Assessing the Applicability of Integrated Communications:
Towards a Systemic Approach

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by

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This thesis tackles the problem of how communication functions can be integrated and made more effective in organisations. The research surfaces the main issues affecting the quality of integrated communications and develops a new Integrated Communications Model (ICM) for assessing the applicability of Integrated Communications (IC) using a systemic approach. The process of this research includes: identifying a range of aspects which may impact on the success of integrated communications; explaining how total quality management, systems thinking and pluralist approaches can help to make integrated communications more successful; surfacing the issues of integrated communications in Taiwan; developing a systemic approach- ICM for assessing the applicability of integrated communications; and generating recommendations for relevant modifications which can make IC more effective.

This research proceeds in three interrelated phases: qualitative first, quantitative next, and qualitative again. In the first phase, an initial list of the aspects for integrated communications success is generated through a review of the literature. Moreover, some of the modern management approaches such as TQM, systems thinking and pluralist approaches are examined to see how they could enhance integrated communications in organisations. In the second phase, a questionnaire is developed to discover the current situation of IC in Taiwanese companies. The questionnaire is sent to eighty top manufacturing and service companies in Taiwan and produces thirty-eight usable responses. The SPSS package is employed to analyse the data. In the same phase, a qualitative approach that includes interviews with several managers from five different
companies is conducted to find the issues of IC in Taiwanese companies from June 1998 to November 1998. Lastly, three companies are selected for the case studies to validate the research findings, to assist in the interpretation of the results and to develop a new model of IC.

The six aspects of IC believed to impact upon integrated communications success are extracted. Moreover, this research presents a revised Integrated Communications Model (ICM) to review, operationalise and evaluate the integrated communications approach, especially as related to the Taiwan context. This ICM can help to tackle the three main issues of IC identified in the research: how to help organisations to set up effective communications; how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders; and how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. The research findings are discussed and suggestions for further research are also proposed.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The main objective of this thesis is to surface issues affecting the quality of integrated communications and to develop a new Integrated Communications Model (ICM) for assessing the applicability of integrated communications—using a systemic approach. My thesis makes several contributions to the literature on the identification of aspects for integrated communications and the development of the ICM. The contributions are to help organisations to set up effective communications; to identify their specific stakeholders; and to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. In this introductory chapter, I introduce the background of this thesis first. Then I identify the aims that each part of this thesis tackles and explain the structure of the thesis. To summarise this chapter, the aims of the thesis are presented.

1.2 Background

Organisations are created or exist to achieve certain ends (Morgan, 1997). Following the industrial revolution, there was a trend towards the establishment of large factory organisations with routinisation of tasks. The classical management theorists such as Weber (1997) looked at the design of these whole organisations and saw that they were characterised by subdivision of jobs with a rigid hierarchy of precisely defined channels of communication and command. The pattern of authority was rigidly defined to ensure that a command from the top of the organisation would move in a precise way to produce a precise effect. This centralised bureaucracy worked like a machine with the
concept that to be efficient there is "one best way to organise" (Morgan, 1997). However, unfortunately the long chains of command and the overemphasis on rules and procedures means that bureaucracies can experience difficulty in responding to changing situations (Mullins, 1999). Also the bureaucratic structure ignores the informal organisation, the possibility of conflict between groups with different goals to the organisation and does not allow the individuals in the organisation to psychologically develop beyond their designated role.

In the 1920s organisation thinking moved to focus on the importance of social forces and human relations (Mayo, 1949). The idea was that productivity could be increased not by efficient structures but from humanising the organisation. The humanisation saw that the informal organisation was important to motivate the staff. Interest moved towards understanding human motivation. Hertzberg (1966) proposed that beyond hygiene satisfies, humans get motivation from the job content. McGregor (1960) suggested that the style of management is important. Using Theory X assumes people need direction, control and economic incentive. Using Theory Y assumes people respond to the right work conditions. However, the satisfied worker is not always productive (Mullins, 1999).

By the 1960s, management theorists revealed more knowledge concerning the most effective types of organisation. Burn and Stalker (1961) proposed that high-volume mechanistic operations need more bureaucracy than one-off products which need delegated authority and organic design. Perrow (1970) supported this finding highlighting the importance of technology. With routine technology, there is little discretion and a high degree of planning and bureaucracy, with non-routine technology
there is a more organic structure. Further organisation thinking saw the importance of
the open system approach with the technical and social aspects of organisation
interacting with a broader environment. Lawrence and Lorsch (1997) looked at the
effect of competitive environment. They compared high performing organisations in
three different market sectors and found that the most successful organisations generally
had states of differentiation and integration consistent with the diversity of the
environment. The conclusion was that internal design factors are important in producing
the ability to respond effectively to market conditions, therefore different structures are
most effective in different competitive conditions. This contingency approach
emphasises the importance of flexibility. However, bureaucracy can bring advantages.
For example, Child (1984) studied size and economic performance and found that for
organisations with over about 2000 employees, companies with more bureaucracy
performed better than those with less bureaucracy. Morgan (1997) thinks that it is useful
to see organisations in terms of several different metaphors - machine, organism, brain,
culture, political system - to reflect the different internal characteristics. The answer for
many organisations in the global economic arena of the 1990s has been to redesign to
produce flatter organisational structures with shorter chains of command in order to be
more responsive to change. Thus in the modern world, flexibility and creativity are
thought to be more important characteristics than simple efficiency (Morgan, 1997).

Taiwanese companies have developed similarly to Western companies. The older state
companies operating in stable markets have large numbers of employees and are
regarded as bureaucratic. Private companies have to exist in a competitive business
environment and tend to have fewer employees and are regarded by staff to be less
bureaucratic. In Taiwan, many computer support companies which need to respond
quickly to the rapidly changing computer business are often family-owned small to medium sized enterprises. The communications functions in organisations have developed in parallel with the organisational designs. Thus the bureaucratic tradition has led most modern organisations to subdivide tasks and responsibilities leading to separate marketing and public relations functions. However, there is no reason why these two departments should be separate and as this study will argue there are good reasons to integrate the communications function. Traditionally, these two departments in many organisations are poorly co-ordinated and each department in the organisation tries to optimise its own performance, instead of working for the organisation as a whole, which leads to sub-optimisation. Although there is widespread agreement that integrating communications responsibilities is very important, the focus is usually on organisation processes which can effectively integrate the communication disciplines (Gronstedt, 1994; Duncan and Moriarty, 1997; Caywood, 1997). This thesis seeks to examine the relationship between all the aspects of communications in organisations in order to determine how to achieve fully integrated communications. It does this mainly by field research obtained from the top companies in the Taiwan stock exchange covering both public and private companies from a range of competitive environments to reflect longer and shorter command structures, different degrees of bureaucracy, different reliance on rules and regulations, different sizes, different technologies, and different products. Moreover, this thesis also presents an Integrated Communications Model (ICM) for assessing the applicability of integrated communications. The model is systemic because it not only focuses on interactive organisational processes, but also considers organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics. Particularly, a system of evaluation is also included in the model. I advocate a holistic perspective and therefore examine some of the modern management approaches such as
TQM, systems thinking and pluralist approaches to see how they can enhance integrated communications in organisations.

1.3 The Structure of the Thesis

After this introductory chapter, the remainder of the thesis is organised into three separate but interlinked parts. I provide a brief overview of each part in the following discussion in which the interrelated aims of the thesis are unfolded.

1.3.1 PART I: Literature Review

PART I sets the scene through a consideration of the emergence of integrated communications and an examination of the use of theories like Total Quality Management (TQM), systems thinking and pluralist approaches. In particular, I review a number of approaches that may help to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of integrated communications. By identifying the issues of integrated communications where these approaches may help, this then leads us into the second part of the thesis. Part I is divided into four chapters as follows.

CHAPTER 2: INTEGRATED COMMUNICATIONS

The first aim of this thesis is to provide an appreciation of the context of the emergence and content of integrated communications. This chapter, then, reviews previous integrated communications research and relevant literature. The chapter begins by tracing the history of marketing communications and public relations, then the reasons underlying the idea of integrated communications are introduced and explored.
A model of integrated communications which seeks to address some of the failings of the existing, critically reviewed IC models is briefly presented in the last section of this chapter.

CHAPTER 3: INTEGRATED COMMUNICATIONS AND TQM

The second aim of this thesis is to examine some contemporary management approaches such as TQM, systems thinking, and other pluralist approaches to see how they could be used to enhance integrated communications in organisations. These approaches are discussed in Chapter 3, 4 and 5. Chapter 3 examines the ideas of TQM and discovers that TQM could help to improve the process of integrated communications. In particular, the ideas and methods of TQM can be used to set up effective communications in organisations. However, following a critique of TQM, a new understanding of TQM is introduced.

CHAPTER 4: TQM AND SYSTEMS THINKING

Since TQM is not good enough to solve all the issues of integrated communications, systems thinking is introduced to support TQM. Chapter 4 examines the potential for systems thinking to enhance the approach of TQM in integrated communications in organisations.

CHAPTER 5: SIX APPROACHES TO PLURALISM IN SYSTEMS THINKING

Chapter 4 demonstrated that it is not sufficient to use only one method to solve all the issues of integrated communications. This chapter examines some pluralist approaches in systems thinking that have been successful in the management sciences. It explores
the ideas provided by pluralism to see how they can further enhance integrated communications in organisations.

1.3.2 PART II: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

This part of the thesis covers the theoretical development of a model of IC, which must be operationalised to show that it has practical utility and potential. To this end, a programme of research was developed to assess the likely utility of the IC model for organisations in Taiwan. Part II deals with the programme of research and the research methodology. The third aim of this thesis, then, is to design and use research methods to surface and identify the issues of integrated communications in organisations in Taiwan.

In PART II research methods are designed to surface issues affecting the quality of integrated communications in Taiwan. I design a questionnaire which is sent to eighty companies in Taiwan. Moreover, interviews are conducted in five companies. The data is analysed and discussed to identify the issues of integrated communications in organisations. The findings are taken forward into the third part of the thesis to provide suggestions to tackle the issues of integrated communications.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODS

Chapter 6 presents the research methods that include the questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire has twenty questions which evaluate the extent to which integrated communications exist in organisations. Follow-up interviews are conducted to obtain a
greater understanding of the present situation of integrated communications in Taiwanese companies.

CHAPTER 7: DATA ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Chapter 7 deals with descriptive analysis of the questionnaire results. This helps to reveal the current situation about IC in Taiwanese companies. The findings of the questionnaire results are analysed to show how they are related to three main issues of IC in the thesis. This leads to the fourth aim of this thesis which is to analyse the current situation and issues concerning integrated communications in leading Taiwanese companies.

CHAPTER 8: INTERVIEW RESULTS

Interviews are conducted to discover 'what' and 'how' organisations are doing concerning an IC approach in Taiwan. Chapter 8 reports on the results from the face-to-face interviews and interprets these findings. These findings are also related to three main issues of IC in the thesis, and help to provide detailed understanding of IC in Taiwanese companies.

CHAPTER 9: CASE STUDIES

Three companies are selected for detailed case studies. The qualitative research interview is used to validate the research findings, to assist in the interpretation of the results and to develop a new model of IC.
PART III: THE REVISED MODEL OF INTEGRATED COMMUNICATIONS

PART III presents how the ICM can help to tackle the issues of integrated communications and improve integrated communications success, based on the findings of the research programme (practical research) and the literature review.

CHAPTER 10: INTEGRATED COMMUNICATIONS MODEL (ICM)

Chapter 10 presents a new ICM to tackle the issues of integrated communications. The ICM can be used to review, operationalise and evaluate the integrated communications approach. The fifth aim of this thesis, then, is to develop an ICM for setting up effective communications; identifying their specific stakeholders; and evaluating the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders in organisations. The sixth aim is to make recommendations for relevant modifications to improve integrated communications success. The ICM is explored in relation to the issues of integrated communications and gives suggestions of suitable methods.

1.4 The Aims of the Thesis

In concluding Chapter 1, let us return to a list of the aims set out above:

(1) to provide an appreciation of the context of the emergence and content of integrated communications;
(2) to examine some contemporary management approaches such as TQM, systems thinking, and other pluralist approaches to see how they could be used to enhance integrated communications in organisations;

(3) to design and use research methods to surface and identify the issues of integrated communications in organisations in Taiwan;

(4) to analyse the current situation and issues concerning integrated communications in leading Taiwanese companies;

(5) to develop an ICM for setting up effective communication; identifying their specific stakeholders; and evaluating the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders in organisations; and

(6) to make recommendations for relevant modifications to improve integrated communications success.

1.5 Conclusion

So far, this chapter has unveiled some ideas of integrated communications and these will be given detailed consideration in the succeeding chapter. How well the aims of the thesis are satisfied is considered in the conclusion chapter.
As with most research projects, it is important to uncover the past and present activities in the chosen field of study. Not only does it indicate any trends of the movement, but it also serves to highlight areas that are underdeveloped and ripe for exposure. So, a literature review was one of the first steps in the process. Understandably, it is a step that is necessarily ongoing until submission of the thesis, for contributions from other research institutes and individuals do not stop nor can the review of the older literature ever be complete.

The emergence of the need for integrated communications is considered first in Chapter 2. In order to understand the reasons underlying the emergence of integrated communications, the blurring of the boundaries between communication disciplines must be understood. Thus, the meanings of marketing communications, public relations communications and development of integrated communications are discussed. Following this, I introduce some integrated communications approaches and a comparison and critique of current IC approach are also presented.

In Chapter 3, I focus on Total Quality Management and explain how to implement it in order to achieve integrated communications. The systems and processes view in TQM is pointed out to show how TQM may help integrated communications. It is suggested that, although TQM may not solve the problems of integrated communications completely, some systemic research can be undertaken to help in that respect.
Following this, Chapter 4 introduces some systemic methodologies which might help in the implementation of TQM. In Chapter 5, six approaches to pluralism in systems thinking are examined which can be used to enhance the IC intervention.
2.1 Introduction

The first aim of the thesis is to provide an appreciation of the context of the emergence and content of integrated communications. In order to introduce integrated communications, we must know the role of communications in Marketing and Public Relations, so that the blurring of the boundaries between the communication disciplines can be understood. Following that, a comparison and critique of current IC approaches were presented in detail.

2.2 Communication

In order to understand the idea of IC, the definitions of communication, marketing communications, and Public Relation (PR) communications must be understood first. Following that, the blurring of the boundaries between the communication disciplines is identified.

2.2.1 The Definition of Communication

Communications play an important role in all our lives. In most companies, there are two main communication disciplines—marketing communications and public relations. Although there are many important publications that have focused on this subject (e.g., Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn, 1993; Harris, 1993), there
appears to have been little effort to discuss or carry out theoretical research about how the purposes uniting the two disciplines' persuasive voices can work together.

In an organisation, including its environment, its products and services and its people, information is essential to management and workers. Insufficient information may cause stress and dissatisfaction among workers. All information is obtained through an organisation's communication systems. Communication systems provide many methods to move information through an organisation, as an input to decision-making.

The word communication is freely used by everyone in modern society, including members of the general public, organisational behaviour theorists, and management practitioners. Everyone should pay attention to it because no organisation can exist without it. Very few members of the general public and not a great many more management people can precisely define the word 'communication.' Part of the problem is that even experts in this field have not agreed upon a definition themselves, as demonstrated by the following definitions.

Communication has been more technically defined as "a process for conducting the attention of another person for the purpose of replicating memories." (Cartien and Harwood, 1953). Communication is more simply defined as the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another in the field of human relations (Lussier, 1996). A significant point of this definition is that communication always involves at least two people- a sender and a receiver. However, I feel that communication in the workplace is most often concerned with more than two parties.
Lussier (1996) further defined communication as "the process of a sender transmitting a message to a receiver with mutual understanding." The implication is that the important factor is the transmission of meaning in the communication process. If people do not agree on the meaning of the message, effective communication has not taken place. So the communication process may include "information source or sender, medium, receiver or audience, interference, feedback and environmental factors." (Griffin, 1993). Goetsch and Davis (1994) identified four communication levels:

- One-on-one-level communication involves one person communicating with one other person. ...
- Team- or unit-level communication is communication with a peer group. ...
- Company-level communication is communication among groups. ...
- Community-level communication occurs among groups inside of a company and groups outside the company. ...

(Goetsch and Davis, 1994:267-268)

In the thesis, I analyse the process of these four levels of communication in organisations and develop a new IC model to improve the internal and external communications of organisations. The communication process is increasing in complexity because of the changeable world. In most companies, the two main formal communication disciplines are marketing communications and public relations. I now review and critique how the two disciplines traditionally have been defined and distinguished.
In past decades, many marketers built great barriers around the various marketing and promotional functions and planned them separately, with different budgets, different views of the market, and different objectives (Belch and Belch, 1995). In the 1990s, many companies (e.g. AT&T, Motorola, Xerox and so on) have paid attention to Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC), which involves combining the various promotional factors along with other marketing actions that communicate with a firm's consumers (Fawcett, 1993).

In 1991, Don Schultz and his colleagues in Northwestern University's Integrated Marketing Communication programme defined IMC as: “the process of managing all sources of information about a product/service to which a customer or prospect is exposed which behaviourally moves the consumer toward a sale and maintains customer loyalty.” (Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn, 1993)

This definition focuses strictly on the potential consumer and places an emphasis on building a relationship between the consumer and the brand. According to this definition, there must be a behavioural response from the consumer for IMC to be successful. By including ‘all sources of information’ to which consumers and others are exposed, the definition embraces a broader variety of communication functions than that proposed by the American Association of Advertising Agencies's (AAAA or 4A) definition, and includes even those sources of information not emerging from the organisation or its communication agencies. The 4A defined integrated marketing communications as:
a concept of marketing communications planning that recognises the added value of a comprehensive plan that evaluates the strategic roles of a variety of communication disciplines- for example, general advertising, direct response, sales promotion, and public relations- and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency, and maximum communications impact.

(Schultz, 1993:17)

Keegan, Moriarty, and Duncan's first definition viewed IMC as: "the strategic coordination of all messages and media used by an organisation to collectively influence its perceived brand value" (Keegan, Moriarty, and Duncan, 1992). In contrast to Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn's (1991) definition, their first definition did not limit the focus to just consumers and prospective customers, but implied that whoever was interested in the organisation was to be taken into consideration. Also unlike Schultz's (1993) definition, this Keegan, Moriarty, and Duncan's (1992) definition limited the message and media activities to only those emerging from the brand or its agencies. However, probably the most significant difference was the focus on merely attitudinal change in the Keegan, Moriarty, and Duncan's (1992) definition rather than on a behavioural alteration.

Duncan and Moriarty (1997) subsequently amended their definition to focus more on relationship building with all stakeholders and added a behavioural response factor and a dialogue element to their attitudinal effect. This revised definition also placed more emphasis on the organisation, not just its brands, describing IMC as "the process of strategically controlling or influencing all messages and encouraging purposeful dialogue to create and nourish profitable relationships with customers and other stakeholders." (Duncan and Moriarty, 1997). Duncan and Moriarty (1997) summarised the main studies done on IMC since 1990 as including:
The four studies conclude that, whilst IMC “is a good idea,” only a small percentage of companies really do it. They suggested the reason is that IMC “could not really work unless companies made significant changes in how they were organized and what their corporate priorities were.” Not only has the expansion of IMC definitions moved away from the literal integration of major communication functions under direct control of organisations, but it has broadened the idea of receiver and placed more emphasis on long-term influences. When Duncan and Moriarty (1997) added stakeholders to their definition, they moved the concept beyond the customer and trade target audiences to include employees, regulators, stockholders, and all others who may have a direct or indirect interest in organisational movement and advantage. These wide definitions open a door for public relations, particularly, to play a more important role in IMC. To do this, however, they must be less defensive and grasp the chance to demonstrate their abilities in building relationships with a diversity of publics or target audiences so that the long-term survival of commercial businesses will be secured. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) presented an Integrated Marketing (IM) business model for developing brand value for organisations and their customers and other stakeholders. IM is more macro and inclusive than IMC. Duncan and Moriarty define IM as follows:
Integrated marketing is a cross-functional process for managing profitable brand relationships by bringing people and corporate learning together in order to maintain strategic consistency in brand communications, facilitate purposeful dialogue with customers and other stakeholders, and market a corporate mission that increases brand trust.

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:9)

Kitchen and Schultz (1999) publicised one paper which concerned the rapid growth of the concept of Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC). Theoretical underpinnings are reviewed in detail and a five-country empirical study within advertising agencies from the United States, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia, and India is also presented. After reviewing the importance of communications in marketing, the other formal communication disciplines known as Public Relations is reviewed in the next section.

2.2.3 Public Relations (PR) Communications

Kotler (1986) emphasised that PR is most effective when viewed as part of the marketing mix used by organisations to pursue their marketing objectives. As cited in Ehling, White, and Grunig (1992), Kotler mentioned his conceptualisation of PR as it relates to marketing:

First, public relations is viewed as primarily a communication tool, whereas marketing includes not only communication but also needs assessment, produce development, price setting, and the construction of distribution arrangements.

Second, public relations, in its communication role, attempts only to influence attitudes, whereas marketing directs its efforts at eliciting specific behaviors such as purchasing, voting, or joining.

Third, public relations is not involved in trying to define the goals of an organisation, whereas marketing is intricately involved in defining the mission of a business, type of customers being targeted, and kinds of good or services to be produced.

(Ehling, White, and Grunig, 1992:378)
Kotler (1986) also discussed ‘social marketing’ or ‘megamarketing’ to apply marketing concepts to nonprofit organisations. In order to distinguish the particular application of public relations that support marketing from the general application of public relations, the concept of ‘marketing public relations’ arose in the 1980s.

Marketing Public Relations (MPR) can be defined more specifically than the broader concept of public relations because of its relevance to marketing, particularly to helping an organisation achieve its marketing purposes. Drawing upon the most commonly used definitions of public relations and marketing and personal experience, Harris (1991) suggested this working definition of marketing public relations:

Marketing public relations is the process of planning, executing and evaluating programmes that encourage purchase and consumer satisfaction through credible communication of information and impressions that identify companies and their products with the needs, wants, concerns and interests of consumers.

(Harris, 1991:12)

At the Public Relations Colloquium 1989, Kotler cited how public relations helped the company to achieve its purposes by “serving as protector and promoter of the company's image among its various publics.” In this way, the practice of ‘good public relations’ by association ultimately influences the marketing of its goods and services. A distinction should be drawn, however, between the roles of Corporate Public Relations (CPR) and Marketing Public Relations (MPR).
Harris (1991) distinguished 'Marketing Public Relations,' from 'Corporate Public Relations.' He defined MPR as public relations tools used to promote products, giving it the same meaning as product publicity. CPR is defined as the relationship to stakeholders other than the customers. In 1993, he also pointed out that public relations actions are designed to support marketing targets in the same way that marketing public relations (MPR) does. Marketing targets that may be aided by public relations actions include raising awareness, informing and educating, gaining understanding, building trust, giving customers a reason to buy and motivating customer acceptance. MPR adds value to the integrated marketing programme in a number of ways (Harris, 1993).

The public relations departments are not only the main originators of the idea and themes of most corporate advertising; they are increasingly taking over the duty of media choice and placement of advertisements from the advertising department (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). Public relations practitioners discover themselves addressing markets as well as using marketing tools and marketing strategies. Current textbooks in public relations are coordinating a variety of marketing tools such as print advertisement, TV and radio commercials, and direct mail (Cutlip, Center, and Broom, 1985; Grunig and Hunt, 1984; Wilcox, Ault, and Agee, 1992). Similarly, marketers are resorting to PR tools. The Walt Disney Company, for example, relied exclusively on PR actions in their marketing up until the mid-1980s (Grover, 1991).

The term marketing public relations is widely used now and is used to distinguish this field from the broader one of PR, public relations. This would seem to suggest
fission sometime in the future, that is, the split-off of marketing-support public relations from those other public relations actions that define the corporation's relationships with its noncustomer publics. Harris (1991) argued:

The corporate public relations (CPR) function may well remain a corporate management function, and what is now known as marketing public relations will become a marketing management function. Under such a scheme, the mission of CPR would be to support corporate objectives. The mission of MPR would be to support marketing objectives.

(Harris, 1991:34)

A close working relationship would be kept between the two disciplines, not only because of the similarity of skills and experience involved, but also because of the need to integrate marketing purposes with corporate objectives. Relationships with government at all levels, for instance, can significantly influence the environment in which the firm markets its products, as can the firm's public positions on a variety of existing and emerging issues that influence the public as customer.

Kotler (1986) refined his idea of public relations in an article, 'Megamarketing,' in the Harvard Business Review. He argued that Megamarketing clearly requires marketing executives to use the skills of corporate public relations and public affairs professionals and lawyers. In Harris's (1991) view, public relations relates to marketing in two different but complementary ways- one in straight-ahead promotional planning, the other one in blocked-market conditions:

1. Marketing public relations (MPR), used in normal marketing situations to influence consumers, is an important component of the Four Ps\(^1\) strategy, specifically supporting Promotion to facilitate a transaction.
2. Corporate public relations (CPR), used in megamarketing situations to influence nonconsumer publics in order to gain market entry. Together with the use of Power, CPR adds an important new component (public relations) to a Six Ps\(^2\) strategy in blocked markets.

(Harris, 1991:43)
The need for some combining between CPR and MPR is important today and will be increasingly so in the future. Some give and take will inevitably be required from both. Public relations will have to give up its intellectual stance and its ignorance of the marketing function, and marketers will have to become increasingly aware of how the social, political, and economic environment affects customers and the opinion makers who affect attitudes toward companies and their products.

2.2.4 Blurring of the Boundaries between the Communication Disciplines

After briefly examining both marketing and public relations communications, it is time to identify the blurring of the boundaries between the communication disciplines. Kotler and Mindak (1978) produced one of the first articles that described the relationship between marketing and public relations. The article, entitled "Marketing and Public Relations, Should They be Partners or Rivals?" discussed four ideal-type relationships that marketing and public relations can assume in an organisation (Figure 2.1).

Class 1 relationships are characterised by a minimal use of either function. Organisations characterised by a class 2 relationship have a well-established public relations function but do little in the way of formalised marketing. Class 3 indicates an organisation in which marketing dominates and the public relations function is minimal. Class 4 enterprises have both strong marketing and strong public relations. In their article, Kotler and Mindak also suggest five ways of viewing the relationship between marketing and public relations (Figure 2.2).
Figure 2.1: Four levels of use of marketing and public relations in enterprises (from Kotler and Mindak, 1978:14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Weak Marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Strong Marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Weak Public Relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Strong Public Relations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
- 1: Small Social Service Agencies
- 2: Hospitals and Colleges
- 3: Small Manufacturing Companies
- 4: Fortune 500 Companies

Figure 2.2: Models of the possible relationship between marketing and public relations (from Kotler and Mindak, 1978:17)

A. Separate but Equal Functions

From this perspective it is argued that the differences between marketing and public relations should be recognised and preserved. This distinction corresponds to the traditional approach to marketing and public relations.

B. Equal but Overlapping Functions

The boundaries between marketing and public relations discussed above clarify that most companies are evolving from the 'Separate but Equal' to 'Equal and Overlapping.'
C. Marketing as the Dominant Function

In this view, public relations exist essentially to make it easier for the firm to market its goods. Levy and Zaltman (1975) advanced this view that “all interactions may be interpreted from a marketing point of view.”

D. Public Relations as the Dominant Function

The argument could be made that the firm's future depends critically on how it is examined by key publics, including stockholders, financial sector, unions, employees, community leaders, as well as consumers. Marketing should be put under the control of public relations to make sure that the goodwill of all publics is kept.

E. Marketing and Public Relations as the Same Function

The “Marketing and Public Relations as the Same Function” view recognises that the two functions have many similarities and thus can be said to be focusing on the same issues. Kotler and Mindak (1978) argued:

It may be that the best way to solve a marketing problem would be through public relations activities. It also is possible that the best way to solve a public relations problem might be through the disciplined orientation that marketing provides.

(Kotler and Mindak, 1978:19)

According to this view, the boundaries between marketing communications and public relations are eroding. Public relations practitioners address markets and marketers address public relations. Marketing communications tools become a subset of PR, and PR tools also become a subset of marketing communications.
There are two school of thought regarding the role of public relations, either it is separate from or it is part of the promotional mix. Kotler has made a number of attempts to subsume public relations activity under marketing. In particular, he argued that public relations is most effective when it is viewed as part of the marketing mix used by organisations to pursue the marketing objectives (Kotler, 1982). Not everyone accepts Kotler’s view of the centrality of the marketing function in organisations or its main role in shaping organisations’ policies. For example, Bennett and Copper (1981) pointed out the serious limitations of assigning marketing a dominant role. Also Hayes and Abernathy (1980) suggested that shortcomings in marketing endeavours detracted from sound corporate strategy and this might lead to serious consequences such as loss of competition in the trading arena of the world.

The ‘Nordic school’ of service marketing research introduced the notion that organisations in the service sector might need a totally different marketing approach from manufacturers of consumer products. Gummesson (1978, 1979) in Sweden used the example of the area of professional services marketing and Gronroos (1978, 1983) in Finland worked on the marketing of consumer and industrial services. Gronroos (1983) believes that whereas it is possible to separate marketing management from other aspects of management in manufacturing companies, this is impossible for service companies and consequently strategic marketing management cannot be divorced from strategic management and strategic planning in service companies. This view initiates an integrated theory of service marketing which suggests that marketing management involves the planning, motivating and managing of all factors which can affect both customer relations and the image of the company (including corporate and brand image) in the eyes of the public, in order to
meet the needs and demands of all involved parties - company, customers, shareholders, creditors, society. This wider view of marketing management opens the way to more effective utilisation of company resources beyond the restricted confines of the traditional marketing mix. The result is that for both public relations theory and marketing theory, the employees are recognised as the internal market. This suggests a similarity to relationship marketing which Kotler (1997) defined as 'the practice of building long-term satisfying relations with key parties - customers, suppliers, distributors - in order to retain their long-term preference and business.' Kotler sees this widened marketing as the intelligent way forward towards stable win-win relationships with customers, dealers, distributors, and suppliers. Similarly, public relations management recognised public relations as a broad and strategic role responsible for managing conflicts, and building coalitions with publics (Grunig, 1992). The distinction between marketing and public relations blurs as the definitions of these two disciplines broaden. So the development of a new discipline, Integrated Communications (IC), emerged which was to become more widespread in organisations in subsequent years because it added much value. It is that discipline that we consider next.

2.3 Integrated Communications (IC)

In this section, I introduce what IC is and why it is needed. Following that, a comparison and critique of current IC approaches is also presented.
2.3.1 What is Integrated Communications?

The combination of marketing and public relations communications disciplines has a number of labels. In the late 1980s, advertising agencies attempted to co-opt the concept by calling it ‘the new advertising’ (Hume, 1991), but other labels were also suggested: ‘the new PR’ (Harris, 1991), ‘integrated marketing’ (Wilcox, Ault and Agee, 1992), ‘integrated corporate communications’ (name of a master's programme at Duke University), ‘integrated marketing communications’ (Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn, 1993), or ‘integrated communications’ (Gronstedt, 1994). The last two terms have been most widely utilised. I will use ‘integrated communications’ to describe the combining of public relations and marketing communications in this research because I am concerned not only with marketing communications, but also with communications to all the various stakeholders in a company.

Gronstedt (1996) had written extensively about the integration between marketing communications and public relations. He argued that

Integrated communications uses an appropriate combination of sending, receiving, and interactive tools drawn from a wide range of communication disciplines to create and maintain mutually beneficial relations between the organisation and its key stakeholders, including the customers.

(Gronstedt, 1996:292)

This extension to include all key stakeholders is one that reflects a holistic approach to communication problems and is therefore a valuable addition to the PR/Marketing debate. In response to the revolution of communication techniques and applications in business, there has been a great deal of progress in the last few years towards viewing organisational communication in this broader way.
2.3.2 Why is Integrated Communications Needed?

Actually, marketing and public relations face the same change elements which have revolutionised business all over the world. These change elements make them coalesce into a closer relationship (Harris, 1991). Six change elements can be identified:

A. The Mass Market Splinters

The mass market is becoming a distant memory as it splinters. This began in the 1980s and will continue through the 1990s. The global population has changed, and so has the marketing audience drawn from that population. Public relations can do very well for an increasingly diverse population and it can reach the more complicated customers. IC can address the difficulties created when audiences are fragmented into special-interest groups. Proponents of IC suggest that, through an IC programme, it will be easier to give information to special-interest groups and the IC programme can elicit specific behaviours from these groups and help organisations to get support from their stakeholders.

B. Technology and the Information Explosion

The society has shifted from being an industrial society to an ‘information society’ and forecast that computer technology and innovative communications would expedite the change. Public relations had a great opportunity to reach markets more quickly because of more new media channels (such as personal-computer, fax
transmissions, and so on). Through these channels, IC can reach target audiences more quickly and efficiently.

C. Increased Competition

Marketers have changed the way to do business because of increased competition. Dilenschneider argued about the change in marketing strategy, saying

Marketing is indeed warfare intended to win consumer awareness and commitment. When network TV could deliver more than 90% of the homes prime time, it was the weapon of choice. We have now entered an era of strategic marketing, and the choices are different. Advertising remains an important, but no longer an overriding, element of the marketing mix... and public relations has sharply ascending importance to successful marketing.

(Dilenschneider, 1988, cited in Harris, 1991:19)

In the 1990s, a company must use PR to offer customers more alternatives than ever before. In this competitive society, IC can give organisations more available weaponry to compete with others.

D. The Decline of Network Advertising

Television faces a radical transformation because other advertising media are available to marketers. Three elements influence this transformation: (1) the impact of the VCR; (2) rising television advertising costs; (3) the shift in promotional spending. IC can reach target audiences not with traditional advertising but rather with different channels that might not be available to marketers working without a PR backing (e.g. Dixon's free Internet service).
E. Advertising under Attack

Rothenberg (1989) argued that the best way for many companies to understand a future profit increase is to “try to use less advertising because any reduction of advertising goes straight to the bottom line.” Marketers are using PR techniques to reach target markets in order to be more efficient and effective. Because TV advertising effectiveness is challenged, IC plays the role of a more multidimensional, more sophisticated discipline to counter this attack.

F. Expanding Media Opportunities

The complexity of advertising decision making also offers many opportunities for public relations. Both marketing and PR have expanding media opportunities. IC can make them share each other’s experiences to choose the best media opportunities.

Following these elements, many researchers (e.g. Cutlip et al., 1985; Belch and Belch, 1995; Harris, 1991) have emphasised the importance of IC. Above we have noted six areas in which either Marketing or PR have traditionally dominated, but which now, because of new developments, present new problems to those separate disciplines. As we have shown above, where Marketing has weaknesses, PR can help, and vice versa. This suggests the need for a new, coordinated approach to markets which the field of Integrated Communications (IC) can supply. Following this, I now consider the characteristics of IC that enable it to deal with the strengths and weaknesses of the separate Marketing and PR disciplines.
2.3.3 An Integrated Approach to the New Marketing / PR Domain

Although IC has the capability to address the problems mentioned earlier, it also has some problems in dealing with many contemporary organisational difficulties. For example, the literature on IC has one theme which requires further explanation: what aspects and models of IC are most appropriate for organisation.

There are a number of writers who have suggested models of IC, including some who set out specific aspects towards achieving successful IC (e.g. Duncan, 1993; Moore and Thorson, 1996; Moriarty, 1996; Duncan and Caywood, 1996). Some of these models are presented and criticised below. Firstly, I will focus on Duncan and Caywood as their seven stages model appears most comprehensive, although it does have some problems.

Duncan and Caywood (1996) identified seven stages of integrated communications: awareness, image integration, functional integration, coordinated integration, consumer-based integration, stakeholder-based integration and relationship management integration. In our current fragmented environment, ‘awareness’ assumes that change will reinforce the need for developing an IC management programme. The stage of image integration “recognizes the value of having a consistent message, look, and feel from an organisation.” Stage three- functional integration ‘begins with a strategic analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of each of the functional communications areas’. The coordinated integration stage talks about database integration, which is emphasised in IC (Blackwell, 1987; Schultz et al., 1993). Consumer-based and stakeholders-based integration are two important
stages which will be discussed later. The stage of relationship management integration implies that communications must be regarded as a strong factor in the total management process. The process becomes "a full range of relationship management, both internally and externally."

Another approach was taken by Duncan and Moriarty (1997) who had identified 10 strategies through their research and Integrated Marketing audits (see Figure 2.3). In the following are brief explanations of these 10 strategies:

- Creating and nourishing relationships rather than just making transactions.
- Focusing on stakeholders rather than just customers or shareholders.
- Maintaining strategic consistency rather than independent brand messages.
- Generating purposeful interactivity rather than just a mass media monologue.
- Marketing a corporate mission rather than just product claims.
- Using zero-based planning rather than tweaking last year's plan.
- Creating core competencies rather than just communication specialization and expertise.
- Using an integrated agency rather than a traditional, full-service agency.
- Building and managing databases to retain customers rather than just acquiring new customers.

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:16-19)

A different approach was taken by Gronstedt (1996) who presented a model of integrated communications (Figure 2.4) which illustrates the inter relationship between marketing communications and public relations. It can be separated for discussion purposes into four parts.
A. Stakeholders

Gronstedt proposed that most organisations have at least ten stakeholders: government, financial stakeholders, media, scholars and industry opinion leaders, employees, interest groups, community, distributors, suppliers, and trade and professional organisations and competitors. All these stakeholders are categorised as customers in his model.

B. Integration of the Receiving Tools

The left side of Figure 2.4 shows that the receiving channels consist of marketing research tools (e.g. experiments; focus groups; etc.) and PR research tools (e.g. Survey Organisations; Academic Journals; etc.). A wide range of receiving tools can help communicators prepare for events which will affect the organisation in the future.
C. Interactive Tools

Traditionally, marketing and PR communicators transmit a one-way flow of information. The interactive tools mark a departure from the linear response view of marketing communications and PR. These interactive tools build a two-way dialogue between the organisation and stakeholders. Stewart, Frazier, and Martin (1996) suggested that some additional tools needed to be included in the interactive tools such as home shopping networks, video catalogues, and so on.
D. Integration of the Sending Tools

Effective communications requires the selection of appropriate sending tools for all of the stakeholders. Marketing and PR communicators both have methods of media selection. They can share experiences with each other and have an eclectic mix of sending tools. In this model, three key integrated elements are suggested to make these sending tools work together: consistent message and image, common creative elements, and coordinated timing. These elements will reinforce each other synergistically.

2.3.4 A Comparison and Critique of Current IC Approaches

At the beginning of this chapter, I discussed the evolving relationship between public relations and marketing communications and pointed out that the definition of these two disciplines are broad and that the distinction between them is blurring. Consequently, it is important to understand what integrating the two functions would involve. Several researches have made contributions in this area and have identified several aspects of IC (Duncan, 1993).

I now carry out a comparison and critique of current IC approaches using six aspects: awareness integration, unified image, database integration, customer-based integration, stakeholders-based integration, and evaluation integration. These six aspects were chosen for the following reasons. The idea of ‘unified image’ came from Duncan (1993), whilst ‘awareness integration,’ ‘customer-based integration’ and ‘stakeholders-based integration’ come from Duncan and Caywood (1996). I add ‘database integration’ because developing a personalised two-way communication in
this diverse world is very important and database information can help in this. In addition, measuring the results of an IC programme is very important (Moore and Thorson, 1996), and thus 'evaluation integration' is a new feature introduced in the research. In particular, evaluation integration involves collection of responses and feedback into the IC programme. Based on the critique of these stages, I propose a revised IC model in Chapter 10 which will be discussed later.

1. Awareness Integration

According to Duncan and Caywood,

Awareness of the changing business, social, technological, political, and cultural environments creates the demand for a new business system to respond to the market.

(Duncan and Caywood, 1996:24)

They suggest that the more the market changes, the greater the likelihood that awareness integration will emerge as an issue. However, they do not provide advice about how 'awareness integration' should be achieved. Later, Caywood (1997) explained more about awareness and suggested a series of activities to improve awareness of diverse environments:

Once the pressures to change have been identified, labelled, and discussed, the manager can prepare the firm for continuing change with action designed to institutionalize the organisation's "ability" to spot change and move more quickly to respond to it. ... A second process of "benchmarking" the best practices of competitors and of noteworthy noncompetitors can help an organisation to understand how other successful organisations responded to changes in their environments. ... A third action might be to use "zero-based" planning and budgeting. ... Finally, during this stage toward a more comprehensive integrated communications and management program, an issue management system with scanning can be used.

(Caywood, 1997:xvi-xvii)
Although these methods can improve awareness of diverse environments, he did not mention how to improve the awareness of these methods in the organisation. Comparing Gronstedt's (1996) model with Duncan and Caywood's stages of IC, Gronstedt seldom mentioned about 'awareness.' But Gronstedt did use the ideas and methods from TQM to improve the process of IC. Flood (1995a) provided a systemic critique of TQM and Beckford (1998) also looked at quality in a critical review. However, it is clear that since TQM is not sufficient to solve all the communications problems, further ways to improve IC are still needed.

