CityUniversity

COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS INSIDE A COMPANY.
TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR THEIR REDUCTION

By

PANAGIOTOPOULOU VASILIKI

A THESIS REPORT

Presented to the Project Management Program in the School of Management of City University of Seattle

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE OF PROJECT MANAGEMENT

CityUniversity

06/2009

CityUniversity of Seattle

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Ву

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This Master Thesis was elaborated in the frame of the collaboration of the City University of Seattle and the Graduate Technological Education Institute (T.E.I.) of Piraeus to fully implement at TEI of Piraeus Campus the CU's MS in Project Management Program approved by the Hellenic Ministry of National Education and Religion Affairs as by decision E5/58291 published in the Hellenic Government Gazette (FEK) B/924/5-July-2005.

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This Master's Thesis is dedicated to my parents for their support and encouragement all these years.

It is also dedicated to the company I work, EVILE and especially Mr. Efstathiou, who gave me the opportunity and freedom to implement project management to my work.

Athens

June, 2009

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Special thanks to my instructor, Dr. Thanasis
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BIOGRAPHY

Vasiliki S. Panagiotopoulou, Mechanical Engineer

Vasiliki Panagiotopoulou has been working as a project manager since 2007. With a bachelor degree in mechanical engineering, she first occupied with metallic structures. After six months in this working area she decided to work on project management. Evile, is the company in which Vasiliki Panagiotopoulou has been working since 2006, firstly as a project team member and since 2007 as a project manager.

The projects she undertakes all these years are related to infrastructure cabling and electrical installations. Since June, 2008, she has been working as a project manager in a big project which is the electrical installations for a hospital of 55.000 m2 in Athens.

After one year in work related to project
management, she decided to join in a postgraduate program
of City University and TEI of Piraeus on Project
Management in order to improve her knowledge in this
field.

ABSTRACT

Communication is very important not only in projects but also in every kind of work or relationship during our life. For this reason, this master's thesis is attempting to give us some useful information about communication, her history, factors that they affect her and other elements related with the quality of communication. In order to be more tangible, this master's thesis describes the kind of communication inside a company, EVILE, and is trying to find tools to reduce the lack of communication.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Nature of the Study

Communication is very important in all human teams and civilizations. Without communication, the information is not shared and civilization can not have progress. From the early start of the humanity, people are trying to find ways of communication like signals, written or oral speech.

As far as our needs are getting bigger communication is very complicated and most times has a lot of voids. There is more and more information every day and we need clever and practical ways of sharing it. Recognizing the need for improved focus in this area I decided to write a thesis with this topic.

Especially in my company, there is a lack of communication between employees and especially project managers. Project managers share resources without having the proper elements and information. Most times this fact brings unjustifiable economical loss, time delay and other operative problems to individual projects.

By observing and experiencing this situation,

I decided to try to define the problem and try to find a

solution that fits to my company's culture. Through my

thesis, I wish to record the dimensions and the size of

the problem and try to find a communication tool between project managers. I will try to make a formal process that every project manager will follow. After this, I aim to make a comparison between the old and the new performance of the project managers and collect all the problems or 'hooks'' I faced during this effort.

1.2 Needs Assessment

Stakeholders for my thesis will include project managers who work in my company and other companies we cooperate with. In addition to project managers, I will include employees of critical departments in my company who have influence in the projects' success like accountants. Furthermore, I will include members of the upper level management of my company. The thesis will provide stakeholders with view of:

- Clear definition of the problems that lack of communication creates
- Comparison between the past and the future changed situation

- View of problems applying the new process in my company
- Set of communication tools

1.3 Purpose of the Study

From my thesis I expect to reveal more problems that come from the lack of communication than the stakeholders imagine. I wish to provide a structured picture and make all understand the necessity of a change. The second step is to achieve the cooperation of all the stakeholders to find a communication tool and a procedure. Measuring performance and comparing it with the past, is the last step in order to prove the reason of establishment for the new approach and communication tools in my company.

1.4 Significance to My Workplace

Motive of the selection of my thesis is the big problem because of the lack of communication in my company. In my company, project managers do not communicate. Although they share resources and have common elements between their projects, the do not understand the necessity of sharing information. Even if sometimes they understand it, they do not have a formal

procedure or tools to help. The everyday problems of the projects make all of us to forget to record all the precious information. Most times, big projects are completed without providing feedback.

I wish to gather all the problems that are part of the lack of communication and bring a big change in the life of project managers in my company.

1.5 Relation to the Program of Study

During the lesson 503 (Communication Project Management), we had the opportunity to understand and develop oral and written communication skills required to manage projects. This lecture helped me see from another point of view the necessity and importance of communication.

1.6 Definition of Terms

In my thesis proposal I am not conclude special terms. The final document is going to use terms from PMI book that are common to all the project managers.

CHAPTER 2 - PROBLEM STATEMENT

2.1 Problem Statement

When a company undertakes many projects at the same time and has several project managers, communication is a necessity. Otherwise, there are a lot of disadvantages like conflicts, economical loss or other problems that make difficult the success of the projects.

2.2 Rationale

As I can see around my professional environment and especially in the company I work for, there is very big problem with the communication inside organizations.

Every project manager tries to have good communication with the clients and all the stakeholders of the project he undertakes but he forgets to have good communication with the other project managers of the company.

I work as a project manager and I can easy understand and feel the lack of communication and information in my company. We do not have a formal policy, tool or procedure about that. So, every project manager has to work with open ears to hear anything important for which no one may inform him later. Besides, a change in another project maybe influences his project

too, but he will not be able to know it in time. More concretely, during the working day, we lose very helpful information about the incidents that happen and even if we do not, we do not have the right information to understand their results.

In other words, although the project managers have individual projects, the biggest project for a company is the catholic operation. By this point of view, the project managers and their projects are only subtasks and they are strongly related with many types of relationship. They may use the same or similar resources, they may have problems that influence each other, and they may have common or very close economical elements and the most important: they may provide information, experience and know-how to each other.

Management of communication and information is the most important and I will try not only to portray it but also to find a solution that fits to my company.

2.3 Objectives

Scope of my thesis is to indicate the actual situation in my company and evaluate the reasons for it.

I wish to understand why most companies in Greece operate without or minimal collaboration between their employees.

My objectives are to:

- Be able to recognize exactly the disadvantages of this situation
- 2. Find a tool that helps project managers to share information about all the projects the company has.
- 3. Try to apply this tool to my company.
- 4. Compare the performance of my company before and after the change.

2.4 Methodology

Methodology will include further research into stakeholders and lack of communication in my company, as well as interviews with project managers who work in my company or other companies.

The first step is to define exactly the problems that come of the lack of information and communication. I will examine all the dimensions of the problem (economical, time, functional etc).

Secondly I will make a benchmarking and record ways of communication in other companies (for example TOYOTA). I aim to adapt it to my company's policy and needs.

In conclusion I will try to record all the process for change in my company, the problems I will face and the results.

2.5 Expectations

Through my thesis, I wish to find out all the dimensions of the lack of communication inside my company. Although communication is very important I wish to discover the reason of lost information between stakeholders.

My main expectation is to make project managers work by a formal process, with specific communication tools. My target is to prove the existing problem through measurable elements in order to make all the stakeholders understand the reason of having a communication formal procedure. If I accomplish to change the mentality of my company I will be very proud.

CHAPTER 3 - LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Some things about Communication

3.1.1 Definition of communication

Based on wikipedia, communication is the process of transferring information from one source to another.

Communication is a process by which we assign and convey meaning in an attempt to create shared understanding (retrieved from:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication)

Communication is the articulation of sending a message through different media, whether it is verbal or nonverbal, as a being transmits a thought provoking idea, gesture, action, etc. Communication is a learned skill. Most babies are born with the physical ability to make sounds, but must learn to speak and communicate effectively. Speaking, listening, and our ability to understand verbal and nonverbal meanings are skills we develop in various ways. We learn basic communication skills by observing other people and modeling our behaviors based on what we see. We also are taught some communication skills directly through education, and by practicing those skills and having them evaluated.

(Retrieved from:

http://en/wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication).

In workplaces, things are quite more complex.

Projects have a lot of challenges and difficulties. In order to be successful and friendly to the stakeholders a formal process of communication is a big need.

3.1.2 The History of Communication

3500 BC	The Phoenicians develop an alphabet.
to 2900	The Sumerians develop cuneiform writing -
BC	pictographs of accounts written on clay
	tablets.
	The Egyptians develop hieroglyphic writing.
1775	Greeks use a phonetic alphabet written from
BC	left to right.
1400	Oldest record of writing in China on bones.
BC	
1270	The first encyclopedia is written in Syria.
BC	
900 BC	The very first postal service - for
	government use in China.
776 BC	First recorded use of homing pigeons used to
	send message - the winner of the Olympic
	Games to the Athenians.

530 BC	The Greeks start the very first library.
500 BC	Papyrus rolls and early parchments made of
to 170	dried reeds - first portable and light
BC	writing surfaces.
200 BC	Human messengers on foot or horseback common
to 100	in Egypt and China with messenger relay
BC	stations built.
	Sometimes fire messages used from relay
	station to station instead of humans.

