advantage – social responsibility
1998	Shareholders – all groups with a vested interest
	Stakeholders
	Spin doctor
	Spin
1999	Cultural difference reconciliation
	Global reach
	Branding
	Reputation management
	Virtual business
	PR mercenaries
	Chief Reputation Officers
	Marketing Darwinism
2000	International public relations firms – firms with offices around world
	Multinational clients – clients doing business globally
	Foreign multinationals–domestic companies wanting global PR services
	Dark sites – Websites ready for use in a crisis
	Seamless quality of service – consistent global service
2001	Multicultural diversity – celebration of differences
	Multicultural unity – shared values rather than differences
	Non-financial metrics
2002	Integrity – basis upon which public evaluates leadership
	Credibility – walking the talk
	Responsible century – century where social responsibility is success key
	Public relations – defined as corporate responsibility
	Communications capital – reputation for effective, honest communication
2003	Sustainable trust
	Core values
	Page principles

Concepts Presented

The most frequent concept presented in the 25 years of the Schranz Lectureship was defining public relations. No fewer than 17 lecturers discussed the topic during their speeches.

In the very first lecture in 1979, Block opined public relations was the most misunderstood function of institutional management. He went on to define public relations as "The integration of the CEO's and the communication arts specialist functions…."

The subject comes up seven times in the 1980's, mostly in the first half of the decade. Douglas Hearle discussed how to use the legacy of public relations in the next twenty years in his 1980 lecture and said public relations was a process, not a product. Gregg defined public relations as a two-way road in 1981. Lesly, in 1982, noted, "Public relations people are now visibly pivoted between the institutions we represent and the critics of our society." Jackson's commented in 1984 "The study of public relations is the study of human nature." Ferguson quoted a future Schranz lecturer in his 1987 comments. Referencing an address by Dilenschneider before the corporate section of PRSA, Ferguson said, "'Public relations isn't making slides; it isn't writing press releases; it isn't even dealing with media; it's problem solving.'" While Tolley didn't offer a definition of public relations per se, he did enjoin his 1988 audience to "Develop your own working definition of public relations – and then go make it work!" Budd said in 1989 "Public relations involves engagement in the moving of ideas."

The subject is not dealt with in depth in the 1990s until the later part of the decade. In his 1992 lecture, Seitel noted, "…understanding is the key to our profession." Barkelew noted in 1993 "Public relations is not a glory job." In 1994, Felton obliquely touches on a definition of public relations when he stated, "It is the understanding and acceptability of the message that helps to change, or alter or to modify behavior." Williams in 1996 defined public relations as "connections between people." Plank commented, "Public relations is a product and practice rooted in the genius of a democratic society" in her 1997 lecture. In 1998, Traverse-Healy said, "Public relations is a corporate mind-set based upon the precept that what people think and want matters

and that they have the right to respond to information." Chadlington in 1999 commented, "Public relations is continuous reputation management."

The only lecturer to address a definition of public relations after the turn of the century was Edelman in 2000. In his lecture, he said, "Public relations provides a bridge between a company and other institutions and their many audiences."

The second-most popular concept presented was what constituted excellence in public relations, with 15 of 25 lecturers tackling the subject. Edward Block made his oft-quoted pronouncement in the initial 1979 lecture that "Public Relations is 90 percent doing and 10 percent talking about it."

Six of the ten speakers in the 1980s discussed excellence in public relations, the first of whom was Burger in 1983. He commented that public relations activity or communications can't overcome what is inherently wrong and shouldn't try. He went on to say, "I am a great believer in reality and substance more than image and presentation." Jackson said in 1984, "The goal is not communication; the goal is behavior…the outcome we are seeking is to influence the hearts and minds of men and women so they behave in certain ways." King noted in 1985 that public relations "involves not what you say, but what you do." He went on to say, "Public relations has to do with actions, not words – with substance, not image." Tolley noted in his lecture in 1988, "Getting people to do what you want them to do is the 'what' of public relations." Tolley also said, "...few CEOs are interested in seeing how the communication machinery works…they are interested in getting the right message to the right audience in time to influence behavior and actions." He also observed, "We get people to do what we want them to do by ethical and legal means through systematic two-way communication between our enterprise and our audience." Budd commented on two excellence issues in his 1989 lecture. He said, "If you don't tell your story, others will with all the probabilities of disinformation." He also commented, "There is a difference between transmitting information and communicating."

All but two lecturers in the '90s addressed excellence issues. Howard led the way in 1990 when she said, "To be credible we have to demonstrate a solid understanding of the business and an appreciation for its problems." She also said, "We must resist doing well what should not have been done at all." Dilenscheider told his audience in 1991 to train their thinking so as to "identify specific values which are becoming part of and impending issue or event." He also said, "Values must be communicated. A company that is not aggressive about communicating its values – especially inside – is likely to lose them." Seitel observed in 1992, "Leadership is in short supply…the caliber of leadership throughout society is dreadful…the public relations profession today also suffers from a lack of leadership." He concluded his remarks by public relations practitioners should "have the courage and the confidence to take risks…to stick our necks out…to do what we know is right."

Barkelew warned in her comments in 1993, "If we continue to appeal to a mass market, we are missing everybody." She also observed, "Customers expect us, and you, to go the "extra mile." Felton's 1994 comments made reference to "the puzzle, the challenge and the excitement" of "searching" for "why" so few messages are heard…." He also noted, "Communication is not achieved without feedback to show the message was received, understood and acted upon properly." Alvarez in 1995 hit on the importance of enabling Americans to join in celebrating the diversity of our cultural system. He opined, "We should engage our skills in the cause of mutual cooperation." Traverse-Healy said in 1998, "Public relations performance will be critically examined and independently judged." In 1999, Chadlington noted, "Public relations performance must embrace change and globalization." None of the practitioners in the 21st Century addressed excellence specifically in their comments.

The right of public relations practitioners to have a "seat at the table" was touched on by almost half of the lecturer. The first to note. "Public relations should have a position at the center of corporate decision-making" was Hearle in 1980. Gregg, the next year, proclaimed, "Public relations has a role to play in the formulation of corporate policy. King noted in 1985, "Public relations today plays a leading role in the thinking, planning and actions of the very top officers of the modern corporation." Tolley was troubled about the concept of access in his 1988 speech, saying, "We're supposed to be the great persuaders but we haven't convinced the captains of industry that we belong at the helm with them."

Howard spent considerable time on our relationship with senior management in her 1990 lecture. She started her discussion of the subject by noting, "The public relations job [is] simultaneously a media and a management function." She stated unequivocally, "It is in our role as counselors to our CEO and others in senior management that we make our most significant contributions to our profession." She went on to say, "The evolution from communicator to counselor is so natural and so subtle that you may not be aware of the metamorphosis until it has occurred." Once our self-confidence as managers has been demonstrated, she continued, "we have evolved from communications technicians to play an important role in helping formulate

policy." She concluded her comments on the subject with two observations. "We must derive our authority from our ability and our convictions – not from our place on the organizational chart," she said. Her final comments were, "The right to offer candid counsel and expect confidence in our advice does not flow automatically. It must be earned."

In his 1991 comments, Dilenschneider stated, "Public relations professionals have as much claim to [steer the values agenda] as anyone. It fact, it is your job." Fraser Seitel in 1992 implored his audience that "if we in public relations want real respect from management in the years ahead, we will renounce timidity…and always ask the question, 'Why?'" Barkelew made three observations germane to the subject in her 1993 lecture. First, "In public relations, we can't be just something that's nice to have. We need to be necessary." Second, "The role of public relations at the table [is] to identify the issues, to respond to concerns, and to position the organization effectively to meet these challenges." Lastly, Barkelew noted, "The public relations function crosses all functions in an organization…." Betsy Plank remarked in her 1997 comments, "The public relations professional mandate is to be a part of that precious process of choice – informing, persuading, contributing to honesty, ethical debate and consensus."

Two lecturers in the 21st Century commented on the subject of practitioners' relationship with senior management. Daniel Edelman in 2000 said, "Public relations professionals counsel and recommend steps that should be taken to improve a company's public positions." Komisarjevsky in 2002 noted, "Public relations professionals are guardians of integrity."

The impact of public opinion was also mentioned in 11 of the 25 lectures. Block noted in 1979, "Public opinion always has the last word" and "No business can exist or succeed without public approval." He further defined "public acceptance [as] the degree to which business correctly anticipates public expectations and conforms behavior to the public interest." Hearle in 1980 observed, "There are informal systems of communications that speak just as loudly and just as effectively as traditional systems of communication." He also said, "What a company does is as loud a statement of its policies and practices as what it says in press releases or how well its products perform or its services product."

In his 1982 comments, Lesly noted, "The human climate is now a determining factor in the future of every organization, institution and nation." He further stated, "The consequences will often be determined by how people perceive the situation and how they respond to it." Burger observed, "Public opinion will always believe the worst about you unless you tell your side honestly, completely and speedily" in his 1983 speech. Patrick Jackson said in 1984, "The basic unit of human interaction is our perception." Two of James Tolley's "personal running rules," outlined in his 1988 lecture, have to do with public opinion. He told his audience to "work to gain public trust…by delivering on promises" and "speak out on issues that affect your business." The later advice was provided because "no going concern operates in a vacuum. External forces profoundly affect our ability to operate successfully," he said.

Felton discussed tracking attitudinal change in his 1994 presentation, focusing on nine characteristics; lifestyle, beliefs, work concept and how the generation felt about the future, job loyalty, leisure, consumer purchases, responsibility and education." "By plotting these characteristics vertically," Felton said, "it is possible to see how attitudes change by decades." In his 1995 lecture, Alvarez noted the net effect of mass media from the 1950s to the 1990s caused a "shift in the balance of power from the information provider to the information consumer." Plank commented in 1997 about the "continuum of change and growth" that public relations was on, "subject to the needs and trends of the economy, government, and society, to the problems and aspirations of society-at-large." According to Traverse-Healy, in his 1998 lecture, "A free flow of information aided by effective, honest communication is essential for dialogue." Wilks provided the final thoughts on the subject in his 2001 lecture, when he said, "Propaganda and opposing points of view are best refuted with openness in the open marketplace of ideas, rather than with efforts to control or censure information."

Values and ethics were discussed by six of the lecturers. The concept wasn't introduced until 1991, when Dilenschneider proclaimed "… [There are…seven] generic values that are coming to be very important…they are: identity, accountability, work, permanence, simplicity, confrontation, and arrogance." Seitel admonished his audience in 1992, saying, "Every time someone in public relations is accused of bending the truth – all of us in the practice suffer." He went on to say, "We…should affix ourselves to a higher standard. We should resist succumbing to the pandemic popularity of pandering, and of gossip, and of sleaze, that dominate today's communications business." In his 1996 comments, Williams noted, "A person's position in life should have absolutely nothing to do with how you treat them." Traverse-Healy said in 1998, "The world would be a better place if understanding and dialogue between individuals and in situations in conflict could be achieved." He also stated, "Public relations must possess three ingredients in equal measure: truth, concern for the public interest, and dialogue."

In 2002, Komisarjevsky took a more corporate view of the subject when he said, "The real measure of a corporation is whether it has organized itself to respond to social change." Willard Nielsen, in a similar vein, commented, "Long-term successful companies have clearly identified core competencies and values managed for sustainability despite changes in top management."

The last two concepts that revealed themselves in this analysis were a little surprising. In the popular press during this timeframe, there has been much discussion about public relations as a profession and an ongoing argument about whether public relations practitioners should be generalists or specialists. Interestingly, only four authors covered either topic in the course of the twenty-five years of the lectureship.

Three of the four lectures to include the concept of public relations as a profession occurred between 1986 and 1988. The first lecturer was Griswold in 1986. She commented first, "Public relations has a pervasive inferiority complex, which it doesn't deserve." But then she noted, "I am very sure we can establish ourselves as professionals, ethical professionals, and top performers, without licensing." Then, in 1987, Ferguson opined, "If public relations is to become a true profession, it is essential that mutual respect be developed between those who teach and those who practice public relations." He concluded that portion of his discussion by saying, "There is much to be done by educators and by practitioners alike if we are to have public relations move from a media-oriented craft to a full profession." In 1988, Tolley tackled the subject, noting three barriers to persuading captains of industry that public relations deserved a seat at the decision-making table. The first barrier he noted was "the fractured image of public relations." He said a second barrier was "confusion inside the profession about our mission and role." Lastly, he said, "Public relations lacks a single guiding or coalescing organization…PRSA has no authority over the practice of public relations." The concept is mentioned only one other time in the series and then only briefly. Barkelew, in 1993, observed, "Public relations truly is a profession…a working profession."

Similarly, Jackson first discussed the oft-debated generalist/specialist approach to public relations in 1984, where he framed the concept in terms of micro versus macro public relations. The concept is not discussed again until 1992, when Seitel states, "The old notions that people in public relations must be generalists, rather than specialists, simply won't cut it in the years ahead." Barkelew in 1993 is even more adamant. She stated, "The best public relations professionals come out of the public sector, where there seem to be more highly-skilled generalists." She continued, explaining, "Gaining a generalist background is essential to being a top-notch public relations professional today." The fourth lecturer to cover the concept is Plank in 1997, although her reference to the subject could well be considered too oblique for inclusion here. Nevertheless, she commented that public relations people must be external students. In the context of her other comments in the lecture, this was taken to mean taking a broad-based approach to the profession.

As this section evolved as a "catch all" for those ideas of importance not captured in the researchers' other categories of analysis, some of the concepts may seem repetitive. However, the researchers' felt confident that the ideas and concepts presented in this section were important enough to risk being duplicated here.

Summary and Conclusions

Summary

Key findings relating to change:

- Most defining events during the two and a half decades: end of Cold War and 9-11
- Most significant factors changing public relations performance and its needs:
  - Economic globalization
  - Global communication advancement
  - Global cultural collision
- Factors most impacting corporations, governments, and organizations
  - Complexity of reaching audiences due to communication advancements
  - Fracturing of values and isolation of audiences preventing dialogue
  - Increasing investor response to non-financial metrics
  - Growing impact of public opinion demanding corporate responsibility
  - Damage to employee relations of downsizing and restructuring
  - Loss of government ability to control communication, e-commerce, and money flow
  - New environmental laws requiring organizations to file "worst case scenarios"
  - Financial transparency and fair disclosure providing investors with information formerly available only to analysts
  - Rules and litigation (Sarbanes-Oxley Act) on corporate governance and tort liability litigation especially health care
  - Imperative commitment to equal opportunity
  - Erosion of public trust in CEOs and organization communication
- Media and communication changes
  - Adoption of "tabloid values"
  - Focus on personalities when global demand is for more, deeper, and better information
  - Technological influence changing delivery and creating new media

    - Media role in facilitating spin to achieve exclusives
    - Development of a common international news culture
    - Loss of credibility of mainstream media
    - Loss of power of networks
    - Social debate as to the right of the public to resources for public response
    - Information distribution without gatekeepers
- The Profession
    - Demand for specialization
    - Demand for 24 hour 7 day a week accessibility
    - Growth of field
    - Public ownership and consolidation of firms
    - Demand for greater senior level involvement and oversight of accounts
    - Influence of technology on performance
    - Application of public relations in marketing to reduce cost and increase communication effectiveness
    - Greater use of Websites
    - Increased crisis communication needs
    - Global expansion of profession
- Education
    - Advancements in development and quality

Key predictions

- Social System
    - Continued technological change
    - Continued public information overload
    - Global cultural change due to communication advancements
    - Global access to information resulting in greater social segmentation and proliferation of special interest group
    - Power shift from West to East
- The Profession
    - Best years for public relations are ahead
    - Higher salaries and seats at the executive level
    - Continued advancements for women
    - Increased specialization demands
    - Increased international opportunities
    - Additional consolidation of firms
- Corporations, Governments, and Organizations
    - Continued pressures to protect environment
    - Growing business competition
    - Policies challenged by social value debates
    - Demand for social responsibility
    - Full financial disclosure demands
    - Increased importance of corporate/CEO reputation
- Education
    - Emergence of a college of public relations

Ethical needs

- Strict adherence to ethical principles of honesty, accuracy, and openness
- Organizational performance based on behavior is greatest need
- Values based corporate cultures
- Codes of ethics for both the professional and organizational level
- End of employment when client motives are questionable

Performance needs

- Mandatory continuing education
- Specialization in knowledge and skills
    - Crisis preparation and response management
    - Special events
    - New communication technologies
    - Reconciliations of cultural differences/bridging of perceptional differences
    - Employee relations
    - Reputation management
    - New media
    - Consumer marketing
    - Public affairs
    - Government relations
    - Sports promotion
    - Financial and investor relations
- Ability to measure results
- High standards of professionalism
- Public opinion research and forecasting of social trends
- Research of economic environments
- Commitment to public responsibility

- Effective communication abilities without spin, hidden persuasion, or hype

Educational needs

- Increased management orientation
  - Strategic planning and problem solving
  - Budgeting
  - Economic trends
  - Management consulting training
- Increased behavioral understanding
- Ethics
- Knowledge of political and public policy processes
- Business and communication law
- Research and evaluation
- Communication
  - Adaptation of messages to diverse audience experiences and cultural backgrounds
  - Interpersonal communication
  - New technologies
  - Creativity
  - Strong written and presentation skills
- International knowledge
  - Ability to customize messages globally
  - Relationship building skills

Terminology introduced

Several observations can be made from the introduction of terminology. Public and corporate responsibility have remained issues throughout the 25 year period with the focus on creditability, values, and the achievement of sustainable trust increasing in importance in recent years. Globalization became the new buzzword in the late 80s. Polarization emerged as the result of the new communication technology allowing audiences to reinforce their own belief systems through their selection of communication.

The terms "spin," "spin doctor," and "branding" do not enter the terminology of professionals until the late 90s.

In the new century, the global influence on terms is clear as well as the influence of technology. Terms like "dark sites" appear and "seamless quality of service."

Concepts

Virtually all of the concepts identified in the lectures related to definitions of public relations, which may indicate the difficulty professionals, still have in finding a clear definition for communication to management. The key change appears to be the movement away from descriptions of what public relations attempts to do in terms of performance to what it accomplishes as behavior. Concepts also describe an increasing recognition of the relationship of public relations and ethical performance. There were no definitions describing public relations as integrated communication or issue management.

Conclusions

The vision and opinions of leading professionals provide an excellent roadmap of the changes and needs of the public relations profession, as is in the case of any professional group, differences of perspective exist. Yet when the opinions are examined collectively over a decade or longer period of time, the value of the Lectureship to students, educators and professionals becomes is clear. The periodic and continuing analysis has the potential of contributing to the development of public relations education and it reveals the distance that continues to exist in the thinking if educators and professionals. It is also interesting to note that while professionals recognize the need for continuing education and the increasing complexity of public relations performance, a clear recognition for the need for full industry support of public relations education is missing.

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Internal Validity of the Contingent Factors in Organization-Public Relationships

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It is clear that both public relations practitioners and journalists are influenced by factors of contingency such as external pressures, the business and industry environments as well as the complex nexus of socio-political and cultural factors. In addition, internal threats, the character of organizational structures plays a significant role that affects the character of their relationships between practitioners and journalists. Although organizational and institutional factors are considered more significant by practitioners than by journalists, this study explores the ways in which journalists are affected by organizational pressures similar to public relations professionals. This demonstrates that the perceived gulf between the two professions is indeed much narrower than generally conceived. Both practitioners and journalists work under a common set of conceptions or umbrella of organizations.

However, organizational and institutional factors are of no doubt important to journalists. This implies that both public relations practitioners and journalists work under the umbrella of organizations, and this is particularly for the case of practitioners.

Internal Validity of the Contingent Factors in Organization-Public Relationships*

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Abstract

This study examined the validity of the contingent factors to influence the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists as one instantiation of organization-public relationships. The contingent factors based on the contingency theory in public relations were combined to one category with high reliability (0.9490). Both public relations practitioners and journalists are influenced by all contingent factors such as social ideology, external pressure, industry environment, general political/social/cultural environment, external public, internal threats, organization characteristics, department characteristics, individual characteristics, etc. in the interaction with the other profession. Practitioners perceived organizational factors as influential to the relationships more than journalists. This implies that both public relations practitioners and journalists work under the umbrella of organizations, and this is particularly for the case of practitioners. This study is meaningful as an indicator of the internal validity of the contingent factors in organization-public relationships.

Introduction

The contingency theory elaborates the source-reporter relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists on a continuum from conflict to cooperation, with a degree of conflict in a given situation. It acknowledges the constraints to influence the relationship with mixed views on a continuum and gives a positive perspective of conflict under constraints associated with a number of factors. Both public relations practitioners and journalists who work under the umbrella of organizations are constrained by contingent factors such as such as social ideology, external pressure, industry environment, general political/social/cultural environment, external public, internal threats, organization characteristics, department characteristics, individual characteristics, etc. in their public relations and journalism activities.

This study is based on the contingency that the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists depends on the degree of conflict in a given situation. The relationship between an organization and media, which can be represented by the relationship of public relations practitioners and journalists, has been identified as asymmetrical relationship among some public relations scholars but not a static case of press agentry, public information or asymmetrical status (Shin, 2003). The love-hate relationship has long been a topic of much interest in the studies in the mass communication literature. The relationship between practitioners and journalists is an endless "dance," in which practitioners try to manage the news and journalists try to manage the sources in different direction for their needs (Fishman, 1980; Gandy, 1982; Gans, 1979; Rosten, 1937; Sigal, 1973).

To fulfill their strategic objectives, practitioners try to influence the news-making process by subsidizing information. Practitioners have played the role of source, providing information subsidies to journalists to influence the media agenda, or at least to get favorable publicity, and journalists have played a role of reporter, depending on public relations for news information and setting the media agenda. Although practitioners serve as one of the most influential sources of news, and they are comfortable with their self-serving motive for their advocacy role, journalists mistrust the power that public relations plays in the flow of information because they realize their role as defenders of the public's right to know (Aronoff, 1976; Belz, Talbott & Stark, 1989; Berkowitz, 1993; Cameron, Sallot & Curtin, 1997; Cutlip, 1962; Kopenhaver, 1985; Pincus, Rimmer, Rayfield & Cropp, 1993; Ryan & Martinson, 1984; Sallot, Steinfatt & Salwen, 1998; Shin & Cameron, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c; Shoemaker & Reese, 1991).

The underlying persistent premises have been that public relations practitioners and journalists disagree, view the news process and each other differently, and inaccurately predict the views and perceptions of the other party in the source-reporter relationship. Based on the perceived difference of public relations practitioners and journalists and the contingency of the source-reporter relationship, this study examined the conflicts rooted in different roles, values, attitudes and views of two professions. The mutual assessment of two professions toward each other can explain the perceived conflict.

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Literature Review

The Contingency Theory in public relations

Grunig and Hunt (1984) identified public relations as the management function between an organization and its publics. They proposed the four stage models of public relations' evolution to represent the public relations field and discipline. Grunig (1984, 1989) conceptualized: (1) press agentry/publicity model or one-way asymmetric, where the goal is to generate propaganda that receives media attention; (2) public information model or one-way symmetric model, which is described as employing "journalist-in-residence to provide truthful and accurate information about an organization but not to volunteer negative information"; (3) two-way asymmetrical model uses scientific research-based persuasion to create messages likely to change a public's behavior without the organization's changing; and (4) two-way symmetrical model of public relations uses "bargaining, negotiating and conflict resolution strategies to bring symbiotic changes in the ideas, attitudes and behaviors of both the organization and its publics" (p. 29).

According to Grunig (1992), the four models are contrasted on two orthogonal dimensions: one-way or two-way, and asymmetry or symmetry. One-way or two-way depends on whether or not the perspectives of both parties are represented in dialogue. Two-way communication, dialogical message exchange systems, differs in form, content and purpose from one-way communication. And the notion of "asymmetric" or "symmetric" comes from Thayer's (1968) concepts of synchronic and diachronic communication to describe two approaches to behavior of an organization with behavior of its public. The purpose of synchronic communication is for the organization to seek to continue to behave in the way it wants to without interference. The purpose of diachronic communication is to negotiate a state of affairs that benefits both the organization and its publics. Grunig (1984) replace these terms with "asymmetrical" and "symmetrical" to describe the purpose of public relations as striving for balanced rather than unbalanced communication in its effects. Both the dimensions sought by public relations and the means used in attaining such ends have been assessed in the four models.

Based on the dimensions, both press agentry and public information models represent one-way approaches to public relations, attempting to disseminate information from an organization to its public, usually through the media. Press agentry, public information and two-asymmetrical models represent asymmetric approaches to public relations that attempt to change the behavior of the public without changing the behavior of the organization. Two-way symmetrical models propose that both an organization and its public can be persuaded or can decide to change at least some of their behaviors as part of a symmetrical communication process (Grunig, 1989, 1992).

Developing the idea of two-way symmetrical public relations, many scholars have reconceptualized the two-way symmetrical and one-way asymmetrical models in public relations (Cancel, Cameron, Sallot & Mitrook, 1997; Cameron, Cropp & Reber, 2001; Plowman, 1998). Hellweg (1989) suggested that the notions of two-way symmetrical and one-way asymmetrical depend heavily on one's perspective, which varies on a continuum. Murphy (1991) proposed the mixed motive view from conflict to cooperation. Leichty (1997) discussed the limits of collaboration, that is, collaborative public relations is unfeasible in some situations. Public relations activities practically involve asymmetric or win-lose situations. The individual public relations practitioners' lack of power within an organization increases the limitation of collaboration. Murphy (2000) explored the complexity in public relations by introducing the concept of power and accommodation to "uncontrollable" public relations.

Cameron and his associates have developed the continuum of organization-public relationship from pure advocacy to pure accommodation. Advocacy, as a core concept of public relations, is identified as "the act of publicly representing an individual, organization or idea with the object of persuading targeted audiences to look favorably on the individual, organization or idea (Edgett, 2002, p. 1). Accommodation is defined as some degree of willingness to accept the other party's stance. Accommodation, as a key element of two-way symmetrical communication, may not be inherently ethical (Cameron, 1997). Cancel, Cameron, Sallot and Mitrook (1997) stated that the notion of advocacy and accommodation on a continuum "represents an organization's possible wide range of stances taken toward an individual public … True excellence in public relations may result from picking the appropriate point along the continuum that best fits the current need of the organization and its publics" (p. 187). The organization-public relationship can be neither symmetrical or asymmetrical, but indicate mixed motives, in which "each side retains a strong sense of its own interests, yet each is motivated to cooperate in a limited fashion in order to attain, at least, some resolution of the conflict" (Murphy 1991, p. 125). Cancel, Cameron, Sallot and Mitrook (1997) suggested that "the practice of public relations is too complex, too fluid and impinged by far too many variables." Public relations may behave "symmetrically in one situation and asymmetrically in another situation involving the same public" (p. 17).

The contingent factors meld concepts from conflict literature with continuous variable orientation to trace the stances of an organization and its public. The contingent factors affect the stance of an organization in its attempt to practice "excellent" public relations and whether more advocacy or more accommodation will be effective in achieving departmental and organizational objectives in the short- and long-term. Cameron et al. (2001) characterized 86 factors into 11 categories, i.e., threats, industry environment, political/social/cultural environment, external publics, issue under questions, organization's characteristics, PR department characteristics, internal threats, individual characteristics and relationship characteristics, and into two dimensions, i.e., external factors and internal factors. The factors are arrayed into internal and external categories that affect the degree of accommodation public relations professionals may adopt in dealing with a specific issue and a particular public at a given point in time.

At any given time, the organization-public relationship can be illuminated as dynamic process. At a certain point, the organization-public relationship can be almost symmetrical or asymmetrical, but seldom remains static. Public relations professionals may behave symmetrically in one situation and asymmetrically in another situation involving the same public. Also, public relations professionals may try to behave symmetrically involving a public, and accordingly, may behave asymmetrically involving another public in one situation. Public relations is a process where an organization and/or its public may prompt changes in stance and strategy toward each other (Shin & Cameron, 2002). According to Shin and Cameron, even the relationship between an organization and media, which can be represented by the relationship of public relations professionals and journalists, is not a static case of press agentry, public information or asymmetrical status, but moves on a continuum from pure advocacy to pure accommodation.

Perceived differences of PR practitioners and journalists

The organization-public relationship has been historically grounded in a journalistic approach, and initially the field was concerned almost exclusively on generating publicity through the use of press agentry (Dozier, Grunig & Grunig, 1995). Media, as one of the key publics, seek information sources and become more focused and strategic when seeking information needed to develop useful problematic issues or useful opinions. Media play a central role in public relations as channels of communication between an organization and its key publics or "gatekeepers controlling the information that flows to other publics in a social system" (Grunig & Hunt, 1984, p. 223). While both the media and sources need each other to effectively function in the news information process, there is inherent conflict in their interaction with public relations sources.

Journalists who work for media, have traditionally held suspicious or negative views of the influence of public relations and practitioners and diminished the source credibility. Although both practitioners and journalists recognize the contribution made by public relations in the news process, journalists are always skeptical of the information provided by, and intentions of practitioners. Journalists foster the myth that practitioners are advocating and creating the conflict in the relationships with themselves in the news process (Arnoff, 1976; Belz, Talbott & Stark, 1989; Berkowitz, 1993; Cutlip, 1962; Kopenhaver, 1985; Sallot, 1990; Sallot, Steinfatt & Salwen, 1998; Shin & Cameron, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c; Pincus, Rimmer, Rayfield & Cropp, 1993; Ryan & Martinson, 1984).