Here, I have one point of criticism to make. Although Duncan and Caywood's (1996) model includes the aspect of awareness integration, what they really focus on is the awareness of diverse environments. Since this aspect of awareness integration as previously defined appears narrow and impoverished, I propose that Critical Systems Thinking (CST), which puts emphasis on critical and social awareness within a systemic perspective may provide a way to improve IC by strengthening and widening this aspect of awareness.

Critical Systems Thinking (CST) proposes five commitments which include: 'critical awareness,' 'social awareness,' 'complementarism at the methodological level,' 'complementarism at the theoretical level,' and 'dedication to human emancipation' (Jackson, 1991b). Jackson noted:

One important form of critical awareness concerns understanding the strengths and weaknesses and the theoretical methods, techniques, and methodologies. ... Another form of critical awareness comes from closely examining the assumptions and values entering into actually existing systems designs or any proposals for a systems design.

(Jackson, 1991b:139)
'social awareness' contrasts with this as it involves recognizing that there are certain organizational and societal pressures which lead to certain systems theories and methodologies being popular for guiding interventions at particular times.

(Jackson, 1991b:140)

Gregory (1992) discussed critical awareness and social awareness in detail. She identified that “the process of critical appreciation, in its moment of critical self-reflection, can provide for a commitment to critical self-awareness” (Gregory, 1992). She noted that ideology-critique is “a means for achieving social awareness through which the transformation of a situation may be achieved.” There are many references in CST which discuss ‘awareness’ (e.g. Flood and Jackson, 1991a,b; Jackson, 1991a,b). The philosophy of Total Systems Intervention (TSI) comes from the commitments of CST.

I define ‘awareness integration’ as follows: “Awareness integration means being critically and socially aware in relation to how one carries out IC. This involves understanding the strengths and weakness of approaches which may be used, and appreciating the underlying assumptions and consequences of particular actions and activities.” Therefore, since this aspect of awareness integration as previously defined appears narrow and impoverished, I propose to examine Critical Systems Thinking (CST) approaches in Chapters 4 and 5, which put emphasis on critical and social awareness within a systemic perspective, to see whether these approaches can provide a way to improve IC by strengthening and widening this aspect of awareness
integration. Tentatively, it seems that TSI/CST can help with the process of awareness integration.' In Chapter 10, I will discuss this aspect of IC in detail.

2. Unified Image

This aspect of IC recognises the value of having a consistent message, feel, and look emanating from organisations. The most simple characteristic of integration is to have a unified image of all communication actions, normally referred to as 'one look, one voice,' in the industry jargon. A unified graphic design is the classic application of a unified image. Such uniformity could be perfected by issuing guidelines for all communication professionals in the company about what colours to use, what typefaces, and how the logo could look on anything from advertisements and product packaging to letter heads and business cards. This integration strategy is the focus of most of the literature in the field of 'design management' and 'corporate identity' (Bernstein, 1984; Olins, 1989). As Olins (1989) said, "everything an organisation does, owns and produces give a clear idea of its aims and standards." Corporate identity also has to reflect the personalities, core values and direction of organisations. The literature suggested that it was important not only to unify the image in customer communication; but also to draw that same image in vehicles aimed at other audiences, such as employee magazines, annual reports and press releases.

At the unified image of IC, key issues include knowledge of organisations' positioning, key themes and image. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) pointed out some relevant questions here: 'what are the key messages to priority stakeholder
audiences? and 'how well does the company communicate a coherent brand/corporate image?'

In this aspect of IC, an analysis of the communication network used to develop the communication programme is required, especially from the viewpoints of all stakeholders. One aspect of the Total Quality Management (TQM) philosophy is a systems and process-oriented view. This could help with integration of the image developed by key stakeholders through cross-functional processes. Some tools of TQM, such as benchmarks and teamwork, help to integrate the message to all key stakeholders. The other methodology that can help here is Total Systems Intervention (TSI). Flood (1995a) used idea generation and evaluation and image generation and evaluation in the creativity phase to "challenge preconceived ideas about problems and generate a new appreciation of problems." In idea generation and evaluation, brainstorming and Nominal Group Technique (NGT), are recommended to generate plenty of ideas, to unify the organisation image. The image must give a consistent message which is appropriate for the organisation. The aim of this aspect of IC is to overcome some of the most obvious drawbacks of an unintegrated effort. Integrating consistent message symbols and message content can prevent unnecessary duplication work. The philosophy and tools of TQM and TSI can help here and will be discussed later.

3. Database Integration

In the 1960s and 1970s, the ability of one-way forms of communication to influence customers through mass media began to decline and it was recognised that two-way communication is more effective. The second aspect of IC, the "unified image,"
relies on a one-way flow of information from company to market. The third aspect of integration, “database integration” attempts to develop a more personalised two-way communication. Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn (1993) proposed an integrated marketing communications planning model which began with a database of information on both consumers and perspectives. The database should include at a minimum such hard data as demographic segmentation, psychographic segmentation, and purchase history. Moreover, attitudinal information such as the consumer's category network and how customers associate the products they use is vital for a solid integrated marketing communications approach.

In essence, this aspect of IC does not focus on attracting new consumers but on keeping and building relationships with existing consumers. Many emerging hybrids between distribution and communication channels enhance the importance of database management-driven integration such as infomercials, telemarketing, home shopping channels, and mail order catalogues. These tools are interactive and behaviour-oriented; the consumer takes action on the information by buying a product or asking for more information. Blackwell (1987) also focused on database management, in his prediction of future integrated communications. This aspect of database integration makes two-way communication really possible by connecting the organisation to its stakeholders. This maximises feedback by using the database to encourage customers and stakeholders to talk to the organisation. Many examples are cited of the importance of database integration (Smith, 1996). Each of these models could prove useful in the generic model I propose to develop and validate in the further research.
Duncan and Moriarty (1997) said one of the biggest mistakes most organisations make when using databases is focusing only on ‘how can we use databases to better target and send more brand messages?’ In other words, the database must be integrated and key stakeholders must be able to share the database to improve the communication of organisations. They also suggest some questions relevant to marketing communication databases: ‘how much sharing of market research findings and other types of planning information exists among internal groups?’ and ‘to what extent are databases accessible and utilized?’ Asking these kinds of questions can help to build an easily accessible customer database. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) suggested many ways to collect profile information: surveys, coupons, sweepstakes, and promotional offers, warranty cards, membership clubs, point-of-sale, gift giving, catalogues, 800 numbers, and E-mail and Web sites. These tools could be used to capture customer inquiries, complaints, compliments, offers, and sales behaviour. In addition, the databases can be improved after getting more profile information. However, the trouble comes when the database is extended to social systems. Different people usually vary considerably concerning the goals they want to see pursued. So, we can not just consider how to improve the process of the database. The dimensions of organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics should be considered as well. The organisation could not set up a comprehensive database until the whole situation was considered. Using a systemic view to look at the database can help to perfect the database and make a better decision.
4. Customer-Based Integration

The original objectives of integrating communications were to share the same resources and so reduce wastage. So, the fully targeted customers have to be reached with the most effective media and through the most precise channels of communications (Duncan and Caywood, 1996). A more complicated form of IC combines the communication vehicles with all of the contact-points with consumers (Carlzon, 1989; Fortini-Campbell, 1992). For example, Fortina-Campbell (1992) identified quantitative and qualitative research to reach the consumers contact points with the brand and organisation. To get customer-based integration, it is necessary for the communication department to work together with all the 'front-line workers' in the company who interact with consumers, for example, delivery people, telephone operators, sales force, etc. Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn (1993) identified some questions to reach potential customers.

Where are they when they need your product? Where are they when they are most likely to accept a "telling message"? Where are they when you can be of greatest benefit to them?

(Schultz, Tannenbaum, and Lauterborn, 1992:83)

Duncan and Moriarty (1997) defined brand contact points as "situations in which customers have the opportunity to be exposed, in some way, to a brand message." There are two kinds of brand contacts: created contact points and intrinsic contact. Furthermore, they point out some questions relevant to contact points: 'who controls them?', 'what kind of influence do they have?', 'how well does the company recognize and take advantage of all its brand contact points?', and 'what physical structures and resources facilitate or inhibit internal communications?"
Maintenance of product and service consistency has become a basic marketing principle. All the messages that are delivered at different contact points must be examined to see if they work in concert with organisations and marketing strategy. Although Duncan and Moriarty (1997) have already presented how to make the customer-base more integrated, another methodology, TQM, has reinforced the goal of maintaining product and service consistency and the importance of involving all company staff in taking responsibility for quality as will be discussed in Chapter 3. This is another point at which TQM might help IC. In the aspect of customer-based integration, the brand contact points must be identified and the messages sent by the brand contact points must be understood. Moreover, these messages must be integrated so that the company can more profitably use the established customer base. Duncan and Moriarty's model (1997) looks very reasonable and has been administered to over fifteen hundred marketing and business executives around the world, but their definition of Integrated Marketing focuses only on 'process' integration. However, from a systemic view, Flood (1995a) emphasised that unless four key dimensions of organisation (organisational process, organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics) are taken into account, then intervention is ineffective. Thus, a systemic approach may help to improve IC.

5. Stakeholders-Based Integration

The most complex level of IC includes communications not only with customers, but also with all 'stakeholders.' The term 'stakeholders' could be defined as "any group or individual who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of a corporation's purpose" (Freeman, 1984). Brody defined stakeholders more symmetrically as "groups of individuals whose interests coincide in one or more ways with the
organisation with which the public relations practitioner is dealing” (Brody, 1988). Freeman (1984) pointed out that the following 12 categories include most stakeholders: customers, employees, investment community, government, media, scholars and industry opinion leaders, interest groups, communities, suppliers, distributors, trade and professional organisations, and competitors. These groups are not monolithic entities, but broad common categories that interact and overlap. For example, the category labeled ‘media’ might include local newspapers, trade magazines, national media, and radio and TV-stations. The interest group category may include any of the more than 90,000 registered particular interest groups in the USA that have a stake in a special organisation. Gronstedt (1996) added ‘financial stakeholders’ to Freeman’s (1984) list, and removed ‘customers,’ ‘investment community,’ and ‘distributors.’ He further suggested that most organisations can recognise many particular stakeholders groups and individuals under each of his ten categories. The configuration of particular stakeholders is highly situational. It changes from organisation to organisation and from time to time, and thus presents a significant difficulty in terms of providing guidelines for how this aspect of IC can be effectively carried out. There are many examples of getting access to customers through IC with key stakeholders. For example, Pepsi-Cola entered into a deal with the Indian government, whereby Pepsi brought new food processing, water technology, and packaging to India, and so gained entry to the Indian consumer market (Kotler, 1986).

Organisations must identify their stakeholders because these dozens or even hundreds of groups and individuals may play an important role in the future success of the organisations. So it is very important for organisations to understand how to
identify their specific stakeholder. Here, the tool of stakeholder analysis can help to identify stakeholders for integrated communications. Harrison and St. John (1994) defined stakeholder analysis as follows:

An identification and prioritization of key stakeholders, assessing their needs, collecting ideas from them, and integrating this knowledge into strategic management processes.

(Harrison and St. John, 1994:17)

They identified two groups of stakeholders: external stakeholders and internal stakeholders. The way stakeholder analysis can help IC is by identifying stakeholders and, furthermore, by developing understanding of their needs and goals so that meaningful communication between organisations and their stakeholders could be improved.

The idea of stakeholder has been discussed separately in the marketing literature (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971) and the PR literature (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). Integrated communications can improve the stakeholder analysis of organisations. Both marketing and PR departments can identify their stakeholders together and improve the communications and understanding between the organisations and their specific stakeholders.

Duncan and Moriarty (1997) emphasised the identification and prioritisation of key stakeholders and raised some related questions which should be considered: 'which stakeholders are most important?', 'which ones should be?', 'how well does the company communicate with each of these key groups?', and 'how well does the company/brand communicate its key messages to priority stakeholder groups?' The
global environment changes day after day, the specific stakeholders also change case by case. The question is how to help the organisation to identify their specific stakeholders systemically.

Although stakeholders integration is very important, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) claimed that organisations do little environmental scanning and that when they do, the 'scanning unit frequently attends to only one portion of the environment.' Furthermore, Grunig (1992) pointed out:

Although writers on strategic management discuss the environment and make lists of its components, they seldom describe how the organisation should diagnose the environment or who in the organisation should observe the environment.

(Grunig, 1992:122)

It can be seen that it is very important to identify stakeholders using a systemic approach and so that all stakeholders can be included in the IC programme. Various systems methodologies have much to say on the importance of boundary judgements in identifying stakeholders of organisations. For example, Churchman (1979b) presented the basic idea that the boundaries of analysis are crucial. Ulrich (1983) developed Critical Systems Heuristics to justify boundaries through debate between the organisation and its stakeholders. Furthermore, Midgley and Milne (1995) introduced the idea of a 'rolling programme' to identify the key stakeholders of organisations. This suggests that the key stakeholders can be identified from the 'rolling programme' and that the messages can be sent effectively. It seems that some systemic methodologies can help integrated communications to know the key
stakeholders and then improve communications between the organisation and its key stakeholders. How it really works will be discussed in Chapter 10.

6. Evaluation Integration

Now, we look at another problem of IC, which concerns the measurement of responses. Earlier, I proposed using IC as the basis for the research, as this definition seemed broader than that offered by Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC). However, there is some work on IMC that could usefully be integrated into IC. One specific area where IC can learn from IMC is in the approach used to measure responses to a specific programme.

In 1961, the Advertising Research Foundation (ARF) published a six-stage model for evaluating media which is widely accepted in the advertising industry. The six stages include vehicle distribution, vehicle exposure, advertising exposure, advertising perception, advertising communication, and sales response. This ARF model assumes that customers go through certain orderly stages. Whenever they see an advertisement, they will understand which brand is being advertised, and acquire some information about the brand. This will lead them to change their attitude and lead to a sale. The twenty-one largest US advertising agencies formulated a list of principles aimed at “improving the research used in preparing and testing ads, providing a better creative product for clients, and controlling the cost of TV commercials” (Marketing News, 1982). These nine principles, called PACT (Positioning Advertising Copy Testing), are shown in Table 2.1.
In fact, some of the principles can be accomplished readily, but others require effort. For example, in order to provide multiple measurements (Principle 3), additional budget is required to enable more than one test to be conducted. Another question concerns which method should be chosen. So, much work is still needed to satisfy PACT principles. In 1991, Haley and ARF published a report called the ARF Copy Research Validity Project (Haley and Baldinger, 1991). It was a study of copy-testing measures in common use.

Table 2.1: Positioning Advertising Copy Testing (PACT) (Marketing News, 1982:1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Provide measurements that are relevant to the objectives of the advertising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Require agreement about how the results will be used in advance of each specific test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provide multiple measurements (because single measurements are not adequate to assess ad performance).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Be based on a model of human response to communications - the reception of a stimulus, the comprehension of the stimulus, and the response to the stimulus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Allow for consideration of whether the advertising stimulus should be exposed more than once.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Require that the more finished a piece of copy is, the more soundly it can be evaluated and require, as a minimum, that alternative executions be tested in the same degree of finish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Provide controls to avoid the biasing effects of the exposure context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Take into account basic considerations of sample definition.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although measuring responses is very important, some companies still do not measure effectiveness. Belch and Belch (1995) identified five reasons for this: (1) Cost- The most commonly cited reason for not testing is the expense. (2) Research Problems- It is not easy to isolate the effects of advertising because it is rarely possible to measure each marketing element directly. (3) Disagreement on what to test- different industries, different product life cycles and different people all create disagreement on what to test. (4) The objections of creativity- Sometimes, advertising agencies’ departments argue that the tests are not true measures of the
effectiveness and creativity of advertisements. (5) Time- A lack of time is a common problem for testing.

Katz and Lendrevie (1996) proposed segmenting total exposures of an IC programme and they also mentioned some problems: segmentation validity, measuring product impressions, and weighing the exposures. Although some studies identify how to measure responses to IC programmes (e.g. Baldingler, 1996; Katz and Lendrevie, 1996), sometimes they just measure the response to advertising.

Organisations today are facing new challenges, compared with even a decade ago. Advertising can no longer play the role of the sole organisation communication vehicle. Caywood, Schultz and Wang (1991) identify four basic types of communications: advertising, sales promotion, direct response and public relations.

The first question is how to overcome the pitfalls of measuring advertising responses mentioned above. The second question is how to measure those disparate audiences. These are questions IC seeks to address. From a different angle, each method has its strengths and weaknesses. Building a good measurement system of IC will be a challenge, one that I hope to fulfil in the research.

There are many more communication tools used today than two decades ago, because of market splintering. The question remains of how to overcome the pitfalls of measuring advertising responses and how to measure the disparate responses. As mentioned earlier, each measurement system has its strengths and weaknesses. It needs to be considered how to build a good measurement system. In addition, we have seen that Gronstedt (1994) identified a wide range of stakeholders that have to
be addressed and numerous ‘tools’ with which to address them. Developing a comprehensive range of evaluation methods is an issue so far not adequately addressed by IC writers.

Belch and Belch (1995) discussed what to test—source factors, message variables, media strategies, and budgeting decisions; when to test—pre-testing and post-testing; where to test—laboratory tests and field tests; and how to test—concept generation research, rough, prefinished art, copy, and/or commercial testing, finished art or commercial pretesting, and market testing of ads or commercials.

Duncan and Moriarty (1997) pointed out two primary ways to evaluate the Integrated Marketing (IM) programme. One is output controls and the other one is process controls. Output controls are external measures such as awareness studies, tracking studies, and customer satisfaction surveys. Process controls are internal measures about how an organisation is doing IM. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) presented an IM mini-audit (Appendix 1) which enables organisations to know where they stand on the integration scale. Although Duncan and Moriarty’s (1997) model and Gronstedt’s (1996) further research mentioned about the evaluation of communication programmes, both of these two researchers suggested that ‘benchmarking’ is key to putting the evaluation in perspective. However, benchmarking has been criticised because the organisation cannot achieve the levels of performance of the copied organisation and no competitive advantage is gained (Beckford, 1998).

Up to now, process controls have seldom been used in managing stakeholder relationships because it is not easy to find ways to measure the response to an IC
programme. The question is how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. Katz and Lendrevie (1996) noted that an IC software programme, InteCommtmt, which includes more than 200 different communications tools that might be used in an IC programme. It is very useful for this aspect of evaluation integration, but it is another problem to understand how to choose these communications tools. However, if we look at the field of management problem solving, the Critical Reflection Mode of TSI plays an important role in “evaluating whether the method(s) chosen was/were most suitable and whether the output of the method(s) was appropriate in the circumstances” (Flood, 1995a). Through the three phases of TSI, the Critical Reflection Mode makes problem solvers think very carefully about the outcome of their efforts. A. Gregory (1994, 1996) presented an analysis of the theoretical underpinnings of four types of evaluation (system-resource based approach, goal-based approach, multi-actor based approach and culture-based approach) and formulated a system for evaluation of methodologies. Here, I want to emphasise how that feedback loop might be understood through ‘evaluation integration’ and a system of measurement might be built. This is another point where systemic methodology might help. In this research, I hope to develop a framework for matching evaluation methods with IC strategies to facilitate informed evaluation of any IC programme. In Chapter 10, I will discuss how it really works in detail.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter opened with a discussion of communications and moved on to the emergence of integrated communications. A comparison and critique of current IC
approaches is also presented. After indicating the weaknesses of current IC approaches, three main issues need to be addressed as follows: how to help organisations to set up effective communications; how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders; and how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. TQM is one business approach which can improve organisational processes. Flood (1995a) has found that the output of TQM is ‘efficient design of processes that satisfies customers’ needs.’ One of the stages in TQM is to break down the barriers between different departments. TQM works best when it is used as a cross-functional process. It appears that TQM could help to tackle the key issues by redesign of the IC process. The principles and philosophy of TQM could contribute to how a fully integrative management might tackle the unresolved problems of integrated communications. In the next chapter I will consider how TQM can help IC and the problems arising from TQM if it attempts to help integrated communications.

NOTES:

1. Four Ps include Product, Price, Place and Promotion.
2. Six Ps include Product, Price, Place, Promotion, Power and Public Relations.
3. Dividing the market on the basis of demographic variables such as age, sex, family size, education, income, and social class is called demographic segmentation.
4. Dividing the market on the basis of personality and/or lifestyles is referred to as psychographic segmentation.
5. The lower cost of commercials on cable and channels has led advertisers to a new form of advertising. An infomercial is a long commercial that ranges from 3 to 60
minutes (Belch and Belch, 1995). The infomercial industry is changing to welcome
many big, mainstream marketers. Informercial sales in 1993 were expected to exceed
$1 billion (Horowitz, 1993).

6. Telemarketing, or telephone marketing, is used for many different purposes
including selling, lead generation, customer care or even shareholder communication.
In contrast with advertising, telemarketing two-way communication flow offers the
opportunity of conversing with a customer (Smith, 1996). Over 118 million
Americans receive nearly 3 billion telemarketing phone calls each year;
approximately 6 percent of these result in a completed transaction. Over 5 million
people are now employed in the telemarketing industry, with sales exceeding $300
billion (Moretti, 1994).

7. Created contact points are planned messages such as advertising, promotions, and
PR releases.

8. Intrinsic contact points are those situations which automatically exist as part of the
buying, performing, and servicing processes and include most product and service
messages as well as packaging.

9. ‘Vehicle distribution’ identifies vertically the number of individuals in the
audience of the vehicle. ‘Vehicle exposure’ indicates the number of times the same
individual is exposed to the same issue. ‘Advertising exposure’ shows the same
dimension for the exposure of advertising. ‘Advertising perception’ has to do with
the perception or noting of advertising. ‘Advertising communication’ depicts
measures of the playback of copy points. ‘Sales response,’ in which purchases of the
advertised product are made, is confined to prospects.

10. Copy testing is undertaken when a decision is to be made about whether
advertising should run in the marketplace.
3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 surfaced three key issues of IC which are left unresolved by current IC approaches and which will need to be addressed by the new ICM model. This chapter focuses on the first issue: how to help organisations to set up effective communications. The focus of this thesis is a perspective of integrated communications which is usually thought to be most difficult: how to create procedures that enable people with different areas of communication expertise, for example, advertising, sales promotions, public relations, personal selling, and direct marketing, to work successfully together. Very little has been written on the topic of management of integrated communications until recently. Beard (1993) analysed the potential for social conflict in the integrated communications group. Cutlip, Center and Broom (1985) also discussed the importance of communication's barriers and dissemination. Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1993) pointed out basic requirements to overcome the barriers as follows: (A) IMC must start at the top (B) Customer-focused marketing (C) Communication must become a sustainable competitive advantage (D) Communication must be centralized. Petrison and Wang (1996) examined barriers to the implementation of integrated communications programs. Prensky, McCarty, and Lucas (1996) analysed organisational impediments to integration, such as compensation systems, organisational cultures, and power structures.

It is not easy to find references about how to manage the IC disciplines, consequently I turn to another literature that provides a number of insights about the general view of interdepartmental integration- Total Quality Management (TQM). Particularly, some
references noted that TQM could be helpful for integrated communications (Fleming, 1993; Cahalan, 1993; Gronstedt, 1994). In this chapter, I discuss how to use some ideas and methods which come from famous TQM specialists to help organisations to set up effective communications. Following that, the idea of Systems and Processes view from TQM is introduced to help to improve the process of IC. In addition, a critique of TQM is also presented. Although TQM can help to tackle many issues of IC, it still has some problems left. So, a new understanding of TQM is introduced to make communication functions more effective.

3.2 Total Quality Management

The principles of TQM depend on a fully integrative management effort, from production and finance to marketing and public relations. Deming (1986) formulated a management theory centred around system improvement, the reduction of variation to meet consumer needs, and the humane and smart management of people. Deming's Fourteen Points are elements of his theory for management, which calls for management to assume leadership and personal duty to put it in place. The 14 points for management are as follows:

1. Create constancy of purpose toward improvement of product and service, with the aim to become competitive and to stay in business and to provide jobs.
2. Adopt the new philosophy. We are in a new economic age. Western management must awake to the challenge, must learn their responsibilities, and take on leadership for change.
3. Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality. Eliminate the need for inspection on a mass basis by building in quality into the product in the first place.
4. End the practice of awarding businesses on the basis of price tag. Instead, minimise total cost. Move toward a single supplier for any one item, on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust.
5. Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service, to improve quality and productivity, and thus constantly decrease cost.
6. Institute training on the job.
7. Institute leadership. The aim of supervision should be to help people and machines and gadgets to do a better job. Supervision of management is in need of overhaul, as well as supervision of production workers.
8. Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the company.
9. Break down barriers between departments. People in research, design, sales, and production must work as a team, to foresee problems of production and in use that may be encountered with the product or service.
10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the work force asking for zero defects and new levels of productivity. Such exhortations only create adversarial relationships, as the bulk of the causes of low quality and low productivity belong to the system and thus lie beyond the power of the work force.
11 a. Eliminate work standards (quotas) on the factory floor. Substitute leadership.
   b. Eliminate management by objective. Eliminate management by numbers, numerical goals. Substitute leadership.
12 a. Remove barriers that rob the hourly worker of his right to pride of workmanship. The responsibility of supervisors must be changed from sheer numbers to quality.
   b. Remove barriers that rob people in management and in engineering of their right to pride of workmanship. This means, inter alia, abolishment of the annual or merit rating and of management by objectives.
13. Institute a vigorous program of education and self improvement.
14. Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation. The transformation is everybody's job.

(Deming, 1986: 23-24)

These 14 points, really provide good ideas for the IC approach. The first point is 'create constancy of purpose' which states that the employees have to be aware of the vision of the organisation and support it. Another example, 'institute training', refers to skills training for a special job that is very important to coordinate communication functions.

In addition, 'breaking down barriers between departments' can help to improve cross-functional communications. Most communication happens in the 'vertical' direction, between line workers and superiors, rather than 'horizontally' between departments.

When communication does happen horizontally, it is typically in conflicts over turf.

Juran (1992) emphasised managerial duty for improvement to meet consumers' demands,
but he did not use the term 'system' to explain this managerial duty. Instead, Juran used the term 'macroprocesses' to refer to cross-functional systems which encompass the 'microprocesses' within functions. Furthermore, Juran's 'Trilogy' was an application to cross-functional management that involved three managerial processes: planning, control, and improvement (see Figure 3.1).

Whether you adopt Deming's approach or Juran's approach to improvement, you will hear similar messages on managerial duty. They both suggest that a manager's duty for improving systems and procedures should go beyond the traditional duty for getting results or 'getting things done through others.' In different ways, both Deming and Juran discuss that managers act as leaders, first by setting the vision for those who work within the system, then by providing and consistently improving the meanings by which they can achieve that vision.

Quality guru Deming summarises the principles of quality management in his 14 points for management that I listed before. A more applied explanation of quality management can be found in the criteria for the most prestigious quality award in the United States, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA). The MBNQA was established by the U.S. Department of Commerce to enhance U.S. competitiveness. The goal of the award is threefold:

(1) to promote awareness of quality as an increasingly important element in competitiveness.
(2) to improve understanding of the requirements for quality excellence, and
(3) to foster sharing of information on successful quality strategies and the benefits derived from implementation of these strategies

(Bounds et al., 1994:23).
TQM has come to take on different meaning for different people. There are a host of other definitions of quality management. However, Deming's 14 points and the Baldrige criteria are among the most broadly supported charters in the field of total quality management.

Although the TQM literature provides insights into the procedures of integration, the literature is broadly drawn from manufacturing and product development and has few references to the communication functions. Most of the literature on TQM applied to marketing (Cortada, 1993; Kern, 1993; Magrath, 1993) and to public relations (Caywood, 1993; Fleisher, 1993; Rosario-Braid, 1983; Walters, and Walters, 1993) include single case studies, and none of it analyses particularly the view of integration and coordination between communication functions.
Since communication can include a number of activities, it is a procedure unique to each organisation at each level, and it grows more complicated. A series of activities that does not get broad attention as a procedure in all sales organisations is communication with employees. Most managers would suggest that good communication is important for conveying vision and goals and for ensuring quality performance. Communication is a critical success element in an organisation’s ability to continuously improve because it is a primary factor which is included in the delivery of quality to employees and consumers. Communication in marketing can include advertising, direct marketing, sales promotion, public relations, and personal selling. Cortada (1993) wrote:

For employees there are management communications, bulletin board announcements, newsletters, recognition events, internal television, internal mail, electronic mail, round tables, speeches, unit meetings - all providing the information needed to perform their jobs as well as a great deal considered irrelevant. Effective executives and managers should have a process to ensure adequate, timely, and relevant communication with employees, customers, and stakeholders within their own firms.

(Cortada, 1993:109)

He also discussed common personal communication activities for a sales manager or executive which he suggested should include cooperation in the following: written summaries on status at predictable intervals, round tables with teams of 6 to 12 employees on a regular basis, one-to two-hour interviews with employees to talk about anything employees wish, quarterly ‘town hall’ meetings in sales offices to answer questions and discuss views on the minds of employees, speeches at employee gatherings and staff meetings, messages using the company electronic mail or internal television network and joint sales calls with employees and consumers (Cortada, 1993). These different techniques have been used for decades, but in a market-driven world they are organised, predictable events. It is really important for sales managers to
cooperate with these communication activities. Moreover, Cortada (1993) emphasised that "internal communications can address other issues more specifically related either to the quality movement or to sales results." Figure 3.2 gives some examples how quality is communicated at several companies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Program</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transamerica</td>
<td>Lunch and Learn Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westinghouse</td>
<td>Quality Fair Day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dow Chemical</td>
<td>Quality Performance Newsletter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>Electronic Quality Bulletin Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coming</td>
<td>Quality Rally with Improvement</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milliken</td>
<td>Sharing Rallies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida Power and Light</td>
<td>Exchange Expo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.2: How quality is communicated at several companies (from Cortada, 1993:111)

Corporate-level communications become important processes which disseminate brand image more than field sales do. As mentioned above, putting the ideas or methods of TQM into IC can really help to improve the IC approach. Since corporate-level communications are important processes of the IC system, the systems and processes view in TQM literature is examined and discussed in the following.

3.3 Systems and Processes View

A system can be imagined as a formation linking many processes. The first quality management principle in support of integration is to look at the organisation as a system consisting of a series of processes. The broad prospect on systems and processes thinking describes the origins and solutions to interdepartmental conflicts. In the
literature, it is difficult to differentiate between the terms systems and process. Bound et al. (1994) referred to a system as including "multiple and diverse kinds of processes, such as those in marketing, production, engineering, and finance." Neave (1990) referred to two persons' words making useful distinctions. One is Eve Williamson, Managing Director of Cambridge LINK, she said: "many writers differentiate between the system as being what exists and the process as being how it operates." The other one is Pat Anderson, while he was Quality Assurance Manager in ICI Chemicals and Polymers, he referred to:

the process as being the transformation of inputs into outputs, while the system was regarded as the complex of controls (particularly human and electronic) which supervise the working of the process.

(Neave, 1990:123)

The systems perspective applies because mutually dependent relationships are built between organisations and their publics. Organisation-publics systems should have the capability to adapt their relationships to considerable change pressures from their complicated and dynamic settings in such diverse environments. The systems view explains an organisation as an 'open system' which can be seen as follows: Katz & Kahn, 1978; Pasmore, 1988; Schein, 1970; and Senge, 1990. The word 'open' means that "the system has multiple interactions with its environment, through exchanges with suppliers, business partners, regulators, investors, and customers." In an organisation, a system consists of "an integrated collection of individual, knowledge, capabilities, motivations, machinery, equipment, methods, measures, procedures, and task activities" (Bounds et al., 1994). Kast and Rosenzweig (1981) view an organisation as an open system with interrelated subsystems, involving strategic, technological, structural, human-cultural, and managerial characteristics. This systems view can be seen in Figure 3.3. Based on an open systems approach, public relations must be selectively susceptible
to particularly defined publics which are influenced by organisational policies, procedures, and activities. Cutlip et al. (1985) pointed out:

The open systems model of public relations calls for research skills to monitor publics and other environmental forces, as well as forces within organisations.

(Cutlip et al., 1985:222)

Figure 3.3: An organisation as an open system with interrelated subsystems
(from Bounds et al., 1994:302)

So far, it hints that these subsystems affect every part of the organisation. These subsystems are in diverse interaction with each other; changes in one subsystem are likely to 'spill over' and influence behaviour of the other subsystems (Van Gigch, 1978).

An organisation becomes an open system when there is a transactional exchange of input or output with the outside environment: suppliers, investors, consumers, and so on. This open system view can help IC approach to set up effective communication. The
key to going beyond hierarchical management is to define managerial role and duty in terms of the horizontal flows of inputs, transformation, and outputs which link all the subsystems in Figure 3.4. Deming (1986) discussed the system of production as a horizontal flow of work extending from suppliers to customers. It included customer research, design and redesign, test of materials, production, assembly, distribution, inspection, and tests of procedures, machines, methods, and costs. If managers search for these horizontal flows in their organisation, they will find a number of them in the flow of work from one department to another. The hierarchy groups the people who perform these particular activities alone into departments or functions. This separation leads to problems in hierarchical management because the actions are planned sequentially as if they are independent. Looking at the organisation as an open system helps to overcome what Peter Senge (1990) described as “our human propensity to focus on snapshots of isolated parts of the system without realising their interrelatedness.” He described systems thinking as needing hierarchical managers to undergo a mind shift from looking at themselves as separate from the world to viewing themselves as connected to the world, from viewing problems as caused by someone or something ‘out there’ to viewing how their own activities build the problems they experience. Senge stated that:

Systems thinking also needs the disciplines of building shared vision, mental models, team learning, and personal mastery to realise its potential. Building shared vision fosters a commitment to the long term. Mental models focus on the openness needed to unearth shortcomings in our present ways of seeing the world. Team learning develops the skills of groups of people to look for the larger picture that lies beyond individual perspectives. And personal mastery fosters the personal motivation to continually learn how our actions affect our world. Without personal mastery, people are so steeped in the reactive mindset (“someone/something else is creating my problems”) that they are deeply threatened by the systems perspective.

(Senge, 1990:12)
Taking many views of systems, what does ‘process’ really mean? Neave (1990) defined process widely as anything that can be explained by the use of the gerundive form of the verb ending with ‘ing’, for example, ‘writing.’ Finster (1993) added another criterion to the definition of processes, ‘a series of activities performed to obtain results.’ The ‘processes’ are how work creates value for consumers. During the processes, the input from suppliers is translated into output to consumers. Quality is decided by how well the process adds value for the consumer. TQM gives an array of tools to processes to exceed those expectations. Quality improvement deals with the improvement of processes. In the sense that a ‘system’ is a network of processes in an organisation, it could be thought of as a structure of interlinking processes. Putting the ideas of ‘systems’ and ‘processes’ can help IC approach to make a blue picture to do the cross-functional communications.

The systems and processes view encompasses more than the traditional way of explaining organisations- the organisational chart. In the organisational chart there are no groups, no processes, no outside agencies, no products and services, and no
consumers. Organisational charts only capture the vertical dimensions of organisations. Issues that can be treated by middle managers are passed up, which keeps top management busy micro-managing maintenance tasks. The hierarchical organisation stated in an organisational chart, stems from Frederick Taylor's scientific management legacy. It describes that employees are anticipated to serve their superiors instead of their consumers.

Ishikawa & Lu used the terms 'process' and 'system' interchangeably to serve as the collection of cause factors that produce valued goods and services (Ishikawa and Lu, 1985). They said:

Work relating to design, purchasing, sales, personnel, and administration are all processes.

(Ishikawa and Lu, 1985:63)

These elements involve material, machine, measurement, method, and manpower (the 5-M). Ishikawa's cause and effect diagram represents the relationship between some 'effect' and all the possible 'causes' that affect it. The cause and effect diagram in Figure 3.5 demonstrates how the effect can relate to many possible causes, which are organised under four categories: materials, workers, inspection, and tools (Ishikawa, 1982).

Neave (1990) noted, Deming described that the organisational chart should be replaced by an idea called 'production viewed as a system,' more currently referred to as a 'value chain.' Associated with the emphasis on continuous improvement and redesign of the system is the management duty for leading and accomplishing this work. As Deming
said, "any substantial improvement must come from action on the system, the responsibility of management" (1986). Deming outlined this management duty for the Japanese when he defined production as a system (See Figure 3.4):

Mere talk about quality accomplishes little. It was necessary to go into action. The flow diagram [in Figure 3.4] provided a start. Materials and equipment come in at the left. It would be necessary, I explained, to improve incoming materials. Work with your vendor as a partner on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust to improve the quality of incoming materials and to decrease costs. The consumer is the most important part of the production line. Quality should be aimed at the needs of the consumer, present and future. Quality begins with the intent, which is fixed by management. The intent must be translated by engineers and others into plans, specifications, tests, production.

(Deming, 1986:4-5).
The 'production viewed as system view' focuses on the 'horizontal' relations between departments. It demonstrates the interdependence of departments and the importance of working together with the 'upstream' actors (suppliers) and 'downstream' actors (customers). This prospect demonstrates that the output of one process is the input to the next process. In order to get quality of the end product, each process has to supply the next process with quality products. Quality is established in the entire system by treating 'the next process as your customer.'

This focus on horizontal flows is important to achieving the cross-functional teamwork needed to supply superior consumer value. However, the vertical flows of information and work between layers of management should not be neglected. If we simply define the systems view in terms of horizontal flows, we might make a mistake of horizontal reductionism, partitioning the organisation along cross-functional systems, but not attending to how those systems are integrated to build a whole organisation. This may result in an organisational state of health that is just as bad as the disease it was intended to cure, namely a vertical reductionism that slices the organisation along the flow of the hierarchy, the functional boundaries. Managers should not forget their duty to confirm that all the parts fit together to optimise the performance of the whole organisation. Otherwise, the performance of the entire organisation will be less than the sum of the parts no matter which way you slice it. Looking at an organisation as one broad open system means that managers must address how to integrate horizontal and vertical flows of work and information. The integration of horizontal and vertical flows of information provide the transmission links for effective communication. At the same time, the cross-functional corporation is emphasised to share the information.
Looking at the next process as a consumer forces that department to listen to, and consider other departments’ demands. The TQM literature suggests that departments will cooperate better with each other in this way. Deming’s win-win culture emphasised the importance of cooperation. Deming (1993) used an equation for a slightly different goal: \( x + y = z \). We can imagine a company including advertising and public relations departments, where the performance of the advertising department is \( x \) and the performance of the public relations department is \( y \). Then the performance of this company is \( z \). Competition usually prevents departments from sharing information. In this case, if competition happens between the departments of advertising and public relations, they do not share information. So, we should understand the interaction between these two departments and understand also that this interaction is often negative. These ideas all emphasise that cross-functional corporation is very important.

The literature of TQM provides important ideas such as the second point of Deming 14 points for management indicates that a win-win culture of cooperation is the backbone of the new philosophy. If this view is applied in the field of communications, Duncan & Everett (1993) discussed the basic concept of integrated marketing communications as:

> synergism, meaning the individual efforts are mutually reinforcing with the resulting effect being greater than if each functional area had selected its own targets, chosen its own message strategy, and set its own media schedule and timing.

(Duncan & Everett, 1993:32)

So the performance of any subsystem must also concern the performance of the entire system. It appears that total quality management and integrated communications has the same theoretical foundation. I like the idea that Neave (1990) described:

> The players are not there to play solos as prima donnas, each one trying to catch the ear of the listener. They are there to support each other. They need not be the best players in the country.
Genuine full-hearted teamwork can contribute so much to output. It is impossible for a football team that is ruled by the sum of personal abilities of all members to achieve success. Of course, we should consider the interaction in this group. So, it is very important for a team to cooperate with each other. Now, it is time for marketing and public relations departments to cooperate. This is the first step to integrate communications between these two departments. The systems and processes view from TQM can be used to encourage the cooperation within an organisation and help to improve the IC quality. Particularly, some methods of TQM such as flow chart, check sheet and benchmarking can help to improve IC process. However, improving cooperation involves culture change and as Flood (1993) pointed out effective TQM included both processes and other elements. Therefore I do not only focus on improving IC process, but also try to tackle the issues of IC about organisational design, organisational culture and organisational politics. Although the literature of TQM provides the ideas and methods to set up effective communication, it still has some problems. I discuss how TQM is criticised in the following section.

3.4 A Critique of TQM

After introducing how the ideas and methods of TQM can help IC, a critique of TQM is offered now. As far as I am concerned, I just focus on the methods which are used in an IC programme.