14	Romans establish postal services.
37	Heliographs - first recorded use of
	mirrors to send messages by Roman Emperor
	Tiberius.
100	First bound books
105 BC	Tsai Lun of China invents paper as we
	know it.
305	First wooden printing presses invented in
	China - symbols carved on a wooden block.
1049	First movable type invented - clay -
	invented in China by Pi Sheng.
1450	Newspapers appear in Europe.
1455	Johannes Gutenberg invents a printing

	press with metal movable type.
1560	Camera Obscura invented - primitive image
	making.
1650	First daily newspaper - Leipzig.
1714	Englishmen, Henry Mill receives the first
	patent for a typewriter.
1793	Claude Chappe invents the first long-
	distance semaphore (visual or optical)
	telegraph line.
1814	Joseph Nicéphore Niépce achieves the
	first photographic image.
1821	Charles Wheatstone reproduces sound in a
	primitive sound box - the first
	microphone.
1831	Joseph Henry invents the first electric
	telegraph.
1835	Samuel Morse invents Morse code.
1843	Samuel Morse invents the first long
	distance electric telegraph line.
	Alexander Bain patents the first fax
	machine.
1861	United States starts the Pony Express for
	mail delivery.
1	

	Coleman Sellers invents the Kinematoscope
	coreman berrers threnes the Krinemacoscope
	- a machine that flashed a series of
	still photographs onto a screen.
1867	American, Sholes the first successful and
	modern typewriter.
1876	Thomas Edison patents the mimeograph - an
	office copying machine.
	Alexander Graham Bell patents the
	electric telephone.
	Melvyl Dewey writes the Dewey Decimal
	System for ordering library books.
1877	Thomas Edison patents the phonograph -
	with a wax cylinder as recording medium.
	Eadweard Muybridge invents high speed
	photography - creating first moving
	pictures that captured motion.
1887	Emile Berliner invents the gramophone - a
	system of recording which could be used
	over and over again.
1888	George Eastman patents Kodak roll film
	camera.
1889	Almon Strowger patents the direct dial
	telephone or automatic telephone
	exchange.
1	•

1894	Guglielmo Marconi improves wireless
	telegraphy.
1898	First telephone answering machines.
1899	Valdemar Poulsen invents the first
	magnetic recordings - using magnetized
	steel tape as recording medium - the
	foundation for both mass data storage on
	disk and tape and the music recording
	industry.
	Loudspeakers invented.
1902	Guglielmo Marconi transmits radio signals
	from Cornwall to Newfoundland - the first
	radio signal across the Atlantic Ocean.
1904	First regular comic books.
1906	Lee Deforest invents the electronic
	amplifying tube or triode - this allowed
	all electronic signals to be amplified
	improving all electronic communications
	i.e. telephones and radios.
1910	Thomas Edison demonstrated the first
	talking motion picture.
1914	First cross continental telephone call
	made.
1916	First radios with tuners - different

	stations.
1923	The television or iconoscope (cathode-ray
	tube) invented by Vladimir Kosma Zworykin
	- first television camera.
1925	John Logie Baird transmits the first
	experimental television signal.
1926	Warner Brothers Studios invented a way to
	record sound separately from the film on
	large disks and synchronized the sound
	and motion picture tracks upon playback -
	an improvement on Thomas Edison's work.
1927	NBC starts two radio networks.
	CBS founded.
	First television broadcasts in England.
	Warner Brothers releases "The Jazz
	Singer" the first successful talking
	motion picture.
1930	Radio popularity spreads with the "Golden
	Age" of radio.
	First television broadcasts in the United
	States.
	Movietone system of recording film sound
	on an audio track right on the film
	invented.

Joseph Begun invents the first tape recorder for broadcasting - first	
recorder for breadcasting - first	
recorder for broadcasting - first	
magnetic recording.	
1938 Television broadcasts able to be taped	
and edited - rather than only live.	
1939 Scheduled television broadcasts begin.	
1944 Computers like Harvard's Mark I put in	to
public service - government owned - th	е
age of Information Science begins.	
1948 Long playing record invented - vinyl a	nd
played at 33 rpm.	
Transistor invented - enabling the	
miniaturization of electronic devices.	
1949 Network television starts in U.S.	
45 rpm record invented.	
1951 Computers are first sold commercially.	
1958 Chester Carlson invents the photocopie	r
or Xerox machine.	
Integrated Circuit invented - enabling	
the further miniaturization of electro	nic
devices and computers.	
1963 Zip codes invented in the United State	s.
1966 Xerox invents the Telecopier - the fir	st

	successful fax machine.
	successial law machine.
1969	ARPANET - the first Internet started.
1971	The computer floppy disc invented.
	The microprocessor invented - considered
	a computer on a chip.
1972	HBO invents pay-TV service for cable.
1976	Apple I home computer invented.
	First nationwide programming - via
	satellite and implemented by Ted Turner.
1979	First cellular phone communication
	network started in Japan
1980	Sony Walkman invented.
1981	IBM PC first sold.
	First laptop computers sold to public.
	Computer mouse becomes regular part of
	computer.
1983	Time magazines names the computer as "Man
	of the Year."
	First cellular phone network started in
	the United States.
1984	Apple Macintosh released.
	IBM PC AT released.
1985	Cellular telephones in cars become wide-

	spread.
	CD-ROMs in computers.
1994	American government releases control of
	internet and WWW is born - making
	communication at light speed.

(Retrieved from:

http://inventors.about.com/library/inventors/bl history
of communication.htm).

From having a look to the history of communication we see that humans try not only to find new ways to communicate but also to improve the old one. Even if some civilizations and famous persons had found a communication tool, everyone has the opportunity to find and improve the ways of communication inside his family, work and life.

3.1.3 Types of Communication

There are three major parts in human face to face communication which are body language, voice tonality, and words. According to the research of wikipedia:

- 55% of impact is determined by body language-postures, gestures, and eye contact,
- 38% by the tone of voice, and

• 7% by the content or the words used in the communication process.

(Retrieved from:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication#Types_of_com
munication)

3.1.3.1 Dialogue or verbal communication

A dialogue is a reciprocal conversation between two or more entities, based on wikipedia. It is the main type of communication people use. A successful dialogue has rules that must be followed from all the parts. Although each professional has his own style in conversations there are rules like respect to the interlocutor that are very important. (Retrieved from:http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication#Types_o f communication)

3.1.3.2 Nonverbal communication

Nonverbal communication is the process of communicating through sending and receiving wordless messages. Such messages can be communicated through gesture, body language or posture; facial expression and eye contact, object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture, or symbols and

infographics, as well as through an aggregate of the above, such as behavioral communication. Nonverbal communication plays a key role in every person's day to day life, from employment to romantic engagements.

(Retrieved from:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication#Types_of_com
munication)

3.1.3.3 Visual communication

Visual communication as the name suggests is communication through visual aid. It is the conveyance of ideas and information in forms that can be read or looked upon. Primarily associated with two dimensional images, it includes: signs, typography, drawing, graphic design, illustration, color and electronic resources. It solely relies on vision. It is form of communication with visual effect. It explores the idea that a visual message with text has a greater power to inform, educate or persuade a person. It is communication by presenting information through Visual form. (retrieved from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication#Types_of_communication)

3.1.3.4 Other kinds of communication

- Facilitated communication (a process by which a facilitator supports the hand or arm of a communicatively impaired individual while using a keyboard or other devices with the aim of helping the individual to develop pointing skills and to communicate.)
- Graphic communication (is communication through graphics and graphical aids. It is the process of creating, producing, and distributing material incorporating words and images to convey data, concepts, and emotions.)
- Nonviolent Communication (is a process developed by Marshall Rosenberg and others which people use to communicate with greater compassion and clarity. It focuses on two things: honest self-expression exposing what matters to oneself in a way that's likely to inspire compassion in others, and empathy listening with deep compassion.
- Science communication (is a discipline that has developed rapidly in theory and in practice since 1995. In Australia, in 1996, the formation of the Centre for the Public Awareness of science (CPAS) at the Australian

National University (ANU) heralded the start of the science communication movement. The new approach aimed to involve the public more in the processes and culture of science, to create an awareness of what science was attempting to achieve, to cultivate the 'need to know' that is the hallmark of good communication.

- Strategic Communication is a concept, a process, or data that satisfies a long term strategic goal of an organization by allowing facilitation of advanced planning, or communicating over long distances usually using international telecommunications or dedicated global network assets to coordinate actions and activities of operationally significant commercial, non-commercial and military business or combat and logistic subunits.
- Superluminal communication is the term used to describe the hypothetical process by which one might send information at faster-than-light (FTL) speeds. All empirical evidence found by scientific investigation indicates that it is impossible in reality.
- Technical communication is the process of conveying technical information through

writing, speech, and other mediums to a specific audience. Information is usable if the intended audience can perform an action or make a decision based on it (Johnson-Sheehan 7).

Technical communicators often work collaboratively to create products (deliverables) for various media, including paper, video, and the Internet. Deliverables include online help user manuals, technical manuals, specifications, process and procedure manuals, reference cards, training, business papers and reports.

(retrieved from:
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication#Types_of_
communication)

3.2 Why Human Communication Fails

There are some common reasons which bring the difficulties in communication between humans. Tampere University of Technology brands that most times we ignore them because we do not believe that they can affect us in big rate:

• Language differences. On the Internet, for example, the lingua franca is badly written and poorly understood English. Some people use it

as their native language; other learned some of it from various sources.

- the recipients of our message, the wider the audience, the more of them will fail to meet our assumptions. On the Internet, this virtually guarantees we will be misunderstood.