The perceptions and cross-perceptions of public relations practitioners and journalists have long been studied. Most previous studies show that the conflict between two professions involves their perceptual discrepancy more than what the reality is. Journalists assess practitioners as low in source power in spite of the influence of public relations on the news. They corroborate the existence of misunderstanding, discord and perceptual difference as a source of conflict. Journalists suggested negative perceptions of public relations and the practitioners related to an advocacy role inherent in the function of source, based on their motivation for objectivity.

Chaffee-McLeod's coorientation model was found effective to identify nuances in the difference between practitioners and journalists and especially journalists' orientation toward to discrepancies. Ryan and Martinson (1984) found journalists inaccurately perceived the news values of practitioners. Kopenhaver (1985) also suggested that journalists were not quite accurate in predicting practitioners' perceptions. Sallot, Steinfatt and Salwen (1998) found that journalists reported a greater lack of perceived similarity. Stegall and Sanders (1986) replicated the perceptual difference and corroborated the findings.

Journalists consistently showed a tendency to bring about the differences with public relations professionals and drive for conflict with public relations practitioners by perceiving practitioners negatively. Turk (1986) found that journalists suggested their concern with the credibility of public relations sources of information by reporting their preference to use information they gather on their own. Similarly, Pincus, Rimmer, Rayfield and Cropp (1993) found that journalists tend to believe in the anatomy of their news selection process. These studies suggest that journalists do not view practitioners as serious sources because their motivations are self-serving,

which increases the perceived difference between two professions and the negative perception of public relations.

Coorientational approach to relationships

This study used the coorientational model to analyze the perceptions and cross- perceptions of public relations practitioners and journalists regarding the influence of the contingent factors on public relations and journalism activities. Coorientational analysis (Chaffee & McLeod, 1968; Chaffee, McLeod & Guerrero, 1969; Heider, 1958; McLeod & Chaffee, 1973; Newcomb, 1953) is a set of useful determinants to measure whether two groups are consensual or conflicting regarding given topics. The coorientation model permits the comparison of attitudes toward an object among two or more groups of people, and the projections of estimations of the other's perceptions are useful determinants to measure whether two groups are conflicting or not.

The coorientational analysis may give an opportunity to bring the two parties into better understanding of the other to see if there is pluralistic ignorance, false consensus, or some combination of the conditions between the two professions. The theoretical basis of the coorientational approach is the simultaneous inclusion, which shows the relationships between three elements of agreement, congruency and accuracy; (1) agreement is the comparison of the two professional groups' self-evaluation; (2) congruency is the comparison between one group's self-evaluation and their prediction of the other group; and (3) accuracy is the determination of the gap between one group's prediction of the other group and the other group's actual value.

A theoretical base of simultaneous orientation suggests that projections of estimations of the other's perceptions are useful to determine their relational dimensions. It seems likely that the dynamics of "a system of relations" bring about an adequate understanding of its properties at a given moment and prediction of both the likelihood of occurrence of a given act of communication at a certain point. Laing (1967) argued that a person's communicative behavior is determined by the person's perception of his or her relationship with the other person. Laing suggested the projections of estimations of others' perceptions determine whether there is consensus or conflict. Scheff (1976) also noted, "The agreement definition of consensus makes no provision for perceptions of agreement, which may be independent of actual agreement, and affect behavior." The simple agreement between subjects may be affected by perceptual agreement of consensus within subjects, that is, false consensus or false dissensus could affect the real agreement.

Disagreement occurs when the parties hold different views and they are aware of their differences. A false consensus exists when both groups believe that they agree on a particular issue. Conversely, the sate also exists if both believe that they disagree on an issue when in fact they do not. The false dissensus status also exists when both groups believe that they disagree more than the fact they do not agree. McLeod and Chaffee (1973) suggested, "when consensus is equated with simple agreement, there can be situations where people behave as though they agree, although in fact they do not; or conversely, situations where they in fact agree, but act as though they do not" (p. 471).

Understanding of coorientation and perception is essential to achieve an understanding of the source-reporter relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists. Gudkunst (1988) indicated that this sort of understanding is important in a working relationship and is affected by how strongly one identifies with his or her group – in this case, public relations practitioners and journalists. Since perceptions can direct communicative behaviors or relationships, the perceived conflict can be a source of the conflictual relationship between two professional groups.

Hypotheses

The contingency scale based on contingent factors (Cameron, 1997; Cameron, Cropp & Reber, 2001) is used to see the differences within subjects of public relations practitioners or journalists may be mixed with the differences between subjects of the two professions. Based on the previous studies (Kopenhaver, 1985; Ryan & Martinson, 1984; Sallot, Steinfatt & Salwen, 1998; Shin & Cameron, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c), it is supposed that public relations practitioners and journalists may exhibit different attitudes toward the influence of contingent factors. It is predicted that public relations practitioners and journalists disagree with each other, and practitioners make a bigger false consensus than journalists while journalists showed greater perceived gap with journalistic concern and inaccurately perceived practitioners' views more than the converse. The previous studies have shown that journalists perceived the relationship with practitioners as slightly cooperative whereas practitioners saw journalists as much more so.

To test hypotheses, perceptual differences of the two professions were identified in agreement, congruency and accuracy. H1 examined the agreement between public relations practitioners' self-evaluation and journalists' self-evaluation. H2 tested the difference between public relations practitioners' congruency (comparison between public relations practitioners' self-evaluation and practitioners' prediction of journalists)

and journalists' congruency (comparison between journalists' self-evaluation and journalists' prediction of practitioners) in the perceived conflict in the source-reporter relationship. H3 analyzed the difference between public relations practitioners' accuracy (comparison between public relations practitioners' prediction of journalists and journalists' self-evaluation) and journalists' accuracy (comparison between journalists' prediction of public relations practitioners and practitioners' self-evaluation). The set of hypotheses regarding the perceived conflicts in agreement, congruency and accuracy are:

- H_1: Practitioners will perceive organizational factors influential to the relationship, whereas journalists will perceive societal factors influential to the relationship.
- H_2: Practitioners will assess the journalists' evaluation of source-reporter relationships with greater congruency to their own than the converse.
- H_3: Practitioners will predict the journalists' actual value of the relationship more accurately than the converse.

Method

This study employed a "Web survey," one of electronic surveys used commonly by researchers (Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000). Because most public relations practitioners and journalists use the Web or the Internet for their public relations practice (Davenport, Fico & Weinstock, 1996; Garrison, 2000; Middleburg & Ross, 2000) or journalism activities (Marlow, 1996; O'Keefe, 1997; Ryan, 1999), the Web survey was expected to be effective to approach both public relations practitioners and journalists to ask them to participate in this survey.

A random sample of 1,000 public relations practitioners, with a margin of error of 1%, was randomly drawn from Public Relations Society of America member's directory (2002), and a sample of 1,000 journalists, with a margin of error of 1%, was randomly selected from CornerBarPR journalist's database (2002). The sampling frame based on PRSA members and ConerBarPR journalists' members is selected in that each includes a large pool of nationwide professional roster.

The questions assessed the contingency of the relationship between two professions. The contingent variables were mostly drawn from the Contingency Scale (Cameron, 1997; Cameron, Cropp & Reber, 2001, 2002). Some variables, i.e., routine activities, resources and crisis, were added to the contingent variables from the Hierarchical Model of the Influence on Media Content, which may involve the source-reporter relationship (Davis, 2000; Gandy, 1982; Shomaker & Reese, 1991).

All of these items were measured by means of 7 point Likert scale. Respondents were asked to use a 1 to 7 scale to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree that each item regarding the perceived conflict with the other profession, where 1 is strongly disagree or not influential, and 7 is strongly agree or very influential. A survey question for each variable asked respondents to assess the degree of two measures of simultaneous orientation of self-evaluation and the prediction of the other's evaluation.

All the items of the survey instrument was based on the contingency theory and previous studies regarding the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists. The questionnaire was first made with itemized questions from concepts or scales which commonly and semantically appear in the conflict or conflict resolution literature. Then, the questionnaire was developed through reflection of experts' comments in the fields and pilot-testing among public relations practitioners and journalists with decades of experience in the area.

The questionnaire was delivered to the nationwide public relations professionals and journalists by email, with follow-up emails to collect completed surveys in March 2003. Of the 1,000 public relations professionals and 1,000 journalists, the survey yielded 641 total usable responses for a 31 percent response rate. Of the 641 professionals participating in the survey, 46 percent were public relations practitioners (N=294), and 54 percent were journalists (N=347). About a third of the respondents were aged 40-49 (N=205), and another third was aged 30-39 (N=173), with the remainder being 50-59 (N=137) or 20-99 (N=87). About a half of the respondents were male (N=337). Some 58.3 percent of the professionals possessed bachelor degrees (N=374), with 32 percent having a master's degree (N=205).

This study first conducted factor analysis to see the commonalities among items and to apply factors to the main analysis. Factor analysis is commonly used to study the patterns of relationship among many dependent variables and to classify new factors into exclusive categories or levels for the further analysis (Williams, 1992). After the factor analysis, multivariate tests were conducted in variables and the factors among the subjects between and within groups as a main analysis. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), "multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) … emphasizes the mean differences and statistical significance of differences among groups" (p. 322). The advantage of multivariate analysis is that it analyze variance as well as mean differences among groups.

Results

This study developed the contingency scale to measure the perceptual differences of public relations practitioners and journalists. Both professions revealed the significant differences. Public relations practitioners saw little similarity with journalists and inaccurately predicted the journalists' views on the conflict of the source-reporter relationship. This is the same case for journalists for their pluralistic ignorance, false consensus or misunderstanding by overestimations or underestimations of practitioners, although journalists showed false consensus more than practitioners and inaccurately predicted practitioners' views more than the converse. This seems to be contradictory to the previous studies, but considering the journalistic tendency toward the conflict with practitioners, it can be interpreted to support the previous findings. The contingency factors as a whole appear to be a useful gauge to address the relationship between an organization and its publics.

Contingency scale

Data reduction, with the variables from the Contingent Theory, two elements from the Hierarchical Model and one element of crisis, constructed only one factor. Since only one component was extracted from varimax, direct oblimin or other solutions, they cannot be rotated. The scree plot dramatically indicated a break between factor one and two, and inspection of total variance also explained, provided noticeable variation between factor one and two.

Factor one represents the contingency continuum which included factors to influence the organization-public relationship, the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists for this study, on a continuum from pure advocacy to pure accommodation, i.e., Social Ideology, External Pressure, Industry Environment, General Political/Social/Cultural Environment, External Public, Internal Threats, Organization Characteristics, Department Characteristics, Individual Characteristics, Routine Activities, Resources and Crisis. The Contingency Factor has a high reliability of 0.9490. It is remarkable that the contingent variables were grouped as one factor to suggest the continuum in the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists as one of organization-public relationships (see Table 1).

Application of the contingency scale

Tables 2 through 10 present multiple comparisons among the four groups between and within subjects of public relations practitioners and journalists in 14 items of the contingent variables to influence the source-reporter relationship. The multiple comparisons between and within subjects of public relations practitioners and journalists were shown with 14 items and one factor extracted from 14 items.

Overall, they revealed that the significant differences among the four groups in the contingent variables. Public relations practitioners evaluated the contingent variables or the factor to influence the relationship differently from journalists. They saw distinction with journalists and inaccurately predicted journalists' views on the contingent variable. This is the same case for journalists for their pluralistic ignorance, false consensus or inaccurate prediction of practitioners' view on the contingent variables.

Public relations practitioners and journalists disagree in two items of Individual Characteristics, Resources do not appear to be significant. Journalists do not view practitioners as different from themselves regarding the contingent variables to influence the source-reporter relationship, i.e., General Political/Cultural/Social Environment, Individual Characteristics, Relational Characteristics, Resources and Crisis. Practitioners showed a consensus with journalists regarding the contingent variables, i.e., Individual Characteristics, Routine Activities and Crisis. Journalists also made a false consensus in the contingent variables of External Pressure, Industry Environment, Internal Threats, Organization Characteristics, Department Characteristics, Top Management Characteristics, Routine Activities and Resources. However, practitioners accurately predicted the contingent variables journalists would perceive as influential in all variables except Individual Characteristics and Resources. Also, journalists accurately predicted the contingent variables practitioners would perceive as influential, except Social Ideology, General Political/Cultural/Social Environment, External Public, Individual Characteristics, Relational Characteristics and Crisis.

In agreement, public relations practitioners and journalists showed the significant differences in almost all items or factors. The multiple comparisons among practitioners and journalists in 14 items and one factor showed that the two professional groups disagree with each other in what variables are influential to their relationship. Public relations practitioners have a tendency to assess the contingent variables more influential to the source-reporter relationship than journalists assess. Practitioners may perceive the contingency impact on the source-reporter relationship greater than journalists. Therefore, H_1 is supported.

The second hypothesis was that practitioners perceived the journalists' evaluation of the source-reporter relationship as more congruent to their own than the converse. Each profession saw much difference between self-evaluation and the prediction of the other regarding the contingent variables. Practitioners believed that they are constrained by the contingent variables more than journalist in the source-reporter relationship,

whereas journalists showed more similarity with practitioners by suggesting that practitioners as well as themselves, as constrained by the contingent variables. It is interesting that journalists view organizational or internal variables as more influential to public relations practitioners. Therefore, H_2 is rejected.

Table 4 presents the public relations practitioners' congruency in the Contingency Factor. The difference between public relations practitioners' self-evaluation and practitioners' prediction of journalists was found significant in the Contingency Factor. This supports the finings from item-by-item comparisons within-subject of public relations practitioners.

Table 5 specifically presents the congruency of public relations practitioners in 14 items of the contingent variables. The difference between public relations practitioners' self-evaluation and practitioners' prediction of journalists showed a significant difference in all items. PR practitioners do not view similarity between themselves and journalists in the contingent variables. According to the mean differences, practitioners believe they are more constrained by the 14 contingent variables than journalists in the source-reporter relationship.

Table 6 presents the journalists' congruency in the Contingency Factor on the source-reporter relationship. The difference between journalists' self-evaluation and journalists' prediction of public relations practitioners was found significant whether it is a degree of matter. Although journalists saw similarity with practitioners regarding the contingent variables or the factor more than practitioners, they also acknowledged that external or social variables are influential to their relationship differently from practitioners constrained more by organizational or internal variables.

Table 7 specifically presents the congruency of journalists in 14 items of the contingency variables. The difference between journalists' self-evaluation and journalists' prediction of public relations practitioners showed a significant difference in the items, i.e., Social Ideology, External Pressure, Industry Environment, External Public, Internal Threats, Organization Characteristics, Department Characteristics and Top Management Characteristics. They saw little difference between themselves and practitioners. Interestingly, journalists viewed external or social variables, i.e., Social Ideology, External Pressure, Industry Environment, beyond organizational boundary or individual characteristics as more influential to the source-reporter relationship than public relations practitioners, while they acknowledged that practitioners are constrained by organizational or internal variables.

The multiple comparisons among public relations practitioners and journalists showed that both practitioners and journalists inaccurately predicted the other regarding the contingency variables to influence the source-reporter relationship between practitioners and journalists. Practitioners accurately predicted journalists' perception of the contingent variables as influential to the source-reporter relationship, although they underestimated journalists' perception regarding the impact of the contingent variables on the relationship. Interestingly, journalists underestimated practitioners' values on the contingent variables influential to the source-reporter relationship between two professions while they accurately predicted practitioners' perception of the impact of organizational variables on the relationship. Therefore, hypothesis H_3 is supported.

Table 8 presents the public relations practitioners' accuracy in the impact of the Contingency Factor on the source-reporter relationship. The difference between public relations practitioners' prediction of journalists and the actual view of journalists was not found significant. This supports the item-by-item comparisons between public relations practitioners' prediction of journalists and the actual view of journalists. Practitioners accurately assessed the journalists' view of the influence of the Contingency Factor on the source-reporter relationship.

Table 9 specifically presents the accuracy of public relations practitioners in 14 items of the contingent variables. Practitioners inaccurately predicted journalists' perceptions regarding the impact of variables, i.e., Individual Characteristics, Resources, by underestimation of journalists' value. Practitioners may misunderstand that journalists may be not influenced by those variables relevant to the organizational or internal level of variables. However, practitioners accurately predicted journalists' perception of external or societal level of variables as influential to the source-reporter relationship, i.e. Social Ideology, External Pressure, Industry Environment, General Political/Cultural/Social environment, External Public, Internal Threats, Organization Characteristics, Department Characteristics, Top Management Characteristics, Relational Characteristics, Routine Activities and crisis, in a way that they overall underestimated journalists' perceptions of external variables.

Table 10 presents the journalists' accuracy in the impact of the Contingency Factor on the source-reporter relationship. The difference between journalists' prediction of public relations practitioners and the actual view of practitioners was not found significant. Journalists overall showed understanding of practitioners' perception regarding the impact of the Contingency Factor on the source-reporter relationship.

Table 11 specifically presents the accuracy of journalists in 14 items of the contingent variables. Journalists inaccurately predicted the practitioners' perceptions regarding the impact of variables, i.e., Social Ideology,

General Political/Cultural/Social Environment, External Public, Individual Characteristics, Relational Characteristics and Crisis. Journalists may misunderstand that practitioners may be influenced by those variables relevant to the organizational level of variables rather than societal level of variables. However, journalists accurately predicted practitioners' perception of organizational variables as influential to the source-reporter relationship, i.e., External Pressure, Industry Environment, Internal Threats, Organization Characteristics, Department Characteristics, Top Management Characteristics, Routine Activities and Resources, in a way that they overall underestimated practitioners' perceptions of those variables.

Discussion

This study examined the internal validity of the contingent factors as one of the propositions of the contingency theory in public relations. The contingent factors appear to be valid and reliable to examine a system of relations. The relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists are affected by a number of contingent factors. The perceptual gaps between the two professions are mixed with the perceptual differences within each professional in the contingent factors.

The professional groups essentially showed the perceived difference in the conflict in measures of agreement, congruency and accuracy. And the perceptual distances among agreement, accuracy and congruency as well as agreement, accuracy and congruency itself, provide a basis of the perceived conflict of the two professions. The dynamics of "a system of relations" of agreement, congruency and accuracy simultaneously explicated how their perceptual discrepancies are mixed within and between subjects of the two professions. Both professional groups revealed pluralistic ignorance of the other party by disagreement, false consensus and misunderstanding by underestimation or overestimation. This is apparently related to a bi-level status, which may be a strategic approach to the relationship. This may be due to a belief that journalists serve the public and to expectations for practitioners to function as organizational advocate. Regardless of what it should be in professional orientation, both professions may benefit from their status and the projection from the other profession, and this may be particularly the case for journalists.

The contingent factors combine to add ideas to the mixed views of the source-reporter relationship on a continuum from pure advocacy to pure accommodation. Practitioners perceived the impact of the contingent variables on the relationship with journalists, and particularly sensed organizational factors as more influential than individual or societal factors. It implies that public relations is an organizational function on the boundary of the organization while journalists tend to stress the social level of factors as a judge of the truth of information or the defender for the public's right to know. The importance of organizational factors in the public relations practice may be related to the relationship-building function of public relations practitioners.

The findings here suggest the practical and managerial implications to both public relations practitioners and journalists by suggesting how the source-reporter relationship is illuminated in a perspective of contingency. Both public relations practitioners and journalists are very strategic in their perceptual orientations toward the conflict. Journalists tend to be conflict-oriented while public relations practitioners are likely to be posited in a different direction. Public relations practitioners and journalists should understand that they are affected by a number of factors in the source-reporter relationship. Journalists as well as public relations practitioners should realize that public relations activities and journalism practice are affected by a number of factors, and particularly organizational factors, and they work under the umbrella of organizations.

Overall, the contingency scale was developed to gauge a system of differences in organization-public relationships. This study suggests the variance of the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists as one instantiation of organization-public relationships and the usefulness of the contingency scale to measure the variance of organization-public relationships. It is a useful indicator to measure organization-public relationships based on its internal validity. Further studies are needed to test the scale in public relations.

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Table 1: Contingency Factor

Factor		Item	Reliability
Factor1	Contingency Factor	Social Ideology, e.g., norms etc.	0.9490
		External Pressure, e.g., litigation, regulation, etc.	
		Industry Environment, e.g., competition, etc.	
		General Political/Social/Cultural Environment	
		External Public, e.g., community, activists, etc.	
		Internal Threats, e.g., economic loss or gain, employees' perceptions, etc.	
		Organization Characteristics	
		Department Characteristics	
		Individual Characteristics, e.g., dependency, trust, etc.	
		Routine Activities	
		Resources, e.g., time, budget, etc.	
		Crisis, e.g., uncertain situations, etc.	

Table 2: The Agreement of PR Practitioners and Journalists in the Contingency Factor (N= 641)

Contingency Factor		Agreement		
		PRS Mean (Std.)	JOURS Mean (Std.)	Sig.
Factor 1	Contingency Factor	5.58 (1.09)	4.66 (1.18)	0.000* *

Notes: Agreement: Comparison between PRS and JOURS
PRS: PR Practitioners' Self-Evaluation; JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Table 3: The Agreement of PR Practitioners and Journalists in the Contingent Items (N=641)

Contingent Items		Agreement		
		PRS Mean (Std.)	JOURS Mean (Std.)	Sig.
External	Social Ideology, e.g., norms, etc.	5.25 (1.48)	4.48 (1.62)	0.001**
External	External Pressure, e.g., litigation, regulation, etc.	5.92 (1.27)	4.20 (1.91)	0.000**
External	Industry Environment, e.g., competition, etc.	5.83 (1.32)	5.11 (1.68)	0.001**
External	General Political/Cultural/Social Environment	5.58 (1.25)	4.37 (1.65)	0.000**
External	External Public, e.g., community, activists, etc.	5.61 (1.43)	4.01 (1.70)	0.000**
Internal	Internal Threats, e.g., economic loss or gain, employees' perceptions.	5.54 (1.56)	3.86 (1.80)	0.000**
Internal	Organization Characteristics	5.66 (1.33)	4.64 (1.71)	0.000**
Internal	Department Characteristics	5.19 (1.55)	4.48 (1.61)	0.001**
Internal	Top Management Characteristics	5.74 (1.48)	4.48 (1.78)	0.000**
Internal	Individual Characteristics	5.73 (1.44)	5.30 (1.64)	0.159
Internal	Relational Characteristics, e.g., dependency, trust, etc.	5.79 (1.38)	5.03 (1.75)	0.001**
Hierarchical	Routine Activities	4.77 (1.63)	4.18 (1.46)	0.009**
Hierarchical	Resources, e.g., time, budget, etc.	5.71 (1.40)	5.35 (1.60)	0.352
Situational	Crisis, e.g., uncertain situations, etc.	6.00 (1.31)	5.20 (1.69)	0.000**

Notes: Agreement: Comparison between PRS and JOURS
PRS: PR Practitioners' Self-Evaluation; JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Table 4: The Congruency of PR Practitioners in the Contingency Factor (N=641)

Contingency Factor		PR_Congruency		
		PRS Mean (Std.)	PRE Mean (Std.)	Sig.
Factor 1	Contingency Factor	5.58 (1.09)	4.48 (1.69)	0.000**

Notes: PR_Congruency: Comparison between PRS and PRE
PRS: PR Practitioners' Self-Evaluation; PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Table 5: The Congruency of PR Practitioners in the Contingent Items (N=641)

Contingent Items		PR_Congruency		
		PRS	PRE	Sig.
		Mean (Std.)	Mean (Std.)	
External	Social Ideology, e.g., norms, etc.	5.25 (1.48)	4.56 (1.97)	0.002**
External	External Pressure, e.g., litigation, regulation, etc.	5.92 (1.27)	4.52 (2.03)	0.000**
External	Industry Environment, e.g., competition, etc.	5.83 (1.32)	4.70 (2.10)	0.000**
External	General Political/Cultural/Social Environment	5.58 (1.25)	4.74 (2.00)	0.000**
External	External Public, e.g., community, activists, etc.	5.61 (1.43)	4.50 (1.98)	0.000**
Internal	Internal Threats, e.g., economic loss or gain, employees' perceptions, etc.	5.54 (1.56)	4.14 (1.88)	0.000**
Internal	Organization Characteristics	5.66 (1.33)	4.48 (1.90)	0.000**
Internal	Department Characteristics	5.19 (1.55)	4.04 (1.90)	0.000**
Internal	Top Management Characteristics	5.74 (1.48)	4.54 (2.02)	0.000**
Internal	Individual Characteristics	5.73 (1.44)	4.58 (2.05)	0.000**
Internal	Relational characteristics, e.g., dependency, trust, etc.	5.79 (1.38)	4.62 (1.93)	0.000**
Hierarchical	Routine Activities	4.77 (1.63)	3.82 (1.75)	0.000**
Hierarchical	Resources, e.g., time, budget, etc.	5.71 (1.40)	4.60 (1.95)	0.000**
Situational	Crisis, e.g., uncertain situations, etc.	6.00 (1.31)	4.96 (2.13)	0.000**

Notes: PR_Congruency: Comparison between PRS and PRE
PRS: PR Practitioners' Self-Evaluation; PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists
*p <0.05; **p <0.01

Table 6: The Congruency of Journalists in the Contingency Factor (N=641)

Contingent Factor		JOUR_Congruency		
		JOURS Mean (Std.)	JOURE Mean (Std.)	Sig.
Factor 1	Contingency Factor	4.66 (1.18)	5.20 (1.16)	0.011*

Notes: JOUR_Congruency: Comparison between JOURS and JOURE
JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation; JOURE: Journalists' Prediction of PR Practitioners
* p <0.05; **p <0.01

Table 7: The Congruency of Journalists in the Contingent Items (N=641)

Contingent Items		JOUR_Congruency		
		JOURS Mean (Std.)	JOURE Mean (Std.)	Sig.
External	Social Ideology, e.g., norms, etc.	4.48 (1.62)	4.41 (1.77)	1.000
External	External Pressure, e.g., litigation, regulation, etc.	4.20 (1.91)	3.91 (1.65)	0.000**
External	Industry Environment, e.g., competition, etc.	5.11 (1.68)	4.67 (1.56)	0.009**
External	General Political/Cultural/Social Environment	4.37 (1.65)	3.91 (1.64)	0.178
External	External Public, e.g., community, activists, etc.	4.01 (1.70)	4.85 (1.71)	0.000**
Internal	Internal Threats, e.g., economic loss or gain, employees' perceptions, etc.	3.86 (1.80)	6.08 (1.63)	0.000**
Internal	Organization Characteristics	4.64 (1.71)	6.41 (1.59)	0.000**
Internal	Department Characteristics	4.48 (1.61)	5.44 (1.53)	0.000**
Internal	Top Management Characteristics	4.48 (1.78)	2.66 (1.51)	0.000**
Internal	Individual Characteristics	5.30 (1.64)	3.98 (1.59)	1.000
Internal	Relational Characteristics, e.g., dependency, trust, etc.	5.03 (1.75)	6.64 (1.63)	1.000
Hierarchical	Routine Activities	4.18 (1.46)	4.20 (1.51)	0.446
Hierarchical	Resources, e.g., time, budget, etc.	5.35 (1.60)	4.44 (1.62)	1.000
Situational	Crisis, e.g., uncertain situations, etc.	5.20 (1.69)	6.05 (1.74)	1.000

Notes: PR_Congruency: Comparison between PRS and PRE
PRS: PR Practitioners' Self-Evaluation; PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Table 8: The Accuracy of PR Practitioners in the Contingency Factor (N= 641)

Contingency Factor		PR_Accuracy		
		PRE Mean (Std.)	JOURS Mean (Std.)	Sig.
Factor 1	Contingency Factor	4.48 (1.69)	4.66 (1.18)	0.754

Notes: PR_Accuracy: Comparison between PRE and JOURS
PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists; JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Table 9: The Accuracy of PR Practitioners in the Contingent Items (N= 641)

Contingent Items		PR_Accuracy		
		PRE	JOURS	Sig.
		Mean (Std.)	Mean (Std.)	
External	Social Ideology, e.g., norms, etc.	4.56 (1.97)	4.48 (1.62)	1.000
External	External Pressure, e.g., litigation, regulation, etc.	4.52 (2.03)	4.20 (1.91)	0.638
External	Industry Environment, e.g., competition, etc.	4.70 (2.10)	5.11 (1.68)	0.212
External	General Political/Cultural/Social Environment	4.74 (2.00)	4.37 (1.65)	0.334
External	External Public, e.g., community, activists, etc.	4.50 (1.98)	4.01 (1.70)	0.089
Internal	Internal Threats, e.g., economic loss or gain, employees' perceptions, etc.	4.14 (1.88)	3.86 (1.80)	0.935
Internal	Organization Characteristics	4.48 (1.90)	4.64 (1.71)	1.000
Internal	Department Characteristics	4.04 (1.90)	4.48 (1.61)	0.138
Internal	Top Management Characteristics	4.54 (2.02)	4.48 (1.78)	1.000
Internal	Individual Characteristics	4.58 (2.05)	5.30 (1.64)	0.001**
Internal	Relational Characteristics, e.g., dependency, trust, etc.	4.62 (1.93)	5.03 (1.75)	0.192
Hierarchical	Routine Activities	3.82 (1.75)	4.18 (1.46)	0.300
Hierarchical	Resources, e.g., time, budget, etc.	4.60 (1.95)	5.35 (1.60)	0.001**
Situational	Crisis, e.g., uncertain situations, etc.	4.96 (2.13)	5.20 (1.69)	1.000

Notes: PR_Accuracy: Comparison between PRE and JOURS
PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists; JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Table 10: The Accuracy of Journalists in the Contingency Factor (N=641)

Contingency Factor		JOUR_Accuracy		
		JOURE Mean (Std.)	PRS Mean (Std.)	Sig.
Factor 1	Contingency Factor	5.20 (1.16)	5.58 (1.09)	0.12 1

Notes: JOUR_Accuracy: Comparison between JOURE and PRS
PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists; JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

Contingent Items		JOUR_Accuracy		
		JOURE Mean (Std.)	PRS Mean (Std.)	Sig.
External	Social Ideology, e.g., norms, etc.	4.41 (1.77)	5.25 (1.48)	0.002**
External	External Pressure, e.g., litigation, regulation, etc.	3.91 (1.65)	5.92 (1.27)	0.188
External	Industry Environment, e.g., competition, etc.	4.67 (1.56)	5.83 (1.32)	1.000
External	General Political/Cultural/Social Environment	3.91 (1.64)	5.58 (1.25)	0.000**
External	External Public, e.g., community, activists, etc.	4.85 (1.71)	5.61 (1.43)	0.001**
Internal	Internal Threats, e.g., economic loss or gain, employees' perceptions, etc.	6.08 (1.63)	5.54 (1.56)	1.000
Internal	Organization Characteristics	6.41 (1.59)	5.66 (1.33)	1.000
Internal	Department Characteristics	5.44 (1.53)	5.19 (1.55)	1.000
Internal	Top Management Characteristics	2.66 (1.51)	5.74 (1.48)	1.000
Internal	Individual Characteristics	3.98 (1.59)	5.73 (1.44)	0.037*
Internal	Relational Characteristics, e.g., dependency, trust, etc.	6.64 (1.63)	5.79 (1.38)	0.001**
Hierarchical	Routine Activities	4.20 (1.51)	4.77 (1.63)	1.000
Hierarchical	Resources, e.g., time, budget, etc.	4.44 (1.62)	5.71 (1.40)	0.147
Situational	Crisis, e.g., uncertain situations, etc.	6.05 (1.74)	6.00 (1.31)	0.002**

Notes: JOUR_Accuracy: Comparison between JOURE and PRS
PRE: PR Practitioners' Prediction of Journalists; JOURS: Journalists' Self-Evaluation
* p <0.05; ** p <0.01

International PR: Emerging Challenges for the 21st Century

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In October, 2003, the prominent interviewer Charlie Rose posed the following inquiry to Jeffrey R. Immelt, the CEO of General Electric: "What is the central, overriding task of the CEO of a company like GE in this century?"With little hesitation and considerable conviction, Immelt responded: "How do we fit into the world?" Immelt went on to elaborate his position by explaining "how the velocity and direction of global change" is affecting GE and, virtuallyall organizations (Paluszek, 2004, 7). "The global village predicted 35 years ago by communication scholar and philosopher Marshall McLuhan is here" (Morley, 2002, 1). Such "globalization offers businesspeople their best chance to participate in the economy of the 21st Century" (Morrison, et. al., 1997, vii). In such a context. It is critical to note that the classic "systems consideration" posits that decisions (political, economic, and even social) made in one entity (nation) often directly impact upon other nations of the world. The "global village" is a fact of life and public relations is most surely in the middle of that "village."