1. About W.E. Deming

Deming’s early interests focused on the techniques of statistical sampling. The main
technique Deming used to perform the separation and aid diagnosis was Statistical Process Control (SPC) charts. Later, he formulated a systematic approach (PDCA: Plan, Do, Check, and Action) to problem solving. It is one way to develop IC processes. The idea is to develop new processes (plan), to implement the new process (do), to check customers' perceptions of the product (check), and to improve the process (act). From a different method, Deming's 14 points provided good ideas for IC strategy. For example, institute training, a long-term relationship, education, and breaking down barriers between departments are all good ways to improve IC programmes and involve changes in the organisational culture. Flood (1993) identified the strengths and weaknesses of Deming's ideas below.

The main strengths are:
1 A systemic functional logic provides an insightful way of reasoning about organisations; e.g., identification of stages and their interrelationship, and the mutual dependence linking an organisation and its suppliers.
2 Deming makes a notable prioritisation—that management comes before technology.
3 Leadership and motivation of employees are recognised as important.
4 The work is strong on statistical and quantitative methods which are needed in some circumstances.
5 The different contexts of Japan and North America are recognised and responded to in different ways.

The main weaknesses are:
1 The action plan and methodological principles are too vague to be readily put into practice. There is no clear 'Deming method.'
2 Following 3 above, the literature dealing with motivation and leadership has not been adequately drawn upon.
3 The principles and methods have nothing to say about intervention in situations that are political and coercive, even though Deming explicitly recognises this difficult area in his philosophy.

(Flood, 1993: 17-18)

Another critical review is from Beckford (1998), who wrote:

It is accepted that Deming has probably made the most substantial contribution to quality management. However, enthusiasm must be tempered with the knowledge that a clearer method, a more explicit and developed recognition of the human aspects and a precise focus on what constitutes quality of service in the contemporary world would enhance the value of his
Although Deming's 14 points provided good ideas for IC, there are no clear indications about how to operationalise them in IC. The IC approach needs help from other quality specialists to make it more effective.

2. About J.M. Juran

The main technique Juran used is his 'quality-planning road map.' This road map diagnoses issues and relates to the customers' needs. This can be used in an IC programme to identify the customers and understand their needs. However, Juran did not clearly identify the importance of the interdependence of processes and the interactions between people in an organisation. Beckford (1998) implied that the applicability of Juran's work was suitable for industrial and manufacturing organisations. Juran's work had limited application in service organisations because it did not adequately deal with human problems. Flood (1993) identified the strengths and weaknesses of Juran's ideas below.

The main strengths are:
1. There is a strong desire to move away from quality-hype, away from empty or non-penetrating slogans etc., to concentrate on genuine issues of management practice.
2. The work establishes a new understanding of the customer, referring to both internal and external customers.
3. Management involvement and commitment is stressed.

The main weaknesses are:
1. The emphasis on management's responsibility for quality ironically fails to get to grips with the literature on motivation and leadership.
2. The contribution that the worker can make is under-valued, rejecting in principle bottom up initiatives in the West.
3. The methods advocated in many ways are traditional and old-fashioned, getting at the basic control systems but failing actually to deal adequately with the human dimension of organisations. Cultural and political issues are not meaningfully managed.
Thus, although Juran stresses the importance of the internal customer view, this approach fails to tackle cultural and political dimensions of organisation. There are many issues involved in IC, not just process or design problems. Moreover, the IC issues do not only happen in manufacturing organisations, but also happen in service organisations. In order to widen TQM applicability to IC, more issues must be considered.

3. About K. Ishikawa

Ishikawa’s idea for organisations is ‘company-wide quality.’ Ishikawa’s idea was cited by Bendell (1989):

The results of these company-wide Quality Control activities are remarkable, not only in ensuring the quality of industrial products but also in their great contribution to the company’s overall business.

(Bendell, 1989:18)

He implied that Ishikawa defined quality as “not only the quality of the product, but also of after sales service, quality of management, the company itself and the human being.”

The principal methods from Ishikawa are quality circles, fishbone diagram, and seven tools of quality control. These methods are very useful for IC and are discussed below.

For example, Eastman Chemical Company uses checksheets for press conference. Quality circles are Ishikawa’s principal method for achieving participation. Bendell (1989) identified three aims as follows:

- to contribute to the improvement and development of the enterprise;
- to respect human relations and build a happy workshop offering joy satisfaction;
- to deploy human capabilities fully and draw out infinite potential.

(Bendell, 1989:18)
Ishikawa mentions that quality circles must be an integral part of the quality effort, not an isolated approach. The quantitative techniques of Ishikawa’s approach are ‘seven tools of quality control’ (see Figure 3.6) (Beckford, 1998).

**KAORU ISHIKAWA**

| Tool 1 Pareto charts | used to identify the principal causes of problems. |
| Tool 2 Ishikawa /fishbone diagrams | chart of cause and effect in processes. |
| Tool 3 Stratification | layer charts which place each set of data successively on top of the previous one. |
| Tool 4 Check sheets | to provide a record of quality. |
| Tool 5 Histograms | graphs used to display frequency of various ranges of value of a quantity |
| Tool 6 Scattergraphs | used to help determine whether there is a correlation between correlation between two factors. |
| Tool 7 Control charts | used as a device in Statistical Process Control. |

**Figure 3.6: Seven tools of quality control**
(from Beckford, 1998:121)

These are a set of pictures of quality which represent the quality status of the operation and review the quality process. The fishbone is essentially an end or goal oriented picture of a problem situation. It is the only technique that originates from Ishikawa. We can say that Ishikawa’s work contains both quantitative and qualitative aspects that have been taken together to achieve ‘company-wide quality.’ Many tools mentioned above have been used in IC programmes. However, as Beckford put it:

Ishikawa appears to have taken account of developments in management thinking relating to people, what has been called the ‘Human Relations’ school, emerging in the West from the works of those such as May, Maslow and Herzberg. However, he does not seem to have given recognition to other developments, such as the emergence of systems approaches, for example organisational cybernetics, soft systems thinking and the variety of other tools. It is considered that recognition of these approaches would have enhanced and further enriched his already substantial contribution.

(Beckford, 1998:108)
Flood (1993) identified the strengths and weaknesses of Ishikawa’s ideas below.

The main strengths are:

1. There is a strong emphasis on the importance of people participating in the problem-solving process, and to provide them with the tools to guide their thinking and acting. This helps to improve motivation, creativity and a wider understanding of other people’s roles in the organisation.
2. A mix of statistical and human orientated techniques and methods are provided.
3. A whole system view is stressed, wanting to achieve quality thinking within the company and in all its external relations.
4. QCCs are relevant to manufacturing and service sectors.

The main weaknesses are:

1. Although fishbone diagrams are extremely helpful when organising thoughts about causes of variation of quality in production and service, relationships are represented as simple causal ones and do not show interrelationships between causes. They do not explicitly show how causes and effects can feedback on each other. They do not show the issues as a whole interactive system. The fishbone approach uses systematic but not systemic logic.
2. If management are not prepared to listen to the ideas generated by the circles, then the whole process breaks down. This is a particular difficulty in the West where the relationship between managers and workers is often conflictual and best understood as ‘us and them’.
3. A corollary to 2 is that Ishikawa’s ideas would struggle in a political and/or coercive environment.

(Flood, 1993:34-35)

Thus, Ishikawa is strong on suggesting methods to contribute to the process of improving quality in organisations. However, the focus is on a step-by-step systemic cause-and-effect approach, which is unlikely to be effective for the systemic problem solving required in many of the complex dynamic interacting situations in IC. Furthermore, in conflictual situations, the methods become ineffective. This section has provided a comprehensive critique on the three writers whose work dominates quality management literature and practice. These writers provide some ideas and methods that can help to tackle the issues of IC. However, each approach has its weaknesses. As a result of the critique of TQM, a new understanding of TQM is introduced in the next section.
3.5 A New Understanding of TQM

TQM has a significant and sometimes positive influence on management today. At the moment, the problem that lies at the core of TQM's difficulties is that: "it lacks coherence and fundamental thinking" (Flood, 1993). Flood (1993) argued that:

> Quality management thus lacks the rigour of established management and organisation theory and the direction of contemporary management and systems sciences. Quality management desperately needs these to help to ascertain which parts of its philosophy, which principles, and which methods and techniques are appropriate, when and why.

(Flood, 1993:xxi)

So, to extract the true value of TQM, a powerful way of implementing TQM is needed from the diversity of management. Actually, only after viewing the organisation as a whole and taking into account all of the concerned viewpoints, can really effective management be achieved. Flood (1993) suggested that it was helpful to view the organisation in terms of four dimensions, all of which needed to be taken into account in problem solving.

- Organisational processes- flows, and controls over flows.
- Organisational design- functions, their organisation, coordination and control.
- Organisational culture- mediation of behaviour in terms of people’s relationship to social rules and practices.
- Organisational politics- power and potency to influence the flows of events.

(Flood, 1993:21)

Jackson (1994) explained the relation between TQM and these four dimensions in the following:

We can say that TQM is good at telling you how to design the process so that you have got zero defects, so that you can pick up defects and you can design in quality. It is not good at telling you about the sort of organisational design
which will enable you to produce a quality product. How do you design an organisation so that people can give their best and can get quality for you? In terms of culture, quality gurus talk a lot about the philosophy of culture, but there are few principles and few well-tested methods for bringing that about, we know about quality circles, but otherwise we're a bit lost. And in terms of politics, then no-one talks about the politics of quality.

(Jackson, 1994:19)

So TQM can help to improve organisational process, however the issues of IC in the other dimensions must be also considered. TQM cannot consider how to design an organisation as an adaptive system in a way which will allow a quality culture to exist. Moreover, TQM does not think about who benefits in the dimension of organisational politics. As I mentioned before, I am not only focusing on organisational process improvement of IC, but also trying to tackle the issues of IC in the dimensions of organisational design, organisational culture and organisational politics. These four dimensions must be considered in order to help to achieve the ideal dynamically balanced organisation for IC. Each dimension has relevant methods to manage organisational dynamics and move it toward the ideal dynamic. In order to provide a systemic theory for the practice of TQM, designing freedom; freedom through debating and freedom through disimprisoning are necessary (Flood, 1993). Towards a systemic approach, a theory for the practice of TQM can be established to assess the applicability of integrated communications. In the following, I use the categories ‘Design- How?’, ‘Debate- What?’, and ‘Disimprisoning- Why and for Whom?’ to explore and understand the whole organisation.

1. Design– ‘How?’

It concerns two questions here: ‘how can we design the most efficient organisational processes and arrange their implementation?’ and ‘how can we achieve effective
organisation? The aim of process design is to achieve effective organisational processes. The aim of organisational design is to realise an effective form of organisation. Flood and Romm (1996) mentioned about the main organisational design issues:

[They] are hierarchy, role, and task definition, division of labour, rule creation, interdependence of roles and tasks, communication, monitoring co-ordination, control, and flexibility.

(Flood and Romm, 1996:79)

They also suggested that bureaucracy, circular organisation, organic organisation, viable system organisation, community organisation and postmodern organisation could help the organisational design. The process design is focus on flows and controls over flows. Quality Management and Business Process Reengineering, two approaches that address efficiency of processes, are suggested by Flood and Romm (1996). Using methods to answer the question ‘how?’ can achieve the following:

- A solution- efficient organisational processes or effective organisational design- the main point of the exercise.
- Support knowledge- increasing understanding of organisational processes or organisational design emerging from the linear process.
- Wider benefit- human freedom through efficient organisational processes or effective organisational design; especially if the discussion of the design is an ongoing process.

(Flood, 1995a:50)

2. Debate– ‘What?’
This can help with the dimension of organisational culture change. It concerns this question ‘what options should we decide upon that debate technical and human issues that characterise organisational activities and lead to decisions on what to do about them?’ Normally, debate provides the possibilities for participants to understand and learn. There are many methods which urge the use of debate. Flood (1993) explored three methods existing in the management and systems sciences literature which are
relevant to quality management. One is Mason and Mitroff's strategy testing approach; another is Ackoff's Interactive Planning; and the other is Checkland's soft problem solving. Using methods to answer the question 'what?' can achieve the following: -

- Learning and understanding, and in most cases a change in people's beliefs and attitudes, and consequently a change in corporate or organisational culture - the main point of the exercise.
- Ideally, negotiated working agreements about options to take forward - although if not achieved this does not negate the value of learning and understanding.
- Wider benefit - freedom of the mind.

(Flood, 1995a:52)

3. Disimprison - 'Why and for Whom?'

It concerns this question 'why a design or a decision should be adopted that merely serve the interests of dominant groups, rather than balancing individual and organisational needs, taking into account the physical biological and social environments?' Disimprisoning is "a process of learning, understanding and challenging the rationale behind designs and decisions" (Flood, 1995a). Unlike designing and debating, it is not easy to find practical work which has been done on disimprisoning. However, Critical Systems Heuristics (Ulrich, 1983) provides a method which can be used to "review the underlying value assumptions of actual and proposed designs, and to consider the consequences and side-effects for those affected by the planning."

Critical Systems Heuristics can interrogate the plan to implement quality management. Using methods to answer the question 'Why and for Whom?' can achieve the following:

- Learning and understanding about designs and decisions in the light of whose interests are being served, possibly leading to a change in people's attitudes and beliefs.
- Ideally, in coercive contexts, a demonstration of the need - to redesign, and / or - to rethink decisions.
- Preventing designs and decisions from becoming prisons for people -
disimprisoning, which is the main point of the exercise.

(Flood, 1995a:54)

Thus, use of the Critical Systems Heuristics methodology can tackle the dimensions of power, politics and conflict which are neglected by the TQM methods. By using the TQM tool in the research, many angles of organisation are taken into account to help develop an IC model more capable of solving IC problems. Beyond TQM, some systemic methodology can also help to improve the IC process as briefly explained. More detail will be discussed in the thesis later. Implementing TQM through systemic methodology can help to expand the value of IC to organisations. This can help the organisations to set up effective communication.

3.6 Conclusion

Because of the lack of suitable IC literature, TQM has been introduced as a way to help organisations to set up effective communication and to solve the issues of interdepartmental integration. Furthermore, the broad perspective on systems and processes view has been introduced and explained to solve the issues of interdepartmental conflicts and encourage interdepartmental cooperation. Although the ideas and methods from TQM could help the IC approach, a critique of TQM was presented which identified several weaknesses. I do not only focus on improving the process of IC, but also on improving other dimensions of IC. Also, Deming (1993) argued that people need education about systems thinking and about the interdependency of individuals, teams, and department in organisations. This suggests that TQM can only be fully effective when operationalised using a systemic approach, as already briefly indicated in this chapter. However, in order to build an effective
systemic approach and to avoid introducing other weaknesses, it is now necessary to carry out an in-depth consideration of systems thinking. Therefore, systems thinking is examined in the next chapter as a way to enhance TQM and make the IC model even more effective.
CHAPTER 4: SYSTEMS THINKING

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter Total Quality Management (TQM) was introduced as an approach which could help the organisations to enhance communication by improving organizational processes and aspects of organizational culture. However, TQM was found to have some weaknesses in operation and to neglect important dimensions of the organisation. There are many management thinkers who believe that in order to deal adequately with the complexity of organizations it is necessary to adopt the systems thinking perspective otherwise there can only be suboptimisation. Basically, Hard Systems Thinking (HST) and Organisational Cybernetics can be used to support ‘Design—How?’; Soft Systems Thinking (SST) can be used to support ‘Debate—What? ’; and Critical Management Approaches can be used to support ‘Disimprisoning—Why and for Whom?’. These approaches can help organisations to look at their IC programmes in the dimensions of organisational process, organisational design, organisational culture and organisational politics. In order to build a systemic approach of IC, this chapter examines systems thinking to see what it can contribute to TQM and IC in organisations.

Chapter 4 is the theoretical foundation of Chapter 5. These two chapters can enhance the ability of TQM to help the organisations to set up effective communications. Moreover, they help to tackle the other two issues of IC: how to help organisations to identify their
specific stakeholders; and how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders.

4.2 Early Developments in Systems Thinking

Since the 1930s, there have been three competing models of management in organization theory- the traditional approaches, human relations theory, and systems theory (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1981). However, with the recognition of the deficiencies of both the traditional approaches and human relations theory, the systems theory has now grown to a position of prominence in management theory (Jackson, 1991a). In the following I examine the early development of systems thinking by looking at some of the important landmarks in its history.

Pareto (1919) introduced the so-called mechanical-equilibrium model to gain a new understanding of social systems. This approach was subsequently developed by Henderson (cited by Jackson, 1991a) who viewed organizations as systems of interrelated parts in flux yet maintaining equilibrium. By the late 1920s and 1930s, Barnard viewed organizations as ‘cooperative systems’ of individuals (Jackson, 1991a). This recognised that there was interdependency between people in organisations but that continued cooperation depended on the organisation meeting its goals and on individuals feeling satisfied.

Also in the 1930s, von Bertalanffy (1968) recognised the importance of looking at whole systems and distinguished two contrasting types of systems- closed or open to its environment. He proposed a General System Theory to stimulate interest in looking for
homologies between all kinds of system: mechanical, biological and social. By the
1960s, Sociological Systems Theory had gained prominence although it had its roots in
the twentieth century with Spencer (1969). This view regarded social systems as
composed of interdependent parts contributing to the maintenance of the whole system.
The needs of the system determined the functions of the parts, which in turn determined
the structure of society/organization, this was termed ‘structural functionalism’
(Radicliffe-Brown, 1952). In parallel with these developments, the urgent need for
technological progress and superior weapons systems during and immediately following
the second world war led to a recognition of the need for an interdisciplinary approach
to problems, which would subsequently be called hard systems thinking.

4.3 Hard Systems Thinking

Hard Systems Thinking (HST) denotes methodologies such as Operational Research,
Systems Engineering, and Systems Analysis. Checkland (1978) first called them ‘hard’
approaches and noted that they all share the common “assumption that the problem task
they tackle is to select an efficient means of achieving a known and defined end.” These
approaches have their roots in multidisciplinary teams of scientists and engineers
tackling complex projects requiring a systematic and technically systemic orientation.
All three approaches have a common means-end approach and consist of a number of
steps. For example, for Operations Research the steps are: formulating the problem;
constructing a mathematical model; deriving a solution to the model; testing the model
and evaluating the solution, implementing and maintaining the solution (Flood and
Carson, 1993). Systems engineering was defined as “the science of designing complex
systems in their totality to ensure that the component subsystems making up the system
are designed, fitted together, checked and operated in the most efficient way” (Jenkins, 1972). Systems analysis was defined as “analysis to suggest a course of action by systematically examining the costs, effectiveness and risks of alternative policies or strategies, and designing additional ones if those examined are found wanting” (Quade, 1963). Clearly, these approaches can make a contribution to improving the efficiency of processes in organizational systems (Flood and Jackson, 1991b), and they would be particularly useful for enhancing aspects of the marketing component of integrated communications such as database usage efficiency and market research. All these three approaches can help the organisation to determine what is required for IC efficiency. They are concerned with achieving the most efficient use of resources to optimise their goal-achieving strategy. They rely on quantitative methods and models for analysis and assume that there is potential for maximising or optimising some characteristic concerned with the problem. Jackson (1991a) observed that the hard systems paradigm presupposes that four features characterise real world problems, as follows: (1) there is a known desired state for the system; (2) there is a present state of the system; (3) there are alternative routes between (1) and (2); (4) the role of the systems analyst is to identify the optimum route between (1) and (2).

The hard approaches were originally expected to provide an interdisciplinary, systemic application of the scientific method to aid managerial decision making in complex man-machine systems (Ackoff and Sasieni, 1968). They can help to look at IC in the dimension of organisational process and try to tackle all the issues of IC process. However, in practice by the 1970s it was recognised that for example operations research was not of high ranking importance to corporate management (Ackoff, 1986).
HST is criticised for its assumptions of agreement on objectives and its mechanistic model of social reality. There have been a number of criticisms of the hard systems approaches which have been summarised by Jackson (1991a) under five general headings:

First there are criticisms that suggest hard systems thinking has a very limited domain of applicability. ... A second kind of criticism relates to the failure of hard systems approaches to pay proper attention to the special characteristics of the human component in the sociotechnical systems with which they sometimes aspire to deal. ... The third group of criticisms concerns the demand for quantification and optimization in hard systems methodologies. ... Fourthly, the degree to which hard systems thinking offers succor to the status quo, and to the already powerful, is frequently noted. ... The survival of such a naive orientation - the subject of the fifth type of criticism - is more difficult to explain.

(Jackson, 1991a:79-81)

The hard systems approaches certainly have a useful role to play as an aid to managerial decision making when there are established goals and an optimum way must be determined (Flood and Jackson, 1991b). However, clearly the above criticisms have to be recognised and understood by any practitioner who wishes to use hard systems thinking. Habermas (1974) pointed out that human beings possess three fundamental cognitive interests which are involved in their quest for knowledge: a technical interest, a practical interest, and an emancipatory interest. HST can be recognised as a manifestation of the technical interest in the prediction and control of natural and social systems. But the expansion of the use of HST to social systems may be problematic. The world is changeable and HST may be expected to fail because it is unable to achieve sufficiently accurate prediction and control and because HST is considered to be inappropriate in the domain of the practical interest where the issue is the creation of intersubjective understanding. According to these criticisms of HST, there are some limitations for using HST in the integrated communications approach. As mentioned in
Chapter 3, TQM can be used to enhance the integrated communications approach. However since neither TQM nor HST is sufficient to tackle all the issues of IC, this leads this discussion to organisation cybernetics which stresses the importance of information flows which are vital to the area of effective communication and IC. So some problems are unresolved when HST approaches are used on IC. Based on the critique of HST, I turn to see in detail how other approaches can help to tackle the issues of IC.

4.4 Organisational Cybernetics

Organisational cybernetics provides a significant break with the assumptions of the HST. Beer's (1979) Viable System Model (VSM) represents the flowering of organisational cybernetics. The VSM is a description of the necessary and sufficient functions for the maintenance of viability in an organization. Viability refers to the capacity to respond successfully to change in the environment that was not anticipated when the system was designed (Beer, 1979). The VSM was built by Beer and is a 'model of the organizational features of any viable system' (Jackson, 1991a). There are five subsystems involved in any organisation which is able to maintain its identity independently of other organisations within a shared environment (Beer, 1984). One strength of the organisational cybernetic model is to stress its generality. So the main functions should be considered, then we can see how they can help to tackle the IC issues. The VSM identifies five main functions which will be discussed as follows: operations; co-ordination; control; intelligence; and policy (Flood, 1995a).
1. System 1: operations

System 1 consists of "the various parts of it directly concerned with implementation - with carrying out the task(s) that the organisation is supposed to be doing" (Jackson, 1991a). Broadly speaking, the operations comprise many divisions with their operational managers. These divisions are serviced through the other four functions.

2. System 2: co-ordination

System 2 provides a co-ordination function. Jackson noted that:

"Under normal circumstances, compatible instructions from higher management should ensure that the various parts of Systems 1 of an organization act in harmony."

(Jackson, 1991a:108)

Co-ordination deals with information about short-term problems in operations.

3. System 3: control

System 3 might 'check directly on quality, or on employee morale, or to see that maintenance procedures are being followed' (Jackson, 1991a). The control function maintains stable equilibrium between the interdependent parts. It deals with information about problems in operations which co-ordination cannot cope with.

4. System 4: intelligence

System 4 has two tasks. The first task is to be a 'switch' in the organisation. The second task is to capture information for the organisation about its total environment. Intelligence is gathered about weaknesses and strengths of internal processes and
opportunities and threats in the external environment, and communicated appropriately within the organisation.

5. System 5: policy

System 5 is responsible for the whole enterprise. Jackson mentioned about the system 5:

It is the thinking part of the organization, formulating policy on the basis of all the information passed to it by System 4 and communicating the policy downward to System 3 for implementation by the subsidiaries.

(Jackson, 1991a:111)

System 5 must ensure that the organisation adapts to the external environment and must also represent the important qualities of the whole system. Policy deals with issues of management and strategic decisions. Like Flood’s (1995a) words, it “receives all relevant information about strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, and on the basis of this information reviews and modifies policy.”

The VSM has been described above, how it can be used to improve the performance of organisations can be found in some references (Beer, 1979; Flood and Jackson, 1991a; Espejo, 1989). Jackson (1991a) pointed out two procedures for using the VSM: system identification and system diagnosis. Through these two parts, the operational effectiveness of IC in the organisation can be checked and the structure of the organisation for IC can be redesigned. Thus, the VSM provides an approach for design and diagnosis of organisational structure and of the necessary information systems (Flood and Jackson, 1991b), so it is particularly relevant to Integrated Communications because poor or inefficient communication both inside the organization and with the outside will reduce the viability of the organisation. I want to emphasis here, the
organisation cannot set up effective communication until a good organisational structure is set up. Organisational cybernetics can help organisations to look at IC in the dimension of organisational design and tackle all the issues of information flows in the organisation. In the following, soft systems thinking, which represents a way to tackle the question of intersubjective understanding, is discussed to provide a way to make communication more effective.

4.5 Soft Systems Thinking

During the late 70's and the early 80's, some 'soft' system thinkers brought another kind of systems approach into systems/management science, which is now called Soft Systems Thinking (SST). It focuses on perceiving and improving social situations through learning and relationship maintenance. It also seeks for accommodation and change in the face of contrasting world-views so it is useful to start from real world experience and see what patterns could be discerned in it after understanding HST. The work of Geoffrey Vickers provided an introduction to Soft Systems Thinking (SST) which complemented HST (Checkland, 1985). SST opened up a completely new perspective on the way systems ideas could and should be used to help with decision making and problem resolving. The importance in SST is to probe the worldviews or Weltanschauungen (Churchman, 1979a; Checkland, 1981), or the 'appreciative systems' (Vickers, 1970; Checkland, 1981), that individuals employ in understanding and constructing their social world. Weltanschauung carries the implication that an individual's interpretations will be far from random; they will be consistent in terms of a number of underlying assumptions that constitute the core of that individual's worldview or Weltanschauung. It can be employed to gain knowledge about the social
world from the hermeneutic standpoint; but this idea remains undeveloped.

‘Appreciative system’ is the most important concept employed by Vickers (1983) in developing his study of the ‘Peculiarities of human systems.’

According to Vickers, if human systems are to achieve stability and effectiveness, then the appreciative systems of their participants need to be sufficiently shared to allow mutual expectations to be met. The soft systems approaches include Churchman's Social Systems Design, Mason and Mitroff's Strategic Assumption, Surfacing and Testing, Ackoff's Interactive Planning and Checkland's Soft Systems Methodology. These approaches can be useful for organisations to debate what to do. They can help organisations to tackle the dimension of organisational culture in IC. These researchers can be considered as representative of SST and their approaches are dealt with in more detail below. I focus on the operation of these approaches to discover how they can help the organisation to set up effective communication.

1. Churchman's Social Systems Design (SSD)

In the 1960s and 1970s, Churchman (1970, 1979a,b) made a major contribution to systems thinking, especially about the concept of ‘improvement.’ Churchman (1979b) showed these categories as follows. These categories are based on the idea which people are the centre of the planner's reality. The first category of each group stands for a social role. Three groups of people include those who should be served (the clients), those who should make the decision (the decision makers), and those who should plan (the planners). The second and third categories of each group point to the important concerns distinctive of these roles.
Particularly, he added a fourth group of categories which could be realised to conceptualise the self-reflective dimension of his conceptualisation attempt.

It is informative to consider Jackson's (1991a) expansion of the four aphorisms which Churchman employs in his book 'The Systems Approach' (Churchman, 1979a).

(1) "The systems approach begins when first you see the world through the eyes of another."

The idea can be learned from Kant and Hegel.
Kant points out that whatever our view of the world it is inevitably based on taken-for-granted assumptions.

Hegel- systems designers must appreciate that there are many potential world-views founded upon alternative sets of taken-for-granted assumptions.

(2) "The systems approach goes on to discovering that every world-view is terribly restricted."

Individual worldviews tend to be narrow and difficult to change so Hegel proposes that a dialectical approach to objectivity is required. Also, Churchman suggested that 'dialectical debate' consisting of Thesis, Antithesis, and Synthesis, can help to make people better aware (Churchman, 1970).

(3) "There are no experts in the systems approach."

Deciding on aims and objectives involves ethical considerations and moral judgments, which precludes experts.

(4) "The system approach is not a bad idea."

Churchman impels us to acknowledge the theoretical indispensability of comprehensive systems design as an ideal standard to reflect critically on the inevitable lack of comprehensiveness in our actual designs (Ulrich, 1985).

Basically, Churchman provided a new way of thinking which involved a fundamental shift for our understanding of 'system.' As Midgley (1996) said:

For Churchman, the business of defining improvement is a systems problem. It is a systems problem because the boundary of analysis is crucial. As he makes clear, what is to be included in, or excluded from, the analysis is a vital
consideration: what may appear to be improvement within a narrowly defined boundary may not be improvement at all if the boundaries are pushed out.

(Midgley, 1996:17)

Churchman (1979b) not only presented the fundamental change of ‘system,’ but also made the importance of critique clear. One of three main issues of IC in the thesis is how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders. Midgley (1996) used the work of Churchman and Ulrich on critical boundary judgments. Their work can help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders through Midgley's 'rolling programme' which will be discussed later.

2. Mason and Mitroff's Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing (SAST)

SAST is appropriate for complex systems of highly interdependent problems, where problem formulation and structuring is most important (Jackson, 1991a). Flood and Jackson (1991b) say that SAST is founded on four principles, it is: Adversarial, Participative, Integrative and Managerial mind supporting. SAST is concerned with setting up a formalised debate between contrary entrenched opinion so that the exchange of viewpoints can reveal underlying assumptions, produce appreciation of others' positions and lead to a move toward a consensus position. There are many versions of the SAST approaches which differ in their precise details. Here, the account of SAST is drawn from the main sources with Mason and Mitroff (1981). They noted that SAST has been found to be helpful in uncovering the critical assumptions that underlie policies, plans, and strategies (Mason and Mitroff, 1981). Furthermore, they mentioned the process of SAST:

[It] has been designed especially to uncover and challenge key assumptions on which every business plan of necessity rests. Further, it helps managers make better judgements with regard to the reasonableness of their assumptions.
There are four steps in the SAST process which will be discussed below.

(1) Group formation

The aim of this step is to organise people into groups in order to generate the best plan for action. In this research, I would form two groups. One is marketing communication group and the other one is the public relations communication group.

(2) Assumption surfacing

The second step makes sure that each group has a clear view on which to formulate their alternative plan. This step employs three effective techniques: stakeholder analysis, assumption specification and assumption rating.

A. Stakeholder analysis

Each group must identify the key stakeholders.

B. Assumption specification

A number of key assumptions must be drawn up by the groups

C. Assumption rating

The groups plot the consolidated assumptions on different assumption rating charts.

(3) Investigative debate

In this step, the groups need to put forward the best possible case for their favourite strategy, while identifying the most significant assumptions. Each group makes a presentation and encourages reasoned criticism about alternatives.
(4) Synthesis

The aim of this step is to reach a compromise between groups about their alternatives and assumptions. This step is a process of negotiation and further modification. After this step, the synthesis between marketing communication group and public relations communication group can be achieved.

Use of the SAST methodology to aid intersubjective understanding between marketing and public relations personnel would seem to be an essential step towards integrating the communications in an organisation. The aim will be to reach consensus on the way forward, otherwise ineffective communication and conflict are probably inevitable.

3. Ackoff's Interactive Planning (IP)

We can begin with Ackoff's words:

If you read the newspapers and are still satisfied with the state of the world, put this book down, it is not for you. My objective is not to convert those who are satisfied—even though I believe they need conversion—but to give those who are dissatisfied cause for hope and something to do about it.

(Ackoff, 1974:1)

Ackoff thinks that the job of the management scientist is not to build mathematical models which purport to predict the future and, therefore, help key decision makers prepare their enterprises for the inevitable. Rather 'interactive planning' is based on the operating principles that planning should be continuous, holistic and participative, and has, as its most original element, the idea that the phases of the planning process should be centered around how to reach an 'ideal' future. It is a methodology which recognises that the planning process is more important than the plan. The use of idealised design in
solving complex social system problems or in planning was developed by Ackoff (1978). As he mentioned about idealised design:

Such a redesign is an explicit statement of what the designers would have now if they could have whatever they wanted.

(Ackoff, 1978:27)

There are three stages to follow in the process of idealised design:

1. Selecting a mission - a general purpose of the system to be designed that encompasses its responsibilities to the larger systems of which it is a part and to its stakeholder.
2. Specifying desired properties- a comprehensive list of the functional properties that the system should have and to which the stakeholders agree.
3. Designing the system- determining how the specified properties should be obtained.

(Ackoff and Vergara, 1981:7)

(1) Stage 1- Selecting the mission

This step can be taken by using any method for creative thinking, focusing on ideas for the future. A set of questions which can generate debate about organisational mission is identified as follow.

- What do we think we do?
- Are we doing what we think we do?
- Why are we doing it?
- Are we doing the right thing?
- What else could we do?
- What would be the benefit of doing something else?

(Flood, 1995a:178)

The aim of these questions is to formulate a brief statement that captures the overall purpose and philosophy.
(2) Stage 2- Specifying desired properties

Idea Generation and Evaluation can formulate the desired properties of the design. Important aspects of the organisations must be considerate in the following way: culture, inputs, organisational processes, the design, products and services, markets and customers, and the environment (Flood, 1995a).

(3) Stage 3- Designing the system

Idealised design must produce a design which the stakeholders may use to replace the existing system. They are free to replace it with any design they want.

These stages must be gone through to have two idealised designs. The first design is constrained, assuming no changes in the wider containing system. The second design is unconstrained with changes in the wider containing system. I might use idealised design for IC through these three areas.

A. Select an operational mission of IC.

B. Specify the sort of things you want to achieve with the organisation.

C. Spell out your design for the organisation.

The importance of IP for integrating communications in organisation is seen in its philosophy that planning must be continuous, holistic and participative. Consequently, the marketing and public relations personnel must be brought together to participate in a continuous holistic planning process to achieve IC.
4. Checkland's Soft Systems Methodology (SSM)

SSM was developed (Checkland, 1976) to deal with ill-structured or messy problem contexts where there is no clear view on what 'constitutes the problem,' or what action should be taken to overcome the difficulties being experienced. When employing SSM, users should be aware of the main principles: learning, culture, participation, and the 'two modes of thought.' SSM is essentially a means of introducing some ordered, structured systems thinking into the flux of events and actions that is everyday life. It is not just the tool of experts doing a study from outside the problem situation but can be employed by managers as part of their everyday work. Checkland (1976) described three of the most significant project experiences which led to the formulation of SSM. Seven stages are identified in SSM.

(1) Stages 1 and 2: expression

Stages 1 and 2 find out the problem situation about structure and processes. A rich picture is a cartoon-like expression which 'enables selection to be made of a viewpoint (or viewpoints) from which to study further the problem situation' (Checkland, 1981). From the rich picture, a number of diverse relevant systems are generated.

(2) Stage 3: root definitions of relevant systems

This stage is concerned with expanding relevant systems into concise well formulated verbal statements. This is achieved by formulating the statement around six elements (CATWOE).

- Customers - the victims / beneficiaries of the purposeful activity
- Actors - those who do the activities
- Transformation process - the purposeful activity which transforms an input into an output
- Weltanschauung - the view of the world that makes the definition meaningful
• Owners - who can stop the activity
• Environmental constraints - those constraints in its environment that this system takes as given

(Flood and Jackson, 1991b:175)

Checkland (1989) provided the following example: “professionally-manned system in a manufacturing company which, in the light of market forecasts and raw material availability, makes detailed production plans for a defined period.” So root definitions taken forward must include primary-task examples and issue-based examples.

(3) Stage 4: making and testing conceptual models

This stage involves the construction of conceptual models of the systems which are defined in the root definitions. A conceptual model is constructed by “drawing out the minimum number of verbs that are necessary to describe the activities that would have to be present to carry out the task named in the root definition” (Flood and Jackson, 1991b).

(4) Stage 5: comparing conceptual models with reality

The aim of this stage is to generate debate about possible changes which can be made to bring about improvements in the problem situation. Checkland (1981) outlined different ways of making full use of the potential of comparison.

(5) Stages 6 and 7: implementing ‘feasible and desirable’ change

Checkland (1981) mentioned the debate about changes which meet two criteria.

They must be arguably systemically desirable as a result of the insight gained from selection of root definitions and conceptual model building, and they must be culturally feasible given the characteristics of the situation, the people in it, their shared experiences and their prejudices.
The debate stage confirms which changes are indeed culturally feasible in the organisation. The last stage is to implement changes which are both desirable and feasible. From the seven stages of SSM, the integrated communications programme can learn and understand from the process itself rather than the solution. SSM could provide a useful way for the marketing and public relations personnel to examine and discuss the systems of change, in terms of root definitions and conceptual models, which will be necessary to transform the two separate functions into one integrated communications activity.

In conclusion, SST is underpinned by interpretive theory which is oriented to learning by using systemic methodologies to explore problematic situations. Systems models are not considered to be of the world, but constitute systemic intellectual constructs which help to surface important issues arising from problematic situations, in the hope of accommodation of world-views and maintenance of relationships through intersubjective debate. Thus, SST methodologies can help to enhance intersubjective communication within IC which is important. SST can help organisations to look at IC in the dimension of organisational culture and tackle all the issues of organisational culture. However, there are limitations to the appropriateness and application of SST approaches which led to the recognition of the need for the critical approaches considered next.
4.6 Critical Management Approaches

In the 1970s, there were major criticisms that HST, organisational cybernetics, and SST did not challenge the inequalities of the managerial status quo and that a new strand of management thinking was needed (Ulrich, 1981; Bryer, 1979). In the 1980s, with the incorporation of critical thinking into management thinking, this new approach emerged and was called Critical Systems Thinking (CST). CST embraces five major commitments (Jackson, 1991a). I shall discuss 'emancipatory systems thinking' first because it has contributed considerably to the development of CST and then discuss about CST.

1. Emancipatory Systems Thinking

Ulrich (1983) applied Churchman's (1979b) categories to the task of tracing the normative content of systems designs in some case studies. He found that the categories number 1- 7 and 9 were of great heuristic value for this task. He said:

Their significance, I believe, consists in helping us to reflect upon our basic philosophy of planning rather than to map some section of social reality, that is, they serve a critical rather than constitutive role.

(Ulrich, 1983:247)

However, the categories from Churchman (1979b) really influenced Ulrich.

As Ulrich (1983) put it:

Whenever we apply the systems concept to some section of the "real world", we must make very strong a priori assumptions about what is to belong to the system in question and what is to belong to its "environment."

(Ulrich, 1983:225)
It was what Ulrich called “boundary judgements.” The problem of boundary judgements represents fundamental methodological difficulty in the quest for practical reason and design. Ulrich (1983) pointed out that this problem could be learned from Kant such as the unavoidable problems of reason; the problem of synthetic a priori judgements; the difference between knowledge and thinking; the principle of reason; and the critical significance of the systems idea. Basically, the boundary judgements can reflect the system designer’s “whole systems judgements” about what is really relevant to the design task. Furthermore, these boundary judgements represent “justification break-offs” since they reveal the responsibility accepted by the system designers in justifying their designs to the affected.

Ulrich’s ‘Critical Heuristics of Social Planning’ (1983) is the major contribution in emancipatory systems thinking. It is designed to help people to think critically about the system designs that affect them, especially when they are not specifically included in the design process. Ulrich has formulated a set of 12 concepts to guide critical reflection on the normative content in systems designs. Each of these is a source of questions about a potential system design. By asking these questions, anyone can learn to expose the hidden boundary judgements in system designs, and to defeat the intimidating strategies of technical experts. Critical Systems Heuristics (CSH) is the first systems method to be explicitly concerned with empowerment, and thus is a major step forward for systems thinking. Ulrich’s CSH methodology aims to “help planners make transparent to themselves and others the presuppositions that inevitably enter into social system designs” (Ulrich, 1983).
One of the three main issues of IC in this thesis is to help the organisations to identify their specific stakeholders. Ulrich’s CSH methodology can expose the hidden boundary judgements and furthermore help the organisations to identify their specific stakeholders. Let’s go through Ulrich’s 12 questions to see how the specific stakeholders can be identified. The foundation of these questions is from Churchman’s research. In particular, Ulrich separated the involved group and the affected group. The involved group included the client, the decision maker, and the planner. The affected group included the witness. As Ulrich put in:

The planner cannot adequately trace the normative content of alternative boundary judgements regarding the social system S to be mapped without referring to some social actors playing the role of a witness.

(Ulrich, 1983:252)

There are two modes of Ulrich’s checklist of 12 questions. The ‘is’ mode proposes a framework for evaluating various views of current situation between those ‘involved’ in any planning decision and those ‘affected’ but not involved. The same questions in the ‘ought’ mode ask what the boundaries should be. Ulrich’s 12 questions can be separated into four groups of questions based on the client, decision maker, planner, and witnesses distinctions (Jackson, 1991a).