 As a neutral matter of fact will be interpreted (by different people) as a detestable political opinion, a horrendous blasphemy, and a lovely piece of poetry.
- Personal differences. Any assumption about the prior knowledge on the subject matter fails for any reasonably large audience. Whatever we try to explain about the genetics of colors will be incomprehensible to most people, since they have a very vague idea of what "genes" are (in written communication we might just manage to distinguish them from Jeans), and "dominance" is just Greek or sex to them.
- Just having some **data lost**. The listener does not pay attention at a critical moment, and he misses something indispensable. In the worst, and usual, case he does not know he missed it.

3.3 Cultural differences

Cultural norms are important in determining the use of personal space in communication situations. The following scale provides a measure for how selected cultures view personal space:

Personal Space in Several Cultures

Latin \rightarrow American \rightarrow Arab \rightarrow French \rightarrow German \rightarrow Japanese

LARGE SPACE

SMALL SPACE

It is important to recognize cultural differences in the interpretation of personal space as they relate to greetings, conversations, and seating at meetings.

The concept of territoriality is borrowed from studies of animal behavior, but humans, too, claim particular areas.

3.4 Misinterpretation of Communication

Social conflicts often involve some misunderstanding. Conflict parties communicate by what they
say (or do not say) and how they behave toward one
another. Even normal interaction may involve faulty
communication, but conflict seems to worsen the problem.
The higher the level of conflict, the more costly
misunderstandings may be. During the Cold War,

miscommunication between U.S. and Soviet leaders could have been catastrophic in its consequences. At every stage and level of conflict, clear communication among parties usually works to reduce unwise decisions by and costs for the participants.

All communication has two parts: a sender and a receiver. The sender has a message he or she intends to transmit, and she puts it in words which, to her, best reflect what she is thinking. But many things can intervene to prevent the intended message from being received.

If the communication is verbal, tone of voice can influence interpretation. The bosses' words "hey, I noticed you were taking an especially long break this morning," could be interpreted as an attack if he said that in a disapproving tone; while the comment might be seen as a minor reminder about office rules, if it was said in a friendly way. If the employee had a problem requiring the long break, the comment might have even been a friendly inquiry about what has happening and whether the employee needed any help. Here, tone of voice as well as situational and relationship factors would influence the interpretation of the message.

Nonverbal cues also are important. Is the sender's posture open and friendly, or closed and cold? Is her facial expression friendly or accusatory? All of these factors influence how the same words will be received.

In addition to how the message is sent, many additional factors determine how the message is interpreted by the receiver. All new information we learn is compared with the knowledge we already have. If it confirms what we already know, we will likely receive the new information accurately, though we may pay little attention to it. If it disputes our previous assumptions or interpretation of the situation, we may distort it in our mind so that it is made to fit our world view, or we may dismiss the information as deceptive, misguided, or simply wrong.

If the message is ambiguous, the receiver is especially likely to clarify it for herself in a way which corresponds with her expectations. For example, if two people are involved in an escalated conflict, and they each assume that the other is going to be aggressive and hostile, then any ambiguous message will be interpreted as aggressive and hostile, even if it was not intended to be that way at all. Our expectations work as blinders or filters that distort what we see so that it fits our preconceived images of the world.

An analogy can be made to the science experiment done to test people's interpretation of visual cues. When people were given eye-glasses which turned the world upside down, they had to suffer through with upside down images for a week or two. But after that, their brains learned to turn the images back over again, so they were

seeing things right side up. The same thing happens when we hear something we "know" is wrong. Our brain "fixes" it.

Given our tendency to hear what we expect to hear, it is very easy for people in conflict to misunderstand each other. Communication is already likely to be strained, and people will, most likely, want to hide the truth to some extent. Thus the potential for misperceptions and misunderstandings is high, which can make conflict management or resolution more difficult. (Retrieved from:

http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/problem/misinter.h
tm).

3.4.1 Example 1: Failure to Employ Preventative Diplomacy to Avert Iraqi Invasion of Kuwait."

Iraq and Kuwait had had a long standing, but low level, border dispute over a pair of Persian Gulf islands. In 1990, after the Iran-Iraq war, Iraq faced an economic crisis. At that time Kuwait was a major Iraqi creditor, and was playing a key role in depressing oil prices, thus decreasing Iraq's income from oil sales. In addition, Iraq accused Kuwait of, in effect, stealing oil from the Iraqi side of the shared Rumaila oil field. A successful invasion of Kuwait would have relieved Iraq of

its war debt, increased oil prices, and provided Iraq with long-sought access to the Gulf. Iraq began to press the border issue, and threaten invasion. Kuwait resisted, not wanting to give in to threats. Iraq in turn increased its threats and demands, not wanting to lose face and believing that invasion was a viable option. No preventative diplomacy was employed during this period of escalation, and Kuwait was invaded in August of 1990. Two factors seem to contribute to the sudden escalation and lack of prevention in this case. First, both Iraqi threats and demands were misunderstood or discounted. Very little attention was paid to resolving the issues which arose early in the dispute, or to Iraq's worsening economic situation. Moreover, no Arab state had invaded another in modern times. This led the Arab community and the international community to discount Iraqi threats of invasion. Second, both Iraq and Kuwait showed an inability to admit mistakes. Having openly threatened invasion, Iraq felt committed to make good on their threat. Kuwait in turn did not want to be seen as compromising in the face of intimidation. As a matter of principle, they refused to be threatened into admitting any wrong-doing. Each side having framed the conflict in these ways, Kuwait felt it could not compromise until Iraq withdrew its threat. Iraq in turn felt it could not withdraw its threat until Kuwait agreed to negotiate. As a result, both sides held firm until outside intervention

-- in the form of the Gulf War -- ended the standoff.

(Retrieved from:

http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/example/evan6030.h
tm).

3.4.2 Example 2: United States-Japan Relations Leading to Pearl Harbor

In July 1941, the U.S. threatened Japan with an oil embargo unless Japan withdrew from China. Rather than withdraw from China and abandon its imperialist aspirations, Japan chose to attack the U.S. while it still had the oil reserves needed to wage war. George argues that in this case "coercive diplomacy provoked the adversary into a decision for war." Although the U.S. was also pursuing various deterrence strategies against Japan, the threat of an oil embargo was a more ambitious strategy of coercive diplomacy. The threat of embargo was intended not to deter Japan from taking some considered action, but to compel them to withdraw from a current activity.

George suggests a number of reasons why coercive diplomacy not only failed, but actually provoked war in this case. First, U.S. officials failed to recognize that Japan had more at stake in the matter than did the U.S. As the situation progressed, the U.S. sharpened its

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demands, which in turn sharpened Japan's resistance.

Second, the U.S. strategy relied almost entirely on threats, and made very little use of incentives. This left Japan to choose among almost equally unacceptable options. Finally, misperceptions, miscalculations and ambiguous signals between the U.S. and Japan contributed to the escalation of the conflict. (Retrieved from:

http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/example/geor7269.h

3.5 Managing Communications

This part presents an overview of a series of panel discussions held during the U.S. Institute for Peace's 1996 conference on "Managing Communications: Lessons from Interventions in Africa." Conference participants agreed that better communication between relief organizations, governments and the military would make humanitarian interventions less costly and more effective.

Civilian relief organizations and military

peacekeeping forces share common goals, and so should be

natural allies. Yet, conference attendees noted,

"differences in their professional cultures, the lack of

familiarity with each other's methods, and imperfect

communications in the field can lead to misunderstandings

or poor coordination of effort and handicap these

peacekeeping operations''. Better communication would

lead to better cooperation, and so more efficient operations. Conference attendees discussed a variety of specific proposals, but agreed that the key to improved communication is flexibility and trust. (Retrieved from: $\frac{\text{http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/example/mana892.ht}}{\text{m}}).$

3.6 Trust building

Disputants' distrust of each other is almost always present in intractable conflicts. Although negotiations can occur, and settlements can be developed before trust is established, trust-building is very important for complete reconciliation, and it is certainly helpful in the negotiation process also.

Typically, disputants involved in an intractable conflict are very suspicious of each other, and may be suspicious of any proposed conflict resolution process as well. One of the first jobs undertaken by third party intermediaries (or even first-parties who want to try to resolve the conflict) will be to try to build up a certain level of trust between the parties and the process. Trust in the process can be developed by explaining the process very carefully, and allowing the parties to help design it so that it meets their own needs. If they help in the planning and process design,

it reduces the likelihood that they will feel that the process was designed to work against them.

Trust in the opponent is built up slowly over time, as the parties work together, get to know each other better, and prove to each other that they are reasonable, predictable, and worthy of trust. Sometimes trustbuilding exercises are undertaken before formal negotiations or mediations begin. Disputants can be brought together to work on a joint project (independent of any joint problem solving they might do) or they might spend time together socially, or involved in special trust-building programs. In the United States, for example, groups are sometimes taken on multi-day outdoor adventure trips, where participants have to learn to depend on each other to provide food and shelter and find their way. These moderately stressful experiences can draw people together very quickly and can build a level of trust between former disputants that far surpasses any that they had before.