Public Relations in the Global Mix

International public relations, while a relatively recent phenomenon, is undergoing major changes in its purview (for instance see: Culbertson and Chen, 1996; Banks, 2000; Kunczik, 1996). In the early 1960's, John Hill was credited with conceptualizing the first international PR office (Simon, 1984, 43). Over two decades later, *international public relations* was defined as

> ....the planned and organized effort of a company, institution, or government to establish mutually beneficial relations with the publics of other nations. (Wilcox, et. al., 1989, 395).

At the outset of a new century, this definition remains intact with the additional consideration of the aforementioned publics involved. Wilcox, et.al. (2000, 343) adds that "these publics, in turn, may be defined as the various groups of people who are affected by, or who can affect, the operations of a particular firm, institution or government."

That public relations as a profession might well have to reconsider its "boundaries of practice" seemed a foregone conclusion when suggested by Larissa Grunig in 1992 as she asserted that "international public relations may be... a necessary part of doing business for the public relations firm of the next century" (Grunig, 1992, 128). This is not a *new* challenge for public relations firms in the United States for as Edelman (2004, 25) recently reminded us: "U.S. based PR firms have been the granddaddy of public relations worldwide. We were far ahead in development of the field and brought the practice to the rest of the world." And, while Edelman cautions "the flow of business and PR idea will start coming to us from the rest of the globe," (Edelman, 2004, 25) the profession (PR) will still be thrust into the international business mix no matter who or where the practitioners originate.

During that same era, this rapidly-growing area of the public relations discipline was *incorrectly* dichotomized by observing that the practitioner

> either represents an American firm abroad or represents a foreign firm in the United States. On occasion an American PR firm may represent a foreign nation in its own part of the world. (Reilly, 1981, 450)

Both perceptions and practices relating to international public relations changed dramatically by the close of the 20th century. Newsom, et. al. (2000) explain the rationale for these changes when they observe:

> The globalization of news media, the unification of the world's economy and the emergence of multinational companies have helped expand this area of public relations. *International PR* is not limited to businesses, however, because many nonprofit organizations and associations are international in scope (15).

Seitel (2001) agrees by noting "the challenges will be worldwide, just as the field itself has become worldwide. The power of communication, especially global communication, will no longer be an American domain" (473-74).

International PR is Big Business....and Growing Bigger

Over 30 years ago, there was already considerable public relations activity in the international arena. For instance,

> A survey conducted in 1971 showed that about half of America's five hundred leading firms spent a total of about"$50 million a year for public relations abroad. Two-thirds of these had overseas staffs, numbering about thirteen hundred persons. (Reilly, 1981, 451).

Data collected in 1978 (Forbes Magazine, 1979) showed even more specific levels of participation by U.S. companies. Of the 25 largest multinational Corporations, 11 were U.S. companies. In addition, 7 of the top 10 multinational companies were U.S. companies. Current information (PR Week, "Agency Rankings 2002," May 13, 2002, 11) reflect a similar picture.

Current developments

Recent figures suggest a significant upward spiral in the global PR mix. In contrast to the data above, "the 15 largest public relations organizations now generate more than 40 percent of their fees outside the United States. Giant companies such as Burson-Marsteller, Hill and Knowlton, and Shandwick earn about half their fees abroad" (Wilcox, et.al., 2000, 345).

A significant number of foreign governments also retain public relations firms (or individual counselors) in the United States for a number of competitive reasons including: holding off protectionist moves (i.e., protective tariffs), defeating legislation affecting the sale of a client's product (lobbying against legislation they consider harmful to their client), and supporting the expansion of a client's U.S. markets (assistance with target segmentation, preparation and placement of marketing materials, image and product campaigns, etc.). (See: Barbara Ferguson-Arab News Correspondent "Saudi Arabia Launches New PR Campaign in US"). Such PR efforts in the U.S. for foreign governments is highly lucrative. "For fees ranging upward of $1 million per year, more than 150 American public relations firms work in this country for other nations" Wilcox, et. a., 2000, 355).

Finally, public relations efforts are also exerted for a foreign government within that country. "Today more than 1,200 public relations firms have been established, employing between 30,000 and 40,000 people, including more than 5,000 professionals" (Wilcox, et.al., 2000, 349). Not surprisingly, international public relations is a highly lucrative pursuit for American public relations firms. Reported earnings for the top five major international PR firms for 2002 are as follows:

Weber-Shandwick	426.57 Million
Fleishman-Hillard	345.09Million
Hill & Knowlton	325.11 Million
Incepta (Citigate)	266.01 Million
Burson-Marsteller	259.11 Million

The arenas of international public relations

While early conceptions of what we now refer to as "international public relations" were somewhat limited, it seems more realistic to conclude that, from an international perspective, public relations currently takes place in four significantly different environments:

1. Public Relations practitioners (firms) representing foreign interests (governments, products, individuals, etc.) IN the United States to the U.S. Government, the U.S. President, U.S. companies, American publics, etc.
2. Public Relations practitioners (firms) representing American interests (U.S. government, individuals, products, etc.) IN a FOREIGN COUNTRY/CULTURE to THAT COUNTRY/CULTURE (i.e., Coca-Cola, McDonald's, etc.)
3. Public Relations practitioners (firms) representing FOREIGN INTERESTS (governments, individuals, products, etc.) IN a FOREIGN COUNTRY/CULTURE to THAT COUNTRY/CULTURE (i.e., Nestles in Saudi Arabia).
4. Public Relations practitioners (firms) representing a FOREIGN INTEREST (government, product, individual) IN THEIR OWN COUNTRY to THAT COUNTRY/CULTURE (King Faisal to his own people–the Saudis).

Research in International PR: WHAT Do We Need To Know

At the outset, public relations professionals need to address the issues surrounding "what" they should research. In other words, WHAT should the public relations professional research? While overgeneralization should be avoided, the aforementioned question is best answered: virtually everything relevant to successfully conducting public relations as it relates to international public relations venues. The public relations practitioner concerned with international public relations should strive to obtain all relevant data concerning the countries and people involved. The task following such research, is of course, proper interpretation and application of those findings.

A number of major challenges face the PR practitioner (or firm) who wants to work in international public relations. It would be somewhat misleading to suggest a priority of tasks facing the PR practitioner, for, it appears the "culture learning continuum" (Hess, 1994, 5) is a continuous progression from ethno-centrism to multicultralism. Precisely what concerns would be involved along this "culture learning continuum?" Goman (2002, 22) recently suggested "the minimum information you should know about the business practices in a host country before traveling there" should include: greeting behaviors, business protocol, negotiating behaviors, social behaviors, nonverbal communication practices, religion, morals and superstitions, as well as considerable "general information" (Goman, 2002, 25) concerning the country. Morrison, Conaway, and Douress (1997) provided a more precise (and country-specific) description of such "general information" in their work surveying global business practices. Zaharna (2000, 144) recently outlined skills needed in "international public relations to understand culture's influence on the communication function of public relations." For instance, he suggested the "in-awareness" approach which is concerned with the *general* categories of a country profile (political structure, economic structure, mass media, infrastructure, legal structure, and social structure), cultural profile (low-high context, monochromic/polychronic,

individualism/collective, activity/being-oriented, future/past-oriented, linear/nonlinear) and communication components (verbal communication, nonverbal communication, visual communication, communication matrix, group dynamics, and decision-making practices (language, culture, government regulations, political policies, attitude toward the U.S., etc.).

Generally speaking, research involving differing cultures (See, for instance: Harms, 1973: Hall, 1976; Gudykunst, 1983; Martin and Nakayama, 1997; Samovar, Porter, and Stefani, 1998; Klopf, 2001) provides us with some very meaningful, though general, guidelines:

1. Be *conscious of* (sensitive to) *cultural differences*.
2. *Respect* divergent cultural *differences.*
3. Be keenly *aware of changes* (even though minute) in cultural perspectives (values/norms/behaviors)
4. Constantly (discreetly) *observe cultural behaviors* (both verbal and nonverbal).
5. Be aware of (and control) *your cultural biases*.
6. Constantly *monitor* and cross-reference *interpretations* of cultural considerations.
7. Understand the *interactive* (systems) nature of settings within a *cultural milieu.* (One occurrence affects others).
8. Demonstrate a *willingness and ability to adapt* to relevant cultural differences (both major and minor).
9. Develop an understanding of *cultural communication norms* (power "lines," sexual norms, individuality vs. group structure, use of humor & "insults," etc.)

Specific awareness should be directed to such considerations as those denoted (country-by-country) by Morrison, et. al. (1997):

1. *Official Country Data* ((official name, language, system of government, population, population growth, area (both land and water), natural resources, major cities, etc.))
2. *Population Demographics* (age segmentation, life expectancies, etc.).
3. *Temporal Concerns* (regard for time, zones, etc.)
4. *Holidays* (specific times, rationale, customs, etc.)
5. *Work Week* (length of days, starting and finishing times, breaks during the day, etc.)
6. *Religious/Societal Influences on Business* (dominant belief structures, societal norms/mores, measurement of success, etc.)
7. *Dining Customs* (cuisine differences, manners, temporal concerns, guest-host relationships, wardrobe, etc.)
8. *Economic Overview* (condition, growth, reliance on outside assistance, major imports/exports, currency, income levels of citizenry, future prospects, etc.)
9. *Political Influences* (nature or type of government, level of participation by citizenry, government ownership/regulation of business/sales, etc.)
10. *Legal System* **(**system of laws–codification, general nature and philosophy of legal system, political influence in legal system/operations, informal "law" structure, etc.)
11. *Current Leadership & History* (nature of leadership's "ascension" to power/authority, summary of the leadership's use of power/authority, separation of powers, popularity of leadership, etc.).
12. *Relationship with Other Countries (Particularly Yours)* (the history of the country's relationship with your home country, current relationships–both formal and informal, relations with countries other than your base country, how your "host" feels about other countries in which you also practice, etc.)
13. *Passport/Visa Requirements* (avoiding violation of any obvious regulations/rules concerning habitation, length of stay, restrictions on travel/movement, etc.)

If this list looks pedantic, look again. It's not. A mistake in any of the areas discussed above can be disastrous and "cost" not only image but thousands, perhaps millions of dollars in revenue. While knowledge of the above concerns will NOT guarantee success in a given country, failure to "do one's homework" in the above-mentioned areas may have serious consequences.

Research in International Public Relations: HOW Do We Find Out About WHAT We Need To Know?

Because the nature of research in the international arena differs from the traditional laboratory or "field" approaches, "how" we conduct research in foreign settings, while critical to our profession, cannot follow traditional guidelines. While countless materials outline research in the traditional sense (field, descriptive, participant observation, survey, quasi-experimental, experimental, etc.), there are few guidelines concerning the genre of research with which we are presently concerned.

The task, then, is to develop such procedures that will allow to ascertain needed information concerning our practice(s) in the international arenas in which we choose to conduct public relations. While some data, and the accompanying methodologies for gathering that data are available in limited measure (See, for instance: Vercic, et. al., 1996; Doksoz, 2004; Fobanjong, 2004; Molleda, et. al., 2003; Moss, et. al., 1997), the obvious "golden rule" in the intensely *dynamic* nature of international public relations is the awareness of and adaptation to *change*.

The necessity and obvious value of "on-site" research, (which can be conducted partially in the subject country through traditional means such as surveys, interviews, interviews, observations, modified participant observations, etc.), is tempered by such mitigating factors such as literacy levels, electronic accessibility (television, radio, telephone) and language barriers. Information that is not so readily available may often be

obtained through other channels. Such governmental agencies as the U.S. Department of State (which has considerable information gathering abilities not accessible to the general citizenry) and international organizations such as the World Bank and UNESCO (which have considerable relevant and current demographic data), should be utilized whenever possible. Additionally, the U.S. Chamber of Commerce can be a major source of valuable information while the U.S. Department of Defense will contribute on occasion when requests are considered "not sensitive." The practitioner (or firm) intending to involve themselves in international public relations–at no matter what level–should endeavor to build a network of helpful resources for continued reference.

Conclusions

The practice of international public relations is growing rapidly with every indication that such growth will continue at a phenomenal pace. The increased involvement of more professional firms in the many and diverse areas of international public relations is accompanied by the rapid growth of professional public relations associations at the international level:

> The growth of international public relations was demonstrated anew with the founding of the Council of Public Relations Networks (CPRN) in 1997 and the Association of PR Firms (APRF) in 1998). (Wilcox, et.al., 2000, p. 345)

CPRN involved four of the world's largest PR firms with combined worldwide revenues exceeding $250 million involving 239 different public relations firms. APRF includes 12 of the 15 largest U.S. PR firms (38 total) and has opened its membership to firms in both Canada and South America. As Seitel (2001, 475) has suggested, "In the 21st century, public relations has become a global phenomenon" and the opportunities for well-trained practitioners in international work will be numerous (Wilcox, et. al, 2000, 361 ff.). Peter Gummer, founder of Shandwick, one of the nation's oldest and largest International PR networks provided even more emphasis to this promise and the demands of the future when he observed:

> I am confident that the future of this company will be based on working in a global relationship with 20 or more major clients paying fees in the millions of dollars annually. The only people who will be able to offer counsel and service at the level required by such clients will be those who have multi market and multidisciplinary experience. (Morley, op.cit., 8)

It seems inconceivable to imagine a world that will experience a reduction in international trade, political interactions, and social exchanges. As Nolan (1999, 1) has so appropriately observed:

> In short, we no longer have a choice about engaging with the world. In the years to come, the majority of Americans–whatever their skill or profession–will either (a) work for an international concern, (b) buy from one, (c) sell to one, or (d) compete with one.

Implications

The challenges facing public relations practitioners and firms at the international level is apparent (see: Newsom, et. al., 2000, 15). "The future for public relations at a global level is bright.... The challenge for scholars is to provide the industry with the knowledge base that can help propel the profession toward greater sophistication and effectiveness" (Sriramesh and Vercic, eds., The Global Public Relations Handbook, 2003, xxxv). Currently, "there is very little empirical evidence on the nature of public relations in many regions of the world" (IBID., p. 1). The development of much needed (reliable) data bases can come only from meaningful and valid research. Such "research and theory on diversity in public relations, however a just beginning to emerge" (Stephen P. Banks, 2000, 4). Can such challenges be met? In some areas of the world, our profession is already doing just that. The growing need for skilled international public relations practitioners trained to conduct research in less than familiar settings, quite often employing differing methodologies to obtain reliable data, and working with a rapidly growing number of practitioners from (and in) other countries and cultures are surely three of the major challenges facing the public relations profession in the new millennium.

A Cautionary Postscript

A brief discussion at the outset of this paper was devoted to the general nature of the "new" global economy. This discussion should conclude with a similar emphasis. For, it is critical to remember that no amount of research of an individual entity (country, government, etc.) can provide all the information or "connection" deemed necessary to effectively conduct public relations in such an environment. The overwhelming importance of understanding and working "within" the global network represented (both directly and indirectly) by such major functionaries as the ITA (International Trade Administration), NAFTA, the World Bank, the IMF (International Monetary Fund), the WTO (World Trade Organization) and many others goes without saying. To ignore their importance in any kind of operations of a global nature would be pure folly–even disastrous.

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What Are the Needs in Communication and Public Relations in Some of the Largest Colombian Companies: A Perspective of Administrators, Employees and Professional Public Relations

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As a Latin American country, Colombia's economy is experiencing a very critical phase that started a decade ago. The war against drug dealers left a sense of hopeless and distrust among government institutions and political leaders, causing, at the same time, a significant decrease of national and international investments. However, the country's current exports and support to small – and middle – size enterprises are signals of a somewhat economic recovery.

Ten Colombian companies, based in Medellin, were selected for this research. These companies appeared on the "*The 300 Largest Colombian Companies*" ranking made by *Semana* magazine in 2001. The ranking was updated in 2002. Quantitative and qualitative research techniques were used to obtain the necessary data. Surveys and interviews were designed and applied on employees and administrators. The qualitative method was designed and exclusively applied to those in charge of communications and public relations offices.

A total of 381 people were surveyed. The data collected was on five crucial areas: upper management, middle management, control and supervision, and the lower area or base area. A total of 25 professionals in communications participated, that means 6.5%; however all those professionals working for the ten companies were part of my study.

Interviewees agreed on the importance of the work carry out by offices or departments of communications and public relations within the internal dynamic of the companies and the management of group communication. In general, participants value the way public relations operate within the companies´ structure. At the same time, consulting and advising in communications and technical support for developing internal communication plans are highly valued.

Participants ask to better off direct communication services and ask for feedback from the companies´ administrators. Especially those employees belonging to the lower level of the organization's hierarchy (control and supervision) prefer personalized communication. Using printed material containing information related to the organization is valued; however, participants say this kind of communication does not contribute to establish effective relationships between employees and administrators. Participants belonging to the upper level of the management hierarchy ask for public relations professional with background in areas such as economics and finances in order to help administrator make important decisions.

According to the testimony given by professionals and employees, it is necessary to master the new technology and the use of information, since they become a decisive input ensuring a good work in the area of corporate public relations into the companies.

Finally, it is clear the claim for implementing certain communication actions in order to strengthen the relationship among employees, and to achieve corporate goals by fulfilling the needs of both kinds of publics: administrators and employees.

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Summary

The research over needs in communication services and products throughout the firms of Medellin allows us to approach the true sense that the undertaken communication has in the organizations and which is handled by expert professionals in communication. What do the communicators say and what do the other organization's employees at the various level of hierarchy express? The answer to this is one of the indicators that denote the high perception over corporative communication throughout the organizations of Medellin, and the kind of needs it satisfies, according to the testimonies of various members of the organizations in the city.

Introduction

Colombia, a Latin American country, has been experiencing a critical situation in its economy over the last decade. The 90s left a country in an economical crisis; and the consequences of war against drug-trafficking planted despair and mistrust towards public organizations, political leaders; and national and international investments decreased considerably. The growth of economy has been slight, although it shows signs of recovery thanks to exports and the stimulus given to medium and small firms.

Of the 300 biggest firms in Colombia, – ranked by Semana magazine according to the study published in 2001 (April 9-16 P: 332) and updated in 2002 – 53 Medellin-based organizations were selected and a sample of 10 firms was composed. Because of structural changes in Colombian companies, due to fusion processes, personnel cuts, change of headquarters for security reasons, or in some cases, quality certification or adjustments to industrial plants, it has not been possible to totally intervene in the 10 firms. Because of time and commitments, we counted with the participation of 8 firms, since the number of participants validates the obtained data and satisfies the response acquired for data-interpretation.

To direct our vision towards the needs for communication also allows us to respond to the ever-existing question of one faculty of communications in the University of Medellin over the pertinence of its program in the economical and social reality in which it is inscribed. It also responds to the need to get to managerial organizations with professionals who adequately fulfill the needs they have. In the Faculty of Communications and Corporative Relations we acknowledge that the firms in Medellin have greatly contributed to the development in the various sectors of the economy, as well as in Colombia's cultural aspect. Thus, we are taking advantage of the opportunity to make a research – very proper to this specific field of studies – over the sense given to corporative communication in the Medellin-based Colombia's most important companies, directly intervening in those same organizations. This allows us to confirm the profile defined by the Faculty and the University or, otherwise, to redirect the content of its curriculum according to the demands and needs of the audience to this professional knowledge and know-how. Thus we ratify the integrating, creative, pacifying and dynamical purpose of the social and productive role which the communicator has as a professional and a human being. This study allows the corporative communicator to advance into the consolidation of a bridge between the communicative theory and the reality of this action: "Educational activity must be resolved, establishing a bridge between images and previous knowledge", integrated in what Habermas (1988: 168-280) denominates as the world of life and the critical processes expounded from within the various currents of education for the democracy. This transition "is only possible through a clear connection, but above all, suspecting and controverting the educational and pedagogical relationship that has been habitual" (1988: 168-280).

Instruments

In this study we wanted to approach the internal dynamics of each organization and gather the information that would allow us to carry out a rigorous analysis of the circumstances in which the needs for services and products of corporate communication take place; and to derive conclusions regarding the hiring of services and products, what they are, and how they are used. Because of the aforementioned, quantitative methodology did not completely satisfy the interest of the project, since it would get confused with a market-study. Therefore, we tried to offer interpretative possibilities of the circumstances through which the services of corporative

communication and the realization of products are hired and offered. For all that, we designed and adopted the qualitative methodology, taking into consideration the fact that

> The qualitative procedure opposes the quantitative focus in the sense that it does not apprehend reality through numerical data. On the contrary, the gathered information and the undertaken analyses are expressed through words, phrases, and accounts that imply appealing to a linguistical code certainly richer and more flexible, yet on the other hand, less rigorous. (POURTOIS. 1988:57)

Nonetheless, we were aware of the need to apply some techniques of quantitative nature, for they laid the foundations of some categories over motivations and preferences and their respective correlation with some variables such as sex and age.

Having in mind that the unity of analysis is the company, the majority of data was obtained directly in its installations, with a previous authorization from its staff. Another relevant aspect in the methodology lies in the fact that the data was carried out in the different areas that compound the functional structure of the company which are: high management level: presidents, managers or directors of the company; medium management level: vice-presidents, sub-managers or directors' assistants; supervision level: area directors or chiefs in charge of personnel hiring, control, and auditory; base level: employees and workers and the area in charge of communication. This latter was signaled as an alternative since not all the companies, – selected in a by-chance manner – account with such groups of employees and staff. In order to obtain the information from the employees, staff and relation-makers of these companies, we combined an inquiry through a questionnaire, a group interview and a projective method exclusively designed for the chiefs of communications and public relations.

Services and Products of Communication

Corporative communication is presented as a novel theory in the communication area from within the integrating concept of the task undertaken by communication in the global presentation of companies. In order for this concept to acquire an importance in the organizations' management, it is necessary to understand that

> Communication seems to develop itself as the corollary of a new conception of the company where it does not solely find its legitimacy in production, but rather in the vocation that inspires this production and which is directed towards collectivity (WEIL 1990:29)

So, in view of a new conception of communication in the organizations, a new concept of a company is also necessary to demonstrate the vocation of a social service set as a banner of its productive management. Weil (1990) so ratifies it when he tells us that the company is presented as a "producer" in the product market and as "the inspirer of a project" in the communication market. "In the first one, it produces; in the second one, it proclaims the idea and the ethics that have presided the birth of this production and that will guide its destiny" (1990: 30). With corporative communication, the managerial organization makes a permanent reflection on its postulates and how these are reflected in the company's daily tasks. Identity and image concepts are carried out and promoted so that the presentation of the company in all scenarios of its productive world is in harmony with its project; and the actions of its members do not divert nor contradict the final purpose of the institution. Thus, it is conceived that "ever more clearly, this strategic tool [communication] will be more useful for navigating through the fantastic spaces of the new managerial universe" (SERRANO 2000: 14)

That coordinating action, whether integrating or global, involves communication services and products that are generated internally and externally and that are thought out strategically in order to communicate better.

For COSTA (1999:150) corporative communication starts from the designing of the company's strategy and is carried out at the same time the strategy is realized. The author states that the needs for communication in the companies have been affirmed, multiplied and diversified so much that the integral communication now constitutes a much stronger force than action itself, for a culture which is no more mere production, but rather relations, knowledge, and the effective administration of communication and information that shape the company's vital relations. It can be affirmed that the designing of strategy involves some specific services and the administration is combined with some products generated from the offering of services, "The specificity of service is that it is an action or a sequence in relations. It is not a product nor a thing. A service is a flow, an intangible. This is what differs it from an industrial product which is an exact material object of consumption." Thus, a corporative communication service is an action oriented towards achieving the coordination of the communicative action in and from the managerial organization.

> Service is in itself communication and communication should be understood and administered as a service. Because the mentality of a service is contrary to the mentality of domain. Therefore, corporative communication and the service it offers should be impregnated with the will of usefulness and empathy towards the publics (Ibid: 151).

A corporative communication product is the tangible form in which the oriented action (or service) is supported in order to better communicate the managerial organization. Products, says Costa, are ever more penetrated by services; and services are accompanied with products. "And so we see that both establish a continuum where it is difficult to clearly separate one from another" (Ibid: 153).

Corporative communication's services and products are statements in the functions adjudged to the professionals of communications that coordinates the organization's communicative action. Nevertheless, depending on the company's characteristics, its purposes, its market intervention and social development, they may change, a fact which creates a multiplicity of ideas about the services a corporative communicator or a consultancy firm may offer.

> "By themselves, the communication professionals' work and public image should serve to create the adequate channels that would direct the potential energies the company or the institution generates in its function and which, with adequate treatment, may become a positive communication of this concrete image; that is, this function is not based upon elaborating and getting some "press notes" to be published in the media, but rather in being able to discern, advise and canalize when, with what content, whom to address, and through which media to elaborate the information that – for the administration of the high management – should avoid frictions and help the organization achieve positive results with its professional tasks". (MARTIN 1995: 36)

Although the function of corporative communication is the same in any company, an organization's needs for corporative communication are exclusive. Therefore it is necessary to respond to the essential questions over what are the needs that managerial organizations of our surroundings have or perceive they have, in order to thus comprehend our own dynamics of corporative communication and to offer those services and products with a high quality.

General Results of the survey

After processing the results using the statistical package SPSS, version 11.0, the general results of the surveyed personnel are shown, that is to say: sex, age, and level of organization one belongs to, in order to, later on, determine communication characteristics in a global way, as well as the services used by the organizations who had submitted in the information. Finally, the level of functional organization of the surveyed personnel is related with the perception they have towards communication and public relations, in addition to other aspects regarding communication.

It is important to mention that of the total sample (381 people), 73.5% (280) belong to Medellin, while from the towns where some companies have their production plants – such as Apartadó (Antioquian Urabá) and Puerto Triunfo (Magdalena Midlands)-, the percentage was approximately 7%; furthermore, information was gathered in Amagá, Fredonia, Santa Fe, La Ceja, San Jeónimo, Guarne, El Retiro, and Rionegro.

Results

All in all, information was obtained from 7 companies. They are: University of Antioquia (Education), Fabricato Tejicóndor (Textile Industry), Almacenes Éxito (Commerce), Cl Uniban (Banana Distributor), Yamaha (automobile industry), Eade (Generation and commercialization of energy), and Ríoclaro (Cement production). From Table 1, we can observe the participation of each one of them in the total outcome of the sample, related to the perception they have towards corporative communication.

Eade was the company that submitted the most information with 30.2% of the total, followed by: Yamaha, Ríoclaro, University of Antioquia with a range between 10 and 20%. And the companies with the least representation were Fabricato-Tejicondor and Almacenes Éxito with percentages below 10%.

In regards to the perception the surveyed personnel have over communication and public relations, it is evident that in all of them, more than half consider it good or excellent: 60.9% have a good opinion of it and 12.3% consider it as excellent. Only, approximately, one fourth say communication and public relations are fair or deficient. Figure 1 allows us to observe the aforementioned results.