(1) The client
The questions relating to the client (Table 4.1) ask for the sources of motivation flowing into the design. They are about its ‘value basis.’ Participants of ICM will realise whose interests might be served by the system’s design.
Table 4.1: Questions about the client

1. Who is the actual client? That is, whose interests are served by the design or decision?
2. What is the actual propose? That is, what are the actual consequences of the design or decision?
3. What is the built-in measure of success? That is, what measures are used to judge whether the purpose of the design or decision is being met?

(2) The decision taker

The questions relating to the decision taker (Table 4.2) ask for the sources of control. They are about the design 'basis of power.' Participants of ICM will realise who is powerful for implementing the system’s design.

Table 4.2: Questions about the decision taker

1. Who actually is the decision taker? That is, who can actually change the measure of success of the design or decision?
2. What does the decision taker actually control? That is, what is the actual span of control of the design or decision?
3. What does the decision taker not control? That is, what is outside of the span of control and is in effect environment for the design or the decision?

(3) The planner

The questions relating to the planner (Table 4.3) ask for the sources of expertise. They are about the 'basis of know-how.' Participants of ICM will realise who is involved as planner in the system’s design.

Table 4.3: Questions about the planner

1. Who is actually involved as planner? That is, whose expertise is being drawn upon to formulate the design or decision?
2. Who is actually involved as expert, with what kind of expertise, playing what role? That is, what expert knowledge is being used to shape the design or decision?
3. What guarantee do the experts give that the design or decision will be successful? That is, is there technical competence, experience and intuition, a consensus among experts, political support from interest groups, etc.?
(4) The witnesses distinctions

The question relating to the witnesses distinctions (Table 4.4) ask for the sources of legitimation. They are about the 'basis of legitimation.' Participants of ICM will realise who is affected but not involved in the system's design.

Table 4.4: Questions about the witnesses distinctions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Who will actually be affected but not involved? That is, who will be affected by the design or decision but has no direct say in its construction?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How are the interests of the affected dealt with? That is, do the experts decide what is right for those affected by the design or decision, or are the affected used as tools to serve the purposes of others?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What world view actually underlies the design or decision? That is, is the world view of the (some of) involved or of (some of) the affected?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 12 questions will be asked in the 'ought' mode to identify what the boundaries should be. The process developed here allows for the creation of insights through the process of challenging, exploring and extending the stakeholders' views. As I mentioned above, one of the three main issues of IC is to identify the specific stakeholders in organisations. Ulrich's 12 questions can help to tackle this issue through Midgley's 'rolling programme' which is presented in Chapter 5.

2. Critical Systems Thinking

Following Checkland's (1978, 1981) argument that very few real-world problem situations have clearly defined goals and objectives suitable for HST approaches, Jackson (1982) criticised SST as also having only a restricted applicability. It was recognised from Burrell and Morgan's (1979) work that a critical thinking component had to be included in systems thinking in order to provide the potential for radical change.
The recognition of complementarism at the methodological level emerged when Jackson and Keys (1984) constructed their systems of systems methodologies, which asks a critical question 'Which methodology, when and why,' maintaining that various systems methodologies have their respective strengths and weaknesses, thus suggesting informed employment of various systems approaches to intervene in different social situations for which the approaches are most appropriate. Expanding on Jackson and Keys' work, Oliga (1988) identified three methodologies on which systems methods are based: empiricism; hermeneutics; and critique.

To support critical systems thinking's complementarism at the theoretical level Jackson (1991a) chose Habermas's theory of human interests. Ulrich (1988) used Habermas's taxonomy of types of action-instrumental, strategic, and communicative- to specify three complementary levels of systems practice, roughly parallel to the requirements of operational, strategic, and normative planning. CST, resting upon Habermas's theory of human interests as mediated through the system of systems methodologies, can adequately support a complementarist vision of the future of systems thinking and management science at both the theoretical and methodological levels. Flood and Gregory (1989) set out four ideas on the nature of the history and progress of knowledge-linear sequential, structuralism, worldviewism, and genealogy- and related these to accounts of the development of systems thinking.

The linear sequential model sees knowledge building chronologically and cumulatively. Structuralism represents deeper processes as being at work in history, and uses the "scientific" approach to unearth these and build cumulative knowledge of them. Worldviewism rejects the unilinear perspective and accepts the existence of contrasting and even contradictory knowledge, although there may be periods of settled or "normal" science (Kuhn, 1970). ... Genealogy, deriving from Foucault's writings, puts emphasis on the effect power at the micro level can have on the formation and development of knowledges.
In the opinion of Flood and Gregory the first three ideas on the history of knowledge are well accounted for in the progress in systems thinking, but the genealogical view has yet to be exploited. Although CST is a new systems tradition of thought, it is now developing more rapidly than other parts of systems thinking. Flood and Jackson (1991a) outline a methodology called Total Systems Intervention (TSI) which represents a new approach to planning, designing, problem solving, and evaluation based upon CST. TSI advocates combining three building blocks—systems metaphors, the system of systems methodologies, and the individual systems methodologies—in an interactive manner and using a three phase cycle of creativity about the problem context, choice of methodology, and implementation, to produce a particularly powerful intervention approach so there will be more people interested in TSI in the future.

As mentioned earlier, CST consists of five commitments: critical awareness, social awareness, dedication to human emancipation, complementarism at the theoretical level, and complementarism at the methodological level (Jackson, 1991a). Gregory (1992) argued that methodological and theoretical complementarism could be treated under one heading. Critical awareness and social awareness both are concerned with the issues that are understood as strength and weakness of various systems methodologies and the consequences of practical application. Flood and Jackson (1991a) identified three themes: improvement, critical awareness and methodological pluralism. I will discuss these three themes as follows:
Midgley's critical awareness combined two of Jackson's pillars of CST—critical awareness and social awareness. Jackson's critical awareness develops from two sources. Firstly, from inspecting the underlying assumptions and values of existing systems designs or any proposals for a systems design, and secondly from appreciating the strengths and weaknesses of available systems approaches (Jackson, 1991b). CST aims to enhance this critical awareness, as with research like Jackson's (1988) review of systems methods for organisational analysis and design, and Oliga's (1988) look at the methodological foundations of systems methodologies.

Social awareness involves being aware that there are organisational and societal pressures which favour the choice of certain systems theories and methodologies at given times (Jackson, 1991a). Hale's (1974) and Rosenhead's (1982) analyses of the evolution of management science in terms of the historical and material development of the capitalist mode of production are significant contributions in this area (Midgley, 1995). Churchman (1979b) argued that it is important to realise that the wider affected should be considered not just the direct participants. He raises the issue of boundary judgement in systems choice. Ulrich (1983) indicated that unless social design/planning is considered critically we will be restricted to a single viewpoint. Critical thinking needs to be bounded by systems ideas in order to be practical.

Social awareness also means giving full consideration to the consequences of the use of different systems methodologies. Oliga (1988) sought to unmask the ideological foundations of the different systems approaches and Ulrich (1983) argued that the systems rationality of planners must always be open to the social rationality of the
affected. So it is necessary to take the involved, the affected and consequences into account when we are dealing with social problems.

(2) Emancipation

Habermas (1972) argued that human beings have three fundamental cognitive interests: technical, practical, and emancipatory interest. The importance of the technical interest is to aid material well-being by improving the productive potential and the steering capacities of social systems; the practical interest aims to promote and expand mutual understanding among the individuals and groups participating in social systems; the emancipatory interest protects the domain of the practical interest from inroads by technical reason.

Critical systems thinking is committed to human emancipation and to individual's achieving their potential by raising the quality of work and life in organisations and societies (Jackson, 1991a). Flood and Jackson (1991b) indicated that hard and cybernetic systems approaches could support the technical interest, soft methodologies the practical interest, and critical systems heuristics can support the emancipatory interest.

(3) Methodological Pluralism

Complementarism at the theoretical level in CST develops from its belief in Habermas's arguments for human-species-dependent knowledge-constitutive interests (Jackson, 1988). At the theoretical level, the complementarist strategy accepts that significant differences divide advocates of the alternative strands of management science. But all of the different strands of systems thinking are necessary to support the anthropologically
based cognitive interests of the human species. Complementarism is a recognition that it is impossible at this time to produce one unified body of thought which can satisfy the complexity of the management task.

CST differs from HST, systems cybernetic and SST because it accepts that different systems methodologies are appropriate for particular situations. Jackson (1987), building on work by Reed (1985), had identified four strategies for the overall development of systems thinking: isolationism; imperialism; pragmatism; and pluralism. Isolationism refers to the separate paradigmatic development of each strand of management science. Imperialism takes one strand of management science as superior and develops it, but may include what it regards as useful aspects of other strands. Pragmatism uses elements of all strands on the basis of what works in practice. Pluralism respects the individual qualities of all methodologies and seeks to use them most appropriately. Pluralism became a possibility following the work of Linstone (1984) and Jackson and Keys (1984).

Jackson and Keys (1984) introduced the system of systems methodology to guide method selection and to provide insights about the nature of different methods. But how can we interpret a systems methodology from one paradigm in another paradigm because different systems methodologies are concerned with different paradigms? Oliga (1988) identified three foundations for systems methods: empiricism, hermeneutics and critique. Midgley (1995) indicated that CST has its own unique assumptions, indicating that it is attempting to establish the basis for a new paradigm.
‘Hard’ and cybernetic methods primarily pursue truth statements—they attempt to model reality. They might deal with issues of rightness and subjectivity along the way, but these are subordinate concerns. In contrast, ‘soft’ systems methods primarily pursue rightness statements. They attempt to manage debate so that a group of people can figure out the right way forward. While issues of truth and subjectivity will often be explored too, these are once again subordinate concerns. There are also a set of methods that are primarily oriented toward statements about subjective positions (e.g., personal construct theory and cognitive mapping, both of which seek to build a picture of a single individual’s unique perspective.) Again, truth and rightness issues may have a bearing on the use of these methods, but they are inevitably treated as of subordinate concern (Midgley, 1995).

The implications for IC are that CST insists that methodological complementarism is the only way to access human being’s three interests and to gain knowledge. Methodologies should not only be used as a tool to solve problems, but more importantly each methodology can learn something from each other. The word ‘complementarism’ is also called ‘pluralism.’ In the next chapter, I shall examine the rise of the term pluralism as this is relevant to the plurality of methodologies in IC.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the rise of systems thinking from its early beginning and HST, to SST, and then to CST to become the pre-eminent model of management thinking. Systems thinking is presented to draw a blue print to tackle the main issues of IC and help to build a systemic approach of IC. It has been pointed out that systems
thinking has much to offer integrated communications in the form of the hard systems approaches to help make marketing processes more efficient, the VSM to improve communications design and intelligence, the soft systems approaches to generate intersubjective understanding among marketing and public relations personnel and insights into stakeholder requirements, the emancipatory systems approaches to ask 'What is?' and 'What ought to be?' and the critical systems approaches to provide critical and social awareness, emancipation and a complementarist approach to improve methodological choice and IC organisational fitness. Thus systems approaches can overcome the weaknesses of TQM, identified in Chapter 3, and contribute to IC design, culture and politics dimensions in order to help the organisation to set up effective communication. Furthermore, CSH can be used to identify specific stakeholders. However, there have been developments in systems thinking which could further improve the IC model. Therefore, pluralism, the other name for complementarism is considered in the next chapter. Chapter 5 will present six approaches and show how these approaches can help to tackle the main issues of IC.
5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the development of system thinking was examined in terms of its categorisation into hard, soft, emancipatory and critical system approaches, in order to see how a systemic approach could enhance IC in organisation. It was shown that all of the approaches had something useful to offer IC if they could be used in a complementarist way which respected their strengths and weaknesses. Since ‘pluralism’ is an important concept and CST ideas continue to undergo further development which could be relevant to my IC model, in this chapter I shall examine six approaches to pluralism in systems thinking in some detail to see how they could be used to tackle the three main issues of IC. I start by looking at the rise of the use of the term ‘pluralism.’

5.2 History of Pluralism in Management Science

Following the rise of Critical Systems Thinking, the development of pluralism in management science was inevitable (Flood and Jackson, 1991a). “Pluralism, interpreted in the broadest sense as the use of different methodologies, methods and/or techniques in combination” is an important feature in management thinking (Jackson, 1997).

Some social theorists concerned themselves with the development of pluralism during the 1960s. For example, Blau's (1964) ‘Exchange and Power Model,’ based upon the central variables of pluralist theory, provides a theory of social integration. The
pluralism theory was established in the field of industrial relations. For example, Kerr and his colleagues (1964) presented the view of 'pluralistic industrialism' which emphasised that employee associations and organisations would be combined through a number of rules. Fox (1966) proposed the pluralistic frame of reference as a means of realising the nature of organisations. A trend of pluralism theory is found in the study of some theorists who study decision making in organisations. Pettigrew (1973) presented a pluralist theory of decision making and spelt out the relationship between interests, conflict, and power. Burrell and Morgan (1979) indicated the important effects of theory development in their four paradigms, 'radical humanist,' 'radical structuralist,' 'interpretative' and 'functionalist.'

During 1980s, the hard systems approaches and the soft systems approaches were challenged because of their limitations and the advantages of pluralism started to be recognised. In the systems field, Linstone (1984) and Jackson and Keys (1984) firstly brought pluralism into the spotlight. Linstone's multiperspective research gained a richer appreciation of the nature of problem situations and he pointed out two pitfalls (Linstone, 1989): One is that three perspectives (technical, societal, and individual perspective) are employed in the logic of the functionalist paradigm. So, other paradigms are ignored. The second pitfall is that the way in which methodologies may be combined is not considered. Jackson and Keys explored the strengths and weaknesses of different methodologies in the idea of the 'system of systems methodologies.' I will discuss this idea in this chapter. The contributions of Linstone and Jackson and Keys very importantly suggest that pluralism must be applied at the analysis stages and action stages. Jackson (1987) distinguished the nature of pluralism and argued that pluralism represented the best future for systems thinking.
[It] offers the best hope of reestablishing management science as a cohesive discipline and profession - and on firmer foundations than those which supported the traditional version.

(Jackson, 1987:456)

Later, Flood and Jackson (1991a) presented ‘Total Systems Intervention (TSI)’ and the pluralism underlying TSI was operationalised in the phases of creativity, choice and implementation. Some critiques of TSI will be discussed. Flood and Romm (1996) took into account the postmodern prospect to enhance critical systems thinking. Midgley (1997a) proposed ‘the creative design of methods’ to enhance TSI because it allows us to “explain the purposive, flexible, and responsive way in which TSI is most successfully used in practice.” A. Gregory (1996) presented a system of evaluation methodologies which may help in the evaluation of methods. Gregory (1992) talked of ‘discordant pluralism’ which is different from ‘concordant’ complementarism that Jackson (1987) and Flood and Jackson (1991a) presented. Recently, Mingers and Gill (1997) put together some papers about integrating OR and systems methodologies and the emergence of pluralism is more clear now. In summary, there is a general eagerness to embrace pluralism. I will conclude in Jackson's (1997) words, there are three reasons which explain why we need pluralism: -

One is the critique that has taken place, in many of these disciplines, of traditional approaches ... A second, related reason, is the prevailing fashion for 'relativism,' preceding postmodern thinking but now usually associated with it. ... The third reason, crucial for practitioners, is that pluralism seems to be necessary.

(Jackson, 1997:1)
5.3 The System of Systems Methodologies (SOSM)

Jackson and Keys (1984) were the first systems thinkers to consider the problems of pluralism. They proposed a four-celled 'system of systems methodologies' which explored the idea that different methodologies had their strengths and weaknesses. Jackson and Keys (1984) talked about how to mix different methodologies as follows:

It will be possible, using the analysis, to see how a particular methodology might be extended by making use of aspects of other approaches. For example, a problem solver who is armed with a soft-systems methodology appropriate for a systemic-pluralist context may find it possible to "harden up" his methodology for a problem context which has some mechanical-pluralist aspects. The resolution of conflict over objectives may be helped by the use of a quantitative approach to aid the decision makers in investigating the effects of their own preferred solutions relative to the solutions of others.

(Jackson and Keys, 1984:484)

The key idea of the system of systems methodologies is that "it is possible to construct an ideal-type grid of problem contexts that can be used to classify systems methodologies according to their assumptions about problem situations" (Jackson, 1991a). Jackson (1987) extended Jackson and Keys's four-celled grid of problem contexts into a six-celled matrix.

The grid has two dimensions: "the nature of the system(s) in which the problems are located and the nature of the relationship between the participants" (Jackson, 1991a). The 'systems' axis includes the variables of simple (having a small number of interrelated elements) and complex (having a large number of interrelated elements). The 'Participants' axis includes the variables of unitary, pluralist and coercive. A six-celled matrix of problem contexts was derived: simple-unitary, complex-unitary, simple-pluralist, complex-pluralist, simple-coercive and complex-coercive. According
to Jackson (1987), these six ideal-types of problem context should be reflected in
different types of methodologies. So, the next step in building the system of systems
methodologies is to relate problem-solving methodologies to it. Flood and Jackson's
(1991a) version of the system of systems methodologies is summarised in Figure 5.1.

Following his earlier words, the revised 'system of systems methodologies' represents

a powerful 'pluralist' way forward for management science, since it integrates
the diverse strands of the discipline, which otherwise tend to go their
own 'isolationist' ways.

(Jackson, 1990:665)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SIMPLE</th>
<th>UNITARY</th>
<th>PLURALIST</th>
<th>COERCIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S-U</td>
<td>Operational research</td>
<td>S-P</td>
<td>Social systems design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Systems analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic assumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Systems engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td>surfacing and testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPLEX</td>
<td>C-U</td>
<td>C-P</td>
<td>C-C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cybernetics</td>
<td>Soft systems methodology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GST</td>
<td>Interactive planning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socio-tech</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contingency theory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.1: A system of systems methodologies
(from Flood and Jackson, 1991a:327)

Flood and Jackson (1991a) provided some practical examples to show how the SOSM
could highlight the strengths of the different systems approaches. Basically, the SOSM
can help to guide choice of a relevant problem solving approach. As I mentioned in
Chapter 4, beyond TQM, some methodologies such as VSM, SSM and SAST can make
TQM stronger to set up effective communication in organisations. So, the SOSM can
also help decision makers to identify competence and effectiveness of the variety of
approaches in integrated communications. Different problems of IC can be solved
through choosing appropriate approaches.
5.4 Total Systems Intervention (TSI)

Total Systems Intervention (TSI), first created by Flood and Jackson, represents an approach to ‘planning, designing, problem solving and evaluation’ (Flood and Jackson, 1991a). Following critique of TSI, Flood presented his new version of TSI in the book ‘Solving Problem Solving’ (Flood, 1995a). Midgley has labelled Flood and Jackson’s research in 1991- TSI(1) and Flood’s research in 1995- TSI(2) (Midgley, 1995). The first version, TSI(1), will be reviewed first. The following section will be concerned with the second version- TSI(2).

5.4.1 Total Systems Intervention (Version One)

This section discusses about the philosophy, principles, and phases of TSI(1).

1. Philosophy of TSI(1)

The philosophy of TSI(1) rests on Critical Systems Thinking. As mentioned in Chapter 4, Jackson (1991a) considers CST in terms of five commitments: critical awareness, sociological awareness, complementarism at the methodological level, complementarism at the theoretical level, and a dedication to human emancipation. However, Flood and Jackson (1991a) in their description of TSI(1) prefer to refer to these five commitments as three positions: complementarism, sociological awareness, and the promotion of human well being and emancipation. All of these commitments are set out below in detail.
2. Principles of TSI(1)

This section sets out the principles of TSI(1) which are drawn out of the philosophy. Through these principles, then we can say whether TSI is used in an intervention in a valid way. Seven principles of TSI(1) are listed:

1. organisations are too complicated to understand using one management “model” and their problems too complex to tackle with the “quick fix”;
2. organisations, their strategies and the difficulties they face should be investigated using a range of systems metaphors;
3. systems metaphors, which seem appropriate for highlighting organisational strategies and problems, can be linked to appropriate systems methodologies to guide intervention;
4. different systems metaphors and methodologies can be used in a complementary way to address different aspects of organisations and the difficulties they confront;
5. it is possible to appreciate the strengths and weaknesses of different systems methodologies and to relate each to organisational and business concerns;
6. TSI sets out a systemic cycle of enquiry with iteration back and forth between the three phases;
7. facilitators, clients and others are engages at all stages of the TSI process.

(Flood and Jackson, 1991a:50)

As mentioned above, these principles have to be adhered to if we want to claim a valid use of CST.

3. Phases of TSI(1)

There are three phases of TSI(1): ‘creativity,’ ‘choice,’ and ‘implementation.’ I describe each of them as follows.

(1) Creativity

Historical stages of developing creative thinking are set out below: hope and hunch stage (the 1950s), research, replication, and report stage (the 1960s), widespread application stage (the 1970s), and mainstream application stage (the 1980s) (Parnes, 1992). Parnes predicted the 1990s will be characterized by “a growing sophistication in the widespread application of creativity” (Parnes, 1992). Morgan (1993) provided the
process of Imaginization as a main managerial tool. He noted that the creativity component of the Imaginization process is through the use of metaphors. Metaphors can be used to “find new ways of seeing, understanding, and shaping their [the managers’] actions” (Morgan, 1993). According to Morgan’s research, the creativity phase in TSI(1) was “to use systems metaphors as organising structures to help managers think creatively about their enterprises” (Flood and Jackson, 1991b). Figure 5.2 overlays that metaphors map onto the System of Systems Methodologies (SOSM). For example, soft systems methodologies are useful when the organisation is like a culture or a coalition, and critical systems heuristics is appropriate when the organisation is like a prison.

Merali and Martin, regarding useful choice of metaphor, they said:

So the metaphor must be chosen to be culturally and linguistically appropriate for the context within which it is being used. In addition to this, we suggest that a metaphor worth investing in will have some of the following characteristics:

• a structure which can provide a reference framework for the concept being explained ...
• in general, the metaphor should have reasonable depth and richness, so that it is - capable of supporting multiple recursions of the learning cycle, and also - capable of enriching the exploration of more than one characteristic of the ‘problem domain’ ...
• an appropriate degree of familiarity and referencing for the purpose that the metaphor is being put to

(Merali & Martin, 1994:16-17)

The outcome of the creativity phase is a main metaphor or a set of main metaphors which emphasizes the major interests and becomes the foundation to choose an appropriate intervention methodology.
As mentioned above, the metaphors which are generated during the creativity phase can be mapped onto the SOSM. There are many systems approaches, but the problem is how to choose them. Table 5.1 shows what kinds of systems methodologies relate to which systems metaphors. Jackson mentioned about the SOSM, saying:

"The formative idea of the system of systems methodologies is that it is possible to construct an ideal-type grid of methodologies according to their assumptions about problem situations."

(Jackson, 1991a:27)

So, after making problem situations in terms of the metaphors, we can think how to choose a relevant methodology and intervention. In Flood’s words, he said:

"It follows also that the choice of systems methodology should be informed by the “system of systems methodologies”, it should not be determined by it."
"system of systems methodologies" is not a short cut to, but rather an enrichment of, Total Systems Intervention (TSI).

(Flood and Jackson, 1991a: 42-43)

It means that the system of systems methodologies can help gain knowledge of the weaknesses and strengths of different methodologies to solve organisations' problems.

Table 5.1: Systems methodologies related to systems metaphors (from Flood and Jackson, 1991a:53)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Systems methodology (examples)</th>
<th>Assumptions about Problem Contexts</th>
<th>Underlying metaphors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>System dynamics</td>
<td>S-U</td>
<td>Machine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viable system diagnosis</td>
<td>C-U</td>
<td>Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAST (strategic assumption surfacing and testing)</td>
<td>S-P</td>
<td>Organism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive planning</td>
<td>C-P</td>
<td>Brain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSM (soft systems methodology)</td>
<td>C-P</td>
<td>Coalition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Systems Heuristics</td>
<td>S-C</td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Machine/Organism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Prison</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(3) Implementation

The task of the implementation phase is:

to employ a particular systems methodology (systems methodologies) to translate the dominant vision of the organisation, its structure, and the general orientation adopted to concerns and problems, into specific proposals for change.

(Flood and Jackson, 1991a:52)

So, in TSI(1) the practitioner carried out implementation after choosing appropriate methodologies. The three phases of TSI(1) are set out in Table 5.2. In fact, the process
of TSI(1) is a multi-directional cycle because these three phases should be made back or forth to each other.

Table 5.2: The three phrase of TSI methodology (from Flood and Jackson, 1991a:54)

| CREATIVITY | Task - to highlight aims, concerns and problems |
| Tools - systems metaphors |
| Outcome - dominant and "dependent" metaphors highlighting the major issues |

| CHOICE | Task - to choose an appropriate systems-based intervention methodology (methodologies) |
| Tools - the "system of systems methodologies"; the relationship between metaphors and methodologies |
| Outcome - "dominant" and "dependent" methodologies chosen for use |

| IMPLEMENTATION | Task - to arrive at and implement specific change proposals |
| Tools - systems methodologies employed according to the logic of TSI |
| Outcome - highly relevant and co-ordinated intervention |

5.4.2 Total Systems Intervention - TSI(2)

This section discusses about the philosophy, principles, phases, and modes of TSI(2).

1. Philosophy of TSI(2)

To explain TSI's(2) understanding of organisations and problem solving, the philosophy of TSI(2) must be provided. Flood noted:

The main idea of TSI’s(2) philosophy is that we think about places in which we work as whole human organisations. It is only when a good understanding of organisations as a whole is grasped, by taking into account the viewpoints of all concerned, that effective management can be achieved.

(Flood, 1995b:19)
One question appears: ‘How can we enrich our understanding of the whole organisation in these systemic terms?’ In this sense, Flood identified four dimensions of organisations which must be taken into account for problem solving to be effective.

(1) Organisational processes

The flows and controls, between customers and stakeholders, should be understood.

(2) Organisational design

The functions of organisations must be identified and how these functions are co-ordinated and controlled.

(3) Organisational culture

People understand things differently, need different things and do things in different ways. So, personal and cultural similarities and difference must be identified in organisations.

(4) Organisational politics

Normally, the power holders alone decide change in organisations. In this sense, intervention to bring organisational improvement raises the question, ‘who in the scheme of things may be regarded as influential in determining strategy, policy and what people do?’

TSI(2) deals with problems from these four dimensions through a system of methods. Consequently, there should be four types of method for problem solving. Flood noted that the image of organisations builds a framework of an ideal whole system view which has six steps of construction. These are: -
Organisational forms comprise technical and human activities. Organisational activities must be efficiently and effectively controlled (i.e., co-ordinated and mediated) whilst maintaining viability in line with TSI's[2] principles. Organisational activities must be directed to achieve some purpose. People appreciate organisational events in different ways. The previous two stages must be harmonised through organisational design and management style. Managers and problem solvers must accept responsibility for the impact of their decisions and policies on the physical, biological and social environment.

(Flood, 1995a:22-23)

TSI(2) provides these steps to lead the organisation towards an ideal whole system. Let us discuss the principles of TSI(2) in the next section.

2. Principles of TSI(2)

From the philosophy of TSI(2), the key principles for problem solving are set out below: “being systemic, achieving meaningful participation, being reflective and the goal of enhancing human freedom” (Flood, 1995a). Now, I discuss them in detail.

(1) Being systemic

Flood notes that 'systemic’ means ‘take into account the whole.’ Three hierarchical levels (‘the system,’ ‘the subsystems,’ and ‘the suprasystem’) must be taken into account for problem solving.

(2) Achieving meaningful participation

Of course, a broader understanding in organisations could be developed through an effective participation.
(3) Being reflective

This principle is quite different to the principles of TSI(1). TSI(2) discusses two reflective needs, one is 'to reflect upon the relationship between different organisational interests', the other one is 'to reflect upon the dominance of favoured approaches to intervention.' Through the reflection principle, a whole system understanding and relevant methods can be achieved.

(4) Enhancing human freedom

An explicit ideology of human freedom should be considered for effective management. Through the reflective principle, human freedom is enhanced; meaningful participation is achieved; and organisational forms take into account the whole. So, these four principles are interrelated and can support each other. These principles shape the process of TSI(2) which is discussed next.

3. Phases of TSI(2)

Like TSI(1), the process of TSI(2) has also three phases: creativity, choice, and implementation. Each phase supports to each other with no anticipated start and end. They are interrelated in a clockwise and anticlockwise direction as illustrated in Figure 5.3. There are some changes for these three phases. In this section, I will discuss these phases in detail. Following this, two modes (Critical Review Mode and Problem Solving Mode) working in a clockwise direction and one mode (Critical Reflection Mode) working in an anticlockwise direction will be discussed in the following section.
According to the phases of TSI(1), there are some improvements in TSI(2). These phases coexist in a recursive structure as illustrated in Figure 5.4. In fact, each phase also plays the role of subphase to each other. Each phase will be detailed as follows.

(1) Creativity

According to Figure 5.4, each subphase in the creativity phase is very important and must be considered (Flood, 1995a). Decontextualization, looking at the organisation from different angles, is ‘necessary to surface a wide range of issues to be managed.’ Then, contextualization helps to ‘make choices about which issues should be managed.’ I think, comparing with TSI(1), TSI’s(2) creativity phase has some changes: (a) It has been enriched in TSI(2) by including image generation and evaluation methods. (b) The ‘ergonomics of reflection’ idea is included in TSI(2). (c) Critical creativity is needed in the process of TSI(2).
Figure 5.4: Subactivities of the three phases of TSI (from Flood, 1995a:10)

(a) Basically the creativity phase in TSI(1), using the five metaphors has been criticised as follows:

[1] having only five metaphors is constraining and limiting;
[2] explanation has been given as to why the five metaphors have been chosen;
[3] no method has been given to help people to use the metaphors.

(Flood, 1995a:187)

The first [1] and second [2] points have been answered in Flood's (1995a) paper. For point [1], now, the five metaphors are used for contextualizing and decontextualizing, and image generation techniques are introduced including brainstorming (Osborn, 1963), idealized design (Ackoff, 1978), Nominal Group Technique (Delbecq et al., 1975), and so on. So, TSI(2) provides a broader view than only the five metaphors. For
point [2], the main attributes of the five metaphors, in Flood (1995a), are presented. For point [3], TSI(2) provides many methods to help people to use the metaphors (Flood, 1995b). In this way, the creativity phase of TSI(2) has been enriched.

(b) Flood referred to 'ergonomics of reflection' which means 'for the individual or the group concerned, the ergonomics of their particular situation provides surroundings that stimulate creative thinking' (Flood, 1995d). He suggested that organisations must give the chance for employees to reflect on their work situation.

(c) To reflect on the creativity phase, creativity should be critical because critique helps reflection in creative thinking. Ragsdell (1997) referred to 'critical creativity' and therefore 'asks for value judgments to be an integral part of the creativity-enhancing process.' The three commitments in CST (sociological awareness, complementarism, and human well-being emancipation) can be used to enhance the understanding of critical creativity. The four key principles in TSI(2), as mentioned above, are also brought into critical creativity. Furthermore, critical creativity is introduced to the three modes of TSI(2) which are discussed next.

I will use Midgley's words to summarise this section. The creative phase of TSI(2) involves three things: 'divergent metaphorical analysis;' 'the use of creativity-enhancing techniques;' and 'an understanding of the ergonomics of reflection' (Midgley, 1995).
(2) Choice

The purpose of the choice phase is to choose a method which can manage the issues raised by the creativity phase. Compared with TSI(1), the choice phase of TSI(2) also has some changes: (a) The System of Systems Methodologies (SOSM) has been abandoned. (b) The choice phase has been reworked.

(a) There are many critiques about the SOSM. Midgley (1990) criticised that it doesn't pay sufficient attention to dynamic and complicated situations. Gregory (1992) argued that the SOSM directs an organisation to accept one interpretation of each methodology. Some other criticisms are given by Taket (1992), Elstob (1992), Ghosal (1992), Green (1993), and so on. Flood noted that the SOSM had been criticised as follows:

- the framework is not suitable for practical works;
- methods are difficult to categorize;
- systems methods included in the SOSM are too limited.

(Flood, 1995a:188)

Following this, in TSI(2), the SOSM has been given up.

(b) From the other angle, the choice phase has been reworked. Flood identified three main purposes of problem solving methods as follows:

(i) designing effective and efficient processes and organisations, and how to implement them;
(ii) debating human and technical issues arising in organisations and deciding what to do about them;
(iii) disemprisoning people from dominating designs and dominating outcomes of debate.

(Flood, 1995a:181)
So far, the purpose of designing is to tackle technical problems and the purpose of debating and disemprisoning are to tackle human problems. There are two steps to choose a relevant method:

(I) choose the type of method
It is achieved by three questions: ‘How should we do it?’, ‘What should we do?’, and ‘What will be the benefit if this is done, or, why should it be done?’

(II) choose the actual method
It is made by identifying the principles of intervention.
The reworked process is detailed in Flood(1995a).

(3) Implementation
This step employs methods to implement relevant change proposals that might tackle the core issues.

4. Modes of TSI(2)
Expanding the basic structure as mentioned above, there are three modes of operation in the process of TSI(2): Critical Review Mode, Problem Solving Mode, and Critical Reflection Mode (Flood, 1995a). Following this, this section details the operation of each mode.

(1) Critical Review Mode (CRM)
The CRM operates in TSI by critically reviewing methods bidding to be incorporated in the system of methods used in the Problem Solving Mode. Flood (1995a) particularly indicated that the CRM was needed so that a system of methods was prepared, capable
of tackling the complex and diverse problems that we face today. He discussed three principles of CRM.

- Assume to start with that each method under review advocates forms of creativity, choice and implementation.
- Assume to start with that each method under review tackles TSI's four key dimensions of organization.
- Always assume that TSI can learn from the methods reviewed in terms of its own philosophy, principles, process and its own methods used to operationalise the three modes.

(Flood, 1995a:84)

Furthermore, he also indicated the following stages of the review process.

Methods are initially categorised according to the three phases of TSI. ... A second and equally important step in the review process focuses analysis on the constituents of the method under review that are categorised within the Implementation phase. ... Ultimately the review process builds up knowledge about methods under review in terms of TSI's philosophy, principles, process and methods.

(Flood, 1995a:84-86)

Wilby (1995) first followed Flood's concept in TSI which indicated that TSI can be used in three modes. Wilby designed CRM to be able to independently review candidate methodologies without carrying out the other two modes. She pointed out that CRE was helpful for researchers to learn from other methodology's process and philosophy and said:

Such a process of critique is most realistically performed by those people perhaps researchers, who are more likely to have the time and opportunity to invest in the exploration of a methodology's theory and practice, prior to the use of those methodologies in problem-solving interventions.

(Wilby, 1995:1)

Wilby (1996) developed six steps of process within TSI's three phases. The six steps of the critical review mode can be seen in detail (see Figure 5.5). This would provide
further enhancement and understanding of TSI at all levels, and provide an evaluation of the utility of the meta-methodology and its system of methods in the management of complex situations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup 1: Creativity/understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1 Details the candidate methodology’s philosophy, principles, methodological practice, and Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2 Critiques the candidate methodology in terms of how its theory, methodology, utility, and ideology address the technical, practical, and emancipatory knowledge-constitutive interests (Habermas, 1972) of the situation and its participant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup 2: Choice/categorizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 3 Evaluates which of the three phases, creativity, choice, and/or implementation, the candidate methodology contributes to using the three phases themselves as the process for evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4 Asks how the candidate methodology creates a vision of the organization-enterprise ideal while also tackling the four key dimensions of organization: efficient design, effective organization, culture, and politics (the “how?,” “what?,” and “why?” questions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5 Asks what meaning, if any, this candidate methodology gives to these four key principles of TSI: being systemic, being reflective, enhancing emancipation, and encouraging meaningful participation. (Realizing that each candidate methodology will answer these questions in different ways and using its own terms of reference.)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup 3: Implementation/analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 6 Asks how the information gathered in steps 1 to 5 combines to present a critique of the candidate methodology. How does this analysis enhance TSI and how does the information gathered enhance the candidate methodology itself? Finally, how does this critique enhance our understanding of the system of approaches and how is the system of approaches itself enhanced by this critique? In step 6 there is an accumulation of knowledge about a candidate methodology which is used to answer the questions detailed in this step. In addition, at this step there are also final questions about the methodology's ability to work instead of, or with, other methodologies which are already a part of the system of approaches. This will be discussed in greater detail in the explanation of step 6.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.5: The subgroups and steps of the Critical Review Mode (Wilby, 1996:126)

(2) Problem Solving Mode (PSM)

The Problem Solving Mode of TSI employs a system of methods for problem solving brought together through the CRM. It is done for each of the phases, Creativity, Choice and Implementation. Each of the three phases of TSI can be found actually within each of the three phases. That is, the three phases coexist in a recursive structure and I discuss this as follows.
(a) Creative
The first step is to use idea generation and evaluation and image generation and evaluation to challenge preconceived ideas about the issues in the organisations. The methods suggested to use for idea generation and evaluation are brainstorming and Nominal Group Technique (NGT). Five metaphors are used for image generation and evaluation: machine metaphor; organic metaphor; neurocybernetic metaphor; cultural metaphor; and political metaphor. The weaknesses and strengths of these metaphors can be seen in Flood and Jackson’s book (1991a). The output of the creativity step is an appreciation of the issues with the core ones highlighted.

(b) Choice
The choice step is to choose methods that might tackle the issues from the creativity step. Following the four dimensions of TSI (organisational processes, organisational design, organisational culture and organisational politics), some methods are suggested. For example, they might be Total Quality Management (TQM); Business Process Process Reengineering (BPR); Diagnosis for Effective Organisation (DEO); Exploring and Choosing Designs (ECD), Exploring and Making Decisions (EMD) and Testing Polarised Viewpoints (TPV); Critically Evaluating Designs and Decisions (CEDD); and so on. The output of the choice step is the choice of the most appropriate methods in the circumstances.

(c) Implementation
The implementation step is to employ the chosen methods to implement relevant change proposals that might tackle the core issues. The output of the implementation step is implementation of relevant change proposals.
The Critical Reflection Mode plays an important role in evaluating whether the output of the methods is appropriate in the anti-clockwise direction, raising questions about the outcome of the three phases. Each phase passes its outcome to the next phase in the clockwise Problem Solving Mode, but receives critical reflections on that outcome from the next phase in the anti-clockwise Critical Reflection Mode.

The Critical Reflection Mode makes use of the three general questions, 'How?', 'What?' and 'Why?'. Table 5.3 is a summary of the Critical Reflection Mode. The Critical Reflection Mode questions the adequacy of the output of the Problem Solving Mode and makes the problem solver think carefully about the result of their efforts.

Basically, TSI(1) can enhance integrated communications in planning designing and evaluation. TSI(2) can be used for integrated communications to provide a more creative and flexible management approach by regarding the organisation in terms of four dimensions: organisational process, organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics; and by more critically reviewing and reflecting on problem solving methodologies. Comparing this with traditional integrated communications approaches, it looks at integrated communications in a wider perspective. Moreover, TSI's (2) principles and philosophy can enhance IC approach to set up effective communication in organisations.
Table 5.3: Summary of Critical Reflection Mode of TSI (from Flood, 1995a:228)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'how?' questions</th>
<th>'what?' questions</th>
<th>'why?' questions</th>
<th>The 3 questions ask if the...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How did the method achieve the output?</td>
<td>What did the method do?</td>
<td>Why did the method achieve the output?</td>
<td>Output appropriate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How should the method achieve the output?</td>
<td>What should the method do?</td>
<td>Why should the method achieve the output?</td>
<td>Output appropriate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How could the method achieve better output?</td>
<td>What could the method have done?</td>
<td>Why could the method have achieved better results?</td>
<td>Output appropriate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How could another method achieved better output?</td>
<td>What would another method have done?</td>
<td>Why would another method achieved better results?</td>
<td>Method most suitable?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions ask if the output was most appropriate</td>
<td>questions ask if the method used was the most suitable one</td>
<td>questions ask if the method used was the most suitable one</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5 Flood and Romm’s Diversity Management

In 1996, Flood and Romm wrote a book ‘Diversity Management’ which included ‘diversity management’ and ‘triple loop learning.’ Diversity management talked about “managing the increasing diversity of issues that confront humankind in contemporary organisational and societal affairs” and triple loop learning aimed to increase “the fullness and deepness of learning about the diversity of issues and dilemmas faced” (Flood and Romm, 1996). Let us consider ‘diversity management’ first.

Diversity means that many choices have to be made to manage organisational business. Management means that these choices are intelligently considered and made responsibly. Flood and Romm looked at the metatheories of Kuhn, Habermas and Bohr and concluded that understanding is theory based, that knowledge is value-based and that any metatheory must include reflexivity to allow a necessary tension between rival theories. They developed an argument that a ‘complementarist’ (pluralist) brand of metatheory is needed which they called ‘Diversity Management,’ in order to deal effectively with the diversity of models, methodologies and theories available to address
issues and emphasise the need for learning and questioning. Diversity management is operationalised through ‘triple loop learning.’ In this study, metatheory is presented through philosophy and history of knowledge. Also explored is how disciplinary theory and methodology are positioned in the metatheoretical literature. Then, the developments of systems thinking are presented and positioned in the debate of metatheory. All of these build the theory of ‘diversity management’ which introduced Flood and Romm’s complementarist brand of metatheory.