Mediators can help parties establish trust and work together effectively in a number of other ways during the mediation as well. Allowing all the parties to "tell their stories"--to explain how they feel and why--can generate a level of understanding and empathy that begins to break down barriers between people. Mediators can also help disputants to state their grievances in a no

accusatory way, and can help them redefine or "reframe" the conflict in an integrative or "win-win" way, rather than a "win-lose" way. Although such a reframing is not always possible, when it is, it makes the opponent much less threatening, and can be very helpful in establishing greater levels of trust between the parties.

Negotiation expert Roger Fisher warns, however, that trust can be a trap. "Behaving in a way that makes oneself worthy of trust is highly useful and likely to be well rewarded. But the more one trusts the other side, the greater the incentive one provides for behavior that will prove such trust to have been misplaced. Other things being equal, the less that an agreement depends on trust, the more likely it is to be implemented." (Roger Fisher, Beyond Yes, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard Program on Negotiation, 1991, p. 124) This means that there should be some external source of enforcement, or that the agreement should be written so that each side has to do something before it gets what it wants.

Trust is important, however, for the establishment of normal relationships. The greater the trust between parties, the more effectively they will be able to live together and cooperate in the future, which will diminish the chances that the old conflict will re-occur, or a new unmanageable one will develop. (Retrieved from:

http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/treatment/trustbld
.htm).

3.6.1 Example: "Rebuilding Communities Devastated by War"

This article describes several peace-building projects operating on the community level in Bosnia. After the Dayton agreement, the main focus of international forces was to separate the parties, maintain the cease-fire and keep the election process going. After presidential elections were held, the goal of promoting integration in Bosnia became essential. The grassroots projects described in this article aims at community building, which is the major key for the survival of the state.

In Tuzla, a local nongovernmental organization lends money to refugee families who want to open or restart businesses. Samed Salic, for example, borrowed \$350 to reopen a hairdressing business. The program has already lent 45 loans with 10% interest. The money comes from the World Bank, which in turn uses funds provided by the Dutch government. One of the aims of the program is to help people to regain trust and self-sufficiency. A loss of people's trust in anyone except their immediate family is the result of war. The future plan of the project

organizers is to get enough funds to provide larger and more commercial loans.

Another project was developed in Gornji Vakuf, the town located on the border dividing the Croat and Muslim parts of the federation. During the war, the front-line was right in the middle of the town. The Croat-Muslim federation is a major part of Dayton establishment. But the fact that people from both sides are not willing to cross the line between the two sections shows that a lot has to be done on a grassroots level to make this arrangement work. Fifteen international volunteers work on a project that serves this purpose. The goal of the project is to bring the two communities together by making them work for the common goal of rebuilding houses destroyed by war. The condition for getting help from the international community is that they assist each other. In order to participate in this program, people would have to cross the border and work together. In addition, they would have some incentives to preserve each others' houses.

A third project is also directed at making the
Dayton agreement work on the level of common people.
Under the agreement, movement within Bosnia was supposed
to be free. In reality, Serbs prevented it from
happening: until recently there was no free movement
between the Serb Republic and the Croat-Bosnian

Federation. The UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) decided to intervene and created a free bus route uniting the two areas. This is an example of direct involvement of an international organization in a peace-building initiative. There were a lot of complications: Serbian local authorities pressured bus companies to stop participating in the project. Then the Danish Refugee Council hired its own drivers and buses. This did not stop the problems: the buses were stoned and stopped by Serbian police. The buses now are escorted by international police and sometimes by NATO's implementation force. The question is, what is going to happen after those forces leave the area?

This question leads to a general problem of making peace-building projects sustainable. Sufficient funds and long-lasting presence are important, but it is necessary to incorporate those projects into a national program. Only in this way can the danger of fragmentation of peace-building efforts, which even might harden ethnic separation, be avoided. (Retrieved from:

http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/treatment/trustbld
.htm).

3.7 Communication Tools of Famous Organizations

3.7.1 Toyota motors

Toyota Motors Corporation uses writing to effectively communicate on all levels of business.

Newsletter writing and corporate communications are essential elements that have kept the staff informed and given the company the corporate image, and publicly perceived notion of credibility and reliability that is extremely important to its bottom line.

Toyota Corporation uses cell phones as a means of internal communication because it provides an incredible array of functions, and every staff is encourage to have new sets that does not fail in reception because the corporation as found cell phone to be very effective in passing urgent messages.

Toyota Motors staff uses instant messaging which allows effective and efficient communication, featuring immediate receipt of acknowledgment or reply. In certain cases instant messaging involves additional features, which make it even more popular, that is to see the other party, for example by using web cam, or to talk directly for free over the internet. This method of communication is very much used within the Toyota Corporation premises. It has proven to be effective because one can see whom

he/she is interacting with. E-mail is also used frequently and it is more popular in Toyota Motor Corporation because: It has an advantage of a mailing list which has a clear ability to distribute information to staff at a relatively low cost when compared to other media investments such as direct mail or printed newsletters.

Face to face has been used as a vital tool of communication in Toyota Motors Corporation. So, face to face meetings provide a rich nonverbal context and direct human contact, they also have certain limitations. In addition to the obvious logistical issues of schedules and distance, face to face meetings may be dominated by overly vocal, quick-to-speak, and high status members. An additional potential obstacle to communication within the Toyota corporation staff is the results from the differences in communication styles that men and women typically exhibit. So, face to face is a very effective method of communication, because through it sensitive matters such as who is not performing, who is of questionable character and many other in house issues are communicated. It acts as a place of the in house cleaning of Toyota. It is in such meeting that the development matters are also reported and those who have performed excellently are given awards.

(Retrieved from:

http://moven.wordpress.com/2008/04/08/summary-toyotamotor-corporation-internal-communication-practices/)

3.7.2 Indus International

Indus International was established on April 10, 2002 with an idea to promote advanced technological developments from all over the world in India, in the field of Medical and Sports Sciences. The organization developed a measurement tool, called the pulse. It became a useful management change intervention because it also served as a communication device.

The pulse is an e-mail-based weekly employee survey. It consists of one question, applied to the individual employee and to the company. In addition, employees provide open-ended comments. Every Friday an email message is generated. The e-mail message asks employees for their personal pulse for the last week, what they think the pulse is of the

Company (based on those they have worked with for the past week), and for comments on either their individual pulse or the company pulse. Employees enter two numbers, comments if they have any, and then return the message.

The process takes about 2 minutes.

The pulse is different from other survey and communication methods in two important respects. The first is confidentiality. The data go directly to a third party, and employees are assured that the data are confidential. The second important differentiation is that although the responses are confidential, they are not anonymous. This means the data can be used to develop models to predict employee attitudes, performance, and turnover.

The pulse is a 1 to 10 scale that measures vitality, or the degree to which employees are energized by their jobs. Just as the physical pulse provides a medical doctor with an overall understanding of how well a human body is doing, the company pulse provides the management team with a reading of the company's vital signs. The pulse is the indicator, and the comments provide the detail.

The low end of the pulse scale1 (from 0 to 2.5) represents the "at rest" zone. When employees report a number in this range, it means they're not engaged in their job; they may be sick, between projects, upset with their managers or coworkers, or on vacation. From 2.6 to 7.5 the scale changes to the "aerobic" zone. As the number increases, it represents increased activity and efficiency. At a 7.5, employees are busy, in demand, feel good about the work they're doing, are efficient, and

having "fun" at work. The last part of the scale, from 7.6 to 10, is called the "anaerobic" zone. As the number increases, people report being busier, but they're less efficient. Again, it's similar to your body's pulse. When you exercise, you have a target pulse rate; if you exceed that pace, you become inefficient and can harm yourself.

The results of data analyses show that the average pulse for a person over time is positively related to their attitudes (work-related and personal, such as life satisfaction), ratings of performance conducted by their managers, and turnover. The standard deviation for a person over time, however, is negatively related to those same variables. Therefore, being higher and stable results in peak performance. When people get to a pulse rate that is too high for them, they don't settle in at a comfortable range afterwards; instead, they move to a range that is much lower than what they prefer (usually in the "at rest" zone). Thus, the standard deviation (fluctuation from week to week - or 'swing') results in poor performance, negative attitudes, and in many cases turnover.

The data aggregated to the department level are diagnostic in two ways. Healthy departments report low variance (minimum to maximum on self reported pulse) and an average pulse for individuals that is higher than the average pulse reported for others in the company.

This means that employees in a 'healthy' department look out at others and think that those people have a lower pulse. However, if the department is not doing well (e.g. low sales, poor management), employees seem to think that everyone else has a higher pulse than that reported by them. Trend data are also useful in diagnosing employee responses to organizational initiatives. (CAHRSO (Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies), Improving Technology-Based Change Processes Through Measurement and Communication: A Case Study on Indus International, Theresa M. Welbourne, Working Paper 97-29).

3.8 THE COMMUNICATIVE CONSTITUTION OF ORGANIZATIONS: A FRAMEWORK FOR EXPLANATION

Max Weber founded modern organization studies by offering an interpretive analysis of bureaucracy (1922/1968). His account can be summarized as follows: members use the ideal type conception of bureaucracy to understand the conduct of other members and to guide their own actions; because they all act in patterns organized by the ideal type, their actions coordinate in such a way that organizations consequentially and meaningfully exist. Thus, from its beginning, organization studies have pursued the central question of

how large-scale, purposefully-controlled organizations are constituted.