The information was gathered from 5 functional areas in the organizations, in addition to other people who were not located in the initially described ones. It is logical that the highest number of people is to be found in the base area, in this study, with 40.9% belonging to it, followed by supervision and control area with 26.5%. It is also understood that higher management level is where the least personnel to be found with only 1.3%, corresponding to 5 surveyed people.

Sex

Two important facts are highlighted: the first is that the percentage of men belonging to base area is significantly higher than that of women (50 vs. 25); and the second, it seems that women, percentage wise, work more than men in communication area (see Table 2).

Table 3 shows some indicators of the variable age, according to the functional level one performs. We can detect that older people perform in high management, since the average age for this category is 53.6 years, with a low variability (5 years). Medium management shows an age average of approximately 42 years, also with a low variability (7 years). Younger people perform in communication areas with an average of 31 years of age; nonetheless, variability is higher (8 years). The aforementioned allows us to deduce that people performing in the higher areas of the organization still continue to be of older age and, consequently, with more experience.

Furthermore, we may point out that the surveyed people are generally mature, that is to say, on average, older than 30.

The variability in age is not significantly high and the central values, the medium, throw figures that are similar to those of the average, which indicates that the ages may be considered as approximately normal. The aforementioned can be observed in the following box graphic and slopes (See Figure 2).

People who work at the basic level and in that of supervision and control present a higher variability than those working in other areas. In the communication area are the youngest of all; nonetheless, there is one man and one woman with ages higher than 50, which elevates the average of the category.

The surveyed personnel recognize the clarity in communication as a characteristic of corporative communication in their companies, that is, it is easy to comprehend. So was affirmed by 63.5%. For almost half of them (49.6%) communication is diverse which indicates it exists in various ways. With a percentage around 40% of the interviewed personnel, communication was found to be direct (personalized), opportune (punctual), set into hierarchies (by levels) and set into sectors (specific group). For only 35% of them, the information was continuous and concise (brief and exact), that is, none of these characteristics exist, a fact which may lead to the loss of communication in some issues for the lack on continuity. Other desirable characteristics in communication such as quickness, fluency, interaction (jointed communication), integration, uniformity, and transparency are not being perceived in the researched companies, according to the comments of those surveyed. On the other hand, only 16.8% affirm that the information is fragmented, that is, incomplete.

Figure 3 allows us to observe the percentages, considering as a base the number of the surveyed personnel (381).

Perception over the most utilized services of communication and public relations.

For this study, a service is understood as those actions executed by individuals in order to satisfy the needs of others or by institutions for their own benefit and utility. Half or more of those surveyed say that services are given upon carrying out technical consultancy (61.9%), that is, production of communication means and tools for the company's usage with both of its publics, the internal and the external. In precisely communication (56.2%) it is to council the orientation and follow-up processes for the communication programs and the decisions to be adopted. And in execution (50.1%) which implies carrying out projects, programs, and tasks defined by the communication area. At a lesser scale but with an important percentage, the following services are given: advisory (40.2%), prospective planning (34.6%), evaluation (33.6%), diagnosis (31.5%), and auditory (29.4%). (See Tables 4-5 and Figure 4).

In addition to the previous description, the figure shows a 9.9% of the answers oriented towards other services. Nonetheless, the answers were not always addressing other services. Of those answers, the following services are pointed out: workshops in communication of group cohesion, participation in educative processes, publicity and out-sourcing, training and solutions to conflicts. The other answers may as well be located in some of the already analyzed categories, such as, technical consultancy, communication, or execution.

Previously we mentioned that the perception over communication and public relations is generally positive. The interest in this box lies in relating it with the functional level. In this sense, we find that the highest percentages appear in the good corporative communication, independently from the functional level in the organization. Nonetheless, it is to be pointed out that in high management and in the communication area these percentages overcome the three fourths of the interviewed. The communication is being perceived with greater problems, is the area of supervision and control, where 32.7% say that it is fair and 3% qualify it as deficient. Medium management shows that corporative communication is, generally, positive, since not only 19% consider it to be excellent, but that also 53.4% conclude that it is good. The number of people who belong to other functional levels (14) consider corporative communication in a positive way.

The previous relationship can be observed in the Table 6 and Figure 5. Of the 47 people who consider corporative communication to be excellent, 31 present arguments the most mentioned of which are: the information is opportune, pleasant, and clear. They also mention that communication is novel and with a plain language; in addition to the existence of good communication with the bosses and workmates, the existence of many means (newspaper, magazines, e-mails); good planning and rigorousness. They also agree in identifying corporative communication as excellent.

Regarding those 232 who considered corporative communication as good, the answers were very diverse and, in some case, incoherent with the questions.

Once again, the good treatment between the workmates and bosses is highlighted as positive; nonetheless, they were conditioned in the opportunity and clarity of the information. Technical and human resources in the organizations (qualified personnel) are pointed out as positive, in addition to the diversity of the used means in public relations and communication, which emphasizes the improvement among the personnel in the company.

The updating, clarity and pertinence are other attributes mentioned by the surveyed, in addition to the possibility of having An access to information, since the utilized means are agile and clear, allowing the usage of different distribution channels of information. Furthermore, some other positive aspects were mentioned, such as: the qualified personnel and the good training granted by the companies.

The quantity of means, the agility, and opportunity of information, the adequate handling of those means, the training of human resources, and the good coexistence are the aspects that most influence the positive valuation of corporative communication.

As for those who consider communication and public relations to be fair (89), they point out the lack of participation in generating information. They also argue that in some cases, the communication is not clear, a fact which invites us to develop and elaborate communication projects and policies, improving the definition of channels, flows, and bridges of information, managing furthermore to improve the organizational atmosphere. Additionally, some other aspects are perceived to get improved, such as when information does not flow adequately in some cases, due to the setting into hierarchy of some organizations. Besides, although much information may exist, in some cases, that is of no quality. On the other hand, the diversity in the means is acknowledged, but the problem lies in making them optimum. Finally, it can be deduced that the inconformity in some institutions is subject to the usage and access to the Internet.

And to end this analysis, it was found that only 12 people consider communication to be deficient.

Communication products used by the organization

For this case, a product is understood as: the tangible way upon which communication services is being supported, that is, the means, tactics, and instruments used to communicate a message. Given the objectives of this study, it is important to consolidate the gathered results.

It is clear, then, that the diversity of utilized means is extremely broad and are known and used in most cases (See Table 7). Nevertheless, bulletins, billboards and electronic means are the most used and remembered. Percentages fluctuated between 20% and 30%. Between 10% and 20% the usage of press, radio, internet, and the printed text were mentioned. On the other hand, the products causing the least recollection were: publicity, booklets, banners, news, cultural agendas, and public transportation ads, all of them were mentioned by less than 2% of the surveyed. In the category of "others," other characteristics were mentioned just once or twice, such as: photocopies, personal chats, computer, and forums.

Figure 6 shows the distribution in an ascendant way and considering the total of 381 surveyed personnel as a base of the estimation of the percentages.

Results of in-depth interviews

In our first approach towards the obtained information through the interview with the communicators, we were interested in knowing whether they felt satisfied with the exercising of their profession. In this first approach we detected satisfaction and well-being from the exercising of communication. This satisfaction is motivated by the support they receive from the boards of staff in order to do what they do and by the various fields of communication they approach in their daily work. In a slighter degree they manifested feeling satisfied with the work-group. Other reasons for satisfaction are the permanent learning of their area and disciplining more the professionalism with which their work is being assumed. When further asked as how the valuation of their work gets manifested, they express that they perceive it through the support they receive, through the permanent consulting, the autonomy with which they develop their work, and through the constant requests on behalf of other company's dependencies. Another important aspect to identify the valuation of their work is the space they have in the company whether because they are given or because they have earned it with their work. In this range of answers, space is the access to decisions of managerial nature and, in second place, it is understood as a working atmosphere.

In these perceptions, we find opinions from communication groups, integrated by professionals, communication graduates, but also communication practitioners (students from the last level of the graduate degree) and by professionals of related careers such as publicity and graphic design, member of the team that manage communication and, therefore, are a part of the sample.

In this group of answers, the concept of autonomy in the work developed by the communicator captures our attention, since it may refer to budget autonomy or executive autonomy, but it can also be interpreted as an autonomy in communication management which may lead to a conception error because the area of communication can not be isolated as a compartment apart from the other managerial or production sections; on the contrary, it should maintain the areas integrated and promote interdisciplinary work.

For those answers that reveal a certain degree of sub-valuation, the interviewed groups say that they exist in very few cases and rather because of the lack of knowledge to the purposes of communication and the potential a communicator has. In this aspect, it is worthwhile to say that it is the communicator's administration that

shows its own importance within the institutional project and the idea of selling an administration with the spoken discourse should not reign, but rather with the discourse of action. Quoting COSTA (1999: 84) "the action that "makes" and that which "communicates" are substantially the same equivalent thing".

Having known the satisfaction by the developed work and detected the valuation of the communicational administration, our intention was to explore the managerial processes in which they intervene. This then allowed us to know till what extent communication can be considered as a vital organizational area, given the dynamics of the company. The interviewed communicators, in their majority, say that they intervene in all the organizational processes for they have not established any action-limits: "There are no parameters to state that here is where communication reaches" (group-interview's testimony, 2002). We could interpret this as countless actions that do not obey any planning and organization of the administration; and therefore as an old consideration about the communicator as the maker of "everything" or "a jack-of-all-trades."

Valuation of communication on behalf of non-communicator employees

The general consensus of the interviewed members lies in the importance of communication and public relation areas' administration in the internal dynamics of the companies and the administration of group-communication. (See Table 1) In general, there is satisfaction with the way company's corporative communication and public relations are assumed; and they select consulting and technical assistance as the most useful communication services for the execution of internal communication plan within the organization. (See Table 2)

Furthermore, as an urgent necessity, services of direct face-to-face communication are highlighted; and with much persistence they demand feed-backs on behalf of the organizational boards of staff. In particular, base, supervision, and control levels give privileges to internal communication actions in a personalized manner. They value the printed means but they do not emphasize them as facilitators between employees and management (See Table 3). High management, on the other hand, is demanding a communication professional more prepared in economics and finances so that he may contribute to the managerial high level decision-making.

In general, according to the testimonies of professionals and employees, the domain of the new technology and the information resources are highly valued as reinvestments for the good exercising of corporative communication in these companies.

Finally, in the study of the demand for attention towards the needs of communication it is manifested that they internally strengthen the relations of the employees in order to achieve the managerial objectives and thus satisfy the need of both public groups: management and employees.

Approximation to Conclusions

In view of the social, political and economical transformations of a country in crisis, what are the needs for communication manifested by employees, management, and communicators in Colombia's most important companies?

This question can not be answered categorically. The need for communication in Colombia manifests itself not only through the anguishing marches of the homeless, rejection campaigns against kidnapping, or the sensitization for patriotism and the national identity. In the companies, spaces where in some cases they seem to be a world separated from reality, the need for communication is also experienced_ a need that the communicator does not resolve. In companies where there is no professional communicator in charge of a specific office, as well as in those where there is, direct communication is demanded. Feed-back between managements and employees is vital, but not as an administrative matrix: it is a human need, -profoundly human-, for respect and being valued by others. In the same way life as a citizen is pleaded for, being a member of a company is so requested.

Communication means and instruments are not that necessary when there is a clear direct interaction. In fact, this consideration opposes the valuation of the by-technique professional communicators. In the company, therefore, the tension between the technique and the art, the doing and the thinking, and the acting and the feeling is being lived. Colombians feel the need for communication in their role as citizens and in their professional or work role.

This is an opportunity to make the corporative communicator transcend his function and contribute to the building of a nation that pleads for identity and breathes but future. At least, this is what expressed through the testimony of communicators and non-communicators who live in the overwhelming reality of a country in a slow yet promising recovery.

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TABLES

Table 1. perception over communication and public relations according to companies, Antioquia 2003.

Corporative communication is:

Company	excellent	good	Fair	deficient	Total
Eade	10 8.7%	67 58.3%	33 28.7%	5 4.3%	115 30.2%
Exito	15 65.2%	8 34.8%			23 6.0%
Fabricato		8 88.9%	1 11.1%		9 2.4%
Río Claro	9 14.5%	38 61.3%	14 22.6%	1 1.6%	62 16.3&
U. of A.	3 5.9%	35 68.6%	9 17.6%	4 7.8%	51 13.4%
Uniban	4 8.9%	23 51.1%	16 35.6%	2 4.4%	45 11.8%
Yamaha	6 7.9%	53 69.7%	16 21.1%	1 1.3%	76 19.9%
Total	47 12.3%	232 60.9%	89 23.4%	13 3.4%	381 100.0%

Table 2. sex distribution according to functional level in the organization, Antioquia, 2003.

Level in the organization	**Female**	**Male**	**No Answer**	**Total**
High management	1 1.1%	4 1.5%		5 1.3%
Middle Management	14 15.2%	32 12.2%	12 46.2%	58 15.2%
Supervision and Control	29 31.5%	71 27.0%	1 3.8%	101 26.5%
Base	23 25.0%	133 50.6%		156% 40.9%
Communication Area	15 16.3%	10 3.8%		25 6.6%
Others	3 3.3%	1 4%	10 38.5%	14 3.7%
No Answer	7 7.6%	12 4.6%	3 11.5%	22 5.8%
Total	92 24.1%	263 69.0%	26 6.8%	381 100.0%

Table 3. Age Average according to the functional level in the organization, Antioquia, 2003.

Level in the organization	**Average**	**N**	**????**	**Medium**
High Management	53.60	5	5.079	53.00
Medium Management	42.17	42	7.525	41.50
Supervision and Control	38.16	97	7.619	38.00
Base	37.51	143	8.350	38.00
Communication Area	31.50	24	8.377	30.50
Others	40.75	4	10.689	36.70
No Answer	39.94	16	9.299	41.50
Total	38.26	381	8.567	39.00

Table 4. Characteristics of corporative communication, Antioquia, 2003.

Characteristic	**Number**	**Percentage**
Clear	242	63.5
Diverse	189	49.6
Direct	164	43.0
Opportune	154	40.4
Set into hierarchies	152	39.9
Divided into sectors	144	37.8
Continuous	135	35.4
Concise	134	35.2
Fast	117	30.7
Fluent	98	25.7
Interactive	96	25.2
Integrating	96	25.2
Uniformed	94	24.7
Transparent	94	24.7
Reserved	89	23.4
Individualized	85	22.3
Exclusive	75	19.7
Fragmented	64	16.8
Technical consultancy	236	61.9
Communication consultancy	214	56.2
Execution	191	50.1
Advisory	153	40.2
Prospective planning	132	34.6
Evaluation	128	33.6
Diagnosis	120	31.5
Auditory	112	29.4
Others	38	9.97

Base: 381 surveyed.

Table 5. Usage distribution of the services of communication and public relations in the organizations, Antioquia, 2003.

Communication services	**Number**	**Percentage**
Technical consultancy	236	61.9
Communication consultancy	214	56.2
Execution	191	50.1
Advisory	153	40.2
Prospective planning	132	34.6
Evaluation	128	33.6
Diagnosis	120	31.5
Auditory	112	29.4
Others	38	9.97

Base: 381 surveyed.

Table 6. The relationship between the perception over communication and public relation, and the functional level in the organizations, Antioquia, 2003.

	Corporative communication is:				
Level in the organization	**Excellent**	**Good**	**Fair**	**Deficient**	**Total**
High management		4 80.0%		1 20.0%	5 1.3%
Medium Management	11 19.0%	31 53.4%	13 22.4%	3 5.2%	58 14.2%
Supervision and Control	5 5.0%	60 59.4%	33 32.7%	3 3.0%	101 26.5%
Base	20 12.8%	99 63.5%	32 30.5%	5 3.2%	156 40.9%
Communication Area	1 4.0%	19 76.0%	5 20.0%		25 6.6%
Others	8 57.1%	5 35.7%	1 7.1%		14 3.7%
No Answer	2 9.1%	14 63.6%	5 22.7%	1 4.5%	22 5.8%
Total	47 12.3%	232 60.9%	89 23.4%	13 3.4%	381 100.0%

Table 7 Distribution of utilized products in the various levels of the organization, Antioquia, 2003.

Product	Frequency	Percentage
Bulletins	106	27.82
Billboards	97	25.46
Electronic mails	95	24.93
Press	67	17.59
Radio	60	15.75
Internet	57	14.96
Printed texts	54	14.96
Video	38	9.97
Magazines	37	9.71
TV	29	7.61
Meetings	28	7.35
Electro-notes	28	7.35
Mail	27	7.09
Fax	25	6.56
fliers	21	5.51
Intranet	20	5.25
brochures	20	5.25
Pamphlets	18	4.72
Trainings	18	4.72
Conferences	14	3.67
Web Pages	13	3.41
Telephone	10	2.62
Posters	9	2.36
Memorandums	9	2.36
Communiqués	9	2.36
Stickers	8	2.10
Face to face	8	2.10
Audiovisuals	8	2.10
Organizing events	8	2.10
publicity	7	1.84
Booklets	6	1.57
Banners	6	1.57
News	5	1.31
Cultural Agendas	5	1.31
Public Transportation ads	4	1.05
Others	22	5.77

Base: 381 surveyed.

FIGURES

Figure 1. Comparison of the perception over communication and public relations according to

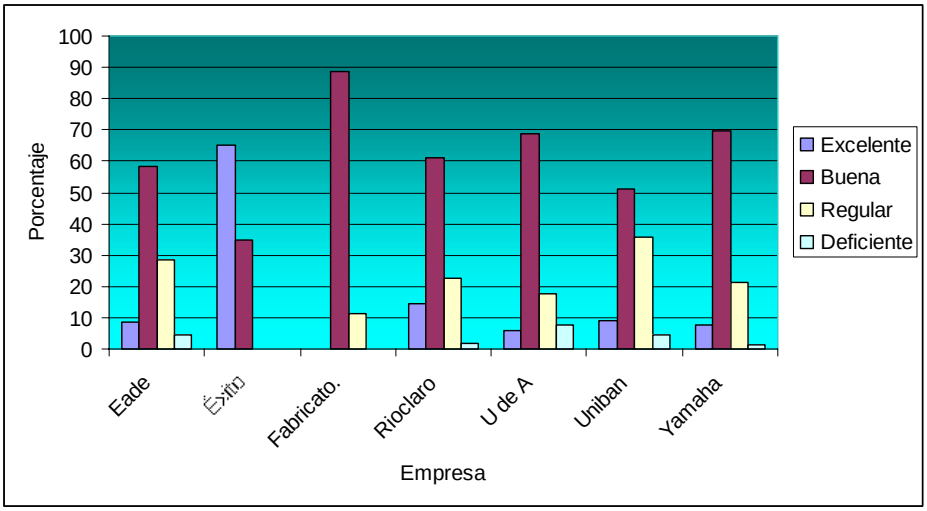


Figure 2. Age behavior according to functional level of the organizations, Antioquia, 2003.

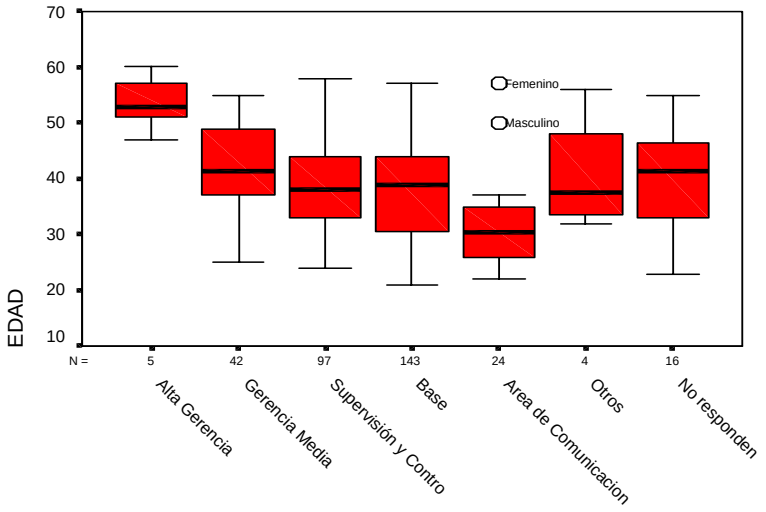


Figure 3. Distribution of the characteristics of corporative communication, Antioquia, 2003.

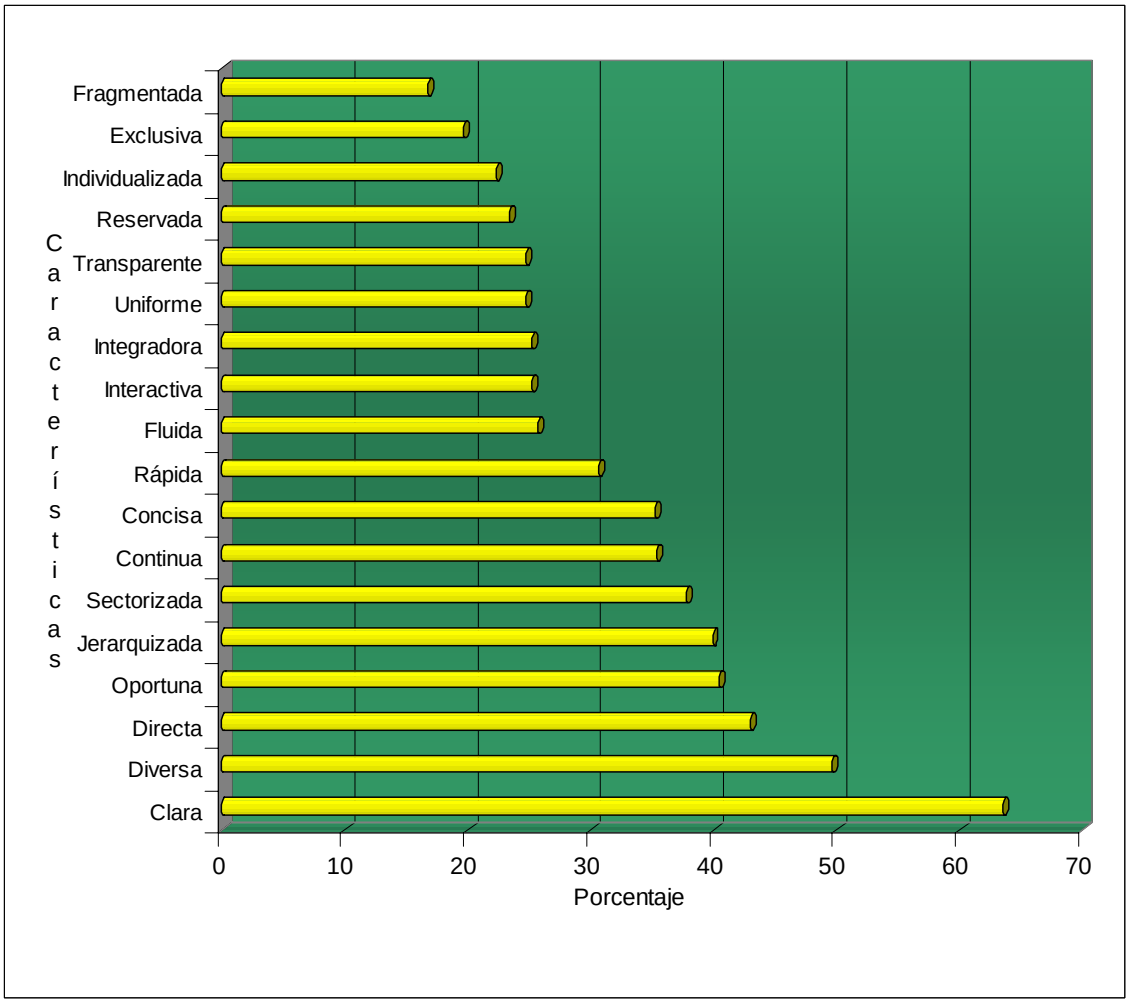


Figure 4. Usage behavior of the communication services in the organizations, Antioquia, 2003.

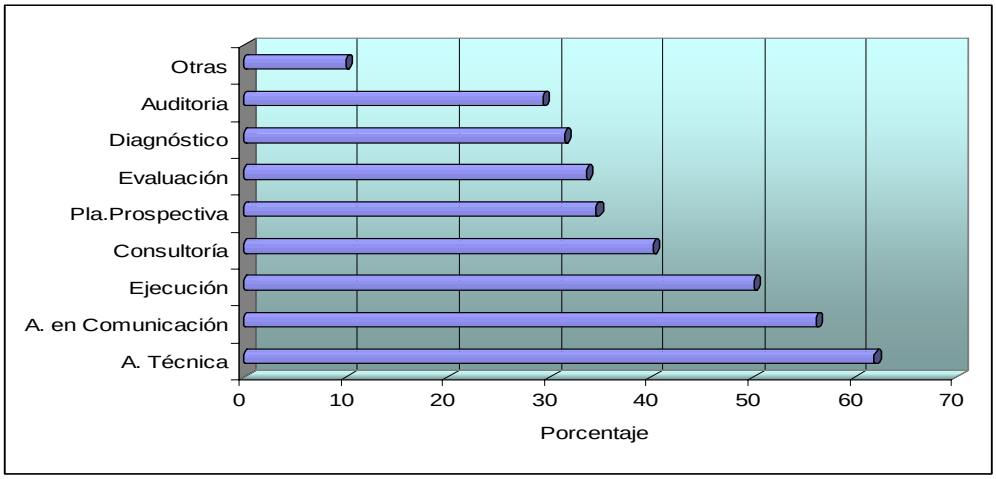
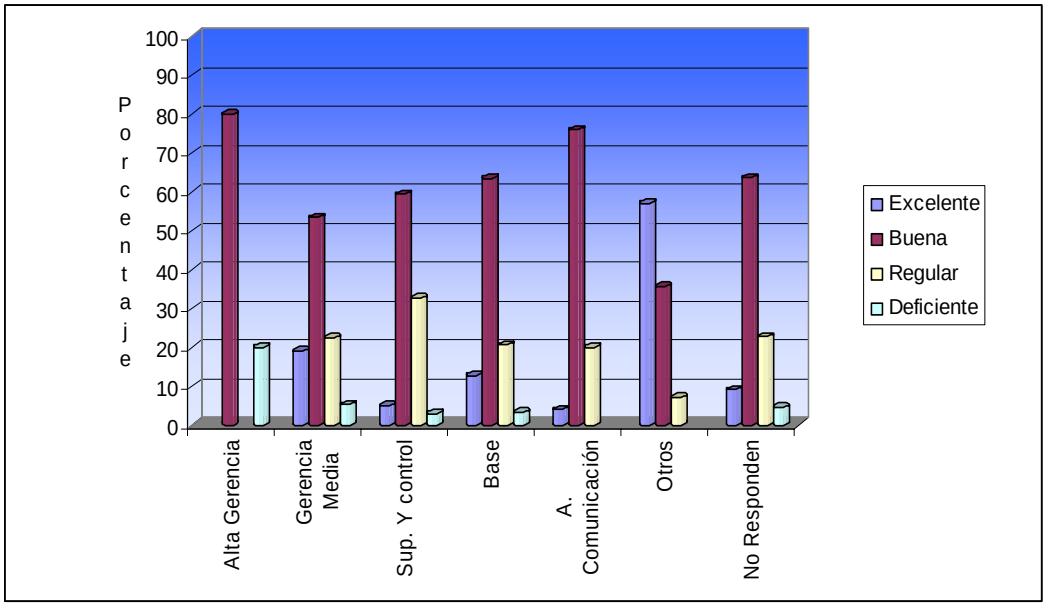
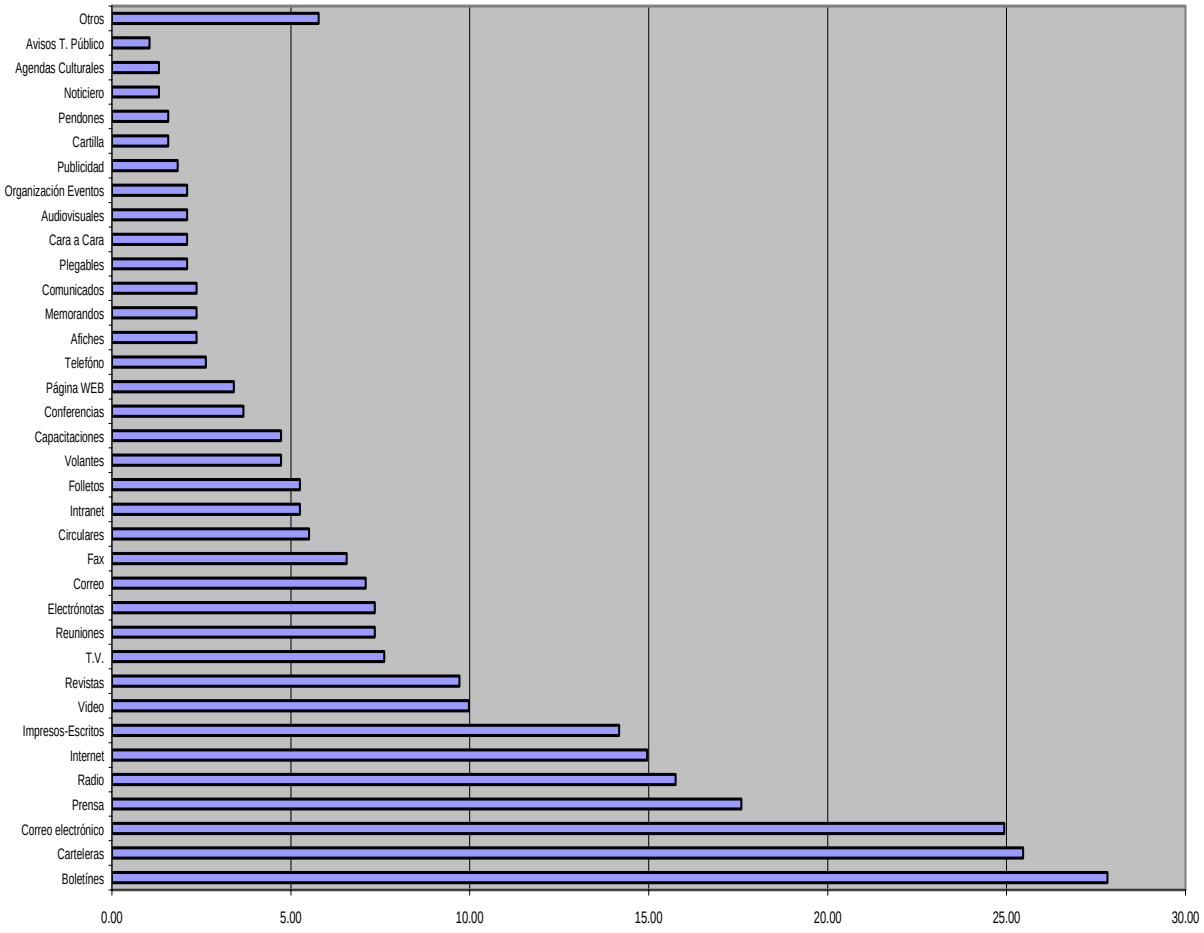


Figure 5. comparison of the perception over corporative communication, according to functional areas in the organizations, Antioquia, 2003.