‘Triple loop learning’ was presented to introduce the methodological and model-based thinking about diversity management. The three loops of learning are shown in Figure 5.6 through two different ways. Figure 5.6(a) shows a new reflexive consciousness being generated because practitioners continually move between the three loops. In contrast to Figure 5.6(b), there is less reflexive consciousness because consciousness has become stuck in the middle and only looks out. Let me explain the three loops firstly. Loop 1 is talking about design issues and asking the question ‘How?’ or ‘Are we doing things right?’ It covers organisational design which means ‘rules about effectiveness of functions and their organisation’ and process design which means ‘rules about efficiency of flows and control over flows.’ Loop 2 is talking about debate issues and asking the question ‘What?’ or ‘Are we doing the right things?’ When Flood and Romm (1996) talked about debate, they said:

Debate is about episodes of communication. Human episodes of communication are highly dynamic where ideas and opinions are exchanged between individuals and groups, and are interpreted by participants in the exchange.

(Flood and Romm, 1996:128)
Loop 3 is talking about disimprisoning issues and asking the question ‘Why?’ or ‘Is rightness buttressed by mightiness and/or mightiness buttressed by rightness?’ Disimprisoning refers to enlightenment of the mind to issues of power. It is a reflexive loop which involves deliberate questioning of the relevance and consideredness of viewpoints and stimulates how people undertake design and debate management.

According to Figure 5.6, these loops link through C which represents the interventionists’ consciousness. The looping in Figure 5.6(a) helps people to “develop a discourse for each centre of learning that enables them increasingly to become widely informed, especially as the discourse is related to issues that they face in their lives” (Flood and Romm, 1996). The looping in Figure 5.6(b) ceases to happen or never gets started. It depicts an operation of consciousness and unwillingness to reflect back on its premises.

Basically, triple loop learning is “choice making about purposes to pursue in the circumstances.” Besides, it “encourages interventionists to explore possible principles
and processes for action, also in the circumstances" (Flood and Romm, 1996). From a different angle, it can help integrated communications to increase the fullness and deepness of learning about issues and dilemmas faced and ways of managing them. Asking the three questions how, what, and why of triple loops learning will be useful for integrating the marketing and public relations functions and can help to tackle the three issues of IC identified in Chapter 2: how to help organisations to set up effective communications; how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders; and how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders.

5.6 Midgley’s Creative Design of Methods

Following reflection on a particular intervention, Midgley (1988) argued that many situations are very complex and different methodologies are needed to tackle the problems. To achieve this he introduced the concept of ‘creative methodology design’ which "involves understanding the problem situation in terms of a series of systemically interrelated research questions that express the purposes of the researcher" (Midgley, 1990). However, as Midgley’s understanding of pluralism developed, he replaced ‘creative methodology design’ with ‘creative design of methods’ in 1997.

In the creative design of methods, an important idea is that the method which is designed is not the same as the sum of its parts (Midgley, 1997a). One argument is the case study on the North Humberside Diversion from Custody Project (Cohen and Midgley, 1994). Flood and Romm (1995) said that only one methodology was used in this intervention. Midgley (1997a) defended that the creative design of methods
"involves understanding the problem situation in terms of a series of systemically interrelated research questions." Actually, it reflected a synthesis of the emancipatory principle from the methodologies of Critical Systems Heuristics and Interactive Planning. Midgley (1997a) pointed out that an understanding of the creative design of methods can solve two problems of 'oblique' interpretation. He said:

First, systems practitioners often find that they need to synthesise two or more principles, and this synthesis finds expression in an integration of two or more associated methods. ... Second, because the "oblique" interpretation acknowledges the possibility of using several methods together, but fails to recognise synthesis at the level of principles, it will tend to provide explanations of multi-method interventions that are easily contestable, and which cannot be adequately supported by empirical evidence.

(Midgley, 1997a:317)

So, the theory of the 'creative design of methods' may help integrated communications approaches by enhancing the understanding of the choice and mixing of parts of methods in order to offer more complete solutions.

5.7 A. Gregory’s System of Evaluation Methodologies

A. Gregory (1996) presented a system of evaluation methodologies that may help in the evaluation of methods (Figure 5.7). Four main models in evaluation theory were introduced and compared as shown in Table 5.4. So far, 'multidimensional evaluation' seeks to address a "host of organisational issues and represents an integration of the methodologies from a practical point of view and the use of the methodologies from a practical point of view and the use of the methodologies in parallel from a theoretical point of view" (A. Gregory, 1996). She also identified how TSI can be used in an evaluation theory through the three stages of creativity, choice and implementation (A. Gregory, 1994). Particularly, she presented a model
of good practice and an appropriate meta-methodology for evaluation which is based upon the existence of multiple methods of evaluation.

Nature of Relationship
Between Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Complex</th>
<th>Simple</th>
<th>Goal Based Evaluation</th>
<th>Pluralist</th>
<th>Coercive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Culture Based Evaluation</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Complex | System-Resource Based Evaluation | Multi-Actor Based Evaluation | ? |

Figure 5.7: A system of evaluation methodologies (from A. Gregory, 1996:300)

Table 5.4: Models of evaluation (from A. Gregory, 1996:298)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Definition of effectiveness</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Effectiveness is the organization’s ability to achieve goals</td>
<td>Formulating goals and objectives; identifying indicators; defining targets; monitoring activities; comparing actual, as per monitoring data, to ideal, as per targets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System-resource</td>
<td>Effectiveness is the organization’s ability to adapt and survive in a dynamic environment</td>
<td>Selecting an ideal model of the organization; comparing the actual organization to the ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-actor</td>
<td>Effectiveness is the organization’s ability to satisfy the needs of all those parties influenced by and having an influence upon its activities</td>
<td>Identifying interested parties; surfacing interested parties’ opinions about the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Effectiveness is the organization’s ability to generate and perpetuate a culture or cultures which, by facilitating the development of its members, enhances the organization’s own variety</td>
<td>Assessment of staff/volunteers’ strengths, abilities and development needs; discussion of how individuals’ needs fit in with those of the organization; production of a plan for change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Simple-Unitary: Goal Based Evaluation

The goal based evaluation was dominant during the early part of this century up to the late 1950s (A. Gregory, 1996). The goal based evaluation focuses on the operational goals of an organisation rather than universal abstract notions. Some references concerned about goal based evaluation can be seen in Drucker (1996);
Thompson and McEwen (1958). A. Gregory (1994) presented a nine stage process for the goal based evaluation as follows.

1. Formulate the goal statement
2. Translate the goal statement into a co-ordinated set of objectives
3. Identify indicators relevant to the objectives
4. Express the goal state in terms of the indicators (set targets)
5. Implement objectives and monitor activities
6. At period end, calculate the actual state of the indicators
7. Compare the actual state of the indicators achieved with the targets
8. Assess achievement
9. Review the process

(A. Gregory, 1994:90)

2. Complex-Unitary: System-Resource Based Evaluation

In the 1960s, another way of evaluation emerged- the system-resource based evaluation. Etzioni (1960) identified the differences between the system-resource model and the goal based model. A. Gregory and Jackson (1992) mentioned about the system-resource approach:

[It] does not judge the effectiveness of an organization directly by its achievements, rather the achievements and effectiveness are seen to follow from the quality of organizational processes taking place in the enterprise.

(A. Gregory and Jackson, 1992:23)

Some references concerned about system-resource based evaluation can be seen in Katz and Kahn (1966); Yuchtman and Seashore (1967); and Dyson and Foster (1983). A. Gregory (1994) focused on the form of evaluation to help the organisation to learn how it can change its processes and behaviour to be effective over time. She presented a six stage process for the system-resource based evaluation as follows.

1. Appoint a trusted expert or experts
2. Select ideal model(s) of the organisation
3. Review the organisation
4. Based on the review, compare the organisation with the ideal
3. Simple-Pluralist: Culture Based Evaluation

In the early 1980s, culture based evaluation was developed. This culture based model can be derived from considering the theory of autopoiesis (Maturana and Varela, 1980). Autopoiesis can be defined as the ‘self-production of component parts.’ Some references concerned about culture based evaluation can be seen in Deal and Kennedy (1982); Kanter (1983); and Schneider (1983).

A. Gregory (1994) identified Cummings' (1977) prescription which “needs to be supplemented with some kind of analysis of how the featuring of the individual's goals contributes to the organisation's overall variety and well-being.” She presented a six stage process for the culture based evaluation as follows.

1. Surface opinions and aspirations
2. Vision the organisation's future
3. Analyse the data
4. Develop career plans
5. Report back
6. Review the process

(A. Gregory, 1994:203)

4. Complex-Pluralist: Multi-Actor Based Evaluation

In the 1970s, a new paradigm shift happened in evaluation theory and practice with the development of the multi-actor model. This approach is ‘based upon the interactionist view which regards organizations as arenas of social action’ (A. Gregory and Jackson, 1992). Some references concerned about multi-actor based
evaluation can be seen in Pfeffer (1977); Pfeffer and Salancik (1978); Zammuto (1982).

With the multi-actor based evaluation, A. Gregory (1994) emphasised that efforts must be made to make sure the evaluation process includes all groups of interested stakeholders. She presented a ten stage process for the multi-actor based evaluation as follows.

1. Identify interested parties
2. Design an activity monitoring system
3. Monitor activities
4. Design the means of surfacing opinions
5. At period end, surface interested parties' opinions about past organisational activities and priorities and reveal interested parties' aspirations for future organisational activities and priorities
6. Analyse the data
7. Combine the two sets of data on activities and interested parties' opinions
8. Assess the level of interested party satisfaction
9. Revise planned activities
10. Review the process

(A. Gregory, 1994:160)

5. Simple-Coercive: Stake's Responsive Evaluation

A. Gregory (1994) proposed that Stake's (1980) responsive evaluation was 'the most appropriate form of evaluation for use in simple-coercive contexts.' Stake (1980) identified that there were twelve activities associated with conducting responsive evaluation which might be represented as a twelve hour clock:

12 o'clock: Talk with clients, program staff, audiences.
1 o'clock: Identify program scope.
2 o'clock: Overview program activities.
3 o'clock: Discover purposes concerns.
4 o'clock: Conceptualise issues.
5 o'clock: Identify data needs, issues.
6 o'clock: Select observers, judges; select instruments if any.
7 o'clock: Observe designed antecedents, transactions, and outcomes.
8 o'clock: Thematise; prepare portrayals, case studies.
9 o'clock: Validate; confirm; attempt to disconfirm.
10 o'clock: Winnow, match issues to audiences.
11 o'clock: Format for audience use.

(Cited from A. Gregory, 1994:297)

6. Complex-Coercive: Modernist and Post-Modernist Points of View

Following a discussion of responsive evaluation, attention was turned to considering what form an evaluation methodology for use in complex-coercive contexts and from other radical change perspectives might take. A. Gregory's (1994) suggestions were made for evaluation methodologies drawing upon both modernist and post-modernist points of view. These evaluation ideas of A. Gregory will be used to suggest ways to evaluate the effectiveness of communications in the IC model.

5.8 Gregory's Critical Appreciation

According to Gregory's (1992) critique of the system of systems methodologies, the critical appreciation was first introduced. Gregory (1992) discussed three approaches to paradigm analysis.

1. The ‘Objective Appreciation’ Mode

This model of scientific inquiry finds its epitome within the empirical-analytic sciences, and draws upon the natural science for its research model. The social world is treated as comprising tangible, hard, immutable social structures.

(Gregory, 1992:173)

Habermas (1972) argued that observations made through the empirical-analytic approach are "supposed to be reliable in providing immediate evidence without the admixture of subjectivity." Oliga (1988) indicated:
Empirical-analytic sciences are constituted by, and hence presuppose, the "technical" interest, which aims at the instrumental control of natural and social processes....

(Oliga, 1988:101)

Gregory (1992) talked about the main difficulty of the objective appreciation method of analysis as that it is incapable of appreciating its own role in the communicative interchange in a society and how this affects the society. This is why an alternative approach is required and it can be seen in the historical-hermeneutic sciences.

2. The ‘Subjective Appreciation’ Mode

This model reflects our interest in understanding intersubjective communications ... Through this model the observer becomes the “participant observer”, and the problematic comes to involve understanding of “contexts of meaning” as well as the observation of events. The historical-hermeneutic sciences take their focus to be the communications and interactions of communities and thus epitomise the subjective appreciation mode.

(Gregory, 1992:179)

Habermas links this approach with the practical cognitive interest, since the historical-hermeneutic sciences take as their subject the intersubjective communicative actions of a community. Habermas (1972) pointed out that in the objective appreciation approach, experimentation provides the normalisation of pragmatic rules of technical control. The subjective appreciation approach, in contrast provides the ‘scientific form of the interpretative activities of everyday life.’

3. The ‘Critical Appreciation’ Mode

This third model takes as its purpose a critical reevaluation of the objective structures of work and language together with an analysis of the normative content of those interests. It is driven by a compulsion to overcome suffering and thus has an interest in emancipation. The approach strives to remove
barriers to understanding which are created by distortions in both spheres of human interest: communication (language) and behaviour (work).

(Gregory, 1992: 185)

There are four prerequisites for any inquiry to be considered 'critical' in Habermas's sense. Gregory (1992) suggested that a critical appreciation approach should include two distinctive cycles: 'scientific inquiry' (including empirical-analytic and historical-hermeneutic) and 'reflexive inquiry' (including ideology-critique and self-reflection). The critical appreciation process is shown in Figure 5.8.

![Figure 5.8: The Critical Appreciation Model (from Midgley, 1997b:268)](image)

The Critical Appreciation Mode (CAM) is based on CST and it can be regarded as a sufficient model for pluralism. The different CAM stages are as follows.

(1) Empirical-analytical sciences

Gregory (1992) suggested that the Objective Appreciation Model of scientific inquiry finds its epitome within the empirical-analytical sciences, and draws upon the natural sciences for its research model. The social world is treated as comprising tangible, hard, immutable social structures. However, tangible communication channels must be created within the group in this stage. Johansen (1988) discussed Group Decision Support Systems (GDSS) which is similar to collaborative writing in that it involves group effort mediated by technology. The basic goal of a GDSS is to support...
collaborative work activities such as idea creation, project planning, message exchange, mutual product creation, document preparation, and joint planning and decision making. The least sophisticated systems provide technical features aimed at removing common communication barriers. The most sophisticated systems are characterised by computer-aided group communication and involve expert advice in the selecting and arranging of rules to be applied during interpersonal communication (Marshall and Geraldine, 1992). This stage derives originally from hard engineering systems in Harry's (1994) General Communication System Model. These communication theories are concerned with tangible information collecting and only focus on goal-achievement. So, in the stage of empirical-analytical, they usually ignore achievement of common consensus.

(2) Historical-hermeneutic sciences

Jackson (1991b) talked about historical-hermeneutic sciences seeking to access meaning and to understand the creation of the intersubjective life world. In this stage, participants express their views, based on their different interests and paradigms, with the aim of understanding the participant current dissatisfaction and possibilities for improvement (Gregory, 1992). There are many soft systems methodologies which can be applied in this stage which provide some means for participants to express their own interests.

(3) Ideology-critique

Ideology-critique will be shown to rely upon theories which seek to explain the processes through which false consciousness is generated and maintained, thereby preventing humans from realising their genuine interests.

(Gregory, 1992: 242)

Gregory used different ideology-critique studies which contain methodological features to transfer to the critical appreciation mode. The similarities and differences are
discussed between Marx’s, Habermas’s, and Giddens’s Ideology-Critique (Gregory, 1992). These theories paint a richer picture of the methodological features of ideology-critique are discussed in Gregory (1992).

(4) Critical self-reflection

Based on Freud’s psychoanalytic approach, especially his model of dream-analysis, Habermas developed the model of critical self-reflection. He said:

Psychoanalysis is relevant to us as the only tangible example of a science incorporating methodical self-reflection. The birth of psychoanalysis opens up the possibility of arriving at the dimension that positivism closed off, and of doing so in a methodological manner that arises out of the logic of inquiry.

(Habermas, 1972:214)

Gregory (1992) showed how dream-analysis could be used as an analogy for critical self-reflection. For Gregory, critical self-reflection was concerned with the researcher’s own assumptions. Gregory (1992) indicated that researchers must think about how their assumptions might influence their understanding of the problem situation under investigation. She said:

It is clear that, in understanding the critically self-reflexive part of the critical inquiry, researchers must consider how their own assumptions might affect their understanding of the problem situation under investigation. In particular, note must be taken of whether mechanisms attributed with a specific role in some previous intervention are of importance in the current inquiry. The universality of any noted subjugating forces must always be called into question. Critical reflection will serve to reveal the distortions in the “text” that participants have created; it will also serve to reveal the meaning of the distortion itself, i.e. why the participants have acted in a manner which reinforced and maintained the delusions they were labouring under.

(Gregory, 1992:227)

Gregory emphasised that the processes of ideology-critique and critical self-reflection must be used together. She pointed out that:
critical self-reflection without ideology-critique cannot hope to change the status quo of individual subjugation. Similarly, we have seen that ideology-critique even when linked with action, may not bring about the desired changes in the social system without corresponding individual self-reflection.

(Gregory, 1992: 372)

She made it clear that no single method currently available within the systems domain is able to provide adequate support to these four aspects (empirical-critique, historical-hermeneutic, self-reflection, and ideology-critique). Interventions must mix different methods so these four aspects can all be included. The critical appreciation can help IC researchers to engage in a critical appreciation process: “to observe, converse with others, self-reflect and conduct critiques of society” (Midgley, 1997b). In this thesis, I use quantitative and qualitative research methods which support to four aspects from Gregory. This helps the research because it includes not only empirical-critique and historico-hermeneutic but also the aspects of self-reflection and ideology-critique.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the development of pluralism particularly in relation to six approaches to pluralism in systems thinking. It has been shown that the recognition of the need for pluralism in management thinking came from the criticisms of the hard and soft systems approaches in terms of the limited range of their usefulness. Pluralism was seen as a way to re-establish the credibility and utility of management science. It came to be appreciated that different methodologies had different strengths and weaknesses which should be known and utilised in a complementary way.
Initially, this was through the SOSM framework, and subsequently this clarification was used within the methodology TSI(1) which offered a critical and more comprehensive approach to planning, designing, problem solving and evaluation. TSI(2) was developed to provide a more creative and flexible management approach which regarded the organisation in terms of four key dimensions: organisational process, organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics. Diversity management/triple loop learning introduce a way to create a heightened reflexive consciousness by asking the right questions and learning. Midgley then pointed out that methods could be designed by mixing and combining methodologies to be more flexible and effective. In particular, the ‘rolling programme’ can be used to tackle the second issue of IC in this thesis—how to identify their specific stakeholders in organisations. A. Gregory’s system evaluation methodologies can help to tackle the third issue of IC in this thesis—how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. Gregory’s critical appreciation can enhance IC in four aspects (empirical-critique, historical-hermeneutic, ideology-critique, and self-reflection) to observe, converse with others, self-reflect and conduct critiques of society. This research used quantitative and qualitative methods to achieve these four aspects.

It is clear that the pluralist approaches have a number of virtues which could be very useful for IC. There are many methods and approaches which are used in marketing and public relation, and if these two departments are combined into a more effective IC function then there will need to be a critical pluralist recognition that the various approaches, methods and methodologies have their strengths and weaknesses, so that the most appropriate and effective methods can be selected for use. Furthermore, a combined IC function can be usefully considered in terms of four dimensions:
organisational process, organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics. The three questioning loops of triple loop learning will be useful for questioning the efficiency, effectiveness and reasons for using particular methods, communication links, awareness integration, unified image, database integration, customer-based integration, stakeholders-based integration, and evaluation integration and for surfacing issues to increase understanding and bring improvement. Also, the potential for further enhancing IC by mixing and combining methodologies must be realised. Furthermore, the need for critical review, reflection and evaluation in pluralism has highlighted the importance of building a critical evaluation system into the IC approach.
This thesis tackles the problem of how communications functions can be integrated and made more effective in organisations. Therefore, a major concern of the thesis is to surface issues affecting the quality of IC in organisations and to develop a model to solve these problems. In this part, the various practical approaches used to surface issues of IC in actual organisations are explained and then it will be possible to offer suggestions for desirable and feasible change. Chapter 6 discusses the research methods. Chapter 7 presents the data analysis of the questionnaire and Chapter 8 discusses interview results. Chapter 9 presents the case studies to validate the research findings and assist in the interpretation of the results.

Part III will later describe the integrated communications process of gathering and analysing data in more detail, focusing on the process of implementing TQM through pluralist approaches.
CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design which has been used to realise the practical research objective. Chapter 2 identified the three main issues of IC which are tackled by this research. In order to do that, the research is designed to discover 'what' and 'how' Taiwanese companies have done concerning IC. The first section describes basic research design revolving around two general groups: quantitative and qualitative. These research approaches are discussed in more detail in the following section.

6.2 Research Approaches

As shown in Figure 6.1, this research proceeded in three phases over a period of four years. First, a qualitative approach that included a literature review was employed. This phase began in April 1995 and ended in June 1997. The purpose of this phase was to get basic knowledge about the thesis topic, to realise the thesis domain, and to identify the aspects related to integrated communications that might have been overlooked in the marketing and public relations literature. Moreover, I examined some of the modern management approaches such as TQM, systems thinking and pluralist approaches to see how they could enhance IC in organisations. Secondly, a quantitative approach that included the development of a questionnaire was conducted from July 1997 to May 1998. In the same phase, a qualitative approach that included interviews with several managers from five different companies was conducted to find the issues of IC in
Taiwanese companies from June 1998 to November 1998. Lastly, three companies were selected to do the case studies. Qualitative research interviews were conducted from December 1998 to May 1999 to validate the research findings, to assist in the interpretation of the results and to develop a new model of IC.

Neuman (1997) defined ‘triangulation’ as “using different types of measures, or data collection techniques, in order to examine the same variable.” Triangulation could improve the accuracy of the research’s judgements and thus lead to more valid results, by collecting different kinds of data bearing on the same phenomenon. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative methods are used to explore and understand the current situation and issues of IC in Taiwanese companies.

6.3 Methods of Data Collection

Several methods of data collection were used as discussed below.
6.3.1 Collecting Qualitative Data

Phase one of this thesis started with an overview of the literature to get some basic knowledge for the study. This qualitative phase identified the aspects related to IC which could be found in the literature and which have been discussed in Chapter 2. Based on Chapter 2, the main issues of IC were identified. Following that, several modern management approaches (e.g. TQM, systems thinking and pluralism) were examined to see how they could enhance IC in organisations. The ideas from these approaches contributed to the phases two and three of this thesis as already discussed in Chapter 3, Chapter 4, and Chapter 5. Moreover, they help phase 2 and 3 to be more broadly based to tackle the main issues of IC in the thesis.

6.3.2 Questionnaire Design

Phase two of this research included using a questionnaire to collect quantitative data. Based on knowledge drawn from the literature review, a considerable amount of time was dedicated to the development of the questionnaire. The questionnaire served as the tool for getting larger scale data to test the main issues of IC in the thesis. Questionnaires, which respondents fill in for themselves, are very efficient in terms of research time and effort. In the social sciences, ‘scaling’ is applied to the procedures for attempting to determine quantitative measures of subjective abstract concepts (Bernard, 1971). Scaling is defined as “a procedure for the assignment of numbers (or other symbols) to a property of objects in order to impart some of the characteristics of numbers to the properties in question” (Bernard, 1971). While there are several types of scaling techniques which have been used in questionnaires, the summated rating (or
Likert scale is widely used and has the added advantage of being relatively easy to develop. The summated rating scale is most useful when it is possible to compare the individual person score with a distribution of scores from some well defined group. Referring to this research, the average score of each organisation can be counted and compared with the total average score of all organisations. Particularly, the average scores of organisations can be counted to show where the organisations stand on the integration scale in Taiwan.

The summated rating scale has many advantages that account for its popularity. It is easy and quick to construct. Using an adapted version of the questionnaire taken from the summated rating scale, each aspect of IC can be checked to ascertain whether it is effective or weak in organisations compared with the average for the organisations. Moreover, I am able to discuss how aspects of IC relate to each other through the bivariate correlation. As mentioned in Chapter 2, I try to tackle three main issues of IC in the thesis. In order to do that, it is very important to understand the situation in Taiwan.

Using a questionnaire and a combination of postal request, I aimed to ascertain:

(1) Where do organisations stand on the integration scale in Taiwan?
(2) Which aspect of IC is effective or weak in organisations?
(3) How do aspects of IC relate to each other?

These questions can help to realise the current situation about IC in Taiwanese companies. This situation can be related to the three main issues of IC in the thesis and we can know which aspect of IC is poor and can be improved. I have developed a
questionnaire that helps determine which areas organisations need to focus on to become more integrated. The questionnaire has twenty questions which evaluate the extent to which an integrated communications process exists in the organisation. These questions were designed following the six aspects of IC that I proposed in Chapter 2. Respondents were asked to place value on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statements, by circling a number on a five-point Likert scale to reflect strongly agree, agree, don’t know, disagree, and strongly disagree.

1. Aspect one: awareness integration

Aspect one contains the following statements:

(1) Our organisation forces the assessment of changes in the business, social, technological, political, and cultural environments.

(2) Our organisation has strong awareness of integrated communications approach.

(3) The people managing our communication programmes have a good understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of all major methods in developing communication strategy.

(4) A SWOT analysis is used to determine the strengths and opportunities we can leverage, and the weaknesses and threats we need to address, in our communication planning.

The first statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation has strong awareness of the changeable environments. As it is my hypothesis that an organisation with an integrated communications philosophy would be highly skilled in making assessments of changes in the business, social, technological, political, and cultural environments in Taiwan, I would expect that these respondents would answer ‘strongly
agree.' The second statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation currently has an awareness of an integrated communications policy. It is my hypothesis that an organisation which perceives itself to have an integrated communications policy, would answer 'strongly agree.' The third statement then tries to ascertain whether the manager of communication programmes has a good understanding of all major communication tools. It is my hypothesis that if the manager of communication programmes is really skilled in using all major communication tools, I would expect that respondent to answer 'strongly agree.' The fourth question is designed to ascertain whether the organisation uses a SWOT analysis. It is my hypothesis that an organisation which often uses a SWOT analysis, would answer 'strongly agree.'

2. Aspect two: unified image

Aspect two contains the following statements:

(1) Our organisation communicates a coherent brand/corporate image very well.
(2) Our organisation mission is a key consideration in our communication planning.
(3) Our mission provides an additional reason for customers and other key stakeholders to believe our messages and support our organisation.
(4) We do a good job of internal marketing, informing all areas of the organisation about our mission and marketing programmes.

The first statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation communicates a coherent brand image. It is my hypothesis that an organisation which thinks it is important to communicate a coherent brand image, would answer 'strongly agree.' The second statement tests whether the organisation mission is strongly considered in communication planning. It is my hypothesis that if communication planning really
considers organisation mission, would answer 'strongly agree.' The third statement then tries to ascertain whether the organisation mission is good enough to make key stakeholders trust the organisation. It is my hypothesis that if respondents consider that an organisation mission really encourages key stakeholders to trust the organisation, that respondents would answer 'strongly agree.' The fourth statement is designed to ask how successful an organisation informs all its areas about an organisation mission. It is my hypothesis that if an organisation strongly emphasises its mission all over the organisation, that respondents would answer 'strongly agree.'

3. Aspect three: database integration

Aspect three contains the following statements:

(1) Special programmes are in place to facilitate customer inquires and complaints.

(2) In our databases we capture customer inquiries, complaints, compliments, offers, and sales behaviour (e.g., trial, repeat, frequency of purchase).

(3) Our customer databases are easily accessible and use friendly.

The first statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation currently has particular programmes to facilitate customer inquires. It is my hypothesis that the organisation which really has special programmes for customers, would answer 'strongly agree.' The second statement tries to ascertain whether the databases are good enough to capture the main consumer behaviour. It is my hypothesis that if the databases are very poor in reflecting consumer behaviour, that respondents would answer 'strongly disagree.' The third statement then tests whether the databases are easily used. It is my hypothesis that if the databases are easily used, that respondents would answer 'strongly agree.'
4. Aspect four: customer-based integration

Aspect four contains the following statements:

(1) Our organisation recognises and takes advantage of all its brand contact points.

(2) Our organisation has developed a comprehensive contact point list and understands the nature of the interaction.

(3) We think carefully about the messages being sent by our pricing, distribution, product performance, service operations, and others beyond the control of the organisation.

The first statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation recognises all the brand contact points. It is my hypothesis that if an organisation really identifies all its brand contact points, that respondents would answer ‘strongly agree.’ The second statement tests whether the organisation understands the interaction between contact points. It is my hypothesis that if the organisation understands the interaction between contact points, that respondents would answer ‘strongly agree.’ The third statement then tries to ascertain whether the messages which are sent out are beyond the control of the organisation. It is my hypothesis that if the organisation really controls the messages through contact points, I would expect that respondents would answer ‘strongly agree.’

5. Aspect five: stakeholders-based integration

Aspect five contains the following statements:

(1) Our organisation has developed a good process of identifying key stakeholders.

(2) Our organisation communicates its key messages to priority stakeholders very well.
(3) In our organisation, the process of managing brand/organisation reputation and building stakeholder relationships is only the responsibility of the public relations department.

The first statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation identifies its key stakeholders. It is my hypothesis that if an organisation does identify its key stakeholders, that respondents would answer ‘strongly agree.’ The second statement tests whether the organisation communicates to its key stakeholders very well. It is my hypothesis that if an organisation does communicate to its key stakeholders well, that respondents would answer ‘strongly agree.’ The third statement then tries to ascertain whether only the public relations department manages brand reputation and builds stakeholder relationships in the organisation. It is my hypothesis that if each department works cross-functionally to build stakeholder relations, that respondents would answer ‘strongly disagree.’ This question is asked in an opposite way. This helps to check whether the respondent reads the questionnaire carefully or not.

6. Aspect six: evaluation integration

Aspect six contains the following statements:

(1) Our organisation uses some type of tracking study to evaluate the strength of our relationships with customers and key stakeholders.

(2) In our organisation, the method used in developing communication strategy is the most suitable one.

(3) In our organisation, the output of the method for developing communication strategy is appropriate.
The first statement is designed to ascertain whether the organisation currently has a tracking study for evaluation. It is my hypothesis that if an organisation really has a tracking study for evaluation, that respondents would answer 'strongly agree.' The second statement evaluates whether the method used in communication strategy is suitable. It is my hypothesis that if an organisation really has a good method in communication strategy, that respondents would answer 'strongly agree.' The third statement then tries to ascertain to what extent the output of the communication strategy is useful for the respondent. It is my hypothesis that if the output of the communication strategy is useful, that respondents would answer 'strongly agree.'

Furthermore, the score from each aspect was also determined in an abbreviated form to reveal which stage was strong or weak. The total average score was calculated from all of these questions. This score can be used to show how effective the integrated communications process is in an organisation.

I sent a letter to every company, usually addressed the envelope to the director of PR department or director of marketing. My idea was that if the company had a PR department, the questionnaire will go directly to PR director who has knowledge of all stakeholders and rather than only customers which is usually the case with marketing director. However, if there were no PR director the questionnaire will directly go to marketing director who will be able to supply useful information. I recommend that in future research questionnaire should be sent to all director of the company, so that a different perspective about IC can be obtained. This will allow comparisons and contract to be drawn.
Two additional letters were enclosed: one was from my supervisor in University of Hull in UK, the other one was from Professor She of National Cheng-Kung University in Taiwan (Appendix 2). The questionnaires (Appendix 3) were sent to eighty companies that include Top 50 manufacturing companies and Top 30 service companies (the data came from Common Wealth Magazine, 1998). It usually took about four weeks from sending out the questionnaires to receiving them back. In the following four weeks, I analysed the data and selected five organisations to get access for interviews. These five organisations should include four manufacturing companies and one service company. Entering, coding, and tabulating the data from the interviews and content analysis took a further eight weeks. The SPSS computer package was selected to do this work. The final report identifying the strengths and weaknesses of organisation communications capability and recommending how the strengths could be leveraged and weaknesses addressed was ready after twenty-six weeks.

6.3.3 Interviews

Phase two of this research also included using interviews to collect qualitative data. Personal interviewing is a two-way purposeful conversation initiated by an interviewer to get information that is relevant to the research purpose. Reflecting on this research, interviews were conducted to obtain a greater understanding of the present situation of IC in Taiwanese organisations. There are several different kinds of interviews. I used the semi-structured interview, which is

Where the interviewer has worked out a set of questions in advance, but is free to modify their order based upon her perception of what seems most appropriate in the context of the 'conversation', can change the way they are worded, give explanations, leave out particular questions which seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee or include additional ones.
Based on the three main issues of IC in this thesis, the interviews were used to know ‘what’ and ‘how’ the companies have done about IC. This helped to know the detail of the three main issues of IC in Taiwanese companies. Using the semi-structured interview, I tried to ascertain:

(1) What kinds of communication issues do the companies have and how to solve these problems?
(2) What innovations would you add to the IC approach to make it more effective?

Interviews were conducted to obtain a greater understanding of the current situation of communications capability in these five organisations which were selected from the eighty organisations. This study is based on leading total quality companies which provide high quality integrated communications to their key stakeholders. I relied on the judgement of a number of industry professionals and professors to select the companies. Two experts assisted me more than any other in selecting companies, Dr. She C., Professor in Organisation Communication at the National Chung-Kung University, and Dr. Lin C., Professor in Total Quality Management at the National Chung-Kung University.

The following five companies were selected and accepted to participate: Chinese Petroleum Corp., First International Computer Inc., Chi Mei Corp., President Enterprises Corp., and Taiwan Power Corp. The five companies are the indicator companies in Taiwan. It does mean that these companies are leading TQM companies in
the sense of having arrived at optimal solutions for other companies to emulate. Like Senge's (1990) words:

they are ‘experimental laboratories,’ where important questions are being addressed and new insights are forming

(Senge, 1990:272)

These companies and individuals at each company constitute a theoretical sample, rather than a random sample. They are selected because of their apparent ability to contribute to the research question. Basically, we chose these companies based on their assets, sales, profit, capital and other indicators. Particularly, I carried out the interviews with the top one manufacturing company and top one service company. These two companies are national organisations, and especially they are monopolies. They have the largest market share in their sector in Taiwan. Recently, the environment of culture and politics has been changing very quickly in Taiwan. Our government will shortly reorganise these two companies to be private companies. So, the organisation structure will be redesigned. They have occupied the market for a long time and they really have traditional culture. From many angles, it is worth understanding their situations and giving suggestions. The other three companies have received the nation's most coveted quality award. These three companies are all manufacturing companies. The reason I chose them is that the manufacturing companies of Taiwan have developed very quickly in these years and they also occupy a big market all over the world. Selecting companies with coordinated processes to provide high quality communication with their stakeholders was difficult because of the lack of established criterion to judge such quality. However, a leading total quality management company might reasonably be expected to have high quality communication. The five companies are different in geographical location, service vs. product orientation, and professional focus vs.
consumer focus. Glaser and Strauss (1967) point out such a maximization of differences can stimulate the generation of additional categories and theory insights, then the findings could be more universally applicable.

I sent a letter to one person at each company, normally the most senior public relations or marketing communication director, asking for an interview with him/her and with managers from other communication disciplines. Two letters were enclosed: one was from my supervisor Dr. Gregory of University of Hull in UK, the other one was from Professor She of National Cheng-Kung University in Taiwan. There were about five interviewees in each organisation.

I studied each of the five selected organisations through secondary sources before the interviews because these sources added value to the analysis. Personal interviews generally took about forty-five minutes to one hour and took place at the interviewees' offices. The question guide that was used in the interviews is given in Appendix 4. It allocated five minutes to discuss the interviewees' job function. After that, I discussed some questions following the Appendix 4. This took another forty minutes.

Question one (Please tell me about the role of your department and your personal job function.) was asked to find out the interviewee's situation. Question two (What is the current communication strategy of your organisation? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the current communication strategy?) was asked to uncover the current situation of marketing communication strategy and identify its perceived strengths and weaknesses. Also discussed was how integrated communications works between the organisation and its key stakeholders. Question three (How well does your organisation
have the awareness of integrated communications approach? How can it be improved?)
was asked to know how well the organisation has the awareness of integrated
communications and try to improve the awareness of integrated communications.
Question four (What communication level is not good enough and can be improved?
One-on-one-level? Team-level? Company level? Or community-level? How is it
defective? How might it be improved?) was asked to find the problems of
communication process in more detail and try to solve these problems. Question five
(What are the important factors which influence the communications quality in your
organisation? Organisational process? Organisational structure? Organisational culture?
Organisational politics? How do these factors influence the communications quality?
How can they be improved?) was asked to know what kind of factors influence the
communication quality and how they can be improved. The organisation was asked to
identify the problems in these four dimensions and find suitable methods to solve them.
I want to emphasise here, that I chose to use four dimensions to identify the problems
because the review of TSI(2) in Chapter 5 revealed that this would help to obtain a
holistic view of the problems rather than only focusing on improving the process of
communication in organisations. Question six (What type of tracking study is used to
evaluate the communication quality between your organisation and customers or other
stakeholders? What are the strengths and weaknesses? How can it be improved?) was
asked to understand the current evaluation system for communication quality and how
the respondent thought it could be improved. Question seven (What processes for
coordinating and integrating the various communications functions at your organisation
that we have not mentioned, do you find important?) was asked to get different opinions
which I may have missed.
Reliability and validity are central issues in all scientific measurement. Both are salient in social research because constructs in social theory are always diffusing, ambiguous, and not directly observable. Basically, reliability “tells us about an indicator's dependability and consistency” and validity “tells us whether an indicator actually captures the meaning of the construct in which we are interested” (Neuman, 1997). Since the issues of reliability and validity are very important, I discuss them to ensure the quality of the research in the following.

### 6.4.1 Reliability

According to Neuman (1997), reliability means that “the information provided by indicators (e.g., a questionnaire) does not vary as a result of characteristics of the indicator, instrument, or measurement device itself.” He further proposed four principles to increase the reliability of measures: “(1) clearly conceptualize constructs, (2) use a precise level of measurement, (3) use multiple indicators, and (4) use pilot tests.”

In the thesis, I looked in the literature and found an instrument that had been used previously in the U.S. and I adapted it. I went through many drafts of a question before I was satisfied with the final version. I tested early versions by asking some experts the questions and checking to see whether they were very clear. This helped to establish the reliability measurement for this study.
6.4.2 Validity

According to Bohrnstedt (1983), validity ‘indicates the degree to which an instrument measures the construct under investigation.’ The American Psychological Association (1974) distinguishes between three types of validity: criterion-related, content, and construct. These three types of validity are discussed in the following.

1. Criterion-Related Validity

Criterion-related validity is defined as “the correlation between a measure and some criterion variable of interest” (Bohrnstedt, 1983). Moreover, he points out that criterion-related validity is broken into two types: predictive and concurrent. As he noted, predictive validity is “an assessment of an individual's future standing on a criterion variable and can be predicted from present standing on a measure.” Concurrent validity is assessed by “correlating a measure and a criterion of interest at the same point in time.”

In this study, criterion validity of the IC factor measures would be demonstrated if the scores on the measures, positively and highly correlated with the IC approach. The examination showed that six factors of IC were positively and highly correlated with the IC approach. This result was a good indicator of the high criterion validity of this study.

2. Content Validity

Content validity “refers to the degree that one has representatively sampled from that domain of meaning” (Bohrnstedt, 1983). Content validity implies that all aspects of the attribute being measured are considered by the instrument.
In this study, the research was designed based on a comprehensive review of the literature and detailed evaluations by some experts.

3. Construct Validity

Construct validity is for 'measures with multiple indicators' (Neuman, 1997). It is concerned not only with the question 'Does it work?' but also with the development of criteria that permit answering theoretical questions about why it works and what deductions can be made concerning the theory underlying the instrument.

In this study, construct validity includes how well the IC factor measures work and why the measures work. The factor analysis can be used to explore the possible construct underneath the IC factor instrument. The significance of Bartlett's test ($P<0.001$) suggests that there is a clear construct embedded in the instrument design. Moreover, the Integrated Communications Model (see Chapter 10), which is developed based on the IC factors, can help to indicate the high construct validity of this study.