Weick (1979) brought to the forefront for modern communication theorists the idea that organizations were not more objects or systems that existed physically. For Weick, organization was the process of organizing, of interpreting an enacted environment in a way that led to orderly action. His theoretical move from organization being a static entity to a dynamic process was a dramatic turn in how organizational communication could be studied and explained. The basic theme for his organizational model can be found in the recipe for sense making: "How can I know what I think until I see what I say?" (Weick, 1979, p. 133). This recipe is understood as a combination of three processes: enactment, selection, and retention; patterns of sense-making action and communication reflectively identified and retained by members add up in retrospect to a social entity called "an organization."

Sense making occurred as organizations, or at least organizational members, talked to each other and retrospectively made sense of the talk which could then be stored as knowledge for future use (Weick 1979). While Weick was far from the first theorist to take what we might call "the process turn," his varied and equivocal formulation was tantalizing enough to exert far-reaching influence across many camps of organizational

communication research. But Weick's image of organizing allows it to occur even among people, in the minimal social situation, who are unaware of each other's existence.

Another theorist, with motives quite different from those of Weick, was Smith (1993), who explicated the relation between communication and organization by identifying root-metaphors that under girded the discourse of organizational communication. The notion of root-metaphor, while allowing critique of theories, also offers an entry-point into the ontology of organizations. Root-metaphors capture a fundamental, underlying worldview and are able to under gird broad areas of meaning (Smith and Eisenberg, 1987). Smith's work made the organization-communication relation a central problem recognized by the field; and furthermore, suggested that reconceptualiztion of the object/unit of analysis could avoid the problems of reification and marginalization. She argued that organizational communication theories were cast in terms of containment (that organizations involve spatial limits within which communication processes occur), production (that either communication or organization is the produced, even causal outcome of the other process), and equivalence..

Boden (1994) approaches the constitution issue by examining how single communication events such as

telephone calls, gossip, or planning meetings structure organizations. Her goal was to demonstrate that interactive mechanisms could implicate organizational properties. By applying the technique of conversation analysis to ordinary communication events that occur in organizations, one should be able to observe the interface between talk and social structure. For example, if a researcher studied a planning meeting, she could not only analyze the adjacency-pairs of turn-taking, but examine how people use "turn-making" to advance their own political position (p. 18). However, Boden's argument is weakened by lack of a justified list of necessary and sufficient organizational properties. Studying the fragments of conversation that occur between organizational members does offer insight at the microlevel of how talk creates structure; yet this position does not provide an explanation of how all the single communication events synthesize to constitute an entire organization at the macro-level.

Taylor (1993) also tackled the discussion of what organizational communication theory should entail as he states that, "The goal of organizational communication theory ought to be to bridge the micro/macro gap, by showing how to discover the structure in the process and delineating the processes that realize the structure."

(p. 261) the processes of communication create a

patterning that constitutes the structure of organization and the organization itself simultaneously. To develop his conception of communication, Taylor turns to Greimas (among, we should hasten to note, many other theoretic strands), who contends that all communication has an underlying deep narrative structure that organizes conversation through various speech acts. The constitution of an organization would involve the deep narrative structuring of a great number of elementary transactions conducted by human agents.

Deetz and Mumby (1990) provide an additional view of how organizations are constituted. First they remind us that organizations are not simply given in their current form and persist through time, but they have to be produced and reproduced continually. Second, these organizations also exist within a superstructure over time and space that includes values, laws, rules, ideology, and other institutions - indeed, their development represents a quantum leap in social abilities to concentrate and exert power. Finally, although they agree that communication is constitutive of organizational reality, Deetz and Mumby integrate the issue of power into the constituting process. Their position is that "power is an inevitable and constitutive element in all social and institutional interaction. All communication necessarily involves the use of power, and

the role of a radical theory of organizational communication is to explicate the processes through which power is manifested and thus shapes organizational reality" (p. 37).

In his magisterial Constitution of Society, Giddens (1984) mentions "the constitution of day-to-day life," context as drawn upon by actors in "constituting communication," and "the phenomenon of talk as constitutively involved in encounters" (pp. xxii, 71, 73). "Constitution" is a technical term in philosophy, especially in Kantian philosophy, Marxism, and phenomenology. It is rooted in the Kantian notion that objects and causal relations have reality only due to the activity of the transcendental ego. "Constitution" has a variety of philosophical meanings ranging between the epistemological between the cognitive and the practical/active, between creation and making sense of what already exists (Outhwaitem 1983).

Following McPhee, Corman and Dooley (1999), we see much to admire in Jelinek and Litterer's (1994) definition of an organization as a "deliberately created and maintained social institution within which consciously coordinated behaviors by members aim to produce a limited set of intended outcomes" (p. 12).

For instance, we see this theory as having three values. First, it sketches an explanation of the power

and efficacy of organizations in the West-dominated world today. They are the kind of thing that can have such power because they constitute themselves in the four ways noted below. As Perrow indicates (1979), such theories have critical import. Second, its four flows of messages are actually more or less hidden implications of conversations and reports within and outside organizations, operating on a level that may not be obvious or seem important to members. Explicating such implications and presuppositions is a hermeneutic task, potentially allowing members to understand their own communication better. Third, these flows are arenas in which organizations do vary and can be changed in their fundamental nature. Many authors have claimed, over the decades, that new forms of organizations have emerged, as a result of various social and technological developments. A theory such as this one gives us a template by which to detect, diagnose, and assess novel organizational phenomena.

The four constitutive communication processes

Organizations are constituted in four different communicative flows, not just one, and the flows are different in their main direction and in their contribution to organizational constitution, with each

making a different and important contribution.

Furthermore, organizations and communication are varied enough so that we cannot go much further in explaining constitution at this level of generality than by discussing types of flow. We see our theory as building on and elaborating the theoretical underpinnings reviewed above, summarized by the four keywords of process, equivalence, structure, and power. Our emphasis on communicative flow takes up Weick's idea of process; our four flows escape tautology in showing the equivalence of communication and organization. In each flow, a sort of social structure is generated through interaction; and by allowing for one flow to control or condition another, the model allows for specifically organizational power. The types of flow are analytically different—while they are often distinct, a single message can and often does make more than one type of contribution. Also, each kind of "flow" is actually a kind of interactive communication episode, usually amounting to multi-way conversation or text passage, typically involving reproduction of as well as resistance to the rules and resources of the organization. The four flows link the organization to its members (membership negotiation), to itself reflexively (self-structuring), to the environment (institutional positioning); the fourth is used to adapt interdependent activity to specific work situations and problems

(activity coordination). Figure 1 gives a schematic of an organizational system and the four directions of flow.

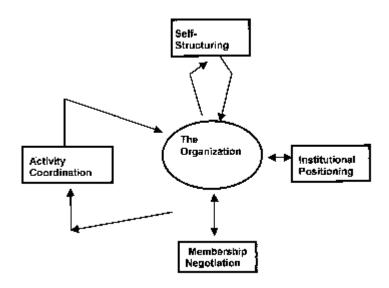


Figure 1. Explication of the Model

Membership Negotiation

Organizations always must include members and are distinct in nature from the members. Thus, one process vital to an organization is the communication that establishes and maintains or transforms its relationship with each of its members. Membership in any one organization is not a natural property of people, and is instead constituted by/in this flow of communication. But in constituting members, the communication process importantly constitutes the organization, since one must be a member of something.

One of the best-known examples of member constitution is member recruitment and socialization

(Jablin, 1987). Prospective members must be evaluated and categorized; both the new member and the organization must decide to create a relationship; and the new member must be incorporated into the routines and structures of the organization, and vice versa.

Activity Coordination

Organizations, by definition, have at least one manifest purpose, and the activity of members and subgroups is partly directed toward it. To a substantial extent, these activities are coordinated as a result of the organization's self-structuring, which creates a division of labor, a standard task-flow sequence, and a series of policies and plans for work. However, such structural directions can never be complete or completely relevant, are never completely understood, and are frequently amended in an informal patchwork of adjustments. In addition, exceptions and problems arise frequently and require coordinated adjustments out of the ordinary (Perrow, 1967). The process of adjusting the work process and solving immediate practical problems requires the sort of communication we call activity coordination.

In activity coordination, as in the other flows, one finds multiple processes and attitudes toward the

organization. For example, members can coordinate on how not to do work, or coordination may be in abeyance as members seek power over one another or external advantage for themselves from the system.

Institutional Positioning in the Social Order of Institutions.

One other type of communication flow remains to be discussed, communication outside the organization, to other entities, "at the macro level" in systems or functional terms. Such entities include suppliers, customers, and competitors and collaborators, including merger or acquisition candidates. Probably also more powerful organizations such as potential buyers and governmental regulators could be added. Sometimes this communication is presented as a direct product of the focal organization to which it is responsible as a formal entity. More often the communicators are individuals on boundary-spanning roles who negotiate terms of recognition of the organization's existence and place at the same time as they negotiate their own relationships. "Identity negotiation" is an appealing label for this type of communication; we have chosen the broader term "positioning" because the latter includes both identity establishment and development and maintenance of a

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"place" in the inter-organizational or larger social system. Since identity is inescapably comparative and relational, these two processes merge inextricably.

Summary

The four flows allow four divergent descriptions of organizational processes: the first recounts the struggle of individuals to master or influence their member roles, statuses, and relations to the organization. The second articulates how organizational leaders design, implement, and suffer problems with decision and control mechanisms. The third focuses on members engaging in interdependent work or deviating from pure collaborative engagement. The fourth describes the organization as a partner, often anthropomorphized, in exchange and other social relations with other organizations.