Fiugre 6. Behavior of usage and recollection of products in corporative communication



Governor Parris N. Glendening and the Rhetoric of Smart Growth in Maryland

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A paper analyzing the written and oral discourse of the former governor of Maryland has found that Parris N. Glendening continually painted urgent doomsday scenarios of the future to argue against suburban sprawl. Unfortunately, his apocalyptic environmental rhetoric was not enough to convince Marylanders – and their local officials – to fully embrace the state's "Smart Growth" efforts.

Apocalyptic environmental rhetoric is characterized by its use of shocking statistics, egregious examples and demonization. Coupled with themes of urgency and empathy for future generations, this rhetorical genre is a powerful tool when radical change is needed.

Gov. Glendening, an ardent champion of anti-sprawl Smart Growth policies, believed that radical change in the "worldview" about the environment and development in Maryland was imperative. He used his eight years in office as a bully pulpit to attempt to effect what he called "a new environmental ethos", a cultural change, about Smart Growth.

"Glendening was a bit like Henny Penny in the way he portrayed environmental issues in the state. His rhetoric, although always factually rooted, did have a certain "The sky is falling!" quality to it," explained Leah Simone Tuite, the author of the paper.

Glendening's use of apocalyptic rhetoric on Smart Growth was an intelligent choice that was ultimately unsuccessful. In Maryland, localities retain ultimate authority over zoning and land use management issues. For Glendening's state-level Smart Growth policies to be taken seriously by localities, citizens' active support was crucial.

"Henny Penny, if you recall her story, successfully rallied her neighbors to act – to go tell the king – when they thought the sky was falling," Tuite, a doctoral student and public relations instructor, offered. "In this sense, Glendening was no Henny Penny, because he wasn't able to foment that pro-Smart Growth grassroots movement so integral to really making Maryland's Smart Growth policies work."

This paper, "Governor Parris N. Glendening and the Rhetoric of Smart Growth in Maryland," along with dozens of others, will be presented at the 7th International Public Relations Research Conference in Miami on March 11 through 14. The Institute for Public Relations (www.instituteforpr.com) sponsors this annual conference which brings together top academicians and professionals from the public relations discipline.

Governor Parris N. Glendening and the Rhetoric of Smart Growth in Maryland

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Abstract

In this paper, I examine the rhetoric of the former governor of Maryland, Parris N. Glendening, on Smart Growth. Smart Growth is an anti-sprawl land-use management policy on which he is widely considered a national leader.* Various speeches and other rhetorical texts attributed to him are analyzed from the perspective of apocalyptic environmental discourse. In arguing that such discourse constitutes a rhetorical genre, I discuss rhetorical genres in general and the apocalyptic environmental rhetorical genre in particular so as to better understand how they might be applied to Glendening's rhetoric. I found that Glendening's rhetoric on Smart Growth was indeed apocalyptic. However, his apocalyptic rhetoric, as part of a larger public communication campaign on Smart Growth, failed to engender an ethos – defined by Glendening as "cultural change" – among the citizenry that would have encouraged the state's localities to make pro-Smart Growth land use and zoning decisions. Instead, his rhetoric may have been more useful and successful in laying the rhetorical groundwork for the state to justify using a rarely-used state law to force localities to make Smart Growth-friendly decisions.

Introduction

Increased traffic congestion, stressed infrastructure, urban flight, disappearing forests and farmland: These are the telltale signs of suburban sprawl. Citizens of many otherwise economically booming areas of the United States, such as Washington, DC; Atlanta, GA; and Phoenix, AZ live daily with diminishing qualities of life and environmental integrity allegedly caused by sprawl.

In 1997, with former Governor Parris N. Glendening leading the charge, Maryland joined nearly one dozen other states that have enacted comprehensive growth management legislation. Maryland's Smart Growth initiatives, which are aimed squarely at stopping poorly planned or unplanned development – sprawl -- have three goals: to support and enhance existing communities, to preserve natural resources and agricultural areas, and to save on the costs of new infrastructure (Maryland Department of Planning, n.d.).

Maryland's Smart Growth program is unique among its counterparts in other states, such as Oregon and Florida, because of its heavy reliance on economic incentives to achieve these goals. As Glendening noted, the state was using its multi-billion dollar budget to change growth patterns in Maryland; this is a "carrots-before-sticks" approach. However, using an incentives-based approach to growth management given counties' traditional "strong resistance to State intervention in local land use planning" (Cohen, 2002) may not have been an effective strategy for combating sprawl. Cognizant of this possibility, for two terms Glendening used his office as a bully pulpit to promote Smart Growth around the state. He left office widely considered a national leader on Smart Growth, and was once even called an "apostle" of Smart Growth (Lambrecht & Martin, 1997).

In this essay, Glendening's various speeches and other pieces of discourse attributed to him are analyzed using the genre of apocalyptic environmental discourse. To understand these texts better, an overview of Maryland's Smart Growth program is also provided. The essay argues that Glendening's apocalyptic rhetoric on Smart Growth failed to engender an ethos, defined by Glendening as cultural change, that would have prompted localities to use a Smart Growth-friendly approach in their land use and zoning decisions. Instead, his rhetoric may have been more successful in laying the rhetorical groundwork for him and the Maryland Department of Planning (MDP) to justify using a rarely-used state law to force localities to embrace a Smart Growth ethos.

"Smart Growth, Maryland Style"

"Smart Growth, Maryland Style" strives to ensure that future development does not follow the current trends that have facilitated urban depopulation, rampant suburban and exurban development, and traffic congestion, and spurred the loss of farmlands and wilderness. As Glendening ominously and repeatedly reminded his audiences, "If our current growth patterns do not change, development will consume as much land

* The original version of this paper was written in 2002, during the waning days of Glendening's second term. As such, the overview of Maryland's Smart Growth laws and policies provided is based on their forms current to that time. They have changed under the administration of Governor Robert L. Ehrlich, Jr.

in the next 25 years in central Maryland alone as it has during the entire 369-year history of our State" (Maryland Office of Smart Growth, 2001, p. 1). Simply put, Smart Growth policies are anti-sprawl policies.

Smart Growth, Maryland Style also encourages public transportation and development that is higher density, already has existing infrastructure, offers proximal residential and commercial opportunities, and/or is infill (e.g., development in an abandoned city block). Conversely, reliance on automobiles, road construction, and the loss of farmlands, forests, and other natural resources to development are strongly discouraged. Finally, Smart Growth, Maryland Style strives to reconcile inevitable – and often desirable – growth and progress with environmental and economic considerations.

The "Toolbox"

Maryland's Smart Growth "Toolbox," a collection of Smart Growth policy instruments, contains over 70 state-sponsored economic incentive and disincentive programs that local governments, developers, businesses, and citizens can use to achieve Smart Growth goals. These programs include the Rural Legacy Program, which provides funds for the purchasing of development rights and conservation easements; a Live Near Your Work Program; a Brownfields Revitalization Program, which provides funds for the clean-up and redevelopment of contaminated former industrial sites; and the GreenPrint program, which provides funds to link wilderness and greenbelt areas together.

The master tool in the Toolbox, however, comes from the Smart Growth Areas Act, effective since October 1998, which forbids the state from providing state funds for infrastructure (e.g., roads and sewers) associated with sprawl-facilitating projects: "The state may not provide funding for a growth-related project if the project is not located within a priority funding area" ("Priority Funding Areas," 1997). Priority funding areas (PFAs) are areas where the state wants to direct development *to*, such as established communities with existing infrastructure. The state also uses PFAs to direct development *away from* rural and agricultural areas. The state's 154 municipalities, 31 enterprise zones, and the land inside the Baltimore and Washington, DC Beltways are some of the state's PFAs (Lambrecht & Martin, 1997). Counties, using criteria outlined in the Act, may also designate PFAs.

The state's leveraging of funds sent an unmistakable message to counties: The state would no longer subsidize sprawl. Yet nothing in this law prevents *counties* from subsidizing sprawl -- locating development projects outside PFAs – themselves. Although state funds could not be used for such projects, county or private funds could be used; put differently, compliance with the Act is essentially voluntary. Such is the nature of a carrots-before-sticks approach.

A command-and-control style land use and zoning program in Maryland would not be possible because state law delegates control over zoning and planning to counties, Baltimore City, and incorporated municipalities: "It is the policy of this State that the orderly development and use of land and structures require comprehensive regulation through the implementation of planning and zoning controls, and planning and zoning controls shall be implemented by local government" ("Zoning and Planning," 1951). The counties have a history of defeating the state's attempts to gain some meaningful control over zoning and planning (Cohen, 2002). In fact, Glendening's original version of the Smart Growth Areas legislation would have given the state some control over local land use planning decisions. However, this provision was removed for fear that the counties would mount enough opposition to kill the bill altogether (Waldron, 1997).

Is Smart Growth working?

Six years after the Act's implementation, Smart Growth, Maryland Style has been widely praised, even winning a 2000 Innovations in Government Award from Harvard University. Glendening attributed Maryland's commitment to Smart Growth to triggering a nationwide Smart Growth movement. As evidence, he cited the dozens of governors who mentioned Smart Growth in their State of the State addresses, the 24 states that enacted meaningful Smart Growth laws, and the prominence of Smart Growth on the policy agendas of national organizations like the National Governors Association, the US Conference of Mayors, and the National Association of Counties (Glendening, 2001, May 29). State-run websites and public relations materials tout State-level Smart Growth success stories (see Maryland Office of Smart Growth, n.d., 2001; see also http://www.smartgrowth.state.md.us).

Although lauded as a progressive and landmark growth management program, Smart Growth, Maryland Style has been derided as well: "It was never more than a half-measure, relying on state spending incentives and rural land preservation funds to retarget growth" (Horton, 2001). Some editorials lambasted it, calling it nothing more than an executive order ("Smart Growth, Dumb Debate," 1997) and noting that it "hasn't slammed the brakes on suburban sprawl" ("Better Planning," 2001).

Indeed, many counties have yet to significantly stem sprawl-causing development projects and promote land conservation measures in their current and even future comprehensive plans (1000 Friends of

Maryland, 2001; Baltimore Regional Partnership, 2001). Cohen (2002) observed, "Some local governments in Maryland are not yet converted to Smart Growth principles" (p. 21). In some areas, even a backlash against Smart Growth is occurring (Brown, 2001; Cohen, 2002). Some of these backlashing areas are urbanizing counties, specifically Carroll, Charles, Frederick, and Harford Counties, that "are in earlier stages of the process of converting formerly rural areas to urban uses" (Hanson & Freihage, 2001, p. 8). These are the exact counties in which the State must encourage a Smart Growth ethos, before sprawl converts these counties into clones of urbanized counties like Anne Arundel, Baltimore, Howard, Montgomery, and Prince George's.

The right of intervention

By the spring of 2001, Glendening must have surmised that the carrots-before-sticks approach was not engendering the desired level of Smart Growth ethos in counties' zoning or planning. At a May 29, 2001, press conference, he announced that he had instructed the Maryland Department of Planning (MDP) to resurrect immediately its right to intervene in local zoning and planning. The rarely-used right of intervention is a 1974 law, upheld by the Maryland Court of Appeals in 1980, that gives the MDP legal standing to become involved as a party in local land use proceedings. The state can now actively lobby for or against precedent-setting development projects or zoning decisions, and if necessary, may even take localities to court. With an unfettered ability to intervene, the state can now marshal its significant financial and legal resources to force counties to embrace a Smart Growth ethos. Glendening explained that resurrecting this law was a response to a citizens' mandate: "The people of Maryland have called upon the state to be more aggressive in fighting sprawl" (Glendening, 2001, May 29).

Rhetorical Analysis of the Discourse

This paper is premised on the "guiding hypothesis" that Glendening's rhetoric on Smart Growth is an example of apocalyptic environmental rhetoric, which this paper argues is a rhetorical genre. This section first discusses rhetorical genres in general and the apocalyptic environmental rhetorical genre in particular so as to understand better how they might be applied to Glendening's rhetoric. This section then proceeds to describe the methods that were used to rhetorically analyze Glendening's rhetoric to determine if the guiding hypothesis was indeed correct.

The genre of apocalyptic environmental rhetoric

Rhetorical genres are identified through the repeated appearance of certain stylistic and substantive characteristics in multiple pieces of discourse that address similar situational needs (Campbell & Jamieson, 2000). Campbell and Jamieson cautioned that genres must also produce "critical illumination" (p. 415). A genre should be more than a checklist of required generic elements; it must also provide critics with the tools to discover meaning in texts. Some examples of rhetorical genres are eulogies, inaugurals, and jeremiads.

Killingsworth and Palmer (1995, 1996) identified a particular brand of environmental rhetoric called apocalyptic or "millennial" rhetoric. They cited the chapter, "A Fable for Tomorrow," in Carson's (1962) seminal book, *Silent Spring,* as an exemplar of apocalyptic environmental discourse. Carson's narrative offers a hellish and depressing glimpse of what the future will be like *unless* our penchant for pesticides is severely curbed. This glimpse was shocking enough to have given birth to the modern-day American environmental movement.

However, this genre's shocking nature can also be its undoing. The audience may wholly dismiss the apocalyptic rhetoric – and its underlying messages and goals -- if it is *too* apocalyptic. Restraint, Killingsworth and Palmer (1996) suggested, minimizes this risk. They attributed the success and positive influence of *Silent Spring* in part to its restraint. If Carson had been too extreme in making her points, her credibility and that of the book would have been questioned, even moreso than they already were. *Silent Spring* stopped short of being "a wholesale attack on the ideology of progress" (p. 22). Such restraint is also frequently seen in Glendening's rhetoric defending Smart Growth. Smart Growth, he pointed out, is neither anti-growth nor anti-progress. There is no hidden agenda to return to the Stone Age or to stop growth and progress altogether. Rather, Smart Growth is about reconciling inevitable growth and progress with long-term environmental and economic considerations:

> Let me emphasize: It has never been our intention to stop growth. We never wanted "No Growth," or even "Slow Growth." What we opposed was allowing the State [of Maryland] to subsidize the unplanned, or poorly planned growth that was eating up our countryside at an alarming rate. (Glendening, 1998 December)

This essay argues that apocalyptic environmental rhetoric is a rhetorical genre, because as this section will demonstrate, it meets Campbell and Jamieson's (2000) situational, stylistic, and substantive criteria.

Rhetors use apocalyptic environmental rhetoric when the situation calls for "the need for radical change" (Killingworth & Palmer, 1996, p. 31) so as to

> engender public support for environmental issues. . . .It aims to transform the consciousness that a problem exists into acceptance of action toward a solution by prefacing the solution of a future scenario of what could happen if action is not taken, if the problem goes untreated. (p. 22)

To meet the stylistic criterion, apocalyptic rhetoric invokes "shock tactics to win the hearts and minds of the general public at crucial historical periods in which the need is perceived to extend and broaden commitments to the environmental movement" (Killingworth & Palmer, 1996, p. 22). Extreme statistics, bleak scenarios of the future, hyperbole, egregious examples, demonization, and the use of superlatives would be examples of shock tactics.

Myerson and Rydin (1996) found that two themes commonly emerge from environmental discourse on sustainable development, a conceptual cousin to Smart Growth: urgency and futurity. These two themes fulfill Campbell and Jamieson's (2000) substantive criterion. Sustainable development discourse conveys a sense of urgency about taking action to achieve sustainable development goals while expressing concern for future generations. The sentiment of futurity has been familiarized by the proverb, "We have not inherited the world from our forefathers; we have borrowed it from our children" (Petersen, 1997, p. 6). Urgency and futurity are themes expressed in apocalyptic environmental discourse, such as *Silent Spring,* as well.

The various stylistic and substantive strategies used in the apocalyptic environmental discourse genre, namely shock tactics, a sense of urgency, and empathy for future generations, are all emotional, even fear-based, appeals. As Killingsworth and Palmer (1996) noted, such appeals cause "symbolic intensity," which "arises when the artist uses subject matter 'charged' by the reader's experience outside the work of art" (Burke, 1953, p. 163). These narrative characteristics are intended to resonate with audience members, to make them think that a particularly dismal future scenario *could* happen if something is not done *now.* Several theories are available, notably Grunig's situational theory of publics from the public relations literature, for explaining the importance of the relationship between making a situation "real" or "connected" to someone and motivating that person to do something (see Grunig, 1997). In fact, C. Brown (1994) asserted that "the current state of the environment lacks the urgency or immediacy or connectedness" (p. 294) to people's lives to cause overwhelming concern or action among the silent majority. Apocalyptic environmental rhetoric is used to combat laissez-faire, nonchalant attitudes. Even if one does not live next door to a leaky toxic waste dump, the rhetor's hope is that using this rhetorical genre may motivate or scare someone to "do" something about that dump.

Methods

Transcripts of several speeches given by Glendening and public relations materials distributed either by the Office of the Governor or the Office of Smart Growth provide the texts for genre analysis. All of these texts were found on these two offices' websites (http://www.state.md.us/ and http://www.smartgrowth.state.md.us/). The texts were reviewed and analyzed for their use of the devices and themes indicative of the genre of apocalyptic environmental rhetoric: shock tactics, urgency, and futurity. All of these texts were presumably developed so as to demonstrate that a change was needed in people's attitudes about the environment and more specifically land use issues, thus fulfilling the situational needs criterion.

What the Analysis Revealed

The analysis revealed that Glendening's rhetoric on Smart Growth and sprawl was replete with devices and themes that are indicative of the apocalyptic environmental discourse genre. As evidence, select excerpts from the texts are presented below.

Shock tactics

Apocalyptic rhetoric often incorporates elements such as extreme statistics, bleak scenarios of the future, hyperbole, egregious examples, demonization, and the use of superlatives. Presented below are excerpts from several of Glendening's speeches that are particularly illustrative of some of these elements.

For instance, in this 1997 speech to the Brookings Institution, Glendening demonized sprawl, calling it a "disease."

> We have all seen the result of sprawl. In its path, sprawl consumes thousands of acres of forests and farmland, woodlands and wetlands. . .In its wake, sprawl leaves boarded-up houses, vacant storefronts, closed businesses, abandoned and often contaminated industrial sites, and traffic congestion stretching miles from urban centers. Sprawl is creating a hidden debt of unfunded infrastructure and services, social dysfunction, urban decay, and environmental degradation. Simply put, sprawl is a disease eating away at the heart of America. (Glendening, 1997, May 28)

As he led up to this condemnation, the governor adeptly set a scene describing the effects of sprawl that the audience members can easily visualize. Calling forth these images increased the message's resonance with the audience. Glendening's usage of egregious, albeit vague, examples of sprawl's effects contributed to his message's resonance, as seen in this excerpt from a speech to the Partners for Smart Growth Conference in late 1997:

> Think of it from your own personal quality of life. . .think about what it looks like to drive down highways denuded of trees, lined with neon and plastic signs, clogged with traffic, and surrounded by acres of blacktop parking lots. Think about the smog we are forced to breath and the damage that air pollution and runoff does to our rivers and the Chesapeake Bay. (Glendening, 1997, December 23)

Glendening frequently imparted the feeling that sprawl is putting humanity in dire straights by using exaggerations. The use of hyperbole is evident in these excerpts from 1998 and 2000 speeches, in which he sees the demise of humanity's quality of life and sense of community, respectively: "Protecting our environment must become a fundamental value, whereby everyone. . .fully understands that our quality of life is at stake" (Glendening, 1998 August), and "Stopping the sprawl development that is not only destroying our open spaces, but is also destroying our sense of community" (Glendening, 2000 June).

In this latter quote, Glendening's use of the phrase "sprawl development" is important. By qualifying development with the word "sprawl," the audience can understand that Glendening did not equate all development with sprawl. In this, he showed evidence of restraint, which Killingsworth and Palmer (1996) identified as integral to successful apocalyptic environmental rhetoric. As discussed in an earlier section, Glendening's rhetoric on sprawl was restrained because he frequently distinguished Smart Growth from being anti-growth and anti-development. This otherwise innocuous excerpt shows that Glendening made this distinction even when not specifically addressing this distinction.

Finally, Glendening frequently injected the following "stump" phrase into his speeches and public relations materials. It effectively combines the shock tactics of extreme statistics and bleak scenario of the future:

> If growth patterns do not change, development will consume as much land in central Maryland alone over the next 25 years as it has during the entire 369-year history of our State. (State of Maryland Governor's Press Office, 2001, May 29)

Urgency

Glendening also impressed upon his audiences that sprawl must be addressed *now*, as seen in this excerpt: "I am not saying that it would be a 'good idea' to change the direction of growth, I am saying that it is imperative that we do so. We *must* do so" (Glendening, 1997, May 28, emphasis in the original).

Futurity

Concern for future generations is also a theme that Glendening incorporated into his Smart Growth rhetoric, as the following two quotes illustrate:

> I truly want [my son] and his children to be able to enjoy [fishing on the Bay and other outdoor activities] throughout their lifetimes. If we do not take steps to change our growth patterns, the beautiful state that we all love will be nothing more than a beautiful memory, a memory that his children will never share. (Glendening, 1997, May 28)
>
> Becoming better stewards of our land and natural resources is the most important thing we can do to improve our collective future. (Glendening, 1999, May 26)

Combining devices and themes

Glendening was also quite adept at incorporating various combinations of shock tactics, urgency, and futurity into his speeches and public relations materials distributed by state offices. For instance, these two excerpts combine shock tactics and urgency:

> But we must start: before it is too late, before we lose the most beautiful parts of our states forever. We must start before. . .we lose all sense of community that holds our civilization together. (Glendening, 1998 December)
>
> Think of the farm that has always been a part of your community that has now become a townhouse development. Think of the forest you passed by almost everyday that is suddenly cleared to make way for a new strip mall. That is the urgency. (Glendening, 2000 August)

The themes of urgency and futurity are combined in the following quote: "Many of us in Maryland realized that time was running out. . . .We knew that if we wanted to preserve the beauty of our states for our children before it was forever lost – we had to act now" (Glendening, 1998 December).

Finally, in this one statement, Glendening successfully hit an apocalyptic rhetoric "triple," incorporating shock tactics, urgency, and futurity:

> It is vital that our students. . .understand with a sense of urgency to protect our state from uncontrolled sprawl. We cannot accept a future in which our children and grandchildren will have to go to a zoo to see a Diamondback terrapin or to an arboretum to see a forest. (State ofMaryland Governor's Press Office, 2001, October 29)

The former governor's rhetoric on Smart Growth clearly belongs to the genre of apocalyptic environmental rhetoric, as his discourse frequently exhibited the genre's characteristics of shock tactics, urgency, and futurity. Although this conclusion is interesting, perhaps even more interesting is speculating about why Glendening used such rhetoric.

Why So Apocalyptic?

Given just a cursory glance, Glendening's speeches appear to be typical political speeches in which he stumped to drum up support for his Smart Growth policies. However, a look through the lens of the apocalyptic environmental rhetoric genre reveals that these speeches are much more than that. This genre provided the

"critical illumination" (Campbell & Jamieson, 2000, p. 415) of Glendening's speeches necessary to begin understanding the true meanings and motivations imbued in them.

The intent of Glendening's highly charged – but not overly charged as discussed earlier -- rhetoric on Smart Growth was to encourage the development and maintenance of a Smart Growth ethos throughout the citizenry, as can be inferred from this quote:

> What I envision in Maryland and across this country is a new "environmental ethos" – a cultural change – built around Smart Growth. We must change the way people – both young people and adults – think about our environment. Smart Growth represents a dramatic shift in attitudes about the kind of world we wish to live in and the quality of life we will leave for generations to come. (Glendening, 1998 December)

The citizenry, those constituents elected county officials depend on, could bring meaningful Smart Growth pressure to bear on the counties. This was something that the state could not necessarily do itself because, as discussed earlier, the state does not have control over land use planning or zoning; the counties do. The state cannot force counties to plan and zone according to its Smart Growth programs; the best the state can do is to provide financial incentives and disincentives on Smart Growth to the counties and hope that the counties voluntarily utilize and follow them.

This is why Glendening's rhetoric engendering a Smart Growth ethos was directed at Maryland citizens and why it was infused with such strong apocalyptic qualities. He was trying to create a new "zone of meaning" (Heath, 1993) about the environment and land use for them. If the citizens accepted a new zone of meaning about Smart Growth, the assumption could be made that elected officials ostensibly would soon have to follow their constituents' lead. The counties would then begin to utilize Smart Growth incentive programs, which would in turn lead to the achievement of the state's Smart Growth goals.

The concept of zones of meaning is rooted in Burke's (1966) concept of "terministic screens," which Heath (1993) explains "shape and limit people's perceptions of reality and prescribe which behaviors are normative" (p. 142). A person's ways of understanding, thinking, "knowing," and acting stem from the zone of meaning he or she exists in. In other words, a zone of meaning can be a worldview or even a paradigm. The zone of meaning Glendening was attempting to create was a less anthropocentric zone than the one most Marylanders have traditionally existed in, one in which sprawl has been sanctioned and subsidized by the state. If Marylanders were ever to embrace Smart Growth policies and the attendant changes on their ways of life, Glendening first needed the public to embrace this new zone of meaning about the environment and land use issues. After all, as Heath noted, "Zones of meaning are vital to efforts by governmental officials to gain support for their policies" (p. 146).

Glendening knew he faced challenges in trying to effect a new environmental zone of meaning for Marylanders. One of the greatest causes of sprawl has been the mindset, which he frequently referred to in his rhetoric, that, "Americans have acted as if moving out is moving up" (Glendening, December 1998). Glendening was alluding to the American Dream, the vision of doing well enough to finally buy a house in the suburbs with a white picket fence on a half-acre of land where a dog and 2.2 kids could frolic. This notion is deeply ingrained in the American psyche and is not a notion many people would easily or willingly abandon for the greater environmental good.

As with many other environmental policy issues, Smart Growth "challenges nothing less than how we organize our society and our lives" (Paehlke, 1994, p. 355). It requires us to rethink our cherished notions of the American Dream and the automobile, and of our fast-food, instant gratification culture. Cultural changes or shifts in zones of meaning about how we think of the environment and humans' relationship with it, and the sacrifices we are willing to make for the sake of the healthy long-term continuance of that relationship, are not easily come by. Some people though, like Glendening, may try.

Success or Failure?

As discussed earlier, actual implementation of Smart Growth law in Maryland at the implementation level to date has not been as successful as Glendening would have hoped. Many counties are still failing to stem sprawl-causing development projects yet continue to promote land conservation measures, as several newspaper articles and editorials, and environmental groups' studies have noted. This failure may also indicate that Glendening's jeremiadic-like apocalyptic rhetoric was not successful in engendering a new environmental zone of meaning – an ethos – for Marylanders, or at least not a significant enough number of them to pressure local government officials. This is despite the fact that his apocalyptic rhetoric had all the makings of successful apocalyptic rhetoric. Perhaps even apocalyptic rhetoric can falter in the face of American Dream and a passive citizenry.

Yet Glendening's apocalyptic Smart Growth rhetoric was not all for naught. Because his rhetoric functioned as a warrant (Toulmin, 2000), his portrayal of sprawl as a crisis of apocalyptic proportions legitimized his administration's resurrection and use of a rarely-used authority of the executive branch, the

MDP's right to intervene in local land use proceedings. Glendening had spent years trying to encourage a Smart Growth ethos. At the same time, he was laying the rhetorical groundwork for potential government intervention in local zoning and land use planning decisions to achieve the state's Smart Growth goals. The state, as his words over the years had implored, really had no choice. Leaving change in the hands of citizens and the localities too greatly risked bringing to fruition the apocalyptic scenarios Glendening had painted in years' worth of Smart Growth rhetoric: "I am not saying it would be a 'good idea' to change the direction of growth. I am saying that it imperative that we do so. We *must* do so" (Glendening, 1997, May 28; emphasis in the original). That a government resorts to intervention to achieve an "ultimate truth" for citizens, who are either unwilling or unable to see this truth for themselves, is an integral part of Platonic political philosophy. When it comes to Smart Growth, it was clearly part of Glendening's political philosophy as well.