6.5 Sampling Design

According to Neuman (1997), sampling is "a process of systematically selecting cases for inclusion in a research project." Sampling can help the researcher to reduce workforce requirements, cut cost, get information more quickly, and gather more comprehensive data. A carefully designed sampling process must be used to collect a sufficient sample size for data analysis.
6.5.1 Defining the Population

A sample is the identification and definition of the population of interest to which we wish to generalise. In the study, I chose bounded geographical stratification for identification of a population. A set of criteria for inclusion in the sample were formulated, the rational for which I will turn to next.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Criteria</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. must be independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. has been in operation for at least three years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. is a manufacturing or a service company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. has more than 150 million (Taiwan dollars) sales</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. must be independent

Independence in this sense is therefore purely legal. But reflects the fact that the organisation is totally responsible for its own communications.

2. has been in operation for at least three years

The company must have been in operation for at least two years since first year of sales in order to assess growth performance.

3. is a manufacturing or a service company

Harris (1987) explained that manufacturing companies were the focus of his research because of the wide support for their “leading role in generating the wealth and income which in turn can support an expansion in other sectors.” By the way, manufacturing and service companies have developed very quickly in recent years. So, manufacturing and service companies were chosen for this study.
4. has more than 150 million (Taiwan dollars) sales

I want to know how the leading companies implement their communication process. So, the big companies that have more than 150 million (Taiwan dollars) sales are considered.

### 6.5.2 Selecting a Sample

It is useful to separate the total population into subgroups, called strata, for purposes of making the sample more efficient. Stratified sampling is "intended to provide the smallest sampling error and hence the most information for the available resources" (Sudman, 1983). The stratified sampling selects the Top 1000 manufacturing companies and the Top 500 service companies. Sampling criteria within the strata were outlined earlier. The leading companies that I chose, which included the Top 50 manufacturing companies and the Top 30 service companies, are listed in Appendix 5.

### 6.6 Data Analysis

Survey data, which rely on voluntarily returned questionnaires, are subject to many sources of error. People may fail to answer certain questions, recall events incorrectly, deliberately distort the truth, and so on. Basically, there are some measures that can be taken to minimise errors. For example, the questionnaire responses, which were received from the survey, were carefully checked for errors. As I mentioned earlier, question 16 was asked in an opposite way. This helped to check whether the respondent read the questionnaire carefully or not.
The SPSS computer package was selected to do the analysis. The easiest way to describe the numerical data of one variable is with a frequency distribution. The frequency distribution can be used to identify two research questions: where do the organisations stand on the integration scale in Taiwan and which aspect of IC is effective or weak in organisations? Bivariate statistics, which describe the relationship between variables, were used to identify one research question: how aspects of IC relate to each other?

6.7 Case Studies

After survey research, the case studies were used to enhance the fieldwork and make it stronger. The qualitative research interview was designed as case studies to understand the findings of the survey research in detail. Kvale (1983) defined the qualitative research interview as 'an interview whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena.' Moreover, in Bryman's words:

By combining the two [quantitative and qualitative researches], the researcher's claims for the validity of his or her conclusions are enhanced if they can be shown to provide mutual confirmation.

(Bryman, 1992:131)

Phase three of this research involved a further qualitative research interview stage. The purpose of this phase was to discuss the research findings with interviewees in order to explain and validate the findings of the questionnaire. Furthermore, it is used as the base of developing a new model of IC.
6.8 Conclusion

This chapter has described how qualitative and quantitative researches were used to carry out the survey study of IC in Taiwanese companies and to generate the data for analysis. In the next chapter, the data is presented and analysed. The aim is to reveal the current status of communications activities in leading Taiwanese companies and to surface the main issues confronting communications improvement. This will indicate the capabilities that are required of a revised more effective IC model.
CHAPTER 7: DATA ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

7.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with descriptive analysis of the questionnaire results. This analysis will show that there are six aspects of IC (awareness integration, unified image, database integration, customer-based integration, stakeholders-based integration, and evaluation integration) which need to be considered in the IC process. One point which is of high concern to me is about the questionnaire response rate. Consequently, I used many techniques to stimulate the response rate which included maintaining respondent anonymity, giving clear instructions for answering the questions and providing stamped envelopes. The questionnaires were sent to top 50 manufacturing companies and top 30 service companies. There were 29 responses from top 50 manufacturing companies and 11 responses from top 30 service companies. While there were total 40 responses to 80 questionnaires, for a response rate of 50 percent, only 38 of the returned questionnaires were suitable for use in this study (see Table 7.1). According to the 50% response rate, the techniques above did significantly help to increase the response rate. More details about these companies can be seen in Appendix 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Manufacturing (50)</th>
<th>Service (30)</th>
<th>Total (80)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usable</td>
<td>28 (56%)</td>
<td>10 (33.3%)</td>
<td>38 (47.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not usable</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>2 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not returned</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>19 (63.4%)</td>
<td>40 (50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the results, more discussions are presented to highlight the situation of IC in organisations in Taiwan. This helps to surface the issues of IC which need to be
triangulated by the interview in the next chapter. Many possible answers will come to light.

7.2 Awareness Integration (Q.1-4)

As I mentioned in Chapter 6, the Likert Scaling was selected to measure respondents' attitudes. A five-point scale was used to categorise responses into 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (don't know), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree) (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992). From Table 7.2, it can be seen that about fifty-three percent of the 38 respondents thought that their companies strongly force the assessment of diverse environments, while approximately ninety-two percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that their companies try to achieve awareness of diverse environments. Interestingly, even those companies that appear not to be aware of changes in the diverse environments are still top companies in Taiwan. In fact, some of these leading companies are public companies with a large share of the market. So even though they appear not to be aware of their environments, they still earn money. However, I believe that these companies would be even more profitable and would serve their customers better, if they became more aware of changes in their diverse environments and responded appropriately to those changes.

Table 7.2: Result of Q.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 7.3, about forty-two percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that their companies have strong awareness of the IC approach. Although these companies are aware of the IC approach, it does not mean that they do indeed have an IC policy. Invariably, the top companies in Taiwan have separate marketing and public relations departments. Two companies disagree that they have strong awareness of the IC approach. They may think they are doing well enough even though they have poor awareness of the IC approach. However, without awareness of the IC approach they cannot know of its strengths, and of the opportunities that they are missing. If they adopted the IC approach and developed better quality communications, I believe they could perform better.

| Q.2: Our organisation has strong awareness of the integrated communications approach. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cum. Percent |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Disagree | 2 | 2 | 5.3 | 5.3 |
| Don’t know | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Agree | 4 | 20 | 52.6 | 57.9 |
| Strongly Agree | 5 | 16 | 42.1 | 100.0 |

In Table 7.4, approximately sixteen percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that their managers are skilled in all major methods in developing communication strategy. However, about twenty-one percent of the 38 respondents do not know whether their managers have a good understanding or not. It means that these managers may develop their communication strategy without a good analysis of the major methods. Only if they have a good knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses of the major methods, can they know which of these methods to choose. A large proportion of the respondents (nearly 29%) either don’t know or disagree about question three. Clearly, if they do not have a good understanding of the major methods, they cannot make the best choice and the quality of communications will suffer.
Table 7.4: Result of Q.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.5, approximately twenty-four percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that they use a SWOT analysis. But about forty-two percent of the 38 respondents do not use a SWOT analysis. Referring back to the previous question, there are eleven companies who don’t know or disagree about whether their companies have a good understanding of the major methods. So it is not too surprising that here, there are sixteen companies who don’t know or disagree about a SWOT analysis. However, several companies do use a SWOT analysis. SWOT analysis is widely used all over the world because of the advantages it brings, as I mentioned in Chapter 2. Thus, it could usefully be introduced to the companies who do not use it in order to help improve the quality of their communications.

Table 7.5: Result of Q.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Cum. Percent</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The answers to the four questions in the aspect of awareness integration are summarised in Table 7.6. For a dichotomy comparison, responses of 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), and 3 (don’t know) are categorised as low degree. Responses 4 (agree) and 5
(strongly agree) are grounded as high degree. As shown in Table 7.6, about 92.2% of the respondents believe that their companies have high awareness of diverse environments and 94.8% of the respondents have strong awareness of the IC approach. However, whether this knowledge of diverse environments is communicated appropriately between departments and is used effectively, and whether problems have occurred to stimulate awareness of the IC approach, is probed in the face-to-face interviews reported in Chapter 9 of this thesis. Table 7.6 also shows that only 71.1% of the respondents have a good understanding of all major communication tools. This suggests that awareness of communication tools should be seriously reviewed in companies in Taiwan and that the IC model must be able to do this. According to Table 7.6, only 57.9% of the respondents use a SWOT analysis. So SWOT analysis might be more widely introduced to companies in Taiwan to improve the assessment of diverse environments, and the IC model must be able to do this.

### Table 7.6: Result of awareness integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Awareness integration</th>
<th>Low Degree</th>
<th>High Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**7.3 Unified Image (Q.5-8)**

In Table 7.7, about sixty-eight percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that their companies communicate a coherent brand image very well. However, approximately thirty-two percent of the 38 respondents do not have a positive impression of whether their companies do this well or not. These companies may not have a good process by which to communicate a brand image. Not surprisingly, some
companies emphasise their brand image frequently while some companies do not emphasise it.

Table 7.7: Result of Q.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
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<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.8, about twenty-one percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that their organisational mission is a key consideration in their communication planning, and a further 50% agree with this statement, however about 29% either don’t know or disagree. They may just think about the objectives in their departments. However, whenever the organisational mission is considered, this gives a perspective on the direction of the whole organisation. Comparing this question with the previous question, the result is almost the same. Interestingly, this suggests when companies consider their mission in communication planning, they communicate a coherent brand image very well.

Table 7.8: Result of Q.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 7.9, approximately eighty-four percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that their organisation mission makes key stakeholders believe and support their organisations. They believe their companies have a good mission which is
supported by external stakeholders. Also, the results from the previous two questions, 5 and 6, suggest that external stakeholders support the brand image too. All these companies which I chose are currently top companies in Taiwan. Not surprisingly, their mission or brand gets support from external stakeholders.

Table 7.9: Result of Q.7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>78.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.10, about seventy-one percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that their companies do a good job of internal marketing to inform all areas of the organisation about their mission and marketing programme. But approximately twenty-nine of the 38 respondents are not sure whether their companies do a good job or not. Comparing question eight with question seven responses, more companies either don’t know or disagree to question eight. This suggests that their external marketing is better than their internal marketing.

Table 7.10: Result of Q.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>81.6</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The answers to the four questions in the aspect of unified image are summarised in Table 7.11. Basically, 84.3% of the respondents believe that their mission provides an
additional reason for key stakeholders to support their companies. However, only 68.5% of the respondents think that their organisations communicate a coherent brand image. Furthermore, about 71.1% of the respondents think that their companies consider both the organisation mission during communication planning and inform all areas of the organisations about their mission. This suggests that they believe in the value of a good organisation mission, however, the mission must be emphasised in the communication processes and communication planning. Communications issues are further explored in the face-to-face interviews reported in the next chapter.

Table 7.11: Result of unified image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unified image</th>
<th>Low Degree</th>
<th>High Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Question Size</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>31.5</td>
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<td>15.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
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</table>

7.4 Database Integration (Q.9-11)

The following three questions relate to databases, especially to customer databases. As shown in Table 7.12, approximately twenty-nine percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that special programmes are in place to facilitate customer inquiries and complaints. However, about thirty-nine percent of the 38 respondents are not sure whether their companies have special programmes or not. This seems a high proportion. However, sometimes the questionnaire went to the director of public relations. Perhaps this is the reason that eleven companies of the 38 respondents did not know about special programmes for facilitating customer inquires and complaints. If the questionnaire always went to the director of marketing, I might get a higher proportion of the respondents who either strongly agree or agree this question.
Table 7.12: Result of Q.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
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<td>Agree</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 7.13, approximately seventy-six percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree or agree that their databases capture enough information about customers. However, there are three companies who disagree that their databases capture sufficient customer information. This implies that the marketing and public relations departments might not share their database and communicate to each other very well.

Table 7.13: Result of Q.10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.14, 7 respondents of the 38 respondents disagree that their customer databases are easily accessible and use friendly. Comparing question eleven with questions nine and ten, a higher proportion disagree. There may be two reasons for this. One reason may be that the marketing department keeps the customer database for their own use and does not share with other departments. Then, the other departments, such as public relations department, feel that the databases are not easily accessible and use friendly. The second reason may be that the database is not very effective. This may be validated through the interviews.
Table 7.14: Result of Q.11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
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</thead>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>76.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
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</table>

The three questions in the aspect of database integration are summarised in Table 7.15. Although 76.4% of the respondents think that their databases effectively capture customer information, only 63.2% of the respondents feel the databases are easily accessible and use friendly. This suggests that there is scope for databases to be redesigned and made more accessible. It is clear that unless customer databases efficiently gather all relevant information and this is made available to appropriate departments and people to aid decision making, then the organisation will be less responsive to its customers than it could be. Moreover, this would represent a failure of the communications function effectiveness. Only 61.1% of the respondents know that special programmes are used to facilitate customer inquiries and complaints. This indicates that the benefits of using special programmes for customer inquiries or complaints could be more widely communicated among Taiwanese companies, and the IC model should be able to take this into account.

Table 7.15: Result of database integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Database integration</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.5 Customer-Based Integration (Q.12-14)

In Table 7.16, about thirty-two percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that their companies recognise the brand contact points. However, approximately twenty-four percent of the 38 respondents don’t have any idea about that. So, a significant proportion of the respondents do not recognise all their brand contact points. These companies appear to be operating effectively although they may just recognise only one or two brand contact points. However, if they could recognise all their brand contact points, it would be easier for them to deal with the problems from customers by improving the quality of communications.

Table 7.16: Result of Q.12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>31.6</td>
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<td>Agree</td>
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<td>36.8</td>
<td>68.4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.17, about thirteen percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that their companies have developed a comprehensive contact point list. But approximately forty percent of the 38 respondents are not sure whether their companies have done so or not. Comparing question thirteen with question twelve, there is a higher proportion unsure. This is not surprising, because these companies do not even recognise their brand contact points, so how can they understand the nature of the interaction between the brand contact points.
Table 7.17: Result of Q.13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
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<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>26.3</td>
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<td>86.8</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 7.18, about eighty-two percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that they think carefully before sending any message. This is a higher proportion of the respondents than for question twelve and question thirteen. Although these companies think carefully about the messages they send, they may just send the messages through one or two brand contact points. It implies that they may not send the messages to many customers. I believe that if they recognised all their brand contact points and understood the nature of the interaction, they could send the messages more successfully.

Table 7.18: Result of Q.14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The answers to the three questions in the aspect of customer-based integration are summarised in Table 7.19. Only 68.5% of the respondents can recognise their brand contact points and only 61.1% of the respondents believe their companies develop a comprehensive contact point list. This suggests that there is considerable scope for improvement in communications procedures to build up and disseminate this information more effectively. Although 81.6% of the respondents do consider carefully
sent out messages, it is better to do this with full recognition of contact points and a comprehensive contact point list. This suggests that a good method to recognise contact points and develop a comprehensive contact point list must be recommended by the proposed IC model in order to be successful.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.19: Result of customer-based integration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer-based integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
</tr>
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<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.6 Stakeholders-Based Integration (Q.15-17)

As shown in Table 7.20, approximately seventy-four percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that their companies have developed a good process of identifying key stakeholders. However, about twenty-four percent of the 38 respondents have no knowledge about that. It may be that these companies just know several stakeholders who are very important to them. From a different angle, they may ignore some other stakeholders without a good process of identifying all of them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.20: Result of Q.15</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 7.21, about seventy-nine percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that their companies communicate key messages to priority stakeholders very well. In comparison, the previous question (Q.15) received a slightly lower proportion
of agree or strongly agree respondents. This suggests that these companies communicate the messages to priority stakeholders very well 'if' they identify all of the key stakeholders. It is emphasised here that, if these companies do identify all of the key stakeholders and send the messages successfully, then the quality of communications will be improved.

Table 7.21: Result of Q.16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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</tr>
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<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As I mentioned in Chapter 6, question seventeen is used to test whether the respondents read the questionnaire carefully or not because I ask this question in the negative direction. I got one respondent whose answers were all ‘5.’ It implies that the respondent did not answer the questionnaire carefully. So, I discarded this questionnaire from the data analysis. Because I ask this question in the negative direction, I have reversed the order of the response labels to the following order: response of 1 (Strongly Agree), response of 2 (Agree), response of 3 (Don’t know), response of 4 (Disagree), and response of 5 (Strongly Disagree). As shown in Table 7.22, approximately eighty-nine percent of the 38 respondents either strongly disagree or disagree that the process of managing brand reputation and building stakeholder relationships is only the responsibility of the public relations department. It is very high proportion and implies that most of them feel that this process is the responsibility of every department, not just the public relations department’s responsibility.
Table 7.22: Result of Q.17

Q.17: In our organisation, the process of managing brand/organisation reputation and building stakeholder relationships is only the responsibility of the public relations department.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because I ask question seventeen in a negative direction, for a dichotomy comparison, responses of 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), and 3 (Don’t know) are categorised as low degree. While responses 4 (Disagree) and 5 (Strongly Disagree) are grounded as high degree in Table 7.23, which summarises the answers to the three questions in the aspect of stakeholders-based integration. Although 89.5% of the respondents feel that each department has responsibility to build stakeholder relationships, only 79% of the respondents think that their companies communicate to priority stakeholders very well. Furthermore, only 73.7% of the respondents have developed a good process of identifying key stakeholders. This suggests that a good process to identify key stakeholders and send key messages must be recommended by any proposed IC model which aims to be useful and successful.

Table 7.23: Result of stakeholders-based integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholders-based integration</th>
<th>Low Degree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>High Degree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.7 Evaluation Integration (Q.18-20)

In Table 7.24, about thirteen percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that their companies use tracking study to evaluate their relationships with key stakeholders.
However, approximately twenty-four percent of the 38 respondents have no opinion about that. Furthermore, about eighteen percent of the 38 respondents disagree that their companies use tracking study. This is a large negative response and implies that these companies do not have an effective communications evaluation process. Moreover, it means that these companies just carry on operating without feedback from customers and key stakeholders. In the longer term this may prove unwise because they cannot have improvement if they do not get the responses. This suggests that the IC model must include an evaluative dimension.

Table 7.24: Result of Q.18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.25, only approximately fifty-five percent of the 38 respondents either strongly agree or agree that the method used in their companies to evaluate communication strategy is the most suitable one. It is almost the same proportion as the respondents from the previous question. It implies that those companies using a tracking study evaluation process believe they use the most suitable method for evaluating communication strategy. However, about twenty-nine percent of the 38 respondents have no opinion about that. Furthermore, sixteen percent of the 38 respondents disagree that the method is the most suitable one. This leads us to question whether these companies use a good evaluation system to evaluate their methods or not. Only when they use a good evaluation system, can they prove whether the method is the most suitable one.
Table 7.25: Result of Q.19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 7.26, about eighteen percent of the 38 respondents strongly agree that the output of the method for developing communication strategy is appropriate. Approximately eighteen percent of the 38 respondents have no opinion about that. However, about eleven percent of the 38 respondents disagree that the output is appropriate. Interestingly, one company gave the answer of ‘Strongly Disagree.’ This company answered the questionnaire as follows: Q.1-Agree; Q.2-Agree; Q.3-Disagree; Q.4-Don’t know; Q.5-Disagree; Q.6-Don’t know; Q.7-Agree; Q.8-Don’t know; Q.9-Disagree; Q.10-Agree; Q.11-Agree; Q.12-Don’t know; Q.13-Don’t know; Q.14-Strongly Agree; Q.15-Don’t know; Q.16-Agree; Q.17-Strongly Disagree; Q.18-Disagree; Q.19-Disagree; and Q.20-Strongly Disagree. Because the company gave the answer of ‘Strongly Disagree’ in the question seventeen, this suggests that the respondent really answered the questionnaire carefully. Further examination of the answers from this company reveals that the respondent did give low scores in all the questions relating to evaluation integration (Q.18, Q.19, Q.20). It may be the reason that the respondent felt disappointed about the evaluation and put the answer for the last question in ‘Strongly Disagree.’ As I mentioned in the previous question, only when they use a good evaluation system, can they prove whether the output of the method is appropriate or not.
Table 7.26: Result of Q.20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>81.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The answers to the three questions in the aspect of evaluation integration are summarised in Table 7.27. Only 57.9% of the respondents use tracking study to evaluate their relationships with key stakeholders. About 55.3% of the respondents think that they use the most suitable method in developing communication strategy and approximately 68.5% of the respondents feel that they get appropriate output for developing communication strategy. Comparing this aspect with other aspects, a lower percentage of the respondents agree to have done effective evaluation integration. This indicates that there is a big opportunity if a good evaluation system is developed to evaluate the IC programmes.

Table 7.27: Result of evaluation integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation integration</th>
<th>Low Degree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>High Degree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td></td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.8 Further Analysis and Discussion of the Findings from the Questionnaires

This section proceeds to analyse the data in terms of the research questions from questionnaires outlined in Chapter 6. Using the set of questionnaires and a combination of postal requests, three research questions are analysed in the following order:
1. Where do organisations stand on the integration scale in Taiwan?
2. Which aspect of IC is effective or weak in organisations?
3. How do aspects of IC relate to each other?

I will discuss in detail the answers to these three questions which are based on the findings from questionnaires.

1. Where do organisations stand on the integration scale in Taiwan?

In order to get an idea to what extent any company is practising IC, respondents were asked to circle the number in the questionnaire which best reflects how the company operates with regard to the statements. Table 7.28 shows the overall average scores given by the 38 organisations of the samples to produce an integration scale. The average score of these 38 organisation is 3.88, with little variation relative to the type of organisations. If the company scored 3.88 or higher, it is well above average. However, the result of average score 3.88 comes from respondents from top 50 manufacturing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.28: The integration scale
companies and top 30 service companies. With the exception of these companies, the other companies which want to be top companies in Taiwan might need to improve their IC approach. According to Table 7.28, the respondents in the organisations have an understanding of where they stand regarding degree of integration of communications. If the company is doing well about IC, that is fine. If not, improving its IC approach might be a good starting point.

2. Which aspect of IC is effective or weak in organisations?

The average score of each question of the questionnaire was counted and is summarised in Table 7.29. The average score 4.039 in the aspect of awareness integration is the highest. Although Q.1 and Q.2 have a higher ranking, Q.3 and Q.4 have a lower ranking compared with other averages from the questionnaire. It means that the companies think that they have strong awareness of diverse environments and IC approach, but they may not have a good understanding of all major methods in developing communication strategy. Some of them do not even use SWOT analysis. The average score 4.034 in the aspect of stakeholders-based integration is also very high. It means that most of the companies think that they identify their key stakeholders and send messages very well. It is worth paying attention to the aspect of evaluation integration because the average score 3.597 is the lowest. It suggests that the companies do not seriously evaluate the communication strategy. This suggests that a good evaluation system must be recommended for the companies.
3. How do aspects of IC relate to each other?

In order to explore this question, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed. The Pearson correlation coefficient is widely used to analyse survey results to examine the degree of the relationship between factors (Bryman and Duncan, 1997). The variable of total average score is added because how aspects of IC relate to the total average score in each organisation is also of interest. This makes seven variables which should be included to do correlation analysis: awareness (awareness integration), image (unified image), database (database integration), customer (customer-based integration), stakeholders (stakeholders-based integration), evaluation (evaluation integration), and total (total average score). The correlation between these seven variables is shown in Table 7.30. This table includes both the levels of statistical significance achieved for each coefficient and the number of companies. It is not surprising that the total average
score has a higher correlation coefficient with other aspects of IC, because whenever the score of any aspect of IC is higher, the total average score is higher. The highest correlation coefficient of 0.8912 is found between awareness integration and total average score in Table 7.30. This implies that the aspect of awareness integration is already thought to be strongly considered by the surveyed companies. Equally, the 0.778 correlation between awareness integration and unified image, the 0.7471 correlation between awareness integration and stakeholders-based integration, and the 0.7271 correlation between awareness integration and customer-based integration are also logical based on the earlier results presented. Similarly, the lowest correlation is obtained with evaluation integration which gave the lowest 'agree and strongly agree' percent of the factors. According to Table 7.30, all coefficients are quite large and all achieve a high level of statistical significance at P<0.000 (which means P<0.0005). This suggests that each aspect of IC highly relates to each other and influences the total average score, but that they are six aspects of IC which need to be considered in a IC model.

Table 7.30: Correlation matrix of aspects of IC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Aware</th>
<th>Image</th>
<th>Database</th>
<th>Customer</th>
<th>Stake</th>
<th>Evaluate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aware</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.7780</td>
<td>0.6213</td>
<td>0.7271</td>
<td>0.7471</td>
<td>0.6778</td>
<td>0.8912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P=.</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>0.778</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.6466</td>
<td>0.6952</td>
<td>0.6588</td>
<td>0.6186</td>
<td>0.8739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Database</td>
<td>0.6213</td>
<td>0.6466</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.6772</td>
<td>0.6563</td>
<td>0.5880</td>
<td>0.8680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer</td>
<td>0.7271</td>
<td>0.6952</td>
<td>0.6772</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.6432</td>
<td>0.6627</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>P=.000</td>
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<td>P=.</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stake</td>
<td>0.7471</td>
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<td>0.6563</td>
<td>0.6432</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.6018</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
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<td>Evaluate</td>
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<td>0.5880</td>
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<td>0.6018</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.8229</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>P=.000</td>
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<td>P=.000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>0.8171</td>
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<td>1.0000</td>
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<td></td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
<td>P=.</td>
<td>P=.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.9 Conclusion

This chapter has presented, and interpreted, results obtained from a questionnaire survey of thirty-eight top companies in Taiwan on the subject of integrated communications. The survey has revealed at least six important findings which will be used in later chapters:

(1) Although companies were confident that they assessed the effect of changes in their business, social, technological, political and cultural environments and had good awareness of the IC approach, there was less confidence in their knowledge of communication tools and analysis methods like SWOT. I conclude from this that the new IC model must be able to appropriately select and use methods like SWOT, TQM, TSI and so on. SWOT, TQM and TSI can diagnose the environments and review the methodologies which are used in organisations. Also the three questions of triple loop learning asking what, how and why could help diagnosis and review.

(2) Although organisation mission was recognised as a key consideration in communication planning, about thirty percent of respondents were not sure their companies performed either effective internal marketing of mission or effective external communication of a coherent corporate/brand image. TQM provides good ideas to 'create constancy of purpose' and 'break down barriers between departments' which can help organisations to perform more effective internal and external communication.

(3) The respondents' answers raised questions about the accessibility and user friendliness of databases in nearly forty percent of companies. This suggests that a more systemic design approach is needed. Systems analysis, systems engineering, and operational research could be used to improve IC quality through integrating the database in organisations and improving efficiency. Furthermore the soft system
approaches could be used to surface problem from better intersubjective investigation, to bring improvement.

(4) Better contact points recognition and a comprehensive contact points list are needed by about one-third of the surveyed top companies. As mentioned before, some methods such as contact point matrix analysis may be used to recognise the brand contact points.

(5) The answers suggest that about twenty-six percent of respondents have not developed a good process to evaluate relationships with key stakeholders. Churchman’s, Ulrich’s and Midgley’s researches can help organisations to set up a good process to identify the specific stakeholders and improve the relationships between organisations and their stakeholders.

(6) The survey revealed a large gap in the use of tracking studies to evaluate relationships with customers and key stakeholders. A. Gregory proposed a system of evaluation methodologies which can help the organisation to build a systemic evaluation system to evaluate the effectiveness of their communication with their specific stakeholders. Also the three questions of triple loop learning could help to critically evaluate relationships.

It is clear that any IC model which is proposed needs to be able to critically select appropriate methods to tackle all of these deficiencies in organisations, in order to help to improve their communications effectiveness. Also if these deficiencies are apparent in the leading companies in Taiwan, it is highly likely that they will be even more prevalent in other Taiwanese companies. The questionnaire results help to understand the current situation of IC in Taiwanese companies. These results show where Taiwanese companies stand on the integration scale and which aspect of IC is effective or weak. This can make the three main issues of IC (mentioned in Chapter 2) clearer. In
order to find the answer to ‘what’ and ‘how’ the organisations have done about IC, the results of face-to-face interviews with five of the surveyed companies are presented in Chapter 8.

In Chapter 9, the qualitative research interviews with three of the case study companies are designed, presented, and interpreted, including questions relating to the important findings reported above.
CHAPTER 8: INTERVIEW RESULTS

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reported and interpreted results from questionnaires returned by managers in companies which I surveyed in Taiwan. This survey generated some very interesting findings, however I considered it necessary to carry out face-to-face interviews with managers from five of the surveyed companies (CPC, FIC, Chi Mei, President and Taipower) in order to find out in more detail 'what' and 'how' the companies have done concerning IC. This helped to discover more about the effects of the three main issues of IC in Taiwanese companies.

This chapter reports on the results from the face-to-face interviews and interprets these findings. Using a semi-structured interview format, two questions in particular were asked:

1. What kinds of communication issues do the companies have and how to solve these problems?
2. What innovations would you add to the IC approach to make it more effective?

The first part of the interview was conducted to know 'what' and 'how' the companies have done about the first issue of IC: how to set up effective communications. The six aspects of IC were discussed to know the detail of IC. In particular, the aspects of stakeholders-based integration and evaluation integration were discussed to know 'what' and 'how' the companies have done about the second and third issues of IC: how to identify the specific stakeholders and how to evaluate the effectiveness of their
communications with their specific stakeholders in organisations. Then, I summarised the interviewees' suggestions in the second-part. I discuss in detail the answers from, and interpretation of, these two questions in the following.

8.2 ‘What’ and ‘How’ the Companies have Done?

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<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<td>1.</td>
<td>What kinds of communication issues do the companies have and how to solve these problems?</td>
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Here, the six aspects of IC were discussed to know ‘what’ and ‘how’ the companies have done.

1. Awareness Integration

Chapter 2 of this thesis addressed three aspects of ‘awareness integration’ including awareness of environments, awareness of the IC approach and awareness of methods. I asked about all of them in the questionnaire. One more question was asked to check whether organisations used SWOT analysis or not. To analyse Question 1 in the interview, three aspects of awareness integration were discussed. Furthermore, they were asked whether they used SWOT analysis or not.

(a) Awareness of Environments

Many interviewees emphasized that it is important to force the assessment of changes in the environments. The vice president of Chi Mei said:

“It is nearly the twenty-first century and everything changes so quickly. For example, the media world is constantly and rapidly changing and involves TV, cinema, newspaper, and magazine advertising and promotion. You need to know these changes, then you can know where you are and decide what you are going to do.”
Another President manager said, "The company has to carry out research about its environment to build awareness and to provide more data on which to base decision taking." Although it is important to know the diverse environments, as one FIC manager put it:

"However, most managers ask their consultants to tell them what to do about them. They don’t even know how the environments have changed."

It is a problem to even solve the current problems, but what happens in the future? Companies must recognise that they need to invest money now in market research in order to help decide what to do next, because at present many companies don’t follow specific changes in markets and trends. One marketing manager told me, "We need to have a formal programme to track the environments which will affect our company in the future."

The emphasis on the awareness of environments is supported by the strategy management and total quality management literature (Johnson and Scholes, 1993). A SWOT analysis is used widely in strategy management to force the assessment of the diverse environments. Moreover, the process of benchmarking is used in TQM literature to realise how other successful companies responded to the changes in their environments.

(b) Awareness of the IC Approach

The awareness of environments provides the motivation for the IC approach. As one public relations manager at CPC put it:

"When you get used to understanding the complexity of environments, you realise the importance of cooperation in an organisation to face what is going to happen in the future."
Another manager, this time from Taipower, said:

"I suggest a more effective knowledge and contact with the latest trends which can be used to inform production at an early date to properly compete in the marketplace. The company needs better awareness of its environment. Perhaps the marketing department could receive training in the latest marketing methods. I think that an integrated approach would be very beneficial."

This raised the question of how we can improve the awareness of the IC approach. Many interviewees mentioned about job-rotation and training which might help employees to improve the awareness of the IC approach. The director of the storage & transportation division at CPC pointed out that his entire communication staff has experience in almost all departments at CPC:

"I worked for short spells in almost all departments before I became the director of the storage & transportation division. So I do take into account how each decision affects other departments before I make it."

Another CPC manager said:

"CPC has recently taken steps to proceed with an organisational restructuring programme. Job combination and job-rotation are often stressed to make the most of manpower. It is possible that some job-rotation would introduce people to a wider circle of contacts and improve things. From this viewpoint, I can see the benefits of the IC approach."

Although some interviewees mentioned job-rotation between different departments, in fact only a few companies have developed processes for job-rotation. Furthermore, many interviewees talked about the importance of training. The director of the training division at Taipower said:

"In order to improve manpower quality, promote its development, and upgrade operational performance, future training will be carried out according to our manpower training and development system."

The marketing manager at President emphasised, "President provides for the
professional and personal training of its employees. It may help them to improve the awareness of the IC approach.” One manager at CPC mentioned about training in the following:

“As to the selection and promotion of ranking officials, professional capabilities and personality are the most prominent features taken into consideration. CPC provide potential leaders with a series of training programmes to help develop the skills needed for effective leadership. Among the rank and file, on the job training has been stressed to improve overall productivity of the company. The employees at CPC can be assigned to attend conferences, seminars or training programmes both in the home country and abroad to improve awareness of the IC approach.”

The importance of training to coordinate work is also emphasised in the TQM literature. As I mentioned in Chapter 3, one of Deming’s ‘14 Points,’ ‘Institute Training,’ refers to skills training for a special job. Another point, ‘Institute a vigorous program of education and self improvement,’ stresses work education in a broader sense (Deming, 1986). Furthermore, Deming (1993) emphasises that employees need education about systems thinking and about the interdependency of individuals, teams and departments in an organisation.

(c) Awareness of Methods

According to the results from the questionnaire, more than a third of respondents either don’t know or disagree whether their managers have a good understanding of all major methods relevant to communication strategy or not. The question was repeated in the interviews to probe the reasons behind their answers. A manager from FIC noted:

“FIC received ISO-9002 certification from worldwide manufacturing operations in 1993; ISO-9001 certification for quality in all major service applications in 1994; and ISO-14001 certification for environment management system. Not all of the managers know what it means to marketing of FIC products, and how it really works.”
As another manager from FIC explained to me, “We know it is very important to get these certifications, however, sometimes we don’t track all major methods. Actually, no one can be skilled in all of the major methods.” The same situation also happened in Taipower, a training division manager described:

“The Executive Yuan announced that Taipower’s New East-West Transmission Line Project won an “Excellent Quality Award” in competition with all other public construction projects in 1997. Sometimes, we ask for help from outside consultants to make improvements. We don’t really understand all major methods, but we just follow them."

As I mentioned in Chapter 5, Wilby (1996) suggested six steps to review the candidate methodologies which is another way to improve the awareness of methods in integrated communications. So the candidate methodologies about IC need to be reviewed, then the suitable methodologies can be adopted.

(d) SWOT Analysis

According to the results of the questionnaire, some companies use a method called ‘SWOT analysis’ but some companies don’t use it. However, these companies may still analyse their environments and produce the same effect as SWOT analysis. One of the interviewees said, “Although I don’t have any idea about a SWOT analysis, I believe that our company is doing well and understands where we will go in the future.” A manager from CPC explained the different situation to me:

“With an organisational restructuring programme, many situations need to be controlled. If SWOT can help to analyse the situations, why not use it.”

This suggests that SWOT analysis should be emphasised and introduced to the companies who have never used it. Some other methods such as benchmarks or PEST analysis are also good to improve awareness integration.
(2) Unified Image

Many interviewees pointed out that it is important to integrate the communication functions with each other to provide a clear direction for the company. One manager from Taipower said:

“We faithfully live up to our operational philosophy of “Sincerity, quality, and service” to begin a new era in the electric power business, so we can create a “three wins” situation for the company, customers, and society. Our company mission is always a key consideration in our company planning and gets the support from the key stakeholders.”

The marketing manager at President also endorsed the importance of the company mission:

“Marketing needs an effective input into design and a coherent company mission to know where the company wants to go. The management goals of President are to grasp consumer trends, develop products and services to meet consumer & customer needs, win consumer affection, and to gain supportive manufacturers and stockholders. We really do a good job to inform all areas of the company about our mission and marketing programmes.”

The vice president at Chi Mei said:

“We hold meetings very often to discuss how the brand has been seen by the key stakeholders. This integration requires different communications managers to discuss and cooperate to integrate the image of our company.”

The importance of unified image is emphasised in the TQM literature. The first of Deming’s ‘14 Points’ is ‘create constancy of purpose’ which notes that the employees have to be fully aware of the vision of the company and support it. It is another point where TQM can help the aspect of unified image in IC.

(3) Database Integration

It is very important to share databases so that everyone in the company can access all
communications that go out, such as advertising copy, speeches and press releases. A Taipower marketing communication manager elaborated on the importance of a shared system for all communication functions, he said:

“Sometimes, the customers call and argue that the electricity is not enough. At this time, it is very important to share a database because different departments need to do different things. For instance, the marketing department needs to explain to customers how the electricity is sent and how the fees are determined. At the same time, the public relations department needs to explain to media about this situation. If these two departments share the same database, they will be able to facilitate customer complaints.”

Nearly every company has a database of some type, even if it is nothing more than a list of inventory, orders and billing information. In the past, most databases were used to support production, accounting, or distribution rather than marketing. The marketing manager at President described how it used to be:

“Some years ago, most databases were not designed for the marketing department, each marketing request usually required particular handling. In recent years, the marketing department at President has bought its own hardware and software. It is really getting better.”

At the traditional companies like CPC, one public relations director said:

“We share the same database at CPC, but it is impossible to collect all the information that all departments want. Consequently, expanding current databases to store all of the customers’ demands is not an easy task.”

It is a big problem, as one manager illustrated by the following example:

“If the marketing and public relations departments don’t share their databases, sometimes it is a problem. For example, the marketing department receives complaints from customers and the media wants to get information from the public relations department. Then a problem arises because the public relations department lacks sufficient detail. The customer database is poor and not easily accessible by the public relations department, so the information cannot be obtained. The public relations department needs to wait for the marketing department to provide more information. However, it takes time but sometimes the media cannot wait for that. So, the database may need to be
Duncan and Moriarty (1997) emphasise the importance of database integration and give some examples. Moreover, Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994) propose an effective integrated marketing communications programme to set up complete databases. These are good examples which might help to build a good communications system in the form of a database programme. As I mentioned in Chapter 4, hard systems methodologies, such as systems analysis, systems engineering and operations research, might help to integrate the database in organisations and improve efficiency (Flood and Carson, 1993). These methodologies provide a good procedure to redesign the database and help to improve the IC quality in organisations. This suggests that a relevant accessible and user friendly database must be designed, built and maintained for more effective communications.

(4) Customer-Based Integration

Some managers told me that they were not sure whether their organisations recognised all their brand contact points. One interviewee suggested that I should ask the marketing manager and get the answer from him. This might be the reason that about one-third of the respondents from the questionnaires either did not know or disagree about whether their companies recognise the brand contact points and understand the nature of the interaction. Perhaps, if I'd only sent the questionnaires to the marketing department directors instead of sometimes to the public relations department director, they might have known more about the brand contact points. One marketing manager explained the situation in this way:

"I am not sure whether we recognise all our brand contact points, however, we do recognise some of them."
Duncan and Moriarty (1997) suggest that the contact point matrix analysis and a message matrix might help companies to recognise all of their brand contact points and improve the communication quality.

(5) Stakeholders-Based Integration

One of the three main issues of IC in this thesis is how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders. In the following, I discuss how the surveyed companies identify their key stakeholders and send messages to all of them. According to the results of the questionnaire, about eleven companies of the 38 respondents either did not know or disagree whether their companies have a good process to identify key stakeholders. One manager said:

"We don't really have a formal process to identify who the key stakeholders are and what messages they might require. Furthermore, different departments focus their attention on different stakeholders groups. I don't know the situation of the other department."

As one marketing manager explained the situation in the marketing department:

"We don't need to have another process to identify our key stakeholders. We already know who they are. Basically, the marketing department always focuses on customers."

However, the marketing department must be concerned with other stakeholders in addition to customers. Interestingly, one interviewee said, "We have no process to identify key stakeholders but we know them when some problems happen." Another interviewee referred to the timing of identifying key stakeholders, he said:

"We always hold a meeting before each project's implementation. We identify who are the key stakeholders and try to send them useful messages."

One manager from President noted the importance of not only sending messages to the
key stakeholders but also between departments inside the organisation. He said:

“Our staff must communicate their findings to the relevant department and to key stakeholders. For example, we spend a lot of money on advertisements in the marketing division. However, sometimes the public relations division is doing the same thing. So why not send messages to each other and save money.”