We definitely do not mean to say that if the four kinds of flows exist, an organization automatically has been constituted and exists. To illustrate the problem, we might consider a neighborhood bar. Suppose one evening two bar patrons discuss going out tomorrow to clean up the neighborhood; in another corner, out of earshot of the first, two other patrons discuss the rules that ought to be followed in clean-up efforts (not too early, etc.); and so on for other groups of patrons. Even if all four

types of conversation took place, would the neighborhood be constituted as an organization? We would say not. The four flows would need to be more interrelated, more mutually influential.

For one thing, the four flows need to develop and share a realm of mutual topical relevance, within which the relevance of the other flows themselves is also recognized. This sphere of mutual relevance is what we might call organizational knowledge (McPhee, Corman and Dooley, 1999).

The organizations are constituted in four different communication flows, not just one; that the flows are different in their main direction and in their contribution to organizational constitution, with each making a different and important contribution. Membership negotiation, organizational self-structuring, activity coordination, and institutional positioning underpin the theoretical framework. The variety of message flows is required because complex organizations require distinct types of relations to four "audiences." They must enunciate and maintain relations to their members through membership negotiation, to themselves as formally controlled entities through self-structuring, to their internal subgroups and processes through activity coordination, and to their colleagues in a society of institutions through institutional positioning. (The

electronic journal of communication, volume 10, numbers 1 & 2 , 2000 , Robert D. Mcphee).

3.9 COMMUNICATION AND THE POSTMODERN ORGANISATION: A REPORT OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ON THE AUSTRALIAN SPECIAL AIR SERVICE REGIMENT

The Australian Special Air Service Regiment, based on the coast at Swanbourne, just north of Fremantle, Western Australia, was begun in 1957 along the lines of the British 22 SAS and the World War II Long Range Desert Group as a 'Special Forces' (SF) unit in order to be trained in unconventional warfare techniques such as clandestine, not covert operations. SASR concentrates on how to train local counter-insurgency forces, demolitions, strategic reconnaissance, and, more recently, hostage rescue and counter-terrorist operations. However, with the changing nature of modern warfare and the scaling down of hostilities between nations and groups to "LICs" (Low Intensity Conflicts) and various other forms of aggressive encounters, SASR responsibilities have become very diverse, including peacekeeping as well as combat roles. A major current role of the SASR is provision of counter-terrorist measures for the Sydney Olympic Games in 2000. It is comparable with elite covert units such as the US Navy SEALS, the Russian SPETSNAZ, the British SAS, the Royal

Dutch Marines, and other Special Forces. A main principle of elite SF groups like SASR is that a disproportionately small force can achieve large strategic success.

(Retrieved from:

http://www.cios.org/EJCPUBLIC/010/1/01013.html)

The Literature on Modern and Postmodern Organizations

In one sense the term "postmodern organisation" is an oxymoron: "organization" betokens the modernist virtues of organicism, integration and unity, while "postmodern" is the trigger word of its antitheses -- synchronicity, fragmentation and dissociation. The literature on the postmodern organization is robust, with studies in professional and organizational communication (for example Berguist 1993).

An organization is postmodern when it has a "structure that is numerically and functionally flexible, with no clear centre of power or spatial location" (Parker, 1993, pp. 3-4). A postmodern organization as one whose rationalities:

Are relative and collective. There are no absolute criteria for truth and wisdom inside or outside any given organization and those "truths" that are utilized are

continually subject to re-negotiation and re-encoding by others within the negotiation. (Parker, 1992, p.8).

The postmodern organization can take many forms, from totalitarian to pluralist, depending on the organization's specific practices (Clegg, 1990a, pp. 3-4). In general, the postmodern organization will be less authoritarian, will use surveillance and supervision less, and will have internal flexibility and more worker autonomy.

Specialised mission,

goals/strategies

Bureaucracy

Control through

disempowerment

Extra-organizational

accountability

Inflexibility

Mistrust

Differentiation

Conformity

Unity

Imposed discipline

The Modern Organization The Postmodern Organization

Diffused mission,

goals/strategies

Democracy

Empowerment

Intra-organizational

accountability

Flexibility

Trust

De-differentiation

Creativity

Plurality

Self-discipline

Rank as authority Knowledge as authority

Diachronic (traditionSynchronic (contemporary)
orientated)

Learned responses Proactive communication

Creativity; Trust; Democracy; Knowledge

The degree to which local decision-making is validated by SASR practices is a strong indicator of a postmodern sensibility in the Regiment. In the conventional Australian defense forces there are very strict rules forbidding the soldier from modifying or tampering with his/her equipment or firearm, especially on safety grounds. However, SASR soldiers have ignored these rules with impunity. For example, in preparing for Vietnam some SASR soldiers independently modified their British World War II packs and webbing according to personal need and taste with the help of a Fremantle sail maker. Again, in response to the jungle war in Vietnam they made innovative, radical and quite "illegal" modifications to their standard issue SLR rifles. They removed the SLR muzzle flash suppressor, reworked the trigger control to fire as a machine gun, and shortened the bolt return spring. The result a huge muzzle flame and a booming, slower rate of automatic fire often

tricked the Viet Cong into thinking that instead of a small five man SASR team they had encountered a big Australian heavy weapons unit, demonstrating the postmodern SASR "fraud versus force" principle. Also, the cut-down, shorter SLR rifle was less prone to entangle jungle vines on patrol (Interview with Holt McMinn, 1997). An infantry battalion Regimental Sergeant Major who reported the illegal SLR rifle modifications to the Australian Task Force senior staff was told to stay away from the SASR lines (Interview with "Tiger" Lyons, 1996). These creative SASR experiments also relate to other binaries in the Clegg and Parker list: empowerment, intra-organizational accountability, creativity and proactive communication.

Empowerment; Flexibility; Trust

The SASR, in privileging the patrol commander as the key operational member of the Regiment, displays a postmodern approach to its roles. The Special Air Service Regiment has the same nominal organizational structure of commanding officer, senior staff, NCOs' and soldiers ("troopers") as the conventional infantry battalion. However, in the SASR this traditional Army pyramid of rank does not at any particular moment indicate the levels at which key decisions are being made, who is

providing leadership, or the direction and strength of structuring communication flows. In this way, in the case of the SASR the pyramid of the conventional modernist organization may be seen as somewhat inverted: In SASR there is agreement at all levels that the most important person is the patrol commander, often a sergeant. The SASR's faith in the patrol commanders from the junior ranks is unique. Often isolated, they are responsible for the execution of national policy and strategy on the ground. They must be able to understand the political and strategic consequences of their choices. We therefore focus on the intellectual and physical development of those junior ranks. (Interview with Lt Col Bill Forbes, 1996.) The covert SASR team 'tractor job' in Vietnam (Horner, 1989, chap. 1) demonstrates this democratic process of devolved responsibility to lower levels for planning, resourcing (including developing a new land mine) and conducting an operation with trust and confidence. Many find such trust well-rewarded: "Every time that I gave a task to an SASR team or individual, that task was without exception done far better than I would have expected it could be done" (Interview with Brig Jim Wallace, July 1999). The syllabus in professional communication in the postmodern organization is, ideally, concerned least with micro-skilling and most with group processes and the negotiation and "capture" of

meanings within the organizational context. The SASR has at times interrogated its own identity, policies, and democratic ethos to resist organizational stasis and the possibility that the unconventional can over time become the conventional.

Humor

Humor is a very serious matter in the SASR. On one Selection Course the candidates all agreed that one of their numbers was a certainty for selection: the man was physically fit, coped easily, helped others and was a good team man. But he was suddenly RTU'd. Very angry, he demanded to see the Commanding Officer, who told him that the reason for his rejection was his lack of a sense of humor. The candidate angrily thumped the CO's table and said, "That's bullshit!" The CO said, "That's what we mean." (Interview with Terry Slocombe, January 1996)

SASR humor permeates the unit. SASR soldiers have lively minds and often possess a high level of subtlety and sophistication. SASR humor can be cryptic and elliptical, at times functioning as private communication in a public place. The T-shirt of one SASR sub-unit carried the graphic of the Polish Workers' Solidarity Movement of the 80s a whimsical comment on the social status of that sub-unit within SASR.

SASR humor tends to take extreme forms and while black humor is found in most military organizations, in

the SASR it is more intensely black and anarchic, surfacing in difficult situations to help the Regiment to recover its amour-propre and, typically, to preserve high standards of professional performance. For example, the black humor in the SASR after the disastrous Blackhawk helicopter accident near Townsville might have appeared somewhat shocking and unfeeling to an outsider not conversant with the cultural contexts and organizational maintenance role of SASR humor. In the annual Stirrers' Parade, targets for mockery and satire have included the strategic theories of particular officers, the SASR's self-image, popular myths of the SASR trooper's physical and mental prowess, and, in the following satirical sketch, the abiding stress in SASR on unconventional warfare.

SASR soldier A (in guttural, demented tones): Men, the SASR has to get into South East Asia. So here's what we do. We build a big wooden horse and all get in it and push it all the way to Asia!