Epilogue

Smart Growth in Maryland lost its main and most ardent champion in January 2003, when Glendening's second term in office (he was term-limited) drew to a close. Called "one of the fathers of a new quality of life politic that is emerging in the US" (Nitkin, 2001) for his commitment to Smart Growth, Glendening was determined for Smart Growth, one, to be a signature part of his legacy and two, to be more than just a fad; he wanted it to far outlast his administration. Such goals are why he was so aggressive in pursuing Smart Growth legislation, why he resurrected the state's only means of control over counties' planning and zoning, and why he used apocalyptic environmental rhetoric when speaking about Smart Growth. Glendening aimed to get people to listen to and believe in Smart Growth, and then to "do" something about it.

Although he no longer holds office, Glendening remains committed to Smart Growth in his new position as president of the Smart Growth Leadership Institute (Montgomery, 2003). While not the champion of Smart Growth that Glendening was, the current governor, Robert Ehrlich, Jr., has praised his predecessor's Smart Growth programs and has said that the comprehensive package of Smart Growth programs would continue under his governorship (Libit, 2002). Thus far into Ehrlich's first term in office, this is arguably the case, although his rhetoric and action on Smart Growth nowhere near matches those of Glendening. Ehrlich has, however, put his own imprimatur on the Smart Growth in Maryland, renaming it "Priority Places," easing some development and agricultural restrictions, and acting to dismantle the Governor's Office of Smart Growth.

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Reformulating Organizational Identity and Reputation Theory from a Public Relations Vantage Point

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Theory and research on reputation and public/organizational relationships could be more useful to scholars and practitioners alike if better grounded in organizational behavior principles and constructs.

University of Oregon researchers Jim Van Leuven and Angela Mak make that case Friday before a group of over 100 public relations scholars gathered for the seventh annual International Public Relations Research Conference at the University of Miami.

They argue that explanations of relationship theory variables developed and tested by Drs. Jim Grunig and Linda Hon should be reformulated within an identity-based framework of reputation management to be more applicable to executive-level decisions regarding business directions and organizational goals. Such frameworks are drawn from the business and society literatures in organizational behavior.

The authors illustrate how identity-based models of reputation management can embrace normative theories including Grunig and Hon measures of exchange and communal relationships. This is accomplished by formulating propositions in line with instrumental theory principles such as those now being set forth with Convergent Stakeholder Theory.

The paper concludes with a series of instrumental propositions based on current research and consultation with a large regional hospital embroiled in an intense new location controversy. The authors contend that their formulation is especially applicable to organizations with multiple identities, operating in various cultural settings, where the relative importance of different stakeholder groups varies in response to competing organizational goals and identity claims.

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Abstract

This theory-building paper extends Grunig and Hung's (2002) construction of organizational reputation by incorporating an *identity-based model* of reputation as advanced by organizational behavior scholars. Then, using *convergent stakeholder theory* (Jones and Wicks, 1999**)** developed within the business and society tradition, we demonstrate how instrumentality theories provide a conceptual route for applying measures of organization-public relationships to a broader range of management functions and organizational decision-making.

The Reputation Controversy

For almost a decade, public relations professionals, trade editors and scholars have been proposing the umbrella term "reputation management" as the distinctive focus for public relations work. Professional interest in the topic centers on *Fortune* magazine's annual ranking of most admired companies about which public relations scholars have been highly skeptical. Scholars differ over the meanings of reputation, image and identity (see Argenti, 2003). Gedulig (1999), for instance, says that brand is more tangible than reputation, more measurable and manageable. Brand, however, is seen as some one-size-fits-all ideal umbrella attributes identifying the organization and not especially useful in addressing a range of stakeholders and their interests.

As well, this marketing or brand formulation of reputation favors publics most common to marketers including customers, suppliers, and shareholders. Seen this way, the purpose of the "brand" is to create image of the product, service, or organization for these "marketing" publics. Marketing scholars often take for granted that the brand image will trickle down to employees, community members and opinion leaders, government regulators, the media, activist groups, volunteers and others.

Several practitioners and marketing-oriented scholars attempt to establish direct links between reputation and financial performance as drawn from the *Fortune* ranking. For example, the Harris/Impulse study in 2001, conducted for the Council of Public Relations Firms, showed that companies ranked high on the fortune list spent more than twice as much on public relations as those ranked low on the index. In addition, the top-ranking companies spent more on six of seven specific categories of public relations with the greatest differences in industry relations, employee communications, annual/quarterly reports and investor relations. Hutton *et al*. (2001) correlated reputation with spending on various corporate communication programs. Yet, unlike previous studies, spending on employee communication was not significantly related to reputation when size of company was controlled. At best, these assessments do little to suggest how public relations practitioners and scholars should think about managing relationships in line with organizational goals and socially responsive ends.

And yet, the marketing and branding orientation to reputation management has never really been regarded as the last word. In fact, that was clearly the case when the journal *Corporate Reputation Review* began publication in 1997.

The journal's editor Charles Fombrun (1996) defined *reputation* as a collective representation of a firm's past actions and results that discern a firm's ability to deliver valued outcomes to multiple stakeholders. Similarly, Bromley (1993) defined reputation as cognitive representations of organizations that may include evaluations. Moreover, Fombrun and Rindova (2000) maintained that companies with the most resilient reputations appeared to follow an identity- centered model of reputation building rather than the more reactive impression management view of the world characteristic of some corporate communication programs at the time.

Huey (2002) made the distinction ever more clear. Reputation is based more on performance whereas brand image is based more on communication effects than on actual performance. Such an assessment was in line with findings from the IABC-sponsored Excellence Study (Dozier, L. Grunig, & J. Grunig, 1995) showing that what an organization does (more than what it says) has a strong influence on what people think and say about it (its reputation), and the relationship they have with the organization.

Reputation and Organization-Public Relationship Theory

Recently, Grunig and Hung (2002) took a decidedly critical view of reputation as defined for the *Fortune* (magazine) *Reputation Index*. They and other public relations scholars have identified relationships as the critical value that public relations produces for an organization whereas practicing professionals have embraced reputation as the critical concept showing the value of the communication function. Public relations scholars argue that neither a single brand image nor a composite reputation image accounts for differences in the nature and strength of relationships among various stakeholder groups. Instead, the marketing-oriented reputation index assumes that reputation indicators for marketing publics (customers, suppliers, shareholders, etc.) somehow apply as well to all other stakeholders.

Grunig and Hung (2002) see the value of a strong organizational reputation not as a direct correlate with financial performance but, instead, more indirectly through the quality of the relationships that organizations maintain with different publics or stakeholder groups. This interpretation is in line with a now well-developed line of public relations scholarship positing that public relations principally the management of relationships between organizations and publics. (Bruning and Ledingham, 1999; Hon and Grunig, 1999)

Hon and Grunig's (1999) normative theory or *organization-public relations* (OPR) holds that the quality of the relationships between organizations and their stakeholders can be envisioned along a continuum of *exchange* and *communal relationships* with the latter almost always being the preferred or normative condition. *Communal relationships*, these theorists believe, are bottom-up ones between organizations and constituencies whereas *exchange relationships* are more top-down beginning and ending with organizational goals and business strategies.

With *exchange relationships* one party gives benefits to the other based either on previous exchanges or the expectation of future successful exchanges. Both parties are obligated to return each other's favors. Exchange, Hon and Grunig (1999) say, is the essence of marketing relationships between organizations and customers.

In *communal relationships*, both parties provide benefits to the other because they are concerned for the welfare of the other or accept their mutual interdependence. Public relations practitioners must, say Hon and Grunig (1999), convince management that it also needs communal relations with publics such as employees, the community opinion leaders, government regulators, media, volunteers, donors as well as exchange relationships with paying customers, suppliers, and shareholders.

The OPR theory follows the logic of principal interpersonal communication theories interpersonal communication theories. That is, the desired outcome of relationship development is to have both the organization and the stakeholder group score high on each of the following four variables:

Control mutuality–the degree to which parties agree on who has rightful power to influence one another.
Trust–one party's level of confidence in and willingness to open oneself to the other party.
Satisfaction–the extent to which one party feels favorably toward the other because positive expectations about the relationship are reinforced.
Commitment–the extent to which one party believes and feels that the relationship is worth spending energy to maintain and promote.

Hon and Grunig (1999) note that public relations practitioners are trained to build relationships with this wider range of publics. They acknowledge that different kinds of relationships may be needed with different publics at different times as the nature of the desired relationship is somewhat situation-specific. However, the initial Grunig and Hung (2002) test of this argument did not involve different stakeholder groups in different situational and theory-specific contexts.

Organizational Identity Theory

While Grunig and Hung (2002) use the OPR framework to measure reputation as a stand-alone concept, we believe that there exists a more fundamental need to begin the reputation discussion with a conceptualization of *organizational identity* that stems from research literatures advanced by organizational behavior and business/society scholars over the past decade. In doing this, we're attempting to build and apply theory that extends to a broader scope of managerial decision-making than the OPR theory facilitates up to this point. We're looking to the organizational contexts in which the desired outcomes of OPR apply to decisions regarding organizational goals, business directions and strategies. We begin with identity theory as originally advanced by organizational behavior scholars generally and more recently latched onto by business and society scholars more focused on corporate social responsibility and the linkage between profitability and ethical behavior. Both groups believe that organizational identity scholarship is situated at the interface or boundary between the organization and it's social environment.

Organizational behaviorists define *identity* is that which is most central, enduring, and distinctive about an organization. An identity comprises the shared beliefs concerning the identity of an organization. Further, the more these beliefs reflect organizational goals and the actual work, the more likely it is that members will

identify with the organization. Ashforth and Mael (1989) wrote that the distinctiveness of the groups' values and practices in relation to those of comparable groups may also increase members' tendency to identity with the organization. Whetten and Mackey (2002) added some specificity to this framework in calling for a conception of organizational identity that is unique to identity and uniquely organizational. This elaboration conceives of identity as the categorical self-descriptors used by social actors or organizational leaders to satisfy their identity requirements, to distinguish the self both from the other and in distinctive comparisons. The two identity requirements are continuity and distinctiveness.

Together with other identity theorists, they argue that an organization's unique source of competitive advantage is a manifestation of its core identity claims. The more clearly those claims are understood, the more likely it is that this intangible capability or goodwill resource can be legitimately characterized as an organization-specific asset and listed on the balance sheet as "goodwill". In general, identity theorists claim that organizations move in directions supported by their identity claims or goals by taking the interests of stakeholders and strategic constituencies into account.

Whetten and Mackey (2002) explain that the principal value of identity as a point of reference in both the study and the management of image and reputation is that it provides a single, compelling answer to a variety of related organizational questions such as "what should our image be", "what feedback from out constituents is the most valuable" and "what aren't we willing to change in response to stakeholder demands." When applied to day-to-day organizational behavior, business and society scholars believe that identity constrains what actions an organization takes, how it makes decisions, how it treats its employees, how it reacts to crises. Managers and employees, they say, tend to act in ways consistent with the company's identity.

Identity Congruence and Identity Gaps

Over the past decade, organizational behavior theorists have explicated identity theory in at least four ways including (1) measuring identity congruence or similarity, (2) measuring identity gaps or differences leading to identity crises, (3) justifying how identification benefits an organization, and (4) advancing an identity-based conceptual system that incorporates the reputation and image concepts.

Measures of similarity and difference: Foreman and Whetten (2002) explain that a member compares his or her perceptions of an organization's current identity (beliefs about the existing character of an organization) with his or her expectations for its ideal identity (beliefs about what is desirable, informed by the member's sense of self) and the resulting identity gap and/or congruence significantly affects a member's level of involvement with the organization. The smaller the gap is, the stronger the identity will be and vice versa. Strong identities can make money for an organization because they lead to increased productivity, job satisfaction, and other outcomes as displayed in Figure 1 (see APPENDIX). Conversely, weak identities indicate identity crises which can cost organizations money in terms of strikes, activist or community opposition to organizational plans, employee turnover and subsequent new employee training costs, etc.

Consider the following sample propositions drawn from the identity literature:

1. A member's level of involvement with the organization is affected by perceptions of an organization's current identity (beliefs about the existing character of the organization) with his or her expectations for its ideal identity (beliefs about what is desirable informed by the member's sense of self) and the resulting identity gap.
2. A serious discrepancy between what an organization purports to be, its self-definition and how key stakeholders perceived the organization will actually behave in specific situations is consistent with the concept of an organizational identity crisis.
3. Identity is affected by changes in structure, culture, organizational performance, organizational boundaries and competitive strategies.

Identification

Organizational identification is the degree to which a member defines herself or himself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organization (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994). Organizational identification is one form of psychological attachment that occurs when members adopt the defining characteristics of the organization as defining characteristics for themselves (Dutton et al., 1994:242). The strength of a member's organizational identification reflects the degree to which the content of the member's self-concept is tied to his or her organizational membership. When organizational identification is strong, a member's self concept has incorporated a large part of what he or she believes is distinctive, central, and enduring about the organization into what he or she believes is distinctive, central and enduring about him- or herself.

Now, consider the following sample propositions regarding identification posed by Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994):

1. The greater the strength of organizational identification, the more a member will seek contact with the organization.
2. The stronger the organizational identification, the greater a member's cooperation with other members of the organization.

3. The greater the strength of organizational identification, the greater a member's competitive behavior directed toward out-group members.
4. The stronger the organizational identification, the more often a member exhibits organizational citizenship behaviors.
5. The greater the strength of organizational identification, the more members will evaluate the perceived organizational identity and construed external image as attractive.

When applied to public relations study and practice, two derived propositions would be: (1) Internal stakeholder groups (employees, management, volunteers, board members, donors, contractors, etc.) are more likely than external ones to identify with organizations than are external ones. That is because internal stakeholders understand routine organizational communication and participate daily in the organizational culture including rituals, symbols, ceremonies, and stories that share organizational patterns of behavior and interpretation.

Conversely, (2) external stakeholder groups are less likely to identify with the organization than are internal ones. That is because the organizational information they receive is more indirect, muted, and often framed within the context of short-term and immediately pressing community and societal issues.

As shown in Figure 1, organizational identification leads to several outcomes including increased job satisfaction, loyalty, commitment, involvement, etc. The most studied of these outcomes is *commitment* which is seen as a multidimensional construct focusing on investments in and exchanges with an organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) distinguish *affective* from *behavioral* commitment. *Affective commitment* regards a member's emotional attachments to an organization, the positive feelings about involvement in the organization as well as expressed sentiments of loyalty and a desire to help the organization be successful.

Behavioral commitment, in contrast, is often seen as a resource dependence issue regarding the likelihood of staying in an organization. Role conflicts likewise mitigate behavioral commitment as do competing normative influences such as professional licenses or memberships that value behaviors other than those advocated by the organization. Besides role conflict, organizational behavior scholars further extend the identification construct to consider split loyalties especially situations in which organizations reflect multiple identities, some of which its members support and others that are disfavored. Typical examples include hospitals whose missions or identity claims could include both charity care and profit maximization.

Reputation

Recently, Whetten and Mackey (2002) have linked the identity construct to reputation and image ones using a social actor framework. Social actors are an organization's senior management. They share certain beliefs about an organization's identity claims and they represent the organization's public posture as the principal carriers of organizational culture. They are empowered to advance or project its desired images, and, in turn, to help their organizations adjust to stakeholder assessments of organizational reputation. As Whetten and Mackey (2002) see it, the social actor construct makes it possible to anchor identity, image, and reputation concepts within a single identity theory derived from self identity theory. Within this self-other framework, the organization is the self and the stakeholders are the others.

In an overall sense, identity, image and reputation operate as a single system beginning with identity claims that get projected (image) to stakeholders who, in turn, draw their own assessments to which social actors respond. That response may include adjusting identity claims and in this sense is viewed as a self-regulating, integrated self-management system. Seen this way, image and reputation are treated as components of a symmetrical communication process between the organization (the self) and relevant stakeholders (other). The two-way communication interchange is used as a regulative mechanism to maintain an acceptable level of congruence between organizational activities and organizational identity claims.

As set forth by Whetten and Mackey (2002), identity is the backbone of reputation. Identity claims are the standards from which managers consider stakeholder interests. Conceptions of organizational image and organizational reputation, they argue, should proceed from the premise that effective social actors must maintain suitable alignment between their identity claims, their projected images, and their acquired reputation."

Image and Reputation

Within the self-management model, organizational image is conceived of as identity-congruent messages that organizational agents use to present themselves to outsiders (Dukerich et al., 2002). Projected images are what we want others to understand and believe about us.

The image concept places a premium on the quality of public relations messages sent from the organization and reported in the media, use of controlled media, and the first-hand experiences that employees, managers, and other stakeholders have with the organization. Obviously, communication requirements and tactics vary by stakeholder group.

Consider now the kinds of postulates that organizational behavior scholars (Dukerich et al., 2002) advance regarding image:

1. The greater the distinctiveness of an organizational image relative to other organizations, the stronger a member's organizational identification.
2. The more an organizational image enhances a member's self esteem, the stronger his or her organizational identification.
3. The greater the consistency between the attributes members use to define an organizational image (perceived organizational identity), the stronger a member's organizational identification.

Reputation is the reciprocal of image. Reputation is treated as the feedback from others concerning the credibility of an organization's self-definition. Organizations use measures of reputation to improve their public messages and relationship building practices. The consensus definition holds that reputation is essentially the external assessment of an organization held by external stakeholders. The dimensions of reputation include an organization's perceived capacity to meet stakeholders' expectations, the rational attachments that stakeholders form with the organization and the overall net image that stakeholders have of the organization (Foreman and Whetten 2002).

Whereas the factual nature of organizational identities is taken for granted by organizational members, organizational reputation assessments rendered by outsiders are clearly viewed by members as judgments based on limited information.

Convergent Stakeholder Theory

Identity theory and its accompanying constructs may well provide public relations scholars with a more comprehensive and consistent set of propositions. Even so, this identity framework is top-down and not inherently amenable to studying relationships with stakeholder groups that are based on two-way communication, mutual understanding, accommodation and negotiation.

Therefore, some theoretical aegis or mechanism is needed to link normative interpretations of organization-public relationship outcome measures to organizational goals, missions, and business strategies. One theoretical route to accomplish this goal would be to re-examine convergent stakeholder theory, a sub-field within the business and society literature that utilizes instrumentality theories to integrate empirical social science theory with normative theories such as organization-public relationship theory.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) set forth the normative, descriptive, and instrumental aspects of stakeholder theory. Their principal proposition is that firms that look after the interests of key stakeholders and behave in a morally defensible fashion will, all else being equal, achieve greater success in the marketplace than those that do not. In essence, the theory posits that certain outcomes will result if certain behaviors are adopted. As such, this is a contingency theory in which predicted outcomes depend on a certain type or pattern of behavior.

Thus, the most common instrumentality proposition follows the logic that if firms contract with their stakeholders on the basis of mutual trust and cooperation, they will have a competitive advantage over firms that do not. As Jones and Wicks write (1999), no assumption is made that managers will try to develop trusting relationships or any of the other three outcomes from organization-public relationship theory, but the claim is made that if they do, competitive advantage will result.

The four principal assumptions underpinning *convergent stakeholder theory* generally and instrumentality versions in particular fit well with public relations theory (Jones and Wicks, 1999). They are:

1. The corporation has relationships with many constituent groups (stakeholders) that affect and are affected by its decisions.
2. The theory is concerned with the nature of these relationships in terms of both processes and outcomes for the firm and its stakeholders.
3. The interests of all (legitimate) stakeholders have intrinsic value, and not set of interests is assumed to dominate the others.
4. The theory focuses on managerial decision-making.

The following derived proposition suggests how public relations scholars might apply organization-public relationship theory within an instrumentality framework:

> The more an organization's good works and socially responsive behaviors are seen by stakeholders as supporting its core identity claims, the more these stakeholders will see organizational identification as instrumental to the attainment of important values.

Jones and Wicks (1999) along with other convergent stakeholder theorists believe that instrumentality theory applications can accommodate normative theories and narrative explanations without abandoning criteria for good theory in the organization sciences. Their position is that when instrumental stakeholder theory is grounded in the values inherent in a morally based normative core, it gains a credibility-enhancing boundary condition as well as moral soundness. In many respects, then, the underlying strength instrumentality theory is that it is essentially transformational in nature. Leaders can improve their organizations through socially responsive behavior that adjusts to stakeholder needs and larger social and cultural forces.

Summary

Both the scholarly pursuit and the professional practice of public relations need to address ways in which the field makes more broad-based contributions to organizational decision-making if others are to regard public relations as a primary management function. One solution is to benchmark measures of relationship outcomes to organizational goals, missions, and identity claims.

Recasting existing public relations theory to make such a contribution could extend the influence of the public relations and corporate communication functions far beyond providing advise regarding general support from stakeholder groups. By utilizing instrumentality theory, public relations scholars can link organization-public relationship theory to key identity-based organizational decisions including human resource ones, strategic alliances and business partnership arrangements, productivity issues, and so on. In turn, decision-makers can utilize identity and instrumentality frameworks as standards for gauging the extent to which others believe they are behaving in ways they wish to be seen. Closing any such gaps between stated identity claims and measures of identification, image and reputation will, in turn, better position communication and public relations functions at the center of organizational planning and programming. In sum, we believe that the theory-building hurdle to jump in coming years will be to integrate organization-public relationship theory with identity theory, convergent stakeholder theory and other management theories without allowing the study of public-organizational relationships to be subsumed by the management sciences .

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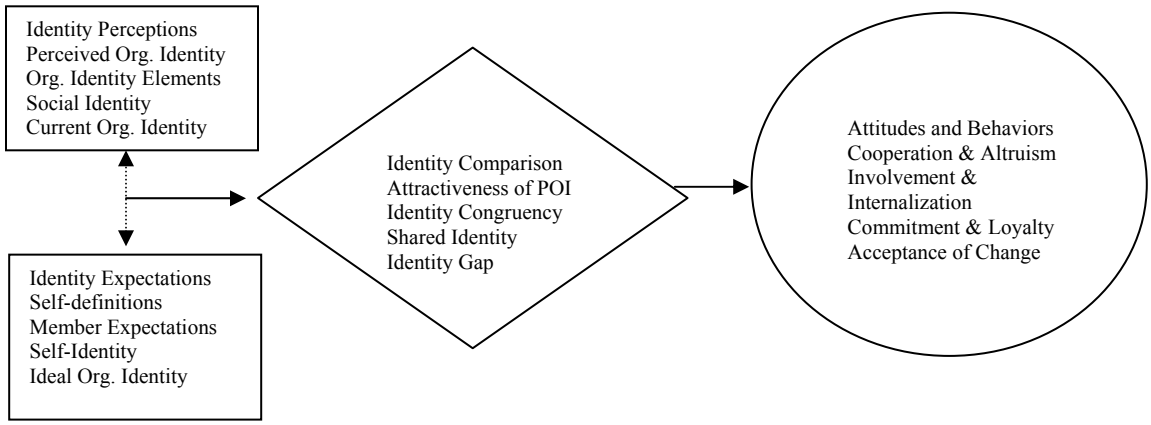
Figure 1. A Composite Model of Organizational Identification (Foreman and Whetten, 2002)



Corporate Governance and Corporate Social Responsibility Ownership, Management and Accountability – 'Assessing the CHAllenge for Public Relations'

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According to a research study among chief executives and board level managers in major UK based corporations, every business had "an active stakeholder dialogue process in place". Ninety two per cent of them had clear board level reporting systems for CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) and eighty five per cent had some form of rigorous CSR/ethical management evaluation and audit process in place. It seems like good news for these major global players at a time when fund managers, institutions and shareholders are flexing their muscles on board performance world wide and globalised social and environment pressure groups are cranking up their campaign machines.

Some measure perhaps of how far public relations has come from its early days as press agents and publicists when the research highlights that amongst this leadership group of international and multi-national businesses that:

- the research/audit tools being used for reporting and auditing are those in common use by public relations practitioners
- public relations, under whatever title, plays a significant but not dominant role in CSR accountability in a fragmented pattern of ownership and accountability;
- the benefits of Stakeholder Dialogue and CSR are primarily 'public relations based'.

Look hard at the research results and for the same public relations people the glass is only half full. Whatever public relations measurement, evaluation and communication tools and techniques are being used thirty per cent of these same organisations had no formal systems in place to drive social audit identified improvements forward. Eighteen per cent relied on a website for stakeholder dialogue. Only twenty four percent of these businesses put responsibility for board level reporting and accountability on CSR with their corporate communications or public relations function.

So the research has now been revisited to assess the challenge for public relations;

1. how to ensure that branding the benefits of CSR/Stakeholder dialogue as public relations based does not detract from their importance
2. can public relations manage CSR at operational level and be accountable at board level
3. how to use current public relations education and training to equip public relations professionals to take on the opportunities global CSR accountability demands.

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Background

Our research study was conducted in the United Kingdom among a self-defined group from the FTSE 350 and international and multi-national firms based in the UK taking or demonstrating 'a leadership role or position in Corporate Governance and Corporate Social Responsibility.' Clear and consistent selection criteria were used to define these organizations as 'leaders' including:

- membership of Business in the Community and/or Business in the Environment;
- personal involvement of board members or the organisation in the Prince of Wales Trust or Business Leaders Forum;
- inclusion in the FTSE4Good index; and/or publication of some form of non-financial or social report;
- significant public platform or media presence by senior management as exemplars.

Over a six-month period from July 2003 to January 2003 our research was taken forward via an initial postal survey questionnaire addressed to separately Chairman, Chief Executives, Company Secretaries/Corporate Counsel and Directors of Corporate Communication/ Corporate Affairs. This was then supplemented by some telephone and face-to-face interviews.

Responses from this over polled and researched group was 28 per cent, responses were individual rather than delegated in all but three cases. One chairman of a major banking and financial services group wrote personally to say his group could not participate 'board pressures were such that he would not be able to deal with the matter personally and it was too important to pass to anyone else in the organisation'.

Our objective was to research, and if possible identify, common approaches to the ownership, management and forms of accountability for both Corporate Governance and Corporate (Social) Responsibility among this 'bench mark – lead group' of companies. At the same time we set out to see whether it was possible to identify:

1. the extent to which 'international' operational issues and accountability play a role in the process.
2. what, if any differences existed between the views/responses of the three distinct groups of executives that participated viz: Chairman/CEO; Company Secretary/Corporate Counsel; Public Relations/Corporate Communications Director/Advisor

We did not set out as part of our research to assess, identify or consider 'the challenges for public relations – practice and practitioners'. Even our attempt to identify differences of view from the responses of the three groups demonstrated that those that were registered were anomalies and statistically insignificant.

It was inevitable that the overall research results would identify issues for and the role of public relations in the management and accountability processes. However the continuing attacks on the commitment of business to Corporate Governance and the dismissal of Corporate (Social) Responsibility as 'a public relations exercise' by the World Council of Churches most recently forced us to revisit our research and assess the specific challenge for public relations.

Headline Results

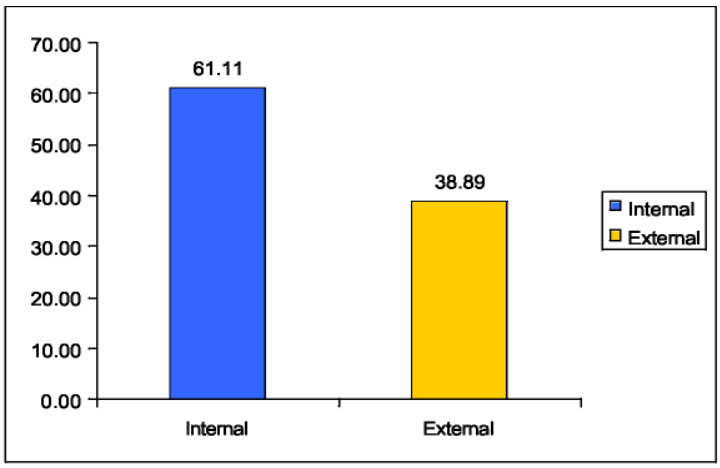
When the World Council of Churches and others dismiss the CSR – Corporate (Social) Responsibility programmes of global corporations as 'public relations exercises' it is not just public relations professionals that have every reason to be concerned. Their attack goes to the heart of corporate thinking where 69 per cent of leading UK based corporations see CSR as 'Corporate Governance in Action' and 85 per cent of them have clear and demanding systems in place for measuring ethical and social performance throughout the business.

A review of the headline results from our research provides some reasons for their scepticism and an assessment of some of the challenges for public relations.

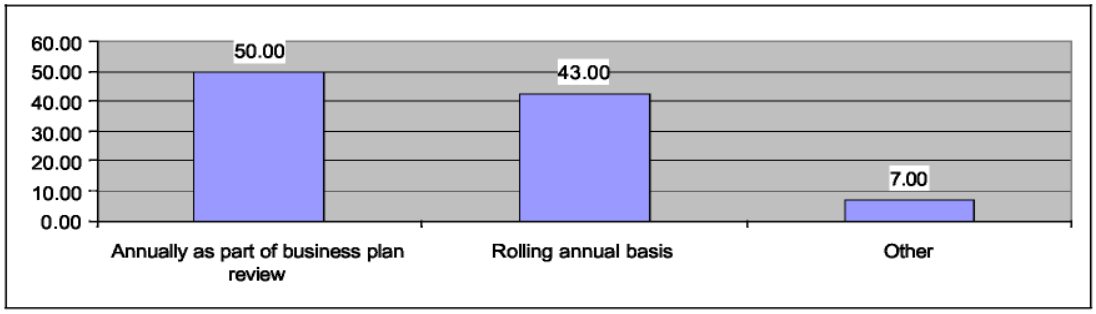
- Every company has corporate governance as part of its operating strategy and conducts some form of governance audit across all its businesses.
- There is no clear or consistent 'ownership' of corporate governance or CSR at board level
- EU and national legislation rank equal (28 per cent) with local/national stock exchange listing requirements as the key drivers for corporate governance. Pressure groups (6 per cent) rank below peer company pressure, US corporate reform and international stock exchange requirements for these UK based businesses.
- Specialist committees of the board are responsible for corporate governance in only 17 per cent of businesses, In a third of companies the board as a whole takes responsibility while for 45 per cent of businesses either the chairman (21 per cent) or the chief executive (24 per cent) takes the responsibility.
- Accountablity to the board for CSR is vested in specialist committees of the board for 23 per cent of businesses and with Corporate Communications or Public Affairs in 24 per cent of business
- Ninety three per cent of all businesses had some form of rigorous system in place to evaluate the effectiveness of CSR activities within their organisations. Eighty five per cent of businesses had system in place for measuring ethical and social performance.
- One third of all businesses have no formal system in place to take Governance and CSR audit improvements forward
- Every business has an active stakeholder dialogue process in place

- The main benefits of an active stakeholder dialogue are in identifying key activities for public affairs or reputation management (30 per cent) and in evaluating and reporting on social performance over time (28 per cent).