Most interviewees agree that the role of the communication department is not only to do the communication for themselves, but also to help everyone in the organisation to communicate better with different stakeholders. A public relations manager at FIC said:

“Everyone is linked to an electronic computer network at FIC. This network is also linked to the key stakeholders of the company. Consequently, everyone can mail to the president directly. Employees are welcome to do that. Besides, employees can be asked to communicate the same message to key stakeholders.”

However, this situation doesn’t happen in CPC and Taipower. These two companies have been operating for a long time. Traditional Taiwanese organisations have their own processes to send messages. One employee communications manager from CPC explained this as follows:

“In some cases, it really takes a long time to send messages. CPC is a big company with a complicated organisational structure, and it is so traditional that employees need to send the messages to key stakeholders step by step. It really takes time.”

This suggests that the stakeholders communications systems in the traditional companies need urgent attention. According to the discussion above, it is important to recognise the key stakeholders and send messages to them successfully. I don’t feel that these companies have a formal process to identify the key stakeholders, however, they think that they know who the key stakeholders are. This suggests that a process such as a ‘rolling programme’ (Midgley and Milne, 1995) may be usefully introduced to these
companies. Furthermore, some methods of TQM, such as ‘flow chart’ and ‘flag-method’ (Akao, 1991), can help to identify the key stakeholders and recognise the key messages.

(6) Evaluation Integration

One of the three main issues of IC in this thesis is how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. According to the results from the questionnaires, this aspect of IC had the lowest average score of all. It is interesting to investigate this finding in the interviews. As one manager explained the situation:

“Although there is information about key stakeholders and what information they might want in the marketing department, we don’t have any way to evaluate the communication quality. Perhaps we just do evaluation between the organisation and our customers.”

Another manager told me, “As far as I am aware this company does not have a list of key stakeholders and their interests regarding information, so there is no evaluation of this type carried out.” Moreover, one public relations manager said:

“The list of stakeholders is kept by the public relations department and some standard publicity information is sent out to them. No attempt has been made to evaluate if it is sufficiently comprehensive for stakeholders and appropriate for their needs.”

Most interviewees agree that their companies might evaluate customer satisfaction, however, just some of them agree that they evaluate the relationships with key stakeholders. One manager from FIC said:

“We have also designed a questionnaire to evaluate the relationships between the employees and FIC. However, we are thinking of redesigning our questionnaire.”
As one manager from CPC noted:

“We do quite little evaluation for employee satisfaction, however, it seems very important for restructuring CPC. We need to know more from our employees.”

A large proportion of the respondents from the questionnaires either don’t know or disagree whether the method used in evaluating communication strategy is the most suitable one or whether the output is appropriate.

Duncan and Moriarty (1997) discussed a lot about how to evaluate how well a company was practising integrated communications. This might be one way to help a company to carry out evaluation. As I mentioned in Chapter 5, A. Gregory (1994) put forward an organisational evaluation system which might be another way to tackle the issues of evaluation integration. In particular, she presented a systemic view to do organisation evaluation. This helps to build a systemic evaluation system and furthermore improve the communication quality. Furthermore, use of the thee questions of triple loop learning could provide a way to critically evaluate, what, how and power factors.

8.3 Suggestions from the Interviewees

2. What innovations would you add to the IC approach to make it more effective?

Some suggestions from the interviewees are noted in the following.

(1) “Consequently I suggest if IC could contain a section to feel the pulse of the market and enhance forward vision this would be of major importance to our company.”

(2) “My suggestion for improving the IC approach would be to include continuous reflection on which media is being used and which media could better be used.”

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(3) "I think that our major problem is our lack of a customer focused culture and unless we change, one day we may find we no longer have customers."

(4) "If IC could involve a process which focuses all employees on their customers internal and external, then I think the problems of this company would disappear very quickly."

(5) "One innovation for IC therefore would be a process which could evaluate each advertising campaign and see where there were any problems and what caused them, because there is no real appreciation of the underlying reasons behind problems at present and that is why they recur."

(6) "It is important that any awareness training in IC must include the top managers because unless they endorse and support IC their staff will not implement it effectively."

(7) "The company needs to be restructured to include an effective market intelligence function with forward vision and better planning systems, and which supplies all departments with relevant information."

(8) "We do have some problems about organisational process, design, culture, and politics, but we do not understand how to solve all of these problems and get communications more integrated."

Different problems are prominent in different companies, so different suggestions are provided. Above I have briefly summarised the suggestions from the interviewees to get some ideas about how to make IC more effective.

8.4 Conclusion

This chapter reported on, and drew interpretations from, the answers obtained in face-
to-face interviews conducted at five companies in Taiwan. Basically, this research tried to discuss and investigate details underlying the responses given in the questionnaires concerning ‘what’ and ‘how’ the companies have done about IC. In concluding this chapter, the interview results can be summarised as follows.

(1) Although the interviewees feel that it is important to have good awareness of environments, IC approach and methods, some of them do not use specific methods such as SWOT. Better awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of available methodologies would be a step towards more effective communication.

(2) Because some companies do not use specific methods to achieve effective internal and external communication, ideas from TQM can help to integrate communications.

(3) Some companies still have problems with their databases. Systems analysis, systems engineering on operational research approaches can help these companies to optimise redesign of their databases.

(4) Although some companies recognise some brand contact points, this is not sufficient for IC. A systemic appreciation approach is needed with the contact point matrix analysis to help these companies to recognise all of their brand contact points and improve the communication quality.

(5) Many companies have no formal process to identify the key stakeholders, so some methods of TQM and Midgley’s ‘rolling programme’ could provide a way for the organisations to identify their specific stakeholders.

(6) Some companies do have a good evaluation system, but the others do not. Ideas from A. Gregory’s system of evaluation methodologies can help these organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communication with their specific stakeholders, together with the critical approach of triple loop learning.
These conclusion indicate again that a new IC model must be able to critically evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the available methods and methodologies and be able to guide when and where to use the methodologies appropriately. In order to understand the findings of the survey research in detail, case studies were used to enhance the fieldwork. Moreover, some methodologies were introduced and suggested to the organisations. This will be discussed in the following chapter.
CHAPTER 9: CASE STUDIES

9.1 Introduction

In order to enhance the fieldwork and make it stronger, the qualitative research interviews and case studies were designed to understand the findings of the survey research in detail. As I mentioned in Chapter 6, the purpose of the second stage qualitative research interview was to discuss the research findings with interviewees in order to explain the findings and to see if further comments might be generated by participants. Moreover, the participants were asked whether their companies use specific tools or some methods which I mentioned in the literature review about the aspects of IC. Also to check that my understanding is shared by other participants. In this chapter, the second stage qualitative research interview is designed to explain the six findings in the Chapter 7 and Chapter 8. Moreover, the interview data is analysed to provide further justification for these six findings as follows.

9.2 Case Studies in Organisational Research

According to Hartley (1994), case study “consists of a detailed investigation, often with data collected over a period of time, of one or more organizations, or groups within organizations, with a view to providing an analysis of the context and processes involved in the phenomenon under study.” Furthermore, he pointed out that “case studies have an important function in generating hypotheses and building theory.” Hartley (1994) also stated seven steps of case studies: choosing the case study; gaining and maintaining access; choosing an initial theoretical framework; collecting systematic data; managing data collection; analysing the data; and leaving the case study (Hartley,
This second stage qualitative research interview was designed to capture more information about the IC approach in three Taiwanese companies. It helps to explain the findings of the survey research, to understand the IC approach in detail, and to develop a new model of IC.

### 9.3 Qualitative Research Interview Design

Based on the results of interviews, we knew 'what' and 'how' the companies have done about IC. However, it is necessary to conduct a qualitative research interview to get deep understanding in detail. Kvale (1983) defines the qualitative research interview as 'an interview, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena.' At this stage, semi-structured interviews were conducted to look the research topic from the interviewee's perspective and to realise why or how he has the special perspective.

There are four steps to construct and use a qualitative research interview:

1. defining the research question;
2. creating the interview guide;
3. recruiting participants;
4. carrying out the interviews.

(King, 1994:18)

This method is not a rigid formulaic method, however, it is a style of doing research which has certain methodological guidelines. Further descriptive analysis of this method follows.

1. **Defining the Research Question**

I set out to address two main research questions:

(1) How would the participants interpret the results of the questionnaires?
(2) How do companies progress their IC approaches?

The first question focuses on how the results of the questionnaires make sense to interviewees. It needs participating interviewees to give comments about their IC approaches. These data cannot be obtained from survey studies. The focus of the second question is upon what methods companies really use to progress IC approaches. It needs participating interviewees to explain the processes of IC and point out the methods that they really use for IC processes.

2. Creating the Interview Guide

In this research, I identified the main topics to be included in the interview guide from the research literature and the results of the questionnaires. The six findings of the questionnaires' results were placed in six sections containing a series of some questions as in the following.

**Finding 1.**

Although companies were confident that they assessed the effect of changes in their business, social, technological, political and cultural environments and had good awareness of the IC approach, there was less confidence in their knowledge of communication tools and analysis methods like SWOT.

1) Q How does your company integrate its communication?

2) Q How do you interpret this finding?

3) Q Does your company use a SWOT analysis, PEST analysis, benchmarking or other methods to be aware of its environment?

   IF YES, how effective are these methods?
IF NO, why does your company decide not to use these methods?

4) Q Does your company have a process of job-rotation or training?
   IF YES, What is it?
   IF NO, why does your company decide not to do it?

5) Q Does your company use critical systems thinking or other approaches to review major methods in developing communication strategy?
   IF YES, how is that done?
   IF NO, why does your company decide not to use that?

As it shows, the guide consisted of main questions, sometimes with conditional questions ('IF YES.../IF NO...'). The first question was asked to learn how the IC approach progresses in the company. This question helped me to know whether the company had a formal process to execute the IC approach and how it really worked. The second question was asked to discover whether Finding 1 made sense to them and how they would interpret this finding. Questions 3, 4, and 5 were asked to learn whether they used specific methods to improve the awareness of environment, IC approach and major methods in developing communication strategy. If they did use some methods, I would ask how effective these methods were. If they did not use these methods, it might be a good chance to introduce these methods to them.

Finding 2.
Although organisation mission was recognised as a key consideration in communication planning, about thirty percent of respondents were not sure their companies performed either effective internal marketing of mission or effective external communication of a coherent corporate/brand image.
6) How do you interpret this finding?

7) How does your company tackle the issues of organisational process, organisation design, organisational culture, and organisational politics?

8) Does your company use TQM or other approaches to perform internal and external marketing of a corporate/brand image?
   IF YES, how is that done?
   IF NO, why does your company decide not to use that?

Question 6 was asked to determine whether Finding 2 made sense to them and how they would interpret this finding. Question 7 was asked to find out whether they use specific methods to tackle the issues in the four dimensions. Question 8 was asked to discover whether they use TQM or other approaches to perform internal and external marketing.

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Finding 3.

The respondents' answers raised questions about the accessibility and user friendliness of databases in nearly forty percent of companies.

9) Q How do you interpret this finding?

10) Q What is the situation concerning the database?
   (a) Is it easy to use the database?
   (b) Is the database too complicated?
   (c) Does the database collect too much information?

Question 9 was asked to reveal whether Finding 3 made sense to them and how they would interpret this finding. Question 10 was asked to realise the real situation about the database. Three subsidiary questions were asked to find out about the database in more detail.
Finding 4.
Better contact points recognition and a comprehensive contact points list are needed by about one-third of the surveyed top companies.

11) Q How do you interpret this finding?
12) Q Does your company use contact point matrix analysis or other methods to recognise the brand contact points?
   IF YES, how does it do that?
   IF NO, why does your company decide not to do it?

Question 11 was asked to determine whether Finding 4 made sense to them and how they would interpret this finding. Question 12 was asked to determine whether they use contact point matrix analysis or other methods to analyse the brand contact points.

Finding 5.
The answers suggest that over a quarter of all respondents have not developed a good process to evaluate relationships with key stakeholders.

13) Q How do you interpret this finding?
14) Q Does your company use flow chart, flag-method or other methods to recognise the key stakeholders?
   IF YES, how does it use them?
   IF NO, why does your company decide not to do it?
Question 13 was asked to discover whether Finding 5 made sense to them and how they would interpret this finding. Question 14 was asked to reveal whether they use flow chart, flag-method or other methods to analyse the brand contact points.

Finding 6.
The survey revealed a large gap in the use of tracking studies to evaluate relationships with customers and key stakeholders.

15) Q How do you interpret this finding?

16) Q Does your company use Goal Based Evaluation, System-Resource Based Evaluation, Culture Based Evaluation or Multi-Actor Based Evaluation to evaluate the relationship with key stakeholders?

IF YES, how do they do that?

IF NO, why does your company decide not to do it?

Question 15 was asked to determine whether Finding 6 made sense to them and how they would interpret this finding. Question 16 was asked to discover whether they use Goal Based Evaluation, System-Resource Based Evaluation, Culture Based Evaluation or Multi-Actor Based Evaluation or other methods to analyse the brand contact points.

Basically, all of these questions were asked to discover how each aspect of IC worked in the company. Particularly, the company was asked whether it used specific methods in each aspect of IC. If the company did use specific methods, I could learn how well those methods worked. If the company did not use the specific methods, it was a good chance to introduce those methods to the company.
3. Recruiting Participants for the Study

Participants for this study were selected from Chi-Mei, FIC and President companies. CPC and Taipower are national companies, which have less competition. Therefore in this second round of interview, I took these two companies out. I estimated that I could carry out and analyse about 6 interviewees of each company in the time available to me. In this second round of interview, I recruited 18 interviewees who were included in the main analyses.

4. Carrying out the Interviews

According to King (1994), he pointed out three steps to carry out the interviews: starting the interview, phrasing questions and ending the interview. In this study, I usually started the interview by asking the interviewee to explain how the company progresses the IC approach. Then, the main questions of each interview guide were asked. The interview was finished by giving the interviewee the chance to make comments about the IC approach which had not been covered in the rest of the interview.

9.4 Case Studies Findings

As reported earlier in Chapter 7 and Chapter 8, six main findings came out of the questionnaire survey and the interview stages of this research. Using these six main findings I formulated the series of sixteen questions given in section 9.3 which I used as the basis of the more detailed case studies of three companies in order to test the validity of the earlier results. In the following I report the answers given to each of the sixteen questions by the respondents at the three companies which I call company A, company B, and company C.
Q1. How does your company progress the IC approach?

Company A:
Our PR department issues an internal report each week which goes to the senior managers and details all the promotional activities of the company which occurred in the previous week and all the planned activities for the coming week ahead. This includes media advertising, communications distributed to shareholders, press releases, sales campaigns, sponsorship, and new product launches etc. Each senior manager is expected to put forward their individual departmental contributions for inclusion in this report so that everyone is kept informed of communications activities.

Company B:
This company does not have a separate PR department, each department is expected to handle its own communications both internally and externally, there is no formal integration of communications. There is a senior managers meeting each week at which information is exchanged about what is going on, but there is insufficient time to discuss things like this in depth because there are problems and many important strategic and policy matters to cover. The result is that the marketing department is kept informed by some departments better than other departments. The system seems to work because we are a successful company.

Company C:
We hold interdepartmental meetings quite frequently which means that there is exchange of information. Any problems can be discussed at these meetings and this is the way we integrate our communications.
Q2. How do you interpret this finding (Finding 1)?

Company A:
I believe that this finding is generally true. Certainly each different department is responsible for assessing external changes which affect their area of the company. However, there is no formal coordination of the analyses which are done, and it is up to each senior manager to decide whether to tell PR and other departments of their findings. This marketing department uses SWOT to generate a realistic awareness and to make recommendations for action, but other departments probably have little idea of how we use SWOT to decide on recommendations and most of our marketing people are not familiar with the communication activities of the PR department.

Company B:
We expect each department to function to a high standard, and we get feedback from our sales people about the environment. Those people who are involved in communication are expected to know the tools.

Company C:
Each person plays their role by doing their own job well. We hope that we assess the environment successfully because the success of the company depends on it. Perhaps we are not as fully informed in the various channels of communication as we should be because no one specialises in that aspect.

Q3. Does your company use a SWOT analysis, PEST analysis, benchmarking or other methods to be aware of its environment?
If YES, how effective are these methods?
If NO, why does your company decide not to use these methods?

Company A:
Each department uses the methods they think best for their work. In the Marketing department we use both SWOT and PEST analysis. SWOT analysis is used to assess the position of our products in their respective markets and when used as a strategic tool it is an effective way to identify key issues for the organisation. PEST is used to ascertain the main environmental influences on our products and organisation. Unless we use these tools we cannot assess our environment effectively.

Company B:
This company does not use SWOT or PEST. Management analysis like that is regarded as a waste of our profits. The philosophy of this company is that the most important thing is to make a good product and price it competitively. Consequently we invest in R & D to keep improving our range of products.

Company C:
This is a relatively new company, and so our practices are not fixed. In my department we do use SWOT as this is essential for assessing new product needs and for deciding on the promotional mix for products. We have to be aware of competitors' products, but we are not trying to be the market leader so we do not benchmark, but we want to maintain our position.

Q4. Does your company have a process of job rotation or training?
Company A:
Yes, we do operate a job rotation scheme. In general the employees are moved to another job about every two years so that they learn more skills and know more about the company. We like managers to stay in one job no longer than four years. We think that this keeps people fresh and encourages a re-thinking of methods. All staff are trained before starting their new job.

Company B:
This company has no planned job rotation. Promotion usually occurs within departments and there is little movement between departments. People become expert in their jobs and we think this produces high efficiency. Each supervisor is responsible for training.

Company C:
There is some limited rotation of staff within departments to aid holiday and sickness cover. Also, there is some switching between departments of staff, because people interact in the interdepartmental meetings and become known to other departments who recruit them.

Q5. Does your company use CST or other approaches to review major methods in developing strategy?

Company A:
We annually review the effectiveness of our methods and strategies, and arrange appropriate re-training of staff if necessary. I am not familiar with CST.
Company B:
We use no special approaches to review our major methods and it is up to the
individual supervisors to inform their staff of the methods to use.

Company C:
I have no idea about CST, but if it can help this company you will have to explain it to
me and I will use it. The use of our major methods would only be reviewed if they
were thought to be failing the company. As new people join the company they
sometimes introduce new methods.

Q6. How do you interpret this finding (Finding 2)?

Company A:
I believe this company effectively performs both internal marketing of mission and
external communication of a coherent corporate image. Each boss is responsible for
informing each new employee of our organisation mission. Some other companies may
not make anyone responsible for doing this, and so cannot be sure that their
organisation does it well. The PR department is mainly responsible for developing a
coherent corporate image, but we play a part with our advertising promotions.

Company B:
Our president believes that the organisation mission is very important to the success of
this company. This philosophy is passed on to every employee. We insist on a good
culture, and we trust our employees. Our products and marketing generates our
external image. There is no mechanism to ensure that there is a coherent external
image for the company, because each of our products is marketed individually.
Company C:

Each department has a departmental mission, such as production targets, or sales targets *etc.* which people are aware of. These are part of the organisation mission. No department is responsible for the external corporate image, and perhaps this could be a failing of the company.

Q7. How does your company tackle the issues of organisational process, organisational design, organisational culture, and organisational politics?

Company A:

We have different groups to tackle the different issues. The processes are mainly tackled by the engineering and technical departments who examine each process and decide on the equipment and work organisation. The structure of the company is decided by the Chief Executive, at the top level and by the senior managers below him. They have their own special methods to do this. The managers set a culture of everyone working hard together like a team with a customer oriented focus. TQM helps with this. The CEO is authoritarian and wants people working for the company's objectives with no politics by departmental managers.

Company B:

We do not categorise issues into process, design, culture or politics. We solve problems as they arise.

Company C:

Process problems are tackled by our engineers using their engineering knowledge and
skills. We have no special methods for design, culture or politics.

Q8. Does your company use TQM or other approaches to perform internal and external marketing of a corporate brand image?

Company A:
We use TQM to achieve both internal and external effects. Internally it encourages a customer oriented culture of meeting agreed requirements first time every time. Externally the fact that this company practices TQM gives a corporate image of quality to our products.

Company B:
We have obtained ISO 9002 quality standard in order to prove to our customers that we have quality systems which can ensure that our products consistently meet the set standards. This enhances our corporate image.

Company C:
This company has ISO 9001 approval which is very important for our business. This is the highest level of the ISO 9000 standard and tells customers and potential customers that this company has a quality product design capability. This means we are first choice supplier to other ISO 9000 companies and can meet all customer needs.

Q9. How do you interpret this finding (Finding 3)?

Company A:
We have a good central database with good accessibility and user friendliness because
it was purpose-designed by our technical people, this means there are few technical problems. The users were consulted by the designers in line with our TQM philosophy of meeting internal customers' requirements.

Company B:
Each department has their own database to suit their particular needs. These cannot be accessed directly by other departments, but this has not caused a problem as far as I know.

Company C:
The marketing department has a database of customers, so that there is traceability of products which is required by ISO 9000. The production department keeps details of suppliers, has a stock control system, and keeps records of the progress of production through the manufacturing stages.

Q10. What is the situation about the database?

All three companies said their databases were easy to use (there had been no complaints) and did not collect unnecessary information, so their size was manageable.

Q11. How do you interpret this finding (Finding 4)?

Company A:
This marketing department maintains a list of all contact points of the company which have been used in the last five years, since the list was started. So the list should be comprehensive.
Company B:
This company does not have a comprehensive contact points list. Each Sales Manager maintains his own contacts and does not share them with anyone else. Contacts are very important for doing business in Taiwan. It would be useful sometimes to have a comprehensive points list but this could be a threat to the company if the information was taken to our competitors.

Company C:
We do not have good processes to recognise our contact points, and this is a failing of the company which I hope to improve shortly. I believe that a better way to recognise potential contact points would help to widen our business.

Q12. Does your company use contact points matrix analysis or other methods to recognise the brand contact points?

Company A:
We do use contact points matrix analysis to ensure that we recognise all contact points. I think we do this effectively. We separate contacts into many groups for the first contact phase.

Company B:
We do not use any special methods to identify contact points. It is the responsibility of individual managers to make and keep their own contacts.

Company C:
At present we do not use contact points analysis, but now that you have made me aware of this method I shall look into using it here.

Q13. How do you interpret this finding (Finding 5)?

Company A:
I am not surprised that over a quarter of all respondents have not developed a good process to evaluate relationships with stakeholders. Although we think we evaluate relationships with stakeholders well at this company, I believe that this is unusual in Taiwan. From previous experience many companies have no process to evaluate these relationships.

Company B:
Many respondents may not think in terms of stakeholders, they think only in terms of customers. For example we aim to meet customers requirements, but accept that we cannot please everyone.

Company C:
I think that we could evaluate our relationships with all stakeholderes better than we do at present. However, most of our attention has to be given to customers because we are so busy. The fact that business is good must mean we are doing things right.

Q14. Does your company use flow chart, flag method or other methods to recognise key stakeholders?

Company A:
The PR department uses the flow chart method to recognise key stakeholders, and then informs each department of their responsibility concerning each stakeholder.

Company B:
No one has the responsibility of identifying key stakeholders. Each Sales Manager develops his customers and keeps them informed of our new products.

Company C:
We do not use any special methods to recognise key stakeholders. We know our customers and try to meet their needs.

Q15. How do you interpret this finding (Finding 6)?

Company A:
I believe that many companies in Taiwan do not know who the key stakeholders are, consequently how can they evaluate relationships with them?

Company B:
Our Sales Managers know their customers, they do not need to use tracking studies. It is up to the CEO to consider stakeholders other than customers.

Company C:
We know our immediate customers who buy directly from us and keep in touch with them, but we do not try to carry out studies of the users of our products, we leave that to the intermediate suppliers.
Q16. Does your company use Goal Based evaluation, System resource Based evaluation, Culture based Evaluation or multi Actor based Evaluation to evaluate the relationships with key stakeholders?

Company A:

We don't use these methods to evaluate relationships with key stakeholders. We have a number of questionnaires which we send out to the various stakeholders to find out their views.

Company B:

We consider our customers to be our key stakeholders and each Sales Manager is responsible for evaluating this important relationship continuously.

Company C:

We frequently carry out evaluation of our immediate customers in terms of getting feedback about our products and reviewing their requirements. Recently we have set up a formal process to evaluate the relationship with our employees.

9.5 Interpretation of Case Studies Findings

The responses from the three companies in the case studies interviews reported in the previous section demonstrate the wide diversity which exists between top Taiwanese companies regarding integration of communications.

Company A appears to be a progressive company which uses many of the established marketing and PR techniques such as SWOT and PEST, and annually reviews the
effectiveness of its methods and strategies. Also it has a job rotation policy. However, the company contains separate marketing and PR departments, and this leads to only a partial integration of communications activities. Also, each different department is responsible for assessing external changes which affect their area of the company and there is no formal coordination of the analyses which are done. This suggests that awareness integration is only partially achieved. In addition the PR department is said to be responsible for developing a coherent corporate image but there seems to be no integrating mechanism to decide the corporate image policy. Issues seem to be tackled in a piecemeal way rather than systemically, because they are regarded as separate rather than interacting.

Company B uses its ISO 9002 certification as its main method of establishing its corporate image, but overall there appears to be little evidence of any real integration of communications activities in the company. Departments and Sales Managers appear to operate independently in their territories. Management analysis is regarded as a drain on profits. The philosophy of this company is that the most important thing is to make a good product and price it competitively, but how can they do that without full awareness and evaluation? The customers are regarded as the key stakeholders of the company.

Company C considers that it integrates its internal communications through the frequent interdepartmental meetings which are held, but there is no evaluation of the effectiveness of these communications. Although they evaluate immediate customers, there appear to be some failings with regard to establishing and integration of its external communications regarding tracking studies and identification and evaluation of other key relationships. Furthermore its external image is gained mainly from its
ISO 9001 certification as it appears to lack any unifying image policy mechanisms. It has databases but they are only locally accessible.

9.6 Conclusion

This chapter has reported, and interpreted, feedback obtained by interviews of three top-thirty Taiwanese companies concerning internal and external communications activities using the six main findings which came out of the earlier questionnaire survey as the focus of examination. This case study investigation has tended to support the six main findings of the questionnaire survey, and it also corroborates the output from the interviews in Chapter 8.

In concluding this chapter, the case study findings can be summarised in the following.

1) Large differences were evident between the three companies in their use, knowledge of, and desire to use, appropriate methods for generating awareness of their diverse environments and in the degree to which their communications activities were integrated. Although one of the companies indicated good knowledge and use of methods for gaining awareness, the integration of this awareness was only partial and there was no integration of evaluation and incomplete image unification. If this observation is compared with the questionnaire survey finding that 92% of companies thought that their environmental awareness was good even though only about 70% thought their managers had a good understanding of all major methods relevant to communication strategy, together with the poor awareness of environments and methods reported in the interviews, it becomes apparent that most companies are optimistic about their awareness situation because in reality they fail to carry out
any real evaluation of its effectiveness.

(2) Thirty percent of respondents from the questionnaires were not sure whether their companies perform effective internal and external communication, and the interview responses suggest there are some problems. The companies think that the department on organisation mission is communicated well internally, but that there is a failure in the external unification of the image. The external unification of the image seems mainly to be achieved by the TQM or ISO standard status of the companies.

(3) On the surface, the situation appears better with regard to databases and customer contact and information because most companies seem to keep databases. However these are mainly dedicated to customers, suppliers or tractability of products required by ISO 9000, and there is often no evaluation or integration of these important communications activities resulting in poor access and lack of user friendliness in about 40% of the companies.

(4) A list of all contact points of the company is necessary. Companies B and C had an insufficient grasp of the advantages to be gained from integration of the communication activities, and tended to have a customer focused attitude from quality management systems as a result of ISO 9000 certification.

(5) These interviewees felt that it is very important to know who are the stakeholders, however, the companies do not use special methods to identify their stakeholders. It might be a good point where Midgley’s ‘rolling programme’ can help.

(6) Although the importance of evaluation is recognised, knowledge of and use of methods is limited, the necessary organisational processes are lacking, the communication design is inadequate, there is no team culture while departments and sales managers are often rivals. A. Gregory’s system of evaluation methodologies can help the companies to build a systemic evaluation system,
together with the three critical questions of triple loop learning.

As discussed in Chapter 2, there are many reasons why there is a move among Western companies towards integrated communications in organisations. Yet, the evidence in this thesis indicates that in Taiwan many top companies have made little movement in this direction. A model for IC which contains all the important aspects of IC and which has a process to operationalise it effectively through a critical and systemic approach could help all these companies to tackle the three main issues of IC in the thesis.

In the next chapter I describe the revised model for IC, which if it was used by these companies would provide a comprehensive systemic appreciation process for identifying, evaluating and correcting weaknesses in organisational communications activities and lead to a more effective and efficient marketing and PR function through integrated communications.
PART III: THE REVISED MODEL OF INTEGRATED COMMUNICATIONS

This part describes the revised model of IC which I call the Integrated Communications Model (ICM).
CHAPTER 10: INTEGRATED COMMUNICATION MODEL (ICM)

10.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the new model for applying and assessing integrated communications in organisations. It is named the Integrated Communication Model (ICM) and it provides a framework to review, operationalise and evaluate the process and effectiveness of integrated communications especially as related to the Taiwanese context. Moreover, the ICM offers not only a way to improve the process of integrated communications but also a way to review and evaluate the methodologies for use in integrated communications intervention. This revised ICM not only achieves the integration aspects of current IC models but can also tackle the three currently neglected issues of IC identified in Chapter 2: how to help organisations to set up effective communications; how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders; and how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. Also the model can tackle the deficiencies and poor choice of methods for, awareness integration, unified image, database integration, customer-based integration, stakeholders-based integration, and evaluation integration revealed in Chapter 7, 8, and 9. This revised ICM can tackle these issues because it uses the critical systemic approach of TSI(2) which looks systemically at the organisational needs and can choose the most appropriate methodologies and methods to use, including the three questioning loops of triple loop learning and evaluation methodologies. This overcomes the identified deficiencies of current IC models which are neither critical nor systemic in approach. The operation of the model is explained in detail in this chapter.
10.2 Integrated Communications Model (ICM)

In Chapter 2 of this thesis on the basis of the literature survey of IC, I proposed that an effective IC model would need to contain 6 aspects: aspect 1- awareness integration; aspect 2- unified image; aspect 3- database integration; aspect 4- customer-based integration; aspect 5- stakeholders-based integration; aspect 6- evaluation integration. However at that stage there was still some doubt concerning how the aspects should be operationalised and whether the six aspects alone could be sufficient for an effective IC model. In order to explore these points the ideas of TQM, systems thinking, and pluralist approaches were examined to see whether they could usefully contribute to IC, and investigations were carried out of actual companies by survey, interviews and case studies. Chapters 3, 4 and 5 have indicated that there are advantages which can derive from incorporating the ideas of TQM, systems thinking and pluralist approaches into an IC model. Furthermore, based on the responses from the questionnaires and validating interviews, I found that a successful experience of IC have an impact on all the six aspects. Bringing together all these ideas, I propose the following model of IC illustrated in Figure 10.1, which I call the ICM.

Following Flood (1995a), the ICM has three modes of operation: the Critical Review Mode (CRM), the Problem Solving Mode (PSM) and the Critical Reflection Mode (CREFM). The six aspects of IC are considered within each of the three modes of operation in an interactive and interdependent way using the TSI problem solving cycle of creativity, choice and implementation. The CRM can help decision makers to identify competence and effectiveness of the variety of approaches in IC because it reviews
critically methods in each aspect of IC through creativity, choice and implementation. The problem solving mode employs a system of methods for solving IC problems in each aspect from the critical review mode. It also operates through creativity, choice and implementation. The critical reflection mode uses creativity, choice and implementation and critical appreciation to help IC problem solvers to reflect upon the adequacy of the output of the problem solving mode. The process involves asking the three questions of triple loop learning in each aspect of IC and using the problem solving cycle of creativity, choice and implementation within each learning loop. It is recognised that it may be advantageous to creatively mix methods and parts of methods in a multimethodological way. The curves which connect the three modes identify that, given the dynamic nature of organisations, the three modes together are an ongoing process and should be periodically studied. The centre is IC success which is surrounded by four dimensions of organisations. It means that IC success cannot be achieved until four dimensions of organisations are considered. The lines from the three modes and six aspects, pointing to the centre (IC success), imply that each aspect can influence the success of an IC programme. The lines from the centre, pointing outward to the three modes indicate that the experience gained from an IC success can help to refine and improve the different aspects in an IC programme and hence help to increase the possibility of further IC success. In this chapter, the ICM is used to provide an explanation of how it can tackle the three main issues of IC in the thesis, and some of the methodologies which can be used in the ICM to improve the quality of communications are discussed.
As shown in Chapter 2, the IC literature has tended to focus on improving processes for problem solving. However, IC represents a complicated organisation of sub-systems of people, methods, machines, money, information, etc. Therefore, unless a systemic approach to problem solving is used then there is a high probability of sub-optimisation involving conflicting objectives and poor integration as explained in Chapters 4 and 5. Thus the systemic organisational problem solving ideas of TSI(2) (Flood 1995a), Triple Loop Learning (Flood and Romm, 1996), Mixing Methods (Midgley, 1997b) and
Critical Appreciation (Gregory, 1992) should be helpful to operationalise IC effectively. TSI(2) proposes that it is useful to consider organisations in terms of four interacting and interdependent dimensions (Figure 10.2). Flood (1995a) said:

Unless all four key dimensions of organisation are taken into account, i.e., a whole system view is developed, then problem solving is bound to be ineffective.

(Flood, 1995a:21)

Thus, TSI provides principles, processes and methods for problem solving which enable effective intervention in these four dimensions of organisation to bring about improvement, which should help IC problem solving. The four dimensions of organisation are summarised below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational process</th>
<th>Organisational design</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational culture</td>
<td>Organisational politics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10.2: Four dimensions of organisation

Organisational process means ‘rules about efficiency of flows and control over flows’ and aims to achieve efficiency in terms of no unnecessary waste of time or resources (Flood and Romm, 1996). Flood (1995a) recommended Quality Management and Business Process Reengineering to make the processes more efficient. Organisational design concentrates on ‘rules about effectiveness of functions and their organisation’ and here effectiveness refers to achieving chosen tasks of functions (Flood and Romm, 1996). Flood (1995a) recommended using the Viable System Model (VSM) which brings together five main management functions (operations, co-ordination, control, intelligence, and policy) and organises them according to a carefully worked-out series of information flows. Organisational culture means ‘mediation of behaviour in terms of
people's relationship to social rules and practices' (Flood, 1995a). This is recognition that different people need different things, understand things differently and respond to things in different ways. Flood (1995a) has found that debating methodologies such as Testing Polarised Viewpoints, Exploring and Choosing Designs, and Exploring and Making Decisions could help to resolve the human problems of organisational culture and organisational misunderstanding. Organisational politics means ‘power and potency to influence the flow of events’ (Flood, 1995a). It is important to understand who holds power, and how this power can be used to serve certain interests. Flood (1995a) points out that Critically Evaluating Designs and Decisions could help managers to think about whose interests are being served in design work and decision making.

Basically, if the organisations can look at their IC approach through these four dimensions of organisations, they satisfy TSI’s philosophy. If all four key dimensions of organisations are fully taken into account, then effective IC approach can be achieved. Gould, Lerman and Grein (1999) indicated the importance of globally integrated marketing communications and adopt three emergent themes: ‘the evolving nature of the globalization process, its contingency element and its cultural dimensions of client and agency.’ Be considered seriously, issues of IC can be tackled and communications can be effectively integrated under the four dimensions of organisations. The next sections discuss in detail how pluralist approaches (examined in Chapter 5) can help to improve the operation of IC, to make it more effective, and tackle the three main issues of IC in the thesis. The six aspects of IC are discussed in the following to tackle the first issue of IC in the thesis: how to help organisations to set up effective communications.
10.4 Awareness Integration (AI)

Based on the results of the questionnaires, interviews and case studies, although ninety-one percent of respondents have awareness of their environments, only about seventy percent of respondents have a good understanding of major communication tools. Some respondents use specific methods such as SWOT, but others do not use it. The revised ICM provides a systemic process to review, solve, and reflect the issues of IC. It can help to improve the awareness of integration of IC.

Awareness of the changes in the marketplace, environment, community, government policy, employees, technology, or other issues will usually awaken a company to the need to change. Caywood (1997) presented a series of activities to improve the awareness of diverse environments such as benchmarking, zero-based planning and budgeting, and issue management. Furthermore, a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis, suggested by Smith (1996) and Duncan and Moriarty (1997), can produce a situation analysis by providing a systematic way to organise data and draw conclusions. This suggests that SWOT analysis can help to force the assessment of diverse environments. Based on the results of the questionnaires, many companies do not use SWOT analysis in Taiwan. However, a SWOT analysis would be a good method to assess the value of a company's current communication strategy. Figure 10.3 is an example of a SWOT analysis which was drawn up by a regional police force in the UK. These statements should be examined one against another. It could be done by taking each statement in the left-hand column in turn, examining it in terms of key environmental problems and scoring a+ (or a++) or a- (or a--). In addition, Johnson and Scholes (1993) recommend a PEST (Political, Economic,
Socio-cultural, and Technological) analysis which is a useful starting point to scan the business environment. Figure 10.4 provides some questions to ask about key forces at work in the wider environment.

All of these tools could be used to help IC to analyse the key issues and improve awareness of the diverse environments if their strengths and weaknesses are critically evaluated by the CRM in the ICM. Basically, all the methods mentioned above must be built on an understanding of stakeholders perceptions, otherwise efforts could be misdirected. This means different IC plans might be needed for different key stakeholders as well as the customers, and illustrates the value of using a critical systemic decision process for IC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key issues in environment</th>
<th>Politics / legislation</th>
<th>New technologies</th>
<th>Changing roles in justice system / Europe</th>
<th>Public expectations (citizen's charter)</th>
<th>Increase in major crime</th>
<th>Social trends (demography)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main strengths</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committed employees</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good community links</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New 'top team'</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New equipment (transport)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational planning</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main weaknesses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undercapacity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive approach</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT systems</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial planning system</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10.3: SWOT analysis (from Johnson and Scholes, 1993:150)
1. What environmental factors are affecting the organisation?
2. Which of these are the most important at the present time? In the next few years?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Political/legal</th>
<th>Economic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monopolies legislation,</td>
<td>Business cycles, GNP trends, Interest rates,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental protection laws,</td>
<td>Money supply, Inflation, Unemployment,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxation policy, Foreign trade regulations,</td>
<td>Disposable income, Energy availability and cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Law, Government stability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-cultural</th>
<th>Technological</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population demographics, Income distribution,</td>
<td>Government spending on research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social mobility, Lifestyle changes,</td>
<td>Government and industry focus of technological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes to work and leisure,</td>
<td>effort, New discoveries/development,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumerism;</td>
<td>Speed of technology transfer, Rates of obsolescence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levels of education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10.4: A PEST analysis of environmental influences
(from Johnson and Scholes, 1993:82)

Another issue in awareness integration is about poor awareness of communication tools. Although Duncan and Caywood (1996) had put forward the idea of awareness integration, they gave no practical guidelines to prove how important it was or how to improve awareness integration.

The other issue in awareness integration is poor job-rotation and training. The advantages of job-rotation are provided by the strategic management literature. Porter (1985) identified some advantages of job-rotation such as that it created personal relationships, reduced cultural and procedural differences among business units, promoted a corporate identity, and educated managers about areas of opportunity for interrelationships with other units. Kanter (1983) pointed out that rotation makes people the integral link between departments. They get to know a larger range of people and jobs beyond the confines of their own department and feel part of a larger team. This generates better communication and understanding. By reviewing and improving the process of job-rotation through the ICM, the communication system could be made more flexible.
Training is very important to cultivate an appreciation for other communication functions among communication professionals. The importance of training is also supported in the quality management literature. There are two aspects of training which are important in terms of coordination. The first one is 'skills-specific training for the communication functions' and the second one is 'the training provided to every one in the company about the company, its vision and values and its products' (Gronstedt, 1994). Widman (1994) suggested that effective quality training must concentrate on balancing three aspects (human, technical and leadership) in order to provide the competitive weapon of the organisation.

Two of Deming's (1986) 14 points imply learning. One is 'institute Training' which mentions the skills training for a special job. The other is 'encourage education and self-improvement for everyone' which refers to education in a wider sense (Deming, 1986). Deming emphasised that people need to be educated about systems thinking and the interdependency of individuals, teams, and department in organisations (Deming, 1993).