Humor is also essential communication behavior for maintaining the cohesion and smooth functioning of the basic operational unit of the SASR - the five-man team or patrol. Like the Selection Course, the five-man patrol or team is a focal point for understanding communication and culture in the SASR. In its specificity of operational functioning and its democratic management, the team is

intensely bonded and all members are secure in the knowledge that if wounded they will not be left behind even if the entire team is threatened. All individuals in the team must perform capably, and humor plays a crucial role in maintaining the self-discipline needed for high operational standards. Friction in the team results in personnel changes as dissension is magnified by the small size of the group. An insight into the role of humor in maintaining performance levels is contained in this statement from an interview with Travis Standen in January, 1996.

In the end, we could say that the postmodern organization is not an entity without control or direction, but functions as an assembly of de-centered, dissociated, flexible, often multi-skilled autonomous or semi-autonomous groups. The SASR is superficially a modernist, traditionally organized hierarchical army unit, but is postmodern in its egalitarian communication behaviors, tolerance of conflicting discourses, democratic culture, de-centered organizational thinking, and wide variety of multi-skilled operational roles. In resisting a drift to modernist organizational and strategic stasis, the role of the SASR Selection Course, which selects soldiers as people first and soldiers second, appears crucial. The individual personal

qualities of the SASR soldier, including humor, sustain the culture of democratic communication and promote novel thinking and unconventionality. The communication characteristics of the SASR show it to be a flexible and evolving entity with a history and tradition but no necessary commitment to historically determined functions or received ideas. The open communication in SASR ensures that the policy agenda of the SASR keeps changing and that a "pure" definition of SASR is thereby permanently deferred. The pluralist, flexible SASR is an example of the way that unassuming communication can constitute a postmodern organization. (Retrieved from:

http://www.cios.org/EJCPUBLIC/010/1/01013.html.

3.10 SURVEY

Managers today may need to "widen" their open door policies, especially as the pace of business accelerates. In a recent nationwide survey of chief financial officers (CFOs), 61 percent of respondents said the biggest challenge companies face in employee management is a lack of communication with staff.

The survey was developed by RHI Management

Resources, North America's largest consulting firm

providing senior-level accounting and finance

professionals on a project basis. It was conducted by an independent research firm and includes responses from

1,400 CFOs from a stratified random sample of companies with more than 20 employees.

CFOs were asked, "What one mistake do companies make most in managing their employees?" Their responses:

- Lack of communication between management and staff 61%
- Lack of recognition and praise 19%
- Lack of flexibility in scheduling hours worked 7%
- Lack of authority given to employees 6%
- Other 4%
- Don't know/no response 3%

(Retrieved from:

http://www.salesjobs.net/articles/details-25-article.html
).

CHAPTER 4 - IMPLEMENTATION

4.1 The style of my company

My company occupies about sixty people. One general manager, one functional manager, one economical manager, one sales manager, one accountant, one person responsible for supplies, one person responsible for logistics and bunker, four project managers/engineers, one secretary and forty technicians.

It is a traditional organization in which every project manager has a little authority in relation with the functional manager. The functional manager manages all the human resources, material and information. The limits of its authority are not formal but they are defined through the development process of my company all these years. As we can understand, the functional manager is the center of the company.

Project managers have occasionally little or big authority. It is up to the kind of the project and the work experience the project manager has.

The other managers act by their own way. The same thing happens to the other departments. (The electronic journal of communication, volume 10, numbers 1 & 2, 2000, Bruce Horsfield, University of Southern Queensland.)

Although, everyone in my company is important the roles are not clearly defined. That means that every employee assigns the way he or she works depended to his or her personality, abilities and character. We can easily imagine that by this way, quality is not standard and same between projects. Furthermore, when an employee acts even a little bit, by his own way, feels very independent and many times he does not feel that has to communicate with the other employees. Sometimes, in my company, employees work as holders of an office for their projects.

4.2 Communication inside my company

Although my company does not have a formal way of communication, still the employees are informed of the most important things and events in the organization. The target is to find out some information earlier than the problems occur but the management of information is not formal. So, many important things, even if they are known some moment, there are not known on the right time.

The communication tools we use are emails and rarely close meetings.

Because of the small size of my company, it is still easy for an employee to get some information by using

face-to-face communication or to hear something important "by mistake".

Things are getting harder when the employees are overloaded. Unfortunately, this is a frequent phenomenon. During these days, the communication tools are ineffective because no one has time to discuss directly to others, response to emails and give information to partners. The priority for each project manager is his project and his client.

4.3 Review of the situation

By observing the situation briefly, we could say that my company is a traditional old fashioned organization in a commutative stage. We can see this because there is a functional manager who cares about everything but on the other hand the engineers are called to make the work of project manager and to adopt characteristics of this science to their work and projects.

Furthermore, there is not a formal communication process and that means that sharing information is not a demand of the company but is has to do with the personality and morality of each employee.

The work and procedures of the other departments are not in common view and that means that every employee

spends energy and time to understand them in order to do his job with success. This lack of information can create conflicts and alibi for bad behavior.

During overloaded days, things are getting worst.

Everyone is stressed and has no time to communicate with his partners. As I mentioned in previous section, every project manager has time only for his project and his client. Automatically, each project manager acts singly and interpedently. The company these days is not an organization but a place in which some employees work.

Furthermore, in my case, there are a lot of problems. The project I have overtaken does not allow me to be in the company. The project office is in another place, a workplace far away from the offices of my company. The communication is very hard for a lot of reasons:

- I am not able to know about the other projects my company undertakes.
- I am not able to communicate face-to-face with the other employees.
- I am not able to press for any need I have during the project because I do not know the work load of the other employees.

• The other employees are not informed about the needs of my project, so, they can not feel the difficulties my project team faces.

In other words, I have to try very hard to have a small picture of my company. On the other hand, my project is very big and it can influence seriously the whole company with its success or failure.

Many times, I need a job to be done for example from supplies and I press very much without knowing the work the department has to do. Conflicts are very common and they demand time to be solved.

Furthermore, a lot of time I need technical information and I do not know where to ask for it. In my company there are no files from old projects and feedback is only in the hand of the employees. This is a big disadvantage for my company. Although each employee finds fecund ground to learn does not give feedback to the organization. This fact makes him essential with bad way and the organization weak in relation with the employee.

In the end, I have to mention that I "suspect" that I do not know the real situation of my company because of my absent from the main offices. I feel that I have an independent company parallel. During course 508 we learned about the unknown unknowns (unk unks). I am sure that there are a lot of things we do not know and much more things that we do not know that we ignore.

Maybe, we could make our work life easier and more effective through communication. In my thesis, I will try to improve communication and find a formal process and tool for it.

4.4 Results from the questionnaires

In my thesis I tried to indicate the situation of my company in relationship with communication. For this reason, I created four questionnaires which I asked from every employee to feel in them. From their answers, I found out that:

1. Every employee knows the right thing and gives the right answer even if is not true. For example, in the first questionnaire, they were asked if in the company there is a formal process for information. Most of the answers were positive, but this is not true. After a conversation with some of them, I found out that they prefer to avoid a problem, the lack of communication, and not to face it. The reason is very simple: they are overloaded and believe that they do not have time to share information and communicate formally. For this reason, I believe that the employees need a fast, easy and effective communication tool.

- 2. Another contradictable conclusion is that from one side, the 85% of the employees characterize the cooperation with their partners effective but on the other side, only the 20% of them feels that they have the right available feedback.
 Cooperation means a lot of information and help during the project but also after the end of the project. In my company, when an employee delivers his or her job feels successful and his work end this time. No one has the obligation to provide the feedback of his work, but only the results.
- 3. Another conclusion is that only by hearing and viewing the employees have a picture of the organization. Hearing and viewing is not the safer way to understand the situation inside a company. Employees are not the proper persons to find out when a department or a person is overloaded. They must have formal information about it and stop trying to analyze the symptoms.
- 4. Every employee agrees that if the information is freely shared among group members, helps the performance of the work.
- 5. They do not have a common vision. When they were asked to write the vision of the organization, every employee had a different opinion. That means

that the target and the scope of each person in the organization are different, so the assay is isolated.

6. They do not describe by the same way the management tree of the organization. Some employees instate the project manager lower and some of them higher. We can understand that project management is not clear.

CHAPTER 5 - RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Tools to improve communication.

In chapter four, we found out that communication inside company is not strong and formal, feedback is not available, information is not shared ducky and every employee is free to act by his own way. This period, the organization is not a very big company with many projects and a lot of employees. On the other hand, our company follows an anodic career. We undertake larger and more difficult projects and our scope is to become a strong company in Greece in electromechanical projects.

Even if this period, although we have poor communication, we manage to work satisfactory, we need strong bases to be able to be a larger company. The ways we use to communicate fit to our today size, not to our future. There are some very necessary factors we have to improve if we aim to go forward in the future. We must act and work as a big company in order to be a big company.

In the paragraphs below I will make some recommendations about the most important improvements we have to implement.

5.2 Common vision

As we mentioned in section 1.2, communication commonly fails because of lost data, different languages, personal and cultural differences. In the case of my company the problem of the different languages does not exist, but on the other hand, personal and cultural differences exist in every team. The only way to flatten them is to create a stronger thought and belief by which all the employees would feel as a team. This must be a shared and common vision. The vision of an organization must be given from the upper level management. The most easy way for this is if the General Manager to send a mail with the vision of the company to all the employees. This mail must be short and brief in order to be easily readable. After this, I recommend a short meeting between the employees to discuss with the upper level management the vision, the scope of the email and express their opinion. Maybe the vision does not fit with the personal target of some employees. This phenomenon must be faced.