It is not difficult to highlight the contradictions evident from these headline results or point to a lack of consistency and cohesion across business in the way that Corporate Governance and Corporate (Social) Responsibility is owned, managed, and accounted. They provide easy targets for the moderately sceptical let alone those whose targets are the free enterprise system itself. Even the introduction by individual countries of some form of statutory Non-Financial-Reporting system seems unlikely to provide anything of the certainty that accounting standards bring to financial reporting.



Almost two thirds of our group uses an internal audit system to meet their needs **(chart 5)** inviting the question whether the 39 per cent using an external audit process are anticipating legislation.



Over 90 per cent of those businesses surveyed review their corporate governance standards and best practice criteria annually **(chart 11)**.

Behind the headlines – Taking Corporate Governance Seriously

Corporate Governance is now part of every company's operating business strategy and every respondent business conducted a governance audit of some kind across all its business units

But according to this same group, there is clear ownership of the topic at board level but no consistency (chart 7).

For 43 per cent it is an annual rolling activity; for 50 percent it is part of the business plan review. Only 10 per cent conduct any review on an ad hoc or 'as needed' basis.

Where does responsibility for corporate governance reside within your organisation?

The Board	35%
Chief Executive	24%
The Chairman	21%
Specialist Committee of the Board	17%
Company Secretary/Corporate Council	3%

Whatever the reasons the rate of the pace of change in the importance of corporate governance in business is clear.

What importance has corporate governance been in your organisation over the following periods and what will it be in the next five years?

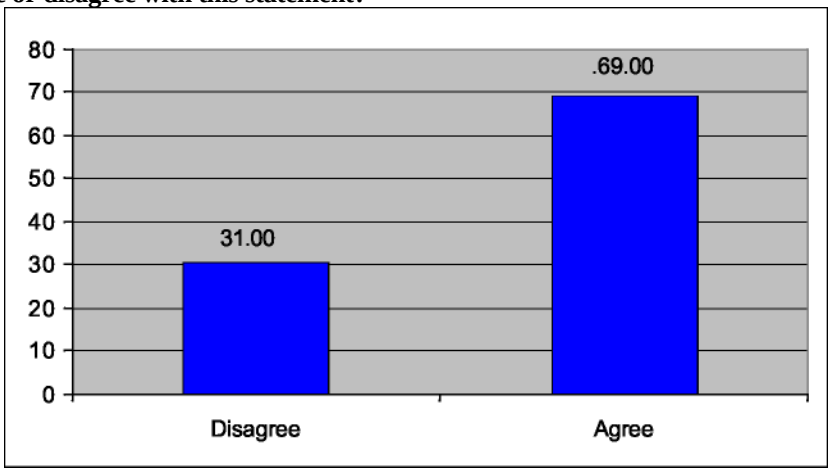
	1998	Now	2008
Very high priority	35 %	70 %	80 %
High priority	60 %	15 %	20 %
Average priority	5 %	15 %	

From CORPORATE GOVERNANCE TO CSR – Corporate (Social) Responsibility

For the purpose of our research we adopted an inclusive definition for CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility and Reporting):

"CSR- Corporate Social Responsibility is about how companies manage the business processes to produce an overall positive impact on society."

'Corporate *social responsibility and social reporting have been defined as corporate governance in action'* – do you agree or disagree with this statement?



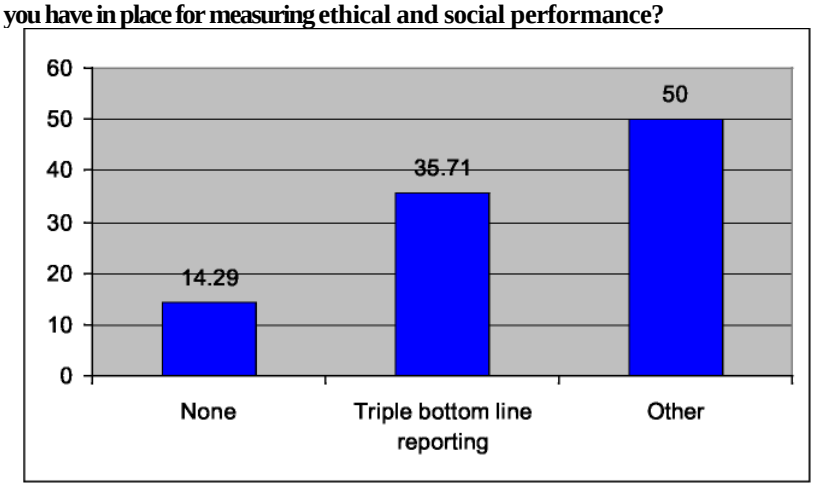
Is there a clear reporting procedure to the board in placefor corporate social responsibility?

'92.5 per cent organisations responding answered – YES

Taking Corporate (Social) Responsibility Seriously

Walking the talk, or recognising that 'we are judged by what we do rather than just by what we say' is no longer the stuff or corporate brochures and mission statement or sound bites from management conferences. Business has invested heavily in sophisticated and systematic measurement and evaluation systems and structures and established clear internal reporting systems for ethical and non-financial reporting to the board.

What systems do you have in place for measuring ethical and social performance?



The organisations that answered ***other***, specified it as:

- Annual CSR report
- Disclosure of corporate donation and activities
- Social reporting, both centrally and at end market level
- Dedicated board committee, targets and reporting
- Moving towards triple bottom line reporting
- Balanced business scorecard

What internal systems are in place for ethical/social/non-financial reporting to the board?

Annual strategic review	42%
Part of a routine monthly or quarterly reporting process	24%
Other	24%
Stand alone	5%
None	5%

The organisations that answered ***other,*** specified it as:

- Regional corporate social committees and board CSR committees
- Dedicated board committee, targets and reporting
- Annual via social reporting process

At the same time measurement and reporting standards for making internal judgements on activity, the 'being judged by what we do' dimension is just as rigorous.

Where does accountability for CSR activities rest within your organisation?

Specialist committee of the board	23%
Corporate communications/public affairs	24%
The board	19%
Chief Executive	14%
The chairman	10%
Operating management	10%

How does your organisation evaluate the effectiveness of CSR programmes?

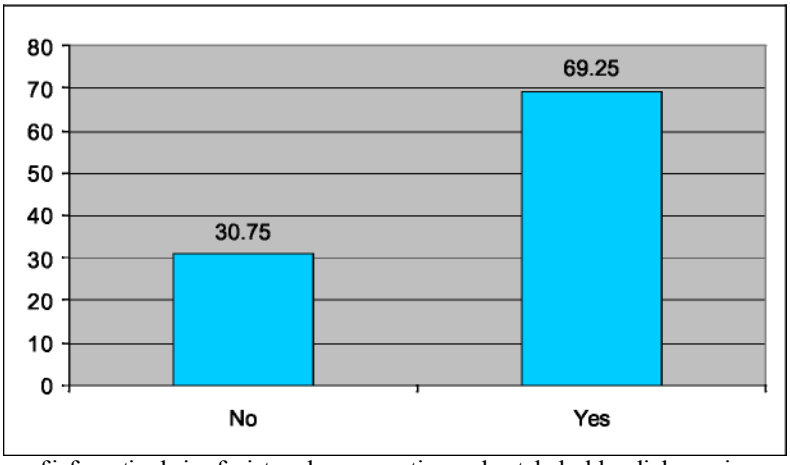
Through an external social audit	35%
By appraisal	18%
The audit procedures are evaluated against a competency framework	14%
Against pre-determined outcomes/measures	11%
By continuously tracking a project	11%
There is no formal evaluation	7%
Other	4%

Of those organisations that answered ***other,*** methodologies identified included:

- Using an AA1000 process
- An external independent audit

For the majority of businesses formal systems exist to drive improvements that result from the 'social audit' through the organisation. The only surprise is that there is such a significant minority of businesses with no structures or systems in place to respond to audit identified issues.

Are there formal systems in place in order to drive improvements through the organisation following the results of the social audit?



There is no question of information being for internal consumption only stakeholder dialogue is a pro-active process for every company surveyed

Is your stakeholder dialogue proactive?

100 % of organisations answered YES to this question.

and the methodologies used are, in the main, impressive.

How is stakeholder dialogue in your company encouraged?

Formal planned meetings	20%
Website	18%
The annual report	17%
Regular briefing	15%
Informal planned meetings	15%
A tailored/customised report	12%
Other	3%

The organisations that answered ***other*** cited

a) On-going consultation,
b) Social reporting processes (unspecified) c.
c) Several formal consultative bodies

We have assumed that the 18 per cent of businesses that encouraged dialogue through their website did not use it as the only channel for communication. If that were the case they could be accused of having either a supreme confidence in technology or the 21st century version of the cavalier approach that was part of a different era in industrial and employee and community relations.

None of this investment of time, resources and professional expertise in stakeholder dialoguing is made without a clear identification of the benefits for the organisation.

What do you see as the main benefits of stakeholder dialogue for your organisation?

Identify key activities for public affairs, areas of reputation management	30%
Other	28%
Evaluate and report on social performance over time	28%
Influence Benchmarking	14%
Stakeholder dialogue is kept to a minimum with all groups except shareholders	0%
Stakeholder dialogue is always to a minimum	0%

Those that answered *other,* listed:

a) Enhancement of long-term shareholder value
b) Ability to learn and respond to needs of stakeholders
c) Advancing the corporate reputation
d) Identify changes to policy and practice in order to meet stakeholder expectations

Over half the main benefits of stakeholder dialogue feed straight into public relations strategy and planning and nearly a quarter of all businesses make the corporate communication or public affairs function to be accountable to the board for – Corporate (Social) Responsibility – CSR. It could be suggested that the World Council for Churches was both reflecting reality and the challenge of perception in correlating CSR with Public Relations.

Assessing the challenge for public relations…

Our research was directed at establishing the patterns of ownership, management and accountability for Corporate Governance and Corporate (Social) Responsibility and reporting in leading international businesses based in the UK. Any assessment of the resulting challenges for public relations is based on our extrapolation and interpretation of the research results we have highlighted in this paper.

1. WCC trivialised the CSR activities of multi-nationals by describing them as public relations exercises.
   Is public relations robust enough to demonstrate that only those CSR activities that are 'public relations exercises' are likely to provide real benefit to civil society.
2. Despite all rigorous, sophisticated and systematic auditing and internal reporting of CSR programme effectiveness almost a third of companies reporting had no formal system in place to drive improvements from the results of a social audit through the organisation.
   Is public relations able to make the contribution to operational management to ensure that the feedback loop and the resulting activity is effective.
3. Only a quarter of all companies put the responsibility for accountability to the board for CSR activity in the hands of public relations (public affairs/corporate communication).
   Is this a reflection of the pace of development of public relations into a management role beyond those of media, relationships and events.
4. The systems used for measuring ethical and social performance and evaluating the effectiveness of CSR programmes included; the balanced business scorecard, triple bottom line reporting, board committee set targets, evaluation against competency frameworks.
   Is the public relations professional as well equipped as his or her colleagues in management to use and interpret these audit and evaluation tools or introduce them into their organisations.
5. An annual report is identified as one of the systems for measuring ethical and social performance and for communication with stakeholders by a third of businesses. A look back over three years at the 'Social Reports' published by a random selection of our surveyed businesses provides a detailed but different project report approach each year unlike the continuous updated performance report provided in the standard annual financial and operational report.
   Is public relations able to introduce and manage consistent and coherent reporting on CSR and/or non-financial issues and indicators to the same standard as their counterparts in accounting

This is not a finite list our research was intended to contribute to the debate against a background of national governments in Europe and elsewhere wrestling with formulating future legislative and regulatory frameworks for non financial accountability.

Crisis Communication: A Case-Analysis of the American Red Cross's Public Relations Following September 11th

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This study analyzes the importance of effective crisis communication when an organization is facing a crisis situation. Effective crisis communication can help an organization recover from a crisis situation. However, it can be difficult to determine what makes certain strategies more effective than others, and why some organizations recover more quickly than others. The American Red Cross provides an excellent study of effective crisis communication. The Red Cross faced a crisis situation in the months following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. After the attacks, the very well respected Red Cross received a tremendous outpouring of donations – both money and blood. The Red Cross intended to use the money for programs related to the attacks and the relief effort, but did not intend to give all of the money directly to victims or their families. Unfortunately, this was not made clear to the public, and the donors felt misled. Public opinion of the Red Cross dropped in the months following the terrorist attacks. The Red Cross was facing a crisis situation. However, within one year, public opinion was again favorable, with poles indicating that it was back at its original levels (H. Cummons, personal interview, January 10, 2003).

This paper consists primarily of a review of literature analyzing some existing theories and research in crisis communication. Emphasis is placed on research studying crisis plans, team management, image restoration, and organizational accountability. Literature written about the Red Cross at this time is also reviewed.

This study closes with an analysis of limitations in the available research, and a proposed methodology for studying how the Red Cross was successfully able to recover from their crisis situation.

Out on a Long Limb: An Examination of Public Relations Education and its Support from the Practice

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Donald K. Wright, Professor of Communication at the University of South Alabama, will present a research paper "Out on a Long Limb: An Examination of Public Relations Education and its Support from the Practice" at the 7th Annual International, Interdisciplinary Public Relations Conference at the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida, March 12, 2004.

This research paper focuses on the unfortunate reality that although public relations education is based on a solid body knowledge that continues to develop and expand, the overall support it receives from the public relations practice is woefully bad, at best.

The paper also laments the reality that public relations education continues to fall far behind most of the more traditional, university-based forms of professional education in terms of administrative and financial resources from many of the universities that teach public relations courses even though many of these institutions make huge profits off of public relations education due to its popularity with students and its ability to attract much larger than average enrollment figures.

Although addressing a number of isolated exceptions where public relations education and research has received appropriate support from the practice and from universities, the paper contends that public relations education and research never will attain an equal status with other academic professional disciplines, and, in turn, with other professions or occupations, until it is properly positioned within university structures and appropriately supported by the majority of those who work in the field of public relations.

Data used to support the paper's arguments were collected through a variety of personal and telephone interviews with public relations scholars and practitioners, and through a web-based survey of public relations educators. The paper offers a number of specific suggestions that could improve public relations education and enhance the support it receives both on and off campus.

Out on a Long Limb: An Examination of Public Relations Education and its Support from the Practice

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Introduction and Overview

More than 30 years ago, during a meeting of the Public Relations Division of the then Association for Education in Journalism, Cutlip and Bateman (1973), criticized "the unsatisfactory and disparate state of public relations education in US colleges and universities." These co-authors, arguably one the leading public relations academicians of all time and one of the most nationally recognizable practitioners of that era, wrote the following paragraphs.

> The need for qualified, competent, professional assistance in this field was never greater than it is today. Yet the heavy hand of the past – its publicity genesis – still dominates public relations practice today when our divided society cries out for communication, conciliation and community. Call it "public relations," "public affairs," "corporate communications," or whatever you will, the need for trained persons in this area is likely to increase in coming decades, as our society becomes even more complex.
>
> Yet, we have already witnessed and are witnessing today a dearth of professional public relations practitioners capable of operating at the higher executive levels in all institutions – public and private – where their counsel is needed. The number of qualified people in public relations is incapable of meeting the demand for competent practitioners. Generally speaking, most of those in public relations work today were not specifically educated for this type of career. They are "retreads" from other fields of communication.
>
> In the last quarter-century, more and more institutions of higher learning have turned their attention to public relations as a field of study. To a very considerable extent, courses in public relations are offered on an elective basis at the undergraduate level. Many of the courses, however, are taught by instructors who themselves are not fully qualified in the theory and practice of public relations (Cutlip & Bateman, 1973, pp. 1-2).

Ironically, three decades later, much remains unchanged. The need for qualified public relations practitioners is greater than ever; much of public relations education and practice continues to focus more on outputs than outcomes; our field continues to be called by a variety of different names – rarely public relations; counsel of qualified public relations experts is needed at the executive level in all sorts of organizations; most who work in public relations were not specifically educated in our field; more and more colleges and universities are teaching public relations; and, not all who do this teaching are fully qualified.

For several centuries, scholars have said that a major characteristic distinguishing a profession from an occupation was the intellectual base of the former. For nearly half a century, global evidence has existed suggesting that effective public relations practice requires knowledge, skill and intellect. Public relations education is based on a solid body knowledge that continues to develop and expand. Whatever the reasons, however, the support for public relations education is woefully bad, at best. Some say it's even deplorable. Although there are a few isolated exceptions where public relations education and research receives appropriate support, and there are several hundred practitioners who are great friends and supporters of public relations education and research, the reality is most public relations practitioners couldn't care less about public relations education and research. Furthermore, only a small percentage of universities even teach public relations, and many of them neither teach it properly nor hire faculty not qualified either to conduct cutting-edge research in the field or to teach about current, cutting-edge strategic public relations problems.

This paper contends that public relations education and research never will attain an equal status with other academic professional disciplines, and, in turn, with other professions or occupations, until it is properly positioned within university structures and appropriately supported by the majority of those who work in the field of public relations. Data used to support these arguments were collected through a variety of personal and telephone interviews with public relations scholars and practitioners, and through a web-based survey of public relations educators. The paper offers a number of specific suggestions that could improve public relations education and enhance the support it receives both on and off campus.

Background

Cutlip, Center and Broom (2000) report the number of public relations practitioners in the US grew from 162,000 in 1990 to 197,000 in 2000. When *U.S. News & World Report* (1997) included public relations in its list of "best jobs" seven years ago the magazine predicted the number of public relations jobs in the nation could grow by 55 percent by 2006. If one accepts these figures and predictions, there are more than a quarter of a million public relations practitioners in the US today. Johnson and Ross (2000) say 145 US universities offered public relations degree programs in 1999, and Becker (2002), who conducts annual studies on the size

of journalism and mass communication enrollments in the nation, claims there were 12,400 undergraduates majoring in public relations at US universities in 2000.

In spite of these large numbers, neither a course nor two in public relations nor a public relations degree is anything but a prerequisite for employment in public relations. Cutlip, Center and Broom (2000) report that approximately 40 percent of those now working in public relations majored in journalism, and they say news-editorial university graduates outnumber public relations graduates two to one. David Ferguson (1987), the former chief public relations officer for US Steel and a huge supporter of public relations education, once said, "Public relations will never reach the status of a profession as long as people can get into the field and prosper without having completed a fairly rigorous course of study in the field."

Dialogue and discussion about public relations education has taken place over the years through a number of "commissions" sponsored and cosponsored by professional associations such as the Institute for Public Relations (IPR), the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA), the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC), the International Public Relations Association (IPRA), the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC), the Arthur W. Page Society and the National Communication Association (NCA). The first of these, a Commission on Public Relations Education, was formed in 1973 by the Association for Education in Journalism (later to be known as AEJMC), and issued a report in 1975, "A Design for Public Relations Education" (Commission on Public Relations Education, 1975). Among other recommendations, this report suggested curricula for undergraduate and graduate study in public relations. Most of these recommendations are now required for accreditation by the Accrediting Council on Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC) as well as for certification by PRSA.

As public relations education rapidly grew and expanded during the 1970s and 1980s, two other educational commissions were created to update and review changes in public relations education and its curriculum. These included the Commission on Graduate Study in Public Relations, established by the Public Relations Division of AEJMC in 1982, and the Commission on Undergraduate Public Relations, cosponsored by the Public Relations Division of AEJMC and the Educators Section of PRSA in 1983. Both of these groups issued lengthy reports. The graduate commission's report provided detailed suggestions for graduate study in public relations" (Commission on Graduate Study in Public Relations, 1985), and the undergraduate commission's report recommended updating the 1975 curriculum suggestions " (Commission on Undergraduate Public Relations Education, 1987).

Ehling (1992) thoroughly reviewed the work of all three of these commissions. He pointed out the first group was responsible for strengthening and standardizing undergraduate and graduate education in public relations and made good strides in developing a dialogue between educators and practitioners. This early commission recommended a curriculum consisting of course work in three main areas – liberal arts, communication studies and public relations studies. When the commission on graduate studies was convened, Ehling (1992) says more than 50 US universities were offering graduate degree programs in public relations, and he summarizes the major goals of this graduate commission as being designing a model graduate-level curriculum and making sure this curriculum met the needs of the public relations practice. The graduate commission's report was somewhat parallel with that of the first commission except that it focused upon graduate study. As this report discussed what it called, "the drive toward professionalism through new emphasis on graduate study in public relations," it said, "practitioners and educators must act in concert to guide public relations in the direction pf professionalism. Without this necessary partnership, the practice of public relations will never attain the professional status it needs and deserves to perform the communication and management tasks it has been assigned in the United States." (Commission on Graduate Study in Public Relations, 1985. p. 5).

The Commission on Undergraduate Public Relations Education was formed in 1987 by the Public Relations Division of AEJMC in co-sponsorship with 24 other organizations including the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA), the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC), the Institute for Public Relations (IPR), the International Public Relations Association (IPRA), and the National Communication Association (NCA). This group's report, (Commission on Undergraduate Public Relations Education, 1987), continued to echo the need for an undergraduate degree consisting of at least half of liberal arts courses with about one-quarter of the degree in professional courses including the so-called "five-course requirement" of identifiable public relations courses in public relations principles and theory, communication principles as applicable to public relations activity, strategic planning and evaluative research, management principles involving goal setting and program implementation, and a supervised internship program.

As these last two commissions were wrapping up their activities, several other groups surfaced that would impact the future of public relations education and scholarship. These included the Task Force on

Demonstrating Professionalism and the Body of Knowledge Task Force, both created by PRSA in 1986 (Ehling, 1992), and an Assessment Task team that resulted in several recommendations and reports by NCA in 1998 (Coombs & Rybacki, 1999). NCA also held a Summer Conference on Public Relations Education.

Another major public relations education commission, the Commission on Public Relations Education, was created in 1999 and remains active today. This group was comprised of 47 educators and practitioners and has been effectively managed by PRSA in close co-sponsorship with AEJMC, IPR, NCA, IABC, IPRA, the International Communication Association (ICA), and the Association for Women in Communication. This group's initial report, by far the most thorough of the various commission reports, elaborated thoroughly on components for baccalaureate, masters and doctoral degree programs in public relations and also made recommendations about teaching methods and faculty qualifications (Commission on Public Relations Education, 1975). Unlike previous commission reports, this one also made recommendations regarding continuing education for practitioners and workloads for public relations faculty at colleges and universities. It also raised appropriate questions about accreditation and certification programs offered for public relations education by ACEJMC and PRSA, and briefly touched upon resources universities needed to provide for public relations degree programs.

Recommendations of this 1999 report included encouraging the following:

- Having public relations practitioners "take a new look at the 'products' of today's public relations education" (p. 35).
- Getting more practitioners to become involved in accreditation and certification programs of public relations education.
- The creation of "additional endowed chairs in public relations at academic institutions with outstanding public relations programs" (p. 35).
- Having individual public relations professionals, "especially those who have benefited handsomely from public relations practice" (p. 35), to make significant financial contributions to public relations education.
- Getting both practitioners and educators to develop and participate in "projects of topical and long-term social significance."
- The development of joint research projects, administered by educators and funded by the practice.
- Creating ways to enhance the funding of and financial support for public relations education (Commission on Public Relations Education, 2001, pp. 35-36).

The Struggle to Improve PR Education

As Judy VanSlyke and I have pointed out on several occasions (Wright & VanSlyke Turk, 2003), public relations education has both flourished and struggled since Edward L. Bernays taught the first course in public relations at New York University in 1923 (Cutlip, Center & Broom, 2000, p. 124). In spite of the growth in formal education in public relations – growth both in terms of numbers of programs and numbers of students – there still remains a lack of consensus about how, or even whether, public relations should be taught at US universities. Some of the greatest discrepancies facing public relations education continue to be lack of support, encouragement and understanding from those who practice the profession.

Whatever the reasons, the support for public relations education and research is woefully bad, at best. Some say it's even deplorable. Most US universities don't even teach public relations much less conduct research in it, and many schools that teach public relations neither teach it properly nor hire faculty qualified to conduct cutting edge research in our field. Until public relations education and research is properly positioned within university structures it will never achieve the respect needed to put us on a par with other academic disciplines, and in turn, with other professions or occupations.

A considerable amount of the next few pages consists of information we previously authored for the aforementioned reports. In an academic paper of this nature, the normal procedure would be merely to cite the previous works and direct readers to them. Unfortunately, however, these materials are not as readily available as traditional books or journal articles. The earlier version consists of a spiral bound volume of chapters with a diminishing number of copies available. It exists in few libraries. The latter version was circulated on a CD-Rom. Although interested parties could purchase this CD from PRSA, the author believes few would do so, and that's why the following information is provided in such great detail.

Philosophical differences

A number of major philosophical differences continue to exist today among public relations educators and between educators and practitioners. These include:

- What constitutes an appropriate public relations curriculum;
- Whether public relations is more appropriately taught at the undergraduate or graduate level;
- What academic unit or combination thereof (business, communication, journalism and/or mass communication) most appropriately serves as the best academic "home" for public relations;
- What qualifications are necessary for those who teach public relations at universities in the United States?

These philosophical differences sometimes have divided divide public relations educators and to pitted educator against practitioner. Everyone, it seems, is an "expert" on public relations education, largely because

public relations education is grappling with the same central concern that dominates the practice of public relations: is, or isn't, public relations education a profession, a unique calling characterized by a body of knowledge, a prescribed means of training and preparation for entry, and a code of ethical conduct adhered to by all those who call themselves public relations educators?

Public relations educators, like those who actually practice public relations, haven't even been able to agree upon a definition of what it is they do and how they're supposed to do it, much less achieve consensus about the parameters of professionalism that should guide their endeavors. Is it any wonder, then, that public relations education – and, indeed the entire public relations practice – faces a lack of credibility and fails to earn support, encouragement and understanding?

Some PR education problems are unending

There is nothing much new about the questions facing undergraduate public relations education in the US today. A review of the literature from two or three decades ago provides ample evidence that many of the problems faced then continue to plague public relations education (Bernays, 1978; Chase, 1961; Mader, 1958 & 1969; Mortimer, 1963; Walker, 1982; and, Westland, 1974). As Doug Newsom, leading public relations educator and past president of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC), has pointed out, "It is not surprising that a discipline that cannot even agree on its definition is confused about career preparation (Newsom, 1984).

Early in the 1980s we identified the following problems as the major obstacles impeding the progress and continued professional development of public relations education (Wright, 1982):

- Enrollments were increasing faster than employment opportunities for graduates;
- There was a shortage of qualified public relations professors;
- Some practitioners were questioning the abilities of some graduates of public relations programs;
- Some practitioners continued to doubt that public relations education had any value at all;
- Despite its maturation and growth, public relations education still lacked the respect accorded other professional educational programs, such as law, medicine and accounting.

At that time we pointed out that many of those obstacles were not peculiar to public relations education. Certainly other university-based educational programs preparing students for other disciplines were facing many of those same roadblocks along their routes to professional credibility. But while the obstacles facing public relations education were not uncommon, they were serious concerns for the entire public relations profession twenty years ago.

As we entered the 1990s, we reported that public relations education still faced many of the same obstacles we had identified a decade and more ago. And since other problems also had arisen, we created the following agenda for what we then called the future of public relations education. It addressed this list of problems and concerns:

- Considerable growth in the number of public relations programs that have developed, especially within speech and speech-communications schools or departments.
- A shortage of qualified public relations faculty exacerbated by this mushrooming growth in the number of university-based public relations degree programs.
- Continued enrollment growth in public relations education, with an increase in quantity often accompanied by a decrease in quality. Public relations education should not be the "dumping ground" for students "who like people" and want to study public relations because they flunked out of business, education, law or whatever. There is a need to attract more highly qualified students into university-based public relations degree programs.
- Lack of significant, seminal research by public relations educators, and lack of encouragement for or use of such scholarly research by practitioners.
- Dogmatic lists of "musts" and "must nots" that public relations practitioners and practitioner-oriented professional societies, such as the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA), seek to impose upon public relations curricula.
- The possible need to change the focus of public relations education away from the traditional skill-based focus of preparing graduates for entry-level jobs as communication technicians to a focus that would prepare graduates for positions that combine hands-on communication skills with administration and management and problem-solving duties.
- Frustration on the part of public relations educators over the continued insistence by some public relations practitioners to have public relations taught in university schools and colleges of business, management and commerce, despite the reality that most business faculty know little about public relations, and the few who do often hold a considerable amount of negative prejudice toward the field.
- Lack of administrative support for the public relations function within universities. Public relations education often lacks the support of department chairs, deans, academic vice presidents and provosts, regardless of the academic unit public relations calls home (business, communication, journalism and/or mass communication, or speech-communication).
- Continued resistance by many of the nation's large research universities to offering public relations curricula, resulting in continued concentration of public relations education – even the best public relations education – at smaller, regional comprehensive universities.