These tools mentioned above are well used for companies in the case studies. They are good to solve the problems in the dimension of organisational process. From a systemic view, four dimensions of organisations must be taken into account. Here, the problems in all of four key dimensions of organisations should be found and linked to identity relevant methods. Table 10.1 and Table 10.2 show one example at the Halesworth Partnership Pty Ltd in Australia (Flood, 1995a). Flood (1995a) argued that candidate methodologies to problem solving must be reviewed and evaluated before system intervention. He presented the Critical Review Mode (CRM) for researchers to understand different methodologies and enhance their awareness about the relationship
Table 10.1: The Halesworth Partnership and TSI analysis; problems and measures
(from Flood, 1995a:336)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technical problems</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Politics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cumbersome and time consuming workflows</td>
<td>Poor team structure</td>
<td>No routine information on System</td>
<td>Poor attitude towards the customer</td>
<td>(None recorded)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottlenecks in work</td>
<td>No routine information on System</td>
<td>No recursive planning/reporting system</td>
<td>Reactive rather than proactive management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like tasks being performed in different areas</td>
<td>Poor communication between teams</td>
<td>No targets or goal setting</td>
<td>No focus on continuous improvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No method to identify skills required</td>
<td>Many integrated systems</td>
<td>Management not managing</td>
<td>High stress levels</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor/unclear letter and form design</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdated work procedure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor layout</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No time standards for work completion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No error, quality, turnarounds standards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No routine planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10.2: The Halesworth Partnership and TSI analysis; tools
(from Flood, 1995a:338)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technical problems</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Politics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operational Research</td>
<td>Diagnosis for Effective Organisation</td>
<td>Testing Polarised Viewpoint</td>
<td>Critically Evaluating Decisions and Designs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• workflow analysis</td>
<td>• organisational structure review</td>
<td>• diagnostic interviews and questionnaires</td>
<td>• diagnostic interviews and questionnaires</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• layout analysis</td>
<td>• flow process analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• diagnostic interviews and questionnaires</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• predetermined time standards study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• work study job role analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• error and quality analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• work measurement review</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems Analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• information system diagnostics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• computer system analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• systems engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• systems dynamics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

between methodologies and social circumstances. Wilby (1996) presented a model for operationalising the CRM. The process of the operation of the CRM and the use of the operation in the framework of TSI is related to systemic principles of emergence. Through the CRM, practitioners can create a system of methods to provide systemic guidelines to understand different methodologies. The steps of CRM may help to
improve the awareness of IC methods. As already described, I incorporate these ideas into the operation of the ICM. This is why I build the principles of critical systems thinking into the model and ask the three questions of triple loop learning (Are we doing things right?, Are we doing the right things?, and Is rightness buttressed by mightiness and/or mightiness buttressed by rightness.) in each aspect of IC and use the problem solving cycle of creativity, choice and implementation within each learning loop.

As shown in Figure 10.1, the awareness integration of IC will go through TSI's three modes of operation. In order to achieve IC success, four dimensions of the organisations will be considered to get a systemic view of awareness integration. All of the ideas mentioned above can help to tackle the issues of the stage of awareness integration in IC provided they are critically considered by using the ICM.

10.5 Unified Image (UI)

Although organisation mission was recognised as a key consideration in communication planning, about thirty percent of respondents in the survey were not sure their companies performed either effective internal marketing of mission or effective external communication of a coherent corporate/brand image. Both the results of interviews and case studies show that TQM and ISO standard progress the unified image of IC.

A company must 'have and promote its mission as well as concentrate its philanthropic programs into an activity that reinforces the mission and has a presence' (Duncan and Moriarty, 1997). It will be better if all stakeholders are aware of the mission of the company and ideally involved in it. From a different angle, it means that the mission is
not just a statement in the introduction of a company but becomes operationalised by all stakeholders in a company. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) mentioned how to establish and manage the mission by doing the following:

1. Institutionalize the mission
2. Measure its contribution to the organisation
3. Make it a top management responsibility
4. Appoint a representational executive committee
5. Incorporate the mission's essence into all departmental plans

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:145-146)

Furthermore, they talk about the importance of the mission in a company:

It strengthens your company and brand images, helps in working with government regulators, reduces R&D costs, and motivates the sales force and other employees. In addition, it lubricates the integrated marketing processes because it fosters associations and thus synergy among business units and outside stakeholder groups. In sum, it can increase the cultural capital of your company.

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:146)

Johnson and Scholes (1993) mentioned the importance of organisational purposes and summarise them in Figure 10.5 to recognise the different statements of an organisation’s purposes. For example, the stage of unified image aims to encourage integration of an organisation by development of a coherent mission and image. Particularly, the role of communications professionals must be to encourage critical discussion about how the brand is seen and how it should be seen by key stakeholders. Like the awareness integration of IC, the unified image of IC also goes through TSI’s three modes of operation. The four dimensions of the organisations are considered to get a systemic view of unified image. Operation of unified image by using the proposed ICM will ensure that the right questions are asked to ensure that the mission and purposes are critically considered to produce a coherent image.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TERM</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
<th>A PERSONAL EXAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>Overriding premise in line with The values or expectations of stakeholders</td>
<td>Be healthy and look good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>General statement of aim or purpose</td>
<td>Lose weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Quantification (if possible) or more precise statement of the goal</td>
<td>Lose 10 pounds by 1 September</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>Broad categories or types of action to achieve objectives</td>
<td>Diet and exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actions/</td>
<td>Individual steps to implement strategies (perhaps related to operational</td>
<td>Eliminate desserts/snacks/butter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tasks</td>
<td>issues or identified individuals)</td>
<td>Limit alcohol to 1 drink/day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>The monitoring of action steps to: reinforce objectives</td>
<td>Weight first thing every morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hopefully leading to:</td>
<td>: if satisfactory progress, do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• assess effectiveness of strategies and actions</td>
<td>nothing; if not, consider other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• modify strategies and/or actions as necessary</td>
<td>strategies and actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>A payoff for reaching the objective</td>
<td>Buy a new suit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10.5: The vocabulary of strategy (from Johnson and Scholes, 1993:13)

10.6 Database Integration (DI)

In the survey, respondents answers raised questions about the accessibility and user friendliness of databases in nearly forty percent of companies. In the interviews and case studies, the main problems surfaced were poor database, poor access to database, and poor sharing of database. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) stated that it is very important for companies to set up and use effective databases. Furthermore, they pose some questions when setting up databases:

1. What and how much information needs to be saved? How much can you afford to collect? How much data can your system process and at what speed?
2. What will be done with the database information? What kinds of analysis? What kinds of decisions will be based on it? Will you want to prepare reports directly from the database?
3. Who will manage it? Will the marketing department or information systems management be in charge?
4. Who will have access to it? How easy does the system have to be?
5. How secure does it have to be?
6. How often will database users have access to it?
7. How accurate are the databases?

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:211-213)

All these questions can be asked before setting up databases but the most appropriate answers may not be reached unless there is an attempt to take in all relevant viewpoints using a critical systemic approach. Thus, the outcome would be improved if they are asked in terms of the ICM process using the critical systems principles and triple loop learning questions. Following their list of questions, Duncan and Moriarty gave one example in Figure 10.6 to show how a customer and prospect information database built by marketing, sales, and customer service input can be used. As Figure 10.6 shows, there are many different ways that databases can be used.

Figure 10.6: Building and using databases (from Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:216)
Another example I found which might be useful is from Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1993). They present an effective integrated marketing communications programme which is illustrated in Figure 10.7. As shown, the database must include such data as demographics, psychographics, purchase history and category network. Although Figure 10.6 and Figure 10.7 are good examples to set up complete databases, different companies and different departments might have different needs and priorities and this is where the process of the ICM can aid effective decision making. These two examples are useful to solve the problems in the dimension of organisational process. However, the problems in all of four dimensions of organisations should be found and linked to identify relevant methods. Again, the database integration of IC go through TSI’s three modes of operation and four dimensions of the organisations are also considered to get a systemic view of database integration.
10.7 Customer-Based Integration (CI)

The survey found that better contact points recognition and a comprehensive contact points list are needed by about one-third of the surveyed top companies. Although the respondents in interviews and case studies identified poor process of recognising contact points, no comprehensive contact point list, and poor control of messages sent by contact points, TQM could be used to give a customer focused attitude. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) identified what the communication management of brand contact points requires:
(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:97)

They show the contact point matrix analysis in Figure 10.8 to identify the points where customers come into contact with the company. As shown in Figure 10.8, all of the contact points must be prioritised based on which are intrinsic vs. created contact points, which have the highest impact, and what special messages are recently being delivered at each brand contact point. After identifying the brand contact points, the most important messages of the brand contact points must be addressed as well. Every message must be designed to create and strengthen the relationship with the target audience. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) presented a message matrix (see Figure 10.9) to help to address this analysis. As shown in Figure 10.9, the target audience will be identified and the message content will be addressed as well. It also needs to be decided what relationship constructs communicate these messages and what consistency elements can link them together. The last column shows how well they give support to the brand positioning. Such an analysis can help a company to acquire messages and establish a useful customer base.

Like the other aspects of IC, the customer-based integration must go through TSI’s three modes of operation and consider four dimensions of the organisation to get a systemic view of customer-based integration, because I believe that the outcome would be improved by using the process of the ICM to ensure that the basis of decision is
systemic, and that the critical principles of awareness and human emancipation are upheld.

### Intrinsic Primary message contact points delivered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Created contact points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Contact point matrix analysis

Figure 10.8: Contact point matrix analysis (from Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:161)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Message Matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Target audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10.9: Message matrix (from Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:159)

### 10.8 Stakeholders-Based Integration (SI)

As Duncan and Moriarty (1997) said about integrated communications:

[It] should not be limited to managing relationships with customers but used for planning and monitoring relationships with all stakeholder groups.

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:55)

Based on the results of the questionnaires and interviews, the poor process of identifying key stakeholders and messages is diagnosed as a serious problem. The results of the case studies show that most of the companies do not use special methods
to identify their stakeholders. A stakeholder analysis can help to identify key stakeholders as shown in Figure 10.10. This figure shows an analysis in the case of a company which operated on two sites in the UK (Lincoln and Nottingham). The stakeholder analysis identified the different internal and external stakeholders and the table was used to map out the expected reactions to some possible changes.

From a different discipline, Midgley (1989, 1990) emphasised the importance of developing research issues in dialogue with stakeholders. He pointed out that the research must manage the possible tensions between his and different stakeholders' viewpoints. Midgley (1992) further extended the work of Ulrich about the problem of boundary judgements. His paper expanded the understanding of the process of asking boundary judgements so as to explore the relationship these judgements have with values and ethics. It is a starting point to think about what happens if there is a conflict between different stakeholders who have different ethics relating to the same problem and thus make different boundary judgements. Furthermore, Midgley and Milne (1995) suggested a 'rolling programme' to decide the boundaries of who should be interviewed. As they put it:

The issue of who was to be interviewed was resolved through a rolling programme of recommendations, where each interviewee recommended others until most of the people being recommended were people who had already been seen.

(Midgley and Milne, 1995:35)

This suggests that the key stakeholders can be sorted out through a 'rolling programme.' During the integration of marketing and public relations, it may be useful to consider the marketing managers and the public relations managers as separate stakeholders.
I. Internal stakeholders

Indicators of power

|--------------------|---------------|----------------------|------------------|

(a) Status
1. Position in hierarchy (closeness to board) H L H M
2. Salary of top manager H L H L
3. Average grade of staff H M H L

(b) Claim on resources
1. Number of staff M H M M
2. Size of similar company H L H L
3. Budget as % of total H M H L

(c) Representation
1. Number of directors H None M None
2. Most influential directors H None M None

(d) Symbols
1. Quality of accommodation H L M M
2. Support services H L H L

External stakeholders

Indicators of power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supplier A*</th>
<th>Customer X*</th>
<th>Shareholder M*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Status H</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Resource dependence L</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Negotiating arrangements M</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Symbols H</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These are examples - the list will clearly vary from one situation to another
H = high M = medium L = low

Figure 10.10: Assessing the relative power of stakeholders (from Johnson and Scholes, 1993:185)

Then it will be possible to ask critical questions in terms of the perspectives of each group. After identifying the key stakeholders, the most important messages of the stakeholders’ needs must be addressed as well. Different stakeholders have different needs. However, all key stakeholders can get consistent and coordinated communication to avoid getting conflicting messages. Using the principles of critical systems thinking within the process of the ICM, each stakeholder will be tracked and profiled in the same way that the companies profile customers, target audiences, or customer segments. The stakeholders-based integration of IC will go through TSI’s three modes of operation and consider four dimensions of the organisations to get a systemic view of stakeholders-based integration. The TSI process in the ICM may indicate that the twelve questions of
CSH in the ‘is’ and ‘ought’ modes can contribute usefully to stakeholders choice. Also the three questioning loops of triple loop learning can be used to ask: ‘Are we doing things right?, ’ ‘Are we doing the right things?, ’ ‘And Is rightness buttressed by mightiness, or vice versa?.’ At this stage, the revised ICM can help to tackle the second issue of IC in the thesis: how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders.

10.9 Evaluation Integration (EI)

The survey revealed a large gap in the use of tracking studies to evaluate relationships with customers and key stakeholders. Many respondents from the interviews and case studies feel that they do not have a complete evaluation system. Knowledge of and use of methods is limited, the necessary organisational processes are lacking, the communication design is inadequate, there is no team culture while departments and sales managers are often rivals. However, this must be enhanced by critical appreciation of the four dimensions of critical research practice: empirical-analytic; historical-hermeneutic; self-reflection; and ideology-critique, as described in Chapter 5. Evaluation methods will be discussed in terms of the 5Ws (What?, Why?, When?, Where and Who?) and 1 H (How?).

1. About ‘What?’

Duncan and Moriarty (1997) identified two main ways to evaluate how well a company is practising IC: output evaluation and process evaluation.

(1) Output evaluation
The output evaluation is external evaluation of IC such as tracking study, awareness study and customer satisfaction surveying. All of these surveys focus on the customers. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) explained a set of relationship metrics that might be used to better conduct the evaluation. Particularly, the feelings of key stakeholders are also considered. They find five metrics which companies use most successfully in the following:

(a) Customer profitability:
A company can identify whether the customers will buy more or demand less through tracking the profitability-to-customer ratio.

(b) LTCV quintile analysis:
A company can provide a more in-depth analysis of sources of revenue through tracking the average profitability in each quintile with their LTCV.

(c) Regency index:
The more often people buy, the more they will buy in the future. A company can identify which customers are becoming more loyal through tracking the average purchase frequency.

(d) Referral index:
The referral index tracks the percentage of new business which is resulting from a customer or stakeholder recommending the brand. A company with a higher referral index indicates that the brand advocates are increasing.

(e) Share of customer:
It is helpful in determining the share trend because one brand goal is to increase the customers’ category purchases.
This suggests that a company cannot only have tracking study or customer satisfaction survey but also must seriously consider these five metrics.

(2) Process evaluation

The process evaluation is an internal evaluation of how a company is carrying out IC such as corporate communication audit, financial audit, and time and motion study. Basically, process evaluation has seldom been used to manage stakeholders relationships. TQM and ISO 9000 standards provide the importance of process management. Both of them ask companies to monitor all their processes and look for ways to improve them. In the case of marketing, the process is used to create and nourish customer relationships and must be evaluated. The ICM which I present in the thesis involves both quantitative and qualitative evaluations. It enables a company to determine to what extent its communication process is integrated, to identify what it must do to be more integrated to all key stakeholders, and to chose the most appropriate methods. This suggests that a company cannot just evaluate the customers’ responses, rather, the responses of key stakeholders must be also included.

Furthermore, Flood (1995a) asked four 'What?' questions to evaluate whether the method used is the most suitable one.

- What did the method do?
- What should the method do?
- What could the method have done?
- What would another method have done?

(Flood, 1995a:228)

These four questions can help to know what to evaluate.
2. About ‘Why?’

Flood (1995a) asks four ‘Why?’ questions to identify whether the method used is the most suitable one.

Why did the method achieve the output?
Why should the method achieve the output?
Why could the method achieve better output?
Why would another method achieve better output?

(Flood, 1995a:228)

These four questions can help to know why to evaluate.

3. About ‘When?’

To measure advertising effectiveness, a variety of pre-tests and post-tests are available to the marketer (Belch and Belch, 1995). To evaluate the integrated communications programme, pre-tests and post-tests are still available. Pre-tests may occur before implementing the IC programme. Any problems can be identified before lots of money is spent in implementing the IC programme. Post-tests can be designed to decide if the IC programme is accomplishing the objectives sought and serve as input for the next period’s situation analysis.

4. About ‘Where?’

Benchmarking is ‘a continuous, systematic process for comparing your own efficiency in terms of productivity, quality and practices with those companies and organisations that represent excellence’ (Karlof and Ostblom, 1995). In order to have a good IC process, Duncan and Moriarty (1997) suggested beginning with benchmarking. They said:
Figure 10.11: The benchmarking process (from Cortada, 1993:222)

Use as benchmarks the marketing and marketing communication plans as well as any other formal memos describing the company marketing and marketing communication objectives.

(Duncan and Moriarty, 1997:270)

Information can be a benchmark if “it provides a way to measure both the process and the produced materials in terms of their contributions to the accomplishment of these objectives.” IBM use a model of benchmarking process (see Figure 10.11) which incorporates the approach taken at both AT&T and at Xerox. This model can help evaluate IC programme to find out how to improve processes by learning from others dealing with the same issues.
5. About ‘Who?’

Here, two questions can be asked: ‘Who evaluates the IC programme?’ and ‘Who is included?’ Basically, evaluation of the IC programme should be done by an outside team because it is not easy for an internal team to evaluate the IC programme objectively. However, the key stakeholders who have direct input into planning, approving, and executing of the IC programme must be included.

6. About ‘How?’

As I mentioned in Chapter 5, A. Gregory’s (1996) system of evaluation methodologies may help to build a systemic evaluation system. The evaluation integration of IC will go through TSI’s three modes of operation and consider four dimensions of the organisation to get a systemic view of evaluation integration. Here, the revised ICM can help to tackle the third issue of IC in the thesis: how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders. The three questions of triple loop learning could ask: ‘What should be evaluated?, ’ ‘How should it be evaluated?,’ And ‘Are these power inequalities which would effect the evaluation?.’ Also: ‘Are we evaluating communication correctly?,’ ‘Are we evaluating the right communication?,’ and ‘Is the communication evaluation effected by power inequalities?.’ Use of the three phases of TSI will bring creative thinking about what to evaluate, choice of what to evaluate, and implementation. These thinking processes will be carried out for all four dimensions of organisation to ensure systemic consideration. Again, the problems of evaluation integration in four key dimensions of organisations should be found and linked to identify relevant methods. A system of evaluation methodologies (A. Gregory, 1996) which includes goal based evaluation, system-resource based evaluation, culture based evaluation, multi-actor based evaluation, and
Stake's responsive evaluation could be useful for evaluation integration. In Chapter 5, how to choose these methods had been presented. Through the three phases of TSI together with the three questions of triple loop learning, the responses of the IC programme can be measured and a system of evaluation can also be built.

10.10 Conclusion

This chapter described and discussed the proposed Integrated Communication Model (ICM) which provides a critical framework to review, integrate and evaluate integrated communications organisation and effectiveness. Consideration of four dimensions of organisation enriches understanding of the whole communications activities and provides a systemic dimension. All of the six aspects of IC are operationalised through a critical review mode, a problem solving mode and a critical reflection mode by using the TSI(2) problem solving cycle of creativity, choice and implementation augmented by creative design of methods and critical appreciation within each of the three loops of triple loop learning. Based on Gregory's critical appreciation, I use both quantitative and qualitative research methods to make the research be not only an theoretical research but also a practical research. This provides a critical systemic basis for decision making about communications methods and effectiveness which makes the ICM different from other models of IC described in Chapter 2 of this thesis. This constitutes a new model of IC to tackle all IC issues in a comprehensive way.
CHAPTER 11: CONCLUSION

11.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 1, the main aim of this thesis is to surface issues affecting the quality of integrated communications and to develop a new Integrated Communications Model (ICM) for assessing the applicability of integrated communications: using a systemic approach. In this concluding chapter, I reconsider the aims which were detailed in the introduction chapter. So, let us refresh our memories by listing the original aims:

1. to provide an appreciation of the context of the emergence and content of integrated communications;
2. to examine some contemporary management approaches such as TQM, systems thinking, and pluralist approaches to see how they could be used to enhance integrated communications in organisations;
3. to design and use research methods to surface and identify the issues of integrated communications in organisations in Taiwan;
4. to analyse the current situation and issues concerning integrated communications in leading Taiwanese companies;
5. to develop an ICM for setting up effective communication; identifying their specific stakeholders; and evaluating the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders in organisations; and
6. to make recommendations for relevant modifications to improve integrated communications success.
This chapter summarises the findings from the research and describes how the aims were fulfilled within this thesis. It highlights the inter-connections between the different aims, which have been addressed in several areas of this thesis. Moreover, the main contribution is discussed and the suggestions for future research are also provided.

11.2 Summary of the Thesis

This thesis has carried out an exploratory study of the identification of aspects of integrated communications and the development of an ICM. The introductory chapter suggested that the separation of the communications function in organisations into marketing and public relations was probably an inevitable consequence of the historical subdivision of tasks in the development of bureaucratic organisations. Therefore there is no real reason why the communications should be divided. In fact although there is a widespread current agreement in the literature that integrating the communication responsibilities is very important in order to make organisations more able to compete successfully particularly in the global economy, the focus has been on organisation processes that can effectively integrate the communication disciplines. However this ignores systemic awareness considerations, the informal organisation, the possibility of conflicts between groups with different goals, the developmental needs of the human beings, and the evaluation of the various aspects of IC. Therefore, this thesis helps to fill the gap in the literature by illustrating the development of a methodology designed to identify the issues of the IC approach and by developing an ICM which can tackle and evaluate the issues for integrated communications success.
Part I: Literature Review

My first aim was to provide an appreciation of the context of the emergence and content of integrated communications. This was achieved in Chapter 2 which looked at the published literature on communication and the roles of marketing and public relations communications in organisations. It was established that there was no distinct boundary between the activities of the two disciplines because they shared many common features and overlapping roles. Two schools of thought regarding role of public relations whether it is separate or part of the promotional mix were discussed. Moreover, relationship marketing theory was also mentioned where IC approach would add much value. Several particular reasons were put forward to explain why the two departments should be combined- such as mass market splinter, the technological and information explosion, increasing competition, advertising under attack, and expanding media opportunities- to produce one integrated communications function. This was supported by presenting and examining several of the prominent models which have been proposed for IC by workers in the field. This led to the identification of six necessary aspects which an effective model of IC should contain. I put forward these six aspects, which are awareness integration, unified image, database integration, customer-based integration, stakeholders-based integration, and evaluation integration, as the basis of the model for IC.

However, it was noted that some researchers had used TQM to improve IC. Consequently, in Chapter 3, the meaning of quality and TQM in relation to integrated communications were examined to see what they could offer IC. It was concluded that incorporation of TQM techniques could improve IC but that a more complete and better
understanding of how to apply TQM was needed. This would involve implementing TQM as part of a systems approach to avoid suboptimisation.

This led to an examination of systems thinking in Chapter 4 to see how this could be used to help and improve IC. Systems thinking was recognised to be potentially particularly important for IC because of the issues of increasing global competition and the need to widen the focus of IC to involve the full ranges of stakeholders including employees in line with societal developments. Furthermore the modern realisation that a diverse range of communications involving both the formal and informal communications must be integrated to be successful in the rapidly evolving global economic arena suggested that only a systemic approach to IC could bring success. In Chapter 4, firstly the development of systems thinking was explored including the reasons underlying the categorisation of the systems approaches into hard, soft, emancipatory and critical. This required examining several of the systems approaches in detail to ascertain their potential for improving IC. It was concluded that systems thinking had a lot to offer IC in terms of the hard systems approaches to enhance marketing and PR processes efficiency, the VSM to improve communication design and intelligence, the soft systems approaches to generate better intersubjective understanding and insights into stakeholder requirements etc, the emancipatory system approaches to ask "What is?" and "What ought to be?" boundary judgements, and CST to make complementary use of all the methods in the most appropriate ways. In particular CST was recognised to offer several essential factors for a model of IC to be successful in the modern world. It could examine the assumptions underlying designs, understand the strengths and weaknesses of different systems approaches, consider the pressures affecting methodology choice, and the consequences of methodology use.
Furthermore CST would respect all positions equally, and includes a commitment to develop people in the communications function.

Consequently the development of six particular systemic approaches was examined in detail in Chapter 5. It was shown that the need for pluralism in management thinking arose from the limited applicability of individual ‘systems’ approaches. Only by recognising and respecting the strengths and weaknesses of all methodologies, and developing all methodologies in parallel, could an integrated IC function establish its credibility and utility. It was concluded that the pluralist methods had a number of virtues which were useful for IC, because IC required the combining of two disciplines, marketing and PR, and the strengths and weaknesses of many methods and procedures would need to be understood, respected and used appropriately. In particular the critical pluralist methods could be used to overcome the conflictual goals between the different groups, to develop the human beings fairly in the integrated department, and to provide a system of evaluation. In practice, a combined IC function could best be improved if viewed in terms of the four dimensions of organisation: process, structure, culture, and politics. The three questioning loops of triple loop learning would be useful for questioning the efficiency and effectiveness of methods, communications, stakeholder links, databases, and for surfacing issues and raising understanding both formally and informally. Furthermore the potential for mixing methods for greater flexibility and effectiveness was recognised. Thus, Chapters 3, 4 and 5 satisfied the second aim of the thesis which was to examine some contemporary management approaches such as TQM, systems thinking, and other pluralist approaches to see how they could be used to enhance integrated communications in organisations.
Part II: Research Methodology and Data Analysis

In Chapter 6, the design of the research method involving questionnaire design and survey, interviews and case studies of companies in Taiwan was described and the data was presented and analysed in Chapter 7 and 8.

My third aim was to design and use research methods to surface and identify the issues of integrated communications in organisations in Taiwan. A structured questionnaire was developed and sent to 80 companies in Taiwan. 40 responses were collected and 38 responses were usable. Next, interviews were conducted to obtain a greater understanding of the present situation of IC in five companies in Taiwan. Through the interviews, the situation in these five companies were discussed and the issues of IC were also identified. Moreover, three companies were selected for more detailed case studies. The qualitative research interview was designed to validate the research findings. This answered the fourth aim of this thesis which was to analyse the current situation and issues concerning integrated communications in leading Taiwanese companies.

Part III: The Revised Model of Integrated Communications

My fifth aim was to develop an ICM for setting up effective communications; identifying their specific stakeholders; and evaluating the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders in organisations. In addition to identifying the issues of IC, this thesis went a step further by developing an ICM which can be used to tackle these issues. The integration of six aspects of IC, into the Integrated Communications Model (ICM) to help to review, operationise and evaluate the IC approach, was proposed. These were explored in relation to the issues of IC and
gave suggestions of suitable methods. The critical systemic character of this ICM makes it suitable for use by any organisation wishing to produce an IC function which will be effective in the modern global competitive marketplace. This met the sixth aim of this thesis which was to make recommendations for relevant modifications to improve integrated communications success.

11.3 Main Contribution

Having re-examined the original aims of the thesis, I go on to look at several contributions of this thesis.

1. Identification of IC Aspects

The first contribution of the thesis is the identification of IC aspects. The investigation of the relationships between these aspects and IC adds to our understanding of the IC approach. This knowledge can help managers in taking appropriate action to make the best use of the IC approach. Particularly, this study identified awareness integration and evaluation integration to make the IC approach more complete.

2. Use of ‘Rolling Programme’

Based on the results of the questionnaire, twenty-six percent of respondents have not developed a good process to evaluate relationships with key stakeholders. When the interviews and case studies were conducted, some respondents just felt that they had a good process. They had not a formal process to identify their stakeholders. Midgley and Milne’s (1995) rolling programme can help to tackle this issue. The rolling programme is used to identify key stakeholders in the ICM. Furthermore, the relationships between
companies and their stakeholders can be evaluated through questionnaires and interviews.

3. Use of ‘System of Evaluation Methodologies’

The results from the questionnaires, interviews and case studies show that many organisations do not have a good evaluation system. The ICM can bring in A. Gregory’s system of evaluation methodologies to help to tackle this issue. The organisations can build a systemic evaluation system to help to set up effective communication.

4. Development of the Integrated Communications Model (ICM)

This thesis presents a new ICM to tackle the issues of integrated communications: how to help organisations to set up effective communications; how to help organisations to identify their specific stakeholders; and how to help organisations to evaluate the effectiveness of their communications with their specific stakeholders.

5. Development of a Systemic Approach of IC

This thesis adds a systemic approach to IC which represents a major contribution to theory and practice for four main reasons: (1) by providing a more systemic and comprehensive understanding of integrated communications than present models, (2) by offering a means of critically reviewing and selecting appropriate methods for all aspects, (3) by enabling the critical evaluation of the impact of aspects of integrated communications continuously, (4) by presenting a systemic approach of IC for explaining and heightening integrated communications success.
In particular, the systemic approach to IC can be developed through pluralist approaches in systems thinking. Thus systems approaches can provide a comprehensive way to overcome the weaknesses of TQM, and contribute to IC design, culture and politics dimensions in order to help the organisation to set up effective communication.

11.4 Future Research

There are several new insights which I had to resist incorporating into this research process. I can think of some issues left unexplored that may lead to future research in the following.

1. Larger sample size

The sample size in the thesis was enough for identifying aspects of IC and finding issues of IC in Taiwan. However, a larger sample size may show more accurately the impact of each aspect on IC.

2. The effects of success on the IC aspects

In the thesis, it was found that the aspects of IC did have an impact on further practice of the IC approach. Consequently, the size of that impact is not clear. Further research on this issue could produce wider insights into our understanding of IC approach.

3. ICM and ISO 9000

Many people attracted to quality auditing have high technical skills and knowledge but poor communication skills. The ICM can help to improve the communication quality for companies to get ISO 9000 standard.
11.5 Final Comment

It is time to draw the story to a close. To sum up, this is an exploratory research about the new IC approach. Through the literature review, the collected questionnaire data, the interview and the case studies, aspects and issues of IC have been identified. Moreover, a new Integrated Communications Model (ICM) has been developed to help the success of the IC approach. I still remember the excitement as one after another of the ideas about the construct of the ICM held up to the topics of the thesis, it is time to introduce this new IC approach to organisations.
Appendix 1: Integrated marketing mini-audit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTEGRATED MARKETING MINI-AUDIT</th>
<th>NEVER</th>
<th>ALWAYS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORGANIZATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. In our company, the process of managing brand/company reputation and building stakeholder relationships is a cross-functional responsibility which includes departments besides marketing, such as production, operations, finance, human resources, etc.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The people managing our communication programs have a good understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of all major marketing communication tools, such as direct response, PR, sales promotion advertising, and packaging.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. We do a good job of internal marketing, informing all areas of the organization about our objectives and marketing programs.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Our major communication agencies have at least monthly contact with each other regarding our communication programs and activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERACTIVITY</td>
<td>NEVER</td>
<td>ALWAYS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Our media plan is a strategic balance between mass media and one-to-one media.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Special programs are in place to facilitate customer inquiries and complaints.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. In our databases we capture customer inquiries, complaints, compliments, offers, and sales behavior (e.g., trial, repeat, frequency of purchase).</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Our customer databases are easily accessible (internally) and user friendly.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MISSION MARKETING</td>
<td>NEVER</td>
<td>ALWAYS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Our organization's mission is a key consideration in our communication planning.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Our mission provides an additional reason for customers and other key stakeholders to believe our messages and support our company.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Our corporate philanthropic efforts are concentrated in one specific area or program.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRATEGIC CONSISTENCY</td>
<td>NEVER</td>
<td>ALWAYS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. We periodically review all our planned messages (e.g., advertising, sales promotion, PR, packaging, direct marketing, events) to determine the level of strategic positioning consistency.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Our current big idea is conceptually broad enough to allow for compatible subcampaigns aimed at all key stakeholder groups.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. We think carefully about the messages being sent by our pricing, distribution, product performance, service operations, and others beyond the control of the company.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLANNING AND EVALUATING</td>
<td>NEVER</td>
<td>ALWAYS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. A SWOT analysis is used to determine the strengths and opportunities we can leverage, and the weaknesses and threats we need to address, in our marketing communication planning.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. We use a zero-based approach in marketing communication planning.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. When doing annual marketing communication planning, first priority is given to fully utilizing intrinsic brand contact points before investing in creating new brand contact points.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Our company uses some type of tracking study to evaluate the strength of our relationships with customers and other key stakeholder groups.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Our marketing strategies maximize the unique strengths of the various marketing communications tools.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The overall objective of our marketing communication program is to create and nourish profitable relationships with customers and other stakeholders by strategically controlling or influencing all messages sent to these groups and encouraging purposeful dialogue with them.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Score 282
Appendix 2: Two letters

Dear xxx:

I am writing to ask you to participate in an interview study sponsored by National Cheng-Kung University (NCKU) in Taiwan and University of Hull in UK. Every year NCKU encourage graduate students to conduct innovative public relations research. Yi-Chen Lin is carrying out a doctoral dissertation examining cooperation between public relations and marketing communications at the organisations in Taiwan. Your organisation is one of five that has been selected to investigate the scope and significance of communications capability. I wish to express our gratitude for your assistance.

Sincerely,

C. She

Professor

Department of Industrial Management and Sciences

NCKU
1st June 1998

To whom it may concern

Re: Mrs Lin Yi-Chen

Mrs Lin is a post-graduate student who is studying in the School of Management at Hull University where I am her supervisor. This letter is to introduce her to you and to ask for your assistance with her research towards her PhD. Mrs Lin will be contacting a number of organisations in Taiwan in the next few months to ask for help in completing a questionnaire and in participating in interviews. Any help that you could give to Mrs Lin would be of vital importance in the completion of her studies.

Should you have any queries about this letter, please do not hesitate to contact me on (+44)-1482-465960 or e-mail: w.j.gregory@mgt.hull.ac.uk.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. W.J. Gregory

Director of Postgraduate Studies

Department of Management Systems and Sciences

University of Hull
Appendix 3: The questionnaire

請盡可能正確的回答以下問題，並圈選適合的答案。
Please answer all questions as accurately as possible by circling the number on the scales as appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>認知的整合 (AWARENESS INTEGRATION)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 本公司對於企業內、外環境及各部門因素的改變具有深刻的認知</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
<td>Don't</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation forces the assessment of changes in the business, social, technological, political, and cultural environments.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 2. 本公司對於與公司發展有關的各部門及群體 (如政府、新聞媒體、相關社團、以及企業內部各部門) 皆具有強烈的認識。 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| Our organisation has strong awareness of integrated communications approach. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| 3. 本公司負責整合及溝通功能的主管對於開發溝通策略的工具仔細評估其優缺點，且有深入的了解。 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| The people managing our communication programmes have a good understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of all major methods in developing communication strategy. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| 4. 本公司的溝通規劃中，皆採用優劣勢分析法 (SWOT) 來評估決定優勢、劣勢、機會和威脅的所在。 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| A SWOT analysis is used to determine the strengths and opportunities we can leverage, and the weaknesses and threats we need to address, in our communication planning. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>形象整合 (UNIFIED IMAGE)</th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. 本公司全體員工對於維繫整體公司商標及形象，溝通良好且達成共識</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
<td>Don't</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation communicates a coherent brand/corporate image very well.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 6. 本公司的組織目標是在做溝通規劃時的主要考量 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| Our organisation mission is a key consideration in our communication planning. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| 7. 本公司的組織目標能提供消費者及主要內、外在利害關係群體對本公司的信任與支持。 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| Our mission provides an additional reason for customers and other key stakeholders to believe our messages and support our organisation. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| 8. 本公司在告知各單位有關組織目標和行銷專案方面，溝通相當良好 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| We do a good job of internal marketing, informing all areas of the organisation about our mission and marketing programmes. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>資料庫整合 (DATABASE INTEGRATION)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. 本公司有採用特別的專案或方式來消除消費者的質疑及理怨</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
<td>Don't</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special programmes are in place to facilitate customer inquiries and complaints.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 10. 本公司所建立的顧客資料庫中，已收集消費者的質疑、理怨、稱讚、建議、及消費者行為 (如貨品的試用、重覆使用和使用频率等)等資訊 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| In our databases we capture customer inquiries, complaints, compliments, offers, and sales behaviour (e.g., trial, repeat, frequency of purchase). | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| 11. 本公司的消費者資料庫非常容易及方便使用 | Strongly | Don't | Agree | Agree | Strongly |
| Our customer databases are easily accessible and use friendly. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
消費者整合(CUSTOMER-BASED INTEGRATION)

12. 本公司能確實掌握所有的商標接觸點並得到良好回應
Our organisation recognises and takes advantage of all its brand contact points.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. 本公司對於接觸點有詳細的陳述並了解其相互影響的特性
Our organisation has developed a comprehensive contact point list and understands the nature of the interaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

14. 本公司能很慎重並且充分地掌握經由訂價、通路、產品展示、服務作業等所傳達的訊息
We think carefully about the messages being sent by our pricing, distribution, product performance, service operations, and others beyond the control of the organisation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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</table>

利害關係群體整合(STAKEHOLDERS-BASED INTEGRATION)

15. 本公司已採用有效的程序來辨識與公司發展有關的主要內，外在利害關係群體
Our organisation has developed a good process for identifying key stakeholders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

16. 本公司與主要的內，外在利害關係群體溝通相當良好
Our organisation communicates its key messages to priority stakeholders very well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. 貴公司對於管理組織信譽以及與內，外在利害關係群體建立良好關係認為是公共關係部門的責任，與其它部門無關
In our organisation, the process of managing brand/organisation reputation and building stakeholder relationships is only the responsibility of the public relations department.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

評估整合(EVALUATION INTEGRATION)

18. 本公司已建立一套評估系統來評估與消費者和主要利害關係群體之間的關係
Our organisation uses some type of tracking study to evaluate the strength of our relationships with customers and key stakeholders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. 本公司用來發展溝通策略的方法是最適合的方法
In our organisation, the method used in evaluating communication strategy is the most suitable one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
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20. 本公司溝通策略的執行成果堪稱良好
In our organisation, the output of the method for evaluating communication strategy is appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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謝謝您提供以上資訊，我們將會作以下第二階段的研究，不知您是否有意願參與未來的研究，此研究將包含45分鐘的面談，討論有關您組織的溝通品質，假如您不願意參與第二階段的研究，請直接將問卷寄回，假如您願意參與第二階段的研究，請填妥以下資料與問卷一併寄回。
(Thank you for providing the valuable information above. We intend to conduct a second phase of research. Would you be prepared to participate in this further survey? It would involve a forty-five minutes interview aimed at ascertaining more detailed information about the quality of communication in your organisation. If you are willing to be a part of this second phase of research, please give the following information.)

我有意願參與第二階段的研究 (I am willing to participate in the second phase of this research.)

姓名(NAME):
職稱(TITLE):
部門(FUNCTION):
組織(ORGANISATION):
Appendix 4: Interview guide

1. 請您介紹您的部門在貴公司的角色和您在部門中工作的性質
   Please tell me about the role of your department and your personal job function.
2. 貴公司目前的溝通策略為何？優缺點為何？應如何改善？
   What is the current communication strategy of your organisation? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the current communication strategy?

3. 貴公司各部門是否對於與公司發展有關的各部門及群體（例如政府各有關部門、新聞媒體、相關社團、以及企業內部各部門）皆具有須作有效整合及溝通的認知？試問如何加強此一認知？
   How well does your organisation have the awareness of integrated communications approach? How can it be improved?

4. 貴公司那些方面的溝通不盡完美且可以有所改善？（一對一溝通？團隊間的溝通？部門間的溝通？與外在利益關係群體的溝通？）
   What communication level is not good enough and can be improved? One-on-one-level? Team-level? Company level? Or community-level? How is it defective? How might it be improved?

5. 那些是重要的因素影響了貴公司的溝通品質？
   (1) 組織過程方面（如溝通技術和方法）
   (2) 組織架構方面（如組織系統和規則）
   (3) 組織文化方面（如員工的信仰和價值觀）
   (4) 組織政治方面（如領導人員的特質和控制的方式）
   試問這些因素如何影響溝通品質？應如何改善？
   What are the important factors which influence the communications quality in your organisation? Organisational process? Organisational structure? Organisational culture? Organisational politics? How do these factors influence the communications quality? How can they be improved?

6. 貴公司使用何種評估系統來評估與消費者和主要利益關係群體之間的關係？優缺點為何？應如何改善？
   What type of tracking study is used to evaluate the communication quality between your organisation and customers or other stakeholders? What are the strengths and weaknesses? How can it be improved?

7. 對於整合內外在利益關係群體間的溝通，您是否有其他寶貴的經驗和建議可提供本研究參考？
   What processes for coordinating and integrating the various communications functions at your organisation that we have not mentioned, do you find important?
Appendix 5: Top 50 manufacturing companies and Top 30 service companies in Taiwan

**Top 50 manufacturing companies**

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<th>RANK</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>1996</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>COMPANY</th>
<th>SALES (NTS100 MILLION)</th>
<th>SALES GROWTH RATE (1996-1997) %</th>
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## Top 30 Service Companies

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REFERENCES


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