Employees must feel important in an organization.

After this conversation about the vision of the company they will understand that they are part of the company and important for the implementation of the scope.

5.3 Common view of situation

In my thesis, I will try not only to improve shared information but also to create a formal process and tool for it. Common view of situation is a necessity.

Employees are able to cooperate only when they have the same view of a situation or a problem. For this reason, I will try to persuade my company to create a newspaper only for the employees.

This newspaper will include information about the economical elements of my company, the start and the end of big projects, information about employees etc. It will be monthly and every employee will be responsible for an article. The size and the article are not very important beside to the feeling that we are an organization that gives importance to the communication. The start of the newspaper will be amateurish but someday will be improved and be a formal tool for communication not only inside the company but also with our customers, suppliers etc.

5.4 TRUST BUILDING

As we mentioned many times in this paper, trust is very important for effective communication. We could easy imagine a discussion between us and a man we do not know or we do not trust. We can not communicate with

him because all the things he says seem to us like lies or indefinite. Our opinion for him comprises a brake between us. Many times in my work I face similar situations especially with new customers or new colleagues. Last time I had really a big problem was before six months with a new customer. He could not trust me about the time schedule and the control of our project. The reason was that he firstly could not control the project and could not believe and trust that I can achieve it. The problem was that I did not understand the real deep reason and for three months, our cooperation was a nightmare. After many meetings I understood that the client did not have the need of a gantt chart but of building trust between us.

Building trust is not an easy project. Most times, our fear does not let us to create trust between people. In my opinion based in my work experience I truly believe that only if we are experts we can create trust. Only if we know our work very well we can trust our colleagues and customers, because we feel that we are able to check them anytime.

Another factor of trust, has to do with ethics. We have to trust our partners, otherwise, we do not use them. The upper level management must try to explain this kind of thinking to the employees and try to encourage managers to trust the other employees and

team members. This can not happen automatically. It demands time and effort and concludes risk of making mistakes.

From these two things, I would focus in my company in trust building with three ways.

The first way is to demand to our colleagues to trust their company and its members, in limits of course.

Secondly, I would encourage all the colleagues and especially project managers to learn more things about their work in order to feel confident and not blind every time they have to cooperate with other persons.

Thirdly, I would train the members of my company how to transfer the right information to their customer to feel safe and be able to trust them.

For all these, seminars and educational meetings are very important.

In the end, I would recommend an excellent promotion of my company through internet, with information of old successful projects, economical elements and the level and experience of the employees in open view to every concerned person or company

5.5 THE ONE-PAGE PROJECT MANAGER

The one page project manager is a communication tool which was first designed to communicate to upper management-up communication. But it also effective at communicating out with those in the organization who have a stake in the project and down to those working in the project. (Clark A. Cambell, the one-page project manager, pg 42).

With only one page, we are able to indicate the whole view of our project. We can also add precious information that can help everyone to understand many important things.

I will try to persuade the other project managers to use it. The scope is to have this tool as a formal tool that gives a clear picture of any project. Every time starts a new project, the project manager will be responsible for its creation and allocation to the employees of the company. With this only one page, the other employees will be able to understand the complexity, the size, the responsibilities of each department and the economical elements.

The one-page project manager form

		Project Lea			Proj	ect: name						Date: mm/dd/
		Project Ob	jective: text									
Objec			Major Tasks			Project Compl					Own	er / Priority
		1										
		2										
		3										
		4										
		5										
		6										
		7										
		8										
		9										
		10										
		11										
		12										
		13										
			jor Tasks	/ _	Month 01	Month 02	Month 03	Month 11	Month 12	Owner	Owner	Owner
		Objectivė s	;\			Capital	8					
	•	3	\times			- Capital	┨					_
						Expenses	0					
					i		4					
							0					
						Other .	0					
						Other .	0		•	Budg	eted [⊒Expended
			nmary &			Other .]0		•	Budg	eted [⊒Expended
			nmary &			Other .	0		•	Budg	eted (⊒Expended
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	,	For Labels	ecast Millio Budgeted	Expended		Alt +	0152			Budg	eted (□Expended
	,	For	ecast Millio				0152			Budg	eted (□Expended

5. 4 Communication Plan-Team Feedback Form

The creation of a monthly form is another tool I will try to persuade the upper level management to use between the employees. By this form the employees will feel that the organization cares about their feelings and psychological situation. This only thing is enough to make them feel better and have more energy to work and communicate.

This form is a tool for checking and updating the situation in a company. Gives important feedback about the roles between the employees and especially between team members. The project managers will be responsible for their sharing, collection and analyzing. Functional manager must be informed from them about the liable problems and help them to solve them.

TEAM FEEDBACK FORM

Insti	ruct	cions	s:]	Pleas	se a	answe	er the	foi	110	owing	question	ıs	so
that	we	can	see	how	we	are	doing	as	а	team.	(Form	to	be
used	mor	nthly	y.)										

	-
1	. What are our current goals?
	2. Do we have clear directions? noyes
	3. How successful have we been in moving toward our goals?
	d. Everyone is contributing a fair amount to the project?
	o. Our processes are working well.
	5. Decisions are made using consensus.
	7. Everyone feels respected, listened to and valued?
	8. Meeting guidelines are being adhered to.
g	O. What is the best thing about our team
1	0. What is challenging our team
1	1. Do we need to change this form in any way to better serve our purposes?
Nam	eDate

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Appendixes

QUESTIONAIRE No1

NAI	ME :					
COI	MPANY:					
PO	SITION IN THE ORGANI	ZATI	ON:			
	1. How many years hammanager?	ve y	ou been working	g as a	project	
Α.	0-5	В.	5-10	С.	up to 1	. 0
Α.	<pre>2. Describe your coop managers. Collaborative</pre>					ing
	3. Do you know about	the	other projects	s that	has you	ır
	company?					
Α.	Yes	В.	No	C. So	ome of t	hem
	4. Do they have comm	on e	lements with yo	our pro	ojects?	
Α.	Yes	В.	No	C. I	don't k	now

- 5. How do you share resources with the other project managers?
- A. By the functional manager B. By network C. I don't know
 - 6. Do you face problems with the lack of resources?
- A. All the time B. Rarely C. Never

••••••

- 7. In your opinion, do you feel that there is something you should be informed about during proposal?
- A. Available resources B. Similar projects C. Other
- 8. Describe briefly the most common problem you face, related with communication inside your company.
 - 9. Your company has available information about old projects?
- B. Yes C. For some of them A. No
 - How often meetings between project managers 10. take place in your organization?
- A. Every week B. Every month

C. Never

- 11. Has your organization a communication tool or a formal process?
- B. Yes C. I don't know A. No
 - 12. How do you act when you need a kind of information?
- A. Send mail B. Read reports C. Ask unofficially
 - 13. Do you believe that the other departments in your organization are:
- A. Overloaded B. 'floppy'' C. Other
 - 14. How do you add up question 12?
- A. By hearing B. By viewing C. Other

The answers will be used only for educational scope. They constitute part of a survey for thesis and they will be in the files of City University and TEI of Piraeus.

QUESTIONAIRE No2

(An exercise from MIT University)

Name :
Position in the organization:
Listed below are 12 characteristics of work groups.
Please go through those characteristics and pick three
that you feel are essential for good group performance.
Rank them in this way:
1-most important 2-second most important 3-third most
important
1. Competitiveness among members
2. Everyone sticks closely to the point
3. The group avoids conflict
4. Members rotate the leadership position
5. Each member gives and receives feedback
6. A detailed plan is suggested for each group
meeting
7. Each group member is assertive
8. Informal subgroups form
9. Members freely express negative feelings
10. The overall goals of the group are explicitly
set
11. Information is freely shared among group
members

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_____ 12. Each person's ideas are taken into consideration and assessed

The answers will be used only for educational scope. They constitute part of a survey for thesis and they will be in the files of City University and TEI of Piraeus.

QUESTIONAIRE No3

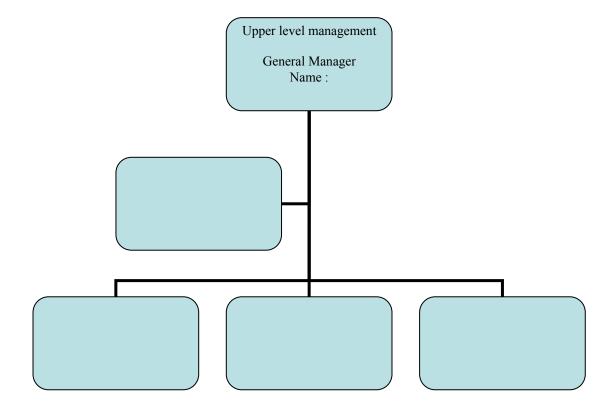
Name :
Position in the organization:
1. Describe the vision of your organization.
••••••

The answers will be used only for educational scope. They constitute part of a survey for thesis and they will be in the files of City University and TEI of Piraeus.

QUESTIONAIRE No4

Name	:	•••••	•••••		
Posit	ion	in	the	organization:	

1. By using the form below and making the appropriate changes, try to represent the management tree of your organization.



The answers will be used only for educational scope. They constitute part of a survey for thesis and they will be in the files of City University and TEI of Piraeus.

Communication problems inside a company.	Tools and techniques for their
reduction.	