- Lack of significant involvement by public relations education and/or educators in continuing education and professional development education for practitioners.

Having identified the major issues and obstacles currently faced by public relations education, we can examine these in some detail.

Curriculum issues

The suggestion that the focus of public relations curricula should be changed or modified from technical to managerial is relatively new, spawned by a significant body of research into public relations practitioner roles (VanSlyke Turk, 1989 & Wakefield & Cottone, 1986). The central focus of many undergraduate programs, especially those housed within journalism/mass communication programs, continues to be the teaching of practical communication skills: writing, editing, graphics, photography, broadcast production, desktop publishing. Both practitioners and educators – at least those educators from journalism/mass communication backgrounds or traditions – agree that the teaching of those skills is important.

The question is whether or not those skills still are of paramount importance, when every indication is that the public relations career track involves a progression from entry-level skills jobs to higher-level managerial positions? Many educators and professionals argue that public relations programs increasingly have an obligation to prepare students not just for their first entry-level jobs, but for their lifetime careers, and therefore public relations curricula must increasingly include attention to administrative and managerial topics: strategic planning, problem-solving, communication facilitating, budgeting and the like.

Even though they agree that public relations curricula should be broadened to include these managerial concerns, educators are, in many cases, hard-pressed to squeeze additional management-oriented public relations courses into an already overfull program of study. Most academic units limit the number of courses students can take in their major in order to encourage a broad, liberal education in the arts and sciences alongside professional preparation. Programs accredited by the Accrediting Council for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC) must adhere to strict guidelines limiting courses in the major to about 25 percent of a student's program. If more management perspectives and skills are to be taught, these might occur at the expense of the communication skills courses that are most needed by public relations students when they enter the job market. Walker (1981) reported that many graduate public degree programs in public relations teach very few public relations courses, and frequently are filled with instruction from other areas and/or departments including journalism, mass communication, advertising, marketing, political science and public administration.

Another major curriculum issue surrounds the differences between courses and study designed to teach about public relations "outputs," and those focused upon public relations "outcomes." Outputs deal with the technical skill sets necessary for effective public relations practice and include areas such as writing, editing, graphic creativity, etc. Outcomes concern themselves with whether or not the outputs were effective in helping to change attitudes, opinions and behavior. A press release promoting a musical concert might be an output, and the outcome might be whether or not this release was effective in interesting people to attend the event.

Although public relations education has taken great strides to incorporate theory and research into the curriculum, one problem at many universities is the reality some public relations faculty members neither stay abreast of current developments in the field nor require their students to do so. Unfortunately, some faculty members do not require their students to regularly read publications such as the *Wall Street Journal* and the nation's business press or the public relations trade press. These faculty members wait for current-day cases to be incorporated into textbooks and this often takes years.

Sriramesh (2002) has addressed the unfortunate reality that there is such an American bias to public relations research and education. He points out public relations education, "has not kept pace with the rapid globalisation (sic) that has occurred since 1992" (p. 54). He says it is time for public relations educators to integrate international experiences into the public relations body of knowledge and into public relations curricula. Taylor (2001) advocates the addition of a public relations course that incorporates topics related to culture, international practices and culturally sensitive theory.

PR's academic home

Much of the growth in public relations education during the past four decades has been confined to undergraduate or baccalaureate degree programs. Perhaps the most significant issue in terms of recent growth and development in public relations education concerns the large number of newer public relations degree programs or sequences that have been established within the confines of speech or speech-communication departments, rather than within journalism/mass communication programs, which have been the more traditional academic home bases to university-based education in public relations.

It should be mentioned here that the semantics of higher education are confusing and the word "communications" has many meanings, especially when used to identify a department, school or college. At some universities the "communication department" is a new name for the old speech department that teaches courses in public address, rhetoric, interpersonal communication and so forth. Historically many of these departments changed names from "speech" and are known as "communication" departments, even though they're really speech-communication departments.

At other universities, the "communication" department/ school/college involves a combination of disciplines that sometimes, but not always, includes advertising, broadcasting, journalism, public relations and speech-communication. For operational purposes in this article, we will consider "communication" units to involve this combination of the disciplines that grew out of speech (or speech-communication) with the academic areas that grew out of journalism (or journalism/mass communication). A speech-communication unit, for this study's purposes, would be a department that teaches those disciplines that grew out of speech and that also teaches public relations, but does not offer a full complement of sequence offerings in other areas of journalism/mass communication.

The teaching of public relations in speech-communication departments has both positive and negative ramifications. Indeed, the two authors of this paper disagree moderately about the advantages and limitations of teaching public relations in a speech-communication venue, rather than in the more traditional journalism/mass communication environment.

While public relations students in speech-communication departments usually receive a better grounding in conceptual and theoretical constructs and critical-thinking skills compared to students in journalism/mass communication-based public relations programs, they might be shortchanged when it comes to learning the communication skills and techniques such as writing, editing, graphic design and layout, that are so essential to public relations practice. And, despite perceived advantages about teaching public relations students to be managers, expert-prescribers and critical-thinking problem-solvers, the reality is that most practitioners start their careers as technicians and often are hired on the basis of their technical skills.

A possible advantage to basing public relations education in speech-communication, however, is the higher value placed upon research and scholarship among most speech-communication-based public relations faculty than by most public relations educators in journalism/mass communication programs. A great deal of the seminal research on public relations today originates with professors who teach public relations in speech-communication departments. Public relations educators in the journalism/mass communication tradition are more likely to engage in descriptive or how-to scholarship.

Most of the public relations sequences in speech- communication departments developed at two types of universities: first, the institutions where hard-line, Neanderthal-like, print-media-oriented journalism faculties did not want to develop public relations programs or sequences, and second, the universities that did not teach journalism. In the former case, many of these speech- communication units also began teaching courses in radio for the same reasons and developed them into radio-TV programs. In the latter case, some speech departments developed into total communication units, teaching a full complement of courses in speech, rhetoric, interpersonal communication, group communication, public relations, mass communication, journalism, advertising and related areas. However, some of these speech-communication departments continue to teach public relations at campuses where no journalism or mass communication skills courses are offered at all.

In addition to journalism, communication, mass communication and speech-communication units, some public relations is taught in business schools. Public relations courses in business schools have grown out of what once were known as "business communication" classes which, essentially, taught business majors how to write. Some business school faculty who used to teach undergraduate and MBA students writing and other communication skills recently have branched into the teaching of "management communication" courses which are extremely similar to public relations management and case-study courses within traditional aspects of public relations education. Much of the teaching of public relations in business schools is the result of strong encouragement from professional associations – especially the Arthur W. Page Society – to teach about public relations in business schools so future CEOs, CFOs, etc., will gain an appreciation and understanding about public relations. Ironically, few business schools use the term "public relations" to describe these courses, preferring instead to call what they do "corporate communication."

Are there too many professional associations for pr educators?

Public relations education still lacks its own professional society or association. In the early years, most public relations education was housed in journalism and/or mass communication academic units and, as such, faculty generally attended the annual conference of AEJMC where the Public Relations Division has thrived for

decades. As public relations education branched out into speech-communication programs a public relations section was established within NCA. Most of those who now teach public relations (or corporate communications) in business schools are affiliated with the business school academic associations. Some public relations faculty members from all three of these different academic units are members of the International Communication Association (ICA). In addition to these academic-based professional groups, public relations educators also participate in educator-related programming within PRSA, IABC, IPRA, and other professional societies. Kruckeberg (1998) has addressed the reality that so many professional societies and organizations compete for the interest of public relations educators.

The author of this paper once figured out he could find professional and intellectual justification for membership in more than a dozen academic and professional associations and societies. Few, if any, universities would pay for memberships in that many groups much less support travel to that many different conferences. In fact, the majority of public relations educators in the US pay their professional dues out of their own pockets, and university-supported travel funds for public relations educators are a huge embarrassment. It is not uncommon for public relations educators to have annual travel budgets of less than $1,000.

In light of these and other reasons, the professional society affiliations of public relations educators are divided amongst many different organizations. In an attempt to try and bring public relations educators together in their own annual conference, the Institute for Public Relations, in conjunction with a number of cosponsoring organizations, annually helps with the coordination of a public relations research conference. Now in its seventh year, this conference has started playing a major role in the development of public relations education and research. It also has done a terrific job facilitating dialogue between educators and senior-level public relations practitioners, many of whom attend this conference. For the past four years this conference has been hosted by the University of Miami and held in South Miami, Florida.

The difficulty of hiring qualified PR faculty

In almost any given academic year, more than 25 college or university programs search for public relations faculty. Discussions with administrators of those academic units seeking public relations faculty indicate that as many as half of those positions go unfilled, sometimes for several years, because of a lack of applicants or a shortage of qualified applicants.

It's a situation not only of supply and demand, but also a situation of changing, and rising, faculty expectations. It is extremely difficult for universities to find people with the desirable and necessary combination of academic and professional credentials willing to teach public relations, especially given the relatively low salaries paid to full-time college and university faculty. It's a fact of life that at most colleges and universities today, the name of the success game is earning tenure and promotion, and that requires research and publication, as well as good classroom teaching, to earn those rewards. The public relations faculty member most likely to succeed in this system of rewards is one who has both the academic credentials the academy expects (a Ph.D. degree) and the professional credentials (a minimum of five years of full-time, professional experience) demanded by the reality that public relations education is professional (or at least quasi-professional) education. Because there are few such "ideal" faculty candidates for most public relations faculty positions, administrators often compromise when hiring public relations faculty. Either the academic credentials or the professional experience is likely to fall by the wayside given the realities of faculty supply and demand. And many positions are not filled for years on end, resulting in faculty from other disciplines (print journalism, rhetoric, interpersonal communication) teaching public relations courses with neither academic nor professional credentials in public relations.

Public relations education doesn't "grow its own" professors the way programs in speech communication or journalism do. There's a noticeable lack of doctoral programs with concentrations in public relations. In addition, doctoral students in related fields, such as speech-communication or journalism/mass communication, who might be interested in preparing for teaching careers in public relations, often are thwarted in their desire to focus their doctoral studies on public relations because of a shortage of qualified public relations faculty on their campuses to direct the Ph.D. studies.

Large numbers of students who seek to major in public relations, particularly at the undergraduate level, continue to be both a blessing and a curse: a blessing in that large numbers of students make the programs popular (or at least demanding of notice and attention) among university administrators, but a curse in the face of the reality that there often aren't enough public relations faculty to do an effective job of preparing students – and that there often aren't enough jobs for even those students who are properly prepared!

PR scholarship and research

When compared to their colleagues in other areas of speech- communication and journalism/mass communication, most public relations educators aren't prolific scholars and researchers. Certainly, the large

teaching loads, and heavier than average service expectations, contribute to a lack of research. However, an even more compelling explanation for the lack of research productivity is the reality that many of these people are ill- equipped to be scholars or researchers of public relations. Their academic preparation probably is not even in public relations, and many sadly lack the conceptual, theoretical and methodological prerequisites necessary before exploring and investigating questions of significance to public relations. Their professional preparation, if they have any, isn't likely to have prepared them for research, since study after study has documented the paucity of research (formulative or evaluative) used in the practice of public relations.

Those who do engage in research find few scholarly or professional journals in public relations that are willing or able to publish the results of their scholarship, and most speech-communication or journalism/mass communication journals seem to look with disdain on publishing public relations research, preferring instead research more in the "mainstream" of their particular disciplines.

And there's precious little financial support for public relations research. Few colleges and universities provide more in the way of support than perhaps a bit of time off from teaching and a part-time graduate assistant. Few foundations, government or private, fund public relations research, and practitioners and practitioner organizations do no better.

Lack of respect for PR education from practitioners

Although there are a number of noted exceptions, the reality is most public relations practitioners do not respect public relations education.

Before proceeding further on this topic, let's make it exceptionally clear that public relations education has benefited greatly from the support it has received over the past half century from several hundred practitioners. A partial list of the names of these people would include J. Carroll Bateman, Betsy Plank, David Ferguson, Paul Alvarez, Allen Center, Ron Rhody, Frank Wylie, Bill Adams, John Paluszek, John Beardsley, Sue Bohle, Joan Capelin, Jerry Dalton, Bill Corbett, Jack Felton, Stan Hudson, Carole Howard, Wilma Matthews, Jay Rockey, Patrick Jackson, Isobel Parke, Judith Phair, Nancy Wolfe, Grant Horne, Harold Burson, Chester Burger, Ed Block, Larry Foster, Bill Nielsen, David Drobis, Dan Edelman, Dick Mau, Jack Koten, Ward White, Peter Debreceny, Frank Ovaitt, Ron Culp, Matt Gonring, Bruce Harrison, Maril MacDonald, Anne McCarthy, Lou Williams, Chris Komisarjevsky, John Budd, Jack Bergen, Roger Bolton, Jim Murphy, Bill Margaritis, Elliot Schreiber, Steve Harris, Ann Barkelew, Jim Arnold, John Graham, Joe Epley, Katly Lewton and Dwayne Summer. If you keep adding names to this list eventually it includes several hundred people.

Although this is impressive, the reality is that's far less than one percent of those practicing public relations in the US today. While public relations educators are greatly appreciative of the support they have received from these and other individuals, the reality of the situation is a larger number of public relations practitioners frequently have been critical of public relations education.

Certainly, some of this practitioner criticism probably is justified. There are some university-based public relations programs that truly are terrible. There are some places where the public relations faculty never have published refereed scholarship, and there are institutions who have hired incompetents to teach public relations. Even though these programs are in the minority, public relations educators should face up to these realities and clean up their own back yard.

The universities teaching public relations

Although public relations sequences or programs exist at nearly 150 American universities, fewer than 15 of these programs are located at institutions where public relations' academic homes – a speech-communication or journalism/mass communication unit – offer Ph.D. programs. Only six of these public relations programs are at what higher education considers major research universities. The rest of the programs are at "comprehensive" rather than "research" institutions.

This affects two of the problem areas already discussed: lack of research by public relations educators, and a shortage of faculty with academic credentials (the Ph.D.) in public relations.

While they value and encourage research and scholarship by faculty, comprehensive universities place more emphasis on the teaching leg of the three-legged stool (research, teaching and service) that constitutes an academic career. Faculty at these universities, unlike faculty at major research universities, are expected to be teachers first and researchers second, and are rewarded accordingly.

With few public relations programs located in units that offer doctoral degrees, there is little possibility for public relations to create its own professors. An individual who wants to pursue a terminal degree as preparation for teaching public relations will in most cases have to settle for a doctoral program in some other field.

Although the preceding four paragraphs paint an accurate picture of traditional elements of public relations education, what little public relations (or corporate communication as it's usually called in this case) being taught in US business schools tends to exist at some of the nation's more major research universities. While

excellent public relations is taught within journalism and communication units at major research universities such as Boston U., Brigham Young, Florida, Maryland, Miami, Ohio U., Purdue and Syracuse, some of the nation's better programs also exist at institutions such as San Diego State, Ball State, Northern Iowa, San Jose State, Texas Christian, Virginia Commonwealth, and, perhaps, South Alabama. Business schools currently teaching corporate communication components include Dartmouth, Harvard, Notre Dame, UCLA and Virginia.

The Arthur W. Page Society deserves considerable credit for working closely with business schools at these major universities in attempts to encourage their teaching and research about public relations and corporate communications. It is unfortunate that, years ago, a professional association did not come forward and show a similar interest about public relations education programs in journalism and communication units.

Individual PR faculty have a huge impact

Perhaps more than within any field in academic, excellent public relations degree programs tend to be associated with individual faculty members more than they are connected with universities themselves. In other fields – medicine, law, business, engineering, agriculture, etc. – the nation's leading programs appear to stay on top even when noted faculty retire or leave for opportunities elsewhere. Such really isn't the case in public relations. This is true for the medical school at Johns Hopkins, the business school at Harvard, the mathematics department at MIT, and many other academic situations. In public relations education, however, excellence seems to rest more with individual faculty members than with universities themselves.

For example, three decades ago any list of the top five public relations degree programs in the country would have included Wisconsin, Ohio State and Texas, probably in that order. The reason for that was much more the people teaching public relations at those institutions than it was these universities themselves. Scott Cutlip frequently was known as the "father of public relations education" during the many years he taught at Wisconsin. However, since he left Madison and moved to the University of Georgia, Wisconsin rarely has been considered as having one of the nation's leading public relations degree programs. The same could be said for Ohio State and Walter Seifert as well as for Texas and Alan Scott. Wisconsin briefly stayed on the list of the nation's elite public relations degree programs when Glen Broom was hired to replace Cutlip. However, Broom's stay in Madison was brief and it wasn't long before he went to San Diego State which now is considered to have a much better public relations degree program than Wisconsin.

The University of Maryland is significant in this mix for several reasons. Everyone realizes the public relations faculty at Maryland is anchored by Jim and Lauri Grunig, two of the world's most noted public relations educators, who are about to retire. A major question within public relations education today is whether or not Maryland will provide the resources necessary to hire adequate replacements for them. Ironically, the same universities that frequently have no difficulty paying the coach of one athletic team a salary much higher than the coach of another athletic team are not willing to, for example, pay a public relations faculty member more money than someone who teaches rhetoric or journalism. It will be interesting to see if and how public relations educators and public relations practitioners are able to work together in an attempt to encourage Maryland to replace two of the world's leading public relations educators.

Unless and until excellence in public relations education becomes associated with universities more than with individual faculty members there will be a huge rotating and revolving door as far as excellence in public relations education is concerned.

Lack of administrative support

It is a huge understatement to say that public relations education lacks respect from most of the universities that have courses and degree programs in the subject. Public relations education not only fails not get much respect from the administrators who head the academic units in which it is housed, but also doesn't get much respect from other academic units on campus. Few administrators of schools or departments that offer public relations programs understand either the academic or professional value of public relations education. Deans and department heads of speech communication programs too often view public relations sequences, with their large numbers of students, as effective ways to balance low enrollment in areas such as rhetoric and vocal effectiveness. Deans and department heads of journalism and mass communication programs too often look down their noses at public relations education as "good journalism gone to the flacks." Most business school administrators just write public relations off as irrelevant.

Public relations educators haven't done a very good job of educating their academic bosses about public relations, or of demonstrating that public relations curricula and faculty are the equal of the other disciplines represented in their academic unit.

And few public relations educators have been elected or appointed to head the colleges, schools or departments that offer public relations programs. Not many public relations professors want to be administrators, and those who have sought and won administrative posts are heading programs at

comprehensive, rather than research, institutions. Public relations educators who apply for administrative positions often face professional prejudice from search committee members. Public relations education today is probably not as well off in this respect as it was 25 years ago when noted public relations educators (Scott M. Cutlip of Georgia and Ray E. Hiebert of Maryland) were deans of journalism/mass communication programs at major research universities.

Survey Results

In connection with this paper presentation, a short e-mail survey was conducted with a purposive sample of 125 public relations educators. Subjects were asked what they thought needed to be done in order for public relations education to be in a position to receive greater support and respect from universities and from public relations practice.

Results revealed a long list of suggestions with at least five mentions for encouraging greater ethics in the field, getting universities and practitioners to provide more financial support, educating others about what public relations is, keeping teaching workloads reasonable to public relations faculty can publish research, and encouraging greater use of research in public relations practice. A number of other comments were received including:

- "Provide financial support for public relations education akin to that enjoyed by journalism, business, law, engineering, medicine, and other professional schools."
- "Do something to provide our colleagues across campus a better understanding about what public relations is and what it does."
- "Help stamp out the huge amount of professional prejudice that exists against public relations education. This kind of prejudice is no longer tolerated in terms of gender, race, national origin, religion, sexual orientation, etc., and it should not be tolerated in terms of professional groups or occupations either."
- "We must get the public relations professional community to support public relations education; otherwise the discrimination against us will continue for another fifty years."
- "Continue to emphasize ethics in public relations and show how public relations, practiced effectively, could have gone a long way towards preventing corruption and corporate scandals that have plagued business within the past few years."
- "We need some kind of public relations campaign for public relations education. Whatever is done should be directed at university audiences and practitioner audiences."
- "We need to do what we can to encourage everyone who practices public relations to tell the truth. We need more openness and honesty, and less spin."
- "Let's not blame others until we get our own house in order. There are still too many schools teaching public relations improperly. We need to prevent universities having a dozen or more print media faculty and only one or two public relations faculty when public relations majors outnumber journalism majors three to one. We also must insist on tougher hiring, retention and tenure standards for public relations educators. Let's also get some OpEd articles in newspapers explaining what public relations is, and more importantly, what it is not."
- "Provide the opportunity for educators to take sabbaticals to work in industry at respected levels because of their expertise, and the need for professionals to teach as adjuncts. Further, professionals need to get off their opposition kick and start hiring our grads instead of saying things like "I hire more general social science and humanities majors because they write and think better." Give me a break. Those practitioners are simply operating out of fear and jealousy."
- "Licensing of the profession would help as would minimal entry requirements into the practice."
- "Educate journalists and journalism educators about the role public relations plays in society."
- "Let's do what we can to get public relations practitioners more trained in the management function of public relations so they can practice public relations as counselors rather than technicians."
- "We need to get public relations people to use research more. We talk a good game about research but we need to do what we can to make sure research becomes an important component of public relations. We might start with PRSA, IABC, IPRA, etc., and other groups that have awards programs. It would be great if future awards winners were required to have more extensive research in their winning campaigns than often is the case."
- "I believe a fundamental problem is that PR education has continued [understandably] to focus more heavily on craft and technical education at the expense of developing those more mainstream managerial skills and competences that are needed once practitioners attempt to move up the organizational hierarchy!"
- "What we might need to do is to encourage more senior practitioners to contribute more insights into (1) the management of PR as a business and perhaps most important (2) to develop and awareness of the arguments about how PR adds value to organizations."
- "Develop some way to eliminate from public relations those who are not appropriately prepared to practice in the field and who continue to cast the profession in a negative light, especially the field's ethical principles."
- "Try and decrease the misues of the term public relations. Not all communications problems are public relations problems."
- "Encouraging greater ethical clarity by practitioners and more proactive community involvement."
- "Support the concept of public relations education and research in writing and speeches. Too often practitioners badmouth public relations education. They say they never hire public relations graduates and prefer people with other degrees. They think that only experience matters. They do not value research as the foundation of any profession."

- "Give money for endowed chairs in public relations. Universities value the fields most that provide financial support. If professionals truly support public relations education, they and their employers will contribute to its development."
- "Read and use the research done by academic scholars. A great deal of excellent research is available. I am always shocked when practitioners are totally unfamiliar with it. Repeatedly, I hear practitioners ask questions that academic scholars have had answers to for many years. The best example is research on how to evaluate public relations programs and research that explains the value of public relations to an organization and to society."
- "It is almost impossible for someone who has been in the classroom for any length of time to stay current. Faculty can provide theory and research to practitioners, but we are too far removed from the front lines of actual practice. Practitioners in the field could help us in many ways, such as:
    - Offering part-time/summer jobs to faculty.
    - Opening their doors and meeting rooms to educator observations.
    - Donating current products and materials to be used in the classroom as samples.
    - Writing up current cases for classroom use.
    - Serving on university curricular and advisory boards.
    - Lecturing as a guest speaker.
    - Inviting faculty to serve as part of their work teams.
    - Sharing ideas on a regular basis."

Summary and Recommendations

For more than three centuries, scholars have said that a major characteristic distinguishing a profession from an occupation was the intellectual base of the former, and for nearly half a century, global evidence has existed suggesting that effective public relations practice requires knowledge, skill and intellect. Public relations education is based on a solid body knowledge that continues to develop and expand.

Whatever the reasons, however, the support for public relations education is woefully bad, at best. Some say it's even deplorable. Although there are exceptions where public relations education and research receives appropriate support, the reality is most public relations practitioners couldn't care less about public relations education and research. Furthermore, only a small percentage of universities even teach public relations, and many of them neither teach it properly nor hire faculty qualified to conduct cutting-edge research in the field.

This paper contends that public relations education and research never will attain an equal status with other academic professional disciplines, and, in turn, with other professions or occupations, until it is properly positioned within university structures and appropriately supported by the majority of those who work in the field of public relations.

A study of a purposive sample of public relations educators was conducted. Results revealed a long list of suggestions with at least five mentions for encouraging greater ethics in the field, getting universities and practitioners to provide more financial support, educating others about what public relations is, keeping teaching workloads reasonable to public relations faculty can publish research, and encouraging greater use of research in public relations practice.

Based upon results of this study and the author's work in and interest with public relations education for more than three decades, the following recommendations are suggested:

- Public relations education must receive more administrative support within higher education if it is to flourish and if public relations educators are to become, and be recognized as, professionals. Some of this professional credibility the educators will have to earn for themselves, but in other cases, having a dean or department chair in place who respects the values and standards of public relations education might make the crucial difference.
- Professional groups, especially the Institute for Public Relations, should be called upon to facilitate discussions between the various facets of public relations education – journalism, mass communication, communication, speech-communication, business, etc.
- Public relations education needs to creatively reposition itself in such a way that it will receive greater respect from practitioners and academics. This will include a diligent effort to either improve or abolish weak public relations degree programs, to increase the emphasis upon theory and research in public relations education, and yet also to make certain courses contain references to current-day public relations problems. We no longer can afford to wait until the next edition of a textbook is published before we incorporate current events into our classes.
- Public relations educators and practitioners must insist that ACEJMC accreditation and PRSA certification teams and programs begin looking for inequities that are impacting the effectiveness of public relations education. At a time when ACEJMC has gone to such extremes as to insist that academic units not discriminate (financially or otherwise) against gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender aspects of society, it hardly seems inappropriate to suggest these accreditation and certification groups also become the catalysts for the elimination of professional prejudice from these programs.
- PRSA, AEJMC, NCA, and the good number of other cosponsoring associations should be encouraged to continue developing commissions and task forces to examine public relations education. In particular, the current Commission on Public Relations Education should be continued.
- There really need to be more endowed chairs in public relations at US universities. Public relations educators and practitioners plus the various professional and academic associations should be encouraged to work together in attempts to correct this most unfortunate situation.
- Encourage the nation's leading public relations educators and practitioners to attend and support the annual International Public Relations Research Conference, cosponsored by the Institute for Public Relations and the University of Miami. This is the only

conference in the world that is organized and operated by public relations educators for public relations educators and practitioners.

- Public relations educators must recognize and appreciate the reality they always will have philosophical differences with practitioners, university administrators and faculty members from other fields of study.
- Stringent steps must be taken to correct the unfortunate reality that too much of the teaching and research about public relations is US-based. Public relations educators need to be cognizant of the global economy and begin plans to incorporate more international teaching into their classes and research.

One wonders while writing a paper such if anyone cares, if anyone will read this, if anyone will take action to help make circumstances better in the future than they are now. The idea for this paper came as the result of news coverage of a speech the author gave in New York recently when he was installed as President of IPRA, the first full-time educator ever to serve in this position. Since he has been speaking out on this topic, a considerable amount of positive feedback has been received. One such note came from a true leader in public relations education and a colleague of the author's on the public relations faculty at the University of Texas nearly 30 years ago. This note, which seems like an appropriate way to end this paper, said: "We've spent too much time patting ourselves on the back. What we need now is a chorus stating it along with you instead of attempting to applaud ourselves on how much we have done. It is time we made it clear where we could be in education and as a profession and where we should be at this point in time in our history. It is also time for us to point out the cost of apathy to our nation, to our profession, and to global peace."

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Crossing the Seas: Do United States' Public Relations Models Work in Jamaica? An Exploration of How the Jamaica Constabulary Force's Corporate Strategy Incorporates Three U.S. PR Concepts, Two-Way Communication, Authentic Communication, and Relationship-Building

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The Jamaican Constabulary Force developed a Corporate Strategy and several new public relations programs in 1997 to counter negative publicity and public perceptions and to move away from a para-military stance to a community-service-oriented organization. Kallia Wright, a Fulbright Scholar studying at Ohio University, and her adviser, Bojinka Bishop, Assistant Professor holding the Sloan Professorship in Public Relations, examined the Corporate Strategy and several implementation programs using three United States-based public relations concepts. They found some evidence to suggest that two-way symmetrical communication, relationship-building, and the Principles of Authentic Communication were partially present in the JCF Corporate Strategy and its public relations programs.

The strategy and programs repeatedly stressed "building relationships" with publics. Of the five relationship dimensions of Ledingham and Bruning, truth, openness, involvement, investment, and commitment, four were found to be demonstrated in the community relations programs. The exception was truth which may be implied but was not stated. The strategy included the concept of mutual adjustment, that is, they stated that only by treating the public with integrity, courtesy, fairness, and respect could the JCF deserve and gain the public's support. This underlying concept of reciprocity and mutual adjustment demonstrates two-way symmetrical communication. The community relations programs, however, for example, the proposed Grants Pen model police station and their use of public meetings show evidence of two-way communication but not symmetry as there is no evidence of mutual adjustment in these programs.

The third concept explored was authentic communication. Six of the ten principles were found in the Corporate Strategy: truthfulness, consistency, care, timeliness, accessibility, and responsiveness to feedback. In the implementation programs, care is indicated; however, the other four Principles of Authentic Communication, comprehensiveness, fundamentality, relevance, and clarity are not explicitly stated.

The study shows that these major US-based public relations concepts, two-way symmetrical communication, relationship building, and authentic communication, do have some applicability and resonance in another country, another culture, in this case, Jamaica.

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